

25 *“(mis)information runs fast but expert replies run faster”*

26 Carlo Maiolini

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Mass media represents one of the main news referring sources for people, and media framing plays a
30 crucial role in shaping society’s attitudes towards wildlife (Chong & Druckman, 2007; Gore & Knuth,
31 2009). In the digital era, reading news on the Web has become a regular habit for many people, and
32 the information provided by mass media has gained the ability to reach a global audience within a
33 very short time. Today, most newspapers produce an online version, offering unlimited coverage of
34 breaking news worldwide. Moreover, social media has increased news visibility enormously. People
35 share news on social media and thus act as news filters, often spreading and overemphasizing the
36 most alarming news stories (Mammola et al., 2020; Nanni et al., 2020). Media framing may strongly
37 shape public risk perception (Leiserowitz, 2005) and has become extremely important in promoting
38 or discouraging public tolerance towards wildlife conservation, especially for species that ignite the
39 human-wildlife conflict, such as large carnivores (Arbieu et al., 2021; Bombieri et al., 2018; McCagh
40 et al., 2015; Nanni et al., 2020), spiders (Mammola et al., 2020), viruses (Evensen & Clarke, 2012),
41 and bats (Cerri et al., 2021).

42 Bats have been identified as hosts of serious zoonotic diseases, including Nipah and Hendra
43 virus, Rabies, and several Respiratory Syndromes (Schneeberger & Voigt, 2016). The connection
44 with zoonotic diseases has considerable potential to negatively impact human perception of bats by
45 evoking fear and intolerance amongst the public (Vaske et al., 2009; Wobeser, 2006), especially if
46 risk communication is poorly contextualized and inadequately crafted (MacFarlane & Rocha, 2020).
47 Negative perception of bats may be explained by an inborn fear for animals associated with the spread
48 of diseases (Davey, 1994; Matchett & Davey, 1991; Prokop & Tunnicliffe, 2008; Ware et al., 1994;
49 Whitaker Jr. & Douglas, 2006), as well as by the way in which information is framed by the mass

50 media and by the scientific literature. A review conducted by López-Baucells et al. (2018) highlighted
51 that half of the virological studies regarding bats framed them as a major concern for public health
52 without providing evidence, while only 4% of such studies mentioned their importance for ecosystem
53 functioning. In this sense the scientific literature acts as a possible source of (mis)information for
54 mass media and the information shared by the scientific literature may be replaced and amplified by
55 the mass media, which also often frame bats as a serious threat to human health (Schneeberger &
56 Voigt, 2016). The overabundant news relating to specific topics, such as bat-associated diseases, may
57 lead to an overestimation of the risk posed by bats and, in extreme cases, may fuel direct persecution
58 of these suspected disease reservoirs (Buttke et al., 2015; Guyton & Brook, 2015). A balanced and
59 accurate communication about health risk involving bats is fundamental to both mitigate the spread
60 of diseases and render conservation efforts for bats more effective (Crockford et al., 2018; López-
61 Baucells et al., 2018). Bats have key functional role and their conservation may improve ecosystem
62 functioning, positively affecting economy (Boyles et al., 2011) and even human health, following the
63 “One Health” concept (Decker et al., 2010).

64 A unique opportunity to globally assess the importance that communication plays for wildlife
65 conservation was provided by the novel zoonotic coronavirus (COVID-19), that at the end of 2019
66 was isolated in China, and which underwent a rapid global spread between January and March 2020,
67 with marked social and economic effects (World Health Organization 2020). Even though the origin
68 of COVID-19 is still debated, shortly after the onset of the COVID-19 outbreak, several studies
69 suggested bats as the likely natural reservoir and origin of the virus (R. Lu et al., 2020; Wu et al.,
70 2020; Xu et al., 2020; P. Zhou et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2020). This information was replayed and
71 globally spread by the mass media during the first months of the pandemic, possibly raising public
72 anxiety and intolerance toward bats (M. Lu et al., 2021; Rocha et al., 2020).

73 We studied the effects of information on bats delivered by the media (Figure 1) to assess how
74 quickly a biased negative representation of wildlife by global press may undermine conservation

75 efforts. We gathered global media reports on bats from before and during the pandemic across 26
76 countries and in 7 languages. We asked the following questions:

- 77 1. What is the content of the information of each bat-related media report?
- 78 2. How has the information contained in media reports changed throughout the first
79 months of the COVID-19 pandemic?

80

81 **2. Methods**

82 *2.1 Media news retrieval*

83 Online media reports regarding bats were collected across the globe for the period 2018–2020, using
84 seven languages, i.e., English, Spanish, Chinese, French, Portuguese, German, and Italian.
85 Specifically, we analyzed reports in 26 countries, i.e., China, India, Pakistan, United States of
86 America, Canada, United Kingdom, Italy, Spain, France, Portugal, Germany, Austria, Ecuador, Peru,
87 Argentina, Costa Rica, Brazil, Australia, New Zealand, Philippines, Democratic Republic of Congo,
88 Namibia, Kenya, Ghana, Senegal, and South Africa, covering all six continents on which bats occur.
89 We adapted the methodology used in Nanni et al. (2020) and Mammola et al. (2020) for retrieving
90 online media reports on bats. The online search was conducted via the advanced Google search tool,
91 using “bats” or the corresponding translations as a keyword, and adjusting the language and country
92 accordingly. We specified the temporal interval of the research, i.e., one year at time (e.g., 1/01/2018
93 to 31/12/2018) using the ‘Custom range’ tool. For each year, via *Google News* we collected the first
94 50 bat-related news reports, as for the majority of countries no more news were available. We
95 excluded non pertinent reports (e.g., those related to batman, bat robots, or sport bats). Reports from
96 online magazines were included, as well as those from blogs or YouTube videos if they represented
97 television news from newspapers.

98

99 *2.2 Data extraction*

100 A content analysis was performed (Krippendorff, 2018). For each media report, we extracted or
101 derived the following information: (a) title, (b) publication date, (c) newspaper name, (d) newspaper
102 circulation ('local', 'national' or 'worldwide'), (e) topic of the news, (f) sensationalism, (g) presence
103 of pro-conservation messages, i.e., messages promoting bats conservation and safeguard, and (h) bat
104 species or families mentioned (if any).

105 We classified newspaper circulation as 'local' if their total circulation (paper + online) was
106 below 50,000 copies, and as 'national' if it was above 50,000 copies, searching the total circulation
107 on each newspaper webpage and cross-checking this on the Wikipedia newspaper trend page. To
108 define newspaper circulation as 'worldwide' we used the World Press Trends 2016 News (Milosevic,
109 2016).

110 Concerning the topic of the news, we defined the following categories: (i) 'bat-associated
111 disease', if the report was about diseases transmitted by bats to humans (articles about wet markets
112 were included in this category); (ii) 'persecution', if the news focused on bats killing or persecution;
113 (iii) 'dead bats', if the news main topic was about bats found dead for natural or unknown causes; (iv)
114 'science communication', if the news was mainly about research findings, new species discovered,
115 or if it was an interview with a scientist; (v) 'others', for topics not fitting into the previous categories.
116 Although that same report may encompass several of the topics above, we decided to focus on the
117 main topic of each one which was usually expressed in the title. For reports classed as 'persecution',
118 we created an identifier for each unique event (ID_ persecution) and collected the year when the event
119 occurred to be able to recognize each unique persecution event.

120 To assess a media report as sensationalistic, we evaluated the title, subheading, and main text
121 of each media report. Following the definition of 'sensationalism' by Uribe and Gunter (2007): "a
122 characteristic of the news-packaging process that places emphasis upon those elements that could
123 provoke an effect on the human sensory system", we considered a report as sensationalistic if it
124 contained at least one markedly negative word as: "horror", "horrific", "nightmare", "evil", "scary",
125 "terror", "terrifying", "terrorizes", "frightening", "alarm", "panic", "attack", "devil", "hell", "killer",

126 “terrible”, “disturbing”, “creepy”, “disquieting”, “dreadful”, “awful”, “monster”, “invasion”, “under
127 siege”, “plague”, “petrifying”, “spookier”, “filthy” (see Appendix S1). However, we did not classify
128 a report as sensationalistic if such words were used ironically or rhetorically to express the opposite
129 meaning, (e.g., “Are bats really awful creatures?”, or “Is all this terror for bats necessary?”). To
130 standardize the data mining strategy among different authors in charge of different countries and
131 languages, we prepared a general protocol (Appendix S2) for retrieval and classification of
132 information on reports. Moreover, the entire final database was checked for consistency by the first
133 author to assess uniformity in the classifications.

134 Finally, we assessed the occurrence of pro-conservation messages by checking if each media
135 report: (1) mentioned the importance of bats for ecosystems; (2) mentioned the extinction risk of bat
136 species or bats in general; (3) gave motivations for safeguarding bats; (4) gave advice on how to
137 safeguard or assist bats.

138

139 *2.3 Data on COVID-19*

140 We recorded information on the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic from January to July 2020 across
141 the 26 countries investigated (Dong et al., 2020). Specifically, for each country we collected: a)
142 number of new infections every 15 days; b) number of total cases until July 31st; c) number of total
143 deaths until July 31st; d) number of residents; and e) date of the first exponential growth of the
144 epidemic curve, i.e., the date on which each country started to experience widespread transmission
145 inside the community, based on the data collected by Ficetola and Rubolini (2021). We used this
146 information to define whether each report was published before or after the first exponential growth
147 of the epidemic curve.

148

149 *2.4 Data analysis*

150 We conducted all analyses in R (R Core Team, 2021). To assess whether the pandemic affected the
151 media framing of bats, we built three generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) with a binomial

152 error distribution, and tested the significance of independent variables with a likelihood ratio test
153 (Bolker et al., 2009). In all models, we included the country of search as random factor. In the first
154 model, we tested whether news on bat-associated diseases became more frequent after the emergence
155 of COVID-19 in January 2020. We used the presence/absence of news focused on bats as disease
156 vectors as dependent variables, while the year of publication and the newspaper circulation as
157 independent variables. We used orthogonal contrasts (Field et al., 2012) to assess if the frequency of
158 news describing bats as disease transmitters differed between 2020 and the pre-covid period (i.e. 2018
159 + 2019), and then between 2018 and 2019. Furthermore, to assess differences associated with the
160 newspaper circulation, we subsequently performed a Tukey post-hoc test among the levels
161 (international, national, local), using the function *glht* of the package 'multcomp' (Hothorn et al.,
162 2008). In the second model, we related the presence/absence of pro-conservation messages
163 (dependent variable) to the year of publication and the newspaper circulation (independent variables).
164 We designed the third GLMM model to verify if sensationalistic framing increased during the
165 COVID-19 pandemic. We used the presence/absence of sensationalism as dependent variable and
166 year and newspaper circulation as independent variables.

167 We then focused on what happened in the year 2020 (N = 1160), namely during the pandemic
168 period, to assess how the spread of bat-related news and pro-conservation messages varied according
169 to the diffusion of COVID-19 in each country. We built two GLMMs with a binomial error
170 distribution, both having the logarithm of the number of cases, logarithm of incidence, newspaper
171 circulation level and the variable “pre / post exponential” as independent variables, the latter defining
172 whether a given report occurred before or after the first exponential date of the epidemic curve. In the
173 first model, we used the presence/absence of a bat-associated disease in the report as the dependent
174 variable, while in the second model we used the presence/absence of pro-conservation messages as
175 the dependent variable.

176 Finally, using a Chi-squared test, we verified if the number of persecution events increased
177 after the emergence of COVID-19. Given that for the year 2020, we only considered January/July

178 (i.e. 7 months), we weighted the number of yearly events by the number of months for which the
179 information was available.

180 We graphically explored the content of reports with barcharts using 'ggplot2' (Wickham,
181 2016). Using density plots, we explored the temporal distribution of bat-associated disease reports,
182 pro-conservation messages and new COVID-19 infections, by computing a kernel density estimate
183 with a 1.5 bandwidth adjustment (Wickham, 2016).

184

185 **3. Results**

186 We collected a total of 2651 reports regarding bats, published between January 2018 and July 2020
187 from 26 countries (Figure 2a). We identified a total of 21 single events of persecution toward bats
188 described in the news, with an increase in 2020 compared with previous years ($\chi^2_1 = 7.4$, $P = 0.006$).
189 In African countries, the annual number of online published reports regarding bats was less than 50,
190 especially before 2020. Reports were published in 1104 different online newspapers, mainly at the
191 national level (71.1%, $n = 1885$), followed by local (22.7%, $n = 601$), and worldwide levels (6.2%, n
192 $= 165$). The majority of reports focused on pathogenic elements of potential zoonotic risk identified
193 in bats (42%, $n = 1113$), 'others' (35.2%, $n = 934$) and science communications (18.3%, $n = 484$),
194 while few reports focused on dead bats or persecution (3.4%, $n = 89$, and 1.2%, $n = 31$ respectively).
195 The category 'others' included, for example, news regarding events organized for the public, bat-
196 focused projects, white-nose syndrome, bats found in dwellings, bat tourism and eating bats, as well
197 as summary reports on the general status of bats and their ecosystems, and impacts of infrastructures.
198 Considering the total number of reports in each country, reports regarding bat-associated disease were
199 higher in Africa (between 46.7% and 81.1%), Asia (between 43.4% and 71.4%) and Central-South
200 America (between 55.9% and 66.7%), compared with North America (between 43.4% and 71.4%),
201 Oceania (between 25.5% and 27.3%), and Europe (between 15.9% and 40.7%).

202 The frequency of reports describing bats as disease transmitters was significantly different
203 across years (GLMM: $\chi^2_2 = 301.7$, $P < 0.001$). Orthogonal contrasts showed that reports describing
204 bats as disease transmitters were much more frequent in 2020, the global outbreak year, than in 2018
205 and 2019 ($\chi^2_1 = 295.1$, $P < 0.001$). Furthermore, in 2019 we found slightly fewer reports on this topic
206 compared with 2018 ($\chi^2_1 = 8.3$, $P = 0.004$; Figure 2b). Differences between newspaper circulation
207 levels were detected ($\chi^2_2 = 10.7$, $P = 0.005$), with fewer reports describing bats as disease vectors in
208 international newspapers compared with both national and local newspapers (Tukey's post hoc: both
209 $P \leq 0.01$), while we did not detect differences between national and local newspapers ($P = 0.956$).
210 The variance of the random effect for country of search was 0.52 (SE = ± 0.72). The majority of news
211 had no sensationalistic components (95.6%, n = 2534), and rate of sensationalism was constant over
212 the years ($\chi^2_2 = 2$, $P = 0.36$).

213 The frequency of pro-conservation reports was significantly different across years and
214 newspaper circulation categories (GLMM: $\chi^2_2 = 40.7$, $P < 0.001$ and $\chi^2_2 = 9.3$, $P = 0.01$, respectively).
215 Orthogonal contrasts showed fewer pro-conservation messages in the media in 2020 compared with
216 previous years ($\chi^2_1 = 40.4$, $P < 0.001$). Tukey's post hoc test showed that reports containing pro-
217 conservation messages were more frequent in local newspapers compared with national ones ($P =$
218 0.005), while no differences were detected between national and international or local and
219 international newspapers ($P = 0.994$ and $P = 0.157$, respectively). The countries where more than half
220 of the total news published contained pro-conservation messages were Germany (78%, n = 117),
221 Canada (64.7%, n = 97), United Kingdom (62.9%, n = 95), Spain (59.3%, n = 89), New Zealand
222 (55.7%, n = 59), Australia (55.3%, n = 83), and France (52.4%, n = 76).

223 Focusing on 2020, the frequency of disease transmission reports did not follow the epidemic
224 course of each country (Figure 3). Indeed, we found no correlation between the date of the first
225 exponential growth and the probability of disease transmission reports occurring ($\chi^2_1 = 0.3$, $P = 0.6$).
226 Conversely, almost all countries registered a first peak in the number of disease-related news at the
227 beginning of 2020, during the diffusion of the epidemic in China ($\chi^2_1 = 0.3$, $P = 0.6$; Figure 3). We

228 observed an increase in pro-conservation news during 2020, which occurred consistently after the
229 onset of the exponential growth of the epidemic curve in each country ($\chi^2_1 = 10.2$, $P = 0.001$; Figure
230 4). The onset of the exponential growth was the only variable showing a significant relationship with
231 the probability of finding pro-conservation reports.

232 Bat species had different popularity in the media (Figure 2c). The species with more than 25
233 citations were: *Desmodus rotundus*, *Myotis lucifugus*, *Pipistrellus pipistrellus*, *Chalinolobus*
234 *tuberculatus*, *Acerodon jubatus*, *Rhinolophus ferrumequinum*, *Rhinolophus hipposideros*, and
235 *Pipistrellus pygmaeus*. The common vampire bat (*D. rotundus*) and the giant golden-crowned flying
236 fox (*A. jubatus*) were cited by newspapers all around the world despite their limited geographical
237 occurrence (Central-South America and Philippines, respectively). The other species were mainly
238 cited by newspapers of countries in which those species normally occur. In the case of the two
239 *Rhinolophus* species, which were found to host the closest - known - relative of SARs-CoV-2, they
240 gained visibility outside their geographic range after the emergence of the pandemic. However, most
241 of the time media news just mentioned the genus or family, without giving the exact species name.
242 The most cited families were Pteropodidae (n = 156), Rhinolophidae (n = 54), and Vespertilionidae
243 (n = 34) (Figure 2c).

244

245 **4. Discussion**

246 News plays a major role in the human perception of wildlife and biodiversity. Most people have little
247 direct experience with wildlife, and the mass media often becomes the means by which people
248 connect with nature, thus their importance on transmitting reliable information to help species
249 conservation. Our interest was to identify how mass media around the world shaped the risk
250 perception on bats by humans. We found that events of persecution toward bats increased after the
251 COVID-19 outbreak, possibly driven by the raise in the media representation of bat-associated
252 diseases. As demonstrated in other studies, news exposure provoke a social amplification of risk

253 associated with wildlife (Gore et al., 2005; Gore & Knuth, 2009). However, the action of
254 conservationists in disseminating pro-conservation messages immediately after the surge in reports
255 on bats as disease transmitters, may have helped to reduce the public's negative perception of bats
256 due to COVID-19. According Harcup and O'Neill (2017) news delivery satisfy the 'surprise' and the
257 'follow-up' requirements (among others), stories having an element of surprise and/or contrast, as
258 well as stories that introduce new elements on subjects already in the news, were preferred in the
259 media dialogue. Thus, journalists likely received messages delivered by conservationists as an
260 opportunity to fuel the media dialogue and include them into the news. Our results provide guidance
261 for responding and contributing effectively to media coverage, a fundamental component of efforts
262 for wildlife conservation (Figure 1, Appendix S3).

263

264 *4.1 Increase in bat-associated diseases news and bat persecution*

265 A large proportion of the collected reports focused on bat-associated diseases, with a significant
266 increase in 2020 compared with the previous years (Figure 2a, 2b). However, the number of reports
267 regarding bat-associated diseases was not correlated with the spread of the epidemic curve in each
268 country. Instead, in most of countries, a first peak in the amount of news on bat-associated diseases
269 was registered during the spread of COVID-19 in China, even if in those countries the epidemic had
270 not yet arrived (Figure 3). This result suggests that the first COVID-19 outbreak in China was the
271 main driving force for the worldwide media. Certainly, following the spread of the virus in China,
272 news linking bats to COVID-19 were frequently in the spotlight of the global press. Many news
273 denounced an increase in human intolerance for bats following the COVID-19 pandemic (e.g. in India
274 <https://cutt.ly/OxfOU9W>; or in Singapore [https://www.tnp.sg/news/singapore/more-calls-acres-feb-
COVID-fear-led-bat-publicity](https://www.tnp.sg/news/singapore/more-calls-acres-feb-
COVID-fear-led-bat-publicity); see also Manenti et al. 2020) and, according to our results, news may
275 have contributed to increase persecution events in 2020. Even if it is possible that prior to the
276 pandemic bat persecution events did not gain mass media attention, this apparent rise in fear and
277 intolerance towards bats, which in extreme cases ended with direct persecution, was likely related to
278

279 the media overrepresentation of bat-associated diseases and the spread of misinformation in the media
280 during the first months of the COVID-19 pandemic. Similarly, Lunney and Moon (2011) found that
281 media attention on zoonoses without supporting evidence on disease transmission risks increased
282 animosity towards bats in Australia. Undoubtedly, much of the public understanding of infectious
283 diseases comes from information released by the mass media (Evensen & Clarke, 2012).

284

285 *4.2 Diffusion of pro-conservation messages*

286 News with pro-conservation messages decreased in 2020 compared with previous years, possibly
287 because the COVID-19 topic monopolized the press, leaving less space for other bat-related topics,
288 such as educational events organized for the public, white-nose syndrome or bat tourism.
289 Nevertheless, focusing only on 2020, pro-conservation messages in the news increased, especially
290 after the first exponential growth of the epidemic in each country (Figure 4), and reports became more
291 balanced towards the positive role bats play in ecosystems, economy and human health. This was
292 likely associated with swift reactions of bat conservationists to the initial surge of negative reports,
293 which happened likewise in different countries. For example, in Italy, the Institute for the
294 Environmental Protection and Research (ISPRA) released an official communication on March 31st
295 2020 to clarify the relationship between bats and COVID-19 (<https://bit.ly/3rrf6iA>). At the end of
296 April 2020, a group of 64 scientists from six Asian nations released a statement to clarify that bats do
297 not pose a direct risk to human health (<https://theprint.in/science/dont-demonise-bats-we-need-them-researchers-explain-why-mass-hysteria-is-uncalled-for/408485/>). In June, MacFarlane and Rocha
298 (2020) published guidelines for communication about bats to prevent persecution following the
299 COVID-19 outbreak. Such responses by conservationists were excellent examples of the importance
300 of a rapid and massive communication strategy to amplify pro-conservation messages to the global
301 media. In just a few months, the way the media represented bats changed, with a likely very positive
302 effect in stemming bat persecution due to COVID-19. Conservationists were rapid and efficient at
303 utilizing public and media interest in the topic to bring them closer to a more balanced view on bats.
304

305 Certainly, a vital aid in spreading the message so quickly and widely was having the eyes of the world
306 on the pandemic.

307

308 *4.3 Differences between countries*

309 In Africa, Asia and Central-South America, media attention largely focused on bat-associated
310 diseases, while the proportion of pro-conservation reports was lower compared with Europe, North
311 America, and Oceania. This trend may be partially explained by the high number of human cases
312 affected by severe zoonotic diseases in those continents (World Health Organization, 2006), that are
313 mainly linked to some ebolaviruses (J. T. Shapiro et al., 2020) and rabies (Velasco-Villa et al., 2005).
314 In most parts of the world, bats frequently arouse negative emotions among the public, such as fear
315 and disgust (Davey et al., 1998; Deshpande & Kelkar, 2015; Fagan et al., 2018; Kubiato, 2012; Lim
316 & Wilson, 2019; Polák et al., 2020; Prokop et al., 2009; Prokop & Tunnicliffe, 2008; H. G. Shapiro
317 et al., 2021; Todd, 2016). In many cultures, they have been associated with aspects of death
318 (Fernández-Llamazares et al., 2018), witchcraft (Agbanusi, 2016; Lunney & Moon, 2011; Musila et
319 al., 2018; Tuttle, 2017), evil (Charro, 1999; Voigt & Kingston, 2016), malevolent creatures such as
320 vampires (Prokop et al., 2009) and omens of bad luck, disease, and lack of fundamental resources
321 (Eklöf & Rydell, 2021; Lavery et al., 2021)

322

323 *4.4 Sensationalism*

324 Sensationalistic news on bats constitutes a relatively small proportion of all news when compared
325 with similar studies about other feared animals (Mammola et al., 2020; Nanni et al., 2020), likely
326 because here, we took a more comprehensive view of all topics related to bats, and not only on
327 extreme human-wildlife conflict events as large carnivore attacks on humans (Bombieri et al., 2018)
328 or bite of venomous animals (Mammola et al., 2020). Moreover, species which arouse negative
329 emotions such as bats, spiders, snakes, sharks, and alligators tend to receive peoples' attention
330 regardless of the media framing. In Nanni et al. (2020), reports on sharks and alligators were shared

331 by the public on social media regardless of the framing (i.e., negative or neutral). In contrast, reports
332 on more charismatic species, such as brown bear, wolf or lion, were shared more frequently if
333 negatively framed. Such species arouse polarized feelings in the public, ranging from fear to
334 fascination and respect (Gittleman, 2013). This could imply that to attract public attention journalists
335 do not need to add fearful components to news if they focus on widely feared species.

336

337 *4.5 Media coverage of bat families and species*

338 The media frequently referred to bats in a general way, or mentioned only their genus or family. The
339 most cited families were Pteropodidae, followed by Rhinolophidae and Vespertilionidae (Figure 2c).
340 Pteropodidae, commonly called flying foxes, are a very charismatic family of bats (Newsome et al.,
341 2017) that easily attract the attention of the public and, consequently, of the media. Rhinolophidae
342 gained visibility worldwide after the emergence of the pandemic, because two species, *Rhinolophus*
343 *affinis* and *R. malayanus*, were, apparently and at a relatively early stage of the pandemic, identified
344 as the reservoirs of the most proximal COVID-19 ancestor (H. Zhou et al., 2020; P. Zhou et al., 2020).
345 Finally, Vespertilionidae were often cited by the media, probably because they represent the most
346 diverse and widely distributed bat family (Wilson & Mittermeier, 2011), and they are subject of
347 extensive research. Besides the *Rhinolophus* species, other frequently cited bats species were the
348 common vampire bat *D. rotundus*, the common pipistrelle *P. pipistrellus* and the little brown bat *M.*
349 *lucifugus* (Figure 2c). Vampire bats are very popular all over the world because they arise the
350 collective imagination, involving fantasy stories about vampires, thereby easily gaining media
351 visibility. Another reason why they attract media attention is the fact that these species, by feeding
352 on animal blood are the main cause of human and domestic animals rabies infections in Central-South
353 America (Schneeberger & Voigt, 2016). Finally, *P. pipistrellus* is a common species that can be easily
354 observed in human settlements and *M. lucifugus* is one of the species most affected by the White-
355 nose syndrome (Frick et al., 2015), a current topic in the media.

356

357 **5. Conclusions**

358 The COVID-19 pandemic generated global media attention on bats as disease reservoirs, possibly
359 jeopardizing efforts for bat conservation. The increased public concerns and amplified fear of bats
360 during the beginning of the pandemic likely led to an enhancement in persecution events. However,
361 a significant increase in conservation messages appeared in the news a few months after the spread
362 of the pandemic. This study highlights the effectiveness of a prompt response by conservationists
363 who – with choral messages from different parts of the world – were able to reach the global media
364 with a potentially positive impact on the public perception of bats. Such pro-conservation messages
365 likely stemmed the social amplification of risk associated with bats due to COVID-19. A study
366 conduct by Slagle et al. (2013) highlighted the importance of including into communication
367 campaigns messages regarding benefits associated with the presence of bears to build public
368 tolerance. Further research will be needed to better understand the short- and long-term effects of
369 widespread conservation messages among the public. Interestingly, the frequency of reports
370 regarding bat-associated diseases was not correlated with the spread of the epidemic curve in the
371 respective countries, but it was closely related with the beginning of the pandemic in China. We
372 suggest that conservationists should react quickly in terms of getting their message out to the media,
373 even if events seem far away and localized.

374

375 *5.1 Recommendations for a good conservation communication*

376 Attractive topics spread rapidly across the globe in the media, and effective conservation messages
377 should be equally fast to anticipate the diffusion of misconceptions and negative feelings among the
378 public to avoid direct persecution of wildlife. Working together with journalists by engaging in
379 dialogue and exchanging experiences should be central in any conservation program as well as advise
380 the public on how to handle the information ecosystem, for example checking the correctness of
381 reports and avoiding to share dis- or mis- information on social media. The new information

382 ecosystem poses a real challenge to conservation, funds for communication campaigns should be
383 implemented given the wide scale impact they may have, as highlighted by our work. We provide
384 some hints on how communication messages should be designed and promoted by conservationists
385 and journalists and how public should navigate through the information ecosystem (Figure 1,
386 Appendix S3). Future studies should test the effectiveness of efforts undertaken by conservation
387 project to promote the public outreach and mass media coverage of wildlife. Foster multidisciplinary
388 by including sociologists, anthropologists and communicators in conservation planning is pivotal to
389 achieve conservation goals.

390

391 **Supporting information**

392 *Appendix S1.* List of sensationalistic words in the seven languages of the performed search.

393 *Appendix S2.* The protocol for data collection shared by the authors during data mining.

394 (Protocol:

395 https://drive.google.com/file/d/14-z_Z7H9FTxivAwtjJpIxJxxTQ1FwsA_/view?usp=sharing)

396 *Appendix S3.* Recommendations for a good conservation communication: a guide for journalists,
397 conservationists and the public.

398

399 **Data availability statement**

400 The database supporting the study is available in Figshare ([link upon acceptance](#)).

401

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640 **FIGURE 1.** Graphic overview of recommendations to improve conservation communication by
641 conservationists.

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643 **FIGURE 2.** (a) Yearly proportion of reports on bat-associated diseases by country. (b) Total
644 number of media reports regarding each topic in 2018, 2019 and 2020. Reports regarding disease
645 transmission by bats increased significantly in 2020 ($p = 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$). (c) Word cloud of media
646 coverage of bats families and species as mentioned in the news (when only the genus was
647 mentioned it was grouped into the corresponding family).

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649 **FIGURE 3.** Comparison between the spread of both news reports on bat-associated diseases (grey)
650 and the COVID-19 pandemic (purple) in each country in 2020. Namibia was excluded because no
651 reports on bat-associated diseases were located. We considered the temporal trend of both news on
652 bat-associated disease and emerging cases of COVID-19, every 15 days. The cumulative curves for
653 the media news and COVID-19 cases were estimated with a kernel density estimation. In the
654 majority of countries, the first peak of news on bat-associated diseases news coincided with the first
655 peak of the epidemic in China, regardless of whether the epidemic had arrived ($\chi^2_1 = 0.3$, $P = 0.6$).

656

657 **FIGURE 4.** Comparison between the spread of news reports containing pro-conservation messages
658 (grey), and the COVID-19 pandemic (purple) in each country in 2020. Namibia was excluded
659 because no pro-conservation reports were located. We considered the temporal distribution of both
660 pro-conservation media reports, and emerging cases of COVID-19, every 15 days. The cumulative
661 curves for pro-conservation news and COVID-19 cases were estimated with a kernel density
662 estimation. Pro-conservation reports were significantly more frequent after the first exponential
663 growth of the epidemic curve in each country ($\chi^2_1 = 10.2$, $P = 0.001$).