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- 1 Forum
- 2 Towards global volunteer monitoring of odonate abundance
- 3

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11 Insects are reportedly experiencing widespread declines, yet we generally have sparse data on 12 their abundance. Correcting this shortfall will take more effort than professional entomologists 13 alone can manage. Volunteer nature enthusiasts can greatly help to monitor the abundance of 14 dragonflies and damselflies (Odonata), iconic freshwater sentinels and one of the few non-15 pollinator insect groups appreciated by the public and amenable to citizen science. Although 16 counting individual odonates is common in some locations, present data will not enable a global 17 perspective on odonate abundance patterns and trends. Borrowing insight from butterfly 18 monitoring efforts, we outline basic plans for a global volunteer network to count odonates, 19 including organizational structure, advertising and recruiting, and data collection, submission, 20 and synthesis. We hope our proposal serves as a catalyst for richer coordinated efforts to 21 understand population trends of odonates and other insects in the Anthropocene.

22

23 Keywords: citizen science, community science, Odonata, insect declines, Prestonian shortfall

24	Provocative headlines such as Insectaggedon, Insect Apocalypse and The Great Insect
25	Dying have directed the world's attention to a purported widespread decline of insects and
26	elicited calls for immediate action (Basset and Lamarre 2019, Forister et al. 2019, Sánchez-Bayo
27	and Wyckhuys 2019, Cardoso et al. 2020, Harvey et al. 2020). While deeply concerning, the
28	flashpoint study (Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys 2019) has come under academic criticism and
29	doubt lingers over how well existing data and analyses can predict trends and support the notion
30	of a general demise (Cardoso and Leather 2019, Komonen et al. 2019, Thomas et al. 2019,
31	Didham et al. 2020, Montgomery et al. 2020, Saunders et al. 2020, Wagner 2020).
32	One of the key problems is not having the requisite baseline and monitoring data, beyond
33	anecdotes like less bug splatter on the windshield and fewer fireflies at night (Lewis et al. 2020).
34	Recent interviews with 24 entomologists from 12 nations on six continents pointed to how
35	people typically record species richness of insects, but not the abundance of each species (Hance
36	2019). Except for high-interest pests and pollinators (e.g. Ries and Oberhauser 2015) there is an
37	overall dearth of abundance knowledge ("Prestonian shortfall"; Cardoso et al. 2011) for insects
38	(Samways 2015). For certain taxa, citizen or community science may be the only solution to
39	addressing the Prestonian shortfall and rapidly assessing global trends, as volunteer nature
40	enthusiasts far outnumber professional biologists and can provide significantly more geographic
41	coverage and data points over time (McKinley et al. 2017, Callaghan et al. 2019). Despite
42	challenges in working with citizen-science data (Dickinson et al. 2010), the complex path to
43	assessing insect declines will have to include broad-scale, long-term abundance monitoring
44	driven largely by volunteers (Cardoso et al. 2020, Didham et al. 2020, Harvey et al. 2020,
45	Montgomery et al. 2020, Samways 2020, Wagner 2020).

46 As showy pollinators, butterflies (Lepidoptera) are gateway insects and perennial 47 favorites of entomological citizen science (Acorn 2017), with abundance-based monitoring 48 backed by national funding initiatives in Europe and institutional coalitions in the United States 49 (Taron and Ries 2015, Cardoso and Leather 2019). The similarly charismatic dragonflies and 50 damselflies (Odonata) have not received this level of attention, despite their interesting 51 behavioral repertoire (Cordero-Rivera 2017) and importance as targets, tools, and models in 52 conservation (Clausnitzer et al. 2009, Bried and Samways 2015, Vorster et al. 2020). Their 53 trophic position as top or mid-level consumers has great influence on freshwater interaction webs 54 and land-water energy transfers (Córdoba-Aguilar 2008). Odonates are also a leading indicator of large-scale environmental change (Hassall 2015) and potential proxies for broader segments 55 56 of freshwater biodiversity (Kietzka et al. 2019). Combined with butterflies, they colorfully 57 symbolize the terrestrial and freshwater realms supporting nearly the entire insect tree of life. 58 And like butterflies, odonates attract public interest and can be easy to identify and enumerate, 59 creating prime opportunities for citizen science and improving the biocultural, socioecological, 60 and psychological dimensions of insect conservation (Lemelin 2007, Ngiam et al. 2017, Simaika 61 and Samways 2018).

Here we (i) explain why abundance matters; (ii) review the global data and challenges for estimating odonate species abundances; and (iii) propose an approach to global volunteer monitoring, outlining basic plans for organizational structure, advertising and recruiting, and data collection, submission, and synthesis. Public participation will be essential to overcoming the Prestonian shortfall for a flagship insect group capable of connecting people and nature.

#### 68 Why abundance matters

69	Estimating the abundance of insect species is paramount to safeguarding their
70	populations (Samways 2015, 2020). Unfortunately for insect conservation, species abundance
71	data are generally very limited in space and time, and occurrence-based surrogates are commonly
72	used to evaluate odonate population trends and extinction risk (Goertzen and Suhling 2019,
73	Termaat et al. 2019, Rocha-Ortega et al. 2020). Occurrence patterns across space and time may
74	correlate with changes in population abundance (Gaston et al. 2000, Thorne et al. 2006),
75	especially in cases of small or low-density populations or when species are structured into
76	metapopulations (MacKenzie et al. 2006). However, occurrences inherently mask underlying
77	abundance variation and can have less statistical power than abundance to signal population
78	declines (Pollock 2006), potentially delaying critical actions. There is growing evidence that
79	even some common insect species are declining (Wepprich et al. 2019, Wagner 2020), which we
80	cannot detect with occurrence data. Furthermore, many datasets lack information on absence
81	(e.g. museum specimens, most biodiversity databases) and using presence-only data to make
82	inferences about abundance is still premature (Ries et al. 2019).
83	Abundance is central in manifestations of evolutionary ecology such as behavioral
84	diversity (Cordero-Rivera 2017) and species coexistence (Siepielski et al. 2018), and to applied
85	areas such as bioindication of stressors (e.g. pollution, riparian deforestation; Silva et al. 2010,
86	Córdoba-Aguilar and Rocha-Ortega 2019) and provisioning of ecological and cultural services
87	(Dee et al. 2019). Characterization of services is especially critical to improving people's
88	awareness and psychological connection with insects (Simaika and Samways 2018). Dragonflies
89	and damselflies offer abundance-related services such as regulation of energy flows and
90	biological pests (e.g. mosquitos) but may cause disservices by hosting parasites and consuming
91	pollinators (Simaika and Samways 2008, Sang and Teder 2011, May 2019). Additionally, counts

92 of individual odonates can help to identify autochthonous (resident, non-immigrant) species 93 occurrences, which may in turn strengthen inferences on abundance patterns and their 94 relationship to environmental gradients (Patten et al. 2015, Bried et al. 2016). 95 Insects generally exhibit substantial population fluctuations that call for direct measures 96 of abundance. Of course, larger fluctuations require longer time series and larger sample sizes to 97 detect, assess, and predict changes through time (Pollock 2006, Magurran et al. 2010, White 98 2019). Realistically, given the large geographic ranges of many taxa, only citizen-science 99 monitoring can attain the necessary statistical power for spatially robust trends analysis of 100 odonates, as it has for butterflies (Weiser et al. 2019, Wepprich et al. 2019). 101 102 Who's counting? 103 Odonata citizen science has surged with the proliferation of field guides, digital 104 photography, and online data portals. Odonata enthusiasts around the world are engaged in 105 record collecting and have greatly contributed to species inventories and distribution knowledge. 106 Abundance knowledge, however, has lagged significantly (Fig. 1). Here we give an overview of 107 major abundance efforts for odonates (summarized in Table 1) and the strong contribution of 108 volunteers ranging from amateur naturalists to career biologists. Nearly all the records 109 information in Table 1 and summarized below comes from the adult stages. 110 111 Europe 112 The Netherlands is home to the world's largest odonate abundance campaign. Since the

early 19<sup>th</sup> century, tens of thousands of Dutch citizens have opportunistically contributed over
three million odonate records totaling over 25 million individuals. Data are validated by

115 experienced volunteers and conservation professionals through online data-sharing platforms 116 (https://www.waarneming.nl, https://www.ndff.nl/overdendff/). In 1999, the government-funded 117 Dutch Dragonfly Monitoring Scheme began an initiative collecting standardized abundance data 118 across 500 transects to estimate national population trends, with a focus on species listed by the 119 European Union's Habitats Directive. As of September 2019, the Scheme had documented about 120 281,000 records (unique species-transect-count combinations), counted more than 2.8 million 121 individuals, and over recent decades indicated a strong abundance recovery nationwide (Termaat 122 et al. 2015).

123 Odonata citizen scientists have been active in the United Kingdom, with nearly 13,000 124 people contributing over time, especially during 1996–2014 (includes Ireland as well; Cham et 125 al. 2014). The British Dragonfly Society coordinates and curates the data collection, including 126 the nearly 1.3 million records (as of September 2019) in the National Biodiversity Network Atlas 127 (http://www.nbnatlas.org). Yet only about 2% of these contain counts of individuals, despite the 128 Society using abundance to help identify priority sites and viable breeding populations. During 129 2009–2012, the Society piloted the British Dragonfly Monitoring Scheme, a transect approach to 130 derive population indices following the Dutch scheme. However, difficulties with volunteer 131 recruitment and retention, combined with disagreements over the accuracy of count data, led to 132 the scheme being discontinued in favor of species lists and occupancy modelling approaches. 133 Odonata abundance is also being recorded in the Czech Republic, France, Germany, 134 Spain, and Sweden (Table 1). In the Czech Republic, volunteers usually count individual 135 odonates (https://www.biolib.cz), and recent monitoring (2016–2018) by the national Nature 136 Conservation Agency (https://www.portal.nature.cz) added a significant boost to the abundance 137 records. In France, a complex network of organizations, programs, and naturalist groups has built

138	a large opportunistic records database (http://www.insectes.org) and launched a project aimed
139	specifically at assessing national population trends (http://steli.mnhn.fr). Germany maintains a
140	large odonate distribution atlas (Brockhaus et al. 2015) compiled by the GdO (dragonfly society
141	of German-speaking Odonatologists) across 89 organizations and 2,900 contributors; however,
142	fewer than half of the ~1.2 million records include counts of individuals. Several regions of
143	Spain have published distribution atlases driven mainly by volunteers, with count data available
144	for Catalonia (https://www.oxygastra.org) and ongoing projects in Andalusia, Galicia, Valencia,
145	and the Balearic Islands. Most observations in the Swedish database
146	(https://www.artportalen.se/) come from volunteers (5,635 people) and contain counts of
147	individuals, with over 45,000 standardized abundance records found in select jurisdictions
148	(Östergötland county and Scania province).
149	

150 North America

Odonata abundance counting in North America is limited overall, but strong in selected
provinces and states (Table 1). The Migratory Dragonfly Partnership

153 (http://www.MigratoryDragonflyPartnership.org) and Pond Watch (http://www.PondWatch.org)

154 initiative provide an ongoing multinational citizen program focused on North America's major

migratory species. However, this amounts to barely 1% of the continent's 400 dragonfly

156 (Odonata: Anisoptera) species, and efforts to record abundance have been sparse (Table 1). The

157 United States accounts for most (92%) of the more than 300,000 records stored in Odonata

158 Central (Abbott 2006-2019), but numeric count data have largely been confined to a few state-

159 based programs (Table 1). Some datasets are extensive but not yet digitized, such as a long time

160 series of structured (transect-based) abundance surveys led by the Northern Virginia Audubon 161 Society.

162 Some of the most active citizen science for North American odonates has occurred in 163 eastern Canada (Cannings 2019). The Ontario Odonata Atlas includes abundance observations in 164 over 60% of nearly 100,000 total records (Table 1). The Atlantic Dragonfly Inventory Program 165 contains over 21,000 records, approximately 62% of which contain abundance information 166 (Table 1). Interest in odonates is seen elsewhere in Canada (British Columbia's *Living* 167 Landscapes project, Entomofaune du Québec, Manitoba Dragonfly Survey) but lags compared to 168 butterflies, and knowledge of abundance could be improved for virtually all odonate species 169 nationwide (Acorn 2017, Cannings 2019). 170 171 Africa 172 Africa has two major databases for odonates: OdonataMAP (Loftie-Eaton et al. 2018) 173 and the Odonata Database of Africa (Kipping et al. 2009). OdonataMAP has logged over 90,000 174 photographic citizen-science records from 32 countries, mostly (>90%) from South Africa 175 (Loftie-Eaton et al. 2018), but no abundance information. The Odonata Database of Africa 176 currently stores close to 135,000 records, of which about 84,000 (62%) contain abundance 177 information (Table 1). Most of the records come from the southern African region, led by South 178 Africa (20%), Namibia (7%), Botswana (5%), and Zambia (5%); from the Democratic Republic 179

180 (9%).

181

182 Caveats and grey areas

9

of the Congo (5%) and Uganda (4%) in Central and East Africa; and from Gabon in West Africa

183 Table 1 ignores locations with extensive occurrence records but scarce abundance data 184 (e.g. Mexico, Japan, Singapore, Taiwan), and so the overall proportion of abundance records is 185 much smaller than shown. Furthermore, many of the "abundances" are not standardized (i.e., 186 number of individuals per unit effort) and therefore may not help in estimating relative 187 population sizes and abundance trends or would need sophisticated computational methods (e.g. 188 Zipkin and Saunders 2018) to leverage the information. There also is variability in data access, 189 with some sources open and freely available and others publicly inaccessible or requiring fees. 190 For these reasons, and due to large information gaps (Fig. 1), far more geographic coverage, data 191 points, standardization, and integration will be needed for a global perspective on odonate 192 abundance.

193 The world map shows large grey areas (Fig. 1), much of it short on taxonomic 194 descriptions and keys (so-called "Linnaean shortfall" Cardoso et al. 2011). South America, for 195 example, supports high Odonata richness and mostly lacks identification tools required for 196 citizen science. Yet manuals have been appearing (e.g. Lencioni 2017, Bota-Sierra et al. 2019) 197 and valiant efforts are underway by researchers and a growing volunteer base to document 198 distributions and abundance in the vast and rugged Brazilian Amazon and Cerrado regions (Fig. 199 2a-b). Many well-illustrated field guides have appeared over the past decade in Odonata-rich 200 tropical Asia and Australasia, although with exceptions like Australia, Hong Kong, Japan, New 201 Zealand, Singapore, and Taiwan, an acute lack of distribution knowledge ("Wallacean shortfall"; 202 Cardoso et al. 2011) remains. Engaging bases of strong Odonata enthusiasm in Asia and South 203 America is a priority moving forward.

204

## 205 Moving forward

206	A successful global abundance initiative obviously requires coordination and many
207	dedicated volunteers to motivate, shape, and implement the project. Borrowing from the butterfly
208	experience, this section outlines basic plans and infrastructure towards global volunteer
209	monitoring of odonate abundance (Fig. 3). Our aim here is to spark interest and discourse on the
210	approach and issues while leaving many details open for future discussions among Odonata
211	enthusiasts, students, and researchers; general entomologists and naturalists; and interested
212	conservation biologists, social scientists, data scientists, and others.
213	
214	Organizational structure
215	Many large-scale monitoring schemes have worked well without being highly centralized
216	or fueled by major funding (Cardoso and Leather 2019). A good example and strong model for
217	odonates is the North American Butterfly Monitoring Network
218	(https://www.thebutterflynetwork.org/) launched in 2012. The network is a conglomeration of
219	many butterfly projects, programs, committees, and organizations along with individual
220	lepidopterists, informatics experts, and downstream data users. Its goals are to track and
221	consolidate North American butterfly recording efforts, standardize protocols and data sharing,
222	recruit and train volunteers, and develop computational tools. The network has improved
223	knowledge of not only butterfly geographical distributions but also their relative population sizes
224	across years and the effects of large-scale environmental change.
225	The proposed initiative could benefit from having a central base of operations, an
226	institution stepping forward with international reach and experience building extensive citizen
227	networks (e.g. Cornell Lab of Ornithology, The Xerces Society for Invertebrate Conservation).
228	With or without a dedicated institution, the implementation (outlined below) will require: (1) a
229	core group of leaders/organizers, (2) coalitions and coordination across regional or national

levels. Arguably the hardest work and greatest achievement of the North American Butterfly
Monitoring Network has been in uniting many regional and national entities that historically
operated independently of each other (Taron and Ries 2015). International collaboration seems
critical for standardization to minimize sampling effects (Dickinson et al. 2010) and enable
global inference. The initiative should further aim to maximize the quality of participation,
allowing members of the public to serve as collaborators and co-creators and not just data
contributors (Shirk et al. 2012, Ries and Oberhauser 2015).

237

## 238 Advertising and recruiting

239 Once the data collection and submission protocol (discussed below) are in place, a 240 massive outreach campaign (Fig. 3) will be needed to promote awareness and engage volunteers 241 across continents, regions, nations, or even smaller jurisdictions. We should advertise through 242 social media platforms and the many Odonata societies and reach out to entomological and 243 ornithological (many odonate enthusiasts are also birders) organizations that maintain vast 244 citizen networks, such as Birds Canada and Britain's Buglife. A dedicated project website should 245 help along with social opportunities to stimulate elements of fun, pride, inclusion, and (healthy) 246 competition. For example, holding an annual event in desirable locations (e.g. the Algonquin 247 Odonata Count held annually since 1996 in Algonquin Provincial Park, Ontario, Canada) or during a culturally and biologically significant time, such as the July 4<sup>th</sup> U.S. Independence Day 248 249 celebration when flight activity is at or near peak for many species and people are gathered at 250 lakes and other prime odonate sites. Such events could be modelled after the North American 251 Butterfly Association's counts program (https://www.naba.org) and the Audubon Society's 252 Christmas Bird Count, which supplied data crucial to documenting a nearly 30% decline since

1970 in the total North American avifauna (Rosenberg et al. 2019). For added capacity, the
abundance campaign should coordinate with active citizen-science Odonata projects (e.g. Pond
Watch) and professional biodiversity surveys and monitoring networks, such as the U.S. Long
Term Ecological Research Network, National Ecological Observatory Network, and Natural
Heritage Network (Groves et al. 1995, Huang et al. 2020).

258

## 259 Data collection

In the pursuit of a universal or broadly applicable methodology for standardized volunteer-friendly odonate counting, we must look to the successes, challenges, and failures of past and present odonate abundance efforts. Equally important will be consultation of other broad-based initiatives and protocols, especially for butterflies (Taron and Ries 2015, van Swaay et al. 2015). There are many challenges to volunteer-based standardized insect surveys (Weiser et al. 2020). Here we cover a few key design elements as a starting point to more robust and detailed planning of data collection (Fig. 3).

267 The field protocol needs to be simple and flexible, designed to generate a large sample 268 size and monitor trends, as in Pollard-style butterfly surveys (Pollard 1977, Taron and Ries 269 2015). Robust trends monitoring requires multi-year, effort-standardized data (Montgomery et al. 270 2020, Wagner 2020) and so volunteers would, at minimum, count odonates on a single within-271 year visit to a fixed locality and repeat the survey, preferably in consecutive years. Repeat annual 272 surveys ideally should occur during peak times of diel and seasonal activity and abundance, at 273 approximately the same time of year while being mindful of progressively shifting seasonal 274 phenology due to climate change (Didham et al. 2020). At least 10 years, preferably 15 or more,

may be needed to overcome false baseline and snapshot effects and detect non-random trends inabundance (Fournier et al. 2019, White 2019, Didham et al. 2020).

277 Ideally counting will occur along fixed transect routes using a small detection window to 278 improve detections (i.e., Pollard walk), at or immediately adjacent to water, controlling for 279 habitat differences either by stratifying the counts or staying in a single habitat type. Although 280 true random sampling is rarely possible for citizen science surveys, stratification will help 281 account for site-selection bias and nonrandom placement of transects (Fournier et al. 2019, 282 Weiser et al. 2020). The next best approach to transects or fully structured Pollard walks is 283 keeping track of survey durations and other pertinent features that vary among data-collection 284 events (e.g. start time, ambient temperature). Counting should aim at whole numbers and 285 secondarily at numeric categories or ranges (e.g. 1–5, 6–20, 21–100, >100 individuals; Bried et 286 al. 2015). Enumerating species by sex (male/female), age (teneral/post-teneral), pairs (tandem or 287 mating), and oviposition attempts can be done and would help distinguish resident from 288 immigrant abundance records (Patten et al. 2019). Ultimately, standardized counts do not give a 289 true population estimate but generally suffice for indexing changes and patterns in relative 290 abundance to ascertain where populations are declining and to what degree (Schmucki et al. 291 2016).

In general, adults will have to be targeted because Odonata citizen science typically avoids non-adult stages (larvae, exuviae) that require more work to sample and identify. Adult surveys can greatly improve species-level inventories compared to larval samples (Bried and Hinchliffe 2019), and in many cases adults are counted with ease (Moore 1991, Suh and Samways 2005). Although frequently on the move, their local abundance provides a means of correcting for their vagrancy (Bried et al. 2015, Patten et al. 2019), and rather than track specific

298 localities we would analyze numerous records aggregated over the biosphere or very large areas299 (continents, biomes).

300 Adults of some species cannot be identified without capture, others exhibit elusive 301 behavior (flying too swiftly or at dusk, spending too much time over open water or up in tree 302 canopies, etc.), and many regions still have undescribed species or lack user-friendly 303 identification tools. Even readily observed and easily identified species may become difficult to 304 track and enumerate during peak activity in locally diverse assemblages, or when they 305 congregate in large numbers (Fig. c-d) due to mass emergence, swarm feeding, and migration 306 events. There is heightened risk of overlooking or miscounting rarer species and those of 307 conservation significance belonging to mixed populations of similar looking species, although 308 sometimes hand-net samples of confusing species mixes can be prorated to the relative numbers 309 of each species in the total visual count. Volunteers will have to try their best to count everything 310 they reliably can, with as rough numbers as necessary in overwhelming situations. Unidentified 311 individuals should still be separated and counted to the extent possible (such as "8 Sp. A and 37 312 Sp. B", "8 Aeshna and 37 Enallagma", or "45 unidentified"), avoiding spurious zeros and 313 facilitating total abundance and higher taxonomic level analyses.

314

315 Data submission

We should adhere to the FAIR (findable, accessible, interoperable, reusable; Wilkinson et al. 2016) principles for data submission and reporting (Fig. 3). Funding to build custom systems and technical support is difficult to find and even harder to maintain, so using an established biodiversity monitoring data portal (e.g. BioTIME; Dornelas et al. 2018) is the most realistic option for any new citizen science initiative. However, mature biodiversity platforms for

managing observation data generally are designed for opportunistic records and not structured or
semi-structured survey programs (Kelling et al. 2019). The few portals that do support more
organized data collections tend to either be very program-specific (e.g. Breeding Bird Surveys,
the many European butterfly monitoring schemes) or entirely generic but able to adapt to
individual protocols (e.g. http://www.CitSci.org).

326 Reporting abundances even as corollary information to an occurrence record is not 327 straightforward or allowable in most portals (Ball-Damerow et al. 2019). In fact, the most useful 328 reporting feature will allow users not only to enter abundances but also indicate whether they 329 have included every species they observed on their trip, as this allows distinguishing presence-330 only vs. presence-absence data which has substantial implications for the types of analyses 331 possible (Zipkin and Saunders 2018). With exceptions like eBird (Sullivan et al. 2009), 332 eButterfly (http://www.e-butterfly.org), and Observation.org (https://www.observation.org), 333 most biodiversity platforms, including major Odonata databases, do not allow users to indicate 334 whether everything observed was reported.

335 The data management system will need to align with the semi-structured protocol 336 (Kelling et al. 2019) and support detailed information on effort including the exact route 337 surveyed, detection window, and time spent on the survey (see 'Data collection'). To this end, 338 PollardBase (https://www.pollardbase.org) offers a useful platform that can be adapted for 339 odonates (Doug Taron, The Chicago Academy of Sciences, Illinois, USA, personal 340 communication, March 2020). PollardBase is built specifically around Pollard surveys and 341 therefore accommodates information about the route and survey event (habitat, effort, conditions, 342 etc.) and not just the butterfly observations. It was designed for flexibility across a network of 343 various monitoring schemes (https://www.thebutterflynetwork.org) and to unify them into a

344 maintainable structure (Taron and Ries 2015). Having a unified flexible platform should help to 345 coordinate standardized odonate abundance monitoring across regions and projects (Table 1). Perhaps the greatest barrier, based on the butterfly experience, will be finding a home institution 346 347 and sustained funding for long-term stability (Cardoso and Leather 2019, Kelling et al. 2019). 348 349 Data synthesis 350 The eventual challenge will be to integrate the accrued data towards a large-scale 351 synthesis of odonate species abundances (Fig. 3). Data scientists from outside the Odonata 352 sphere will be needed to help analyze and visualize the abundance patterns and trends. This 353 could start by using available standardized abundances (Fig. 1, Table 1) and first-year 354 monitoring data to explore and potentially optimize sampling schemes for trends estimation 355 (Callaghan et al. 2019, Weiser et al. 2019). Statistical methods and computational tools have 356 advanced rapidly (Freckleton et al. 2020) and we will need to be on the cutting edge of 357 approaches for large and complex datasets. We hope the proposed initiative opens new ideas, 358 collaborations, and funding bids to support technical and synthetic activities like data integration 359 and meta-analyses.

360

## 361 Conclusion

Insect population abundances are often poorly known yet must be prioritized for assessing global insect trends moving forward (Cardoso and Leather 2019, Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys 2019, Didham et al. 2020, Harvey et al. 2020, Montgomery et al. 2020). Given the dearth of abundance data, especially *standardized* abundance data, it is no surprise that openaccess biodiversity databases are mined predominantly for taxonomic purposes and distribution records (Ball-Damerow et al. 2019). To be clear, we are not advocating for an overhaul of

368 Odonata citizen science, but rather are encouraging an expanded focus on abundance and a more 369 coordinated response at a critical time for insect conservation (Samways 2020). We see 370 abundance as bonus information that flows from an already strong recording effort, and 371 something to further stimulate the volunteer's sense of purpose and accomplishment. 372 An army of amateur naturalists may contribute far more data than a small cadre of 373 professional observers (Ries and Oberhauser 2015). Citizen science promotes biophilia while 374 contributing enormously to understanding large-scale biodiversity loss and environmental 375 change, especially in developing or transitioning regions (Braschler 2009, Loos et al. 2015). 376 Even if a globally small percentage of enthusiasts becomes committed to standardized abundance 377 counting, or if those counts comprise a similarly small percentage of the global submitted 378 records, it will be far more information than we have now. Moreover, when counting becomes 379 difficult (e.g. Fig. 2c-d) or where abundance data reach insufficient quantity or quality, the 380 background occurrence data will still be available and potentially useful. 381 The authors collectively have centuries of experience watching dragonflies and 382 damselflies, and many of us have observed local declines (e.g. Córdoba-Aguilar and Rocha-383 Ortega 2019) at least anecdotally. Aquatic insects may not actually be facing widespread decline 384 (van Klink et al. 2020), but with variation geographically and by species this is difficult to infer 385 at large scales (Saunders et al. 2020), which is exactly where citizen science is needed. Through 386 a global network of volunteers, and by exploiting novel computational approaches and emerging 387 technologies like entomological radar (Didham et al. 2020, Montgomery et al. 2020), we can 388 acquire a better understanding of odonate abundance, thereby curtailing the Prestonian shortfall 389 for insects in general and helping us safeguard insect diversity into the future.

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- 592 **Table 1**. A global representation of dragonfly and damselfly (Odonata) abundance counts as of Fall 2019.
- 593 Abundance records consist of whole number counts or, when indicated by an asterisk (\*), numeric

594 categories/ranges. Most records (95–99%) are from observing adult stages.

Location	Project or Database	Survey type	No. total records	No. abundance records
Europe				
Czech Republic	BioLib	opportunistic	7,855	6,283*
	Nature Conservancy Agency	standardized	21,661	10,455
France	French National Inventory of Odonata	opportunistic	631,469	21,149
	Temporal Monitoring of Dragonflies	standardized	21,426	20,149
Germany	GdO (compilation of all data in Germany)	opportunistic	1,167,782	~79,200 ~512,300*
Netherlands	National Database for Flora and Fauna	opportunistic	3,234,062	3,220,187
	Dutch Dragonfly Monitoring Scheme	standardized	280,940	~280,940
Spain	Seguiment de les libèllules de Catalunya	standardized	29,276	~12,700
	Atlas of Odonata of Galicia	opportunistic	15,533	7,396
Sweden	Artportalen, Species Observation System	opportunistic	169,860	93,039
	Provincial and county surveys	standardized	45,898	45,898
United Kingdom	British Dragonfly Society Recording Scheme	opportunistic	1,279,682	<25,600
	British Dragonfly Monitoring Scheme	standardized	84,265	~84,265
North America	Migratory Dragonfly Partnership / Pond Watch	standardized	55,000	574
Canada	Atlantic Dragonfly Inventory Program	opportunistic	21,591	≥13,294*
	Ontario Odonata Atlas Database	opportunistic	96,080	61,386

United States	Maine Dragonfly & Damselfly Survey	opportunistic	15,803	≥8,755*
	New York Dragonfly & Damselfly Survey	opportunistic	19,434	9,126*
	Oklahoma Odonata Project	opportunistic	55,288	33,729
Africa	Odonata Database of Africa	opportunistic	134,756	84,313

# 596 LIST OF FIGURES

597

598	Figure 1. Amalgamation of current distribution and trend (standardized abundance) data for
599	dragonflies and damselflies (Odonata). Grey – no large publicly available distribution database,
600	identification tools lacking, and minimal citizen participation; Light green – publicly available
601	distribution database(s) but generally limited citizen participation and/or identification tools;
602	Green – extensive distribution data and citizen participation but generally lacking trends data
603	(see Table 1); <i>Dark green</i> – extensive distribution and trends data and citizen participation.
604	
605	Figure 2. a-b) Training citizen scientists in the Brazilian Amazon to assess stream quality using
605 606	<b>Figure 2</b> . a-b) Training citizen scientists in the Brazilian Amazon to assess stream quality using dragonflies and damselflies (Odonata) and other bioindicators (photos by CEPAM/icmbio). For
605 606 607	<b>Figure 2</b> . a-b) Training citizen scientists in the Brazilian Amazon to assess stream quality using dragonflies and damselflies (Odonata) and other bioindicators (photos by CEPAM/icmbio). For more information visit: http://www.icmbio.gov.br/portal/monitoramento-2016/programas-de-
605 606 607 608	<b>Figure 2</b> . a-b) Training citizen scientists in the Brazilian Amazon to assess stream quality using dragonflies and damselflies (Odonata) and other bioindicators (photos by CEPAM/icmbio). For more information visit: http://www.icmbio.gov.br/portal/monitoramento-2016/programas-de-monitoramento-da-biodiversidade-em-ucs. c-d) <i>Aeshna mixta</i> resting and swarming in extremely
605 606 607 608 609	<b>Figure 2</b> . a-b) Training citizen scientists in the Brazilian Amazon to assess stream quality using dragonflies and damselflies (Odonata) and other bioindicators (photos by CEPAM/icmbio). For more information visit: http://www.icmbio.gov.br/portal/monitoramento-2016/programas-de-monitoramento-da-biodiversidade-em-ucs. c-d) <i>Aeshna mixta</i> resting and swarming in extremely high numbers in southwestern Ukraine on August 8, 2006 (photos by E. Dyatlova and V.
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611

Figure 3. Proposed infrastructure for moving forward on global volunteer monitoring ofdragonfly and damselfly (Odonata) abundance.

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