

1 Lessons from Citizen Science: Assessing volunteer-collected plant phenology data with
2 Mountain Watch

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9

10 Abstract

11 Citizen science has the potential to expand the scope of data collection, engage the public
12 in research, and answer big scientific questions. But, the quality of volunteer-collected
13 data is often called into question, and citizen science programs must find ways to assess
14 the validity of this concern. Here, we review five years of volunteer-collected data from
15 an alpine flower monitoring citizen science project and present our efforts to investigate
16 the quality of the volunteer-collected data. We found disparity between citizen scientists'
17 self-assessed and actual plant species identification skills, indicating error in either true
18 plant identification or reported location, consequently limiting the use of this dataset.
19 Citizen science programs, including this project, must assess their data, and then make
20 adjustments — in training, data collection methods, or goals — in order to produce
21 quality data consistent with their scientific intentions. Indeed, this project now relies only
22 on seasonal trained staff observations and a handful of skilled volunteers in light of these
23 findings.

24

25 Introduction

26 Citizen science projects with research-oriented goals must develop methods for
27 assessing and improving the quality of their volunteer-collected data. Validating the
28 quality of this volunteer-collected data to uphold the scientific integrity of a project is a
29 common theme among citizen science literature, however no universal rules of data
30 quality have emerged, perhaps because projects vary so much in their scope, scale, and
31 study systems (Bonney et al., 2009; Miller-Rushing et al., 2012). Further, many citizen
32 science programs have education in addition to research goals or have pre-existing
33 audiences with varying skill sets. The high volumes of data from the dispersed data
34 collection model of citizen science can reduce the inherent error in volunteer-collected
35 data (Dickinson et al., 2012), however programs currently engaging in citizen science
36 must still employ a range of Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC) approaches
37 to fit both the types of data gathered and the audiences that participate. Research-oriented
38 citizen science programs in ecology, climate change biology, or conservation must assess
39 the species identification skills, the field measurements, the qualitative classifications,
40 and the quantitative counts recorded by their citizen scientists. It is important for the
41 citizen science community to share lessons from the fields, the workshops, the
42 classrooms, or the websites where they work to assess and control the quality of
43 volunteer observations. There is a special need for examples of programs that have
44 experienced problems, rather than reporting only on projects that were successful.

45 Assessing and controlling the quality of volunteer-collected data is often heralded,
46 but practical examples of implementing these measures are missing or folded into larger

47 papers without thorough examination (Cooper et al., 2014; Sullivan et al., 2009). In
48 addition, the largest and most well-known citizen programs have access to resources
49 including infrastructure, experts, and software programming that allow for streamlined
50 QA/QC and adjustments within programs; smaller, local programs often can not afford
51 these luxuries (Bonter and Cooper, 2012; Wiggins, 2013). A 2010 survey of 128 citizen
52 science programs with a focus on monitoring invasive species — most of which fit this
53 smaller, local category — found that only 39% incorporated quality checks on volunteer-
54 collected data (Crall et al., 2010). Forty percent of the programs in this survey reported
55 that they obtained a majority of their funding from grants; across all types of citizen
56 science programs, short-term funding like this is a common obstacle to efforts to assess
57 volunteer-collected data (Crall et al., 2010).

58 A recent review of the peer-reviewed literature on the quality of volunteer-
59 collected data in biological monitoring found that most studies assessing citizen science
60 focused on the act of data collection; the most common method reported was comparing
61 volunteers with experts or professionals (Lewandowski and Specht, 2015). In this vein,
62 vegetation surveys have re-sampled permanent transects with professional botanists
63 (Brandon et al., 2003; Galloway et al., 2006), while monitoring programs for pollinators
64 (Kremen et al., 2011), aquatic invertebrates (Delaney et al., 2007), terrestrial
65 invertebrates (Lovell et al., 2009), and benthic macroinvertebrates (Engel and Voshell,
66 2002) have compared volunteer observations to data collected by researchers in the same
67 sites. Across these case studies, data comparisons with experts validated the data
68 collection models and improved the associated programs; the volunteer-collected data
69 was rated as high quality, or indistinguishable from the experts, reflecting a “good”

70 citizen science program. However, honest accounts of programs identifying unreliable
71 data and evaluating faults in an underlying data collection model are missing from the
72 literature, and would provide valuable information, especially to smaller, more local
73 citizen science programs with limited resources.

74 Here, we present a case study of one citizen science program, a project to assess
75 its volunteer-collected data, and the lessons from this QA/QC effort. The Appalachian
76 Mountain Club (AMC), a nonprofit organization dedicated to conservation, education,
77 and recreation in the northeastern United States, launched the Mountain Watch Alpine
78 Flower Watch (Mountain Watch) citizen science program in 2005 to collect long-term
79 alpine plant phenology data in the White Mountain National Forest, New Hampshire.
80 Alpine ecosystems are generally sensitive to changes in climate (Pauli et al., 2014) and
81 phenological timing has implications for the success and long-term persistence of the
82 plants within those systems (Inouye, 2008), but the remote location of alpine habitats
83 makes it a challenging place to obtain observational data with good spatial and temporal
84 resolution.

85 Mountain Watch solicits hikers to become citizen scientists, and asks volunteers
86 to record flowering phenology observations along the trails in New Hampshire's White
87 Mountains. With this data, the AMC planned to track the local ecological effects of
88 climate change on plant communities in the small and fragmented alpine habitats of New
89 Hampshire. The citizen science program also has core educational goals to engage the
90 hiking community in the issue of climate change through hands-on monitoring. The
91 available audiences were the large number of hikers (~500,000 per year) visiting AMC
92 facilities in the White Mountains and a self-selected group of already-active volunteers.

93 In addition to the volunteer-collected data from Mountain Watch, the AMC has utilized
94 research staff, as well as seasonal naturalists and interns, to record phenology data at
95 permanent plots in the White Mountains since 2005. Both the citizen science project and
96 the research staff observations follow the same monitoring protocol, however only the
97 research staff observations have resulted in a scientific publication to date.

98 In 2014, the AMC's research department used long-term weather records from the
99 Mount Washington Observatory and alpine plant phenology data gathered by research
100 staff to hindcast flowering phenology and assess late-spring/early-summer frost risks for
101 three of the Mountain Watch plant species (Kimball et al., 2014). The volunteer-collected
102 data from the Mountain Watch program could broaden the geographic scope of this
103 research (from the twelve plots proximate to Mount Washington's meteorological station
104 included in this analysis, to alpine habitats across the northeastern United States) and
105 provide long-term phenology data (expanding on the four years of data included in this
106 analysis with on-going citizen science efforts). However, the potential of the Mountain
107 Watch dataset is dependent on its quality. To this end, we looked at the first five years of
108 volunteer-collected Mountain Watch data from the perspective of quality assurance and
109 quality control.

110 We reviewed the volunteer-collected Mountain Watch data from 2005-2009,
111 conducted vegetation surveys at locations recorded by volunteers, and assessed the
112 Mountain Watch data collection model. We used chi-square tests to describe the
113 relationships between species identification rates and characteristics including relative
114 abundance, phenophase, and the volunteers' self-assessed certainty of identification. In
115 the process, we identified two main challenges in QA/QC for the Mountain Watch data:

116 1) our ability to review the data hinged on the precision of the geographic location
117 descriptions provided by volunteers, and 2) for the majority of volunteers, we did not
118 know their plant identification skills or prior knowledge of the alpine habitat aside from
119 their self-assessed certainty of identification on the datasheet. From our review of five
120 years of volunteer collected data, we were able to identify potential shortcomings in the
121 original Mountain Watch data collection model, adjust the citizen science program, and
122 share lessons in QA/QC methods for a small, local program with limited resources.

123

124 Study Area

125 Alpine habitat in the northeastern United States, is limited to ~34 km² of
126 fragmented ridges and summits above treeline. The largest of these alpine areas
127 comprises ~11.3 km² in the Presidential Range of the White Mountain National Forest,
128 New Hampshire (Kimball and Weihrauch, 2000). The Presidential Range includes New
129 England's highest peak, Mt Washington (1917 m a.s.l.), three AMC backcountry huts
130 catering to backpackers, and some of the most popular hiking trails in the White
131 Mountain National Forest. This case study focuses on data collected here.

132 Six common and charismatic alpine plant species were chosen as Mountain
133 Watch target species: ericaceous shrubs *Rhododendron groenlandicum*, *Vaccinium*
134 *uliginosum* and *Vaccinium vitis-idaea*; herbaceous *Geum peckii* which is endemic to the
135 White Mountains and Nova Scotia; alpine sedge *Carex bigelowii*; and the circumpolar
136 pin-cushion plant *Diapensia lapponica*. Criteria considered in target species choice
137 included ease of identification, limited look-alike species, ease in phenophase
138 observation, and a variety of life histories and phenological timing. All six are slow

139 growing, long-lived perennials; the plant communities and species composition in the
140 Presidential Range has not changed over the duration of this study.

141

142 Methods — Mountain Watch program

143 The AMC Mountain Watch program builds on the popularity of the White
144 Mountain National Forest trail system and recruits hikers to become citizen scientists.
145 The only prerequisites for participating in Mountain Watch are interest, a species
146 identification field guide, and a blank datasheet, which are available online or at any
147 AMC lodge or backcountry hut. Mountain Watch training was provided at backcountry
148 huts as an evening nature program, but the frequency of these programs varied and AMC
149 did not track which volunteers had attended a training program over the years examined.
150 The datasheet asks volunteers to identify the six target alpine plant species, and record
151 the current phenophase (ie: before flowering, flowering, or after flowering) for each
152 observation. Volunteers record an observation by checking each phenophase present and
153 circling the dominant phenophase.

154 Volunteers also rank their certainty of identification (CID) for each species on a
155 scale from 1 (uncertain) to 3 (very certain) on the datasheet. The target species and
156 locations are unmarked to protect the integrity of the National Forest and to encourage
157 data collection across the alpine habitats of the White Mountains, and volunteers are
158 asked to record the geographic location of their observations in an open-ended space on
159 the datasheet. A map of the Presidential Range was printed on the reverse of the datasheet
160 to provide guidance for the observation location. Occasionally, volunteers provided GPS
161 coordinates in this space, but most often they simply wrote a description of their location.

162 During the years examined in this study, cellphone service in the Presidential Range was
163 spotty to nonexistent, and GPS-enabled smartphones had not yet become ubiquitous
164 accessories for hikers (Wiggins, 2013).

165

166 Methods — Mountain Watch QA/QC

167 In 2009 we surveyed the vegetation at geographic locations in the Presidential
168 Range recorded by volunteers in an effort to assess the quality of the volunteer-collected
169 data. First, we coded all geographic location descriptions provided by volunteers into
170 “best guess”, “general”, and “precise” categories, based on the specificity of their
171 description. “Best guess” descriptions were expansive (i.e. “on the Crawford Path”);
172 “precise” descriptions reported specific, particular locations (“Intersection of the West
173 Side Trail and Gulfside Trail”); “general” descriptions fell between (“on the Crawford
174 Path about halfway between junctions with Davis Path and Camel Trail”).

175 We surveyed the nineteen most popular precise locations recorded by volunteers
176 in the Presidential Range. At each location, we recorded the presence/absence of each
177 target species found within 10m. The “best guess” or “general” locations could not be
178 surveyed because those locations could not be pinpointed to within a 10m radius.
179 Volunteer observations of absent target species were categorized as “misidentified”. Non-
180 Mountain Watch species that could be misidentified as a target species (look-alikes) were
181 also recorded across at these observation locations (Table 1).

182 To determine identification rates, the volunteer-collected data was compared to
183 our survey results. For example, volunteers recorded *D. lapponica* in 19 locations, but the
184 survey validated the presence of *D. lapponica* in only 11 of those locations. The

185 volunteer observations from the 11 locations verified by the survey were classified as
186 “correct identifications”; volunteer observations of *D. lapponica* from the other locations
187 were classified as “misidentified”.

188 A series of chi-square analyses explored the relationships between these
189 misidentifications and a volunteer’s self-assessed CID, a plant’s phenophase, and a
190 species’ abundance. To estimate the relative abundance of each target species, we used
191 the number of survey locations where a target species was present in the Presidential
192 Range (i.e. *D. lapponica* was present at 11 of the 19 locations; its relative abundance =
193 0.58). For these analyses, “blank” CID responses were disregarded and Fisher’s exact test
194 was used to interpret small cell counts.

195

196 Results — Geography & Plant Identification

197 Mountain Watch received 1775 volunteer collected observations in the
198 Presidential Range during its first five years as a citizen science program. Of these, 1223
199 observations (69%) were recorded at “precise” locations, while 149 observations were at
200 “best guess” locations, 197 were at “general” locations, and 206 were entered into the
201 database as “unknown” locations. Imprecise location descriptions rendered over five
202 hundred volunteer observations (nearly a third of all observations) from the Presidential
203 Range ineligible for our QA/QC analysis.

204 Our survey was conducted at the 19 most popular precise locations, comprising a
205 subset of 865 observations in the Presidential Range. At these 19 locations, our survey
206 found a 33.6% plant misidentification rate among volunteers (Table 2).

207 The rate of identification varied with species, ranging from 98.1% (*C. bigelowii*)
208 to 27.3% (*R. groenlandicum*). It appears that the large variation in misidentification rates
209 is influenced, in part, by the variation in the relative abundance of the target species;
210 while *C. bigelowii* was found in all but one location and has a very low misidentification
211 rate, the species with the lowest relative abundances (*G. peckii* and *R. groenlandicum*)
212 carry the highest misidentification rates (Table 2). For *G. peckii* and *R. groenlandicum*,
213 the volunteers' identification rates are no better than random — the species reports occur
214 independently of where the species actually grow.

215

216 Phenophase Effects:

217 A significant relationship existed between flowering phenophase and CID
218 (Certainty of Identification) for all observations and all species (chi-square test, $p=0.03$,
219 Table 3). Over 60% of observations with the highest CID were associated with plants in
220 flower. The presence of flowers boosts the volunteers' confidence in their ability to
221 identify a plant.

222 Similarly, a significant relationship existed between flowering and correct species
223 identification (chi-square test, $p=0.002$). However, while 72.8% of “no flower”
224 observations were correctly identified, only 64% of “flowering” observations and 59% of
225 “dominant flowering” observations were correctly identified.

226 When the observations were analyzed by species, the relationship between
227 accuracy and flowering phenology was driven by two species: *R. groenlandicum* and *D.*
228 *lapponica* (Table 3). Though the identification rates for *R. groenlandicum* were much
229 lower than identification rates for *D. lapponica* across the board (Table 2), for each

230 species, “no flower” observations were correctly identified at a higher rate (36% and 83%
231 respectively) than “flowering” (19% and 64%) and “dominant flowering” observations
232 (11 and 73%).

233

234 Self-Assessed Certainty of Identification:

235 A review of the CID rankings reveals a bimodal distribution of very certain (456),
236 and volunteers not reporting a level of certainty at all (for 338 observations, the CID was
237 blank). Very few observations (n=27 and 44 respectively) were recorded with “1” (low)
238 or “2” (medium) CID. The QA/QC survey found no significant relationship between CID
239 and correct species identification. For each of the Mountain Watch species, accuracy is
240 independent of CID (Table 3). Therefore, self-reported CID rankings appear insufficient
241 to assess a volunteer’s actual ability to identify a given plant.

242

243 Discussion:

244 Implementing effective QA/QC methods in volunteer-collected data is a
245 challenging endeavor, but lessons from these efforts can provide valuable information to
246 the community of programs practicing citizen science. In the case of Mountain Watch,
247 the need to accumulate enough citizen science observations for evaluation, and the
248 limited resources of a small research department restricted the AMC’s ability to conduct
249 a more thorough QA/QC prior to 2009. Although minor changes to the program were
250 made in response to anecdotal feedback during this development time, our assessment
251 indicates that those adjustments were not sufficient and demonstrates the need to
252 incorporate quantitative assessments early in citizen science project development.

253 We identify two limitations to our QA/QC study design: location errors and look-
254 alike errors. In the case of location errors, volunteers may have been correctly identifying
255 target species while misreporting their geographic location. For example, we have
256 anecdotal evidence that volunteer observations recorded during evening naturalist
257 programs at one of the huts included a misleading location description provided by the
258 naturalist. However, since our assessment was restricted to volunteer-collected data
259 associated with precise geographic location descriptions, which were often detailed and
260 specific, we were comfortable assuming that the naturalist program described above was
261 an outlier.

262 During our assessment we compiled a list of look-alikes for each target species
263 and noted that the target and look-alike species often grew together at our survey sites
264 (Table 1). We realize that look-alike errors could potentially bias our assessment: if target
265 species and look-alike species grew together, the volunteer's observation would be in
266 agreement with the survey when they may have actually been observing a misidentified
267 look-alike species. Because of this, the target species with higher relative abundances in
268 the survey are more likely to have inflated correct identification rates. The advent of
269 smartphones and citizen science apps might alleviate both location errors and lookalike
270 errors as observations can be associated with GPS coordinates and attached photographs
271 of species *in situ* allow for validation of uncertain identifications (Crall et al., 2010;
272 Newman et al., 2012). However, these were nascent technologies in 2005, and are still
273 inaccessible to programs that occur in remote areas of the backcountry and/or have
274 limited resources (Dickinson et al., 2012; Wiggins 2013).

275 Despite the possible limitations associated with our survey methods, we are
276 confident in the quality of presence/absence data captured. During the development of
277 our assessment, we informally shadowed volunteers and naturalists as they recorded
278 Mountain Watch data. While this allowed us to compile a look-alike species list, it was
279 not feasible to assess individual volunteers at a larger scale and the survey provided a
280 comprehensive, quantitative method of assessment with a small investment in time and
281 resources. In addition, the ubiquity of professional re-surveys in the scientific literature
282 (Lewandowski and Specht, 2015) reinforces our survey as a useful method of assessment.

283 The results of our QA/QC analysis revealed shortcomings in the original
284 Mountain Watch data collection model. We found that open-ended data sheets return
285 precise location descriptions at a rate under 70%, leaving nearly a third of the Mountain
286 Watch data collected in the Presidential Range ineligible for our QA/QC analysis. The
287 imprecise location descriptions could impact the future utility of Mountain Watch data,
288 for example, resulting in a more coarse GIS analysis. The majority of hikers that we
289 solicit to volunteer for Mountain Watch likely have limited identification skills to
290 accurately monitor alpine plants, and flowering phenophases did not seem to improve
291 their abilities.

292 While flowers increased the volunteers' confidence in their certainty of
293 identification, in fact alpine plants in bloom were more likely to be misidentified in the
294 case of *R. groenlandicum* and *D. lapponica*. We expected that flowering phenophases
295 would aid identification skills. This is especially puzzling as the white inflorescences of
296 *R. groenlandicum* and *D. lapponica* offer a contrast from their purple- and pink- flowered
297 look-alikes (*R. groenlandicum*: rhodora, bog laurel, sheep's laurel; *D. lapponica*: alpine

298 azalea, lapland rosebay). It is possible that location errors are contributing to this
299 relationship between flowering and reduced identification rates, but we assume the
300 general hiking population is more likely to be adept at navigation (i.e. geographical
301 location) and inept at botany (i.e. species identification), rather than the reverse.
302 However, since our location surveys consisted of a 10m radius, it is possible that
303 volunteers correctly identifying a species located outside of this survey area would be
304 considered incorrect in our results.

305 In the course of this QA/QC analysis we uncovered an apparent bias towards *D.*
306 *lapponica*. The alpine zone is an unfamiliar habitat for most citizen scientists, but *D.*
307 *lapponica* seems to be well-known among visitors to the AMC's backcountry huts: its
308 photos decorate hut walls and brochures. At 16 of the 19 sites, *D. lapponica* was the most
309 recorded Mountain Watch species even though at five of those locations, *D. lapponica*
310 was not found in *any* abundance during our survey. In these five sites, volunteers were
311 reporting the phenophases for some other plant while under the impression that they were
312 monitoring *D. lapponica*. Among all observations in the Presidential Range (including
313 non-precise locations), *D. lapponica* accounted for almost one-fourth (441) of the 1775
314 observations. Perhaps this *D. lapponica* fervor is equivalent to the phenomenon other
315 programs have reported of volunteer biases toward charismatic bird species (Lepczyk,
316 2005), rare species (Lewandowski and Specht, 2015), and unique or large trees
317 (Galloway et al., 2006).

318 After this QA/QC analysis, the AMC amended its data collection model. The
319 process of assessing the Mountain Watch data led to discussions within the organization
320 about the goals, priorities, and utility of citizen science in climate change research. Many

321 citizen science programs without extensive training programs rely on volunteers who
322 already have experience with identification as life-long birders (Sullivan et al., 2009) or
323 amateur botanists (Beaubien and Hamann, 2011; Lawrence, 2009; Mayer, 2010), while
324 the majority of the Mountain Watch audience is composed of hikers staying at an AMC
325 hut who may not have a strong interest and knowledge in the flowering plants they are
326 observing, and were not available for more extensive training. Mountain Watch assumed
327 that adding a self-assessed “certainty of ID” metric would sort the volunteer-collected
328 observations into “good” and “bad” plant identifications. However, our QA/QC survey
329 revealed that this was not the case; other citizen science programs must similarly test
330 their assumptions of their volunteers’ abilities. The citizen science datasheets were
331 modified to direct volunteers to specific, permanent locations where a list of target
332 species known to present was provided (Wiggins, 2013). However, due to lack of direct
333 funding necessary to maintain a robust QA/QC of the general hiking audience data, the
334 program has been scaled back over time, and is now limited to trained seasonal
335 employees, research staff, and a select group of well-trained volunteers.

336 The current, smaller cohort of Mountain Watch observers has had more success
337 with the more constrained and less subjective tasks of recording data for lists of target
338 species at specific, permanent locations (Kimball et al., 2014). Similarly, other citizen
339 science programs have found that volunteers were more accurate with concrete tasks, for
340 example, reporting measurements instead of classifications (Brandon et al., 2003;
341 Galloway et al., 2006; Lovell et al., 2009). While Mountain Watch is specific to a place
342 and unique pool of hiker-volunteers, it exhibits qualities common to many small, local
343 citizen science programs. It is much smaller than the national phenology networks

344 (Mayer, 2010), the alpine zone is much less familiar than “backyard monitoring” schemes
345 like eBird (Sullivan et al., 2009), and the AMC is not able to provide hours- or day-long
346 training sessions for its volunteers (Bois et al., 2011; Jordan et al., 2009; Kremen et al.,
347 2011; Lovell et al., 2009). Explorations of data quality in big-name, well-funded citizen
348 science programs that draw on large pools of volunteers are important, but most programs
349 must attempt to assess their volunteer-collected data at a smaller scale and with fewer
350 available resources (Engel 2002). This case study underscores the repeated call for well-
351 structured data collection models and training that matches the requested volunteer
352 skillset with a clear assessment of an imperfect model (Bonney et al., 2009; Dickinson et
353 al., 2010; Lovell et al., 2009). Other citizen science programs must follow the lead of the
354 AMC, take the time to study their own data, and then make adjustments — in training,
355 data collection methods, or goals — in order to produce data of a quality consistent with
356 their scientific intentions.

357

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ALPINE FLOWER BASIC DATA SHEET

Date _____ Name _____

of people on hike _____ To receive updates provide email address _____

Alpine area or nearest major town/highway _____ State _____

Describe your hike route _____

Instructions:

Stop at a place you can find on a map, like a trail junction, summit or large stream crossing, and **look** to see if there is one or more of the target species growing near that spot. You are unlikely to find all 6 target species at one site, but many occur together.

Describe your observation location in the first box below (more room on back). Enter elevation & lat/long (if known). Mark your location and label it with the location # on a sketch map on reverse side.

Record flowering status of the target plant(s). The plant(s) at your location may exhibit more than one flowering stage. **Mark ALL** stages that apply with an "X", and **CIRCLE** the stage that appears to be dominant; use the field guide for guidance. Indicate your certainty of identification (ID) on a scale of 1-3 (1=uncertain, 2=somewhat certain, 3=most certain).

Return this sheet to any NH AMC destination frontdesk, mail to: www.outdoors.org/mountainwatch/volunteers



AMC, Mtn. Watch
 P.O. 298, Gorham NH 03581

| Observation location description | Species | Before Flowering | After Flowering | Certainty of ID (1-3) |
|----------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| Observation location #1 | | | | |
| Elevation _____ (feet) | Alpine hiberny | | | |
| Lat/Long _____ (decimal degrees) | Bigelow's sedge | | | |
| | Mountain avens | | | |
| | DuRoi's | | | |
| | Mountain cranberry | | | |
| | Ladendor tea | | | |
| Observation location #2 | | | | |
| Elevation _____ (feet) | Alpine hiberny | | | |
| Lat/Long _____ (decimal degrees) | Bigelow's sedge | | | |
| | Mountain avens | | | |
| | DuRoi's | | | |
| | Mountain cranberry | | | |
| | Ladendor tea | | | |
| Observation location #3 | | | | |
| Elevation _____ (feet) | Alpine hiberny | | | |
| Lat/Long _____ (decimal degrees) | Bigelow's sedge | | | |
| | Mountain avens | | | |
| | DuRoi's | | | |
| | Mountain cranberry | | | |
| | Ladendor tea | | | |
| Observation location #4 | | | | |
| Elevation _____ (feet) | Alpine hiberny | | | |
| Lat/Long _____ (decimal degrees) | Bigelow's sedge | | | |
| | Mountain avens | | | |
| | DuRoi's | | | |
| | Mountain cranberry | | | |
| | Ladendor tea | | | |
| Observation location #5 | | | | |
| Elevation _____ (feet) | Alpine hiberny | | | |
| Lat/Long _____ (decimal degrees) | Bigelow's sedge | | | |
| | Mountain avens | | | |
| | DuRoi's | | | |
| | Mountain cranberry | | | |
| | Ladendor tea | | | |

PLEASE MAKE ALL OBSERVATIONS FROM THE TRAIL.

Thanks for your help! Find your data, forms for your next hike and more information at www.outdoors.org/mountainwatch

Fig. 1 — Mountain Watch datasheet for volunteer-collected data during the period of this case study (2005-2009).

Table 1 — Mountain Watch target species and their “look-alike” species in the Presidential Range alpine habitats, New Hampshire

| Target Species | Look-alike Species |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| <i>Vaccinium uliginosum</i> | <i>Alnus viridis</i> <i>Betula cordifolia</i> <i>Betula glandulosa</i> <i>Salix</i> spp. <i>Vaccinium angustifolium</i> <i>Vaccinium boreale</i> <i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i> |
| <i>Rhododendron groenlandicum</i> | <i>Chamaedaphne calyculata</i> <i>Kalmia angustifolia</i> <i>Kalmia polifolia</i> <i>Rhododendron canadense</i> |
| <i>Diapensia lapponica</i> | <i>Empetrum nigrum</i> <i>Kalmia procumbens</i> <i>Rhododendron lapponicum</i> |
| <i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i> | <i>Empetrum nigrum</i> <i>Gaultheria hispidula</i> <i>Kalmia procumbens</i> <i>Vaccinium uliginosum</i> |
| <i>Geum peckii</i> | <i>Geum macrophyllum</i> <i>Ribes glandulosum</i> <i>Rubus chamaemorus</i> |
| <i>Carex bigelowii</i> | <i>Deschampsia flexuosa</i> <i>Juncus trifidus</i> <i>Luzula spicata</i> <i>Trichophorum caespitosum</i> |

Table 2 — Summary of Mountain Watch volunteer-collected data included in this QA/QC study. For each target species, we present the number of observations and locations by volunteers at 19 precise locations in the Presidential Range (2005-2009) and the results of our 2009 QA/QC survey. The Rate of Species Identification is defined as the percent of volunteer observations that agree with our survey. Volunteer observations of target species noted as absent at a location during the survey were categorized as “misidentified”. Relative abundance of each target species is calculated as the number of survey locations where a target species was present in the Presidential Range divided by 19 (the number of precise locations surveyed).

| Alpine Plant Species | Common Name | Number of Observations Recorded by Volunteers | Number of Locations Recorded by Volunteers | Number of Locations Recorded by Survey | Rate of Species Identification | Relative Abundance |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|---|--|--|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Vaccinium uliginosum</i> | Alpine bilberry | 113 | 18 | 17 | 96.5 | 0.95 |
| <i>Rhododendron groenlandicum</i> | Labrador tea | 128 | 17 | 5 | 27.3 | 0.26 |
| <i>Diapensia lapponica</i> | Diapensia | 216 | 19 | 11 | 73.6 | 0.58 |
| <i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i> | Mountain cranberry | 158 | 19 | 10 | 60.8 | 0.53 |
| <i>Geum peckii</i> | Mountain aven | 93 | 15 | 3 | 28.0 | 0.16 |
| <i>Carex bigelowii</i> | Bigelow's sedge | 157 | 19 | 18 | 98.1 | 0.95 |

Table 3 — Summary of the chi-square test results for the QA/QC analyses of Mountain Watch volunteer-collected data. A series of chi-square analyses explored the relationship between the Rate of Species Identification (Accuracy), a volunteer’s self-assessed Certainty of Identification, and a plant’s phenophase. P values are included for significant results.

| Alpine Plant Species | Certainty of ID & Accuracy | Flowering & Certainty of ID | Flowering & Accuracy |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|
| <i>Vaccinium uliginosum</i> | No relationship | Significant (p=0.005) | No relationship |
| <i>Rhododendron groenlandicum</i> | No relationship | Significant (p=0.043) | Significant (p=0.023) |
| <i>Diapensia lapponica</i> | No relationship | Significant (p=0.045) | Significant (p=0.014) |
| <i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i> | No relationship | No relationship | No relationship |
| <i>Geum peckii</i> | No relationship | No relationship | No relationship |
| <i>Carex bigelowii</i> | No relationship | No relationship | No relationship |
| Across All Species | No relationship | Significant (p=0.03) | Significant (p=0.002) |