

Counting Complete? Finalising the plant inventory of a global biodiversity hotspot

Martina Treurnicht ^{Corresp., 1,2,3}, **Jonathan F Colville** ^{4,5}, **Lucas N Joppa** ⁶, **Onno Huyser** ⁷, **John Manning** ^{8,9}

¹ Conservation Ecology and Entomology, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch, Western Cape, South Africa

² Institute of Landscape and Plant Ecology, University of Hohenheim, Stuttgart, Germany

³ South African Environmental Observation Network Fynbos Node, Cape Town, Western Cape, South Africa

⁴ Kirstenbosch Research Centre, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Cape Town, Western Cape, South Africa

⁵ Statistics in Ecology, Environment and Conservation, Department of Statistical Sciences, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, Western Cape, South Africa

⁶ Microsoft Research, Redmond, WA, United States of America

⁷ Centre for Biodiversity Conservation, Kirstenbosch Botanical Gardens, Table Mountain Fund (WWF-SA), Cape Town, Western Cape, South Africa

⁸ Compton Herbarium, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Cape Town, Western Cape, South Africa

⁹ Research Centre for Plant Growth and Development, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

Corresponding Author: Martina Treurnicht

Email address: martinatreurnicht@gmail.com

The Cape Floristic Region – the world’s smallest and third richest botanical hotspot – has benefited from sustained levels of taxonomic effort and exploration for almost three centuries, but how close is this to resulting in a near-complete plant species inventory? We analyse a core component of this flora over a 250-year period for trends in taxonomic effort and species discovery linked to ecological and conservation attributes. We show that >40% of the current total of species was described within the first 100 years of exploration, followed by a continued steady rate of description. We propose that <1% of the flora is still to be described. We document a relatively constant cohort of taxonomists, working over 250 years at what we interpret to be their ‘taxonomic maximum’. Rates of description of new species were independent of plant growth-form but narrow-range taxa have constituted a significantly greater proportion of species discoveries since 1950. This suggests that the fraction of undiscovered species predominantly comprises localised endemics that are thus of high conservation concern. Our analysis provides important real-world insights for other hotspots in the context of global strategic plans for biodiversity in informing considerations of the likely effort required in attaining set targets of comprehensive plant inventories. In a time of unprecedented biodiversity loss, we argue for a focused research agenda across disciplines to increase the rate of species descriptions in global biodiversity hotspots.

1 **Counting Complete? Finalising the plant inventory of a global**
2 **biodiversity hotspot**

3

4 Martina Treurnicht ^{1,2,3*}, Jonathan F. Colville ^{4,5}, Lucas N. Joppa ⁶, Onno Huyser ⁷ & John
5 Manning ^{8,9}

6

7 ¹ Department of Conservation Ecology and Entomology, Stellenbosch University, Stellenbosch,
8 South Africa

9 ² South African Environmental Observation Network Fynbos Node, Centre for Biodiversity
10 Conservation, Kirstenbosch Botanical Gardens, Cape Town, South Africa

11 ³ Institute of Landscape and Plant Ecology, University of Hohenheim, Stuttgart, Germany

12 ⁴ South African National Biodiversity Institute, Kirstenbosch Research Centre, Cape Town, South
13 Africa

14 ⁵ Statistics in Ecology, Environment and Conservation, Department of Statistical Sciences,
15 University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa

16 ⁶ Microsoft Research, 1 Microsoft Way, Redmond, WA 98075, U.S.A.

17 ⁷ Table Mountain Fund (WWF-SA), Centre for Biodiversity Conservation, Kirstenbosch Botanical
18 Gardens, Cape Town, South Africa

19 ⁸ Research Centre for Plant Growth and Development, School of Life Sciences, University of
20 KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa

21 ⁹ Compton Herbarium, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Cape Town, South Africa

22

23 *Corresponding author

24 Martina Treurnicht; martinatreurnicht@gmail.com

25

26 **Abstract**

27 The Cape Floristic Region – the world’s smallest and third richest botanical hotspot – has benefited
28 from sustained levels of taxonomic effort and exploration for almost three centuries, but how close
29 is this to resulting in a near-complete plant species inventory? We analyse a core component of
30 this flora over a 250-year period for trends in taxonomic effort and species discovery linked to
31 ecological and conservation attributes. We show that >40% of the current total of species was
32 described within the first 100 years of exploration, followed by a continued steady rate of
33 description. We propose that <1% of the flora is still to be described. We document a relatively
34 constant cohort of taxonomists, working over 250 years at what we interpret to be their ‘taxonomic
35 maximum’. Rates of description of new species were independent of plant growth-form but
36 narrow-range taxa have constituted a significantly greater proportion of species discoveries since
37 1950. This suggests that the fraction of undiscovered species predominantly comprises localised
38 endemics that are thus of high conservation concern. Our analysis provides important real-world
39 insights for other hotspots in the context of global strategic plans for biodiversity in informing
40 considerations of the likely effort required in attaining set targets of comprehensive plant
41 inventories. In a time of unprecedented biodiversity loss, we argue for a focused research agenda
42 across disciplines to increase the rate of species descriptions in global biodiversity hotspots.

43 **Introduction**

44 Global biodiversity hotspots are species-rich areas of high conservation priority, including
45 significant numbers of rare and undiscovered species facing increasing threats of extinction (Myers
46 et al., 2000; Giam & Scheffers, 2012; Scheffers et al., 2012). They provide insight into ecological
47 and evolutionary patterns associated with mega-diverse regions (Allsopp, Colville & Verboom,
48 2014) and the taxonomic and conservation efforts required to document and manage this
49 biodiversity (Cowling et al., 2003). Key to this is the urgent (Scheffers et al., 2012) but challenging
50 (May, 2011) necessity for an adequate bio-inventory (Pimm et al., 2014).

51

52 Projections suggest that we are decades or more away from achieving acceptable bio-inventories
53 for most hotspots and taxonomic groups (Mora et al., 2011). Compounding the uncertainty of how,
54 when, or even if we will achieve this is the lack of adequate data on which to base realistic
55 predictions. Most hotspots are historically under-resourced in terms of taxonomic and scientific
56 effort (Cowling et al., 2010; Grieneisen et al., 2014), and are far short of achieving near-complete
57 inventories for even conspicuous taxa such as flowering plants (Sobral & Stehmann, 2009; Forzza
58 & Baumgratz, 2012). Real data on the rates of species descriptions from a particular area is a first
59 requirement for assessing the time-span needed for a near-complete bio-inventory.

60

61 Recent analyses suggest that the majority of plant species still to be described are to be found
62 within biodiversity hotspots (Sobral & Stehmann, 2009; Joppa et al., 2011a). Although the rate at
63 which species are documented is determined by taxonomic endeavour, the number of active
64 taxonomists and their individual productivity varies greatly across different taxonomic groups

65 (Joppa et al., 2011a; Bacher, 2012; Joppa, Roberts & Pimm, 2012). No comparable analyses exist
66 for an entire flora. Analysing trends in species documentation over time for an entire floristic
67 hotspot will permit real-world predictions of the taxonomic effort required to describe the full
68 species complement of the hotspot. These can serve as guidelines for other species-rich areas in
69 estimating the time frames required for meeting inventory targets such as the Convention on
70 Biological Diversity targets for 2020 (<http://www.cbd.int/gspc/targets.shtml>). These estimates can
71 guide the assessment of possible alternative conservation strategies that are less reliant on near-
72 complete species inventories (Grantham et al., 2009; Cowling et al., 2010; Forest et al., 2015).

73

74 We focus here on the Cape Floristic Region (CFR, South Africa), one of the smallest (ca. 91 000
75 km²) of the 25 biodiversity hotspots first identified by Myers et al. (2000), with a flora that is
76 arguably one of the best known among the botanical hotspots. The CFR has been the subject of
77 almost three centuries of intense botanical focus, with a current total of ca. 9 400 recognised
78 species of vascular plants and >68% regional endemism (Manning & Goldblatt, 2012). Due to its
79 small size and long legacy of exploration and taxonomic effort, the inventory of vascular plants
80 for the CFR appears to be effectively complete, although new species are still being discovered
81 and described annually (Manning & Goldblatt, 2012; SANBI, 2015). In this study, we analyse
82 rates of plant species discovery and associated taxonomic effort in the CFR over a 250 year period
83 (1753–2012), utilising techniques similar to those employed by Joppa, Roberts & Pimm (2011b;
84 2011c). We apply these on a subset of >2400 ‘Cape clade species’ (*sensu* Linder, 2003),
85 representing groups that are centred in the CFR and that also contain a disproportionately high
86 number of endemic and threatened taxa (Raimondo et al., 2009). This allowed us to search for
87 trends in species discovery and taxonomic activity in the study region. We also explored trends

88 linked to abundance, ecology, and conservation status. Finally, we considered whether it is
89 possible to estimate how many ‘missing species’ (Solow & Smith, 2005) remain in the CFR and
90 by what date we can expect to identify them.

91

92 **Materials and methods**

93 We analysed data for 2 434 species selected from the 33 ‘Cape clades’ identified by Linder (2003)
94 as “...*those clades that have had most of their evolutionary history in the Cape Floristic Region*”
95 (CFR; Table S1). These clades represent lineages for which we expect the highest rates of
96 description of new species in recent decades as a natural consequence of the high proportion of
97 local endemics and fire ephemerals in the CFR (Linder, 2003; Webb, Slik, & Triono, 2010;
98 Manning & Goldblatt, 2012). We restricted our selection within the clades to genera that (i) have
99 been comprehensively and relatively recently monographed and (ii) included representatives from
100 a wide spectrum of families and growth forms. Only currently accepted species as listed in
101 Manning & Goldblatt (2012) were accepted. Our selection comprises 55% of Cape clade species
102 and 26% of all vascular plant species recorded for the CFR.

103

104 We determined the date of publication of the protologue for each species, commencing with the
105 publication of *Species Plantarum* (Linnaeus, 1753) and terminating with the publication of *Cape*
106 *Plants* (Manning & Goldblatt, 2012). Data on species habit and growth form were culled from
107 Manning & Goldblatt (2012) and from PRECIS (National Herbarium Pretoria Computerised
108 Information System; Germishuizen et al., 2006). Species were classified as annuals, geophytes,
109 graminoids, herbaceous perennials or shrubs. None of the species in the study group were trees.
110 Species distributions were summarised following the phytogeographic centres (*sensu* Brown &

111 Stuart, 2009) as given in Manning & Goldblatt (2012). Species were considered to be ‘local’ if
112 present in a single phytogeographic centre and ‘widespread’ (or non-local) if present in more than
113 one phytogeographic centre.

114

115 We used sample scripts and functions, readily available online (from Joppa, Roberts & Pimm,
116 2011b), to analyse trends in species discovery and taxonomic activity over ca. 250 years (1753–
117 2012). More specifically, we show “moving average functions” (*sensu* Joppa, Roberts & Pimm,
118 2011b) described over five-year intervals for (i) the total number of species described, (ii) the
119 cumulative number of species, (iii) the number of taxonomists involved in describing species and
120 (iv) species described per taxonomist. The “number of taxonomists involved in describing species”
121 effectively represents the “taxonomic effort” whereas the measure “species per taxonomist”
122 represents the “catch” or “taxonomic efficiency” (*sensu* Joppa, Roberts & Pimm, 2011b; Scheffers
123 et al., 2012). These measures split each unique taxonomic identity (often consisting of multiple
124 taxonomic authors) into individual taxonomic names and accounts for species described by more
125 than one taxonomic author. We then additionally show the (v) relative contribution of each
126 increment to the flora by dividing each accumulated five-year subtotal of the species described by
127 the cumulative total number of species described over the entire study period (i.e. proportion new
128 species (%) described). Finally, we explore the cumulative number of species by ecological
129 attributes, i.e. (vi) growth form and (vii) phytogeographic centre (a proxy for abundance; from
130 Manning & Goldblatt, 2012). All analyses were performed in R version 3.3.1 (R Development
131 Core Team, 2016).

132

133 **Results**

134 The number of vascular plant species described from the CFR for the 250 year period from 1753–
135 2012 has fluctuated widely over any given five-year increment, from a high of 106 species
136 described in 1830–1835 to a low of 9 species described during 1870–1875 (Fig. 1A; Table S2).
137 The post-World War II period (1945–1990) is characterised by a relatively steady rate in species
138 description of between 48 and 76 species per five-year increment (Fig. 1A; Table S2). Peaks in the
139 latter period represent the dates of publication of significant generic revisions or monographs (e.g.
140 Goldblatt, 1978; Bond & Goldblatt, 1984; Linder, 2003). Overall, however, species in the sample
141 group were described at a remarkably consistent rate over the entire study period (Fig. 1B), with
142 at most only a very slight positive trend in number of species described ($x = 46.51 \pm 20.03$) per
143 increment.

144

145 The number of publishing taxonomists per increment ranged from 2 to 17 with a very slight trend
146 towards more taxonomists over time (Fig. 1C; Table S2), balanced by a corresponding decline in
147 the number of species published per taxonomist (Fig. 1D; Table S2).

148

149 Naturally (from Fig. 1A,B), the number of new species described each half decade represents a
150 diminishing proportion of the total number of species described over the entire period (Fig. 1E)
151 but the relationship is strongly logarithmic, with a large proportion (41%) of species described
152 within the first century of taxonomic study (1753–1850). Thereafter the additional species
153 contributions stabilised at a modest incremental increase of 3% for the period 1850–1985, with a
154 further decline to the current level of 1.36% (1990–2012; Table S2).

155

156 Rates of description of species remained relatively consistent from 1753–2012 regardless of
157 growth form (Fig. 1F), with shrubby species described at a higher rate than other growth forms. In
158 contrast, analysis of the cumulative species by species distribution reveals a critical difference
159 between local and widespread (or non-local) species (Fig. 1G). Local and non-local species
160 accumulated at comparable rates over the period 1753–1930, with a consistently greater number
161 of widespread species being named. The period after 1950, however, documents a deceleration in
162 the description of non-local taxa and a marked acceleration in the description of local taxa. From
163 1950 onwards, the number of local taxa described per half decade exceeds the number of
164 widespread taxa described in the same period, with a widening difference between the two trends
165 (Fig. 1G).

166

167 **Discussion**

168 Our study shows that there has been a sustained level of taxonomic interest in the CFR over more
169 than 250 years of active botanical study. Species have been described at a constant rate over this
170 entire period, reflecting a sustained level of taxonomic output by a relatively stable number of
171 active taxonomists (Fig. 1C,D). From this, we conclude that there is a finite number of species that
172 can be processed by any taxonomist over a fixed period in their working life. Specifically, we
173 suggest that there is a maximum limit to the ‘productivity’ of any taxonomist, a measure that we
174 term here the ‘taxonomic maximum’, determined by several factors (e.g. taxonomic group,
175 personality, institutional support, etc.). On the assumption that botanical study in the CFR has
176 proceeded at or near the taxonomic maximum (Fig. 1), we conclude that it is unreasonable to
177 expect an increase in individual taxonomic output under current technologies. The operational
178 concepts applied by practising taxonomists, although seldom if ever explicitly outlined, may also

179 influence a taxonomist's output. We can accept, however, that the species concepts applied by
180 taxonomists in this study are essentially morphological, sometimes in concert with ecological
181 considerations, and there seems little doubt that this is overwhelmingly the case elsewhere in
182 megadiverse regions.

183

184 The CFR has been the subject of botanical exploration since the fifteenth century, with a period of
185 particular intensive discovery and documentation in the late eighteenth century (Glen &
186 Germishuizen, 2010). This early knowledge was consolidated and expanded in the nineteenth
187 century in the publication of the *Flora capensis* (Harvey, Sonder & Thiselton-Dyer, 1869–1900).
188 Taxonomic activity over this period, based on typological principles and practised largely by non-
189 resident scientists from foreign institutes in Britain and Europe, resulted primarily in a proliferation
190 of names. The early part of the twentieth century was a period of more intensive study associated
191 with the establishment of the region's two primary taxonomic institutes, the University of Cape
192 Town and Kirstenbosch Botanical Garden, with a resident staff. Botanists at these institutes studied
193 the local flora in the herbarium and in the field, and also encouraged collecting among local
194 amateurs. Current civil society programmes continue this valuable contribution in the CFR
195 (SANBI, 2015). Similar investments have also made valuable contributions to species discoveries
196 in other hotspots (e.g. the Southwest Australian Floristic Region (SWAFR; Hopper & Gioia,
197 2004)). It should not be overlooked that the actual taxonomic effort expended in the early twentieth
198 century is obscured in our analyses by the fact that we have not included the number of names that
199 disappeared into synonymy during each half decade. This is a significant part of the effort
200 necessary for an accurate bio-inventory.

201

202 Professional taxonomists remain the critical resource and our findings suggest that the most
203 effective way of increasing ‘taxonomic effort’, and thus the rate at which any flora is catalogued,
204 is by increasing the number of active taxonomists (e.g. Godfray, 2002; Bacher, 2012). Our analysis
205 of the activity of taxonomists also reflects a trend towards multi-authored species, as discerned by
206 Joppa, Roberts & Pimm (2011b).

207

208 The proportionally higher number of shrubby species in our study group reflects the predominance
209 of this habit (54% of the flora) in the CFR study region (Goldblatt & Manning, 2002; Linder,
210 2003). Other categories are also broadly consistent with their representation in the flora as a whole
211 but reflect sampling bias in the study group (notably graminoids, which are overrepresented in the
212 sample).

213

214 The documentation of the CFR flora has proceeded as a logarithmic function, with a long tail
215 representing an incremental addition to the floristic inventory of 1–5% of the sample group every
216 five years. It is an astonishing finding that the description of species from the CFR has continued
217 at essentially the same rate since the documentation of the flora started over 250 years ago. In
218 essence, therefore, the number of newly described species appears to continue to increase at a rate
219 of 20–60 species every five years. Effectively, however, the ‘missing species’ thus comprise an
220 insignificant proportion of those already described. Based on the fact that some half of the CFR
221 species are members of the Cape clades used to generate these trends, we estimate that the ‘missing
222 species’ remaining in the CFR constitute <1% of the total flora, which falls far below the predicted
223 numbers of missing plant species (ca. 15%) for other hotspots (Joppa, Roberts & Pimm, 2011c;
224 see also Webb, Slik, & Triono, 2010; Laurance & Edwards, 2011; Scheffers et al., 2012). For most

225 practical purposes, therefore, the botanical diversity in the CFR can be considered to be adequately
226 known. Critically, however, the ‘missing species’ in the CFR are likely to be range-restricted, local
227 endemics that are thus especially vulnerable to extinction (e.g. Fig. 1G).

228

229 The Cape flora is characterised by high numbers of local endemics, reflected in the high levels of
230 beta and gamma diversity across the region (Cowling, Holmes & Rebelo, 1992; Goldblatt &
231 Manning, 2000). As we might expect, the distinction between local and more widespread species
232 appears to be the primary determinant of the likelihood of discovering new species in the CFR
233 since 1950. This conclusion is universal to global biodiversity hotspots (Scheffers et al., 2012).

234

235 The number of local endemics in the CFR described in the past 50 years is high enough to offset
236 the declining rate at which more widespread taxa are being discovered. This finding has significant
237 implications for conservation in the CFR, and likely also other global hotspots, by confirming that
238 locally endemic taxa are among the last to be discovered. This increases the risk that they will be
239 driven to extinction before being documented since the transformation of species-rich natural
240 habitats continues at alarming rates in both Mediterranean- and tropical hotspots (e.g. Giam &
241 Scheffers, 2012; Pimm et al., 2014). To mitigate this it is necessary to maintain the level of
242 taxonomic effort and to increase the level of exploration of these hotspots.

243

244 The species accumulation trends that we have documented here demonstrate that the CFR is in an
245 enviable position among global biodiversity hotspots in that its botanical diversity is now
246 effectively documented. We are only able to reach this conclusion because the region has been
247 extensively and intensively studied over a period of almost three centuries with a relatively

248 constant taxonomic effort. The situation in other hotspots and among other taxonomic groups (e.g.
249 Picker, Colville & Van Noort, 2002) is seldom so favourable. The development of comprehensive
250 conservation assessments of individual species (e.g. Raimondo et al., 2009) as a guide to decision-
251 making on how best to invest scarce conservation resources is only possible once near-complete
252 species inventories exist. Such inventories depend on a combination of exploration and
253 documentation. The first objective of the GSPC is to ensure that “*plant diversity is well understood,*
254 *documented and recognised*” (GSPC, <https://www.cbd.int/gspc/objectives.shtml>) and our CFR
255 case study directly illustrates that obtaining such a basis for biodiversity estimates takes both time
256 and taxonomic investment. Similar investigations are needed in other Mediterranean hotspots (e.g.
257 SWAFR, California) that have experienced extensive botanical exploration to allow comparative
258 estimates on plant inventories among these hotspots and thus contribute to the foundational
259 objective of the GSPC.

260

261 Even if most plant species in the CFR have been named, we largely lack information on abundance,
262 distribution, ecology and other attributes of species that affect their conservation (e.g. Raimondo
263 et al., 2009; Costello, Vanhoorne, & Appeltans, 2015). Recent national threatened species
264 programmes, local citizen science projects, and modern taxonomic revisions have contributed
265 significantly to both species discoveries and unknown locality records of species in the CFR (e.g.
266 Raimondo et al., 2009; Manning & Goldblatt, 2012; SANBI, 2015). Maintaining or even
267 increasing the funding that supports such collaborative efforts is urgent, especially in regions that
268 may not have a long legacy of botanical exploration. Key to filling these gaps in global biodiversity
269 hotspots is thus to increase collaboration amongst international taxonomists, maintain current
270 taxonomic effort, and increase expertise by including non-specialists (Costello, Vanhoorne, &

271 Appeltans, 2015), so as to shrink ‘the pool of missing species’ (*sensu* Joppa et al. 2011b).
272 Disproportionately many undiscovered species in hotspots may remain as cryptic endemics with
273 complex morphological differentiation, requiring a combination of specialist taxonomic input,
274 trained technicians and novel techniques (e.g. Ficetola et al., 2008) across disciplines (taxonomy,
275 systematics, molecular phylogenetics, population genetics, and ecology; Webb, Slik & Triono,
276 2010; Scheffers et al., 2012). The CFR case study we have presented here provides a valuable but
277 rare real-world dataset that other biodiversity hotspots can use to estimate the resources in time,
278 effort, taxonomic output and potential alternative strategies that would be needed to achieve
279 adequate documentation of plant species.

280

281

282 **Acknowledgements**

283 We are grateful to Domitilla Raimondo, Lize Von Staden (Threatened Species Programme, South
284 African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI)) and Ismail Ebrahim (SANBI) for insightful
285 discussions; Ilva Rogers and Les Powrie (SANBI) for assistance with data.

286

287 **Supplemental Information**

288 Supplemental information for this article can be found online.

289

290 **References**

291 Allsopp N, Colville JF, Verboom GA. 2014. *Fynbos: Ecology, Evolution, and Conservation of a*
292 *Megadiverse Region*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- 293 Bacher S. 2012. Still not enough taxonomists: reply to Joppa et al. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*
294 **27**:65–66.
- 295 Bond P, Goldblatt P. 1984. Plants of the Cape flora. *Journal of South African Botany* **13**:Suppl.
296 Cape Town.
- 297 Brown RM, Stuart BL. 2009. Patterns of biodiversity discovery through time: an historical analysis
298 of amphibian species discoveries in the Southeast Asian mainland and adjacent island
299 archipelagos. In: Gower DJ, Johnson KG, Richardson JE, Rosen BR, Rüber L, Williams ST,
300 eds. *Biotic evolution and environmental change in Southeast Asia*. Cambridge: Cambridge
301 University Press, 348–389.
- 302 Cowling RM, Holmes PM, Rebelo AG. 1992. Plant diversity and endemism. In: Cowling RM, ed.
303 *The ecology of fynbos: nutrients, fire and diversity*. Cape Town, Oxford University Press, 62–
304 112.
- 305 Cowling RM, Knight AT, Privett SDJ, Sharma G. 2010. Invest in opportunity, not inventory of
306 hotspots. *Conservation Biology* **24**:633–635.
- 307 Cowling RM, Pressey RL, Rouget M, Lombard AT. 2003. A conservation plan for a global
308 biodiversity hotspot - The Cape Floristic Region, South Africa. *Biological Conservation*
309 **112**:191–216.
- 310 Costello MJ, Vanhoorne B, Appeltans W. 2015. Conservation of biodiversity through taxonomy,
311 data publication, and collaborative infrastructures. *Conservation Biology* **29**(4):1094–1099.
- 312 Ficetola GF, Miaud C, Pompanon F, Taberlet P. 2008 Species detection using environmental DNA
313 from water samples. *Biology Letters* **4**:423–425.
- 314 Forest F, Crandall KA, Chase MW, Faith DP. 2015. Phylogeny, extinction and conservation:
315 embracing uncertainties in a time of urgency. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*
316 *of London B: Biological Sciences* **370**:1–8.
- 317 Forzza R, Baumgratz J. 2012. New Brazilian floristic list highlights conservation challenges.
318 *Bioscience* **62**:39–45.
- 319 Germishuizen G, Meyer NL, Steenkamp Y, Keith M. 2006. *Checklist of South African Plants*.
320 Southern African Botanical Diversity Network Report No. 41. Pretoria: Sabonet.

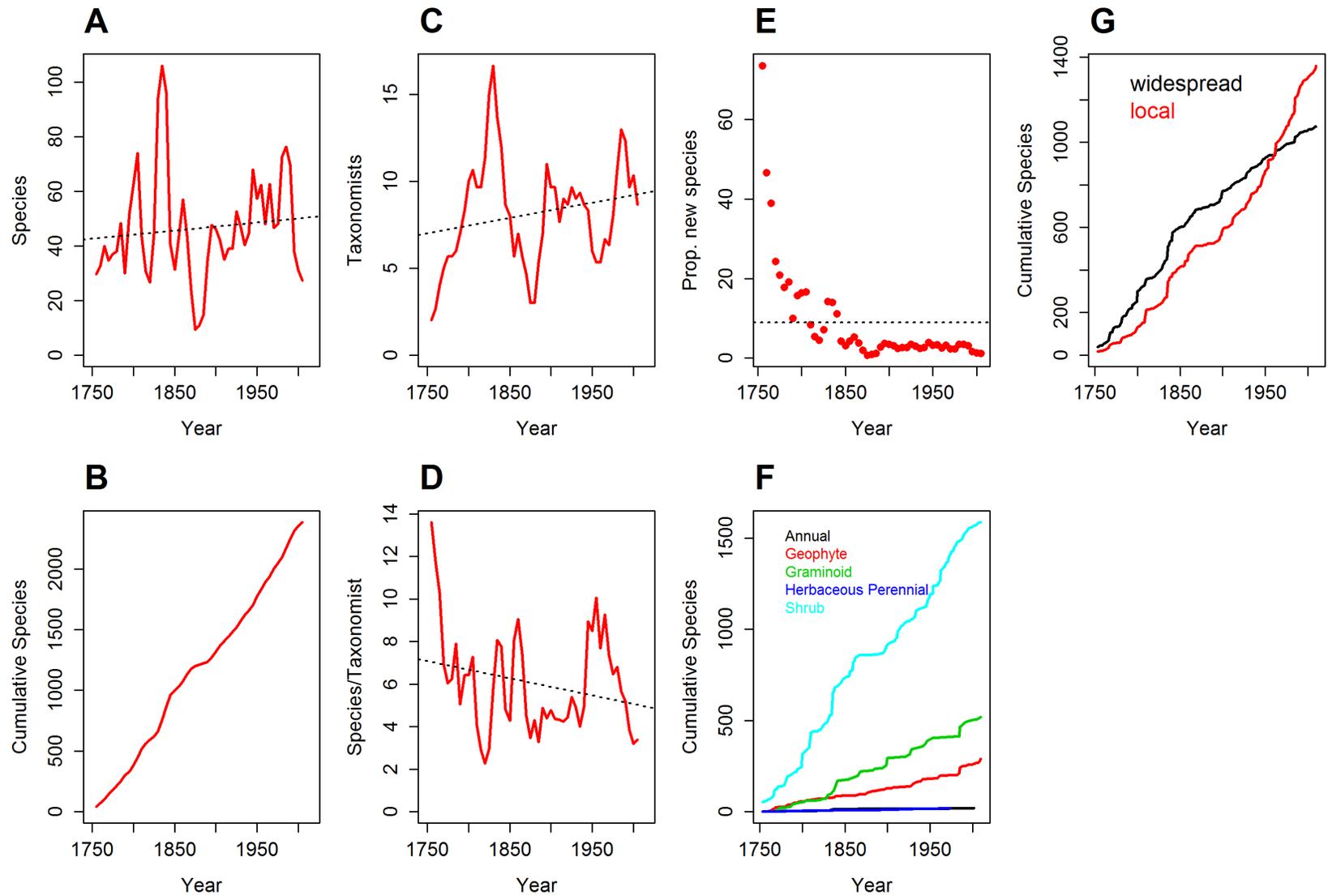
- 321 Giam X, Scheffers B. 2012. Reservoirs of richness: least disturbed tropical forests are centres of
322 undescribed species diversity. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological*
323 *Sciences* **279**:67–76.
- 324 Glen HF, Germishuizen G. 2010. *Botanical exploration*, 2nd edn. Strelitzia 26. South African
325 National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- 326 Godfray HCJ. 2002. Challenges for taxonomy. *Nature* **417**:17–19.
- 327 Goldblatt P. 1978. An analysis of the flora of Southern Africa: its characteristics, relationships,
328 and origins. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* **65**:369–436.
- 329 Goldblatt P, Manning J. 2000. *Cape Plants: a conspectus of the Cape flora of South Africa*.
330 Strelitzia 9. Pretoria: National Botanical Institute of South Africa.
- 331 Goldblatt P, Manning JC. 2002. Plant Diversity of the Cape Region of Southern Africa. *Annals of*
332 *the Missouri Botanical Garden* **89**:281–302.
- 333 Grantham HS, Wilson KA, Moilanen A, Rebelo T, Possingham HP. 2009. Delaying conservation
334 actions for improved knowledge: how long should we wait? *Ecology Letters* **12**:293–301.
- 335 Grieneisen ML, Zhan Y, Potter D, Zhang M. 2014. Biodiversity, Taxonomic Infrastructure,
336 International Collaboration and New Species Discovery. *Bioscience* **64**:322–332.
- 337 Harvey WH, Sonder OW, Thiselton-Dyer WT. 1869–1900. *Flora capensis: being a systematic*
338 *description of the plants of the Cape colony, Caffraria, & Port Natal (and neighbouring*
339 *territories) v. 1-7*. Kent.
- 340 Hopper SD, Gioia P. 2004. The southwest Australian floristic region: evolution and conservation
341 of a global hot spot of biodiversity. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematics* **35**:
342 623–650.
- 343 Joppa LN, Roberts DL, Myers N, Pimm SL (2011a) Biodiversity hotspots house most
344 undiscovered plant species. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **108**:13171–
345 13176.
- 346 Joppa LN, Roberts DL, Pimm SL. 2011b. The population ecology and social behaviour of
347 taxonomists. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **26**:551–553.

- 348 Joppa LN, Roberts DL, Pimm SL. 2011c. How many species of flowering plants are there?
349 *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **278**:554–9.
- 350 Joppa LN, Roberts DL, Pimm SL. 2012. Taxonomy that matters: response to Bacher. *Trends in*
351 *Ecology & Evolution* **27**:66.
- 352 Linnaeus C. 1753. *Species Plantarum Exhibitentes Plantas Rite Cognitas ad Genera Relatas, cum*
353 *Differentiis Specificis, Nominibus Trivialibus, Synonymis Selectis, et Locis Natalibus,*
354 *Secundum Systema Sexuale Digestas, ed. 1.* Laurentius Salvius, Stockholm, Sweden.
355 Facsimile published 1957–1959 as Ray Soc. Publ. 140 and 142. London: The Ray Society.
- 356 Laurance WF, Edwards DP. 2011. The search for unknown biodiversity. *Proceedings of the*
357 *National Academy of Sciences* **108**:12971–12972.
- 358 Linder HP. 2003. The radiation of the Cape flora, southern Africa. *Biological Reviews* **78**:597–
359 638.
- 360 Manning J, Goldblatt P. 2012. *Plants of the Greater Cape Floristic Region 1: the Core Cape Flora.*
361 *Strelitzia* 29. Pretoria: South African National Biodiversity Institute.
- 362 May RM. 2011. Why worry about how many species and their loss? *PLoS Biology* **9**:1–2.
- 363 Mora C, Tittensor DP, Adl S, Simpson AGB, Worm B. 2011. How many species are there on earth
364 and in the ocean? *PLoS Biology* **9**:1–8.
- 365 Myers N, Mittermeier RA, Fonseca GAB, Fonseca GAB, Kent J. 2000. Biodiversity hotspots for
366 conservation priorities. *Nature* **403**:853–8.
- 367 Picker M, Colville J, Van Noort S. 2002. Mantophasmatodea now in South Africa. *Science*
368 **297**:1475.
- 369 Pimm SL, Jenkins CN, Abell R, Brooks TM, Gittleman JL, Joppa LN, Raven PH, Roberts CM,
370 Sexton JO. 2014. The biodiversity of species and their rates of extinction, distribution, and
371 protection. *Science* **344**:1246752.
- 372 R Development Core Team. 2016. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R
373 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

- 374 Raimondo D, Von Staden L, Foden W, Victor JE, Helme NA, Turner RC, Kamundi DA, Manyama
375 PA. 2009. *Red List of South African Plants*. Strelitzia 25. Pretoria: South African National
376 Biodiversity Institute.
- 377 SANBI 2015. Statistics: Red List of South African Plants version 2015.1. *Downloaded from*
378 *Redlist.sanbi.org on 2016/10/29*.
- 379 Scheffers BR, Joppa LN, Pimm SL, Laurance WF. 2012. What we know and don't know about
380 Earth's missing biodiversity. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **27**:501–510.
- 381 Sobral M., Stehmann JR. 2009. An analysis of new angiosperm species discoveries in Brazil
382 (1990-2006). *Taxon* **58**:227–232.
- 383 Solow AR, Smith WK. 2005. On estimating the number of species from the discovery record.
384 *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences* **272**:285–287.
- 385 Webb CO, Slik JWF, Triono T. 2010. Biodiversity inventory and informatics in Southeast Asia.
386 *Biodiversity and Conservation* **19**:955–972

387 **Figures**

388 **Figure 1.** Trends over time (1753–2012) in species discovery rates and taxonomic effort in the
389 Cape Floristic Region, South Africa: (A) Total number of species described, (B) cumulative
390 number of species, (C) number of taxonomists involved in describing species (“taxonomic effort”)
391 and (D) species described per taxonomist (“taxonomic efficiency”). Plotted lines are moving
392 average functions (*sensu* Joppa, Roberts & Pimm, 2011b) calculated at five-year time intervals
393 across the study period (i.e. 1753–2012). (E) The proportion (%) of new species described per
394 five-year interval, (F) cumulative number of species per growth form (annual [19], geophyte [289],
395 graminoid [520], herbaceous perennial [19] and shrub [1587]) and (G) phytogeographic centre
396 (widespread and local; see main text for details) across the study period. Trend lines (dashed black)
397 in A,C,D are based on linear model fits whereas the trend line in E is based on a mean rate of 8.98
398 species described.



399

400 **Figure 1.**