## 1 Challenges in measuring global insect decline

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21 22 23 **ABSTRACT** 24 Global rates of insect decline will be very hard to measure. Conclusions regarding drivers and 25 rates of declines can be unreliable due to biases - including sampling location and omission 26 of relevant publications through narrow search terms. Extrapolation of global species declines 27 from a few regions or a sample disproportionately including population loss at range-margins 28 29 is indefensible, and the projected global rate of loss can be seriously overestimated. Samples of insect declines (e.g. reviewed publications) must not overlap in space and time, which 30 would violate observation independence. The threat from climate change can be inflated if 31 declines are not separated from the effects of seasonality and activity. Measures of density, 32 not activity-abundance, are most valuable. No extinction can be firmly attributed to 33 anthropogenic climate change unless the climate trend can also be attributed to humans. The 34 role of pesticides will be inflated if developed nations dominate in the samples. We suggest 35 some minimal methodological requirements when reviewing declines and extinctions. Given 36 these strictures, we reaffirm that declines in most non-marine invertebrate groups will have to 37 be estimated using previously calibrated indicators such as birds and freshwater fish. 38 39 40 Keywords: 41 Climate Change Extinction 42 Invertebrate 43 Red List 44 Threat 45 46 1. Introduction 47 Meeting policy targets on preventing biodiversity loss requires measures of rates of loss, and 48 insects will likely be a major fraction of terrestrial extinctions. Recent reports of insect 49 decline (Lister and Garcia, 2018; Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus, 2019) have received 50 considerable and often uncritical media reporting (e.g. BBC, 2019, Carrington, 2019) which, 51 if overstating the rates, will erode public confidence in science and be detrimental to 52

conservation. Here we demonstrate that it is not possible to measure directly the overall

54 global rates of population decline, biomass decline or extinction in insects, since data are too sparse and measuring insect abundance is challenging, even in the short term. 55 56 57 General reviews of threat and extinction rates (e.g. Thomas et al., 2004; Stork, 2010; Hambler et al., 2011; Hambler and Canney, 2013) reveal the challenges of estimates and the 58 paucity of data on most invertebrate taxa. The shortage of taxonomists and studies render 59 extinction risks in most groups of organism very poorly known and controversial (Minelli et 60 61 al., 2010; Stork, 2010; Lockwood, 2011; Costello et al., 2013). 62 It has been proposed (Hambler et al., 2011) that in addition to measuring loss of habitat area, 63 64 calibrated indicator taxa such as birds and freshwater fish can provide the best information available on extinction rates - now and in the future. Some work suggests extinction rates and 65 the proportions threatened are similar for insects and vertebrates (May et al., 1995; Hambler 66 and Speight, 2004; Hambler et al., 2011; Hambler and Canney, 2013). Regional extinction 67 68 rates for British butterflies are higher than for British birds, although many reported global 69 and regional rates for invertebrates are much lower than for vertebrates (Thomas et al., 2004; Hambler et al., 2011). Similarity of extinction rates is in accord with habitat loss as the main 70 driver of declines and extinction through species area effects (Hambler et al., 2011). 71 72 We consider here the requirements when performing direct measurement of large-scale trends 73 in invertebrate populations, biomass or species. We examine how bias can arise in a review 74 of global rates of loss of and how to reduce bias. 75 76 77 2. Methodology 78 79 2.1 Regional bias To obtain a general global extinction rate would require a representative sample of population 80 changes, such as a random sample from the planet. If the sample used is spatially 81 unrepresentative (as in Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus, 2019) then extrapolation cannot be 82 defended. 83

## 2.2 Range margin bias

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86 87 Global extrapolation of the declines would require a sample from a representative part of each species' range. In contrast Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) use numerous regional

88 89	declines, several from range margins of species. The range margin species may have higher extinction rates (Shaw, 2005; Hambler et al., 2011; Henderson and Magurran, 2014).
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91 92 93 94 95	The use of regional or national 'red lists' in a review (such as Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus, 2019) will inflate the calculated extinction rate. The percentage of 'endangered' species will be overstated because regional red lists include species that are globally <i>not</i> threatened - for example butterfly species in Britain. Regional 'red listing' using IUCN trend criteria is unacceptably influenced by short term-trends and start dates (Fox et al., 2018).
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97 98 99 100 101 102 103	In a long-term study of an entire fish and crustacean community the core community was notably stable while a larger number of transient species fluctuated greatly and often went locally extinct. These transient or tourist species were typically adapted to conditions found elsewhere, predominately the more species-rich waters to the south (Magurran and Henderson, 2003; Henderson and Magurran, 2014). There is now an extensive literature showing the existence of core and transient components of stable ecosystems with continual loss and gain of species on the edge of their range.
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105	2.3 Taxon bias
106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113	'Red lists' for insects are unrepresentative of insects: they are mainly available for speciespoor, conspicuous, charismatic groups ( <i>e.g.</i> butterflies, odonates) and tend to focus on groups already known to be at high risk ( <i>e.g.</i> saproxylic insects; odonates). Several of the taxa used in Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) are relatively thermophilous and are at the high end of regional extinction rates in Britain (Hambler et al., 2011) or Scotland (Shaw, 2005). There has been a long debate on how typical termophilous taxa (such as butterflies) are of other taxa ( <i>e.g.</i> Thomas et al., 1994; Hambler and Speight, 2004; Thomas et al. 2004; Thomas and Clarke, 2004).
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115 116 117 118 119	Regional rates of decline have been recorded for very few insect taxa. Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) were able to discover fewer than 100 reports meeting their very narrow criteria. These authors gave a headline figure of insect species in decline which appears to be an average only of the taxa in their review, rendering their conclusions on global declines indefensible.
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<ul><li>121</li><li>122</li><li>123</li><li>124</li></ul>	When comparing rates with taxa such as vertebrates, the samples of other taxa should also be representative. In contrast, Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) suggest the global rate of extinction of vertebrates to be "a large margin" lower than for insects, yet fish do not appear to be included.

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126	2.4 Search Term scope and bias
127 128 129 130 131	The search terms used in any literature review must be fit for purpose: a sole focus on decline (as in Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus, 2019) will bias against trends of population growth, and miss extinctions or population stability. Searching only for "insect*" will miss some titles on invertebrates, or on animals, which include insects. Terms such as "trend" or "extinction" would reveal other studies of declines.
132	
133 134 135 136 137 138 139	A limited search can lead to factual inaccuracy, as in Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) who make false statements on lack of data for ants, saproxylic beetles and Orthoptera. Yet Hambler et al. (2011) list regional extinctions in these groups over a specified timeframe (200 years) in Britain, and other highly relevant data are available (Shirt, 1987; Bratten, 1991; Shaw, 2005). Hambler et al. (2011) provide data on aquatic insects but these were not found by Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019), and only one study was found for Hemiptera - missing the major long-term study by Southwood et al. (2003).
140	
141 142 143	Search bias could lead to oversights: for example Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) do not include the evidence on extinction rates from several relevant studies ( <i>e.g.</i> May et al., 1995; Shaw, 2005; Stork, 2010; Hambler et al., 2011; Hambler and Canney, 2013).
144	
145	2.5 Literature bias
146 147 148 149 150 151	A broad net is required to capture published data in invertebrate declines. Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) "aimed at compiling all long-term insect surveys conducted over the past 40 years that are available through global peer-reviewed literature databases." This was reportedly attempted primarily through a search on the online Web of Science. Such a specialised database can omit books, book chapters and possibly relevant grey literature (all of which can be peer-reviewed, although this is no guarantee of quality).
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153	2.6 Reporting bias
154 155	We suggest few ecologists are motivated to publish a report on 'healthy' insect populations. A notable exception is Shortall et al. (2009).
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159	2.7 Extrapolation risks
160 161 162 163 164	Net trends are required for extrapolations. If only declining trends are extrapolated, it will erroneously lead to exaggerated conclusions of losses. For example Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) and Sánchez-Bayo (quoted 2019) apparently extrapolate an estimated 2.5% annual loss in a sample of publications to complete loss of all populations and species of insect by the year 2100!
165	
166 167 168 169	Extrapolation from declining species ignores the chance that some of these would be temporary declines, or population cycles, as with fish (Henderson and Magurran, 2014). Moreover, rates may diminish after the initial loss of the most sensitive species (Hambler et al., 2011) or during relaxation after habitat loss (Hambler and Canney, 2013).
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171 172 173 174 175	Consider also the reverse trend: if search terms acquire selectively publications showing species <i>gains</i> over a specified timescale, this could be extrapolated to suggest that the world would have a larger number of species by 2100. Indeed, depending on the studies used and the net rate of species gain a prediction could be made that Earth would trend to holding an infinite number of species.
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177	2.8 Driver attribution
178 179 180 181 182	The subjective selection of types of potential driver of decline (habitat change, pollution, biological traits, climate change) can inevitably make some factors appear important. If driver categories are lumped, or split, in alternative ways then their relative contributions can be arbitrarily adjusted. Terminology on threat is also likely to vary between the various publications, with some authors more likely or prepared to use some terms.
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184 185 186 187 188	When performing meta-analysis of a range of reviews, it is crucial that the number of species in each case is accommodated: otherwise declines in taxa with many species such as Hymenoptera will be given equal weight to taxa with far fewer such as butterflies. If each study is given equal weight the proportion of global species being driven by each factor cannot be calculated - yet Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) attempt this.
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190 191 192 193 194	It will be very difficult to make attributions of population declines to anthropogenic climate change, given uncertainties in attributing global, and particularly regional, climate trends to pollutants (IPCC, 2013). It is more difficult to distinguish an anthropogenic climate signal distinct from natural variation prior to 1950 (IPCC, 2013). Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) conclude (on the basis of only 3 tropical studies) that climate change is "particularly

195 196 197	evidence of how robust to climate changes the tropical species have been and should remain (Hambler and Canney, 2013).
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199 200 201 202 203 204 205 206 207 208	It is crucial that there is not double-counting of drivers, for example in climate categories. In Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) the method of attribution of climate change as a driver in 6.9% of studies is insufficient for replication, but perhaps assumes 5% from "climate warming" plus all "bushfires" (1.9%). However, some bushfires are natural. Globally, the area burnt decreased from 1996 and 2012 and regional attribution of fire is highly problematic (Doerr and Santín, 2016; Ward et al., 2018). Moreover, bushfires might be caused by warming (Doerr and Santín, 2016) so these criteria are not independent - yet are apparently treated as such in Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus, (2019). The net result of overlooking these considerations would be to inflate the role of climate change, as may subsequent media reports ( <i>e.g.</i> BBC, 2019).
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210 211 212 213	Alternatively, the global Red List (IUCN, 2019) can be searched by 'threat' for putative drivers of declines. For example, this reveals four 'extinct' insect species assessed as possibly impacted by climate change (natural or anthropogenic), and none of these global insect extinctions can be firmly attributed to post 1950 climate change.
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215 216 217	As another example, the proportion of species allegedly affected by pesticides could be an artefact if there is location bias towards industrialised regions with more surveys in intensive agricultural landscapes, as in Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019).
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219	2.9 Statistical rigour
220	Any review of declines must not make statistical errors.
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222 223 224 225 226	Independence of data points is a typical requirement of statistical tests such as ANOVA. Yet several of the 73 studies reviewed by Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) are non-independent in space and / or time. For example trends in butterflies in the U.K. are in more than one study, and also overlap with data for Europe. The trend in Odonata for the world may include the regional studies of this taxon.
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228 229	It can be problematic to test for differences in rates of species in decline using ANOVA. Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) compare percentage declines in various regions and taxa.

230 231 232 233	This is unwise as these data inevitably lack independence in the observations, the residuals will not be normal and the data will not be homoscedastic. A possible approach would be to use a generalized linear model, but this may still be problematical if the various data sets are not independent.
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235 236 237 238	Similarly, non-independence of studies could render the overall proportion of publications reporting a driver of decline potentially invalid as a summary statistic. This introduces errors of pseudoreplication and duplication (double-counting) as in Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019).
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240	2.10 Reproducibility of methods, and standard IUCN criteria
241 242 243 244 245	It is important to be able to replicate some key results of a review of declines. This is not always the case: Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) claim "conservation status of individual species follows the IUCN classification criteria (IUCN 2009)", but this reference is omitted from the review's references. However, for some taxa the review uses national lists explicitly distinguished from IUCN criteria ( <i>e.g.</i> New Zealand carabid beetles, McGuinness, 2007).
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247 248 249 250 251	Assigning the actual levels of threat such as "endangered" and "vulnerable" in a review should be done in a consistent way for different taxa (Stork, 2010), if relevant specifying the regional or global IUCN sub-criteria used ( <i>e.g.</i> Fox et al., 2018). Attempts by non-specialist authors to convert various declines into IUCN threat status using percentage declines over unclear timeframes are problematic.
252 253	2.11 Accurate citation of past studies
254 255 256 257 258	It is important to represent accurately the results in any paper that is included in a review of declines. As an example of inaccurate interpretation, Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) state that vertebrates in Puerto Rico declined "as a result of invertebrate food shortages", which misrepresents Lister and Garcia (2018). It confuses correlation with causation - which was unproven by Lister and Garcia (2018).
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260	2.12 Measure abundance, not activity-abundance
261 262 263 264	Any study of decline requires accurate measures of abundance. In contrast, we argue Lister and Garcia (2018) is deeply flawed because it misrepresents 'activity-abundance' measures (Henderson and Southwood, 2016) as 'abundance'. The efficiency of sampling using traps and visual observations will be dependent on weather and climate. Any trends in climate could

influence movements and phenology of invertebrates and vertebrates, even in the absence of 265 population change. Activity-dependent methods should not be used without consideration of 266 weather. Absolute samples (density measures) including knockdown sampling and vacuum 267 sampling are required (Hambler and Canney, 2013; Henderson and Southwood, 2016) yet 268 many published studies use pitfall traps, flight interceptor traps, baited traps, visual 269 270 observations or similar (e.g. Hallmann et al., 2017; Lister and Garcia, 2018). 271 2.13 Adequate time series, and measuring past rates 272 A reliable proof of trend cannot be obtained from sampling at only two points in time, a 273 notable failing of Lister and Garcia (2018). Consistent methods are required for long-term 274 275 monitoring (Hambler and Canney, 2013, and due to allegedly inconsistent climatology Lister and Garcia (2018) is currently subject to a retraction request (Homewood 2019). This is one 276 of the tiny number of tropical studies (n = 3) in Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019); it is thus 277 278 absolutely crucial to that review's conclusions on climate and tropical insect decline, and to implied subsequent effects. 279 280 In order to know if extinction rates are relatively rapid - perhaps even a mass extinction, 281 282 previous rates need to be known. This is extremely hard for insects. Yet Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019) claim that rates of loss are the largest since two mass extinctions (Late 283 Permian and Cretaceous. This conclusion is not possible for most invertebrates, even for the 284 285 mid Holocene. Subfossils reveal numerous insect species went extinct during the deforestation of Britain in the Holocene (e.g. Buckland, 2008; Elias et al., 2009); the peak 286 extinction rate in this period and before it is unknown. Hambler et al. (2011) list numerous 287 19th Century regional insect extinctions, demonstrating high losses before pesticides and 288 anthropogenic climate change. 289 290 291 2.14. Rates of loss of biomass The rate of loss of worldwide insect biomass will be particularly hard to estimate, despite 292 requiring less taxonomic effort. The average mass of a representative sample of regions and 293 taxa would have to be known, and these data are not available given the limited work in the 294 tropics. Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus (2019 attempt to derive such a rate from a review of 295 studies showing biomass decline, yet these are unrepresentative taxonomically. 296 297

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## 3. Conclusion and synthesis of recommendations 301 Any review of declines must not have structural bias and its methods and uncertainties must 302 be presented. We argue a review of declines with numerous methodological problems 303 (Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhus, 2019) has already facilitated damaging uncritical reporting that 304 all insects on the planet may be extinct by the end of the century (e.g. BBC, 2019). 305 306 In the light of the biases and other problems discussed above, we suggest these minimal 307 standards for reviews of population trends and extinctions: 308 309 a) Representativeness of the locations of regional samples if claims are to be made about 310 global loss. 311 312 b) Representativeness of taxa if claims are to be made about much higher taxonomic levels 313 and about biomass. 314 315 c) Representativeness of search terms for population time series, including those that can 316 detect gains, losses, declines, increases, regional and global extinctions, colonisations and no 317 trends. Terms should ideally be in a range of languages. Publication and reporting bias 318 against studies showing no trend should be acknowledged. 319 320 d) Avoidance of pseudoreplication in reviewed studies. Studies of declines must be 321 independent in space and time, or if not, suitably nested in analysis. 322 323 e) Avoidance of double-counting of drivers, using nested classifications and interaction 324 terms if appropriate. 325 326 f) Searches need to include a wide range of literature not listed in the Web of Science. 327 328 329 g) Clarify when the IUCN has made or endorsed a threat assessment, such as "Endangered", as opposed to authors claiming to have used IUCN classification methods. 330

332 333	h) Clarify the use of 'endangered', 'threatened' and 'extinct', if these are only regional, at all points in a publication in which they might be misinterpreted.
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335	i) Methods should be presented in sufficient detail for reproducibility.
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337 338	j) If population trends are extrapolated to the future, or to other taxa, state the assumptions being made.
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340 341	k) Do not extrapolate trends from time series with an inadequate number of data points (times).
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343	l) Prioritise studies with consistent methods through time.
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345	m) In headline statistics, give the error range and uncertainty.
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347 348 349 350 351 352	In sum, we argue these requirements make direct measurements of invertebrate declines impossible for the foreseeable future. Even if a very large number of insect density monitoring stations were set up globally, and sampled frequently, it could take many decades to detect trends - let alone attribute drivers. Without taxonomic knowledge and autecology sufficient to assign species quality (Hambler and Canney, 2013) it would be hard to know if trends were of concern.
353	
354 355 356	Proxies such as rates of loss of birds, fish and habitat area are the only realistic methods of assessing global wildlife decline. We may indeed be in a mass extinction (Barnosky, 2011; Hambler and Canney, 2013), but the best evidence for this is presently from vertebrates.
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