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## Science Communication as a Collective Intelligence Endeavour: A Manifesto and Examples for Implementation

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1           **Science Communication as a Collective Intelligence Endeavour:**  
2                   **A Manifesto and Examples for Implementation**

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**Abstract**

35

36 Effective science communication is challenging when scientific messages are informed  
37 by a continually updating evidence base and must often compete against misinformation.

38 We argue for the need for a new programme of science communication as collective  
39 intelligence—a collaborative approach, supported by technology. This would have four key  
40 advantages over the typical model where scientists communicate as individuals: scientific  
41 messages would be informed by (1) a wider base of aggregated knowledge, (2) contributions  
42 from a diverse scientific community, (3) participatory input from stakeholders, and (4)  
43 better responsiveness to ongoing changes in the state of knowledge.

44 *Keywords:* science communication, collective intelligence, epistemic diversity,  
45 knowledge aggregation, participatory input, knowledge updating

46                   **Science Communication as a Collective Intelligence Endeavour:**  
47                   **A Manifesto and Examples for Implementation**

48           Many of the pressing challenges that societies face today, from climate change to  
49 global pandemics, require decisions informed by the best available scientific evidence.  
50 Ideally, citizens should have access to good quality scientific knowledge that they can trust.  
51 However, citizens may have difficulties accessing scientific information and grasping the  
52 technical terms used. Some of the difficulty can be mitigated by a better style of science  
53 communication, for example, using clearer and jargon-free language (Hanel & Mehler,  
54 2019; Martínez & Mammola, 2021), more intuitive presentation formats (Pighin et al.,  
55 2011; Sirota & Juanchich, 2019; Sirota, Juanchich, & Bonnefon, 2018), effective graphics  
56 (Harold, Lorenzoni, Shipley, & Coventry, 2016), and narratives that resonate with people  
57 (Freling, Yang, Saini, Itani, & Abualsamh, 2020; Zebregs, Putte, Graaf, Lammers, &  
58 Neijens, 2015). Similarly, there is a case for supporting people's competencies to critically  
59 engage with information (Brodsky et al., 2021; Hertwig & Grüne-Yanoff, 2017; Herzog &  
60 Hertwig, 2019; Pennycook et al., 2021; Wineburg & McGrew, 2017). While these aspects  
61 are important, it is also essential to consider the content of these messages: what is the  
62 best evidence and who is involved in generating it. Scientific knowledge is continually  
63 updating, and new evidence now emerges rapidly, with gaps, uncertainties, and ambiguities  
64 in the data and its interpretation. A new programme of science communication is needed  
65 that can address these complexities and derive clear messages that (a) reflect the best  
66 available evidence and (b) are delivered in a way that maintains public trust.

67           Currently, individual scientists are incentivised to rapidly disseminate their  
68 findings—often at the expense of quality control (Higginson & Munafò, 2016). This can  
69 harm the reliability of scientific messages as well as public trust in them. Further, scientific  
70 messages compete in a contested and complex online landscape that favours partisanship  
71 over reasoned debate (Lorenz-Spreen, Lewandowsky, Sunstein, & Hertwig, 2020).  
72 Especially where evidence conflicts with political or commercial interests (e.g., tobacco, oil

73 and gas, anti-vaccination, libertarian interests; Bragman & Kotch, 2021; Lewandowsky,  
74 2021a, 2021b; Oreskes & Conway, 2010; Starbird, Arif, & Wilson, 2019), organised efforts  
75 to misinform, sow public confusion, or advance conspiracy theories have distorted public  
76 discourse (Dixon & Clarke, 2012; Koehler, 2016), threatened evidence-based policy making  
77 (Posetti & Bontcheva, 2020; Vériter, Bjola, & Koops, 2020), and personally targeted  
78 individual prominent scientists (Korecki & Oweremohle, 2021; Lewandowsky, Mann, Brown,  
79 & Friedman, 2016; Mann, 2015). In this commentary, we argue that to combat the  
80 challenges of today’s information landscape, science communication must go beyond  
81 “one-person reporting” and harness the collective knowledge and expertise of many  
82 scientists worldwide to provide high quality information and engage with stakeholders. In  
83 short, we propose to approach science communication as a *collective intelligence* process.

84 In its broadest form, “collective intelligence” can be seen as a collaborative  
85 approach to problem-solving, typically supported by technological tools, which allows for  
86 real-time co-ordination and mobilisation of knowledge that is distributed among many  
87 individuals (NESTA, 2018; Suran, Pattanaik, & Draheim, 2021). To some extent, the  
88 scientific process already embeds collective intelligence, as scientific knowledge is informed  
89 by reasoned argument between scientists, generating better outputs through peer  
90 evaluation and debate (Mercier, 2016). Here, we focus on harnessing the most  
91 advantageous characteristics of existing collective intelligence systems that would benefit  
92 science communication (Table 1). We explain why and how these characteristics could be  
93 an effective way to address specific obstacles present in the traditional, “one-person  
94 reporting” model of science communication.

Table 1. Features of collective intelligence and how these could be effectively operationalised in science communication.

<b>Features of collective intelligence</b>	<b>How it could be implemented</b>	<b>How it benefits science communication</b>	<b>Existing examples</b>	<b>Potential challenges</b>
Aggregates data and evidence	Infrastructure to enable many scientists to co-ordinate contributions on a research area to an organised repository.	Minimises heterogeneity and puts contradictory evidence into a wider context of evidence accumulation. Showcasing strength of evidence makes it more resistant to contrarian attack. Shifts discourse towards looking at aggregated evidence instead of proving effects.	<a href="#">Epistemonikos</a> , <a href="#">Psychological Science Accelerator</a> , <a href="#">ALL-IN protocol</a> , <a href="#">ASReview</a>	Set-up costs such as developing agreed protocols, inclusion criteria, and checks for evidence quality.
Aggregates expert judgements and discourse	Leverage tools and frameworks for collective debate and consensus-building to showcase scientific discourse and collect expert judgements.	Accumulating expert judgements increases likelihood of correct interpretation of evidence, meaning more reliable messages.  Communicating accumulated scientific judgement with frameworks for its interpretation gives a more accurate picture of the level of agreement among experts and avoids presenting false balance.	<a href="#">Metafact</a> ; <a href="#">SciBeh Manifesto for Science Communication as Collective Intelligence</a> ; <a href="#">IPCC guidance note for consistent treatment of uncertainties</a>	Tools to showcase collective judgements are not yet optimised for presenting scientific debate and will need refinement and adaptation.  It will be challenging to aggregate expert discourse, which typically uses technical language, in a way that allows non-experts to follow.

<b>Features of collective intelligence</b>	<b>How it could be implemented</b>	<b>How it benefits science communication</b>	<b>Existing examples</b>	<b>Potential challenges</b>
Highlights consensus-building	Infrastructure for transparent deliberation, critique, and debate among large groups of experts to refine ideas and develop consensus statements.	Consensus statements are highly effective at counteracting denialism and shifting public attitudes in favour of evidence-based policy action.	<a href="#">RepliCATS</a> , <a href="#">Method for Debunking Handbook 2020</a> , <a href="#">TRICE</a> , <a href="#">Indie SAGE</a>	Although many independent projects have emerged to support independent consensus-building, each remains relatively small scale. Tools to support larger-scale consensus-building are still in development. More ideas and testing of methods are needed, including ways to ensure consensus comes from a representative sampling of experts.
Increases diversity of contributions	Collective intelligence systems should prioritise epistemic diversity. Evidence-based dissent should be welcomed, with discourse mediation to focus debate on ideas rather than individuals. Frameworks can formalise how divergent perspectives should contribute in evidence syntheses. Experts can be approached systematically and independently of their prior opinions to contribute to a scientific collective.	Epistemic diversity improves scrutiny of ideas and encourages scientists to challenge their own cognitive biases.  Diverse representation, especially from groups and regions typically underrepresented in science, builds trust in scientific institutions by guarding against the reinforcement of imbalanced power structures and marginalisation of groups within the scientific research community.	<a href="#">IPBES conceptual framework</a> ; <a href="#">Method for Debunking Handbook 2020</a>	Lack of platforms for scientific discourse that support diversity without rancour.  Gatekeeping needs to be balanced against preventing marginalisation—inclusive frameworks are not a failsafe for this.



Features of collective intelligence	How it could be implemented	How it benefits science communication	Existing examples	Potential challenges
Allows participatory involvement	<p>Interfaces to allow stakeholder and public input and involvement in shaping research questions.</p> <p>Transparency around the scientific process helps make participation accessible to citizens.</p>	<p>Builds trust.</p> <p>Generates interest and stake in research.</p> <p>Increases understanding of the scientific process.</p>	<p><a href="#">Smart Citizen</a>; <a href="#">ZOE Health Study</a>; <a href="#">Social listening (passive participation)</a></p>	<p>Research needs to be more accessible to encourage citizen participation.</p> <p>Better tools are needed to help the public understand and evaluate published research and avoid misleading argumentation.</p>
Allows responsiveness and real-time updating	<p>Leverage AI tools for emerging evidence identification and more quickly connect with relevant experts to evaluate research in their field.</p> <p>Collectives of experts can contribute as a community to updating the existing state of knowledge in real time by regularly feeding updates into these AI-supported systems.</p>	<p>Scientific knowledge is rapidly changing, so responsiveness will allow science communication to maintain ongoing review and evaluation and present the best available evidence at any given time point.</p>	<p><a href="#">PubPeer</a>, <a href="#">PREreview</a>, <a href="#">living systematic reviews</a>, <a href="#">Rapid Reviews COVID-19</a>, <a href="#">Vaccine Communication Handbook and Wiki</a>, <a href="#">SciBeh knowledge base</a></p>	<p>Sustaining contributions from experts over long periods can be exhausting for scientists and researchers who are already overloaded. The structure of the academic system may need to change to recognise, incentivise and thus sustain wider participation in longer-term collective intelligence efforts.</p>

## 98 **Aggregating distributed knowledge**

99           Collective intelligence can help science communication by aggregating knowledge  
100 that is distributed among individual scientists (Suran et al., 2021). First, aggregating data  
101 and evidence can build a more complete picture of the current state of scientific inquiry,  
102 leading to more confidence in the reliability of a scientific proposition. As examples,  
103 distributed networks of laboratories can aggregate samples for an experimental protocol  
104 (Coles, Hamlin, Sullivan, Parker, & Altschul, 2022), spreading the time and labour costs of  
105 data collection and evidence syntheses (Sutherland & Wordley, 2018). Monitoring and  
106 aggregating evidence can also increasingly be done in real time with new Artificial  
107 Intelligence (AI) tools, for example, using machine learning to screen databases for relevant  
108 evidence (Rada et al., 2020).

109           Second, aggregating independent expert judgements can mitigate bias in evidence  
110 interpretation and enhance accurate assessment (Boland, 1989). Further, communicating  
111 judgements that fairly represent those of a collective avoids the false balance that may be  
112 presented if an audience only hears from a few, unrepresentative experts (Dixon & Clarke,  
113 2012; Goodin & Spiekermann, 2015; Rietdijk & Archer, 2021). Showing the distribution of  
114 judgements can highlight when there is a consensus or, when judgements differ, it can  
115 illustrate the uncertainties involved in interpreting the available evidence (e.g., metafact,  
116 which displays aggregated answers to scientific questions) and experts' level of confidence in  
117 the state of knowledge (e.g., Mastrandrea et al., 2011). Critically, technologically-supported  
118 aggregation methods allow experts to add their judgements independently, reducing the  
119 risk of biases that can be introduced through group processes (Turner & Pratkanis, 1998).

120           Third, aggregating expert discourse, i.e., discussion of the evidence, can showcase  
121 how reasoned argument between scientists informs scientific knowledge. This can be as  
122 critical as the evidence itself, especially in crisis situations where action must be taken as  
123 evidence emerges. New digital tools for judgement aggregation in the civic participation  
124 sphere provide comprehensive packages for debating, proposing and voting on initiatives

125 and data (e.g., Pol.is, PSi, Loomio, Consul, Decidim). These could be leveraged for  
126 communicating scientific discourse.

127         There are of course costs to setting up aggregation systems. To aggregate data and  
128 evidence, protocols must be developed and shared with participating researchers. Evidence  
129 quality must also be assessed to avoid undermining the accumulated knowledge base with  
130 the inclusion of unreliable data (Royal Society, 2018). When aggregating judgements and  
131 discourse, the expertise of those who are contributing needs to be verified and contributors  
132 should be representative of their collective field of research, to avoid those with vested  
133 interests gaming the power of scientific consensus (Cook, van der Linden, Maibach, &  
134 Lewandowsky, 2018).

135         Despite the costs, aggregation is highly beneficial. Communicating in terms of the  
136 “collective accumulated evidence” shifts the message towards what the best available  
137 evidence indicates. This can help resist arguments that science has not “proved” an effect  
138 (Oreskes & Conway, 2010). It is also harder for those interested in discrediting science to  
139 carry out ad hominem attacks on collective evidence from a group of scientists (Mann,  
140 2015). Furthermore, accumulated evidence can make a scientific consensus more  
141 visible—which is important because well-communicated scientific consensus has influenced  
142 decision-making, shifted the public’s attitudes and strengthened calls for policy action  
143 across various domains (e.g., climate change: Budescu and Chen 2014; van der Linden,  
144 Leiserowitz, and Maibach 2019; COVID-19: Kerr and van der Linden 2022; vaccinations:  
145 Bartoš, Bauer, Cahlíková, and Chytilová 2022; Linden, Clarke, and Maibach 2015), even for  
146 partisan individuals or those who tend to be predisposed towards rejecting scientific  
147 evidence (Lewandowsky, Gignac, & Vaughan, 2012). In areas where consensus has yet to  
148 form, aggregation can advance science by exposing areas in which further evidence is  
149 needed (Minas & Jorm, 2010).

## 150 **Involving a more diverse group of individuals**

151 To optimise the quality of aggregated evidence and a scientific consensus, collective  
152 intelligence should increase the diversity of contributions. First, diversity in ideas (e.g.,  
153 epistemic diversity) tends to invite greater scrutiny, increasing the robustness of scientific  
154 inquiry (Pesonen, 2022). Involving more diverse perspectives may help scientists challenge  
155 cognitive biases when seeking or interpreting evidence. Second, diversity in representation  
156 can boost the reach and effectiveness of science communication, especially when it comes to  
157 producing messages that the public trusts. Historically, a lack of diversity in science and  
158 research has perpetuated inequalities and contributed to the marginalisation of voices from  
159 groups such as women, minority groups, and citizens of countries in the Global South  
160 (Almeida, 2015; Clark & Horton, 2019; Mertkan, Arsan, Cavlan, & Aliusta, 2017). This can  
161 undermine trust in science, especially among communities that experienced discrimination  
162 in the past (Razai, Chaudhry, Doerholt, Bauld, & Majeed, 2021; Woolf et al., 2021).

163 Diversity needs to be deliberately engineered because biases can easily be  
164 overlooked when values and norms are embedded into contemporary society. It is necessary  
165 to review processes such as consensus-building, information gatekeeping, and sensemaking,  
166 and establish transparent frameworks to incorporate diversity in these processes (Almeida,  
167 2015; Díaz, Demissew, Joly, Lonsdale, & Larigauderie, 2015; Thapar-Björkert & Farahani,  
168 2019). For example, frameworks for inclusion can specify how experts will be invited or  
169 selected to contribute (e.g., by issuing invitations to all identified experts in the domain,  
170 regardless of their opinions on an issue; Lewandowsky & Oberauer, 2020). These processes  
171 can now be accelerated with technological support (Chater et al., 2021). Although  
172 frameworks do not guarantee diversity, they make the lack of diverse representation more  
173 noticeable. A transparent framework for inclusion that discloses who the experts are and  
174 why they were chosen can also help verify expertise and avoid a “manufactured” collective  
175 scientific position from non-experts (e.g., Cook et al., 2018).

176           Designing for diversity in the scientific collective also requires constructive spaces for  
177 deliberation, critique, and debate—discourse that is essential to knowledge-building—which  
178 support diverse participation. These spaces should be built around critiquing ideas rather  
179 than individuals, with recognised codes of conduct for respectful engagement (e.g., Aurora  
180 & Gardiner, 2019). They should encourage scholars with opposing perspectives to  
181 collaborate rather than compete (e.g. “Adversarial Collaboration”). Although there is as  
182 yet no existing platform that promotes such behaviour in online academic discourse, some  
183 researchers are considering how older tools that predate the Internet, such as the Delphi  
184 Method (a structured interaction that alternates independent expert opinion elicitation  
185 with aggregation and discussion; Dalkey & Helmer, 1963) could be harnessed as a model  
186 for shaping scientific discourse among diverse experts. Tools to scale up such processes  
187 (e.g., the repliCATS project; Pearson et al., 2021) could in the near future provide online  
188 infrastructure to visualise and convey the inputs to and outcomes of the consensus.

### 189 **Increasing public participation**

190           By definition, collective intelligence is participatory, leveraging the involvement of  
191 many individuals to produce its outputs. Thus far, we have discussed the participatory  
192 input of experts in generating scientific knowledge that underpins science messages.  
193 However, science communication should also be informed by the people it will impact  
194 (Priest, 2018). Participatory input from citizens can help shape research to address the  
195 needs of those affected by it (Bruin & Bostrom, 2013; Ziegler et al., 2022). It can also  
196 generate interest and understanding from the public in how the research is conducted and  
197 evaluated (Bonney, Phillips, Ballard, & Enck, 2015; Cottrell et al., 2014), thereby building  
198 trust in scientific messages (Bedessem, Gawrońska-Novak, & Lis, 2021; Tan et al., 2022).  
199 Increasingly, technological interfaces allow the public to participate in many ways.  
200 Participation can be active, for example acting as “citizen scientists” (Silvertown, 2009) or  
201 a mass monitoring system (e.g., Zoe Health Study; Birkin, Vasileiou, & Stagg, 2021). The  
202 public can also passively inform scientists through their collective online discourse: “social

203 listening” has enabled science communicators to tackle misinformation outbreaks by  
204 targeting information provision to the public’s needs (Purnat et al., 2021; World Health  
205 Organization, 2021).

206         The accessibility of scientific findings is a precondition to harvest some of the  
207 benefits of public participation, such as a more knowledgeable citizenry. Accessibility can  
208 mean making research available; here, researchers are increasingly doing so through  
209 “pre-prints”, that is, draft-level papers submitted to a publicly accessible server. In theory,  
210 this gives the public early sight of findings, but pre-prints can be confused for scientific fact  
211 (Wingen, Berkessel, & English, 2019) or weaponised to support a certain narrative (Bajak  
212 & Howeve, 2020). Hence they should only be considered as emerging evidence in an  
213 aggregated system, and this needs to be clearly indicated on the pre-print platforms and  
214 papers. Accessibility also means making research comprehensible. Openly published  
215 articles (pre-prints or otherwise) often remain inaccessible to the public because of their  
216 technical language and general level of complexity, limiting informed discussion of these to  
217 scientists and small parts of the public (e.g., science journalists, think-tanks, and  
218 policymakers). Here, increasing accessibility could involve writing plain language  
219 summaries to papers (Stoll, Kerwer, Lieb, & Chasiotis, 2022). It could involve supporting  
220 citizens’ skills to engage with information and identify good quality evidence, such as  
221 teaching how to check what other evidence aligns with what they have just read (Brodsky  
222 et al., 2021; Wineburg & McGrew, 2017), or warning people about misleading arguments  
223 and how to spot them (Roozenbeek, van der Linden, Goldberg, Rathje, & Lewandowsky,  
224 2022). Scientific publications could even be augmented with technological tools that  
225 indicate how findings correspond to the broader literature or how samples should be  
226 structured for this kind of research. Accessibility could also be enhanced with collective  
227 projects to communicate the state of the evidence in comprehensible language (e.g., the  
228 COVID-19 Vaccine Communication Handbook Lewandowsky et al., 2021). Ultimately,

229 scientists have a duty to make research available and comprehensible to the public that  
230 provides them with funding and academic freedom (Greenwood & Riordan, 2001).

### 231 **Responsiveness to changes**

232 It can be difficult to identify relevant evidence and judge its quality at a given point  
233 in time when it can emerge rapidly, especially during a crisis situation where scientists may  
234 accelerate research production and dissemination (Else, 2020; Fraser et al., 2021; Lipworth,  
235 Gentgall, Kerridge, & Stewart, 2020). CI can leverage technology to enable real-time  
236 information monitoring, thereby enhancing the responsiveness of science communication to  
237 updates and changes. Traditional evidence syntheses are lengthy processes that often  
238 exclude the most recent studies that were not published by the time the research was  
239 conducted. In contrast, AI can enable a dynamic evidence synthesis (Community, 2019;  
240 van de Schoot et al., 2021), with some promising examples already emerging across  
241 different domains (e.g., COVID-19: Elliott et al. 2021; ecology: Christie et al. 2022). In  
242 such systems, after having established the criteria for subsequent studies to be included,  
243 researchers can regularly monitor new publications and update their synthesis in real time  
244 (Elliott et al., 2021).

245 Collective intelligence could also increase the responsiveness of evaluating new  
246 information. Emerging scientific papers typically undergo independent critique, or “peer  
247 review”, but this process is notoriously slow (Björk & Solomon, 2013). During the  
248 COVID-19 pandemic, researchers collectively responded by accelerating some peer review  
249 processes (Horbach, 2020) and, more commonly, openly sharing early-stage research as  
250 pre-prints. Not all rapid publication was helpful to the pandemic response (Bagdasarian,  
251 Cross, & Fisher, 2020), but some did provide valuable rapid updates to inform  
252 decision-making (Fraser et al., 2021). Identifying and accelerating the review of better  
253 quality pre-prints (Carneiro et al., 2020) could thus improve the responsiveness of science  
254 in times of crisis. A collective intelligence system could help organise and support scientific  
255 evaluation of pre-prints (and indeed published papers, which would also benefit from

256 post-publication review; Brainerd & You, 2018), for example by identifying potential  
257 reviewers through network analysis (Price & Flach, 2017; Rodriguez & Bollen, 2008) or  
258 detecting information manipulation and erroneous statistical analyses (DeVoss, 2017;  
259 Henman, 2020; Valera & Gomez-Rodriguez, 2018).

260 However, AI cannot fully replace the human contributions needed for quality  
261 assurance. AI-supported tools to facilitate quicker pre-print or post-publication review by  
262 the scientific collective exist (e.g., PREReview: Johansson and Saderi 2020, RR:C19,  
263 PubPeer: Townsend 2014), but sustaining motivation to contribute collectively to this work  
264 over the longer term is difficult. This may in part be due to a lack of incentives. For  
265 example, while academics cite lack of time as a main reason for not reviewing more (Tite &  
266 Schroter, 2007), the time needed to review a manuscript, which is typically a few hours  
267 (Lewandowsky & Oberauer, 2020), is far less than the time needed to produce a new piece  
268 of research (typically months). Despite the critical contribution of peer review to the  
269 scientific process, it is not incentivised in the publication structure, nor by most employers.  
270 The same goes for maintaining contributions to consensus-building and communicating  
271 consensus. The recent COVID-19 crisis provided a glimpse of how a motivated scientific  
272 collective could produce, evaluate, and communicate research in a highly responsive  
273 fashion. However, this effort has been hard to sustain two years later. Harnessing the  
274 ability of collective intelligence in responding to crises and fast-paced research thus needs  
275 an overall structural change within the scientific community to better reward collective  
276 knowledge processes over individual efforts.

### 277 **Implementing collective intelligence in science communication: An example**

278 This commentary is itself a product of our experience harnessing collective  
279 intelligence processes to create a “Manifesto for Science Communication as Collective  
280 Intelligence”. We used group discussions and interactive online discourse via the tool pol.is  
281 to gather insights from attendees at an open virtual workshop on the topic. We then  
282 invited everyone to craft the manifesto, either as co-ordinating lead authors (“CLAs”,  $n =$



283 6) or contributing authors ( $n = 18$ ). CLAs collectively voted on how to organise the points  
284 raised at the workshop. Each CLA then led a group of authors to draft a section of the  
285 manifesto. The CLAs condensed this draft into its key propositions and, using pol.is, all  
286 authors voted on which propositions from the draft were critical for the manifesto.  
287 Propositions with  $>60\%$  of votes were organised into the final Manifesto, which presented  
288 eight necessary features for science communication as collective intelligence. Altogether, we  
289 engaged a diverse group of researchers, captured and aggregated their judgements and  
290 discourse in an iterative fashion, and generated a consensus for communication. The full  
291 process is shared online as part of the Manifesto.

### 292 **Conclusion**

293 In this commentary, we highlighted the impetus for science communication to move  
294 away from a model where scientists disseminate individual findings and adopt a collective  
295 communication programme that (a) develops messages from a wider base of aggregated  
296 evidence, judgements, and discourse, (b) is informed by a diverse community, (c) involves  
297 participation from stakeholders, and (d) is responsive to ongoing changes in the state of  
298 knowledge. We have provided examples (see Table 1) that concretise how this new  
299 programme would leverage collective processes, supported by participatory technology, in  
300 pursuit of a more collaborative form of science communication. While no single example  
301 (including our own experience) has managed to harness all the advantages we describe in  
302 this commentary, they provide a glimpse of how collective processes are already enhancing  
303 the way in which scientists gather data, reach consensus, and communicate it. We hope  
304 that in the near future, more tools and examples will emerge to support a programme of  
305 science communication as collective intelligence.

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317

**Competing interests**

318

The authors declare no competing interests.

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