Developing Biodiversity Indicators for Los Angeles County

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A Special Thanks To:

Our project and team advisor -- *Noah Garrison*

Our clients -- the *Natural History Museum, the National Park Service, & The Nature Conservancy*

UCLA’s *Institute of the Environment and Sustainability*

This project would not have been possible without our advisor and clients. Thank you for all your help and contributions to this project!
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**Introduction**

Biodiversity, or biological diversity, is the variety and variability of life. It can be measured in many different ways, and the simplest measure of biodiversity is species richness, the number of species per unit area. Biodiversity can also be quantified by a biodiversity index, which is a measure of how many different species there are in an area, taking into account how evenly individuals are distributed. Unlike in natural landscapes, urban settings are largely influenced by humans, who change the vegetation and biota present (Jenerette, 2013). This produces a diverse combination of species and habitats that makes it difficult to quantify biodiversity solely based on existing indices, such as the Shannon Index or Simpson Index. Efforts to create an urban-specific biodiversity index need to take urbanization patterns into consideration when measuring how species occur and are distributed in a city.

The Singapore Index (SI), also known as the City Biodiversity Index (CBI), was developed in 2010 with major contributions from Singapore’s government, as a biodiversity index specifically designed for cities. The SI is divided into three components: native biodiversity in the city, the ecosystem services provided to the city by biodiversity, and the management of biodiversity in the city (CBI, 2012). The environment of Los Angeles, one of the most densely populated urban areas in the United States differs from that of Singapore due to differences in urban set-up and climate, and thus may require a different set of biodiversity indicators for any proper assessment of the region’s biodiversity. Our project will use the Singapore Index as a baseline for analysis of urban centers and suggest a new set of biodiversity indicators specifically tailored for Los Angeles.

**Background**

*Biodiversity Indicators*

Biodiversity, taking into account the genetics and morphology of species, is the variety of species on Earth. Biodiversity indicators are necessary to help merge complex ideas and information into a concise assessment. While various indices, which synthesize a number of individual indicators into sets, are currently used worldwide to assess biodiversity health. There is currently no standardized, agreed-upon global set of indicators for measuring the health of urban biodiversity that would be considered equally applicable throughout the world’s major cities. Since there is not a single set of biodiversity indicators for global use, these various indices help provide a glimpse into the health of various aspects of biodiversity, but not a complete or even comparable picture.

Effective indicators need to be interpretable to all audiences and must contain scientific data, as well as basic information that can be easily understood by the general public. They should also be accessible to a large audience, as well as transparent enough to influence policy-making (Bubb, 2009). Good indicators need to be linked to a possible environmental driver that is causing an increase or decrease in biodiversity. Scientists have differing opinions on what a good indicator needs to entail, which increases the difficulty of creating a set of universal biodiversity indicators.

*Convention on Biological Diversity*

In 2002, 188 nations gathered for the Convention on Biological Diversity’s 6th Conference of the Parties to create the 2010 Biodiversity Target, in hopes of slowing the
loss of biodiversity worldwide (“Report from Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity COP 6,” 2002). They agreed to protect “components of biodiversity, promote sustainable use, address threats to biodiversity, maintain ecological goods and services, protect traditional knowledge and practices, and ensure fair and equitable sharing of benefits from use of genetic resources” (“The 2010 Biodiversity Target Pamphlet,” 2010). In 2010, the Convention on Biological Diversity held its 10th Conference of Parties to continue the discussion of biodiversity. Using the biodiversity indicators as an assessment to measure biodiversity goals set during the last conference, they agreed that the 2010 Biodiversity Targets ultimately failed their goal of reducing the loss of biodiversity. The participating nations created the Aichi Targets to try to continue reducing biodiversity loss between 2011 and 2020 (Feld, 2010). The Aichi Targets included mainstreaming biodiversity across government and society through public access to all information, reducing direct pressures on biodiversity and promoting sustainable use (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2010). 39 indicators are currently being used right now to track the global progress of the Aichi Targets, and a few of these will be discussed below.

The Red List

The Red List Index is a biodiversity indicator that looks at species’ population size, rate of decline, and area of distribution. The relative rate at which species in a particular group changes is measured and categorized based on the endangerment of species, from “least concerned” to “extinct.” It has strong potential in showing the impacts of invasive species, trends from impacts of land use, and trends in species used for food and medicine. However, it can be a less sensitive measure of status because of the time delays (Bubb, 2009). For large populations, it may take longer to change to a different threat level category due to the time it takes for species to drop in population.

Living Planet Index

The Living Planet Index looks at the average rate of change in many populations of vertebrate species over time. Data for this Index, which has been neatly organized in concise and understandable terms for general audiences, has been collected since the 1970’s, thus making it useful to assess whether or not conservation actions have been successful over a course of more than 40 year period (Loh, 2005). There are currently 3,000 population time series for 1,100 species. Unfortunately, it only focuses on vertebrates, which does not provide a comprehensive picture of all species.

Global Wild Bird Index

The Global Wild Bird Index focuses on an even more specific group, using birds as a measure of biodiversity health, and tracking only the average population trends of several species of wild birds (“The Global Wild Bird Indicator”). It has a strong potential for tracking larger ecosystem health because birds are sensitive to environmental changes, are mobile, and are widely studied. However, a clear downfall of the index is that it only focuses on one class and rare birds are often overlooked (“The Global Wild Bird Index”). Birds also don’t have specialized micro-habitats like insects.
Management Effectiveness of Protected Areas

Management Effectiveness of Protected Areas is another indicator that helps look at improving status of biodiversity by safeguarding ecosystems, species, and genetic diversity. It observes the effectiveness of the management of areas that are especially dedicated to protecting and maintaining biological diversity, as well as natural and cultural resources (Chape, 2005). This assessment leads to better management, resource allocation, and accountability. The benefits of this standard are that protected areas are widespread and many areas are already assessed. This provides a baseline for future data (Leverington, 2010). However, in order to produce site-level adaptive management strategies, much more research and development of this indicator is needed.

Application of Biodiversity Indices in Urban Areas and Southern California

Our research will focus on biodiversity indices specifically regarding urban environments and Southern California. Aside from the existing challenges of measuring biodiversity, there are unique challenges in assessing urban areas. In urban areas, human attitudes and preferences towards species traits may be the primary factors in determining species composition, rather than the traditional factors of species competition and other biotic interactions (Jenerette, 2013). For example, in Los Angeles and many semi-arid cities, trees are almost entirely sourced non-natively and planted by humans (Pataki, 2013). Urban areas are greatly influenced by socioeconomics and other location-specific factors. Within individual cities, studies have found a strong socioeconomic effect, where increasing neighborhood income correlates with the extent of vegetation greenness and diversity (Lowry et al., 2012 and Clarke et al., 2013). Species richness patterns have been shown to greatly differ between metropolitan regions and adjacent wildlands, despite having the same climate, due to the strong influence of urbanization (Jenerette, 2013).

Comparative urban studies have found that vegetation tends to homogenize depending on social interest and climate (Jenerette et al., 2006). These findings help identify how urbanization influences vegetation due to human preference and availability of ecosystem services. As a result, urban ecosystems cannot be reduced to the historically indexed species of the landscape before urbanization. Efforts to quantify the biodiversity in urban areas should reflect the functions and values society attaches to the vegetation within the city, whether species are indigenous or exotic (Hermy, 2000).

Barriers in data collection have impacts on the ability of a city or region to quantify biodiversity, since the value of a diversity index depends on both the number of indicators found and the evenness in which indicators are found. While scientists are able to complete controlled field sampling in natural environments, land ownership and regulation pose significant challenges to biodiversity sampling in urban areas (Clarke, 2013). One tool to bypass this challenge is remote sensing, which can be used to track changes in vegetation. Vegetation species themselves can be identified based on photosynthetic activity or “greenness” using reflectivity and absorption of the plants. Remotely sensed data can also be used for monitoring vegetation biodiversity, land-cover classifications, measures of heterogeneity, and measures of productivity. In 1998, the California Urban and Biodiversity Analysis Model was developed by UC Berkeley to bridge the gap between urban development and habitat quality. The model calculated fauna biodiversity based on the suitability of particular remotely sensed vegetative covers to particular fauna, rather than on actual species sightings or population counts of fauna (Landis, 1998). Additional studies have found that lowest vegetation biodiversity is typically
found in residential locations, while the highest biodiversity is found in recreational areas and parks (Clarke, 2013). In addition to use of remote sensing, local efforts, such as those that involve local governments and urban residents in participatory species indicator monitoring programs, may also prove useful for gathering data in urban areas (Ahern, 2014).

Placing urban fauna and flora within a biodiversity index requires a thorough assessment of many factors. The majority of biodiversity studies are focused on vegetation due to the time-consuming nature of indexing animal species. The biodiversity of animal species can be inferred from the area of suitable vegetative covers for specific species (Hermy, 2000). For monitoring of fauna, priority if generally placed on animal groups that are both sensitive to environmental change and are easily identifiable (Begon, 1996). For example, butterflies are a common biodiversity indicator due to their short generation time and quick response to changes in habitat. Amphibians are good indicators of water quality, and birds are good indicators for vegetation health (Hermy, 2000).

The Singapore Biodiversity Index, also known as City Biodiversity Index, is currently the only biodiversity index specifically designed for cities. It has three components: the native biodiversity in the city, the ecosystem services provided to the city by biodiversity, and the management of biodiversity in the city (CBI, 2012). There were some complications when researchers attempted to use the CBI across several cities in Japan and Europe. When applied throughout Japan, researchers struggled with the limited ability to collect data for certain indicators due to the unclear definitions of what that indicator entailed, such as the boundaries for a natural, semi-natural, and fragmented areas (Uchiyama, 2015 and Kohsaka, 2013). Furthermore, many cities expressed concerns over the funding for the compilation of necessary data needed to evaluate native biodiversity or ecosystem services. Ultimately, many indicators proved to be logistically unrealistic to calculate or collect due to limited resources (Pereira et al., 2013). While still under development, the CBI has potential to assess impacts of different policies and urban planning decisions on biodiversity and the ecological services biodiversity provides both within the city and closely related ecosystems (Seitzinger et al., 2012).

In California, there has been significant effort to analyze the relationship between vegetation biodiversity patterns and the ecosystem services they provide to city residents. Early efforts to bridge the gap between urban land use planners and conservationists focused on more traditional topics, such as the historical loss of Coastal Sagebrush (Westman, 1987). In more recent years, due to rapid urbanization, there has been a shift in focus to index the existing urban vegetation, regardless of native or non-native status (Gillespie, 2008 and Clarke, 2013). In Los Angeles, significant land changes due to agriculture, development of infrastructure, urban area, and roads, created a large impact on the landscape itself, but also threatened biodiversity through the alteration of habitat and habitat fragmentation, invasive species, and homogenization of habitats from urbanization (Tratalos, 2007 and McKinney, 2002).

**Biodiversity in Los Angeles**

Land clearing due to urbanization in Los Angeles has removed habitat for native species, allowing some non-native species to thrive and replace local native species (McKinney, 2008). This causes biotic homogenization of an area, or more simply, dominance of one species (McKinney, 2005). In fact, it has been shown that change in land cover could lead to as high as 40% loss of species in a specified area (Seto, 2012). The percentage of non-native species occupying land tends to be higher for plants than other organisms such as “birds, mammals,
reducing that building at urban density is a key objective of urban conservation. It is impactful for biodiversity to be preserved at the least possible cost. A biodiversity conservation plan is required to expand, going beyond cities to support the environment and urbanization. The proportionality of species is considered to be one of the most severe areas of fragmentation because of its constant conversions of large natural habitat areas to roads, houses, and businesses (Tigas et al., 2002).

Some Los Angeles city initiatives aim to increase ecosystem health, such as LA 2050 and the Sustainable City pLAn. Unfortunately, these initiatives are often concentrated on improving human life, and not the biodiversity in the area. McKinney (2005) states that any urban city’s main goal, when it comes to the homogenization of the physical environment, is to “meet the relatively narrow needs of just one species, our own.” Thus, while changes made to better our environment may indirectly help improve and protect biodiversity, there is few true objectives to directly aid in the protection and preservation of species (both plants and animals), as it is hard for the general public to see “the intrinsic value of biotic diversity” (Faeth et al., 2011).

**Conservation of Biodiversity in Urban Areas**

The conversion of natural landscape into urbanized areas comes with an inherent change in biodiversity that scientists are still trying to accurately measure. Despite the negative effects of urbanization, findings show that many urban areas are developed on locations of fertile soil and high species richness, which sets the stage for strong potential rebounds in biodiversity if conservation efforts are implemented (Alberti, 2010). If done correctly, converting gardens back to native vegetation allows for better interconnectivity, which supports the movement of organisms, and large public green spaces, which acts as a refuge for native vegetation to support native invertebrates and vertebrates alike. Careful planning at the city and state level are needed to maximize the positive effects of corridors. In addition, compact development and ecologically friendly construction is imperative to preserving remaining undeveloped patches and conserve biodiversity in urban landscapes.

With urban populations currently accounting for over half of the world’s population, and developing countries expected to house 80% of the world’s urban population by 2030 (Goddard, 2010), cities are going to be the major points of infrastructure growth. There is no denying that cities are going to expand, but figuring out how to grow with the environment and in a way that is least impactful for biodiversity will be the key to conserving biodiversity. A consensus of papers on urban ecological growth is that building at high density and reducing urban sprawl is
the most effective means of limiting negative impacts to biodiversity in urban areas (Ikin, 2015, McDonald, 2008, and Sushinsky, 2013). High density urban expansion entails small or no-yard space per individual property, so there is less green space attached to each private building. If the excess space is set aside for restoration, this type of expansion can result in larger areas of green space, such as parks or corridors. This approach focuses on altering landscapes that have already been disturbed, so that there are fewer total negative consequences for biodiversity compared to low density development (McDonald, 2008 and Sushinsky, 2013). Backyards and personal gardens are an important part of inner-city biological connectivity, so it is important to account for this in the form of high quality green space, stepping stones, and corridors when choosing compact development over sprawling development (Sushinsky, 2013). Without intermittent green space in cities, there would be little place for biodiversity to exist.

For urban residents who have green space on their property that cannot be utilized for construction, converting yards to native vegetation will set the stage for struggling native species to rebound in suitable habitats. These green spaces can contribute to a network of stepping stones at a city-wide scale, leading to the larger, high quality parks and greenbelts with native trees and vegetation that are more valuable for bird and arthropod species richness (Faeth, 2011 and Goddard, 2010). There is no debate between ecologists that mobility and interconnectivity are essential to conserve biodiversity. However, deciding where the most important places to preserve and where potential green pathways should be placed, has yet to be established. Paths of most importance are dependent on what species are being considered, making it a very situation dependent consideration, as no city’s biodiversity can be compared with another (Beninde, 2015). Certain species, like coyotes and crows, thrive in heavily populated areas, while endemic species with small habitat niches are more likely to experience negative impacts on abundance in response to urbanization. Once having determined which species focus would contribute most to biodiversity, a city can take control of vacant lots, wastelands, or former industrial sites that have the potential to contribute to a network of interconnected green stepping stones through the city.

Current science struggles to identify urban species richness and abundance, but in 2013 Jessica Sushinsky et al. (2013) was able to use MaxEnt software, a program used by ecologists for species habitat modeling, on data she obtained in the field of an urban avian species presences across the city, to see how different factors of urbanization could potentially affect the species distribution. An experiment conducted by Assaf Shwartz et al. (2014) in 2014 set out to see if city dwellers could identify a change in biodiversity of a specified area. The research group was able to artificially increase the biodiversity of a public garden throughout the experimental process with methods that could be applied to inner city green space. The addition of native flowering plants that may not be present under unmitigated conditions increases plant diversity and increased arthropod biodiversity throughout the public garden. Also, if possible and beneficial for the area, adding nest boxes or structures to increase breeding space for native bird populations can further improve an area's biodiversity.

In approaching conservation of biodiversity, cities that must mitigate past damage can devise a plan to restore biodiversity through increasing native vegetation, urban green space, and connectivity throughout the city. Appropriate species estimation and modeling can help predict the impact of certain actions on species richness. Moreover, scientific manipulation of diversity has the potential to increase richness that was previously lost. Influencing positive ecological change is not restricted to scientists though. The average city dweller can contribute to the
conservation effort by simply installing native vegetation in their backyard and removing introduced species, such as lawn grass and palm trees.

_Project & Clients_

The Environmental Report Card for Los Angeles was developed by UCLA’s IoES, in collaboration with the Goldhirsh Foundation and LA2050 Initiative. This report card hopes to “provide a broad picture of current conditions, to establish a baseline against which to assess the region’s progress towards environmental sustainability, and as a thought provoking tool to catalyze policy discussion and change” (ULCA IoES). Alongside this, other plans have also been created to help understand Los Angeles environmental conditions. For example, as part of the Sustainable City pLAn, the City of Los Angeles has identified a goal for developing a city biodiversity strategy by 2017. Support and protection for biodiversity in the City has been made a priority initiative. Although research interest in the ecology of urban areas exists, the biodiversity of cities is often under-studied. Biodiversity data in Los Angeles is no different. Due to legal and social restraints, as well as spatial complexity of urban areas, urban regions like Los Angeles need much more ecological investigation. The Nature Conservancy (TNC), Natural History Museum of Los Angeles County (NHM), and National Park Service (NPS) have requested that a team from the undergraduate Environmental Science Practicum Program at UCLA’s Institute of the Environment and Sustainability (IoES) work towards assessing the biodiversity and ecosystem health of the Los Angeles region.

The NHM, TNC, and NPS are longtime collaborators, with strong education and outreach programs in highly urban areas of Los Angeles. The NHM has several citizen science programs, including RASCals (the Reptiles and Amphibians of Southern California), that use the iNaturalist web forum to compile data on organism sightings across the County. Citizen science is the primary way scientists are capturing and cataloging biodiversity in urban Los Angeles. Birding has traditionally been the most popular area of study for citizen science. However, in 2015, the NHM discovered 30 new fly species in Los Angeles as a result of citizen science programs involving residents housing malaise traps in their backyards. New gecko species have also been found through citizen science approaches.

_Citizen Science Efforts_

There are certainly barriers that make it difficult to gather data in residential areas, such as Los Angeles County. Traditional researchers have trouble accessing backyards and other owned property for surveying and field testing. However, volunteers can help diminish data gaps by participating in research and contributing to a practice called citizen science (Conrad and Hilchey, 2011). Many significant scientific triumphs have been achieved through citizen science (Delaney et al., 2008). For example, volunteers have been key in finding new species; the discovery of the Asian shore crab in North America is credited to a college student (Delaney et al., 2008).

Citizen science projects worldwide vary broadly in their scope and structure. Although there are many ways to manage a citizen science study, according to Conrad and Hilchey (2011), there are three main categories of governance: consultative/functional governance, collaborative governance, and transformative governance. Citizen science can be used for experimental studies, but they are mostly used for monitoring current conditions, which can then be used to collect baseline data and serve as the springboard for more detailed research (Dickinson,
Zuckerberg, and Bonter, 2010 and Dickinson et al., 2012). Different methods dictate the type of data and quality of data collected. For example, surveillance monitoring leads to a wide range of information and allows for more detailed research (Donnelly et al., 2014).

Despite the demand, there are a number of challenges facing citizen science, such as issues of organization, data collection, and data use, that prevent policy-makers, academics, and the public from trusting citizen science data (Conrad and Hilchey, 2011). Peer-reviewed research has exposed some practices that may lead to higher data quality. Verified citizen science, for example, in which professionals double check data collected, is more accurate than direct citizen science (Gardiner et al., 2012). Comparing samples of volunteer-collected data to existing data from previous studies is a straightforward way to assess data accuracy. However, it is impossible to apply to studies that have no precedent. Research has shown that citizen science efforts vary greatly and that each study may require a unique approach. A study done by Delaney et al. (2014), examining the accuracy of data collected on crab species, gender, and size, revealed that variation in data accuracy is extremely situational - that it can vary even within one study.

In order for citizen science projects to effectively produce baseline biodiversity data, they must be recognized as relevant and legitimate. Technology will provide the advantage of engaging some members of the public, but will also simultaneously alienate others (Newman et al., 2012). Moving forward, success of projects can be increased by targeting specific groups to participate, such as those who may already be interested in a related subject matter (Dickinson et al., 2012). Informing the public and the scientific community of achievements by citizen science projects can also be used to create a more positive image of citizen science. Although citizen science has been used to further climate change research, the term “citizen science” is largely missing from published papers (Cooper, Shirk, and Zuckerberg, 2014).

A review of non peer-reviewed literature regarding citizen science revealed a trove of projects that are individually valuable, but lack cohesion. Many state and independent programs hold citizen science events to focus on identifying as many species as possible in a specific area over a short amount of time. The National Geographic Society with the NPS, for example, sponsors an annual "bioblitz" or a biological census to get an overall count of species in the area (Cohn, 2008). These programs can yield results pertinent to the focus area. For instance, the 2011 BioBlitz added more than 400 species to the park list, with at least one species that was new to the park.

There are a number of citizen science projects that can be useful to study for the purposes of this project. Calflora is an electronic repository for information on California wild plants that receives information from diverse sources, including both professional and citizen science data (Haklay, 2013). This information can serve a broad range of purposes, including scientific study, environmental analysis and management, and education. The program eButterfly is a North America web-based citizen science program that allows participants to report butterfly sightings. An “online checklist and photo storage program,” it seeks to gather and organize data which is ultimately viewed by other citizen scientists, conservationists, and educators (eButterfly, 2014). eButterfly has consulted museums for additional data, potentially showing some level of integration between the program and outside institutions (eButterfly, 2014). Some programs that are currently collecting data on urban ecosystems, by specifically investigating urban backyards, include the Celebrate Urban Birds project and the Great Sunflower Project (California Naturalist, 2016).
The Internet is helpful in giving the public and researchers access to data, which is necessary to increase the viability of citizen science data for assessing biodiversity. The Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) claims to be “the biggest biodiversity database on the Internet.” It allows researchers to access data, institutions to make their data available, nations to receive training, and the public to contribute data (GBIF, 2016). The California Naturalist website provides a list of citizen science project in California, shedding light on the types of work being done (California Naturalist, 2016). There is a variety of studies being conducted, such as data on butterflies, air quality, insects, invasives, and birds (California Naturalist, 2016).

Citizen science efforts have received attention by researchers, media, and the international community. An online report by UC Davis associate professor Heidi Ballard titled “Report: Learning from Public Participation in Scientific Research Programs in Northern California” investigates areas for improvement in research done by the public (UCD, 2014). In 2014, a report by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP, 2014) detailed changes in citizen science, existing challenges, and ways to improve citizen science (UNEP, 2014). An article by Harvard Magazine asserts that citizen ownership is one of the main issues facing citizen scientists today (Xue, 2014). Whether citizen science is actually bridging the gap between the public and science community has yet to be determined (Xue, 2014).

**Singapore Index Indicators**

The SI was created in 2010 in partnership with Singapore and the Global Partnership on Local and Subnational Action for Biodiversity. Using identified indicators, the Index “serves as a self-assessment tool for cities to benchmark and monitor the progress of their biodiversity conservation efforts against their own individual baselines” (CBI, 2012).

The first 10 indicators, which our group focuses on in this project, relates to native biodiversity in the city. They include:

1. Proportion of Natural Areas in the City
2. Connectivity Measures or Ecological Networks to Counter Fragmentation
3. Native Biodiversity in Built Up Areas (Bird Species)
4-8. Change in Number of Native Species
9. Proportion of Protected Natural Areas
10. Proportion of Invasive Alien Species

Each of these indicators has its own set of directions to obtain data and calculate a score. The basis/scaling of scoring are also different for each indicator. These calculated scores are meant to act as a baseline measurement of the city’s current biodiversity profiles. Thus, it would enable cities to monitor and assess their progress in maintaining or improving biodiversity.

**Research Questions**

The Los Angeles Health Biodiversity Indicator Practicum team intends to answer the following research questions during the course of the project. These questions are vital in creating a set of Biodiversity Indicators for Los Angeles.
1. How can the Singapore Index be adjusted to better fit the needs of understanding LA biodiversity?
2. How does data collection for biodiversity differ when studying urban areas?
3. Can citizen science data be utilized and trusted to give accurate results for biodiversity indicator data?

**Los Angeles Study Region**

Our study area needed to encompass all the urban regions while staying true to the ecosystems of Los Angeles. Since our biodiversity indicators focus on urban settings, the City of Los Angeles formed the basis of our initial study area. However, after careful consideration, we decided that the City of Los Angeles did not fully capture all the regions or ecosystem types necessary to create a comprehensive set of biodiversity indicators. We then expanded our study region to Los Angeles County, only to find that the county is much too large for our study.

We settled on a study region in between the size of the City of Los Angeles and Los Angeles County. We chose a boundary that incorporated urban regions as well as important Los Angeles ecosystems. Figure 1 shows the clear divide between areas within Los Angeles County that have and have not been developed. The northern boundary of our study area encapsulates this developed area. The cut-off for our study area follows census lines in the event there is interest to perform demographic analysis of the area.

![Land Cover Type of Los Angeles County](image)

**Figure**: Land Cover Type of Los Angeles County
**Methodology**

**Criteria for Indicator Selection**

An indicator should provide a measure that is relevant to the component of biodiversity it represents. The indicators as a whole should provide a good representation of the overall biodiversity health of Los Angeles. Indicators should also represent the concerns from clients and be related to issues that may be actionable by local city government. Each indicator was closely looked at to see if it provided a measure that represented widespread concerns related to biodiversity in Los Angeles.

**Overview of Indicator Selection Process**

1. Identify preliminary indicators from Singapore Index
2. Conduct interviews to support indicator development
3. Select and identify indicators based on geographic units
4. Final set of biodiversity indicators
5. Generate maps to visualize data

*Identify preliminary indicators from Singapore Index*

The Singapore Index was utilized as a baseline for creating a set of biodiversity indicators for our LA study region. While the Singapore Index works well for Singapore, it needed to be customized to fit our specific project boundary and the needs of LA. Singapore covers only about 17% of the land area of LA and moreover, lacks the diversity of terrain present in LA. We also chose not to utilize the scoring/ranking system of the Singapore Index. Rather than framing as a comparison of biodiversity score between cities. The scoring system should be used to identify a
city’s biodiversity baseline and then serve as a guide to continue to maintain or improve the city biodiversity. Thus, we created a different set of indicators that would work and apply to all of LA.

**Conduct interviews to support indicator development**

In order to create a concrete set of biodiversity indicators for LA, we interviewed a wide range of experts about their opinions on urban biodiversity indicators. These interviewees included professors, NGO staff, government officials, and researchers who worked on the Singapore Index. We had two phases of interviews. The first phase of the interviews included asking these professionals about specific species they thought would be applicable to indicating urban ecosystem health. We also asked interviewees about the Singapore Index, since it was our starting point for our set of biodiversity indicators. Finally, we asked these experts about their opinions on the validity or utility of citizen science.

The second phase of interviews occurred after we had developed our preliminary set of biodiversity indicators. We then went back to the experts to ask for advice on this set of indicators. This included honing in on details on how to measure the indicators and specific species to use. Using this two-step system of interviewing and checking, we were able to narrow down to a set of indicators.

**Select and identify indicators based on geographic units**

Since our region of study includes many different types of ecosystems, it was important to recognize this in our indicators. For example, one species may not be a good indicator in all the different types of ecosystems found in LA. Before creating our final set of biodiversity indicators, we divided up our LA study area to find the best indicator species based on each ecosystem. The geographic units were synthesized with the union of several variables including: freshwater locations, land use, vegetative cover, and urbanization extent.

**Final set of biodiversity indicators**

Our final set of biodiversity indicators was generated through the information provided through our interviews. By identifying which indicators were most relevant to our study region, we narrowed down to a final set of indicators. We also included several indicators even if the general consensus among interviewees was not favorable. We determined that these specific indicators would show ecosystem health that was important to LA. We also took into account what kind of data was being collected through citizen science efforts. Using all this information, we were able to create a set of indicators we feel would be beneficial and relevant to measuring ecosystem health.

**Generate maps to visualize data**

In order to both assess the availability of citizen science data in the LA region and visualize a current baseline for each indicator based on that citizen science, we created a series of maps by importing the Citizen Science gathered into ArcGIS. Separating out each taxonomic group allowed us to visually interpret the current state of data for each of our indicators.
Overview of Citizen Science

Citizen science was identified by our clients as a potential source of data because there isn’t a large collection of scientifically conducted biodiversity data for urban environments. Past research, like the Institute of the Environment and Sustainability's Environmental Report Card published in 2015, has concluded that there is no viable data in Los Angeles to assess urban biodiversity. Scientific focus tends to be aimed at more natural and pristine ecological areas and as a result, urban landscapes are not acknowledged even though great levels of biodiversity can exist in cities. These data gaps in the current scientific literature have the potential to be filled in with widely accessible citizen science data. The current coverage of citizen science has the potential to provide a baseline for biodiversity enhancement efforts in urban LA, but uncertainties about its quality are present. Within Citizen Science platforms, a system of approvals must take place for a recorded observation to be considered research grade. Once it becomes research grade, the reliability of an observation can be considered scientific. After manually looking through the data for LA County, we found that the checks and balances that observations must go through are effective at removing faulty submissions. Despite the forums being intended for amateur naturalists, many scientifically trained people are members of the various citizen science forums and their participations aids in the consistent accuracy of research grade submissions.

Collection and Analysis of Citizen Science Data

The data collection and analysis segment of our research is aimed at identifying what biological information is currently recorded in urban LA that could be utilized to support the new set of biodiversity indicators. Our primary mode of data collection involved extensive internet searches to identify online citizen science platforms, as well as organizations who utilize citizen science as part of community outreach and engagement in LA County. The bulk of our data came from iNaturalist, a global citizen science and social network in which anyone can record observations of biodiversity. We also requested LA County data from eBird, a citizen science platform designed specifically for recording bird sightings. Other platforms were identified but were not included in our analysis due to lack of information in LA County. These include YardMap and eButterfly, forums that have the potential to contribute greatly to citizen science in the future, but currently do not contain much ecological or biological data for LA. YardMap focuses on land cover use and while users are able to label trees or vegetative areas, species identification is not a priority. If this could be incorporated in the future, YardMap can become a major contributor to biodiversity and vegetative cover analysis. TreePeople’s “TreeMapLA” data was obtained, but was ultimately excluded from final data analysis because the data includes both citizen science and municipal tree records from certain areas. While this data can be utilized in other biodiversity analysis, including potentially for assessing a baseline condition for Los Angeles., for our purposes of solely analyzing citizen science, it was removed to prevent potential biased results in areas where extensive municipal data was obtained.

Once the data was collected, it was imported it into ArcGIS. The initial step involved separating the data by taxon: birds, plants, insects, mammals, reptiles and amphibians, and molluscs. From there, multiple data layers corresponding to potential influencers of collected citizen science were added to the map. Our clients identified the desire to better understand what outside factors had an impact on Citizen Science participation so we ran an analysis on socioeconomic and geographic variables such as income, traffic levels, and land cover. From the
US Census Bureau, a 2014 census layer was added with Median Income Levels projected for each census block and then clipped to our study area. We used this to compare the number of data points for all citizen science per census block and to see if a relationship existed between income and citizen science participation. Also from the 2014 census layer, we extracted recorded traffic density (the method used to determine traffic density is described in CalEnviroScreen 2.0, 2014) to determine if a correlation exists between presence of citizen science and amount of traffic present. Moving away from socioeconomic variables, we wanted to see if land cover type is correlated to where citizen science is being collected. For this, we uploaded a land cover layer from The National Land Cover Database. Once uploaded into GIS, we used this land cover layer to run another spatial analysis looking specifically at percent impervious cover. By assigning a value of 1 to each citizen science data point, we were able to spatially join these factors to the presence or absence of citizen science data. The outcome of this analysis is discussed at a later point.

In addition to analyzing the spatial extent of citizen science, each individual indicator was mapped to identify where data is currently available, as well as where data collection needs to be focused on in the future. For certain indicators that had sufficient amounts of data, we were able to map the current state of the indicator with our recommended methodology, shown later on.

**Interviews**

**Introduction**

To gain further understanding on potential indicators for Los Angeles, we interviewed several experts ranging from professors to researchers to government employees. We asked for their opinions on the Singapore Index indicators, as well as our potential list of indicators. Asking for opinions on current and potential indicators was an important part in our process of developing our final set of indicators because their expertise on specific species and of biodiversity in LA is valuable to understanding what should be carefully studied to maintain and improve biodiversity.

**Methodology**

We contacted several experts - researchers, professors, etc. - that had knowledge and were experts in the field of biodiversity. Starting with interviewing UCLA professors, we were able to compile a list of other experts that ranged from other UC affiliates, city officials, and nonprofit organizations. The interviewed experts were also able to recommend other experts for us to contact. In total, we were able to get in contact and interview 35 experts (Appendix: List 1).

The interviews were conducted in person, and by phone, Skype, and email. Originally, we had a set of questions that asked quite general questions and opinions about urban biodiversity. We focused on questions about LA and the Singapore Index, since that was our starting off point. After conducting a majority of our interviews, we were able to formulate our own set of indicators for LAs. We continued to interview experts by asking them about our specific set of indicators.

**Experts’ Opinion on Indicators**

*Starting with the Singapore Index:*
The first round of our interviews, as described above, focused on the Singapore Index biodiversity indicators. As we asked experts about the Singapore index, we realized that the Singapore Index was a beneficial starting point, but was not a suitable model with which to assess our study area. Many experts had not heard of the Singapore Index and thus did not have strong opinions about the Singapore Index itself to begin with. Many agreed with the Singapore Index in general and expressed their approval of some specific indicators within it. However, our interviews showed that not all of the indicators and methods to measure them are ideal for our Los Angeles study area. While not the majority, a few interviewees disagreed with the Singapore Index as a whole. For example, one interviewee was upset with the general structure of the Singapore index, saying, for example, that the Singapore Index looks more like a checklist, rather a comprehensive assessment of ecological systems. This expert said, “We need to reconstruct function of actual ecological systems. We’re potentially doing more damage when we’re using a checklist like this.” One expert called into question an underlying assumption in the Singapore Index, which is that native vegetation is a direct indicator of ecosystem health. This interviewee said that in the built environment, native plants are not necessarily resilient, because they require specific circumstances. The following subsections of the report go into more detail about the specific comments interviews made regarding different taxonomic groups and categories.

1. **Amphibians & Fish**

   Of all the experts that were interviewed, 2 out of 35 suggested and agreed that amphibians would be a good indicator to measure ecosystem health. One interviewee said that amphibians would work well because they are higher on the food chain and can provide information on other species. Another expert stated that since amphibians spend their lives in both the water and on land, they are a good indicator for two different types of habitats. In addition, since they are “more vulnerable to chemicals and pesticides,” they are greatly affected by pollution. This expert continued to state that there are not many native amphibians, but simply looking at the presence and absence would provide a good indicator of habitat.

   On the other hand, some experts believe that amphibians would not be a good indicator. One interviewee mentioned that amphibians are only found in pristine environments and therefore would not be a good indicator for an urban setting. He emphasized that amphibians are rarely found in cities.

2. **Birds**

   Experts generally agreed that birds should be taken into account in a biodiversity index, although there were a few that disagreed. According to one expert, LA County is the county with the largest number of bird species in the United States. This avian expert described the presence of birds in Los Angeles County, saying that there are 514 native bird species that have been recorded in LA County. Within these 514 species, there are eight introduced species that are now included on the California Bird List because they are so well-established, he said. In addition, there are 15 to 20 introduced or non-native species not on the California Bird List, of which are known to have populations breeding in the LA County. This diversity is due to the large size of the county and diversity of
topography and habitats. In addition, extensive research in ornithology and the prevalence of bird watching increases the amount of data collected.

There was also a consensus that birds are very well-known and well-surveyed and are thus valuable to monitor ecosystem health. Since there is a larger body of information on birds, they are good indicators of change, according to our interviewees. Birds respond to changes in their environment, most notably vegetation. Many researchers agreed that birds and vegetation are highly connected. Native plants will attract native birds, for example, one expert stated.

Different bird species have responded very differently to urbanization, an expert said. For example, non-native shrubs allow some birds to thrive that would not otherwise be able to survive, he said. This expert listed some of the changes that have altered habitat for birds in recent years. For example, land development has removed native habitat and the bird trade has increased the number of non-native bird species. Some species, for example habitat specialists in the oak woodlands, have suffered from development, he said. Other species have adapted to changes in habitat; the Allen’s Hummingbird, for example, has benefitted from non-native vegetation such as the eucalyptus, and is now the dominant hummingbird throughout the LA Basin, according to the same expert. Many bird species benefit from non-native plants that provide nectar through the winter months.

Despite a general approval of birds as a potential category for biodiversity indicators, some interviewees disagreed with this. Three out of eleven experts who commented on birds as an indicator expressed doubts about birds as an indicator, due to their unique characteristics such as their ability to migrate. Birds are dispersive, and they do not respond as greatly to changes in habitat quality compared to some other groups, such as aquatic species, according to the previously mentioned avian expert.

Two of the experts who believed that birds can be useful as an indicator emphasized the necessity of examining bird specialists rather than generalists. “The real handle on biodiversity is - are you preserving species that can’t handle modification?” one expert said. For example, habitat specialists in grasslands have been lost where areas have been modified. Ideally, said another expert, a biodiversity index should examine birds that require certain habitat services; for example, birds nesting in a marsh where a particular plant is prevalent can indicate the bird’s dependence on that aspect of the habitat.

The avian expert made some suggestions for choosing bird indicator species when our team asked for advice. He suggested that lowland open country species, chaparral/coastal sage scrub species, declining marsh species, arid scrub/alluvial scrub species, key cavity-excavators of oak and other woodlands, and common and seemingly urban-adapted species that have had declining populations be used.

3. Vegetation

The underlying assumption of the portion of the Singapore Index is that native biodiversity indicates ecosystem health. The majority of experts who commented on vegetation as an indicator agreed that native vegetation should be investigated. Many of these experts also acknowledged that some non-native (but not invasive) species provide valuable habitat for wildlife. As one expert said, “[Non-native plants are certainly better
than no trees, and sometimes they’re easier to manage and can survive a lot of conditions.”

However, while there was a general trend in the responses from interviewees, many experts differed in what they believed should be emphasized when studying vegetation. The line between exotic and native species itself is difficult to determine, for example. Some experts stated that it is difficult to make the distinction between exotic and native species, since some plants are hybrids. One interviewee expressed that many invasive organisms can exist without appearing to be invasive, but become invasive later on; this has been well documented but not given much attention by policy makers. Some experts wanted to see the distinction made with invasive species. More than one expert mentioned the importance of looking at how much vegetation supports native wildlife. Researchers explained that native plants tend to attract native wildlife such as birds and insects. Some experts disagreed on the importance of looking at native versus non-native plants. Other experts commented that it is important to see what vegetation supports native animal species. Some experts said that non-native plants will attract generalist wildlife.

Many experts agreed that non-native plants are more resilient in urban areas. One expert said, “I see some non-native species; [they] can have value giving some ecosystem services. They may absorb floodwaters, they may provide erosion control, but intrinsically there isn’t an imperative need to protect them in L.A.” One expert argued that emphasizing native vegetation is only important in natural areas such as the Santa Monica Mountains. In urban areas, he stated, native plants may not be especially resilient. “I would want to know how well native plants survive under urban circumstances. I would like to know, what is the distribution of native to nonnative plants location-wise. I would not be so concerned with the invasives issues – this has to do with what happens when these plants get out of people’s backyards,” he said. He recommended dividing vegetation into three categories – native, non-native that are integrated and not considered invasives in wildlands, and invasive.

He suggested coast live oak for a native species, eucalyptus for non-native species, and Washingtonia filifera (a type of palm) for an invasive species. Some other experts were also able to make specific suggestions for indicator species or habitats. Interviewees suggested coastal sage scrub. Valley oak savannas, native live oak woodlands, and alluvial scrub were identified as habitats that have been highly impacted by urbanization. Freshwater marsh and coastal saltwater marshes and estuaries have also been heavily impacted.

One interviewee spoke about the importance of assessing vegetation cover, saying that the number of species can be deceptive as an indicator. For example, if many species are present but they do not amount to a large area of cover, they do not have a large influence on the soil or ecological processes. Commenting on one section of the Singapore Index, he said that he would like to see included the cover of all plants in built areas as well as cover of native plants in particular. Another expert stated that he would like to see native habitats mapped, and then track the changes over time. Another interviewee interviewee also pointed out that fragmentation of natural habitat is important.
4. **Insects**

“We know less about the overall biodiversity in urban environment because we tend not to study [insects] as much.” Still, 8 out of 35 of the interviewees stated that insects would be an important LA biodiversity indicator. A few stated that they were important due to their high diversity. Moreover, “every habitat supports something.” Several examples of insects that interviewees thought would be good to look at were butterflies, dragonflies, and damselflies, particularly because there are lots of citizen science data with these two species. However, because of their large range and diversity, this may pose some difficulty in data collection. One suggested using an acoustic sensor rather than remote sensing. Another method that all eight interviewees agreed that could and should play a huge role in insect data collection is citizen science. Many suggested to utilized NHM’s Biodiversity Science: City and Nature (BioSCAN), as a source for data.

One academic who studies insects noted several interesting facts. For instance, using the sounds of insects in the area, it can provide “a good idea of how many species there are.” Of course, just as other experts have suggested with other animals, urban area also creates a huge obstacle for insects as well. Moreover, it becomes hard to identify and ID insects because you “can’t collect in state parks without a permit.” And unfortunately, “with insects, it’s difficult to use remote sensing and observe what you’re looking at.” Alternatively though, “you can have an acoustic sensor, that would be a great way to gather data and census an area.”

5. **Reptiles**

Reptiles was not mentioned by any experts during our first round of interviews. It was only in our second round of interviews, when we asked experts specifically about reptiles as an indicator, that experts took notice of it. One interviewee exclaimed, “yeah actually!” when the indicator was proposed. While only 3 of 35 interviewees indicated that reptiles would be a good indicator for LA, it is an important taxonomic group to take into account. Reptiles are sensitive to urban development due to being susceptible to contaminants such as fertilizers, as well as their lack of mobility due to fragmentation barriers. However, as one interviewee stated, reptiles “tend to survive well in urban areas. The common species are really good at adapting.” Therefore, it is important to study reptiles in urban habitats such as LA.

6. **Large Mammals**

There was a general consensus that large mammals, which are generally considered mammals that are coyote sized or larger, would be a good indicator species. 13 out of our 35 interviewees agree that looking at large mammals is a critical biodiversity indicator for ecosystem health that could potentially provide information about habitat fragmentation.

One interviewee stated that bobcats would be a good large mammal indicator species for fragmentation because “they are greatly impacted by human development.” Since they are habitat generalists, they are more resilient than mountain lions. Natural habitats are critical to their health because they depend on wild animals as prey. This expert and many others agree that coyotes would not be a good indicator because they are so adaptable to human landscapes. Moreover, no interviewees suggested them.
Some interviewees considered the importance of mountain lions. Mountain lions are “found in people’s backyard and are important because it gets people excited.” Another expert commented that it is important to remember that it is not common for mountain lions to be seen in urban areas; the instances that do occur are heavily publicized. Another interviewee emphasized their importance because mountain lions are heavily impacted by management and people. Their survival in LA is affected by factors outside of the ecosystem health. However, mountain lions are important because they are found in areas where deer are present.

7. *Fish*

Fish was another indicator that several interviewees agreed would be a good ecosystem indicator with 4 out of 35 experts mentioning their importance. One interviewee said that fish can be greatly impacted by many different sources such as land development and humans because fish are so broadly distributed. One expert was in favor of using fish as an indicator, but mentioned that while there are some habitats that could support native fish, like the steelhead trout, it is difficult for these species to get to these areas and repopulate. It can be very difficult for fish to move to a different habitat.

One expert was against using fish as a biodiversity indicator because “most of the streams and rivers in Southern California don’t support fish” and “those that do, don’t have native fish.” While upper headwaters may have some fish left, this expert believes that it would provide a very small palette of biodiversity.

8. *Citizen Science*

Although not a part of the set of indicators, we asked our interviewees their opinion on citizen science. Its importance was mentioned by almost half of the interviewees (13 out of 35). Almost everyone praised the idea, stating things such as “it’s important and it’s valid,” great for “getting good data and for education,” and “covers incredible area scientists couldn’t do before.” However, several of the experts also expressed concern about it. It needs “rigor and standardization” because “the vast majority of citizen scientist participants have zero background in the areas they’re studying, and therefore, need to be trained and supervised by experts.” One expert even said “citizen science is useless without also maintaining the scientific expertise that goes along with it.” Moreover, some mentioned the difficulty of budgeting and funding such projects, as well as the limitation of types of species to identify – typically only the “larger, more easily recognizable species.”

**Indicators Not Included**

There were several other potential indicators that were considered, but ultimately were not added into the final list of indicators. Some of these indicators included marine species, species found at the bottom of the food chain (e.g. snails), and endangered species.

Marine species was one of the highly considered indicators because of the coastal range that lines part of LA. Many are heavily threatened due to pollution that runs into the waters. This also contributes to the reason why a large portion of the IUCN’s Red List of Threatened Species focuses on marine species, such as dolphins, whales, sea lions, coral, and many more. However,
although it is also important in understanding marine health and biodiversity, we chose not to include this in our list of indicators because we wanted to stick to the urban land habitats.

Another indicator under consideration were species that would be found at the bottom of the food chain. Some of these included snails, benthic invertebrates, and plankton. Species found at the bottom of the trophic level are just as important as those at the top of the food chain. These species are sensitive to disturbance in their surrounding environment, and thus are good indicators of the health and condition of the habitat, and thus, biodiversity. This indicator did not end up making our list of indicators because few interviewees expressed that this would make a good indicator. Furthermore, this indicator, while it may be good, might be a bit difficult to obtain enough information, especially is citizen science cannot be employed.

Lastly, endangered species was a potential indicator because it could show how a specific change in environment is affecting certain species. This could be a good indicator for both flora and fauna health, as changes in the environment is inevitable, but whether the changes are good or bad is questionable. Unfortunately, this did not make the final list of indicators because very few interviewees mentioned the need for it to be looked at. Moreover, there were several disagreements with using this as an indicator, one being that this is already another individually studied topic.
Los Angeles
Biodiversity Indicators
**Freshwater Ecosystems**

**Indicators**

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<th>Indicator 1: Ratio of Non-invasive to Invasive Freshwater Fish</th>
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<td><strong>Background</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>This indicator looks at the ratio of non-invasive to invasive freshwater fish in aquatic ecosystems. Over time, the goal would be to decrease the proportion of invasive fish in LA waterways while increasing non-invasive and native fish species.</td>
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<th><strong>Specific Measurement Method</strong></th>
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<td>Tracking the presence of freshwater fish by recording the ratio of non-invasive to invasive freshwater fish observed in a 5 year period.</td>
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<th><strong>Data Source</strong></th>
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<td>iNaturalist</td>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Rationale</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td>While not many of our interviewees thought of fish as an indicator immediately, freshwater ecosystems are an important part of the LA environment. Freshwater fish are greatly affected by human impacts and development, which changes their density and distribution. Damming of rivers can also affect breeding and feeding. Therefore, looking at the presence and absence of freshwater fish by tracking the change in species in a 5 year period will determine the health of these freshwater ecosystems.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Currently, there are few native fish species left in the LA region. The most prominent species of study would be the steelhead trout. Steelhead trout were prominently found in the Los Angeles River before the channelization in 1948, which destroyed much of their breeding habitat. Due to variable rainfall in Southern California, sand berms can be found in rivers much longer than in areas in the north, causing problems for steelhead trout (Wainwright et. al, 1996). In addition, water allocation has caused further habitat degradation. They are now an endangered species and very rarely found in the Los Angeles River. Noting the presence of steelhead trout may be of importance, but we also understand the rarity of finding this species. It could be used as an indicator of pristine environments, but there would need be extensive restoration of...</td>
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the Los Angeles River to see a prevalent population of steelhead trout.

This indicator looks at the non-invasive and invasive fish species because there are few native species left. Therefore, noting the ratio of non-invasive to invasive is more important and relevant than looking at native fish species.

Map

Our study area encompasses three distinct watersheds, the Santa Monica Bay Watershed, the Los Angeles River Watershed, and the San Gabriel Valley Watershed. From the Citizen Science data we pulled, fish were located primarily in the headwaters of these watersheds with some occurrences in major waterways further downstream. At this point in time, there is not enough data to compare the data for 2016 with data taken in 2011, as described in our Measurement Method. To assess each watershed, we mapped all past fish data to get a general sense of what has been found there.
Indicator 2: Presence of Amphibians

Background
This indicator looks at the presence and absence of amphibians in aquatic ecosystems as a proxy for habitat quality. Through tracking amphibian presence, we would be able to monitor the improvement or degradation of riparian ecosystems, and intervene to protect habitat, if necessary.

Specific Measurement Method
Tracking the presence of amphibians by recording the total number of species found in a 5 year period.

Data Source
iNaturalist

Rationale
Not many interviewees mentioned amphibians as a good indicator for ecosystem health, but we added amphibians to our list of indicators for freshwater ecosystems because they can show relevant information on the health of their habitat. Amphibians are not only very sensitive to environmental stresses, but they also utilize both aquatic and terrestrial environments throughout their various lifecycles. Changes in their presence, abundance, and reproductive cycles are a good indicator that something is not right in either aquatic or terrestrial habitat.

Map
Our study area encompasses three distinct watersheds, the Santa Monica Bay Watershed, the Los Angeles River Watershed, and the San Gabriel Valley Watershed. From the Citizen Science data we pulled, amphibians were located almost exclusively in the headwaters of these watersheds. To better assess the health of each watershed individually, the measurement method was performed after separating recorded data points based on the watershed they were located in.
**Indicators**

Keystone Species Population Change Over Time
Total Change in Assemblage

**Indicator 1: Keystone Species Population Change Over Time**

*Background*

This indicator would look at the change in population size and distribution of keystone avian species identified to represent specific habitat types across our study region.

*Specific Measurement Method*

Track the presence and size of population according to habitat type on a yearly basis.

Keystone Species are divided according to various zones - lowland open country, chaparral/scrub habitats, marshes, arid scrub/alluvial scrub, woodlands, coastal wetlands, and urban areas

Keystone species for each zone -

**Lowland open country**
Western Meadowlark, Horned Lark, Grasshopper Sparrow, Burrowing Owl, Loggerhead Shrike, American Kestrel, and Lark Sparrow

**Chaparral/scrub**
California Thrasher, Wrentit

**Marshes**
American and Least Bitterns, Virginia Rail, Common Gallinule

**Arid scrub/alluvial scrub**
Lesser Nighthawk, Cactus Wren

**Woodlands**
Acorn Woodpecker, Nuttall’s Woodpecker, Northern Flicker

**Urban Areas**
California Scrub-Jay, Brewer’s Blackbird

**Coastal Birds**
Ruddy Turnstone, Black Turnstone
Data Source
eBird, iNaturalist

Rationale
Many of our interviewees brought our attention to the diversity of birds as a taxonomic group, and that different species respond differently to changes in habitat. For example, some have benefitted from the introduction of non-native vegetation, while others have not. Thus, it is imperative to choose indicator species in order to best understand ecosystem health in LA. Indicator species are defined as species whose presence and absence reflect species richness on a broader scale (Fleishman et al., 2005). The health of indicator species populations can provide a broader picture of overall species richness in the area (Fleishman et al., 2005). A study by Fleishman et al. that studied indicator species in different taxonomic groups found that “a small, common set of species could be used to predict separately the species richness of multiple taxonomic groups” (2005).

We spoke to an expert in ornithology to decide which indicator species to use for our index. We decided to look at a variety of habitat types: lowland open grasslands, chaparral/scrub habitats, marshes, arid scrub/alluvial scrub, woodlands, coastal wetlands, and urban areas.

Open grasslands are one of the most heavily impacted habitats in Los Angeles County, thus the bird species that rely on open grasslands have greatly declined. Much grassland that existed in the past has been developed already. Breeding species have been most heavily impacted. Horned Larks are still quite common as breeding birds in Los Angeles County, but have declined greatly in this type of habitat. The Grasshopper Sparrow is specialized and requires tall grasses. The burrowing owl is also present in this type of habitat. The Grasshopper Sparrow and the Burrowing Owl may not be suitable indicator species, since they are very rare.

Chaparral/coastal sage scrub habitats are still quite widespread in Los Angeles County. The bird species that live in these areas are a good indicator of habitat quality, since they are negatively affected by urbanization and fragmentation.

Remaining marshes are very rare in Los Angeles County. There are so few American Bitterns left that they may not be a good indicator species, so this must be further assessed.
The Lesser Nighthawk and Cactus Wren are both struggling but still present in alluvial scrub habitats. Both species are very sensitive, but the Cactus Wren is present in more areas.

Woodlands are still present in Los Angeles County as well. Acorn Woodpeckers are oak specialists so are a strong indicator of oak woodlands. Nuttall’s Woodpecker is an indicator for woodlands in general. The Northern Flicker is also a general woodland species, and it has declined rapidly in comparison with the Nuttall’s Woodpecker. Woodpeckers are keystone species, because tree cavities are used by other species.

Some urban bird species are declining despite their adaptability to urban areas. For example, the Western Scrub-Jay has been suffering large declines, partly due to the West Nile virus but also due to some other, unknown reasons.

Some coastal birds, such as Ruddy Turnstones and Black Turnstones, may be good indicators of beach quality.

Map

Species abundance is a vital indicator of ecosystem health, so bird data was extracted from 2011 and 2016. We identified multiple species from our study area that were representative of the three watersheds that cover our study area. The watersheds include the Santa Monica Bay Watershed, the Los Angeles River Watershed, and the San Gabriel Valley Watershed. Further breaking up the watersheds into North and South regions gave us six regions that encompass the full range of habitat found in the LA Basin. The birds chosen for the six representative regions were decided based on their ability to describe the state of the ecosystem.

An avian expert at the NHM had some suggestions for indicator species. He suggested that we choose indicator species from a number of categories, including lowland open country species, chaparral/scrub species that are intolerant of heavily modified habitats, declining marsh species, arid scrub/alluvial scrub species, key cavity-excavators of oak and other woodlands, and seemingly urban-adapted species that have been nevertheless declining. To give an example of the change in population for birds, we looked specifically at the Wrentit. Placing the 2011 and 2016 maps generated for this species next to each other gives an idea of how the abundance and distribution for this bird species has changed over time.
**Indicator 2: Total Change in Assemblage**

*Background*
This indicator would look at the changes in general assemblage of birds over time across the entire study region.

*Specific Measurement Method*
Recording the number and name of species present, with tracking of change in 5 year intervals. Also look at the distribution of species, which tracking changes in 5 year intervals too.

*Data Source*
eBird, iNaturalist

*Rationale*
Since birds rely on vegetation for many purposes such as to shelter and to breed, birds’ presence, absence, and location can provide information about the existing biodiversity. Birds are abundant and diverse in LA County. Compared to other taxonomic groups, there is also a lot of information available on birds, making bird assemblage a very practical indicator to use. Tracking bird assemblages would give valuable information to users of the biodiversity index, not only about what species are present, but how the number in each species changes over time. This indicator concerns bird assemblage rather than simply overall presence of bird species in order to help researchers understand how changes from urbanization affect different species who may rely on different types of habitat services, such as tree cover.

A study by Larsen et al. on the effectiveness of birds as biodiversity indicators showed that birds are relatively effective as indicators if there is a high species richness (2012). This supports the use of birds as in indicator in LA County, which is the county with the most bird species in the United States. However, biodiversity can be even more effectively understood with the inclusion of species from other taxa as well (Larsen et al. 2012).

*Map*
By separating out the years 2010 and 2015, and projecting all collected avian data points, we can see how assemblages have changed over the past five years.
Vegetation

Indicators

Change in Coverage
Proportion of Native vs. Non-native vs. Invasive

Indicator 1: Change in Coverage

Background
This indicator would look at the change in vegetation coverage in the study area.

Specific Measurement Method
Measure total vegetation cover in study area in square meters and repeat measurement every five years.

Data Source
USGS Landsat 8

Rationale
Experts expressed the importance of looking at the presence of vegetation, not only looking at species present but total cover, since number of species can be deceptive. Vegetation cover indicates the amount of vegetation available to wildlife for shelter, food, and other needs. Vegetation cover has decreased dramatically due to urbanization, so it is especially important to track. This indicator is related to the proportion of natural areas indicator in the Singapore Index, which some interviewees identified as a key indicator in the Singapore Index.

LA is a biodiversity hotspot, containing an abundance of endemic species that are highly threatened. A study by Sloan et al. aimed to measure the amount of natural intact vegetation (NIV) in biodiversity hotspots, since previously information was inaccurate (2014). There is 14.9% of NIV left in biodiversity hotspots worldwide, showing that they are threatened (Sloan et al. 2014). Most of the hotspots contain even less (Sloan et al. 2014). Land development in LA has led to a great decline in vegetation cover, making it important to track changes in vegetation present, since vegetation serves as a basis for overall biodiversity.

Map
Satellite imaging from Landsat 8 was taken in order to calculate the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI). The NDVI is a compilation of visible and near infrared bands and can be utilized to measure vegetative...
coverage. The NDVI was produced using the band math formula:

\[
\text{NDVI} = \frac{(\text{NIR} - \text{red})}{(\text{NIR} + \text{red})}
\]

The change in vegetation was then calculated by subtracting the 2016 NDVI from the 2011 NDVI. Vegetation gain is indicated in green while vegetation loss is indicated in red.
Indicator 2: Proportion of Native vs. Non-native vs. Invasive

**Background**
This indicator would look at the proportion of native vs. non-native species and noninvasive vs. invasive species across our study area.

**Specific Measurement Method**
Measure proportion of native species to non-native species. Next, measure proportion of invasive versus noninvasive species. Repeat every five years.

**Possible Data Source**
Tree People database of trees, sourced from citizen science and municipalities.

**Rationale**
There was some disagreement among the experts over the benefits and importance of native vegetation versus non-native vegetation. The Singapore Index prioritizes native biodiversity in the biodiversity indicator section. However, since many of the interviewees stated that non-native vegetation can provide benefits for wildlife, we decided to include “non-native” as a category as well. The conclusion our team came to was that native vegetation may provide habitat services for more native wildlife, but some non-native vegetation can still provide benefits. Non-native vegetation, experts agreed, is much more beneficial than no vegetation. The index also takes into account proportion of invasive species, because they are threatening to biodiversity.

**Discussion**
Currently there is no standard method of distinguishing non-native from native species on a large scale. While many databased attempt to index vegetation, there lacks indication to whether or not the species listed is native or non-native.
Insects

Indicator: Change in Number of Species

Background
This indicator looks at the change in the number of species.

Specific Measurement Method
Tracking the number and amount of insect species per year.

Data Source
BioScan

Rationale
Insects, with their very high diversity, are an important taxonomic group to study. They serve a multitude of important ecosystem roles including pollination and biomass for taxa in higher trophic levels. Therefore, understanding how insect biodiversity responds to the existing natural areas around the city, as well as how developing urban areas may affect their surroundings, is an important aspect in painting what urban biodiversity looks like. These reasons were highlighted by several interviewees who believed that insects would be an important indicator for LA. Moreover, a modified version of citizen science has already been playing a large role in gathering insect data. BioSCAN, under the NHM, utilizes malaise traps in everyday backyards and has already discovered hundreds of previously unknown insect species. Many of the species identifications are performed by scientists who specialize in ichthyology and therefore true Citizen Science is not the best way to collect this data. Because BioSCAN is so green and new insect species are routinely being discovered, additional time to collect this data is needed before an accurate assessment of the change in number of insect species can be performed.

Map
The following map is comprised of all insect data extracted from iNaturalist. The inconsistent nature of citizen science data collected for this taxonomic group makes it difficult to make conclusions without assistance from scientific experts. We can see though from the map below that there is an apparent trend between insect presence and tree canopy cover within our study area.
**Reptiles**

**Indicator: Change in Assemblage**

**Background**
Reptiles are good indicators for the immediate area. Not only are the populations extremely sensitive to urban development, reptiles typically don’t leave their habitat area due to lack of mobility and fragmentation barriers. Monitoring reptile assemblage and scope of coverage can tell us whether or not suitable landscape in urban Los Angeles is being preserved, restored, or destroyed.

**Specific Measurement Method**
Change in assemblage of reptiles over 5 year intervals.

**Data Source**
iNaturalist, Scientist led programs like RASCals, further data is being collected by NPS within park boundaries.

**Rationale**
Reptiles are susceptible to contaminants in their environments, such as heavy metals and fertilizers. If ingested, heavy metal pollutants can be transferred to hatchlings and reduce offspring survivorship. Fertilizer agents can be found in liver, fat, and bone tissue of reptiles living in polluted areas. Since most reptiles are long lived and tend to remain in the same area for their entire lifespan, they can be used as a measure of habitat quality as well as connectivity. In previous restoration studies, such as Thompson et. al., 2007, reptile assemblages were used as a bioindicator in the restoration of terrestrial ecosystems. With this past research into environmental impacts on reptile species, it is a valid assumption that tracking the assemblages of reptiles across our study area can give an idea of how the urban environment is changing in LA.

**Map**
To map the change in assemblage of reptiles, we compared the presence of citizen science recorded data points from the year 2011 and 2016. To analyze and justify the inclusion of reptiles as an indicator, we compared the distribution of reptiles across our study area to land cover, as measured by the National Land Cover Database. When overlaying reptile data points and land cover, there is a very apparent trend that reptiles are more readily found in areas where land is not developed.
Fragmentation

Indicators

Connectivity of Landscape using Large Mammal as a Proxy for Habitat Fragmentation
Connectivity of Tree Cover

Indicator 1: Connectivity of Large Mammals

Background

Fragmentation and connectivity is an important aspect of ecosystems, as it aids in the survival of large and small animals. This is especially critical for large mammals, as fragmentation barriers can hinder, reduce, and cause a loss of habitat for them.

Specific Measurement Method

Measurement of distance and area covered by large mammals: bobcats, mountain lions, and mule deer.

Data Source

Data of relevant collared large mammals can be requested from agencies such as the NPS.

Rationale

Large mammals are of the more visible taxa that can exploit urban corridors. Select large mammals, such as mountain lions and bobcats, that have been historically tracked in the LA region provide valuable insight into urbanization patterns. The territory that large mammals claim, and which routes they utilize to establish it can be analyzed to show how urbanization has impacted connectivity. Obstacles such as major roadways and other large construction projects impede the ability for large mammals to expand their territory. Observing the extent of land that a species is able to cover, and the barriers that prevent further expansion can give significant insight into fragmentation.

Mountain lions can be especially important for the LA region because they not only occupy a large area of land, but also are impacted by management and development decisions. Many LA residents are engaged in nature because of their fascination for mountain lions. Therefore, these animals may provide further significance than just ecosystem services.

Mule deer are not well studied in Los Angeles, but may provide important indicator of ecosystem health. Since mule
deer feed on plants, a healthy vegetation cover is important to their survival and ability to move around. Coyotes are not tracked in this indicator because coyotes are well adapted to urban life and human development. Therefore, looking at the presence and range of coyotes will not provide an accurate indication of ecosystem health.

Discussion
There currently isn’t much collar data and the data that has been recorded is heavily protected to ensure the safety and well-being of collared animals. Courtesy of NPS, we were given a snapshot of collar movements for Mountain Lion P22. While collar data is limited to only a few animals, data like P22’s shows us that our study region suffers tremendously from fragmentation. In the entire time that P22 has been tracked, it has not left Griffith Park. Griffith is bordered on all sides by major freeways, so despite the fact that it is a great refuge for wildlife, gene flow is lowered for many organisms that cannot overcome these man-made barriers. One expert commented that there seems to be no gene flow data available for Griffith park animal populations.

Indicator 2:
Connectivity of Tree Cover

Background
Fragmentation of tree cover and vegetative understory to determine connectivity of habitat.

Specific Measurement Method
Measuring patches of land by size and distance.

Data Source
National Land Cover Database

Rationale
Vegetation is also a visible way to see how urbanization has affected connectivity of habitat. The availability of a long stretch of vegetation is important to wildlife, as some animals are unwilling to cross urbanized paths. Thus, while urbanized corridors for large mammals are important, strips of vegetation is also very crucial as corridors for other smaller animals and insects.

Strips of vegetation throughout this urban landscape will not only promote existing biodiversity, but also be able to house species that require larger habitats

Map
The map shows percent tree canopy cover, from 0 to 100%. The map shows the presence of vegetated area and how relatively connected they are. The National Landcover Database produced this layer using the Random Forests regression algorithm.
Analysis and Discussion

Citizen Science

Citizen science was utilized in this study because it was a source of data that was available for the entire study region. The accuracy of the data varied by the program. For iNaturalist, we relied on the internal checks and balance review system to mark data entries as “research grade.” For all citizen science programs, we utilized data points which had both a photo of the specimen being recorded, were verified as “research grade” by the system, and had unobscured geoprivacy. Within iNaturalist, we were able to utilize over 41,000 points out of a total of 92,000 observations for LA county. All of these point went through a review process where at least three other iNaturalist users had to affirm the submissions contents in order to become research grade. No other data is available countywide that provides direct data on biodiversity. If these data exist, we were not able to access them through public, easily located, or easily accessible means.

Citizen science data was not used with the intention of scoring the biodiversity in the study area. We realize the data represented by citizen science contains bias by the persons who participate in these programs. For instance, communities with a higher interest or awareness in biodiversity would have a higher concentration of citizen science data points. Areas with high data density have a greater chance of being properly accessed for biodiversity health. However, areas with fewer points does not necessarily indicate a lesser presence of biodiversity in the area relative to surrounding areas.

Our clients expressed interest in determining what factors influenced the collection of citizen science data. By using the ArcGIS Spatial Analysis Toolkit, we were able to spatially join the following variables to our Citizen Science data: Median Income levels, Land Cover/Impervious Surface, and Traffic Density. Once these variables were joined, the resulting .dbf was exported into excel. All null values, which corresponded to any points outside of the
county border, were removed, then remaining values were graphed. Statistical analysis of the variables were conducted in R.

**Median Income**
Hypothesis: Locations with higher median income would have more citizen science data points. Median income data was gathered by the census block. As the census blocks vary in size, the count of data points by census block was normalized by dividing frequency by area.

**Figure:** Map of Median Income versus Citizen Science Point Density

(A) Area of highest occurrence/ km²
Exposition Park - Natural History Museum

(B) Second highest occurrence/ km²
Altadena/ Pasadena

(C) Third highest occurrence/ km²
Valley Village
The map highlights areas with higher amount of point density. Unlike our hypothesis, there are several areas of lower income that have high point density. The Natural History Museum is a notable case (Figure A), as the location with the most point density despite being located in and surrounded by low income blocks. The second highest point density seemed to be along a hiking trail as it shows an evident pathway from the point location alone. Figure C is also another case of high density in a lower income area. When we looked at the data in detail to rationalize the cause, we noticed that all of the points were taken by one very enthusiastic citizen scientist.

A linear regression was done in order to identify any correlations between median income and data point frequency. Figures A and B show the data points lacked any positive trend. The residuals were also looked at to determine if a linear regression was appropriate for the data. The plot of residuals versus the independent variable showed a linear trend, which signified a non-linear model is more appropriate for this analysis. The residuals versus fitted plot showed data points cluster to the left, signifying non-constant variance.

The spatial and statistical analysis did not show correlation between median income and presence of citizen science data points. For outreach purposes, this can be interpreted as a positive outcome to have no correlation between the two variables. However, there is a likelihood that people are not taking citizen science data points in the census block they reside in.
Impervious Surface

Hypothesis: Areas with less impervious surface would have higher instances of citizen science. Impervious surface was used as a predictor of urban development for this map. We created our hypothesis under the assumption that people are more likely to engage in citizen science in places that they expect nature. These patches of ‘nature’ are typically less developed or are purposely left unpaved. Unlike the median income map, census blocks were not utilized so the point density was not normalized per km^2.

The map shows a general trend of citizen science data being taken at areas of more pervious surface. We were concerned that the data may be skewed from the ratio of impervious to pervious surface that is in the study area. Where that citizen science may be more present on impervious surfaces, just because a large portion of the study area is developed. However, the pie graph on the left shows the ratio of impervious to pervious surface to be fairly equal, largely in part due to the Santa Monica Mountains.
While the map shows a wide presence of citizen science points at pervious surfaces, the histogram of median impervious surface shows high point density in areas of impervious surface. The scatter plot also shows skewness towards higher percent of impervious surface, with lack of clear linear trend.

**Traffic Density**
We hypothesized that areas located in or near high traffic areas would have more citizen science data points. The presence of traffic can predict how accessible an area is to the general public and how often an area is driven past.

The map shows a correlation between citizen science data presence and areas of high traffic density. There are a few outliers near the western, northern, and southern boundaries of the study.
area. These areas, however, are less developed and many are popular areas for outdoor recreation.

*A comparison with the Singapore Index*

Our final list of indicators has slightly deviated from the original SI. An indicator by indicator breakdown of our changes from the SI are:

1) Indicators 1, 9, and 10: In the SI, these three indicators are all related to vegetation. Thus, in our indicator set list, we made a specific indicator of “vegetation.” Under this indicator, we had several subcategories to be taken into account, including native versus non-native versus invasive, and the change in coverage. This is similar to the SI, which measures proportion of natural areas in the city, proportion of protected natural areas, and proportion of invasive alien species.

2) Indicator 2: This indicator was very similar to our LA indicator set because both look at measures of connectivity and fragmentation. However, the difference between our indicators is that while the SI measures connectivity and fragmentation by mean patch size, distance between patches, or effective mesh size, our LA indicators will measure it using both patches of land and routes of collared large mammal data as a proxy for fragmentation.

3) Indicator 3: Similar to SI, birds is also a specific indicator on our list. However, while the SI uses birds as a way to measure native biodiversity, our indicator is using it as both a measurement of native biodiversity, as well as a health indicator. This is done by looking at the total assemblage change of birds over the years, as well as looking specifically at keystone species in specific habitat types.

4) Indicators 4-8: These indicators in the SI are similar to our list because it selects a few of the important species that would be most indicative of the overall health and biodiversity of the environment. The SI uses vascular plants, birds, butterflies as their indicators. We chose to use freshwater ecosystems (fish and amphibians), reptiles, and insects as our other indicators.

By slightly changing what indicators to use, as well as the way to categorize the indicators, we were able to maximize what should be looked and studied at to determine the health and biodiversity of LA. Rather than having very specific indicators, we have very general indicators that are then subcategorized into more specific details to look at. Our goal of the SI is not to necessarily score and rank the city with a number, but rather, be able to create a baseline measurement for future references to determine how well biodiversity is doing, and how it can be improved upon (using the subcategorized details of the indicators as a starting point).
Conserving biodiversity in urban areas is not easy, but the biodiversity index created through this project can help the City of LA, scientific researchers, and the public in doing so. Although not a part of these efforts directly, this project was originally inspired by city efforts to address biodiversity, such as Mayor Eric Garcetti’s Sustainable City pLAn and the biodiversity motion introduced by LA 5th District Councilmember Paul Koretz. Since the study area includes not only the city of LA but much of the rest of LA County, the biodiversity index can be applied by policymakers in much of Southern California. Ideally, this project would give policymakers a strong starting point in organizing an approach for measuring and conserving biodiversity in their respective areas. In addition, researchers may be able to collaborate more easily if the biodiversity index directs attention to clear data gaps. The results of this project can also be used to galvanize the public to contribute to biodiversity conservation efforts. This project maps current citizen science efforts and points out spatial data gaps. Nonprofit organizations can educate the public on the necessity of filling these gaps, and perhaps, encourage underrepresented communities to submit citizen science observations.
Appendix

List 1. Experts interviewed
1) Bornstein, Carol - Natural History Museum
2) Boydston, Erin (PhD) - U.S. Geological Survey
3) Brown, Isaac - Singapore Index, UCLA
4) Carmichael, Danny - TreePeople
5) Chaves, Jaime (PhD) - Professor at Universidad San Francisco de Quito
6) Clark de Blasio, Julie - CA Native Plant Society
7) Cole, Jeffrey - Pasadena City College
8) Crain, Rhiannon (PhD) - Cornell Lab of Ornithology
9) Dagit, Rosi - Resource Conservation District of Santa Monica Mountains
10) Drill, Sabrina (PhD) - UC Cooperative Extension
11) Fiesler, Emile - Bioveyda Biodiversity Inventories
12) Folsom, Jim (PhD) - The Huntington Botanical Gardens
13) Fraga, Naomi (PhD) - Rancho Santa Ana Botanical Gardens
14) Garrett, Kimball (PhD) - Natural History Museum
15) Gillespie, Tom (PhD) - Professor and researcher at UCLA
16) Gold, Mark (PhD) - UCLA
17) Gorlitsky, Leryn - Professor at UCLA
18) Hopkins, Arlene - Arlene Hopkins and Associates
19) Harrigan, Ryan (PhD) - Center for Tropical Research
20) Kohsaka, Ryo - Singapore Index
21) Kopczak, Chuck (PhD) - California Science Center
22) Martin, Karen - Pepperdine
23) Mazour, Raphael - Southern California Coastal Water Research Project
24) Mehrhoff, Loyal - The Center for Biological Diversity
25) Palino, Gina - TreePeople
26) Pease, Katherine (PhD) - Heal the Bay
27) Randall, John (PhD) - The Nature Conservancy
28) Rauser, Casandra - Sustainable Grand Challenges at UCLA
29) Reed, Dan (PhD) - Marine ecologist at UCSB
30) Riley, Seth (PhD) - National Park Service
31) Schiffman, Paula M. (PhD) - Professor at California State University, Northridge
32) Schrader, Andy - LA City Hall
33) Smith, Thomas (PhD) - Center for Tropical Research
34) Sechrest, Wes - Global Wildlife Conservation in Austin, Texas
35) Stein, Eric - Southern California Coastal Water Research Project
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