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12 **Citizen science monitoring of marine protected areas: case studies and recommendations for**  
13 **integration into monitoring programs**

14

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## 35 **Abstract**

36 Ecosystem-based management and conservation approaches such as marine protected  
37 areas (MPAs) require large amounts of ecological data to be implemented and adaptively  
38 managed. Recently, many citizen science programs have endeavored to help provide these  
39 much needed data. Implementation of MPAs under the Marine Life Protection Act (MLPA)  
40 Initiative in southern California was followed by a monitoring program to establish a  
41 comprehensive baseline of the ecological conditions of several marine ecosystems at the time  
42 of MPA implementation. This baseline monitoring consortium involved several citizen science  
43 monitoring programs alongside more traditional academic monitoring programs, creating an  
44 opportunity to evaluate the potential for citizen scientists to become more involved in future  
45 long-term monitoring efforts. We investigated different citizen science models, their program  
46 goals, and contributions to MPA baseline monitoring, including their respective monitoring  
47 protocols and data quality assurance measures, in the context of the goals of the MLPA  
48 baseline monitoring program. We focused on three very different case studies: (1) commercial

49 fishermen and other volunteers collaborating with researchers to study the California spiny  
50 lobster, (2) volunteer divers monitoring rocky reefs with the Reef Check California (RCCA)  
51 program and (3) middle and high school students monitoring the intertidal life of rocky shore  
52 and sandy beach ecosystems with the National Marine Sanctuaries' LiMPETS program (Long-  
53 term Monitoring Program and Experiential Training for Students). We elucidate capacities and  
54 potential of citizen science approaches for MPA baseline monitoring and for building capacity  
55 towards sustainable long-term monitoring of MPAs. Results from this study will be relevant and  
56 timely as the monitoring of California's MPAs transitions from baseline to long-term  
57 monitoring, and as citizen science continues to become more prevalent in California and  
58 elsewhere.

59

## 60 **Introduction**

61 Natural resource management requires the support of sound and rigorous science.  
62 However, bringing science to bear on natural resource management decisions is an ongoing  
63 challenge, made all the more crucial by the increased data and information needs required by  
64 Ecosystem Based Management approaches and adaptive management policies. One aspect of  
65 this challenge is that there is often a mismatch between the needs of managers and outputs of  
66 science. Academic scientists, and the broader science system, are not incentivized to organize  
67 research around the needs of managers (McNie 2007). Successfully delivering useful  
68 information to resource managers requires capacity and careful attention, but many agencies  
69 and scientific institutions struggle to support this function (Clark et al. 2011, Lemos et al. 2012,  
70 Matso 2012). Beginning in the 1990s, volunteer-based citizen science monitoring of marine  
71 environments began addressing the need for dataset based on long-term studies (Thiel et al.  
72 2014). Citizen science, as we refer to it here, engages non-scientists in authentic scientific  
73 research and monitoring (Dickinson et al. 2012). Marine citizen science programs now range  
74 from online projects, to observation along beaches and shores to underwater observations.  
75 These efforts cover a wide variety of taxa and ecosystems, notably coral reefs and other  
76 shallow reefs—key habitats that can be studied in the intertidal zone or by using SCUBA

77 (Pattengill-Semmens and Semmens 2003, Selig and Bruno 2010, Thiel et al. 2014). Beyond  
78 contributing to basic or applied research, citizen science projects provide opportunities to  
79 involve stakeholders in management of marine resources while enhancing scientific literacy,  
80 environmental awareness, and resource stewardship, and the very activity of conducting  
81 research educates participants about the scientific process, creating trust between  
82 stakeholders and resource managers (Bonney et al. 2009b, Dickinson et al. 2012, Jordan et al.  
83 2012, Shirk et al. 2012, McKinley et al. 2015, McKinley et al. 2016).

84 An increasing number of citizen science projects have an explicit goal of supporting  
85 management in some way (Aceves-Bueno et al. 2015, McKinley et al. 2015, McKinley et al.  
86 2016). However, the challenge of effectively linking citizen science programs with natural  
87 resource management remains. There is a diversity of approaches to citizen science, each with  
88 different potential outcomes related to factors such as participant experience and learning,  
89 data quality and credibility, and data use. Furthermore, data production is not the only way in  
90 which citizen science can contribute to management. There are other ways in which outcomes  
91 of citizen science (e.g., scientific literacy, environmental awareness, stewardship, trust building)  
92 may intersect with resource management (Cigliano et al. 2015, McKinley et al. 2015, McKinley  
93 et al. 2016). In striving to understand the opportunity that it might present for natural resource  
94 management, we must avoid treating 'citizen science' as a monolith, and recognize that  
95 different kinds of programs have different goals, strengths, weaknesses, and needs when it  
96 comes to collaboration with academic scientists, and with resource managers (e.g., Freitag et  
97 al. 2016).

98 Citizen science programs have been categorized in a variety of ways. For example,  
99 Bonney et al. (2009) put forward a framework for understanding the types of participation by  
100 volunteers, ranging from contributions of data to co-creation of projects. McKinley et al. (2016)  
101 point to stages of a decision-making process such as policy formulation, management  
102 implementation, and evaluation, as offering different opportunities for citizen science data to  
103 play a role. Freitag et al. (2016) document a variety of approaches used by citizen science

104 projects to demonstrate the credibility of their results. Scientists and managers must carefully  
105 consider these factors in structuring a collaboration involving citizen science.

106

## 107 **Citizen science and MPA monitoring in Southern California**

108 In 1999, the California State Legislature passed the Marine Life Protection Act (MLPA),  
109 which sought to protect and preserve the state's underwater ecosystems and heritage by  
110 establishing a coherent network of protected sites and —crucially — to ensure that they were  
111 managed adaptively and “based on sound scientific guidelines” (Fish and Game Code) as a  
112 network. Motivations to evaluate the effectiveness of MPAs in meeting their management  
113 objectives are numerous (Syms and Carr 2001, Willis et al. 2003, Gaines et al. 2010) and the  
114 MLPA mandates that the MPA network be monitored to inform its adaptive management  
115 (Botsford et al. 2014). Further, the MPA monitoring framework explicitly mentions the  
116 potential role of citizen science programs in MPA monitoring (California Department of Fish and  
117 Game 2008). As such several citizen science programs were included in the baseline monitoring  
118 program of the MPAs in California's south Coast Study region (SCSR) after MPAs were  
119 established in 2011.

120 In this paper we focus on the opportunity for citizen science to play a role in natural  
121 resource management by examining three very different citizen science programs in the  
122 context of baseline phase of MPA monitoring in Southern California (2011-2016). Taken  
123 together, the three cases illuminate the different considerations discussed above, and also  
124 show that even within a single natural resource management program, there may be room for  
125 multiple kinds of participation by many different kinds of stakeholders. We focus on three case  
126 studies: (1) commercial fishermen, agency scientists, and other volunteers collaborating with  
127 academic researchers to study the California spiny lobster (*Panulirus interruptus*) in the  
128 Southern California Lobster Research Group (SCLRG), (2) volunteer SCUBA divers monitoring  
129 rocky reefs with the Reef Check California (RCCA) program, and (3) middle and high school  
130 students monitoring rocky intertidal and sandy beach ecosystems with the Long-term  
131 Monitoring Program and Experiential Training for Students (LiMPETS) program. All three

132 programs contributed data to the MPA baseline monitoring in the SCSR. We examine their  
133 respective motivations, program goals and contributions to the baseline monitoring in light of  
134 the goals of the MLPA baseline monitoring program.

135

## 136 ***Case studies***

### 137 **Southern California Lobster Research Group**

138 The Southern California Lobster Research Group was created in 2011 to perform  
139 baseline monitoring for California spiny lobsters in South Coast MPAs (Figure 1). Scientists from  
140 San Diego State University, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, and the California Department  
141 of Fish and Wildlife teamed with commercial lobster fishermen from the San Diego, Laguna  
142 Beach, and Palos Verdes, California areas to form a tag-recapture program using commercial  
143 fishing vessels as research platforms. It also teamed with the San Diego Oceans Foundation  
144 (SDOF), a 501(c)3 nonprofit organization dedicated to educating community members about  
145 local marine organisms and the habitats upon which they depend.

146 Over the course of three years, working primarily in the spring and summer months,  
147 members of the SCLRG conducted a mark-recapture study on California spiny lobsters.  
148 Fishermen, scientists, and volunteers took day trips on commercial fishing vessels or research  
149 vessels to collect data on spiny lobster abundance, size distribution, sex, reproductive status,  
150 and movement. Growth and movement were assessed by marking lobsters with individually  
151 numbered plastic “t-bar” tags that were color coded based on whether lobsters were trapped  
152 inside or outside of MPAs. Trapping was conducted by one commercial fisherman accompanied  
153 by at least two project participants (usually, one project scientist and one or two volunteers).  
154 Approximately 19,000 lobsters were captured, tagged and released over the course of the  
155 three-year study.

156 Volunteers were recruited by the SDOF, which received hundreds of volunteer  
157 applications. Each volunteer was interviewed individually and then was required to read a  
158 volunteer manual, upon which they were tested before being allowed to go to sea. Their

159 training covered what to expect at sea, what their responsibilities would be, the importance of  
160 accurate data collection, and basic safety protocols for being on a vessel. Collectively the  
161 process required hundreds of hours of time by SDOF staff to vet the potential volunteers and to  
162 train them. Interestingly, many of the staff members of SDOF are themselves volunteers who  
163 devote several months of time to the organization with no compensation.

164         Volunteers needed no particular set of skills but were required to be comfortable being  
165 on a small boat for several hours, and needed to be able to neatly record data at a relatively  
166 fast pace in field conditions. Volunteers were specifically tasked with data recording and more  
167 experienced volunteers sometimes assisted with lobster tagging. Volunteers were asked to  
168 commit to a minimum of one day per month of being at sea for the project, though as the  
169 project progressed we wound up with a “core” set of reliable volunteers who participated at  
170 least several times per month.

171         The project involved the efforts of several lobster fishermen over the course of the  
172 study. One primary fisherman was recruited in each of three geographic areas in which the  
173 team conducted research: San Diego (3 MPAs), Laguna Beach (1 MPA), and Palos Verdes (1  
174 MPA). Other fishermen acquainted with the primary fishermen assisted with the research out  
175 of interest or necessity (e.g., when a primary fishing vessel developed mechanical problems, a  
176 back-up vessel was used). Ninety percent of daily trapping and tagging trips were performed  
177 aboard vessels owned by these fishermen who were compensated for the cost of fuel,  
178 insurance and wear-and-tear to their vessels. Fishermen were not provided salary, but instead  
179 donated their time to the project.

180         The lobster trapping and tagging typically yielded over a dozen completed data sheets at  
181 the end of each day, which required hundreds of lines of data to be entered. To quality control  
182 the data, data sheets were checked for irregularities daily or weekly, and any questionable data  
183 entries were shown to the data recorder or scientists that had been at sea when the data were  
184 recorded for clarification. Data points that could not be clarified were discarded. Data entry  
185 was done by project staff who were trained in entering data using the correct format, and  
186 analyses were conducted by project staff (principal investigators and students).

187           The goal of the project was to form a collegial group of researchers and volunteers  
188 representing different perspectives and walks-of-life to successfully evaluate the status of  
189 lobsters in and around South Coast MPAs. The team specifically wanted to involve members of  
190 the fishing community to take advantage of their tremendous local ecological knowledge and to  
191 get their buy-in for lobster monitoring. In turn, the fishermen wanted a hand in monitoring to  
192 see that it was being done to their satisfaction and standards. They also expressed sense of  
193 responsibility and stewardship to the lobster population and the fisheries it supports. The team  
194 wanted to go beyond a collaboration between fishers and scientists and involve the public in  
195 this research, in order to better educate citizens about lobster ecology, the lobster fishery, and  
196 the nature of marine research.

197           There were two key reasons to structuring the research in this collaborative framework:  
198 first, it allowed implementation of a variety of monitoring tools. Building a strong team of  
199 researchers from academia, management, and industry, with different expertise, enabled a  
200 focus on several different components of monitoring (e.g., boat-based tagging, SCUBA-based  
201 surveys, and analysis of fishery records) which contributed different but complementary  
202 information. Second, the collaboration promoted buy-in from the fishing community that  
203 monitoring is being done correctly and that the data accurately reflect population trends of  
204 fishery species. The contributions of the fishing community, in terms of local ecological  
205 knowledge, were invaluable to the research and can contribute substantially to future  
206 monitoring efforts. For example, not only did fishermen contribute expertise for trapping  
207 lobsters (including methodology and key locations to target for lobster capture), but they also  
208 collaborated with project scientists to discuss the reasons behind trends in lobster abundance  
209 and distribution that became apparent after data collection was initiated.

210           One challenge was the different levels of preparedness and competency of volunteers.  
211 Though all of them went through training, some still had a difficult time remaining organized  
212 when asked to record data. Some were very concerned about making sure numbers were  
213 recorded correctly, whereas a few volunteers did not seem to care about making mistakes on  
214 data recording (or they perhaps were embarrassed about admitting not being able to keep up).



215 Luckily, this was rare and most volunteers were engaged and accurate. The small number of  
216 volunteers that had problems recording data were not invited back to participate in the  
217 research.

218 Though collaborating with fishermen greatly aided the research, fishermen and  
219 scientists sometimes are at odds regarding how sampling should be performed. There were  
220 occasional discussions regarding the placement of traps for catching lobsters. For a fisherman  
221 interested in maximizing the number of lobsters per trap, it would not make sense to deploy  
222 traps in unsuitable habitats that sometimes were within or adjacent to MPAs. In contrast  
223 scientists may favor randomly deploying or spatially dispersing traps among different habitat  
224 types, even if low catches are expected in some areas. The group had numerous meetings  
225 before, during and after each research season to work out the optimal placement of traps to  
226 maximize catch (which was important for maximizing recaptures and analyzing growth and  
227 movement) and to effectively make unbiased comparisons of lobster abundance inside and  
228 outside of MPAs.

229

### 230 **Reef Check California**

231 The Reef Check California (RCCA) program was established in 2005 by the Reef Check  
232 Foundation, a California based 501(c)3 non-profit organization (Figure 2). The program was  
233 developed with the goal of involving the public in the scientific monitoring of California's rocky  
234 reefs and kelp forests to improve marine management by providing scientific data to the  
235 management and decision making entities. Further, the program aims to educate the public  
236 about the marine environment, its management and conservation by involving people in the  
237 scientific monitoring of key habitats. Specifically, RCCA uses trained volunteer scuba divers to  
238 collect data on the ecological communities of shallow subtidal rocky reefs along the  
239 California coast. RCCA's monitoring protocol was developed with the oversight of a scientific  
240 advisory committee and modeled after a successful large-scale academic rocky reef monitoring  
241 program conducted by the Partnership for Interdisciplinary Study of Coastal Oceans (PISCO).  
242 The PISCO protocol was modified by reducing the number of species monitored, modifying

243 some sampling procedures and changing the replication of transects to enable volunteers to  
244 complete the monitoring with a reasonable amount of training. Importantly, protocol  
245 modifications were made in a way that would allow for data to be compatible. For example,  
246 RCCA's taxonomic groupings were designed to directly correlate to PISCO's taxonomic  
247 categories so that data of both programs can be combined at higher taxonomic levels. The  
248 resulting monitoring protocol for RCCA surveys consist of 18 transects along which 35 fish  
249 species are counted and sized, and 6 transects along which 28 invertebrate and 5 algae taxa are  
250 counted (and in some cases sized) and the physical habitat is characterized (Freiwald et al.  
251 2015).

252 To participate in RCCA monitoring, volunteers have to be experienced scuba divers (30  
253 cold-water dives minimum) and are trained during a four-day training course and then annually  
254 retrained and tested in their skills. The initial training involves lectures on marine ecology,  
255 MPAs, species identification and the scientific methods for counting and sizing organisms along  
256 standardized transects. Next, species identification and monitoring skills are practiced during  
257 two days of diving (6 dives). At the end of the training volunteers are tested in their species  
258 identification skills and the monitoring methods during written and field exams. This testing  
259 leads to a tiered approach to data collection in which volunteers are allowed to collect certain  
260 types of data (i.e. certain taxonomic groups) based on their skill level and only the most skilled  
261 volunteers are able to collect all data types. Annual recertification ensures that the skills of  
262 volunteers are tested before each field season and provide participants with an opportunity to  
263 demonstrate increased skills so that they can collect other types of data. The required prior  
264 scuba diving experience, the high level of training as well as the substantial time (typical survey  
265 days are 6-8 hours plus travel) and financial investment (> \$1000 in dive equipment) results in  
266 recruitment that is highly selective for dedicated and invested volunteers.

267 The RCCA program was developed at the time when the Marine Life Protection Act  
268 (MLPA) initiative began to design and implement MPAs along California's central coast.  
269 Therefore, MPA monitoring was at the forefront of the development of the monitoring program  
270 and the program goals correspond closely to the MPA monitoring goals of the MLPA baseline  
271 monitoring. The usefulness of the data collected by RCCA for marine management and

272 specifically for the use with respect to the goals of the MLPA was recognized early on during  
273 program development through a Memorandum of Understanding between the Reef Check  
274 Foundation and the California Department of Fish and Wildlife (CDFW). Through this  
275 cooperation with the potential end user of the data a direct avenue for scientific information  
276 collected by RCCA volunteers to the relevant management agency was created. RCCA began  
277 monitoring in 2006 and was involved in the baseline monitoring of California's MPAs in every  
278 MLPA study region as MPAs were implemented sequentially. During the baseline monitoring  
279 programs as well as in a separate study, RCCA data were compared to data collected by  
280 academic monitoring projects (Gillett et al. 2012, Carr et al. 2013, Ocean Science Trust and  
281 California Department of Fish and Wildlife 2013). These comparisons were used to improve  
282 RCCA's monitoring protocol and to evaluate the compatibility of data among programs.

283 In the south coast study region (SCSR) baseline monitoring project RCCA closely  
284 collaborated with the two academic programs that monitor rocky reefs in the region  
285 (PISCO/Vantuna Research Group (VRG)) on survey design. Over the two years of the SCSR  
286 baseline monitoring, RCCA trained approximately 100 new citizen scientists that completed 91  
287 surveys. Many of the participants in the SCSR monitoring have been with Reef Check for many  
288 years and a 2013 survey of active and past volunteers showed that volunteers are on average  
289 38.5 years old (range 17-69) and have a high level of education.

290 RCCA's data are entered into a database by interns, volunteers or staff and are publicly  
291 available through Reef Check's Global Reef Tracker ([data.reefcheck.org](http://data.reefcheck.org)). Data are examined by  
292 a rigorous quality assurance and quality control process that ranges from the training and  
293 certification of volunteers, to data checks in the field, to automated data evaluation during data  
294 entry ("smart filter" sensu: Bonter and Cooper 2012), and a final data check by RCCA staff  
295 before data are released. For the MPA baseline monitoring, data are analyzed by RCCA staff,  
296 often in collaboration with academic researchers, and analyses and data are made available for  
297 peer review.

298 Overall, RCCA reached its goal of contributing scientific information to the management  
299 process of California's marine resources by involving the public in MPA monitoring and making  
300 its data available to decision makers. Reef Check's MPA baseline data and analyses have been

301 included in technical reports, summary reports, presentations and documentation provided to  
302 decision makers (i.e. Fish and Game Commission) in the respective MLPA regions. Three aspects  
303 of the program have strongly contributed to RCCA's success in using citizen science for MPA  
304 baseline monitoring and informing marine management: (1) modeling the RCCA's citizen  
305 science monitoring protocol on an existing monitoring program, (2) involving the end user of  
306 the data early on in the program development, and (3) the rigorous training and testing of  
307 volunteers and the comparison of volunteer collected data to data from other monitoring  
308 programs. Reporting highly technical results back to the public continues to be a challenge.  
309 RCCA is addressing this by implementing a user-friendly interface for online data display. This  
310 allows volunteers and the interested public to search and graph RCCA data but further steps to  
311 report results in engaging ways would be beneficial.

312

### 313 **LiMPETS Case Studies for Rocky Intertidal and Sandy Beach Ecosystems**

314 LiMPETS is an environmental monitoring and education program primarily focused on  
315 7th-12th grade students (Figure 3). This hands-on program was launched in 2004 in and around  
316 California's National Marine Sanctuaries as a way to increase awareness and stewardship of  
317 these important areas, with now approximately 5,000 students participating annually at 68 sites  
318 state-wide. Participants engage in monitoring activities, gain experience using the tools and  
319 methods employed by field scientists, and can enter their data online. The program focuses on  
320 two intertidal habitat types: rocky shore (27 sites) and sandy beach (41 sites). The rocky  
321 intertidal program collects count and presence/absence data on a list of 34 categories scored in  
322 0.25m<sup>2</sup> quadrats (either random or fixed along a permanent transect). Information on total  
323 counts of sea stars and sea anemones, and size frequency data for owl limpets (*Lottia gigantea*)  
324 are collected at some sites. At sandy beach sites, data on the numbers and size frequency  
325 distributions of Pacific mole crabs *Emerita analoga* captured in core samples taken along a fixed  
326 sampling grid are collected. Complete protocols, archived data and additional information are  
327 available at <http://limpetsmonitoring.org>. Although the two intertidal habitats are monitored  
328 separately, the audience, level of training and participant involvement are comparable.  
329 Teachers must attend a prerequisite 1-day training workshop and a LiMPETS Coordinator gives

330 a classroom presentation on program background, protocols and species identification. This  
331 program is accompanied by a 4-unit curriculum that meets California state science standards  
332 and provides teacher-led classroom exercises and learning tools, that teachers are expected to  
333 implement before field trips. Typically, a classroom only participates in one field trip, although  
334 some teachers repeatedly involve their classrooms each year. For many students, the LiMPETS  
335 field trip may be their first exposure to the coast and ocean environment. The program model  
336 maximizes the number of distinct class trips rather than focusing on more intensive study and  
337 experience for fewer students. After the field trip, teachers and students are encouraged to  
338 enter their data via the on-line entry portal into the public LiMPETS database. The data entry  
339 portal was not built with formal error checking capacity or any way to flag questionable data  
340 once they are entered.

341 In 2011, academic scientists leading the SCSR MPA baseline evaluation program of rocky  
342 intertidal and sandy beach ecosystems collaborated with the coordinators of the LiMPETS  
343 program at Channel Island National Marine Sanctuary (CINMS) on studies to evaluate the  
344 potential for LiMPETS to contribute to monitoring of southern California MPAs. The goals of this  
345 partnership were: 1) to compare data collected by LiMPETS participants with those collected by  
346 professional scientists (UCSB and the Multi-Agency Rocky Intertidal Network –MARINe), 2) to  
347 refine existing protocols and test new protocols for more efficient and accurate data collection,  
348 and 3) to work with teachers to field test new protocols, and refine training methods based on  
349 teacher feedback. Participants in our protocol testing and development studies in the field and  
350 classroom included scientists, LiMPETS coordinators and K-12 teachers.

351 LiMPETS uses protocols to estimate species abundance that differ from that used by  
352 most marine scientists, owing to the multiple program goals including education and  
353 experiential training. Some factors initially implemented to make sampling easier for students  
354 may reduce the efficacy of data collection. For example, in the rocky intertidal, quadrats are  
355 scored by the ratio out of 25 sub-grids that an organism occurs in (number of squares), rather  
356 than for percent cover based upon 60 to 100 points. Students must spend time searching  
357 through the quadrat, which is an educational benefit, but the units of measure are not

358 equivalent to those used by academic scientists and thus the data loses relevance outside of  
359 the LiMPETS arena. Sand crabs are individually measured and counted per core along a fixed  
360 grid that is not adaptable to the dynamic zone of occurrence of sand crabs or changing beach  
361 conditions (Nielsen et al. 2011, Dugan et al. 2013), which means that sampling often misses  
362 these highly mobile animals, leading to a dataset erroneously populated with zeros.  
363 Additionally, the existing program databases contain obvious errors due to species  
364 misidentification (taxa entered for sites where they are not known to occur). Because of these  
365 and other issues, collaborating scientists were unable to conduct a formal comparative analysis  
366 using existing LiMPETS datasets for either intertidal habitat, but informal data exploration  
367 confirmed these observations.

368         The next phase of the comparative analysis focused on experimentally evaluating  
369 correlations between abundance estimates generated side-by-side by CINMS staff and interns,  
370 LiMPETS coordinators and professional scientists and their graduate students. On multiple days  
371 at both rocky intertidal and sandy beach sites, samplers worked transects side by side, or  
372 scored the same plots, using the two distinct protocols plus one protocol modification (LiMPETS  
373 vs. academic scientist or vs. a modified LiMPETS for sandy beaches). This modified approach  
374 shared similarities with LiMPETS but was sensitive to changing beach conditions and mole crab  
375 habitat. Results of these field comparisons found that abundance estimates differed  
376 significantly between protocols.

377         In the rocky intertidal, comparing number of squares to percent cover, the best  
378 agreements were for taxa that occur uniformly in high density (e.g., mussel beds), and the  
379 worst were for taxa that occur infrequently but are evenly distributed (e.g., scattered  
380 barnacles) (Blanchette et al. 2014). The LiMPETS protocol consistently underestimated the  
381 number of sand crabs on the beach, by an order of magnitude or more compared to the  
382 modified LiMPETS protocol (Dugan et al. 2015). The time-intensive set up and sampling of the  
383 fixed grid used by LiMPETS did not account for the highly mobile behavior and active predator  
384 avoidance responses of sand crabs, which means that the sampling grid can miss the species  
385 zone entirely and crabs have often left the sampling area before the sampling can commence.

386 These results were consistent with those obtained in a similar comparative study done on  
387 sandy beaches in the North Central Coast MPA region (Nielsen et al. 2011).

388 Clearly, protocol modifications are needed to enhance the accuracy for both of the  
389 LiMPETS programs. Many errors stem from participant misidentification of rocky intertidal  
390 species. This is not surprising given both taxonomic complexity and the level of introductory  
391 training available to participants. Reducing species list complexity and incorporating bioregional  
392 differences into expanded field guides and survey protocols could help mitigate training  
393 limitations. Also, Total Count and Size Frequency methods focusing on larger species, such as  
394 owl limpets and sea stars, may be more teachable and easier to validate. Modifications of the  
395 protocol and the adoption of an adaptive sampling approach for sand crab surveys could help  
396 to increase the accuracy and utility of the data. In order to increase the usability of LiMPETS  
397 data, both programs would greatly benefit from restructuring to a tiered system and adoption  
398 of a quality assurance plan for training and certifying participants to each tier level.

399 Investigators considered the feasibility of using the modified LiMPETS sampling  
400 protocols during a Teacher Professional Development Workshop. Teachers liked the tiered  
401 approach in which students of all abilities could participate and feel successful, the tiers offered  
402 challenges/something to strive for, and they allowed for differential learning within classrooms.  
403 After a field session implementing the modified sand crab protocol that featured adaptive  
404 sampling, teachers indicated that it was highly feasible and would carry additional important  
405 educational benefits by fostering scientific observation and quantitative reasoning skills in their  
406 students (Dugan et al. 2015). Most of the teachers thought that participation in LiMPETS was a  
407 valuable experience even if the data collected were not made available as part of a scientific  
408 monitoring program, and was a great way to train and expose students to different  
409 methodologies and levels of taxonomic complexity, preparing them to assist or work with more  
410 experienced scientists.

411 The educational value of LiMPETS is undeniable and the program excels at introducing  
412 students to coastal environments and MPAs. However, there are many challenges with its  
413 usefulness as a citizen science program aiming to contribute data suitable for use in guiding

414 management decisions. LiMPETS should explore practical considerations to build more effective  
415 monitoring outcomes including modified protocols, a strong and detailed training program with  
416 tests that document expertise, consistent mentorship and direct oversight by program staff  
417 and/or professional scientists, data sheet and database input review, quality assurance and  
418 quality control testing, use of standard methodologies in the field, and reliance on a science  
419 advisory team for guidance, oversight, and endorsement. As a result of the south coast MPA  
420 baseline monitoring program, LiMPETS has embraced addressing these considerations and  
421 program modifications are underway.

422

## 423 **Discussion**

424 The case studies highlight three very different citizen science projects. They differ in  
425 their temporal scope, their target audiences (i.e. citizen scientist demographics) and their  
426 program goals. Together they exemplify a broad range of citizen science programs and  
427 demonstrate the breadth of goals of citizen science (Dickinson and Bonney 2012). Through  
428 these three projects a wide range of non-scientists were involved in the SCSR MPA baseline  
429 monitoring. They ranged from K-12 students and teachers, to recreational scuba divers to  
430 professional fishermen and their participation varied from single day excursions (for students in  
431 the LiMPETS program and some spiny lobster volunteers) to long-term involvement lasting far  
432 beyond the baseline monitoring for Reef Check volunteers. Commitment to training also varied,  
433 from short training sessions in the classroom (LiMPETS) to extensive training and testing  
434 (RCCA). All three programs were successful in engaging stakeholders in MPA monitoring and  
435 especially the SCLR highlights how this can lead to fruitful discussions among scientists and  
436 resource users that lead to better understanding of research methods and monitoring  
437 outcomes by stakeholders. Along the continuum of participant involvement put forward by  
438 Bonney et al. (2009a), the three projects can be defined as contributory, with participants  
439 collecting data according to a protocol put forward by scientists. The SCLR project exhibits  
440 elements of a collaborative citizen science program in which volunteers began to contribute to  
441 the design of the study taking the involvement of stakeholder a step further than the two other



442 programs in this respect.

443 An essential goal of all citizen science projects should be the generation of scientific  
444 data or, more broadly, a contribution to new scientific understanding while involving the public  
445 in the process (Dickinson and Bonney 2012, Shirk et al. 2012). This definition of citizen science  
446 sets citizen science apart from projects purely focused on science education and clearly aligns  
447 with the goals of generating a scientific baseline of the MPAs in the SCSR. While RCCA and  
448 SCLRG were developed to collect scientific data for MPA monitoring, the LiMPETS program was  
449 developed foremost around educational goals prior to its involvement in the MPA baseline  
450 monitoring. Therefore, the programmatic goals of the three citizen science projects aligned to  
451 different degrees with the MPA baseline monitoring goals. In this respect the LiMPETS program  
452 was different from the other two, as its participation in the baseline monitoring focused on  
453 exploring and evaluating whether a school-based program could collect high quality scientific  
454 data for MPA monitoring and expand its educational focus to the generation of scientific  
455 knowledge (Shirk et al. 2012). As a result of the evaluation of the data produced by the LiMPETS  
456 program they were ultimately not used for the characterization of the south coast MPAs. This  
457 does not suggest that education-based citizen science programs cannot adapt protocols to  
458 collect management relevant data; in fact, protocol revisions were suggested following the  
459 direct comparison of methodologies in the LiMPETS case study. On the other hand, RCCA and  
460 SCLRG data were used for the baseline characterization of the SCSR MPAs (Freiwald and  
461 Wisniewski 2015, Hovel et al. 2015). Therefore, both programs met their goal of providing  
462 information to the MPA baseline while involving the stakeholder community in the MPA  
463 monitoring. Further, RCCA built capacity for continued MPA monitoring and the program has  
464 successfully monitored sites in the SCSR every year following the baseline period. While SCLRG  
465 was not designed to continue after the baseline period, it reached its goal of engagement and  
466 “buy-in” from an important group of stakeholders – commercial fisherman. The close working  
467 relationship that the SCLRG formed between scientists and volunteers is likely to lead to future  
468 collaborations and increased stakeholder stewardship and involvement in MPA management,  
469 an important outcome of public participation in scientific research (Shirk et al. 2012). The  
470 LiMPETS program achieved its goal of evaluating its monitoring program with respect to the

471 accuracy of data collection and it remains to be seen if the modifications can be implemented  
472 to produce quality monitoring data while not compromising its educational goals (Nielsen et al.  
473 2011, Blanchette et al. 2015, Dugan et al. 2015). Additionally, strengthening the scientific rigor  
474 of programmatic aspects such as in-field training and data collection hold promise for  
475 enhancing science, technology, engineering and math (STEM) learning.

476 For all three citizen science programs the participation in the MPA baseline monitoring  
477 was considered a success and has led to programmatic improvement for the two programs that  
478 continue their monitoring (i.e. RCCA, LiMPETS). For example, RCCA has modified its protocol as  
479 it became apparent that its method of sizing fish was not sufficient to detect changes in fish  
480 population's size distribution. The program implemented a protocol to collect higher  
481 resolution size data for fish (standard length to nearest cm). The LiMPETS program identified  
482 the need for modified monitoring protocols for beaches and rocky shores, new quality  
483 assurance procedures, and training tools. Each of the three programs identified the need for a  
484 tiered approach to data collection based on the participant's abilities. In the RCCA protocol this  
485 is realized through the training and testing procedures that were established prior to the SCSR  
486 baseline monitoring. The LiMPETS program identified the need for a tiered approach through  
487 its comparative study and the teacher workshop. The SCLRG project was designed for  
488 participants of different skill levels (i.e. data recorders, commercial fishermen) but even within  
489 these groups there were different skill levels and participants that could not perform the tasks  
490 with the required accuracy were given simpler tasks. In the case of SCLRG, this tiered approach  
491 was implemented ad hoc as it had not been anticipated given the relatively small amount of  
492 training required for volunteers. The need for strategies to account for volunteer capabilities  
493 while maintaining high credibility of the data they collect has been identified in other citizen  
494 science programs especially if many volunteers are involved in a program as was the case as in  
495 each of these three programs (Freitag et al. 2016).

496 The experiences from all three programs demonstrated that if scientific data collection  
497 is the goal, there need to be appropriate entry requirements for participants. Entry  
498 requirements can take the form of prerequisites (i.e. technical skills required for participation,  
499 RCCA) and/or rigorous initial training (e.g., SCLRG) of participants followed by testing prior to

500 data collection. The three programs had different approaches for selecting participants with  
501 the required skills. LiMPETS participants were part of a class rather than chosen by personal  
502 skill or interest, and there are no prerequisites for participation in data collection. In the SCLRG  
503 program volunteers were chosen based on interviews and for RCCA, volunteers must have  
504 substantial prerequisite diving experience in order to participate in the program. Often this  
505 need for highly trained participants in order to collect scientific data conflicts with the  
506 educational outreach or science engagement goals of a program (Freitag and Pfeffer 2013).  
507 Educational outreach and science engagement are aimed at participants of all skill levels,  
508 whereas accurate data collection to be used in scientific studies must be done by volunteers  
509 with verified skills. This tradeoff is important to consider when citizen science programs  
510 participate in ecosystem monitoring because the need for high quality data might compromise  
511 other important program goals. In the case of SCLRG, entry requirement or initial tests would  
512 have helped identify able volunteers and probably not impacted the educational outreach and  
513 science engagement goals of the program, as the required skills of data recording are not very  
514 complex. In the case of LiMPETS, there is a clear tradeoff between educational and data  
515 collection goals, therefore entry requirements might not be feasible unless education goals are  
516 given less priority. In this case, a tiered approach to data collection might be able to achieve  
517 both education and data quality goals. RCCA's prerequisite requirements are high due to the  
518 scuba skills required for monitoring the rocky reefs. This limits the number of volunteers that  
519 can participate and therefore confines the educational benefits of the monitoring program.

520 Data quality control was identified as a critical component by all three citizen science  
521 programs. In contrast to many other citizen science programs, all three programs conducted  
522 data collection during organized events rather than letting volunteers collect data  
523 independently and for RCCA and SCLRG all data were collected when scientists were present. In  
524 general, only about 30% of marine citizen science programs use organized approaches (Thiel et  
525 al. 2014) and these programs have been shown to employ more measures to ensure the  
526 credibility of their data than programs that rely on individuals working independently (Freitag  
527 et al. 2016). Large-scale citizen science projects, especially if the goals are biodiversity surveys,  
528 detection of invasive species, or description of qualitative population trends might benefit from

529 the large numbers of observations that can be made if volunteers are collecting data  
530 independently and on “their own time”, for example, during recreational activities (Goffredo et  
531 al. 2010, Wolf and Pattengill-Semmens 2013). In this study, all programs indicated that  
532 professional scientific oversight is an important part of their quality control. Oversight and the  
533 presence of peers (i.e. other trained volunteers), provide opportunity for early detection of  
534 mistakes and errors in the data when they are easy to correct. Therefore, direct engagement of  
535 staff in the data collection is an important step in data quality control protocols for citizen  
536 science programs as it allows for correction rather than just the dismissal of erroneous data.  
537 Other studies have shown that data collected in groups and in the presence of scientifically  
538 trained staff might be perceived as more reliable than data collected by individuals on their  
539 own (Freitag et al. 2016).

540 Quantitative evaluation of data quality was identified as important when the goal is to  
541 contribute to the scientific understanding of an ecosystem by these programs and by others  
542 (e.g., Burgess et al. 2017). Comparisons of citizen science data to data collected by academic  
543 researchers have been done for two of the programs (LiMPETS, RCCA) (Gillett et al. 2012,  
544 Blanchette et al. 2015). Other citizen science projects have used quantitative analyses of the  
545 accuracy of citizen science data to establish participation-criteria based on the volunteers’  
546 education levels (i.e. primary school to post graduate education) (Delaney et al. 2007). Such  
547 analyses can not only be used to establish entry requirements, they could also help to assign  
548 levels of confidence to citizen science data based on participants’ backgrounds (e.g., grade  
549 level). This would be useful in programs for which education, and therefore participation of  
550 volunteers with a broad range of backgrounds, is an important program goal. Automated data  
551 checks that flag unusual data based on quantitative measures such as maximum allowable  
552 counts or regional species presences/absence information have been identified by these  
553 programs and others as increasing data quality and data use by researchers (Bonter and Cooper  
554 2012, Burgess et al. 2017). RCCA has implemented quantitative data checks in its database and  
555 the LiMPETS program has suggested that automated data checks would greatly improve the  
556 data quantity if implemented.

557 All three cases pointed to modifications of the programs that would improve their ability

558 to contribute to adaptive management of California's MPAs. It is worth noting that a long-term  
559 monitoring program can provide an opportunity for iteration and adjustment on the part of  
560 citizen science programs, professional scientists, and natural resource managers, as they work  
561 toward a productive relationship.

562

### 563 **Conclusions and Recommendations**

564 Overall, these three case studies demonstrate how citizen science projects can  
565 contribute scientific data to MPA monitoring while engaging important stakeholders in the  
566 monitoring and management process and also achieve some of their educational goals. The  
567 degree to which data can be integrated into the management process depends in large part on  
568 the other programmatic goals of the citizen science programs. If programs are developed first  
569 and foremost with an educational goal in mind it will likely require extra steps to make the data  
570 useful in a research and management context. On the other hand, if data collection is the main  
571 goal of the program, other beneficial aspects such as education might be limited. Key steps in  
572 making data collected by citizen scientists useful in a management context that were identified  
573 in all three case studies are: (1) The goal of collecting data and contributing to the  
574 understanding of the ecosystems under management requires carefully balancing other  
575 program goals lest data quality and reliability or the other program goals can be compromised.  
576 (2) Strict and explicit entry requirements for volunteers into the program are necessary to  
577 insure data quality and build credibility of the program. To achieve this, volunteers can be pre-  
578 selected based on a set of skills that is required (e.g., RCCA divers, SCLRG commercial  
579 fishermen) and/or they can be trained and tested in the data collection protocols (RCCA divers,  
580 LIMPETS students). (3) A tiered approach that qualifies volunteers for different levels of data  
581 collection was identified in all three case studies as important for insuring data quality. This  
582 allows volunteers to collect data according to their abilities and allows programs to include  
583 participants with different skill levels. It also provides an opportunity to reach educational and  
584 science engagement goals while still collecting high quality data by broadening the scope of  
585 volunteers that are able to participate in a program. (4) Direct oversight of volunteer groups by  
586 trained marine scientists in the field was identified as an important aspect of data quality

587 assurance/quality control in all programs. Collecting data in a peer group as well as the  
588 presence of scientists during the field surveys make it much easier to correct errors and identify  
589 mistakes before it is too late to make simple corrections. Together these steps contribute to the  
590 quality and reliability of monitoring data collected by citizen science programs and can help to  
591 ensure that these programs contribute valuable data to marine management while involving  
592 stakeholders in the process.

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736

737 **Figures**

738 Figure 1. Volunteer recording data on California spiny lobster for the Southern California  
739 Lobster Research Group.

740 Figure 2. Reef Check California volunteer counting organisms along a transect.

741 Figure 3. Students working in the rocky intertidal with the LiMPETS program

742

743 Figure 1

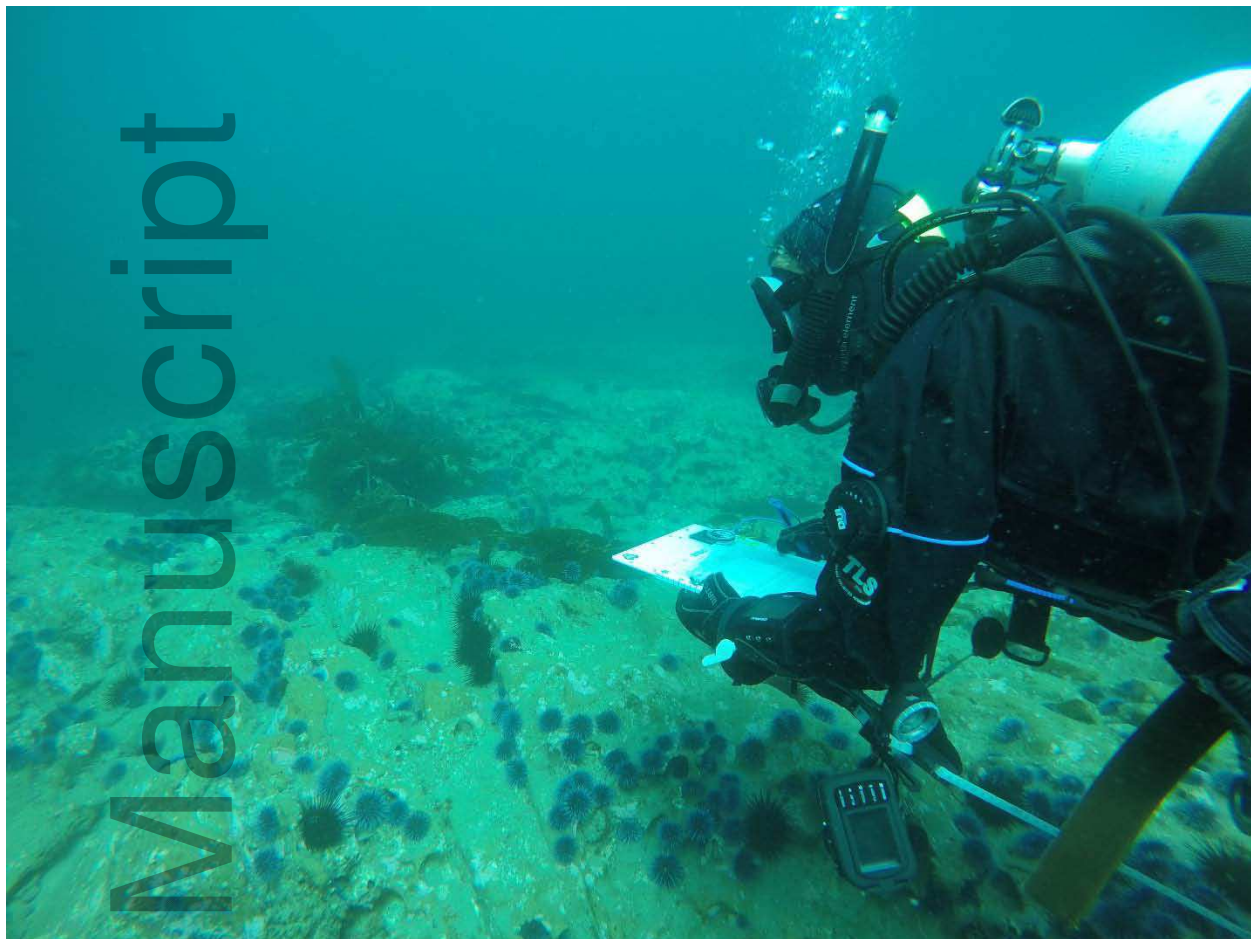


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747 Figure 2.



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751 Figure 3

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