

Supplementary Fig. 1. Relationships between record density and inventory completeness in global 'digital accessible information' for three vertebrate groups at the 110 km grain. A) Record density, B) Inventory Completeness, C) Scatter plots of relation between inventory completeness and record density with deviance explained (d²) based non non-zero grid cells, D) Spatial arrangement of residuals of a binomial generalized linear model (logit link) explaining inventory completeness with record density. Red values indicate higher, blue values lower inventory completeness than expected from record density.

Supplementary Fig. 2: Spatial variation in record-based inventory completeness for three vertebrate taxa at four spatial grains. Grey grid cells show areas within the global range of the taxonomic group with no mobilized records.

Supplementary Fig. 3: Maps of predictor variables used to model point record density and inventory completeness (110 km grain). For details on variables and source datasets see 'Materials and Methods'. The Global Peace Index (variable 'Secure conditions') has high values for insecure conditions variables and source datasets see 'Materials and Methods'. The Global Peace Index (variable 'Secure conditions') has high values for insecure conditions and we multiplied values with -1 to test for effects of secure conditions. The variable 'Research funding (institutions)' describes the mean research funding of the countries where the providers of records for a given grid cell are situated. The variable 'Publisher size' describes the mean size funding of the countries where the providers of records for a given grid cell are situated. The variable 'Publisher size' describes the mean size Supplementary Fig. 3: Maps of predictor variables used to model point record density and inventory completeness (110 km grain). For details on and we multiplied values with -1 to test for effects of secure conditions. The variable 'Research funding (institutions)' describes the mean research (contributed data volume) of the providers of records for a given grid cell. (contributed data volume) of the providers of records for a given grid cell.

Supplementary Fig. 4: Grid cells selected for models of point record density and inventory completeness. Dark red cells were considered in models, grey cells were not considered although the taxonomic group is present because they either had no records or no data for all predictor variables was available. At the bottom part of each map the number of grid cells in the respective models (*N*) is shown. Inset histograms show percentages of included grid cells in five 20%-completeness classes.

Supplementary Fig. 5: Determinants of point record density and inventory completeness. Effects were tested in simple and multiple regression models. All model subsets were ranked based on AIC scores and subsets with ΔAIC <10 re-run as spatial models, by accounting for spatial autocorrelation in model residuals. For record density, we used ordinary least squares models and simultaneous autoregressive models (SAR β and OLS % SS). For inventory completeness, we used spatial and non-spatial generalized linear models with a binomial distribution and a logit link (GLM β and GLM % SS). Bubble size represents the strength of predictor-response relationships. Vertebrate groups

are represented by color, with shading denoting the direction of the relationship. We show predictor strength for record density using three different metrics: i) the coefficient of determination in simple regressions (r^2) , ii) the standardized coefficients of the reduced subset of the spatial multi-predictor model with the lowest AIC score (blank cells indicate variables that were not included in these models) (SAR β), and iii) the percentage each predictor has in the total Sums of Squares (OLS % SS) of a type III ANOVA. For the latter we used AIC values of all possible model subsets as the response variable and dummy-variables coding whether or not a predictor is in the respective model as explanatory variables. We show predictor strength for inventory completeness using three different metrics analogous to those for record density: i) the deviance explained in simple generalized linear regression models (d²), ii) the standardized coefficients of the reduced spatial multiple generalized linear regression models with the lowest AIC score (GLM β), and iii) the percentage each predictor has in the total Sums of Squares (GLM % SS) of a type III ANOVA.

a) correlations between record density and inventory completeness

b) correlations between GBIF richness and expert richness

Supplementary Table 1: Global correlations between **a)** record density and inventory completeness (based on grid cells with at least one record) and **b**) species richness evident in mobilized occurrence point records (SR_{records}) and expected true species richness based on expert-opinion range maps (SR_{expert}). For each taxonomic group and spatial grain (km), the median record density (N records/ 10^4 km²), the median inventory completeness, the Spearman's rank coefficient (r_s) , and the number of grid cells (N cells) are shown. Asterisks behind r_s represent *P*-values corrected for spatial autocorrelation⁸⁰ (.: *P*<0.1; *: *P*<0.05; **: *P*<0.01; ***: *P*<0.001).

a) Variation among biomes

b) Variation among realms

c) Variation among biome-realm combinations

Tundra Australasia 8 0.0 64.3 37.4 21.0 41.7

Nearctic 364 0.0 89.1 32.8 23.4 31.8 Palearctic 384 0.0 94.4 8.1 22.1 0.0

d) Variation among countries

Variation among countries (continued)

Variation among countries (continued)

Supplementary Table 2: Variation in 110 km inventory completeness (%) for all three vertebrate groups combined ($N = 21,170$ species) among **a**) biomes, **b**) realms, **c**) biome-realm-combinations (following⁹⁴), and **d**) countries. Within biomes, realms are ordered from highest to lowest median completeness. Within broad geographical regions, countries are ordered from highest to lowest median completeness. Grouping of countries into geographical regions is for orientation only and does not reflect any view of the authors. Some countries are missing because they did not overlay the majority of the land area of any grid cell. Country codes (ISO 3166 standard) are the same as in Fig. 5.

Supplementary Table 3: Top 50 countries based on number of species-grid cell combinations that are missing from countrywide completeness of 100% at the 110 km grain ('Non-inventoried species spp-cell'). Countries are ordered from highest to lowest percentage of non-inventoried species presences ('% of non-inventoried spp-cell).

Supplementary Table 4: Results of the geographic and taxonomic validation of records. Of the geo-referenced specimen and observation data with a binomial or trinomial scientific names that passed initial filtering (see '*N* records'), between 99.6 and 99.8% could be linked to our taxonomic database (see 'Linkable to DB'). Between 9.5 and 24.6% of records are stored under a name that is not an accepted species name according to our three "master" taxonomies, e.g., a synonym or subspecies name, and thus required taxonomic name standardization (see 'Not accepted name'). 6.5 to 37.9% of records had ambiguous names, i.e., accepted names or synonyms that could refer to more than one accepted species, and thus required combined taxonomic and geographic inference to determine the most parsimonious species identity (see 'Ambiguous name'). 71.0 to 86.1% of records remained after taxonomic and geographic validation, i.e., the record could be confidently assigned to one accepted species, and was also collected within the presumed current distribution of that species (see 'Validated records').

Supplementary Table 5: Grid cells selected for models of point record density and inventory completeness in different regions. Shown are total numbers of cells inhabited by the vertebrate group (Total cells), total numbers (Cells included) and percentages (% cells included) of cells that were included in models.

Supplementary Table 6: Model fits and spatial autocorrelation for **a)** inventory completeness (RAC models) and **b)** record density (SAR models). Values are given for the model subset with the lowest AIC score. In a) model fit is expressed by the deviance explained (D²). The degree of spatial autocorrelation (global Moran's I) in model residuals is compared between the minimum adequate spatial model subset (see 'Moran's I_{sp}') and the corresponding non-spatial model (see 'Moran's I_{nsp}'). Asterisks denote significant spatial autocorrelation (.: *P*<0.1; *: *P*<0.05; **: *P*<0.01; ***: *P*<0.001). In b) model fit is expressed by pseudo-R² values, calculated as the squared Pearson correlation coefficient between fitted and observed values ⁸². Fitted values of SAR models can be partitioned additively into trend (non-spatial smooth) and signal (spatial smooth). We calculated both a pseudo-R² for the fitted values including the spatial component ('R²sp'), and a pseudo-R² for the trend excluding the spatial component, which represents the part of the variation explained by the predictors (in the context of SAR models hereafter $(R²_{nsp})$). R² values of potential minimum adequate models (subsets with $\Delta AIC < 2$) never differed by more than 0.004. The degree of spatial autocorrelation (global Moran's I) in model residuals is compared between the minimum adequate spatial model (see 'Moran's I_{sp}') and the corresponding non-spatial (OLS) model (see 'Moran's I_{nsp}'). Asterisks denote significant spatial autocorrelation (.: *P*<0.1; *: *P*<0.05; **: *P*<0.01; ***: *P*<0.001).

a) Adding country identity to MAM.

b) Adding record density to MAM.

Supplementary Table 7: Influence of adding a) country identity of grid cells as a factor and b) record density to the minimum adequate model of inventory completeness. D_{MAM}^2 is the deviance explained by the minimum adequate model. In a): $D²$ _{MAM+Country} is the deviance explained when adding a country factor to the minimum adequate model. $D²$ _{Country} is the deviance explained by a model containing only country membership as factor. The percentage of cross-country variation that is already captured by the minimum adequate model (% of cross-country variation already in $D²_{MAM}$) was calculated as: 100 / D^2 _{Country}*(D^2 _{Country} - (D^2 _{MAM+Country} - D^2 _{MAM})). % D^2 added by Country is the additional deviance explained by adding a country factor to the minimum adequate model (as percent of total D²); in b): D^2_{MAM+RD} is the deviance explained when adding log_{10} -transformed record density to the minimum adequate model. D_{RD}^2 is the deviance explained by a model containing only log₁₀-transformed record density as an explanatory variable. The percentage of the deviance explained by the MAM that is also attributable to differences in record density (% of D^2 _{MAM} in ΔRD) was calculated as: 100 / D^2 _{MAM}* (D^2 _{MAM} - (D^2 _{RD} - D^2 _{MAM+RD})). % D^2 _{added by RD} is the additional deviance explained by adding record density to the minimum adequate model (as percent of total D^2_{MAM+RD}).

Inventory completeess at 220 km (continued)

Inventory completeness at 880 km (continued)

Record density at 110 km (continued)

Record density at 440 km (continued)

Supplementary Table 8: The effects of socioeconomic and geographic factors on a) – d) inventory completeness and e) – h) data density. The twelve predictor variables were endemism richness (EndRich), protected area coverage (ProtAreas), mountains (Mountains), on-ground accessibility (GroundAcc), proximity to airports (ProxAirp), proximity to data-contributing institutions (ProxInst), secure conditions (Security), participation with GBIF (GBIFpartic), scientific activities (ScientActiv), nationally available research funding (FundLocal), research funding in countries with contributing institutions (FundInst), and size of contributing institutions (PublSize). Three comparative measures were used: for inventory completeness $(a - d)$: 1) the deviance explained from simple regressions (d²), 2) standardized regression coefficients from the reduced spatial generalized linear model with the lowest AIC score (GLM β ; a range of coefficients is given if several model subsets have $\Delta AIC < 2$ to the "best" model), and 3) the percentage each predictor has in the total Sums of Squares of an ANOVA, where the AIC values of all possible nonspatial models enter as the response variable and dummy-variables coding whether or not a predictor is in the respective model as explanatory variables (% SS); for inventory completeness $(e - h)$: 1) the coefficient of determination from simple ordinary least squares regressions $(r²)$, 2) standardized regression coefficients from the reduced simultaneous autoregressive model with the lowest AIC score (SAR β), and 3) the percentage each predictor has in the total Sums of Squares of an ANOVA, where the AIC values of all possible non-spatial models enter as the response variable and dummy-variables coding whether or not a predictor is in the respective model as explanatory variables (% SS) the. Asterisks denote significant spatial autocorrelation (.: *P*<0.1; *: *P*<0.05; **: *P*<0.01; ***: *P*<0.001).

a) Publishers of bird records

b) Publishers of mammal records

32

33

34

c) Publishers of amphibian records

l,

Supplementary Table 9: Summary of a) bird, b) mammal, c) amphibian records contributed to GBIF by different data publishers and used in this study. Data publishers are ordered by decreasing number of contributed data. In the parentheses are percentages of overall data that passed geographic and taxonomic validation and were used in further analyses. Note that we applied a land area threshold of 30% at the 110 km grain, which resulted in the exclusion of some "good" data collected on or near the sea. We also excluded non-breeding ranges. Therefore percentages of excluded records do not necessarily allow conclusions on the quality of data provided by a particular publisher.

Supplementary Notes 1: Species distribution data

Range Data

We considered all species of terrestrial birds (excluding pelagic feeders, $N = 9.712$)¹, terrestrial mammals (excluding cetaceans, pinnipeds and sirenians; $N = 5,270$)², and amphibians (N = 6,188)³. We projected expert based extent-of-occurrence range maps for these 21,170 species^{2,4} into an equal area projection and overlaid them with four nested equal-area grids with grain sizes of c. 110 km, 220 km, 440 km, and 880 km, respectively, at the equator. These range maps were originally drawn by species experts based on a variety of data sources, including point records, local inventories, atlas and literature data. We considered a grid cell as occupied by a species, if any portion of its range map overlapped with it, and chose 110 km as the finest resolution to minimize false presences⁵⁻⁷. We excluded 110 km grid cells that did not have at least 30% land area unless they included oceanic islands, in order to minimize effects of area and imprecise range maps while keeping most range-restricted species in the analyses. We further excluded grid cells of which the majority of the land area overlapped with mangrove biomes. This led to the exclusion of 51 narrow endemics near coast lines (not included in the above species count). We overlaid the gridded range maps to define expert-opinion species richness.

Point occurrence records

We focused on records aggregated by the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) as a representation of international efforts to mobilize biodiversity data into 'digital accessible information' (DAI)⁸. GBIF is by far the largest such effort in geographic and taxonomic scope^{9,10} and GBIF-facilitated data have been used to assess progress towards Aichi target 19^{11} . We received 192,637,611 geo-referenced records for birds, mammals and amphibians from GBIF in October 2012, of which we extracted 192,463,144 records with potentially sensible geographic coordinates (Longitude: $-180^\circ - +180^\circ$, Latitude: $-90^\circ - +90^\circ$) reported with a precision of at least one tenth of a degree. We excluded 8,861,041 records that did not have either a binomial or trinomial scientific name, 278,107 records for which the 'basis of record' field did not indicate 'preserved specimen', 'observation', or 'unknown' (most of which are observation records), and 9,865 records that were reportedly collected before the year 1850, leaving 183,488,598 records. We validated these taxonomically and geographically (see below), which left 157,086,248 records for further analyses.

Taxonomic and geographic validation of records

We then matched the taxonomies of records and range maps. To maximize the amount of records that would pass taxonomic standardization, we combined information on accepted names and synonyms from seven existing taxonomic databases (see below). We accepted species delimitations following ref.¹ for birds, ref.² for mammals, and ref.³ for amphibians. To each accepted species name, we linked further scientific names fully or partly included in the respective species concept from the above and four further databases^{2,12–14}, including synonyms, subspecies, and common typographical variants. Via this "synonym table", we linked records to the accepted species. We excluded records likely referring to domesticated forms. The synonym tables for the three vertebrate groups, along with a brief guideline of how to use them, are available as Supplementary Dataset 1. We inferred the taxonomic identities of records with ambiguous scientific names (such as *pro parte* synonyms) from spatial overlays with the range maps of all accepted species to which the name could potentially refer. In further analyses, we only used records of which the species identity could be unambiguously determined because they fell inside the gridded range maps (at 110 km grain) of only one accepted species. This led to the exclusion of 13.9 to 29.0% "false" or unclear records (see Supplementary Table 4). By validating localities of records against expert-opinion range maps, we ensure that records are biologically plausible and do not refer to zoo or invasive animals

outside of their native ranges. We note that this approach may lead to the exclusion of "good" records collected outside of range maps if the maps are inaccurate. While coordinate transposition of geographically false records and "fuzzy matching" of names would have decreased the number of excluded records marginally^{15,16} this would also have increased the uncertainty associated with the validity of records¹⁵. Supplementary Table 4 shows results of the geographic and taxonomic validation of records.

Record density and inventory completeness

We overlaid the validated records with the same grids as the range maps. For each grid cell, we then calculated record density as the number of records per 10,000 km² land area and inventory completeness as the percentage of expert-opinion species richness documented by records.

Supplementary Notes 2: Geographic and socio-economic variables explaining inventory completeness

We analyzed the relationships of twelve different geographic and socio-economic factors with record density and inventory completeness. These represent a wide range of existing hypotheses that can be categorized into five broader categories: 1) appeal, 2) accessibility, 3) security, 4) international scientific integration, and 5) financial and institutional resources (for details see maps and discussion of variables below). We limited collinearity among predictor variables by only including variables with Pearson's correlation coefficients $\leq 0.7^{17}$.

Most data were available at spatial grains $\leq 0.25^{\circ}$ and aggregated as arithmetic means for the grid cells. We created a few variables from country-level data sets, namely security, national research funding, integration into scientific activities, and GBIF participation (see below). We assumed that the effects of these factors on biodiversity sampling and data mobilization efforts would be similar throughout a given country, and thus used the same value for each grid cell within the country. For grid cells overlaying several countries, we calculated the arithmetic mean of the respective country values weighted by the proportion of land area that falls within each country. We based the definition of country boundaries and the calculation of land area on the polygons of the GADM database [\(www.gadm.org/version1\)](http://www.gadm.org/version1). We assigned disputed areas to the country currently having *de facto* administrative control.

Endemism richness:

Areas with specific biodiversity features are naturally interesting to ecologists and several authors have suggested that collectors frequent areas where they can expect to find many or rare species^{18–23}. To test whether there is global support for this "diversity tracking" hypothesis²¹, we used endemism richness²⁴, as it combines aspects of both species richness and species' range-sizes within an assemblage. Endemism richness is calculated as the sum of the inverse global range sizes of all species present in a grid cell. We estimated the range of each species as the sum of 110 km grid cells overlaying the respective range map polygon^{2,25}. We assumed a taxonomic focus of most collectors to at least class-level and therefore used avian, mammalian, and amphibian endemism richness, respectively, to predict inventory completeness of the three vertebrate classes. Note that a focus on rare species during sampling $26,27$ or a possible emphasis on type specimens during digitization could also lead to range-restricted species being disproportionately represented in mobilized data and thus to data being biased towards high endemism areas.

Mountains:

Mountains could also draw a special attention of collectors because of their scenic beauty or their elevational habitat gradients and, accordingly, high species turnover and the presence of "mountain specialists"^{21,22,28–30}. Conversely, it has been reported that mountains are relatively neglected by collecting efforts in some areas due to their poor accessibility^{31,32}. To test for effects of mountains on inventory completeness and record density, we calculated the

topographic range within each grid cell as the difference between the minimum and maximum altitude, based on data from the GTOPO-30 digital elevation model³³.

Protected areas:

Protected areas could attract collectors because they may promise "pristine" habitats in otherwise altered landscapes or represent strongholds of rare or sought-after species^{23,28–30,34–37}. If developed for ecotourism or management, they may also provide the most straightforward access points to ecosystems³⁷. To model the effect of protected areas, we calculated the proportion of the land area in each grid cell covered by protected areas of International Union for Conservation of Nature categories I to IV^{38} . Preliminary analyses demonstrated that using an alternative predictor variable based on all³⁸ protected areas (thus including more protected areas, e.g. from China) did not alter our conclusions.

On-ground accessibility:

Some of the most frequently tested hypotheses regarding sampling bias revolve around the onground accessibility of areas to researchers, especially via roads (e.g., the "highway effect"³⁹ or "road-map effect"⁴⁰). Because the time needed to access an area on the ground has to be traded off against time spent sampling, collectors often choose to sample close to human population centers^{19–21,23,28,31,34,35,41–43} or on-ground transportation routes like roads, railways, navigable rivers and coasts lines^{20,21,31,34,35,37,39,40,43–47}. These effects have been documented mainly at local to regional spatial scales. While most studies found negative relationships between distance to urban areas and transportation routes, 30 have found that in China, the opposite is true at the county scale, i.e. sampling intensity and inventory completeness are negatively correlated with both road and human population density. To test whether on-ground accessibility influences data availability at the global scale, we used the 'Travel time to major cities' dataset⁴⁸, which provides estimates of the time needed to travel to cities with a

population **>**50,000, and which combines data on urban areas, roads, railroads, navigable rivers, shipping lanes, habitat types, etc. We calculated mean values for every grid cell, and reversed arithmetic signs, so that higher numbers in our index corresponded to greater accessibility.

Proximity to airports:

Since ecologists often have to travel long distances to their study areas, it is possible that regions more accessible by air travel have been better sampled and therefore have higher record density and inventory completeness^{31,37}. To estimate the accessibility of areas by air travel, we used data on the locations of $>9,300$ airports and airfields⁴⁹. Areas close to several airports should be more accessible to researchers, and we therefore calculated the mean distance of every grid cell centroid to the five closest airports. Again, we reversed arithmetic signs to create an index where large values correspond to close proximity to airports.

Proximity to research institutions:

If sampling is mainly carried out by staff of specimen-housing institutions, then time and money constraints could lead collectors to focus on areas nearby their homes or home institutions, and correspondingly, to administrative areas with research institutions being more thoroughly sampled^{18,29–31,34,50–52}. This effect has been mostly documented for plants (hence, the "botanist effect" 50), but it can be hypothesized for any group of organisms.

At the global scale, different aspects complicate testing this hypothesis: First, specimenhousing institutions often have a strong geographical and taxonomic focus. So not all institutions in close proximity to a given grid cell should be considered as potential samplers of its biodiversity. For instance, an institution specializing in bird migrations is unlikely to collect amphibians in a nearby wetland. We therefore created an index based on the distances to those institutions that currently focus or have focused on sampling the respective vertebrate class in

the broader geographic region surrounding a grid cell. For a given focal grid cell and vertebrate class, we identified data publishers (i.e., institutions) that contributed records from within 750 km of the grid cell centroid. We geo-located these publishers (to at least 50 km accuracy) and calculated their distance (in km) to the grid cell centroid. When simply calculating the mean distance to those publishers weighted by their relative contribution, we found that the many large European and North American institutions had an overarching effect on the index, and all grid cells in the southern hemisphere emerged as remote, even if situated in close proximity to "southern" institutions. We therefore calculated the proximity of grid cells to the relevant publishers as the weighted mean of inverse distances or "proximities" (in km; multiplied by $10⁸$ for easier scaling):

$$
10^8 * \sum_{i=0}^{n} (\text{RelContribi}/\text{Di})
$$

where RelContrib*ⁱ* is the relative contribution of the *i*-th publisher to the records from the area and D*ⁱ* the distance (in km). This index has high values when the majority of data within an area are provided by publishers in close proximity. In preliminary analyses we also calculated the weighted mean of log_{10} -transformed and square root-transformed distances, which yielded very similar results, so we used the best performing index based on AIC.

Our approach differs from that of Amano $\&$ Sutherland⁵³, who tested for the effect of the distance to data aggregators (e.g., the GBIF headquarters in Copenhagen, Denmark) rather than data publishers, and found only a negligible effect for GBIF-enabled data. However, while the big biodiversity data aggregators like GBIF, VertNet, SpeciesLink or eBird provide the infrastructure for linking biodiversity data, they are themselves not responsible for the amount or informational content of the data (this lies with distributed data providers). We therefore excluded data for which the indicated publisher itself is an international data aggregator from the calculation of our index.

Secure conditions:

Human hazards associated with armed conflicts, territorial disputes, low levels of public safety or political instability can discourage scientific activities^{54,55} and have been reported or hypothesized to have adverse effects on biodiversity data collection and data administration activities, such that more data are available for areas characterized by secure conditions^{20,23,32,53,56–58}. To test this hypothesis, we used the Global Peace Index (GPI)⁵⁹, which is probably the most inclusive existing index describing the overall state of security within a country ⁵³. We note that this index has several drawbacks. First, it is aggregated at the country level, while real levels of security can vary within countries. It is unclear at which spatial scales security levels would deter collecting efforts (i.e., depending on their risk tolerance and detail of available information, foreign collectors could avoid particular low-security parts of a country or entire geo-political regions). As a further drawback, even though we calculated the mean GPI score across several years, the index is only available for the time period between 2008 and 2012 and may not reflect real or perceived security levels in the 1950s through 1980s where many of the specimen records have been collected. In preliminary analyses, we found that an index of the frequency of armed conflicts from 1946 to 2008, created from more finescale data 60 was consistently a very poor predictor of record density and inventory completeness for all taxa and spatial grains (results not shown). A third potential drawback is that the GPI is not only based on factors affecting the level of personal safety within a country, but also on the level of militarization, which may be unimportant to collectors. However, potential alternative country-level measures of perceived personal safety that we tested in preliminary analyses ('political stability and absence of violence'⁶¹, 'control of corruption'⁶¹, physician density⁶²) were highly collinear with the GPI, so we restricted our main analyses to this measure. Because high GPI values stand for low levels of security, we reversed arithmetic signs of GPI values with after log_{10} -transformation to create an index of secure conditions, and accordingly hypothesized a positive relationship with both record density and inventory completeness.

Scientific activities:

Low levels of record density and inventory completeness in specific countries may also be due to a lack of scientific capacity or expertise^{23,56}, or be the result of a delayed start and poor international integration into the communication of ecological science due to linguistic reasons ⁵³. Conversely, countries whose researchers actively engage in the communication of science through peer-reviewed publication and are internationally well-integrated through collaborations may also mobilize and share more data via international networks like GBIF. To estimate this integration of a country into international scientific communication and collaborations (or "globalization of science"⁵³), we used data on peer-reviewed primary literature from the *SCImago Journal & Country Rank*, which assembles publication ranks based on *Elsevier*'s *Scopus* database⁶³. We extracted the H-index for every country based on peer-reviewed papers published between 1996 and 2011 in the field 'Ecology, Evolution, Behavior and Systematics', and multiplied it with the proportion of papers resulting from international collaborations, i.e., with authors' home institutions situated in at least two countries.

GBIF participation:

Although GBIF represents by far the largest international effort facilitating access to point records, many data holders currently do not share their data or only make them accessible via smaller, mostly national networks. Not sharing available biodiversity data internationally due to, e.g., political, economic, or legal reasons has been identified as a key factor limiting scientific progress⁶⁴, and the availability of readily accessible biodiversity data from many parts of the world^{15,65}. One of the main strategic goals of GBIF for the coming years therefore is winning the support and cooperation of as yet non-participating countries⁶⁶. To test whether cooperation of countries with GBIF is important in limiting biodiversity information from their territories, we used the proportion of the land area within each grid cell that is covered by a GBIF-participating country (as of April 2013, information from GBIF website).

National research funding:

Locally available financial resources have been shown to be an important factor limiting scientific activities in developing countries^{67,68} and are thus a frequently hypothesized reason for low availability of biodiversity data^{36,47,52,53,56,69}. To estimate the financial resources that are potentially available for biodiversity research, we gathered information on the per capita gross domestic expenditure (in purchase power parity dollars) on research and development $(GERD)^{70,71}$. Most other studies have used measures of economic activity such as per capita GDP. Although biodiversity-related funding only makes up a tiny fraction of GERD, research and development spending is generally more closely tied to scientific activities and scientific output than GDP-based measures⁶⁷, and we believe it to be a better proxy for resources that are available for biodiversity studies. We assumed that research grants are mostly available from national funding institutions, and that every grid cell within a country has a similar likelihood of obtaining money for biodiversity data collection and mobilization. We therefore assigned the same GERD value to every grid cell within a country. We restricted our models to those grid cells with at least 70% of their land area covered by countries with available GERD data, which led to the exclusion of some grid cells, particularly in Africa and Asia (see maps of included grid cells and predictor variables above). Preliminary analyses in which we replaced GERD by per capita GDP^{72} as an estimate of research funding and thus included more grid cells showed that it was indeed a poorer predictor of both record density and inventory completeness, but otherwise did not alter our conclusions.

Research funding of institutions:

Data collection within a particular area as well as their mobilization is often carried out by staff of foreign research institutions. Therefore research funding available in the countries of those institutions that actually contribute data from that area may be a more plausible limiting factor for DAI than locally available funding. A survey on the challenges involved in specimen digitization among the natural history community⁷³ found funding to institutions (or related institutional aspects such as technical infrastructure or number and expertise of staff) to be the main factor limiting specimen digitization and biodiversity data mobilization (see also⁵⁶). To test whether this factor limits record density and inventory completeness globally, we created an index based on GERD data in data publisher countries (see above, GERD data available for all 31 countries with data publishers that have contributed records used in this study). We linked to every data publisher the GERD value (in purchase power parity dollars) of the country where it is located. For each grid cell, we then calculated the mean GERD of data publishers, weighted by their relative contribution to the records from the respective grid cell:

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n} (\text{RelContribi} * \text{GERDi})
$$

where RelContrib*ⁱ* is the relative contribution of the *i*-th publisher to the records from the grid cell and GERD*ⁱ* the GERD in the country where the *i*-th publisher is located. We acknowledge that research institutions within a given country may differ in their ability to attract funding, and chances of securing funding for data mobilization may depend more on the existence of specific funding programs (such as the National Science Foundation's 'Advancing Digitization of Biodiversity Collections' initiative) than on among-country differences in GERD.

Publisher size:

By definition, larger research institutions have larger quantities of data. Additionally, they often have more resources available for sampling and curatorial activities as well as more and highly

specialized staff, combining a greater variety of research foci and taxonomic expertise than smaller institutions⁷⁴. Some large North American and European institutions are also reported to have more important collections from Africa, Asia and South America than smaller local institutions because they were involved in extensive biodiversity inventory programs in those regions⁷⁵. Accordingly, data provided by these institutions should include specimens of more and rarer species^{23,26,75,76}, leading to higher levels of inventory completeness in regions where they are or have been active. On the other hand, Chauvel *et al*. ⁷⁷ also highlight the value of specific information added only by smaller institutions. Yesson *et al*. ¹⁵ suggested that a focus on large institutions would most efficiently fill gaps in global, digital accessible information, and a focus on the largest North American and European collections is part of GBIF's strategic plan for $2012-2016^{66}$. To test whether the size of contributing institutions is limiting record density and inventory completeness in their focal areas, we created an index based on the mean size of institutions that are active within a particular grid cell, weighted by their relative contributions:

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n} (\text{RelContribi} * Vi)
$$

where RelContrib*ⁱ* is the relative contribution of the *i*-th publisher to the records from the grid cell and V*ⁱ* the total data volume that the *i*-th publisher contributed to GBIF (as of Oct 2012). We acknowledge that different institutions have advanced to different degrees in terms of mobilizing their data into DAI^{78} , which could potentially bias our estimation of publisher size. However, no reliable information of the size of all institutions that contribute data to GBIF is currently available (compare⁷⁸). Record counts of data publishers are summarized in Supplementary Table 9.

Supplementary Notes 3: Statistical methods

We compared the mean completeness among regions using max-*t* tests⁷⁹, and *P*-values were adjusted to geographically effective degrees of freedom following Dutilleul⁸⁰.

We investigated the effects of the predictor variables on record density and inventory completeness with simple and multiple regression analyses and built regression models separately for amphibians, birds and mammals at each of four spatial grains (110 km, 220 km, 440 km, 880 km). Because some explanatory variables were calculated using information from the records (e.g., 'Proximity to institutions'), we only included grid cells with at least one record (see Supplementary Figure 4 and Supplementary Table 5).

Before entering the models, record density as well as all predictor variables were $\log_{10} (x + k)$ transformed, with a variable-specific constant k added to each value x , so that the smallest value before log_{10} -transformation equaled 1^{81} . Predictor variables with values bound between 0 and 1 ('Protected areas', 'GBIF participation') were arcsine-square root-transformed before log_{10} -transformation. To account for bias due to area-effects, we included the log_{10} -transformed land area within each grid cell as a covariate in all multiple regression models (highly significant in all cases).

We modeled effects on record density with non-spatial linear models (ordinary least squares) as well as "spatial" simultaneous autoregressive models (SAR) of the error type, which account for spatial autocorrelation (SAC) in the residuals⁸², using functions from the R package *spdep*. We used non-spatial and spatial GLMs with a binomial distribution and a logit link to model effects on inventory completeness, which entered the model as a composite variable: *cbind*('species covered by GBIF', 'species not covered but presumed present') in *R* terminology. The spatial GLMs were formed by first running a given non-spatial model, and then calculating the 'residuals autocovariate' (RAC) using the *spdep*-function *autocov_dist*, based on a specific neighborhood structure (a list of neighborhood cells to each grid cell) and the residuals of the non-spatial model. The RAC was then entered in the model as a covariate

and accounted for SAC in the model residuals 83 , similar to an error-type SAR. We used the global Moran's I test to determine the degree of $SAC⁸¹$. Significant SAC in model residuals often persisted in the spatial models but was reduced by about one order of magnitude compared to non-spatial models (see Moran's I values in Supplementary Table 6).

To represent simple associations of predictor and response variables, we ran single-predictor models (non-spatial and not including log-transformed land area as a covariate) and report the coefficient of determination and deviance explained, respectively, for OLS and GLMs (Supplementary Figure 3, Supplementary Tables 6-8). We assessed model fit of the minimum adequate models (MAMs) as the % deviance explained (D²) in the case of RAC models (spatial binomial GLMs; Supplementary Table 6b) and as Pseudo-R² in the case of SAR models (Supplementary Table 6b). To test for potential country effects that would remain after controlling for the main 12 predictor variables, we added countries as an additional factor to the spatial MAMs and assessed the increase in model fit (Supplementary Table 7).

Long computation times due to the large amount of predictor variables and high numbers of grid cells made it unfeasible to run all possible spatial models. For both inventory completeness and sampling effort, we instead first ran all possible non-spatial multiple-regression models. We then identified all model subsets that would likely be among the minimum adequate spatial models (with a $\Delta AIC \leq 10$ to the MAM) and only re-ran those models as spatial models.

Both SAR and RAC models require defining a neighborhood structure that defines the distance over which SAC occurs in model residuals. For each grain, we identified the range of distances that would define a neighborhood structure with a median of $8 \sim$ one cell row) to 24 (\sim two cell rows) neighbor cells around focal cells. We then re-ran all candidate model subsets as spatial models for each of five different neighborhood structures based on five distances within that range: for the 110 km grain 200, 250, 300, 350, and 400 km, for the 220 km grain 400, 500, 600, 700, and 800 km, for the 440 km grain 800, 1,000, 1,200, 1,400, and 1,600 km, and for the 880 km grain 1,600, 2,100, 2,600, 3,100, and 3,600 km.

We also investigated interactions and non-linear effects, and although many were significant, accounting for them did not greatly alter model fit or parameter estimates of the main effects in preliminary analyses. To maintain as much simplicity as possible with twelve predictor variables, we therefore decided to focus on the main effects.

Relative importance of predictor variables

For each taxon and grain, we identified the minimum adequate spatial models based on AIC scores. We report the standardized coefficient (β) of the most strongly supported spatial MAM (i.e., with lowest AIC score) in Fig. 3 and Supplementary Fig. 5, and where applicable, the range of the standardized coefficient among all potential spatial MAMs (with ΔAIC <2 to the lowest AIC score) in Supplementary Tables 6-8. Where the model with the lowest AIC score did not include a factor, we report the standardized coefficient of the "second-best" model (if among the potential MAMs, Supplementary Tables 8). If none of the potential MAMs had a particular factor, it was left blank in Fig. 3 and Supplementary Fig. 5.

As an alternative measure of relative importance, and considering all possible subsets of the full non-spatial model as experimental units, we carried out ANOVAs with a response variable consisting of the AIC scores of all possible models and predictor variables formed as dummyvariables coding for every factor whether or not it is in the respective model. The percentage of the total Sums of Squares (% SS) attributable to each factor corresponds to their relative importance (compare $84,85$).

Supplementary Notes 4: Limitations of this study

Biodiversity data sources

With GBIF and the many integrated data sources (see Supplementary Table 9) we cover by far the largest share of global digital accessible information on biodiversity. However, several global and regional data mobilization initiatives provide access to digital data, but do not currently make their data accessible via GBIF. Additionally, several regions have digital or non-digital data that are not shared.

In this study, we focused on information on species distributions as a particularly essential biodiversity variable⁶, that is a prerequisite for more nuanced conservation strategies targeting critical or declining populations, or associated ecosystem services. However, we acknowledge that several initiatives address data types that inform about other aspects of critical relevance for conservation, such as species' abundances 86 , ranging behavior 87 , or conservation status². Such datasets require equally systematic assessments and prioritizations in order to effectively proceed towards Aichi target 19.

Potential biases

The extremely large numbers of bird observation records (85.6% of all validated records) result in a vast overrepresentation of birds in our dataset (152M records/9,712 species) compared to mammals (3.4M records/5,270 species) and amphibians (1.3M records/6,188 species). This overrepresentation means that model results for birds may be more reliable than those for mammals and amphibians. However, record quantities upon which mammalian and amphibians inventory completeness values are based are still in the low millions, sufficiently high to support our analyses and conclusions. Birds' over-representation in species and record numbers does not bias our conclusions on overall important limiting factors for inventory completeness, as we modeled effects separately for each of the three vertebrate groups and emphasized factors that consistently emerged as relatively important irrespective of vertebrate group, spatial grain, and evaluation metric (hence our stress on 'Proximity to research institutions' and 'GBIF participation'). In cases were important effects only emerged for one or two vertebrate groups, we make that clear.

Another factor that might affects our analyses is that the ratio between observation records and specimen records is much higher in birds (0.01) compared to mammals (1.4) and amphibians (2.8). Thus, models for birds mainly explain patterns in observation records. However, as these observation records are readily accessible to anyone wishing to use bird records in research or conservation, we see no basis for excluding them. Quite the contrary, focusing analyses more on specimen-derived records (to more closely approximate the observation/specimen ratios in mammals and amphibians) would bias analyses towards a small and potentially unrepresentative fraction of available occurrence information.

Finally, grid cells with zero records (excluded from modeling analyses) are geographically biased. Certain regions like North Africa and Central Asia have particularly high proportions of cells that are not included in models, especially at fine spatial grains, and may not be wellinformed by our models (see Supplementary Fig. 4, Supplementary Table 5). However, even at fine grains, included grid cells are globally distributed and poorly-covered cells are bestrepresented in absolute terms (see histograms in Supplementary Fig. 4). Therefore, our models should be informative about the factors limiting inventory completeness globally, including in poorly-covered regions.

Explanatory variables

A general shortcoming of our study is that we had to rely on fairly recent socio-economic datasets. We investigated time series of collected data volumes per 5-year period which showed that the majority of records (i.e., including both observation and specimen records) have been collected in recent decades, but specimens in particular were often collected several decades ago (median recording year for amphibians: 1979; for mammals: 1989; for birds: 2007). We implicitly assumed that among-region differences in factors relating to field sampling, like onground accessibility, protected areas, and levels of research funding, have on average been similar at the times when data were collected. As digitization and sharing of these records happened mostly within the last decade, record age does not affect our conclusions regarding

the main factors currently limiting DAI. However, spatiotemporal changes in sampling activities in relation to historical factors (e.g. roads, reserves) is a needed area of further study. With the factors included in this study, we attempted to cover a wide range of established hypotheses on the drivers of data bias and inventory completeness in global DAI. However, we note that original collection, digitization, mobilization, and sharing of data may be influenced by further contemporary and historical socio-economic factors, such as political systems and agendas, levels of bureaucracy and international cooperation, policies of funding agencies, and legal aspects^{20,64,73,88}, information technological capacity⁸⁹, lingua franca^{43,53}, colonial history^{37,75,90}, traditions of natural history institutions and personal preferences of collectors and curators⁹¹, as well as attitudes of countries and data owners towards data-sharing^{92,93}. Most of these effects are difficult to quantify, and existing country-level datasets are often highly collinear. Some of these effects, however, may become visible in the form of country effects, not least because data mobilization to GBIF is organized via national nodes. However, many countries have experienced extreme political transitions as well as changes in their sovereign territory over the course of time when data have been collected, and effects of modern country identities on record density and inventory completeness may be difficult to interpret for many parts of the world. We therefore decided not to perform hierarchical mixed effects models with countries as a random factor, but instead only assess the increase in model fit if a 'country' factor was added to the minimum adequate multi-predictor models.

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