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# 1 Tapping into non-English-language science for the conservation of global biodiversity

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- 3 Short title: Non-English-language science for global biodiversity conservation
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#### 132 Abstract

133 The widely held assumption that any important scientific information would be available in 134 English underlies the underuse of non-English-language science across disciplines. However, 135 non-English-language science is expected to bring unique and valuable scientific information, 136 especially in disciplines where the evidence is patchy, and for emergent issues where 137 synthesising available evidence is an urgent challenge. Yet such contribution of 138 non-English-language science to scientific communities and the application of science is 139 rarely quantified. Here we show that non-English-language studies provide crucial evidence 140 for informing global biodiversity conservation. By screening 419,680 peer-reviewed papers 141 in 16 languages, we identified 1,234 non-English-language studies providing evidence on the 142 effectiveness of biodiversity conservation interventions, compared to 4,412 English-language 143 studies identified with the same criteria. Relevant non-English-language studies are being 144 published at an increasing rate, and can expand the geographical (by 12-25%) and taxonomic 145 (by 5-32%) coverage of English-language evidence, especially in biodiverse regions, albeit 146 often based on less robust study designs. Our results show that synthesising 147 non-English-language studies is key to overcoming the widespread lack of local, 148 context-dependent evidence and facilitating evidence-based conservation globally. We urge 149 wider disciplines to rigorously reassess the untapped potential of non-English-language 150 science in informing decisions to address other global challenges. 151

## 152 Introduction

History demonstrates that important scientific information is published not just in English but
also other languages. The structure of the Nobel Prize-winning antimalarial drug was first
published in Chinese [1]. An important rule regarding biodiversity was founded on evidence
published in Spanish [2]. Many of the earliest papers on COVID-19 were written, again, in
Chinese [3]. Yet the contribution of such non-English-language science to scientific
communities, and the broader society, is rarely quantified.

We test this untapped potential of non-English-language science through an assessment of
non-English-language studies' contribution to evidence synthesis—the process of compiling

and summarising scientific information from a range of sources. Evidence synthesis plays a

162 major role in informing decisions for tackling global challenges in fields such as healthcare [4],

163 international development [5], and biodiversity conservation [6]. To date

non-English-language studies have largely been ignored in evidence synthesis [7-9]. The

165 consequences of this common practice are, however, rarely investigated in most disciplines

apart from healthcare. And even there, the focus has almost exclusively been on how including

non-English-language studies might change the statistical results of meta-analyses [10, 11]

168 (see Supplementary Text for a review of earlier relevant studies). However,

169 non-English-language studies may also enhance the synthesis of evidence with specific types

170 of scientific information that is not available in English-language studies, especially in

171 disciplines dealing with more geographically and taxonomically diverse targets and

172 phenomena than healthcare [12].

173 Synthesising non-English-language studies could be an effective avenue for reducing the 174 existing, severe gaps in the geographical and taxonomic coverage of available scientific 175 evidence for biodiversity conservation [13, 14]. Compiling evidence on what does or does not 176 work in biodiversity conservation, and informing decisions with robust scientific evidence is 177 critical to halting the ongoing biodiversity crisis [6]. As local and context-dependent evidence 178 is crucially required for conservation-related decision making [15], the geographical and 179 taxonomic gaps in evidence, especially in biodiverse regions, pose a major challenge to our 180 scientific understanding of the biodiversity crisis and the implementation of evidence-based 181 conservation globally. Non-English-language studies could be particularly important in 182 biodiversity conservation for the following reasons. First, over one-third of scientific 183 documents on biodiversity conservation are published in languages other than English [16]. 184 Second, gaps in globally compiled English-language evidence are often found in areas where 185 English is not widely spoken [13]. Third, important evidence in biodiversity conservation is 186 routinely generated by local practitioners, who often prefer publishing their work in their first 187 language, which for many is not English [16].

Here we adopted the discipline-wide literature search method [17] to screen 419,680peer-reviewed papers in 326 journals, published in 16 languages (Data S1), to identify

190 non-English-language studies testing the effectiveness of interventions in biodiversity 191 conservation (see Materials and Methods). Combining this dataset with English-language 192 studies identified with the same criteria, stored in the Conservation Evidence database [17], 193 enabled us to assess the contribution of non-English-language studies to evidence synthesis 194 through the testing of the following common perceptions that are rarely corroborated together: 195 (i) the amount of relevant scientific evidence that is available only in non-English languages is 196 negligible [18], (ii) the number of relevant studies being published in non-English languages 197 has been decreasing over time [19], (iii) the quality of non-English-language studies (measured 198 using the study designs adopted) is lower than that of English-language studies [7], and (iv) 199 evidence published in English represents a random subset of evidence published across all 200 languages [12].

201

## 202 **Results**

203 Our search elicited a total of 1,234 eligible non-English-language studies (including 53 studies 204 on amphibians, 247 on birds, and 161 on mammals, which were used for a detailed 205 species-level comparison with English-language studies) testing the effectiveness of 206 conservation interventions, published in 16 languages (Data S2 and S3). This adds a 207 considerable amount of scientific evidence for biodiversity conservation to the Conservation 208 Evidence database, which now stores 4,412 English-language studies (including 284 studies on 209 amphibians, 1,115 on birds, and 1,154 on mammals). The proportion of eligible studies in each 210 journal varied among languages, with Japanese (the highest proportion of eligible studies in a 211 journal was 26.7%), Hungarian (15.3%), French (12.9%), and German (9.1%) showing 212 particularly high proportions (largely < 5% of the studies screened were eligible in journals of 213 other languages) (Fig. S1). In all languages, except Hungarian, many journals searched had 214 almost no eligible studies, showing that our search had covered and gone beyond most of the 215 relevant journals (see Limitations in Materials and Methods for more details).

The yearly number of eligible non-English-language studies published in each journal has increased significantly over time, especially since 2000, in six out of the 12 languages covered, with Portuguese and Russian showing a particularly rapid increase, while traditional Chinese

also showed a marginally significant increase (Fig. 1). The other five languages did not show a
significant change in the number of eligible studies over time. This result thus refutes the
common perception that the number of non-English-language studies providing evidence is
declining. The recent increase in eligible studies indicates that performing searches only on
volumes from the most recent ten years in some long-running journals had minimal impact.

224 Our results largely support one of the common perceptions—that non-English-language 225 studies tend to be based on less robust study designs. Studies in ten out of the 16 languages we 226 searched were significantly more likely to adopt less robust designs, compared to 227 English-language studies, when controlling for the effect of study taxa and countries where 228 English-language studies were conducted (Fig. 2 and Table S1). Of the other six languages 229 showing no significant difference in designs from English-language studies (Persian, 230 Portuguese, Spanish, traditional Chinese, Turkish, and Ukrainian), only Portuguese and 231 Spanish had reasonable sample sizes (i.e., ten or more studies in each taxonomic group), 232 indicating that designs adopted in studies in those two languages were comparable to those in 233 English-language studies.

234 There was a clear bias in study locations between languages. English-language studies were conducted in a total of 952 of the  $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$  grid cells and non-English-language studies in 353 235 236 grid cells, 238 of which had no English-language studies (those grid cells shown in black in Fig. 237 3). Therefore, non-English-language studies expanded the geographical coverage of 238 English-language studies by 25%. More non-English-language studies tended to be found in 239 grid cells with fewer English-language studies, especially in East/Central/Western Asia, Russia, 240 northern Africa and Latin America (Fig. 3 and Fig. S2), but the relationship was not significant 241 when controlling for spatial autocorrelation (posterior median slope in a conditional 242 autoregressive model: -0.012, 95% credible interval (CI): -0.032 - 0.005; see an inset in Fig. 3). 243 Non-English-language studies expanded the geographical coverage based on English-language 244 studies by 12% for amphibians (Fig. S3), 16% for birds (Fig. S4), and 12% for mammals (Fig. 245 S5). In all three taxa, significantly more non-English-language studies were found in grid cells 246 with fewer English-language studies (amphibians: slope: -0.51, 95% CI: -0.94 – -0.17; birds: 247 slope: -0.23, 95% CI: -0.44 - -0.073; mammals: slope: -0.48, 95% CI: -0.74 - -0.25; also see

248 insets in figs. S3-5).

249	The 1,234 non-English-language studies together provided evidence on the effectiveness of
250	conservation interventions for a total of 1,954 unique species recognised by the International
251	Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (including 40 amphibian, 564 bird, and 194
252	mammal species). Although species with more studies in non-English languages also tended to
253	have more studies in English for all three taxa (generalised linear mixed models for
254	amphibians: slope = 0.12, z = 7.93, p < 0.001; birds: slope = 0.060, z = 13.18, p < 0.001;
255	mammals: slope = 0.026, $z = 5.65$ , $p < 0.001$ ; also see insets in Fig. 4), non-English-language
256	studies provided scientific evidence on the effectiveness of conservation interventions for an
257	additional nine amphibian, 217 bird, and 64 mammal species that were not covered by
258	English-language studies (Fig. 4), meaning 5%, 32%, and 9% increases in the evidence
259	coverage of amphibian, bird, and mammal species, respectively. Similarly,
260	non-English-language studies increased the evidence coverage of threatened species (Critically
261	Endangered, Endangered and Vulnerable species classified in the IUCN Red List of
262	Threatened Species) by 23% for birds and 3% for mammals. All threatened amphibian species
263	covered by non-English-language studies were also studied in English-language studies (Fig.
264	S6). Threatened species with more studies in non-English languages had fewer studies in
265	English for birds (slope = -0.34, $z = -2.35$ , $p = 0.019$ ) but not for mammals (slope = 0.030, $z = -2.35$ , $p = -2.35$ ,
266	0.923, p = 0.356; also see insets in Figure S6. Threatened amphibians could not be modelled as
267	only two species were covered by non-English-language studies).
268	

## 269 **Discussion**

Our analyses demonstrate that three out of the four common perceptions on the role of non-English-language scientific knowledge are not supported by evidence. We show that, instead, (i) a considerable amount of scientific evidence underpinning effective conservation is available in non-English languages (over 1,000 studies found in our searches), (ii) the number of published studies providing such evidence has been increasing in many languages, and (iii) non-English-language studies can provide evidence that is relevant to species (including threatened species) and locations (including highly biodiverse regions, such as Latin America)

277 for which little or no English-language evidence is available. These results, based on a global 278 empirical analysis of 5,646 studies in 17 languages, corroborate earlier arguments on the 279 potential importance of non-English-language scientific knowledge in evidence-based 280 biodiversity conservation [16]. A poor availability of species- and location-specific evidence, 281 especially in countries where English is not widely spoken, has been recognised as a major 282 impediment to evidence-based conservation [20], as scientific knowledge is often used only if 283 it is relevant to the specific context of policies and practices [15, 21]. Meanwhile, a systematic 284 bias in study characteristics, such as species and ecosystems studied, has been found between 285 English- and Japanese-language studies in ecology [12]. Our study attests to the 286 between-language bias in study characteristics, namely study species and locations, at the 287 global scale, showing that incorporating non-English-language studies in evidence syntheses is 288 an effective approach to rectifying biases and filling gaps in the availability of evidence over 289 space and species. Examples of such non-English-language evidence on threatened species 290 include a Spanish-language study testing the use of guardian dogs to alleviate conflicts 291 between low-income livestock farmers in northern Patagonia and carnivores including 292 endangered Andean mountain cats (Leopardus jacobita) [22], and a Japanese-language study 293 reporting the effectiveness of relocation for endangered Blakiston's fish owls (Bubo blakistoni) 294 [23].

295 The other perception, that non-English-language studies tend to adopt less robust designs, 296 seems to be supported by our results, although a reasonable number of non-English-language 297 studies with robust designs also exist, especially in Portuguese (25 studies with Randomised 298 Controlled Trial) and Spanish (13 studies with Before-After-Control-Impact and three with 299 Randomised Controlled Trial). Scientific evidence presented in non-English-language studies 300 could thus be lower in quality, and suffer from more serious biases, on average, compared to 301 that provided by English-language studies [24]. This difference in evidence quality between 302 English-language and non-English language studies is likely to create a trade-off in 303 evidence-poor regions, between the availability of context-specific evidence and the quality of 304 evidence; for some species and locations, the only available evidence might be found in 305 non-English-language studies based on less robust designs [25]. Nevertheless, blindly

306 discarding such lower-quality, yet relevant, studies—a common practice in conventional 307 evidence syntheses—could unnecessarily delay, misinform, or hinder evidence-based decision 308 making, especially in disciplines, such as conservation, where robust evidence bases are patchy 309 [14], and for emergent issues, such as pandemics, where making the best use of available 310 evidence is an urgent challenge [26, 27]. A promising approach here is the model-based 311 synthesis of evidence with varying qualities and degrees of relevance to a specific context [24], 312 where non-English-language studies are expected to play a crucial role as an important source 313 of highly context-specific evidence.

314 We should note, however, that even searching for, and including, non-English-language 315 studies would not fully address the large evidence gaps in some regions faced with the most 316 pressing issues including biodiversity loss, such as Southeast Asia, tropical Africa and Latin 317 America. Therefore, the use of existing non-English-language science is not a panacea. 318 Generating more local evidence, based on robust study designs, and publishing it in any 319 language should be further encouraged and supported globally, but especially in those 320 evidence-poor regions, for example, through the distribution of free teaching materials to 321 facilitate the testing of conservation interventions [28] (also see *Limitations* in Materials and 322 Methods for other limitations).

323 This study showcases the continued vital role of non-English-language studies in providing 324 evidence for tackling the ongoing biodiversity crisis, given the increasing number of relevant 325 studies being published in many non-English languages. However, the degree of importance of 326 such evidence will vary depending on the topic and discipline of focus. Relatively little 327 evidence may be available in non-English languages for a highly specific purpose—for 328 example for understanding the effectiveness of a single intervention for a specific 329 species—while much evidence may be available for more descriptive purposes, such as for 330 understanding species occurrence. However, for global-scale evidence syntheses with a broad 331 scope, such as those conducted by the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on 332 Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services, incorporating non-English-language scientific 333 knowledge should become the norm. Generating new scientific knowledge through individual 334 studies requires sizable financial investment, as well as associated time costs [29]. Therefore,

335 making better use of existing knowledge that has yet to be fully utilised due to the language of 336 publication should be a cost- and time-efficient approach for filling gaps and rectifying biases 337 in the evidence base for tackling urgent global challenges. In 1922 the philosopher Ludwig 338 Wittgenstein stated "Die Grenzen meiner Sprache bedeuten die Grenzen meiner Welt" (the 339 limits of my language mean the limits of my world) [30]. Hundred years on, his quote still 340 seems applicable to science today. Scientific communities should stretch the limits of our 341 shared knowledge, and its benefits, by uncovering knowledge that has long been accumulating 342 and continues to be produced in languages other than English.

343

## 344 Materials and Methods

## 345 Searches for non-English-language studies on the effectiveness of conservation

## 346 interventions

## 347 *Objective of the searches*

348 The searches aimed to identify peer-reviewed scientific studies (a study is defined as a paper 349 published in a peer-reviewed journal) written in a language other than English that tested the 350 effectiveness of one or more conservation interventions for any species group or habitat. Our 351 search strategy was based on the protocol for discipline-wide literature searching, established 352 and adopted for the development of the Conservation Evidence database [17] and published 353 elsewhere [31]. Discipline-wide literature searching involves first identifying literature sources 354 (peer-reviewed academic journals in our case) that are likely to contain relevant information, 355 and manually scanning titles and abstracts (or summaries) of every document in those sources. 356 We adopted discipline-wide literature searching, rather than systematic mapping/reviewing, as 357 the former approach does not depend on search term choice, and can identify novel 358 conservation interventions that would not necessarily have been identified on the basis of 359 predetermined criteria for study inclusion [32]. For more details on the Conservation Evidence 360 database, see Section English-language studies on the effectiveness of conservation 361 interventions. Although non-English-language grey literature (e.g., reports, theses, etc.) could 362 also play an important role in environmental evidence syntheses [33], our searches focused 363 only on studies published in peer-reviewed journals, so as to enable a comparison between 364 eligible non-English-language studies and peer-reviewed English-language studies stored in

the Conservation Evidence database.

## 366 *Selecting languages*

We originally aimed to cover the top 15 non-English languages on the basis of the number of conservation-related publications, provided in Table S1 of [16]. However, we could not find native speakers of Swedish and Dutch who were willing to collaborate, and thus both languages were excluded from our searches. Instead, we were able to cover three additional languages (Arabic, Hungarian, and Ukrainian). In total, our searches covered 16 languages (Table S2).

373 Searchers

Our searches were conducted by a total of 38 native speakers of the 16 languages covered (hereafter referred to as searchers). The number of searchers for each language ranged from one to six (see Table S2 for more detail). We used a range of approaches (e.g., known networks, social media, e-mail lists, and the website of the translatE project:

https://translatesciences.com/) to recruit our searchers. The searchers were required to be at
least undertaking or have a bachelor's degree, but often had higher research (i.e., master's or
doctorate) degrees, in a relevant discipline (e.g., ecology, biodiversity conservation, etc.), to
ensure that they could fully understand the relevant studies and assess their eligibility during
screening.

383 Before starting the searches, every searcher was trained through the following four steps. 384 First, searchers were directed to read through a guidance document detailing the objectives and 385 processes of the searches. Second, searchers were also requested to read and understand the full 386 criteria for selecting eligible studies during the searches, which were described in detail, 387 together with examples of 14 eligible and five non-eligible English-language studies, each with 388 a full explanation on why it was or was not eligible. Third, searchers were advised to visit the 389 Conservation Evidence website, particularly the page providing training resources 390 (https://www.conservationevidence.com/content/page/89), and familiarise themselves with 391 eligible English-language studies that tested the effectiveness of conservation interventions 392 (listed at: https://www.conservationevidence.com/data/studies). Finally, all searchers were

asked to conduct a test study screening, where they were requested to read the metadata

- (publication year, journal, volume, issue, authors, title, and abstract) of 51 English-language
- papers (29 from volume 200 (2016) of Biological Conservation, and 22 from volume 30 (2016)
- of Conservation Biology), which included a total of 14 eligible studies, decide if each study
- 397 was eligible or not, and provide the full reasoning for their decisions. The outcome of the test
- 398 screening was examined by either T.A., V.B.E, or other members of the Conservation
- 399 Evidence project, who provided searchers with feedback.

## 400 *Identifying and selecting journals for each language*

401 We first identified and listed peer-reviewed academic journals published in each language 402 which were likely to contain eligible studies. This process involved one to four researchers for 403 each language (all native speakers of the target language, with at least a bachelor's, and often 404 higher, research degree; this often included the searchers) from relevant disciplines (see Table 405 S2 for more detail), who used a range of approaches (e.g., personal knowledge, opinions from 406 colleagues, local literature databases, web searches, etc.) to identify as many potentially 407 relevant journals as possible. All journals identified were then grouped into three categories: 408 "very relevant" (often journals in ecology and biodiversity conservation, as well as taxonomic 409 journals, such as those in ornithology, mammalogy, herpetology, plant sciences, etc.), 410 "relevant" (mostly journals in relevant disciplines, such as agricultural/forest sciences and 411 general zoology), and "maybe relevant" (all others). Subsequent searches aimed to at least 412 cover all journals categorised as "very relevant" and, when possible, those in the other two 413 categories (see Data S1 for the list of all journals searched).

## 414 Screening papers in each journal

Searches for eligible studies in each journal were conducted by manually scanning the title and abstract (or summary) of every peer-reviewed non-English-language paper published in the journal, and by reading the main text of all papers for which the title and/or abstract were suggestive of fulfilling the eligibility criteria (fully described below). All papers that appeared to meet the eligibility criteria were identified as potentially eligible studies, with the relevant metadata recorded (see *Data coding*), and were then passed on to the validation process (see *Study validity assessment*). The journals were searched backwards from the latest volume,

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- 422 either to the earliest published volume or going back ten years for long-running journals (see
- 423 Data S1 for publication years covered for each journal). We also recorded the total number of
- 424 papers screened in each journal.
- The following eligibility criteria, which were developed and published by the Conservation
- 426 Evidence project (https://osf.io/mz5rx/), were used.

427 Criteria A: Include studies that measure the effect of an intervention that might be done

- 428 to conserve biodiversity
- 1. Does this study measure the effect of an intervention that is or was under the control of
- humans, on wild taxa (including captives), habitats, or invasive/problem taxa? If yes, go to
- 431 3. If no, go to 2.
- 432 2. Does this study measure the effect of an intervention that is or was under the control of
- humans, on human behaviour that is relevant to conserving biodiversity? If yes, go to
- 434 **Criteria B**. If no, the study will be excluded.
- 435 3. Could the intervention be put in place by a conservationist/decision maker to protect,
- 436 manage, restore or reduce impacts of threats to wild taxa or habitats, or control or mitigate
- the impact of the invasive/problem taxon on wild taxa or habitats? If yes, the study will be
- 438 included. If no, the study will be excluded.
- 439 Eligible populations or subjects
- 440 *Included*: Individuals, populations, species, or communities of wild taxa, habitats or
- 441 invasive/problem taxa.
- 442 *Excluded*: Domestic/agricultural species.
- 443 · Eligible interventions
- 444 *Included*: Interventions that are carried out by people and could be put in place for
- 445 conservation. Interventions within the scope of the searches include, but not limited to:
- Clear management interventions, e.g., closing a cave to tourism, prescribed burning,
   mowing, controlling invasive species, creating or restoring habitats,
- 448 · International or national policies,
- 449 Reintroductions or management of wild species in captivity, and
- 450 Interventions that reduce human-wildlife conflict.

451 See **Criteria B** for interventions that have a measured outcome on human behaviour only.

- 452 Also see https://www.conservationevidence.com/data/index for more examples of
- 453 interventions.
- 454 *Excluded*: Impacts of threats (interventions which remove threats would be included),
- 455 impacts from natural processes (e.g., tree falls, natural fires), and impacts from
- 456 background variation (e.g. soil type, vegetation, climate change).
- 457 · Eligible outcomes
- 458 *Included*: Any outcome (can be negative, neutral or positive, does not have to be
- 459 statistically significant) that is quantified and has implications for the health of individuals,
- 460 populations, species, communities or habitats, including, but not limited to:
- 461 · Individual health, condition or behaviour, including in captivity: e.g., growth, size,
- 462 weight, stress, disease levels or immune function, movement, use of natural/artificial
- habitat/structure, range, predatory or nuisance behaviour that could lead to retaliatoryaction by humans.
- 465 Breeding: egg/offspring/seed/sperm production, sperm motility/viability after
- freezing, natural/artificial breeding success, birth rate, offspring condition/survival,
- 467 and overall recruitment.
- Genetics: genetic diversity, genetic suitability (e.g., adaptation to local conditions, use
  of flyways for migratory species etc.).
- 470 · Life history: age/size at maturity, survival, mortality.
- 471 Population measures: number, abundance, density, presence/absence, biomass,
- 472 movement, cover, age-structure, species distributions (only in response to a human473 action), disease prevalence, and sex ratio.
- 474 Community/habitat measures: species richness, diversity measures (including
- 475 trait/functional diversity), community composition, community structure (e.g.,
- 476 trophic structure), area covered (e.g., by different habitat types), and physical habitat
- 477 structure (e.g. rugosity, height, basal area).

478 · Eligible types of study design

479 *Included*: Studies with After, Before-After, Control-Impact, Before-After-Control-Impact,

480	or Randomised Controlled	Trial designs	(using the definition	provided in [34]). Literature
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481 reviews, systematic reviews, meta-analyses or short notes that review studies that fulfil the

- 482 eligibility criteria are also included. Studies that use statistical/mechanistic/mathematical
- 483 models to analyse real-world data or compare models to real-world situations are also
- 484 included (if they otherwise fulfil the eligibility criteria).
- 485 *Excluded*: Theoretical modelling studies, opinion pieces, correlations with habitat types
- 486 where there is no test of a specific intervention by humans, or pure ecology (e.g.,
- 487 movement, distribution of species).

## 488 Criteria B: Include studies that measure the effect of an intervention that might be done

## 489 to change human behaviour for the benefit of biodiversity

- 1. Does this study measure the effect of an intervention that is or was under human control on
- 491 human behaviour (actual or intentional) which is likely to protect, manage, restore or
- 492 reduce threats to wild taxa or habitats (including mitigating the impact of
- 493 invasive/problem taxon on wild taxa or habitats)? If yes, go to 2. If no, the study will be494 excluded.
- 2. Could the intervention be put in place by a conservationist, manager or decision maker to
  change human behaviour? If yes, the study will be included. If no, the study will be
- 497 excluded.
- 498 Eligible populations or subjects

499 *Included*: Actual or intentional human behaviour including self-reported behaviours.

- 500 Change in human behaviour must be linked to outcomes for wild taxa or habitats.
- 501 *Excluded*: Human psychology (tolerance, knowledge, awareness, attitude, perceptions or
- beliefs). Changes in behaviour linked to outcomes for human benefit, even if these
- 503 occurred under a conservation program (e.g., we would exclude a study demonstrating
- 504 increased school attendance in villages under a community-based conservation program).
- 505 · Eligible interventions
- 506 *Included*: Interventions that are under human control and change human behaviour,
- resulting in the conservation, management, and restoration of wild taxa or habitats.
- 508 Interventions which are particularly likely to have a behaviour change outcome include,

509	but are not limited to:
510	• Enforcement: hunting restrictions, market inspections, increase number of rangers,
511	patrols or frequency of patrols in, around or within protected areas, improve
512	fencing/physical barriers, improve signage.
513	· Behaviour change: promote alternative/sustainable livelihoods, payment for
514	ecosystem services, ecotourism, poverty reduction, increased appreciation or
515	knowledge, debunking misinformation, altering or re-enforcing local taboos, financial
516	incentives.
517	· Governance: protect or reward whistle-blowers, increase government transparency,
518	ensure independence of judiciary, provide legal aid.
519	• Market regulation: trade bans, taxation, supply chain transparency laws.
520	· Consumer demand reduction: increase awareness or knowledge, fear appeals
521	(negative association with undesirable product), benefit appeal (positive association
522	with desirable behaviour), worldview framing, moral framing, employing decision
523	defaults, providing decision support tools, simplifying advice to consumers,
524	promoting desirable social norms, legislative prohibition.
525	· Sustainable alternatives: certification schemes, artificial alternatives, sustainable
526	alternatives.
527	· New policies for conservation/protection.
528	Excluded: Impacts from climatic or other natural events. Studies with no intervention, e.g.
529	correlating human personality traits with likelihood of conservation-related behaviours.
530 ·	Eligible outcomes
531	Included: Any human behaviour outcome (can be negative, neutral or positive, does not
532	have to be statistically significant) that is quantified and is likely to have an outcome on
533	wild taxa or habitats, including, but not limited to:
534	· Change in adverse behaviours (which directly threaten biodiversity), e.g.,
535	unsustainable hunting, burning, grazing, urban encroachment, creating noise, entering
536	sensitive areas, polluting or dumping waste, clearing or habitat destruction,
537	introducing invasive species.

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538		Change in positive behaviours, e.g., uptake of alternative/sustainable livelihoods,
539		number of households adopting sustainable practices, donations.
540		Change in policy or conservation methods, e.g., placement of protected areas,
541		protection of key habitats/species.
542		Change in consumer or market behaviour, e.g., purchasing, consuming, buying,
543		willingness to pay, selling, illegal trading, advertising, consumer fraud.
544		Behavioural intentions to do any of the above.
545	• ]	Eligible types of study design
546	:	Same as Criteria A.
547	Data	<i>coding</i>
548		n each of the studies that were identified by searchers as potentially eligible, the following
549	meta	data were extracted and recorded using a template file:
550	- J	ournal language
551	- J	ournal publication country
552	- F	Reference type (either original article, review, short note or others)
553	- A	Authors
554	- F	Publication year
555	- ]	Title in English (if available) and in the non-English language
556	- J	ournal name in English (if available) and in the non-English language
557	- \	/olume / Issue / Pages
558	- A	Abstract in English (if available) and in the non-English language
559	- ŀ	Keywords in English (if available) and in the non-English language
560	- I	ink to the article (URL, if available)
561	- S	Study site locations (coordinates; mean coordinates where a study had multiple sites, or
562	С	ity/state/province/country if coordinates were not available)
563	- S	Study design (either After, Before-After, Control-Impact, Before-After-Control-Impact,
564	F	Randomised Controlled Trial, or review; using the definition of each design provided in
565	[	34])
566	- E	Broad species group(s) / habitat(s) studied
		20

567 - Scientific name of study species (if available)

- Common name of study species in English and in the non-English language (if available)

- One-sentence summary in the form of: "This study tested the effect of [*intervention(s)*] on

570 [measured outcome] of [target species or ecosystem(s)]" (e.g., "This study tested the effect

of providing nest boxes on the breeding success of blue tits")

572 The metadata were extracted largely by the searchers, but, for some languages where the

searchers were not available, by other collaborators who are native speakers of the language

and are at least undertaking or have a bachelor's, but often higher research, degree in a relevant

575 discipline (see Table S2 for more detail). They were all requested to first read and fully

understand our guidance detailing the definitions of different study designs (provided in [34])

577 before starting data coding.

578 For all studies that were validated as eligible (see *Study validity assessment*), the recorded

names of birds, mammals, and amphibians were standardised based on the lists of bird species

names used by BirdLife International [35], and mammal and amphibian species names used by

581 IUCN [36]. We focused on these three taxa for comparing study locations and species between

languages because English-language studies testing the effectiveness of conservation

interventions for these three taxa have extensively been searched using both discipline-wide

literature searches and subject-wide evidence syntheses [17]. To identify species name

synonyms we used the package 'taxize' [37] in R [38] with API keys generated at the NCBI

586 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/account/) and IUCN

587 (https://apiv3.iucnredlist.org/api/v3/token) websites.

588 Study validity assessment

The eligibility of each study that was identified as being potentially eligible was validated by at least one experienced literature searcher (assessors) at the Conservation Evidence project (see Table S2 for more detail), who regularly screen, identify, and summarise eligible studies using the same eligibility criteria (see *Screening papers in each journal*) but who mostly are not native speakers of each non-English language. This process was conducted by assessing the English-language title, abstract and one-sentence summary of each study identified by the searchers (see *Data coding*), and, where the validity could not be determined easily, also

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596 involved direct discussions between the relevant searchers and assessors to obtain clarification

597 on the details of each study. Those studies that were deemed ineligible by the assessors were

598 excluded from the final list of eligible studies in each language.

599

600 *Limitations* 

Although, as described above, we adopted a search strategy that allowed us to identify eligible
studies in as unbiased a way as possible, our search results can still suffer from some inevitable
limitations:

604 · Language selection

Of the top 15 non-English languages on the basis of the number of conservation-related publications, our searches could not cover Swedish and Dutch. Nevertheless, we expect that the exclusion of these two languages only had a minimal effect on our conclusions, as conservation-related publications in these two languages were estimated to only constitute 0.87% of publications in the top 15 non-English languages [16], while we also covered three additional languages.

611 · Journal selection

612 Although we identified 465 journals in 16 languages, we were only able to screen 326 of 613 them, as we prioritised journals ranked as "very relevant" and "relevant" for some 614 languages when there was a shortage of searchers and/or their time that could be dedicated 615 to the search process. Therefore, we assessed whether our choice of journals screened in 616 each language was appropriate for identifying the most eligible studies in the language, by examining the "rank-abundance" curve for each language, where the x axis of the curve 617 618 was the rank of searched journals according to the % of eligible studies (the journal with the 619 highest % of eligible studies was given rank 1), and the y axis was the % of eligible studies. 620 If a curve reached zero (i.e., there were almost no eligible studies) in lower-ranked journals, 621 we interpreted it as an indication that sufficient coverage of journals had been reached for 622 that language (see Fig. S1 for the result).

623 · Publication year selection

624 Searches for some long-running journals only went back ten years from the latest volume,

thus potentially missing some eligible studies dating back further. We thus assessed the
effects of excluding earlier volumes of long-running journals from our searches, by testing
how the number of eligible studies changed over time in each journal (see Fig. 1 for the
result).

629 · Possibility of missing eligible studies

630 We tried to identify as many eligible studies as possible in each language, by making sure 631 that (i) every searcher was well qualified and trained before starting the searches (see Searchers) and (ii) when in doubt searchers keep, rather than reject, a study as potentially 632 eligible, the validity of which was later assessed by independent experts (see *Study validity* 633 634 assessment). Nevertheless, we cannot dismiss the possibility that some eligible studies 635 were missed during the searches. This would have caused a potential underestimation of 636 the number of eligible studies published in non-English languages. However, this should 637 not undermine our main conclusion that scientific evidence published in non-English languages could fill gaps in the geographic and taxonomic coverage of English-language 638 evidence for conservation. 639

640 · Potential variations in assessment outcomes of eligible studies and study designs among
641 searchers

Although we did our best to train searchers to fully understand the eligibility criteria (see 642 643 Screening papers in each journal) and the definition of different study designs (see Data 644 *coding*), some inevitable variations may remain in the assessment outcomes of eligible 645 studies and study designs among searchers. This would potentially affect the reported 646 patterns in (i) the number and proportion of eligible studies among non-English languages 647 (Fig. S1), and (ii) the proportion of different study designs among different languages (Fig. 2). Nevertheless, among-searcher variations in judgements should affect neither (i) yearly 648 increases in the number of eligible non-English-language studies in each journal (Fig. 1), as 649 650 the same journal was searched by a single searcher, nor (ii) the spatial and taxonomic 651 complementarity between English- and non-English-language studies (Figs. 3 and 4), 652 assuming that any such variations in assessment outcomes only affected a limited number 653 of non-English-language studies, and thus have not drastically changed the overall patterns

in the differences between English and non-English-language studies.

## 655 · Effects of publication bias

We focused only on studies published in peer-reviewed academic journals and thus did not consider the effects of publication bias, caused by ignoring grey literature, within each language, while recognizing that important scientific knowledge may also be published in non-English-language grey literature [33]. Therefore, it should be noted the conclusions of this study are limited to peer-reviewed studies published in academic journals.

## 661 English-language studies on the effectiveness of conservation interventions

To compare study characteristics (i.e., study design, study location and study species) between

eligible English- and non-English-language studies, we used English-language studies stored

in the Conservation Evidence database [17]. Those English-language studies were identified

through a screening of peer-reviewed papers published in over 330 English-language academic

journals including local and taxonomic journals (see the list at:

667 https://www.conservationevidence.com/journalsearcher/english) based on the same eligibility

criteria as described in the section "Screening papers in each journal" above (also see [17] for

669 more detail). We extracted the metadata (including publication year, study site

670 coordinates—mean coordinates where a study had multiple sites, study design, scientific and

common names of study species) for each of the 4,412 English-language studies (Data S4)

(including 284 studies on amphibians, 1,115 studies on birds, and 1,154 studies on mammals;

Data S5) from the database on 11/12/2020. Again, here we defined a paper published in a

674 peer-reviewed journal as a study. The Conservation Evidence database also stores some

non-English-language peer-reviewed studies, most of which were identified incidentally by the

676 project. Those non-English-language studies were also incorporated into our dataset of

non-English-language studies, if they were in any of the 16 languages covered in this study (a

total of 74 non-English-language studies, see records with "Source" being "Ad hoc" in Data

679 S3). For birds, mammals, and amphibians, species names were standardised using the lists of

- bird, mammal, and amphibian species names used by BirdLife International [35] and the IUCN
- 681 [36].

## 682 Analyses of eligible studies

#### 683 *Comparing the proportion of eligible studies in each journal*

- 684 We first calculated the proportion of eligible studies for each non-English-language journal, by
- dividing the number of eligible studies by the total number of studies screened in the journal.
- Journals with 30 or fewer studies screened were excluded from this calculation, as the
- estimated proportions would be unreliable given the small sample size.

#### 688 Testing yearly changes in the number of eligible non-English-language studies

689 To test whether the number of eligible non-English-language studies had changed over time, 690 we focused only on journals with ten or more eligible studies, resulting in journals/studies in a 691 total of 12 languages (shown in Fig. 1) being used in the following analysis. For each language, 692 we fitted a generalised linear model (GLM) assuming a Poisson distribution with the number of 693 eligible studies in each year in each journal as the response variable, and year and journal (for 694 languages with more than one journal) as the explanatory variables. Journals were included in 695 each model as a fixed, not random, effect, as the number of journals with ten or more eligible 696 studies in each language was relatively small (nine for Japanese, five for German, and < 5 for 697 all others), making it difficult to estimate the among-journal variance accurately in a mixed 698 model [39].

## 699 *Comparing study designs*

700 To test whether there was a difference in study designs adopted between studies in different

languages, we only included studies based on one of the following five designs: After,

702 Before-After (BA), Control-Impact (CI), Before-After-Control-Impact (BACI), and

Randomised Controlled Trial (RCT). These study designs were recorded as an ordinal variable

with RCT being the least biased design, followed by BACI, CI, BA, and After, based on results

from [24]. Considering that English-language studies in English-speaking countries (especially

- the UK and the US) may adopt more robust study designs than English-language studies in
- 707 other countries, English-language studies were further divided into two groups; studies

conducted in countries where English is an official language ("English – official"), and studies

- in all other countries ("English others"), using information on countries' official languages in
- [40]. We then fitted a cumulative link model using the ordinal package [41] in R, with ordered

study designs in each study as the response variable and languages (16 non-English languages

and "English – official", compared to "English – others" as the reference category) and taxa

- 713 (birds, mammals, and others, compared to amphibians as the reference category) as the
- 714 explanatory variables.

## 715 *Comparing study locations*

716 To test whether there was a systematic bias in study locations between English- and 717 non-English-language studies, we first calculated the number of studies for each language in 718 each  $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$  grid cell. Studies without study coordinates were excluded from this calculation, 719 leading to 4,254 English-language studies (including 267 studies on amphibians, 1,084 studies 720 on birds, and 1,062 studies on mammals) and 1,202 non-English-language studies (including 721 53 studies on amphibians, 244 studies on birds, and 153 studies on mammals) being used in the 722 following analysis. As the latest English-language studies on birds, amphibians, and mammals 723 stored in the Conservation Evidence database were those published in 2011, 2012, and 2018, 724 respectively, non-English-language studies after those years were excluded from the 725 comparison of studies on each taxon, leading to 31 studies on amphibians, 182 studies on birds, 726 and 146 studies on mammals being used in the analysis. We used a conditional autoregressive 727 (CAR) model assuming a Poisson distribution to test the association between the number of 728 non-English-language studies (the response variable) and the number of English-language 729 studies (the explanatory variable) within each grid cell while accounting for spatial 730 autocorrelation in residuals (see Data availability for the availability of the R code). We fitted 731 the model to the data with the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method in OpenBUGS 732 3.2.3 [42] and the R2OpenBUGS package [43] in R. We set prior distributions of parameters as 733 non-informatively as possible, so as to produce estimates similar to those generated by a 734 maximum likelihood method; we used an improper uniform distribution (i.e., a uniform 735 distribution on an infinite interval) for the intercept following [44], a normal distribution with a 736 mean of 0 and variance of 100 for the coefficient of the explanatory variable, and Gamma 737 distributions with a mean of 1 and variance of 100 for the inverse of variance in an intrinsic 738 Gaussian CAR distribution. We ran each MCMC algorithm with three chains with different 739 initial values for 35,000 iterations with the first 5,000 discarded as burn-in and the reminder

thinned to one in every 12 iterations to save storage space. Model convergence was checkedwith R-hat values.

## 742 *Comparing species*

- 743 To test whether there was a systematic bias in study species between English- and
- non-English-language studies, we first calculated the number of English- and
- non-English-language studies available for each species. We used generalised linear mixed
- models (GLMMs) assuming a Poisson distribution to test the association between the number
- of non-English-language studies (the response variable) and the number of English-language
- studies (the explanatory variable) for each species while accounting for phylogenetic
- autocorrelation by incorporating the family of each species as a random factor (see Data
- availability for the availability of the R code). The GLMMs were implemented in R with the
- 751 lme4 package [45].
- 752 Other R packages used in the analyses and data visualization were: data.table [46], dplyr [47],
- 753 gridExtra [48], mapdata [49], mcmcplots [50], MCMCvis [51], plyr [52], RColorBrewer [53],
- rgdal [54], readxl [55], tidyverse [56], viridis [57], and writexl [58].
- 755

## 756 Data availability

All data and code used in the analysis are available at: <u>http://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/Y94ZT</u>.

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929		
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934

## 935 Author contributions

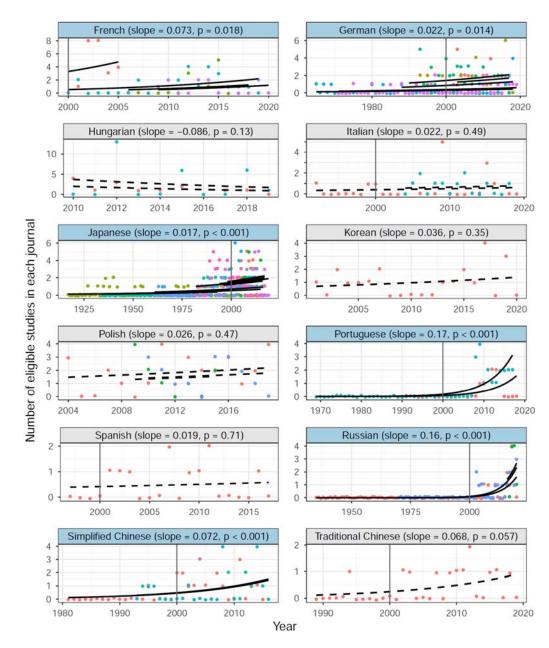
- 936 Conceptualization: T.A., Formal analysis: T.A., V.B.E. and A.P.C., Funding acquisition: T.A.,
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- 948 M.G., N.H.A., K.J., J.K.-B., M.Ç.K.A., I.K., K. Kito, K. Konno, D.-L.L., N.A., Yang L.,
- 949 Yifan L., M.-C.L., V.M., P.A., W.H.M., J.P.N.G., P.J.N., E.N., J.M., N.O., R.R.Y., S.O.P.,
- 950 A.C.P.-B., I.L.P., D.L.R., A.L.R.S., A.N.R.V., R.R., M.-M.R., K.A., R.S., D.S., Ç.H.Ş., H.S.,
- 951 G.S., Y.S., R.K.S., S.D.T., M.S.T., E.T., F.V., J.O.V., S.V., P.W., V.Z.G., R.D.Z., W.Z. and
- 952 W.J.S.
- 953

## 954 **Competing interests**

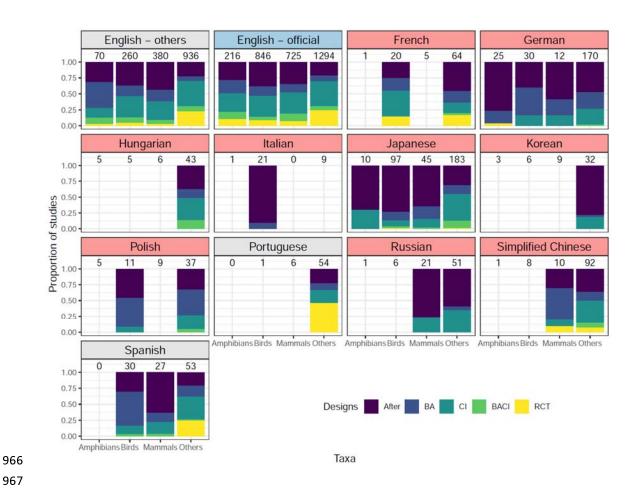
955 The authors declare no competing interests.

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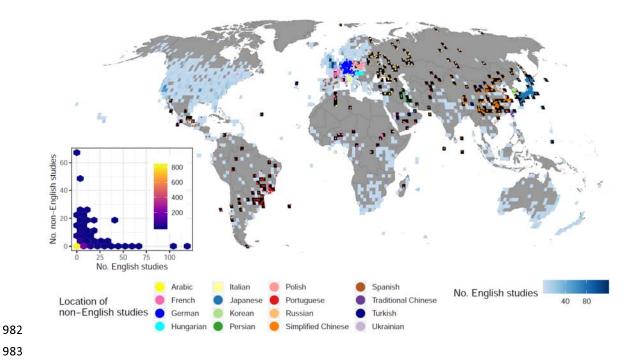
Fig. 1. Language-specific yearly changes in the number of non-English-language studies 958 959 testing the effectiveness of conservation interventions published in each journal. Only 960 journals with ten or more eligible studies are shown (colours indicate different journals) and 961 thus four languages for which there were no such journals are omitted. Black lines represent 962 regression lines for each journal (solid lines: significant slopes, dashed lines: non-significant 963 slopes) based on Poisson generalised linear models with journals as a fixed factor. Languages 964 with a statistically significant positive slope are shown with blue background. Vertical lines 965 indicate the year 2000.



967

Fig. 2. The proportion of studies in different languages that tested the effectiveness of 968 969 conservation interventions with different study designs. Designs in the order of increasing 970 robustness: After, Before-After (BA), Control-Impact (CI), Before-After-Control-Impact 971 (BACI), or Randomised Controlled Trial (RCT). English - others: English-language studies 972 conducted in countries where English is not an official language. English – official: 973 English-language studies conducted in countries where English is an official language. 974 Languages with statistically less robust designs compared to English - others are shown with 975 pink background, those with statistically more robust designs with blue background, and 976 those with a non-significant difference with grey background. The numbers above bars 977 represent the number of studies in each taxon (i.e., amphibians, birds, mammals or others) – 978 language group. Only groups with at least ten studies are shown. Studies in five languages 979 (Arabic, Persian, traditional Chinese, Turkish, and Ukrainian) are not shown as no taxon – 980 language group had ten or more studies.

981



984 Fig. 3. The location of 1,203 non-English-language studies with coordinate information,

#### 985 compared to the number of English-language studies testing the effectiveness of

#### conservation interventions within each $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ grid cell (952 grid cells in total). 986

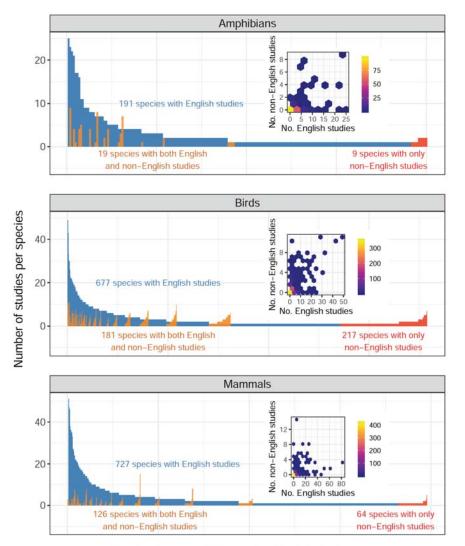
987 Non-English-language studies were found in 353 grid cells, 238 of which were without any

988 English language studies (grid cells in black). The inset is a hexbin chart showing a negative

989 (although non-significant) relationship between the number of English-language studies and

990 the number of non-English-language studies (No. non-English studies) within each grid cell.

991 Brighter colours indicate more grid cells in each hexagon.



Species in order of decreasing English studies

# Fig. 4. The number of English- and non-English-language studies testing the effectiveness of conservation interventions for each amphibian, bird, and mammal

996 species. The number of English-language studies for each species (blue), with species ranked 997 on the x axis in order of decreasing English-language studies per species, and the number of 998 non-English-language studies per species for those species studied by both English- and 999 non-English-language studies (orange), and those studied only by non-English-language 1000 studies (red). Note that two mammal species with 82 and 63 English-language studies are not 1001 shown as outliers. The insets are hexbin charts showing significantly positive relationships 1002 between the number of English-language studies (No. English studies) and the number of 1003 non-English-language studies (No. non-English studies) per species. Brighter colours indicate 1004 more species in each hexagon.

### 1005 Supporting information

1006

#### **1007** Supplementary Text

1008 In this study we screened 419,680 peer-reviewed papers in 326 journals, published in 16 1009 languages, to identify non-English-language studies testing the effectiveness of interventions in biodiversity conservation. This enabled us to test four commonly held perceptions that: (i) 1010 1011 the amount of relevant scientific evidence that is available only in non-English languages is 1012 negligible; (ii) the number of relevant studies being published in non-English languages has 1013 been decreasing over time; (iii) non-English-language studies are often based on less robust 1014 study designs than English-language studies; (iv) there is no bias in the scientific evidence 1015 provided between English-language studies and non-English-language studies, in terms of 1016 geographical and taxonomic coverage. Our findings provide novel, quantitative insights into 1017 how non-English-language scientific knowledge can contribute to environmental evidence 1018 syntheses and the implementation of much-needed evidence-based conservation globally.

1019 The potential importance of non-English-language studies in evidence synthesis has long 1020 been explored in healthcare, where studies have reported systematic biases in statistical 1021 results between English- and non-English-language studies [59, 60], tested differences in 1022 study quality between languages [7], and assessed the effects of excluding 1023 non-English-language studies on the outcomes of meta-analyses [10, 11]. These attempts 1024 were focused almost exclusively on how including non-English-language studies might change the statistical results of meta-analyses, and have neither investigated temporal 1025 changes in relevant non-English-language evidence nor compared the characteristics of 1026 1027 evidence provided between languages. However, non-English-language studies are also 1028 expected to provide scientific information that is not available in English-language studies, 1029 and thus expand the coverage of evidence that can be incorporated, especially in disciplines 1030 dealing with more geographically and taxonomically diverse targets and phenomena than 1031 healthcare [12].

Earlier studies have also attempted to quantify the importance of non-English-languagescientific knowledge in ecological evidence syntheses. For example, 67% of the scientific

1034 literature identified in a systematic review on Japanese bats including many endemic and

threatened species was in Japanese [61], literature searches in Spanish increased the amount of

scientific literature on interactions between birds and wind farms by 11% [62], and 65% of the

1037 literature included in a systematic review on China's Belt and Road Initiative, a

1038 continental-scale infrastructure development that potentially has disastrous consequences for

1039 biodiversity in the region, was in Chinese [63]. Despite the importance of their findings, most

studies are limited only to a specific research topic and a single non-English language,

1041 restricting the generalizability of their findings.

1042 A few studies have also investigated the availability of ecological knowledge published in 1043 multiple non-English languages. Amano et al. [16] showed that up to 35% of scientific 1044 documents on biodiversity conservation published in 2014 were in 15 non-English languages; 1045 however the study did not investigate and compare the detail of those scientific documents 1046 published in different languages. Another example is the study conducted by Angulo et al [64], 1047 which compiled data on the global economic costs of invasive alien species reported in 15 1048 non-English languages, and showed that non-English-language sources (i) capture a greater 1049 amount of data than English-language sources, (ii) fill in geographic and taxonomic gaps in 1050 English-language sources, and (iii) increase the global cost estimate of invasions by 16.6%. 1051 This study, while providing important insights into the role of non-English-language sources in 1052 developing a specific database, lacks assessments of (i) temporal changes in 1053 non-English-language sources, and (ii) differences in study quality between languages. These 1054 limitations are critical in rigorously testing the role of non-English-language knowledge in 1055 evidence synthesis, as the importance of non-English-language knowledge could wrongly be 1056 overstated if (i) the amount of newly published non-English-language knowledge is decreasing 1057 (as is argued in [19]), or (ii) the quality of non-English-language knowledge is lower than that 1058 of English-language knowledge (as is shown in several healthcare studies [7]).

In contrast, our study revealed that the number of relevant non-English-language studies is increasing in many languages, showing that non-English-language science will continue playing a crucial role, while there seems to be a trade-off between evidence quality and availability in regions and species with little English-language evidence, highlighting a future

- 1063 research priority for making the best use of evidence with varying qualities and degrees of
- 1064 relevance to a specific context.

**Table S1.** Results of a cumulative link model aimed at testing the association between ordered

study designs (with Randomised Controlled Trial as the least biased design, followed by

1068 Before-After-Control-Impact, Control-Impact, Before-After, and After) in each study as the

1069 response variable, and languages (16 non-English languages and "English – official"

1070 (English-language studies conducted in countries where English is an official language),

1071 compared to "English – others" (English-language studies conducted in the other countries) as

1072 the reference category) and taxa (birds, mammals, and others, compared to amphibians as the

1073 reference category) as the explanatory variables. Significant results are shown in bold.

Coefficients	Estimate	Standard error	Z.	р
Arabic	-3.14	1.08	-2.92	0.0035
English – official	0.18	0.055	3.32	0.00091
French	-0.60	0.20	-2.93	0.0034
German	-1.34	0.13	-10.47	$1.16\times10^{-25}$
Hungarian	-0.57	0.24	-2.39	0.017
Italian	-2.42	0.49	-4.91	$9.15 \times 10^{-7}$
Japanese	-0.91	0.11	-8.16	$3.31\times10^{\text{-16}}$
Korean	-2.56	0.37	-6.85	$\textbf{7.44}\times\textbf{10}^{\text{-12}}$
Persian	0.067	0.53	0.13	0.90
Polish	-0.99	0.22	-4.44	$\pmb{8.97\times10^{\text{-6}}}$
Portuguese	0.49	0.26	1.90	0.057
Russian	-1.64	0.24	-6.84	$7.67 \times 10^{-12}$
Simplified Chinese	-0.67	0.18	-3.79	0.00015
Spanish	-0.33	0.17	-1.87	0.061
Traditional Chinese	0.16	0.38	0.42	0.67
Turkish	0.69	1.08	0.64	0.52
Ukrainian	0.52	1.10	0.47	0.64
Taxa – Birds	-0.13	0.11	-1.22	0.22
Taxa – Mammals	-0.15	0.11	-1.35	0.18
Taxa – others	0.83	0.10	7.95	$1.83\times10^{\text{-}15}$

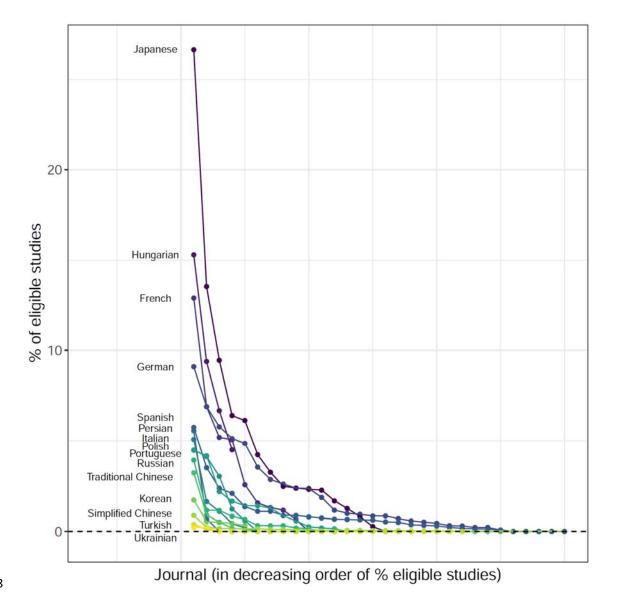
## 1075 **Table S2**. List of those involved in searches and their roles for each language covered in this

1076 study.

Language	Name	Journal	Searches	Data	Validatio
		listing		coding	n
Arabic	Perla Farhat	1	1	1	0
Arabic	Magda Bou Dagher	1	0	0	0
	Kharrat				
French	Ingrid Pollet	1	1	1	0
French	Marie-Morgane Rouyer	1	1	1	0
French	Ana Reboredo Segovia	0	1	1	0
German	Dominik Schwab	1	1	1	0
German	Kerstin Jantke	1	1	1	0
German	Isabel Mangold	1	1	1	0
German	Horst Korn	1	0	0	0
German	Richard Schuter	0	0	1	0
German	Matthias-Claudio Loretto	0	0	1	0
Hungarian	Flóra Vajna	1	1	1	0
Hungarian	András Báldi	1	0	0	0
Italian	Sandro Bertolino	1	1	1	0
Italian	Valentina Marconi	0	1	1	0
Japanese	Ko Konno	1	1	1	0
Japanese	Munemitsu Akasaka	1	0	0	0
Japanese	Yushin Shinoda	1	1	1	0
Japanese,	Tatsuya Amano	1	1	1	1
simplified Chinese					
Japanese	Kensuke Kito	0	0	1	0
Korean	Hemin Seo	1	1	1	0
Korean	Chang-Yong Choi	1	0	0	0
Persian	Elham Nourani	1	1	1	0

Polish	Joanna Kajzer-Bonk	1	1	1	0
Polish	Pawel Waryszak	0	1	1	0
Portuguese	Ana Cláudia Piovezan	1	1	1	0
	Borges				
Portuguese	Rafael D. Zenni	0	1	1	0
Portuguese	Danielle Ramos	1	1	1	0
Portuguese	Jose Manuel Ochoa	1	0	0	0
	Quintero				
Portuguese	Juan Pablo	0	1	1	0
	Narváez-Gómez				
Portuguese	Luis Gustavo de Oliveira	0	0	1	0
Portuguese and	Ricardo Rocha	1	1	1	1
Spanish					
Russian	Igor Khorozyan	1	1	1	0
Russian	Svetlana Vozykova	0	1	1	0
Simplified Chinese	Yifan Liu	1	1	1	0
Simplified Chinese	Min Chen	1	1	1	0
Simplified Chinese	Wenjun Zhou	1	1	1	0
Simplified Chinese	Yang Liu	1	1	1	0
Simplified Chinese	Rachel Oh	0	0	1	0
Spanish	Jose Valdebenito Chavez	1	1	1	0
Spanish	Nataly Hidalgo	1	1	1	0
	Aranzamendi				
Spanish	Nayelli Rivera	0	1	1	0
Spanish	Veronica Zamora	1	0	0	0
Spanish	Pablo Jose Negret	0	0	1	0
Traditional Chinese	Ming-shan Tsai	1	1	1	0
Traditional Chinese	Shan-dar Tao	1	1	1	0
Traditional Chinese	Da-Li Lin	0	1	1	0

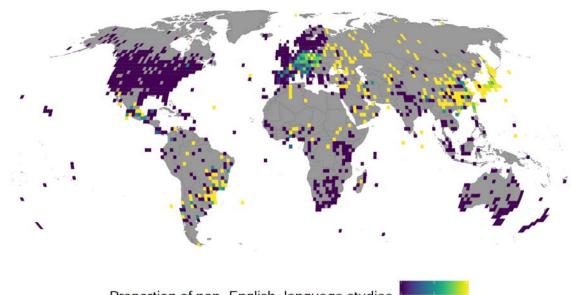
Turkish	Çisel Kemahlı	1	1	1	0
Turkish	Çağan Hakkı Şekercioğlu	1	0	0	0
Ukrainian	Marina Golivets	1	1	1	0
Arabic, French,	Kate Willott	0	0	0	1
German, Italian,					
Korean, Polish,					
Spanish, Russian,					
Ukrainian					
Traditional	William Morgan	0	0	0	1
Chinese, French					
French, Portuguese	Philip Martin	0	0	0	1
French, German,	Katie Sainsbury	0	0	0	1
Hungarian					
German, Simplified	Elizabeth Tyler	0	0	0	1
Chinese					
French, Hungarian,	Andrew Bladon	0	0	0	1
Spanish					
Japanese, Korean,	Rebecca Smith	0	0	0	1
Persian, Polish,					
Simplified Chinese					
Japanese,	Nancy Ockendon	0	0	0	1
Simplified Chinese					
Japanese	Gorm Shackelford	0	0	0	1
Japanese,	Nick Littlewood	0	0	0	1
Simplified Chinese					
Japanese, Polish,	Silviu Petrovan	0	0	0	1
Simplified Chinese,					
Turkish					
Spanish	Anna Berthinussen	0	0	0	1



1078

1079

Fig. S1. The proportion (%) of eligible studies testing the effectiveness of conservation interventions in each journal in 16 non-English languages. Coloured dots connected with a line represents all journals screened for each language, in decreasing order of % eligible studies; the journal with the highest % eligible studies is shown on the far left, while the journal with the lowest % eligible studies is on the far right.



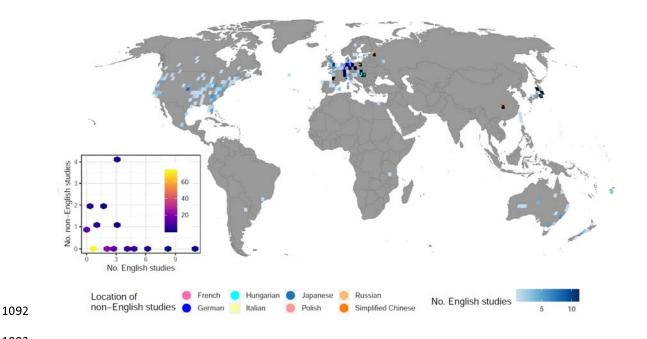
Proportion of non–English–language studies

1086 1087

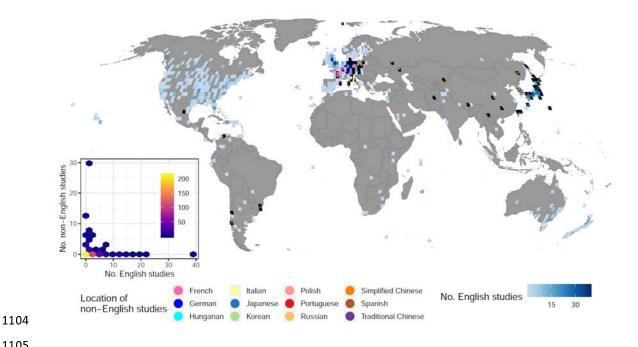
**Fig. S2.** The proportion of non-English-language studies (all 16 languages combined) to all

studies (i.e., non-English and English-language studies combined) testing the effectiveness of

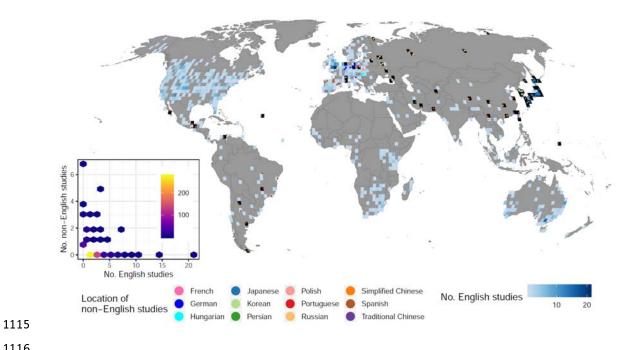
1090 conservation interventions within each  $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$  grid cell.



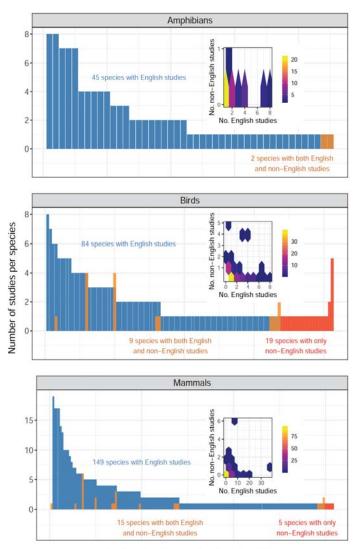
1094 Fig. S3. The location of 31 non-English-language studies testing the effectiveness of conservation interventions for amphibian species (published in 2012 or earlier), compared to 1095 the number of English-language studies on amphibians within each  $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$  grid cell (133 grid 1096 1097 cells in total). Non-English-language studies were found in 23 grid cells, 16 of which were 1098 without any English language studies (grid cells in black). The inset is a hexbin chart 1099 showing a significantly negative relationship between the number of English-language 1100 studies (No. English studies) and the number of non-English-language studies (No. non-English studies) within each grid cell. Brighter colours indicate more grid cells in each 1101 1102 hexagon. 1103



1106	Fig. S4. The location of 182 non-English-language studies testing the effectiveness of
1107	conservation interventions for bird species (published in 2011 or earlier), compared to the
1108	number of English-language studies on birds within each $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ grid cell (373 grid cells in
1109	total). Non-English-language studies were found in 75 grid cells, 59 of which were without
1110	any English language studies (grid cells in black). The inset is a hexbin chart showing a
1111	significantly negative relationship between the number of English-language studies (No.
1112	English studies) and the number of non-English-language studies (No. non-English studies)
1113	within each grid cell. Brighter colours indicate more grid cells in each hexagon.
1114	



1117	Fig. S5. The location of 146 non-English-language studies testing the effectiveness of
1118	conservation interventions for mammal species (published in 2018 or earlier), compared to
1119	the number of English-language studies on mammals within each $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ grid cell (514 grid
1120	cells in total). Non-English-language studies were found in 89 grid cells, 61 of which were
1121	without any English language studies (grid cells in black). The inset is a hexbin chart
1122	showing a significantly negative relationship between the number of English-language
1123	studies (No. English studies) and the number of non-English-language studies (No.
1124	non-English studies) within each grid cell. Brighter colours indicate more grid cells in each
1125	hexagon.
1126	



Species in order of decreasing English studies

**Fig. S6.** The distribution of the number of English-language studies for each threatened

amphibian, bird and mammal species (blue), with species ranked on the x axis in order of

1130 decreasing number of English-language studies, and the number of non-English-language

studies per species for those threatened species studied by both English- and

1132 non-English-language studies (orange), and those studied only by non-English-language

studies (red). Note that a threatened mammal species with 38 English-language studies is not

- shown as an outlier. The insets are hexbin charts showing the relationship between the
- 1135 number of English-language studies (No. English studies) and the number of

1136 non-English-language studies (No. non-English studies) for each threatened species. Species

- 1137 classified as threatened (Critically Endangered, Endangered or Vulnerable) based on IUCN.
- 1138 Brighter colours indicate more species in each hexagon.

1139 **Supplementary Data** (available at: http://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/Y94ZT)

1140

#### 1141 **Data S1**

The list of non-English-language peer-reviewed journals related to biodiversity conservation 1142 identified in this study. The explanations of column names are as follows: Language: journal 1143 publication language, Country: journal publication country, Journal title in English: journal 1144 1145 title in English, Journal title in non-English language: journal title in the non-English 1146 language, First publication year: the first publication year, Latest publication year: the latest 1147 publication year (as of March 2021), Link (URL): link to the journal website, Research areas/taxa: broad research area and taxa covered in the journal, Searcher: searcher name, 1148 Years screened first: the publication year of the first volume screened, Years screened last: 1149 1150 the publication year of the last volume screened, Years screened total: the number of years 1151 screened, Volumes screened: the number of volumes screened, Number of papers screened: 1152 the number of studies screened, Number of papers id as relevant by collaborators: the number 1153 of studies initially identified as eligible by searchers, Number of papers validated as relevant: 1154 the number of studies validated as eligible, Number of papers added ad hoc from CE dataset: 1155 the number of studies added from the Conservation Evidence database, Total relevant: the 1156 total number of eligible studies, Comments: any other relevant notes.

1157

1158 Data S2

1159 The list of 1,234 non-English-language studies identified as eligible in this study. The

1160 explanations of column names are as follows: Paper ID: study ID, Translator Name: searcher

1161 name, Language: study publication language, Journal Country: journal publication country,

1162 Reference Type: the type of publications (e.g., journal article, review, etc), Authors (separate

- 1163 with//): the name of authors, Year: publication year, Title English: title in English, Title -
- 1164 non-English language: title in the non-English language, Journal: journal name, Volume:
- 1165 volume, Issue: issue, Pages: pages, Abstract English: abstract in English, Abstract -
- 1166 non-English: abstract in the non-English language, Keywords English: keywords in English,
- 1167 Keywords non-English: keywords in the non-English language, Broad species group(s)/
- 1168 habitat(s)/ ecosystem service(s): broad species group(s) / habitat(s) studied, Species Scientific

1169 Name: scientific name of study species, Species English Name: common name of study

- 1170 species in English, Species No-English Name: common name of study species in the
- 1171 non-English language, Study design: study design adopted, Mean Lat: mean latitude of the
- study site(s), Mean Long: mean longitude of the study site(s), City/state or province/country:
- 1173 city/state/province/country of the study site(s), DOI: Digital Object Identifier, Link (URL):
- 1174 link to the paper.
- 1175

## 1176 Data S3

- 1177 The list of species studied in the 1,234 non-English-language eligible studies. The
- 1178 explanations of column names are as follows: Paper ID: study ID, Language: study
- 1179 publication language, IUCN: scientific name of study species used by the International Union
- 1180 for Conservation of Nature (IUCN name), Species Scientific Name: scientific name of study
- 1181 species recorded by searchers, Common name: common name of study species identified
- 1182 with the package 'taxize' in R, Species English Name: common name of study species in
- 1183 English recorded by searchers, Species Non-English Name: common name of study species
- in the non-English language recorded by searchers, Taxa: taxonomic group identified based
- 1185 on the IUCN name, Broad species group(s)/ habitat(s)/ ecosystem service(s): broad species
- 1186 group(s) / habitat(s) studied, Study design: study design adopted, Mean Lat: mean latitude of
- 1187 the study site(s), Mean Long: mean longitude of the study site(s), City/state or
- 1188 province/country: city/state/province/country of the study site(s), Journal: journal name,
- 1189 Journal Country: journal publication country, Source: the method of identifying the study
- 1190 (systematic review: discipline-wide literature searching, Ad hoc: identified in the
- 1191 Conservation Evidence database) Year: publication year.
- 1192

### 1193 Data S4

- 1194 The list of species studied in the 4,412 English-language studies stored in the Conservation
- 1195 Evidence database. The explanations of column names are as follows: rowed: record ID,
- 1196 pageid: study ID, journal\_match\_scimago: journal name used in the Scimago Journal Rank,
- 1197 journal: journal name, syn: Conservation Evidence synopsis including the study, int:
- 1198 conservation intervention tested, before: if the study has a Before element, controlled: if the

1199 study has control(s), randomized: if replications are randomized, review: if the study is based 1200 on a review or not, publate: publication year, lat: latitude of the study site(s), long: longitude 1201 of the study site(s), country: country of the study site(s), species: specific name of the study species, genus: generic name of the study species, family: family of the study species, order: 1202 order of the study species, class: class of the study species, binom: scientific name of the 1203 study species, pubtype: study publication type, original\_title: paper title, ref\_startpage: start 1204 1205 page of the paper, ref\_endpage: end page of the paper, ref\_vol: volume published, ref\_issue: 1206 issue published, ref doi: Digital Object Identifier, ref citation: paper citation, 1207 ref authorstring: authors.

1208

#### 1209 Data S5

1210 The list of amphibian, bird and mammal species studied in the English-language studies stored in the Conservation Evidence database. The explanations of column names are as 1211 1212 follows: pageid: study ID, syn: Conservation Evidence synopsis including the study, int: 1213 conservation intervention tested, before: if the study has a Before element, controlled: if the 1214 study has control(s), randomized: if replications are randomized, review: if the study is based 1215 on a review or not, publate: publication year, lat: latitude of the study site(s), long: longitude 1216 of the study site(s), country: country of the study site(s), species: specific name of the study 1217 species, genus: generic name of the study species, family: family of the study species, order: 1218 order of the study species, class: class of the study species, binom: scientific name of the 1219 study species (standardised based on the names used by the International Union for 1220 Conservation of Nature), habitat: broad habitat type studied, authors: authors, journal: journal 1221 name.