**Reviewing taxonomic bias in a megadiverse country:
Primary biodiversity data, cultural salience, and scientific
interest of South African animals**

Journal:	<i>Environmental Reviews</i>
Manuscript ID	er-2020-0092.R2
Manuscript Type:	Review
Date Submitted by the Author:	11-May-2021
Complete List of Authors:	Phaka, Fortunate; North-West University, ; Hasselt University - Diepenbeek Campus, Vanhove, Maarten; Hasselt University - Diepenbeek Campus; Masaryk University; University of Helsinki; KU Leuven Du Preez, Louis; North-West University; South African Institute for Aquatic Biodiversity Hugé, Jean; Hasselt University - Diepenbeek Campus; Open University of The Netherlands; Université Libre de Bruxelles; Vrije Universiteit Brussel
Is this manuscript invited for consideration in a Special Issue? :	Not applicable (regular submission)
Keyword:	Biodiversity, Conservation, Taxonomic bias, Data collection, Surrogate species

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Reviewing taxonomic bias in a megadiverse country: primary biodiversity data, cultural salience, and scientific interest of South African animals

Fortunate M. Phaka^{1,2*}, Maarten P. M. Vanhove^{2, 3, 4, 5}, Louis H. du Preez^{1,6}, Jean Hugé^{7, 8, 9, 10}

¹ African Amphibian Conservation Research Group, Unit for Environmental Sciences and Management, North-West University, Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom, North-West, South Africa, 2520

² Hasselt University, Centre for Environmental Sciences, Research Group Zoology: Biodiversity and Toxicology, Diepenbeek, Limburg, Belgium

³ Department of Botany and Zoology, Faculty of Science, Masaryk University, Brno, South Moravia, Czech Republic

⁴ Zoology Unit, Finnish Museum of Natural History, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Uusimaa, Finland

⁵ Laboratory of Biodiversity and Evolutionary Genomics, Department of Biology, University of Leuven, Leuven, Flemish Brabant, Belgium

⁶ South African Institute for Aquatic Biodiversity, Somerset Street, Makhanda, Eastern Cape, South Africa

⁷ Hasselt University, Centre for Environmental Sciences, Research Group Environmental Biology, Diepenbeek, Limburg, Belgium

⁸ Open University of the Netherlands, Heerlen, Limburg, the Netherlands

⁹ Systems Ecology & Resource Management Unit, Université Libre de Bruxelles, Brussels, Belgium

¹⁰ Biology Department, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussels, Belgium

25 * Corresponding author: email: mafetap@gmail.com | Phone: +27 71 436 6065 / +32 489 44

26 02 83

Word count: 8407 (excluding Abstract)

Draft

Abstract

Taxonomic bias, resulting in some taxa receiving more attention than others, has been shown to persist throughout history. Such bias in primary biodiversity data needs to be addressed as the data is vital to environmental management. This study reviews taxonomic bias in South African primary biodiversity data obtained from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF). The focus is specifically on animal classes, and regression analysis is used to assess the influence of scientific interest and cultural salience on taxonomic bias. A higher resolution analysis of the two explanatory variables' influence on taxonomic bias is conducted using a Generalised Linear Model on a subset of herpetofaunal families from the focal classes. Furthermore, the potential effects of cultural salience and scientific interest on a taxon's extinction risk are investigated. The findings show that taxonomic bias in South Africa's primary biodiversity data has similarities with global scale taxonomic bias. Among animal classes, there is strong bias towards birds while classes such as Polychaeta and Maxillopoda are underrepresented. Cultural salience has a stronger influence on taxonomic bias than scientific interest. It is, however, unclear how these explanatory variables may influence the extinction risk of taxa. We recommend that taxonomic bias can be reduced if primary biodiversity data collection has a range of targets that guide (but do not limit) accumulation of species occurrence records per habitat. Within this range, a lower target of species occurrence records accommodates species that are difficult to detect. The upper target means occurrence records for any species are less urgent but nonetheless useful and thus data collection efforts can focus on species with fewer occurrence records.

50 **Keywords;** Biodiversity hotspot, Conservation, Data collection, Surrogate species,
51 Taxonomic chauvinism

Draft

Background

Primary biodiversity data reflects knowledge and practices in the study of biodiversity (Troudet et al. 2017) and consists of species occurrence records (Soberón and Peterson 2004). These occurrence records include details about taxonomic information, collection/observation date and location (Ball-Damerow et al. 2019). Accumulating primary biodiversity data is an important step towards biodiversity conservation policy (Flemons et al. 2007) and it is also vital to biodiversity research (Lira-Noriega 2007). Making primary biodiversity data publicly available is an important requirement for biodiversity research and planning (Huang et al. 2013). An organisation called Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) facilitates the sharing of and access to accumulated primary biodiversity data (Edwards 2004) and in 2012 GBIF was said to host the largest open access biodiversity database in the world (Boyd and Crawford 2012). GBIF is rapidly growing and at the time of writing this article, the GBIF network consisted of 101 countries and international organisations dedicated to advancing open access primary biodiversity data (GBIF 2020b).

The biodiversity data making up the GBIF (2020a) dataset consists of contributions from data publishers which include academic institutions, museums, herbaria, non-governmental organisations, and citizen science projects such as iNaturalist (www.inaturalist.org) and AntWeb (www.antweb.org). Georeferenced data from these data publishers is collected by individuals with varying levels of biodiversity knowledge including scientists and amateur biodiversity enthusiasts (GBIF 2020a). The GBIF dataset is highly cited in scientific articles (Ball-Damerow et al. 2019), thus suggesting that researchers consider GBIF to be a reliable biodiversity database. There are also many other biodiversity databases through which primary biodiversity data is published and accessed: these include Integrated Digitized

Biocollections and The Barcode of Life Data System (Ball-Damerow et al. 2019). Biodiversity databases are not exempt from bias. Large disparities in the number of occurrence records for one taxon, in comparison to other taxa in a biodiversity dataset, highlights a taxonomic bias. This taxonomic bias is a global phenomenon that has persisted for many years (Russell 1984; Ponder 1992; Troudet et al. 2017; Gordon et al. 2020). Understanding taxonomic bias in primary biodiversity data assists with addressing knowledge gaps and informing policy (Donaldson et al. 2016) as these data are important for biodiversity research and management (Flemons et al. 2007; Lira-Noriega 2007; Huang et al. 2013). Taxonomic bias can lead to underestimation of the extinction risk and future threats for underrepresented taxa (McKinney 1999), may limit understanding of how natural systems are affected by anthropogenic disturbances (Feeley et al. 2016), and could also divert conservation resources away from taxa that urgently need them (Seddon et al. 2005).

Biased representation of taxa in primary biodiversity data may result from intrinsic features, such as abundance, remoteness and behaviour, which can make it difficult to obtain the occurrence records of some species. More extinction resistant (common species) tend to be recorded first (McKinney 1999). Primary biodiversity data is generally biased towards species that are easy to identify (Boakes et al. 2016) or locally abundant (Royle and Nichols 2003). Intrinsic features are, however, not solely responsible for taxonomic bias and the cause of this bias is not fully understood (Troudet et al. 2017). It has been hypothesized that taxonomic bias in primary biodiversity data is influenced by either scientific interest (Pawar 2003) or societal interest (Wilson et al. 2007). Taxonomic bias exists in the interests of both science (Clark and May 2002; Di Marco et al. 2017) and society (Ducarme et al. 2013).

Studies, such as this current one, aim to understand which of the biases, in the interests of

science and society, lead to taxonomic bias in primary biodiversity data accumulation. Scientific interest can be deduced from scientific articles (Troudet et al. 2017), as these articles provide an idea of which taxa the scientific community is dedicating its resources to. Societal interest can be quantified from frequency of words in web pages (Wilson et al. 2007). The frequency, or number of times, that words (e.g., taxon names) occur in a large body of text such as web pages can be used as a measure for cultural salience (Correia et al. 2016; Davies et al. 2019). This cultural salience denotes the cultural visibility and profile of species (Correia et al. 2016; Davies et al. 2019), or the popularity of a species which reflects the interactions of cultural value-practice systems with that species' traits (Ducarme et al. 2013). According to Correia et al. (2017), inferring cultural salience from web pages as large bodies of text relies on the assumption that content on the World Wide Web is a reflection of the interests of the citizenry generating it. There is evidence supporting this assumption that internet activity reflects societal interests (Funk and Rusowsky 2014; Schuetz et al. 2015; Troumbis 2017; Kim et al. 2018) . When conducting web page searches, scientific and vernacular names of taxa can be used interchangeably as keywords (Jarić et al. 2016). There are high correlations between scientific and vernacular species name search results at both global and country level (e.g. in . Australia, Brazil, Indonesia, Spain, Tanzania and United States of America) regardless of lingual and cultural differences (Correia et al. 2017). High correlations are also found between the Google search engine results for scientific and English names of diurnal birds of prey, carnivores, and primates (Jarić et al. 2016).

Investigations of taxonomic bias generally focus on its causes and seldom discuss what would be considered an ideal representation of a taxon. This ideal representation of a taxon would provide guiding and non-limiting targets for primary biodiversity data collection.

Proposing target species occurrence records to guide primary biodiversity data collection would also be cognisant of the sample size requirements of biodiversity data applications. When using biodiversity data for regression analysis, at least ten subjects per variable are required for accurate models (Harrell 2001). High accuracy species distribution models can be created using samples of five, ten or 25 (Hernandez et al. 2006). For African taxa in particular, accurate species distribution models can be developed with at least 14 occurrence records for species with a limited distribution range, and 25 records for widely distributed species (Van Proosdij et al. 2016). In biostatistics, a minimum sample size of 30 is considered sufficient for the design of field studies (Cohen and Cohen 1995). To accommodate these varied sample size requirements of biodiversity data applications would require the target occurrence records per species to be made up of a range of numbers. A range of target sample sizes that would be considered an ideal representation of a taxon in primary biodiversity data is also better suited to the varying levels of difficulty in collecting species occurrence records. The ease with which species occurrence records can be collected is often affected by species' abundance, habits, habitat type and accessibility of habitats.

Biodiversity research focus is misaligned with global biodiversity distribution (Griffiths and Dos Santos 2012; Di Marco et al. 2017). Considering that South Africa is a megadiverse country (Mittermeier, 1988; Mittermeier et al. 1997), it is important to understand the extent of biodiversity knowledge and also to investigate factors influencing primary biodiversity data accumulation in order to inform research and planning. This current study seeks to (1) quantify taxonomic bias in the primary biodiversity data of South African animal taxa and make suggestions of the ideal representation of a taxon required in order to lessen

bias. Based on hypotheses put forward in previous research (Pawar 2003; Wilson et al 2007), we (2) test the likely influence of cultural salience and scientific interest on taxonomic bias in primary biodiversity data. We further (3) assess how cultural salience and scientific interest compare with a taxon’s extinction risk.

Review Approach

This assessment of taxonomic bias in South Africa focuses on the timespan from 1998, when the country’s National Environmental Management Act (107 of 1998) was promulgated, and the commencement of this study in 2020. The act sought to increase biodiversity monitoring and access. The highest yearly species occurrence records for South African species (ranging between 20,271 and 1,6 million) started being submitted to GBIF in the third year of this act being in effect. The dataset containing species occurrence records of South African animals was downloaded from the GBIF database on 21 February 2020, and the search parameters used to obtain this dataset are viewable on doi.org/10.15468/dl.5upuwl and in Supplementary Material 1. Not all taxon names used in GBIF datasets represent natural groupings, but those names are used here verbatim for the sake of consistency and comparability. Occurrence statistics are computed based on species occurrence records from the GBIF dataset and the number of known animal species distributed within South Africa. The numbers of known animal species are obtained from the South African Animal Checklist maintained by the South African GBIF node (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020). A ratio of GBIF occurrence records (or species occurrence records submitted to GBIF) to number of known species is used to determine the average number of times each species had their occurrence records submitted to GBIF. Medians of GBIF occurrence records are

used for their robustness to outliers. Absolute deviation around the median (i.e., median absolute deviation) gives a measure of variability (Troudet et al. 2017).

Since no guidelines exist for the ideal number of species occurrence records required for taxa to be considered sufficiently represented, we deem it necessary to suggest a range of guiding targets. Lower and upper targets of 10 and 30 occurrence records per species per habitat respectively can serve to guide biodiversity data collection. This range of targets is based on sample sizes that are suitable for various biodiversity data applications. The targets also consider the intrinsic traits of the various species, with the lower target being suitable for collecting data about species that are difficult to detect, and the upper target being more suitable for abundant species that are easier to detect. Should the upper target be reached for any species, then researchers can consider re-directing data collection resources to species with occurrence records that are lower than the suggested targets in a habitat. With such guiding targets, biodiversity data collection can be orientated towards lessening persisting taxonomic bias while ensuring there is sufficient primary biodiversity data for research and management.

Cultural salience and scientific interest are investigated as explanatory variables for taxonomic bias in primary biodiversity data. Regression analysis is used to understand the relative influence of the two explanatory variables and their interactions on GBIF occurrence records. We use scatterplots and Pearson's correlation to investigate correlations between the dependent variable (GBIF occurrence records) and the two explanatory variables.

Cultural salience, in the South African context is determined by the frequency of focal taxa names in the South African web corpus (or body of text contained in web pages). The

194 advanced search option on the Google search engine,
 195 (https://www.google.com/advanced_search?), was used to search for the exact scientific
 196 names of each class (e.g. "Amphibia") and the search was narrowed by region to South
 197 Africa (Supplementary Material 1). Google search results include a numeric value which
 198 represents cultural salience or the approximate number of times a search term appears in
 199 the South African web corpus. Based on previous studies (Funk and Rusowsky 2014; Schuetz
 200 et al. 2015; Troumbis 2017; Kim et al. 2018) we assume that the South African web corpus is
 201 a general reflection of the interests of South Africans that are generating it. We say 'general
 202 reflection' as acknowledgement that South Africa is a diverse country with varied access to
 203 the internet. Thus, interests of people that voluntarily avoid using the internet and those in
 204 remote areas without internet access, will not be reflected in the South African web corpus.
 205 A more representative measure of South African public interest would require an extensive
 206 survey of the country's citizenry. Scientific interest is quantified by the number of scientific
 207 articles published within this study's focal timeframe with their topic being South African
 208 animal taxa. This scientific interest data was obtained from Web of Science (WoS)
 209 (<http://apps.webofknowledge.com/>). The WoS search query (Supplementary Material 1)
 210 was as follows "Class" OR "Family" AND "South Africa*"; e.g. TS=("Amphibia" OR
 211 "Arthroleptidae" OR "Brevicipitidae" OR "Bufonidae" OR "Heleophrynidae" OR
 212 "Hemisotidae" OR "Hyperoliidae" OR "Microhylidae" OR "Phrynobatrachidae" OR "Pipidae"
 213 OR "Ptychadenidae" OR "Pyxicephalidae" OR "Rhacophoridae") AND TS=("South Africa*").
 214 The result of this search includes a numeric value which represents scientific interest or the
 215 number of scientific articles with a South African animal taxon as their topic (specifically
 216 from journals indexed by WoS).

217

For a higher resolution investigation into the effects of explanatory variables on taxonomic bias, we additionally analysed a subsample consisting of herpetofauna (amphibians and reptiles). We chose herpetofauna for the subsample as they are generally underrepresented in wildlife research and management literature (Christoffel and Lepczyk 2012), are negatively perceived by the general public (Reimer et al. 2013; Tarrant et al. 2016) and their populations are experiencing global declines (McCallum 2007). A Generalized Linear Model (GLM) fitted using a negative binomial distribution is employed to analyse influence of the two explanatory variables on the number of GBIF occurrence records for each family within the subsample. The validity of the models is checked by testing homogeneity of residuals when plotting the values of residuals against predicted values. Outliers were excluded as they negatively impacted the model's resolution. Identification of outliers was achieved using the Interquartile rule; $Q1 - 1.5 \times \text{Interquartile Range}$ or above $Q3 + 1.5 \times \text{Interquartile Range}$. Similar to the methods for the main sample mentioned above, cultural salience for the subsample was obtained through a search of exact family names (e.g. "Arthroleptidae") on Google's advanced search page with results narrowed by region to South Africa only (Supplementary Material 1). The subsample's scientific interest was retrieved from WoS using the following query (Supplementary Material 1) "Family" OR "Genus" AND "South Africa*": e.g. TS=("Arthroleptidae" OR "*Leptopelis*" OR "*Arthroleptis*") AND TS=("South Africa*"). For increased accuracy of the subsample's regression analysis, families with less than ten GBIF occurrence records were excluded from the analysis as a minimum of ten subjects per variable is necessary for greater accuracy of regression modelling (Harrell 2001).

241 This study's analysis is extended to the likely influence of the two explanatory variables on
242 conservation status by comparing cultural salience and scientific interest with threat status
243 of South African animals that are on the IUCN Red List of threatened species (IUCN 2020).
244 This IUCN (2020) Red List has the total number species in all threatened categories per
245 country organised by taxonomic groupings (i.e. birds, mammals, molluscs, fishes, reptiles,
246 amphibians). The seventh IUCN (2020) grouping of animal taxa, labelled "other
247 invertebrates", was excluded from analysis due to uncertainty about which taxa are
248 included in the grouping.

249
250 Twelve classes, from eight phyla, with occurrence records submitted to GBIF during this
251 study's timeframe were not listed on the South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity
252 Advisor 2020), making it impossible to compute their ratios for occurrence records to known
253 species (Table 1). Six classes, from five phyla, listed on the South African Animal Checklist
254 (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020) do not have occurrence records submitted to GBIF during
255 the focal timeframe (Table 1), thus it was not possible to compute any statistics for them
256 either. All statistical analyses were performed using R statistical software (R Core Team
257 2019) with the following packages: base (Becker et al. 1988), MASS (Venables and Ripley
258 2002), stats (R Core Team 2019), regclass (Petrie 2020), and ggplot2 (Wickham 2016).

Findings

Taxonomic bias in the primary biodiversity data of South African animal taxa

More than 15 million occurrence records encompassing 49 South African animal classes were submitted to the GBIF database from 1998 to 21 February 2020 (Table 1). These occurrence records are from 88 datasets which are viewable on doi.org/10.15468/dl.5upuwl. Among these datasets, the largest (with over 13 million occurrence records) is from a volunteer/citizen science project called Southern African Bird Atlas Project 2 which is published to GBIF by the Animal Demography Unit of the University of Cape Town. The second largest dataset (with more than 1 million occurrence records) is from historical bird ringing records (2005-2009) published by the South African National Biodiversity Institute.

The number of GBIF occurrence records per class show strong bias towards Aves, while some classes (e.g. Polychaeta and Branchiopoda) have comparatively fewer records (Table 1). A graphic representation of the ratio of GBIF occurrence records to the number of known species per South African animal class (Fig. 1) illustrates the differences between most and least represented classes, along with all other classes in between the two extremes. The ratio of GBIF occurrence records to number of known species of birds is 18,584 while Polychaeta has an average 0.01 occurrences submitted for each species (i.e. ratio of GBIF occurrence records to number of known species = 0.01). The study sample has 23 underrepresented classes (with ratios lower than 1) and Polychaeta is the least represented among those classes. Only 14 of the 49 classes submitted to GBIF have their ratio of occurrence records to number of known species greater than one. The dashed section on Fig. 1 represents the suggested lower target of 10 and upper target of 30 occurrence

records per species which would be ideal for various applications in biodiversity planning and research, bearing in mind the difficulty of collecting occurrence data differs according to species.

Insecta, the most species-rich South African animal class (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020) in the sample, accounts for 0.34% of the GBIF occurrence records under review here. The second most species-rich class, Arachnida, accounts for 0.02% of the occurrence records in the review sample. Aves accounts for 99.49% of occurrence records in the study sample yet it is over 51 and six times less speciose than South African Insect and Arachnid species respectively (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020). The remaining 46 South African animal classes jointly account for 0.15% of the total occurrence records submitted to GBIF between 1998 and 21 February 2020. Aves has the highest median number of occurrences per species (419), while the rest of the classes in this sample have a median of 17 occurrence records per species or less (Table 1).

Cultural salience and scientific interest as explanatory variables of taxonomic bias

The class with highest ratio of GBIF occurrence records to number of known species, Aves, also has the highest cultural salience (Supplementary Material 2). Scientific interest is highest for Insecta which has a lower ratio of occurrence records to known species in comparison to Aves (1.25 vs 18,584). The least represented class in this study sample, Polychaeta, has cultural salience and scientific interest in the mid-low ranges. Scaphopoda and Entognatha have the lowest scientific interest and cultural salience respectively. Both classes are underrepresented in GBIF occurrence records.

The correlation coefficient for GBIF occurrence records and cultural salience ($r = 0.799$) indicates a strong positive linear relationship; the number of species occurrence records for South African animals tend to increase with their cultural salience (Fig. 2) and this relationship is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Scientific interest and GBIF occurrence records show a weak linear relationship ($r = 0.011$) which is statistically non-significant ($p = 0.95$). Six outliers on each of the two plots were identified using the interquartile rule (Fig. 2). When these outliers are removed to achieve more evenly distributed data points, cultural salience and GBIF occurrence records have a moderate positive relationship that is statistically significant ($r = 0.599$, $p < 0.05$), while GBIF occurrence records and scientific interest have a weak positive correlation that is also statistically significant ($r = 0.396$, $p < 0.05$).

Higher resolution investigation of taxonomic bias using a subsample

The subsample used for higher resolution analysis of taxonomic bias consists of 4,329 occurrence records of South African herpetofauna submitted to GBIF between 1998 and 21 February 2020 (Table 2). The amphibian occurrence records are from nine datasets (viewable on doi.org/10.15468/dl.vletu9) and the largest of these datasets (with 660 occurrence records) is published by the South African Institute for Aquatic Biodiversity. Occurrence records of reptile species are from nine datasets (viewable on doi.org/10.15468/dl.insbbc) and the largest among these had 946 occurrence records and is published by the South African National Biodiversity Institute. The GBIF occurrence records of South African herpetofauna span 31 families, with Pipidae, Agamidae and Lamprophiidae being the most represented. The ratio of GBIF occurrence records to number of known

species is greater than one for 30 of the 31 reviewed families, and Amphisbaenidae is the least represented.

Three families listed on the South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020) do not have occurrence records submitted to GBIF during this study's timeframe (Table 2), and are thus excluded from analysis. The most species-rich families (Pyxicephalidae, Colubridae, Cordylidae, Gekkonidae, Scincidae) have median occurrence records per species of five or lower. Pipidae and Pythonidae, which are among the least speciose of South Africa's herpetofaunal families, have the highest median occurrence records per species (Table 2). The GLM results (Table 3) show a positive and significant correlation between GBIF occurrence records and cultural salience of the subsample. Correlations between the subsample's GBIF occurrence records and scientific interest are non-significant (Table 3). The GLM further shows that the interactions between cultural salience and scientific interest have statistically significant and mostly negative influence on GBIF occurrence records.

Conservation status, cultural salience and scientific interest

No clear patterns emerge on the relationship between extinction risk of taxa, their cultural salience and scientific interest (Table 4). Of the six IUCN taxonomic groupings of threatened animals, mammals have the second highest cultural salience and scientific interest. They also have the second highest number of threatened species relative to the total number of known species. Amphibians have the lowest cultural salience and scientific interest, and also have the highest number of threatened species relative to the number of known species. Molluscs (which includes to Gastropoda, Bivalvia, and Cephalopoda as per IUCN taxonomic

grouping) have the third highest cultural salience and scientific interest, and the least threatened species relative to the total number of known species in South Africa.

Interpretation and policy implications of findings

Taxonomic bias in the primary biodiversity data of South African animal taxa

This current study found biases in the primary biodiversity data of South African animal taxa. There is a strong bias towards Aves in the South African context, and also at a global scale (Troudet et al. 2017). Classes such as Polychaeta, Bivalvia and Arachnida are underrepresented in both global (Troudet et al. 2017) and South African primary biodiversity data (Fig. 1). Intrinsic factors may be contributing to the bias towards taxa such as Aves and Mammalia since some are large (Zapponi et al. 2017), abundant (Royle and Nichols 2003) and easily recognizable (Boakes et al. 2016). Arachnida and Insecta are both abundant and yet these two taxa are not as well represented as Aves and Mammalia. Arachnid and Insect species are however smaller in size and thus more difficult to identify in comparison to Aves and Mammalia. Herpetofauna are generally secretive with some cryptic species which makes them difficult to identify, yet they are among the overrepresented taxa within this study sample (Fig. 1). This reiterates an assertion made by Troudet et al. (2017) that intrinsic features cannot solely account for the existing taxonomic bias. Approaches to lessening taxonomic bias should take into consideration that extrinsic features also contribute to underrepresentation of taxa in primary biodiversity data.

In addition to taxonomic bias, this review noted differences in class names and records among the biodiversity data sources consulted (Table 1). These discrepancies necessitate

376 standardisation across sources of biodiversity data (in this case GBIF and the South African
377 Animal Checklist) in order to maximise their value for biodiversity data applications.

378 Assessment of the taxonomic bias of 18 classes could not be completed as some of the data
379 required to compute the ratio of GBIF occurrence records to number of known species was
380 not available; 12 classes from the GBIF dataset did not have corresponding records on the
381 South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020), thus pointing out a need
382 for improved synchronisation as the institution producing this checklist also hosts the South
383 African node of GBIF. The remaining six of the unanalysed 18 classes do not have records
384 submitted to GBIF during the 22 year timeframe of this study. The lack of primary
385 biodiversity data records of six classes for this duration suggests lax monitoring of species
386 within those classes or the custodians of that data are not publishing it to GBIF.

387

388 The suggested lower and upper targets of species occurrence records do not seek to
389 introduce limits for what should constitute taxonomic bias. Hard limits are impractical since
390 species differ in population dynamics and primary biodiversity data requirements vary
391 according to application. Suggesting targets introduces a dimension that is often missing
392 from taxonomic bias research; the steps that follow confirmation of disparities in attention
393 received by taxa. If the disproportionate representation of taxa in biodiversity databases is
394 to be lessened, then guidelines of the target number of occurrence records per species
395 should be available. These guidelines should be cognisant of the multiple uses of primary
396 biodiversity data and intrinsic features that determine the ease with which species'
397 occurrences can be recorded. This lower target of 10 occurrence records per species
398 accommodates the secretive and less abundant taxa, and would serve to decrease under-
399 representation of species. The upper target of 30 occurrence records per species would

guide data collection for all species and also serve to avoid perpetuating existing biases. If the upper target per habitat was reached, then data collection resources could be used for other species with lower occurrence records. Collecting biodiversity data beyond the upper target would then be less urgent but still necessary as increased data are beneficial to the accuracy of statistical models. The cumulative impacts of a minimum 10 occurrence records per species per habitat is that average species occurrence records for each South African animal class would end up being at least 10. In such a scenario, species that are easy to detect would still have higher representation, but even the least represented species would still have enough occurrence records to sufficiently inform research and planning.

Cultural salience and scientific interest as explanatory variables of taxonomic bias

Globally there is a mostly positive influence of public interests on representation of taxonomic classes in primary biodiversity data and a few instances of positive correlation between scientific interests and taxon representation (Troudet et al. 2017). A possible contributor is the ease with which societal interest can be translated into primary biodiversity data through citizen science platforms such as iNaturalist. The current study found statistically significant and positive correlation between cultural salience and primary biodiversity data of South African animal classes, while the correlation between scientific interest and South African animal taxa representation is not statistically significant. The regression results after removal of outliers with either high GBIF occurrence records, cultural salience, or scientific interest (Fig. 2), suggest increased influence of scientific interest on species occurrence records when there is less biased focus on taxa.

Higher resolution investigation of taxonomic bias using a subsample

A higher resolution analysis of taxonomic bias found positive and statistically significant correlation between cultural salience and GBIF occurrence records of a subsample of herpetofaunal families. No statistically significant correlation was found between GBIF occurrence records and scientific interest in this subsample. Scientific interest's effect on primary biodiversity data accumulation appears negligible but should not be overlooked as its interaction with cultural salience has a statistically significant influence on GBIF occurrence records (Table 3). Statistically significant interaction effects indicate that there is possibly an interaction between cultural salience and scientific interest that is affecting the number of GBIF occurrence records per South African animal taxon. Thus, the influence of cultural salience on GBIF occurrence per species may depend on the scientific interest a species has (and vice versa). Consequently, it may not be possible to solely attribute taxonomic bias in GBIF occurrence records to cultural salience as these primary biodiversity data are collected by both scientists and non-scientists. There is also evidence that societal and scientific interests in biodiversity matters are not mutually exclusive (Eisner et al. 1995; Wilson et al. 2007; Martín-López, et al 2009).

Herpetofauna being generally well represented in GBIF occurrence records at both national and international scales is good for herpetofaunal research and conservation as it means there are generally sufficient amounts of primary biodiversity data to work with. Furthermore, increased representation of herpetofauna in primary biodiversity data is an encouraging result considering that they are generally understudied (Christoffel and Lepczyk 2012), the public mostly has negative perceptions about them (Reimer et al. 2013; Tarrant et al. 2016), and their global populations are declining (McCallum 2007).

447

448 **Conservation status, cultural salience and scientific interest**

449 This study's inferences about the relationship between extinction risk, cultural salience and
450 scientific interest are based on data with a small scale of focus and further investigation at a
451 higher resolution (i.e. species level) is required to better understand the relationship.
452 Published literature shows mixed results with regard to the correlation of extinction risk
453 with cultural salience and scientific interest. Higher resolution investigations from previous
454 research found that some taxa with high societal preference also have a high extinction risk
455 (Courchamp et al. 2018). Society's taxonomic preferences result from various reasons
456 (including species abundance and charisma) and are not necessarily motivated by concern
457 for a taxon's welfare (Davies et al. 2019). For endangered taxa that receive increased
458 attention, the focus is biased towards taxa that fit certain criteria. Threatened vertebrates
459 receive greater scientific interest than threatened invertebrates (Donaldson et al. 2016).
460 Furthermore, the number of IUCN threat status assessments for invertebrates is much lower
461 than vertebrate assessments (Eisenhauer et al. 2019). Threatened vertebrates have higher
462 cultural salience if they are birds or mammals (Davies et al. 2019). Species that are
463 threatened generally obtain higher scientific interest than non-threatened species and this
464 is due to conservation efforts being based on IUCN's threatened species categories (Martín-
465 López et al. 2011).

466

467 Previous research has shown that high cultural salience alone does not correlate with
468 increased species protection (Courchamp et al. 2018), however, higher cultural salience
469 alone can drive funds towards species protection (Simberloff 1998). These funds can in turn
470 be used to increase scientific focus on underfunded biodiversity research necessary to

471 inform conservation policy. Cultural salience influences scientific interest (Wilson et al.
472 2007) and society plays a role in biodiversity research and planning (Martín-López et al
473 2009). There are also suggestions that biodiversity protection is most effective when based
474 on scientific knowledge and has societal approval (Eisner et al. 1995). Biodiversity
475 researchers and managers often direct scientific interest and cultural salience towards
476 certain species for the benefit of many other species. This surrogate species concept
477 chooses species to be proxies for ecosystems (Favreau et al. 2006) or conservation problems
478 (Dietz et al. 1994). By updating the surrogate species framework to incorporate the
479 suggested targets of 10 - 30 occurrence records per species, its scope of benefits can be
480 broadened to include lessening of persisting taxonomic bias. In this way the outcomes of
481 dedicating resources towards surrogates would include 10 - 30 occurrence records per
482 surrogate species and the species meant to benefit from protection of the surrogate.

Concluding Remarks and Recommendations

This study quantifies taxonomic bias in the primary biodiversity data of animal taxa in a megadiverse country and shows there is a severe bias towards birds while some classes are underrepresented. Statistical analysis suggests that cultural salience has greater influence on the noted taxonomic bias than scientific interest. A high resolution analysis of taxonomic bias with a subsample, also shows cultural salience to have stronger influence and additionally suggests there is statistical interaction between the two explanatory variables. No clear correlation was found in the relationship between a taxon's extinction risk, cultural salience and scientific interest.

The intrinsic traits of species along with the limitations of ecological research make it difficult to completely avoid taxonomic bias. It is more feasible to investigate extrinsic factors (such as cultural salience and scientific interest) and use the findings to avoid the current situation where taxonomic bias in primary biodiversity data has prevailed for decades and the majority of animal taxa of a megadiverse country are underrepresented. Approaches that will, at the least, increase representation of severely underrepresented taxa in order to lessen persistent taxonomic bias are required. Once taxonomic bias has been quantified, additional research time should be dedicated to finding ways to address persisting biases. Our recommendation to introduce soft targets of between 10 and 30 species occurrence records per habitat seeks to increase representation of underrepresented taxa in primary biodiversity data. The species occurrence targets can also be incorporated into surrogate species frameworks for their benefits to be extended to include the lessening of persisting taxonomic bias. Investigations of extrinsic factors should also consider how interactions between the explanatory variables may influence taxonomic

507 bias. Given the possibility of interaction effects between societal and scientific preferences,
508 it will be worth researching the extent of this interaction between explanatory variables and
509 how it can be used to lessen taxonomic bias.

Draft

510 **Acknowledgements**

511 This research is made possible by a bilateral scientific cooperation between North-West
512 University and Hasselt University. Financial support for FMP was provided by the National
513 Research Foundation (UID: 114663), North-West University, and the Flemish Interuniversity
514 Council (VLIR-UOS) Global Minds program (Contract Number: R-9363). MPMV is supported
515 by the Special Research Fund of Hasselt University (BOF20TT06). No conflict of interest to be
516 declared.

Draft

References

Ball-Damerow, J.E., Brenskelle, L., Barve, N., Soltis, P.S., Sierwald, P., Bieler, R., LaFrance, R., Ariño, A.H., and Guralnick, R.P. 2019. Research applications of primary biodiversity databases in the digital age [online]. PloS ONE. **14**(9): e0215794.

doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0215794

Becker, R.A., Chambers, J.M., and Wilks, A.R. 1988. A Programming Environment for Data Analysis and Graphics (Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole computer science series). Taylor and Francis, Abingdon-on-Thames.

Boakes, E.H., Gliozzo, G., Seymour, V., Harvey, M., Smith, C., Roy, D.B., and Haklay, M. 2016. Patterns of contribution to citizen science biodiversity projects increase understanding of volunteers' recording behaviour. Sci. Rep. **6**: 1–11.

Boyd, D., and Crawford, K. 2012. Critical questions for big data. Inform. Commun. Soc. **15**: 662–679.

Christoffel, R.A., and Lepczyk, C.A. 2012. Representation of herpetofauna in wildlife research journals. J. Wildl. Manage. **76**(4): 661–669.

Clark, J.A., and May, R.M. 2002. How biased are we?: Even now, conservation research is still lopsided. Conserv. Practice. **3**(3): 28–29.

- 540 Cohen, J., and Cohen, L. 1995. Statistics for ornithologists. 2nd Guide. British Trust for
541 Ornithology, Thetford.
542
- 543 Correia, R.A., Jepson, P.R., Malhado, A.C.M., and Ladle, R.J. 2016 Familiarity breeds content:
544 assessing bird species popularity with culturomics [online]. Peerj. **4**: e1728.
545 doi.org/10.7717/peerj.1728
546
- 547 Correia, R.A., Jepson, P., Malhado, A.C. and Ladle, R.J. 2017. Internet scientific name
548 frequency as an indicator of cultural salience of biodiversity. Ecol. Indic. **78**: 549–555.
549
- 550 Courchamp, F., Jarić, I., Albert, C., Meinard, Y., Ripple, W.J., and Chapron, G. 2018. The
551 paradoxical extinction of the most charismatic animals [online]. PLoS. Biol. **16**(4): e2003997.
552 doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2003997
553
- 554 Davies, T., Cowley, A., Bennie, J., Leyshon, C., Inger, R., Carter, H., Robinson, B., Duffy, J.,
555 Casalegno, S., Lambert, G., and Gaston, K. 2019. Popular interest in vertebrates does not
556 reflect extinction risk and is associated with bias in conservation investment [online]. PLoS
557 ONE. **14**(2): e0212101. doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0212101
558
- 559 Dietz, J.M., Dietz, A.L., and Nagagata E.Y. 1994. The effective use of flagship species for
560 conservation of biodiversity: the example of lion tamarins in Brazil. *In* Creative conservation:
561 interactive management of wild and captive animals. **Edited by** P.J.S. Olney, G.M. Mace and
562 A.T.C. Feistner. Chapman and Hall, London. pp. 32–49.
563

- 564 Di Marco, M., Chapman, S., Althor, G., Kearney, S., Besancon, C., Butt, N., Maina, J.M.,
565 Possingham, H.P., von Bieberstein, K.R., Venter, O., and Watson, J.E. 2017. Changing trends
566 and persisting biases in three decades of conservation science. *Glob. Ecol. Conserv.* **10**: 32–
567 42.
- 568
- 569 Donaldson, M.R., Burnett, N.J., Braun, D.C., Suski, C.D., Hinch, S.G., Cooke, S.J., and Kerr, J.T.
570 2016. Taxonomic bias and international biodiversity conservation research. *FACETS*. **1**: 105–
571 113. doi:10.1139/facets-2016-0011
- 572
- 573 Ducarme, F., Luque, G.M., and Courchamp, F. 2013. What are “charismatic species” for
574 conservation biologists. *BioSciences Master Reviews*. **10**: 1–8.
- 575
- 576 Edwards, J.L. 2004. Research and societal benefits of the Global Biodiversity Information
577 Facility. *BioScience*. **54**(6): 485–486.
- 578
- 579 Eisenhauer, N., Bonn, A., and Guerra, C.A. 2019. Recognizing the quiet extinction of
580 invertebrates. *Nat. Commun.* **10**(50). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-07916-1>
- 581
- 582 Eisner, T., Lubchenco, J., Wilson, E.O., Wilcove, D.S., and Bean, M.J. 1995. Building a
583 scientifically sound policy for protecting endangered species. *Science*. **269**(5228): 1231–
584 1233.
- 585

- 586 Favreau, J.M., Drew C.A., Hess G.R., Rubino M.J., Koch F.H., and Eschelbach K.A. 2006.
587 Recommendations for assessing the effectiveness of surrogate species approaches.
588 Biodivers. Conserv. **15**:3949–3969.
589
- 590 Feeley, K., Stroud, J., and Perez, T. 2016. Most ‘global’ reviews of species’ responses to
591 climate change are not truly global. Divers. Distrib. **23**:231–234.
592
- 593 Flemons, P., Guralnick, R., Krieger, J., Ranipeta, A., and Neufeld, D. 2007. A web-based GIS
594 tool for exploring the world’s biodiversity: The Global Biodiversity Information Facility
595 Mapping and Analysis Portal Application (GBIF-MAPA). Ecol. inform. **2**(1): 49–60.
596
- 597 Funk, S.M., and Rusowsky, D. 2014. The importance of cultural knowledge and scale for
598 analysing internet search data as a proxy for public interest toward the environment.
599 Biodivers. Conserv. **23**:3101–3112. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-014-0767-6>
600
- 601 GBIF.org. 2020a. Become a publisher [online]. Available from:
602 <https://www.gbif.org/become-a-publisher> [accessed 12 December 2020].
603
- 604 GBIF.org. 2020b. The GBIF Network [online]. Available from: <https://www.gbif.org> [accessed
605 12 December 2020].
606
- 607 Gordon, E.R., Butt, N., Rosner-Katz, H., Binley, A.D., and Bennett, J.R. 2020. Relative costs of
608 conserving threatened species across taxonomic groups. Conserv. Biol. **34**(1): 276–281.
609

- 610 Griffiths, R.A., and Dos Santos, M. 2012. Trends in conservation biology: Progress or
611 procrastination in a new millennium?. *Biol. Conserv.* **153**: 153–158.
- 612
- 613 Harrell Jr., F.E. 2001. *Regression strategies*. Springer-Verlag, New York, NY.
- 614
- 615 Hernandez, P.A., Graham, C.H., Master, L.L., and Albert, D.L. 2006. The effect of sample size
616 and species characteristics on performance of different species distribution modeling
617 methods. *Ecography* **29**: 773–785.
- 618
- 619 Huang, X., Hawkins, B.A., and Qiao, G. 2013. Biodiversity data sharing: Will peer-reviewed
620 data papers work?. *BioScience* **63**(1): 5–6.
- 621
- 622 IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature). 2020. IUCN Red List version 2020-1:
623 Table 5 [online]. Available from <https://www.iucnredlist.org> [accessed 21 February 2020].
- 624
- 625 Jarić, I., Courchamp, F., Gessner, J., and Roberts, D.L. 2016. Data mining in conservation
626 research using Latin and vernacular species names. *PeerJ.* **4**: e2202. doi:10.7717/peerj.2202
- 627
- 628 Kim, J.Y., Do, Y., Im, R.Y., Kim, G.Y., and Joo, G.J. 2014. Use of large web-based data to
629 identify public interest and trends related to endangered species. *Biodivers. Conserv.*
630 **23**(12): 2961–2984.
- 631

- 632 Lira-Noriega, A., Soberón, J., Navarro-Sigüenza, A.G., Nakazawa, Y., and Peterson, A.T. 2007.
633 Scale dependency of diversity components estimated from primary biodiversity data and
634 distribution maps. *Divers. Distrib.* **13**(2): 185–195.
- 635
- 636 McCallum, M.L. 2007. Amphibian extinction or decline? Current declines dwarf background
637 extinction. *J. Herpetol.* **41**: 483–491.
- 638
- 639 McKinney, M. 1999. High rates of extinction and threat in poorly studied taxa. *Conserv. Biol.*
640 **13**: 1273–1281.
- 641
- 642 Martín-López, B., González, J.A., and Montes, C. 2011. The pitfall-trap of species
643 conservation priority setting. *Biodiver. Conserv.* **20**(3): 663–82.
- 644
- 645 Martín-López, B., Montes, C., Ramírez, L., and Benayas, J. 2009. What drives policy decision-
646 making related to species conservation? *Biol. Conserv.* **142**: 1370–1380.
- 647
- 648 Mittermeier, R.A. 1988. Primate diversity and the tropical forest: case studies
649 from Brazil and Madagascar and the importance of the megadiversity countries. *In*
650 *Biodiversity. Edited by E.O. Wilson.* National Academies Press, Washington, DC. pp. 145–
651 154.
- 652
- 653 Mittermeier, R.A., Gil, P.R., and Mittermeier, C.G. 1997. Megadiversity: Earth's Biologically
654 Wealthiest Nations. Conservation International, Arlington.
- 655

656 National Environmental Management Act *see* South Africa.

657

658 Pawar, S. 2003. Taxonomic chauvinism and the methodologically challenged. *BioScience* **53**:

659 861.

660

661 Petrie, A. 2020. regclass: Tools for an Introductory Class in Regression and Modeling. R

662 package version 1.6. Available from <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=regclass>

663

664 Ponder, W.F. 1992. Bias and biodiversity. *Aust. Zool.* **28**(1-4): 47–51.

665

666 R Core Team. 2019. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation

667 for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. Available from <https://www.R-project.org/>

668

669 Reimer, A., Mase, A., Mulvaney, K., Mullendore, N., Perry-Hill, R., and Prokopy, L. 2013. The

670 impact of information and familiarity on public attitudes toward the eastern hellbender.

671 *Anim. Conserv.* **17**: 235–243.

672

673 Royle, J.A., and Nichols, J.D. 2003. Estimating abundance from repeated presence–absence

674 data or point counts. *Ecology*. **84**: 777–790.

675

676 Russell, L.M. 1984. The Fauna of India and the Adjacent Countries, Homoptera: Aphidoidea.

677 *Bulletin of the ESA.* **30**(2): 56.

678

679 SANBI Biodiversity Advisor (South African National Biodiversity Institute Biodiversity
680 Advisor). 2020. South African Animal Checklist [online]. Available from
681 [http://biodiversityadvisor.sanbi.org/research-and-modelling/checklists-and-encyclopaedia-](http://biodiversityadvisor.sanbi.org/research-and-modelling/checklists-and-encyclopaedia-of-life/south-african-animal-checklist/)
682 [of-life/south-african-animal-checklist/](http://biodiversityadvisor.sanbi.org/research-and-modelling/checklists-and-encyclopaedia-of-life/south-african-animal-checklist/)). [accessed 21 February 2020].
683
684 Schuetz, J., Soykan, C.U., Distler, T., and Langham, G. 2015. Searching for backyard birds in
685 virtual worlds: Internet queries mirror real species distributions. *Biodivers. Conserv.* **24**:
686 1147–1154. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-014-0847-7>
687
688 Seddon, P., Soorae, P., and Launay, F. 2005. Taxonomic bias in reintroduction projects.
689 *Anim. Conserv.* **8**: 51–58.
690
691 Simberloff, D. 1998. Flagships, umbrellas, and keystones: is single-species management
692 passe in the landscape era? *Biol. Conserv* **83**: 247–257.
693
694 Soberón, J., and Peterson, T. 2004. Biodiversity informatics: managing and applying primary
695 biodiversity data. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B. Biol. Sci.* **359**(1444): 689–698.
696
697 South Africa. 1998. National Environmental Management Act 107 of 1998.
698
699 Stahlschmidt, Z.R. 2011. Taxonomic chauvinism revisited: insight from parental care
700 research. *Plos ONE*. **6**(8): e24192. doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0024192
701

- 702 Tarrant, J., Kruger, D., and Du Preez, L.H. 2016. Do public attitudes affect conservation
703 effort? Using a questionnaire-based survey to assess perceptions, beliefs and superstitions
704 associated with frogs in South Africa. *Afr. Zool.* **51**(1): 3–20.
- 705
- 706 Troudet, J., Grandcolas, P., Blin, A., Vignes-Lebbe, R., and Legendre, F. 2017. Taxonomic bias
707 in biodiversity data and societal preferences. *Sci. Rep.* **7**(1): 9132.
- 708
- 709 Troumbis, A.Y. 2017. Google Trends and cycles of public interest in biodiversity: the animal
710 spirits effect. *Biodivers. Conserv.* 26, 3421–3443. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-017-1413-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-017-1413-x)
711 [x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-017-1413-x)
- 712
- 713 Van Proosdij, A.S., Sosef, M.S., Wieringa, J.J., and Raes, N. 2016. Minimum required number
714 of specimen records to develop accurate species distribution models. *Ecography*, **39**(6):
715 542–552.
- 716
- 717 Venables, W.N., and Ripley, B.D. 2002. *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. 4th ed. Springer,
718 New York, NY. Available from <http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/pub/MASS4>
- 719
- 720 Wickham, H. 2016. *ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis*. Springer-Verlag New York.
- 721
- 722 Wilson, J., Procheş, Ş., Braschler, B., Dixon, E., and Richardson, D. 2007. The (bio)diversity of
723 science reflects the interests of society. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* **5**: 409–414
- 724

725 Zapponi, L., Cini, A., Bardiani, M., Hardersen, S., Maura, M., Maurizi, E., De Zan, L.R., Audisio,
726 P., Bologna, M.A., Carpaneto, G.M., and Roversi, P.F. 2017. Citizen science data as an
727 efficient tool for mapping protected saproxylic beetles. *Biol. Conser.* **208**: 139–145.

Draft

Tables

Table 1: Occurrence data statistics for South African animal taxa arranged alphabetically by class name. The occurrence records obtained from GBIF (2020) are for the period from 1998 to 21 February 2020, and exclude fossil records and occurrences designated as unknown. Total number of known species is obtained from the South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020).

Class*	GBIF occurrence records	Total known species	Median: GBIF occurrence records	Median absolute deviation	Occurrence records to known species ratio
Actinopterygii	14,240	2,200	3	2	6.47
Adenophorea ^a	5		2	2	
Amphibia	1,148	123	4	2	9.33
Anthozoa	534	174	4	3	3.07
Aplacophora ^b		2			
Appendicularia ^b		80			
Arachnida	2,925	6,630	2	1	0.44
Ascidacea	559	176	17	13	3.18
Asteroidea	54	91	1	0	0.59
Aves	15,870,476	854	419	418	18,584
Bivalvia	127	650	1	0	0.20
Branchiopoda	9	120	1	0	0.08
Cephalochordata ^b		1			

Cephalopoda	18	195	2	0	0.09
Cestoda	32	83	1	0	0.39
Chilopoda	147	141	2	1	1.04
Chondrichthyes ^c	549	188	2	1	2.92
Clitellata	78	102	2	1	0.76
Crinoidea	30	19	11	6	1.58
Cubozoa	1	2	1	0	0.50
Demospongiae ^a	409		10	6	
Diplopoda	209	462	8	6	0.45
Echinoidea	18	59	2	0	0.31
Entognatha	10	195	2	2	0.05
Eoacanthocephala ^a	1		1	0	
Eurotatoria ^a	1		1	0	
Gastropoda	553	2,262	1	0	0.24
Gordioidea ^a	2		2	0	
Gymnolaemata ^a	440		4	4	
Hexanauplia ^a	3		1	0	
Holothuroidea	30	122	1	0	0.25
Hydrozoa	203	457	4	3	0.44
Insecta	54,681	43,893	3	2	1.25
Malacostraca	202	1,763	2	2	0.11
Mammalia	617	307	2	1	2.01
Maxillopoda	12	511	1	0	0.02

Monogenea	9	49	2	0	0.18
Myxini	7	4	2	1	1.75
Ophiuroidea	128	119	2	1	1.08
Ostracoda	18	165	1	0	0.11
Pauropoda ^b		2			
Phylactolaemata ^a	17		2	1	
Polychaeta	9	760	1	0	0.01
Polyplacophora	7	29	1	0	0.24
Pycnogonida	5	101	5	0	0.05
Reptilia	3,181	381	4	3	8.35
Rhynchonellata ^a	30		15	14	
Sarcopterygii	17	3	17	0	5.67
Scaphopoda	2	16	1	0	0.13
Scyphozoa ^b		10			
Secernentea ^a	166		1	0	
Stenolaemata ^a	55		1	0	
Symphyla ^a	1		1	0	
Trematoda	58	72	2	1	0.81
Turbellaria ^b		42			
Unassigned ^d	770	-	-	-	-
Total	15,952,803	63,615	578	497	18,638.15

* Taxon names copied verbatim from GBIF (2020) and South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020), some classes on this list are paraphyletic.

^a Taxa not listed on South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020).

^b No records submitted to GBIF during this study's period of interest.

^c Listed as two separate classes on GBIF, namely Elasmobranchii and Holocephali.

^d Animal occurrence records that were not assigned to any class or lower taxonomic level

Draft

Table 2: Occurrence data statistics for South Africa’s herpetofaunal taxa. The table is arranged alphabetically by class, then family. These occurrence records are obtained from GBIF (2020) for the period from 1998 to 21 February 2020, and exclude fossil records and occurrences designated as unknown. The total number of known species is obtained from the South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020).

Family*	GBIF occurrence records	Total known species	Median: GBIF occurrence records	Median absolute deviation	Occurrence records to known species ratio
Amphibians					
Arthroleptidae	7	5	3	0	1.40
Brevicipitidae	62	15	2	1	4.13
Bufonidae	168	17	5	3	9.88
Heleophrynidae	13	7	2	1	1.86
Hemisotidae	3	3	2	0	1.00
Hyperoliidae	63	18	4	1	3.50
Microhylidae	15	2	8	2	7.50
Phrynobatrachidae	15	3	6	4	3.00
Pipidae	221	3	11	9	73.67
Ptychadenidae	15	10	2	2	1.50
Pyxicephalidae	559	39	4	3	14.33
Rhacophoridae	7	1	7	0	7.00
Total	1,148	123	56	26	128.16

Reptiles					
Agamidae	182	7	7	2	26.00
Amphisbaenidae	9	10	2	1	0.90
Chamaeleonidae	103	21	8	7	4.90
Cheloniidae ^a	0	4	0		
Colubridae	179	68	2	2	2.63
Cordylidae	184	44	2	2	4.18
Crocodylidae	1	1	1	0	1.00
Dermochelyidae ^a	0	1			
Elapidae	70	15	2	2	4.67
Gekkonidae	856	71	5	4	12.06
Gerrhosauridae	80	13	3	2	6.15
Hydrophiidae ^a	0	1			
Lacertidae	157	25	5	3	6.28
Lamprophiidae	407	12	5	3	33.92
Leptotyphlopidae	46	8	10	8	5.75
Pelomedusidae	18	5	9	2	3.60
Pythonidae	11	1	11	0	11.00
Scincidae	556	65	5	4	8.55
Testudinidae	159	15	2	1	10.60
Typhlopidae	45	9	1	0	5.00
Varanidae	24	2	10	3	12.00
Viperidae	94	13	8	6	7.23

Total	3,181	411	98	52	166.42
--------------	--------------	------------	-----------	-----------	---------------

* Family names copied verbatim from GBIF (2020) and South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020).

^a No records submitted to GBIF for this study’s focal timespan.

Draft

Table 3: Generalised Linear Model results for assessing correlations between the dependent variable (GBIF occurrence records of herpetofaunal families) and two explanatory variables (cultural salience and scientific interest) and their combined influence. (*) indicates a significant p-value at 5% threshold. (+) and (-) respectively indicate positive and negative correlation of explanatory variable with number of GBIF occurrence records.

Herpetofaunal family^a	Cultural salience influence p-value	Scientific interest influence p-value	Interaction influence p-value
Brevicipitidae	(+) 0.002*	(+) 1.356	(-) 0.004*
Bufonidae	(+) 0.003*	(+) 0.093	(-) 0.000*
Colubridae	(+) 0.002*	(-) 0.549	(-) 0.000*
Cordylidae	(+) 0.004*	(+) 0.298	(-) 0.000*
Elapidae	(+) 0.001*	(+) 0.245	(-) 0.000*
Gekkonidae	(+) 0.001*	(+) 0.463	(+) 0.000*
Lacertidae	(+) 0.003*	(+) 0.537	(-) 0.001*
Lamprophiidae	(+) 0.001*	(+) 1.122	(-) 0.001*
Pyxicephalidae	(+) 0.002*	(+) 0.834	(-) 0.001*
Scincidae	(+) 0.001*	(-) 0.165	(-) 0.001*
Testudinidae	(+) 0.002*	(+) 0.079	(-) 0.000*

^a Family names copied verbatim from GBIF (2020) and South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020).

Table 4: Comparison of extinction risk with cultural salience and scientific interest of South African animal taxa. Columns arranged by ascending order of the magnitude of cultural salience and scientific interest out of the 49 classes under review here.

Cultural salience	IUCN	Threatened	Known species ⁺
ranking*	Taxonomic	Species	
grouping			
1	Birds	54	854
2	Mammals	30	307
3	Molluscs ^a	22	3107
4	Fishes ^{b,c}	128	2395
6	Reptiles ^b	19	381
8	Amphibians	16	132
Scientific interest	IUCN	Threatened	Known species ⁺
ranking*	Taxonomic	Species	
grouping			
2	Fishes ^{b,c}	128	2395
4	Mammals	30	307
5	Molluscs ^a	22	3107
8	Reptiles ^b	19	381
11	Birds	54	854
12	Amphibians	16	132

* Ranking out of the 49 classes in this study’s sample.

⁺ Number of known species obtained from the South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020).

^a Molluscs collectively refers to Gastropoda, Bivalvia, Cephalopoda.

^b The conservation status of these taxonomic groupings has not been fully assessed. Numbers of threatened species should be interpreted as the number of species known to be threatened within those species that have been assessed, and not as the overall number of threatened species within a grouping (IUCN 2020).

^c Fishes collectively refers to Actinopterygii, Chondrichthyes, Myxini, and Sarcopterygii.

Draft

Figure Captions

Fig. 1: Taxonomic bias in South African animal classes. The number ‘1’ on the horizontal axis represents the point where occurrence records are equal to total number of species per class. Ordering is by decreasing ratio of representation where, value >1 denotes over-representation and value <1 denotes underrepresentation of a class in GBIF occurrence records. Log transformation is used on the horizontal axis due to disparities between least and most represented species. The dashed section suggests a 10-30 occurrence per species threshold that would be ideal for various biodiversity data uses. Taxa with no records submitted to GBIF (2020) for this study’s timespan or not listed on the South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020) are omitted from this graph as it was not possible to calculate their occurrence records to known species ratio.

Fig. 2: Correlations of GBIF occurrence records with cultural salience and scientific interest of South African Animal taxa. The occurrence records of South African taxa obtained from GBIF (2020) are plotted on the vertical axis. Cultural salience is represented by frequency of taxon names in web pages, and scientific interest is represented by number of scientific articles focused on a taxon are plotted on the horizontal axis. Axes are Log transformed due to disparities among the plotted variables. Circled points represent outliers.

Fig. 1 Taxonomic bias in South African animal classes. The number '1' on the horizontal axis represents the point where occurrence records are equal to total number of species per class. Ordering is by decreasing ratio of representation where, value >1 denotes over-representation and value <1 denotes underrepresentation of a class in GBIF occurrence records. Log transformation is used on the horizontal axis due to disparities between least and most represented species. The dashed section suggests a 10-30 occurrence per species threshold that would be ideal for various biodiversity data uses. Taxa with no records submitted to GBIF (2020) for this study's timespan or not listed on the South African Animal Checklist (SANBI Biodiversity Advisor 2020) are omitted from this graph as it was not possible to calculate their occurrence records to known species ratio.

Fig. 2: Correlations of GBIF occurrence records with cultural salience and scientific interest of South African Animal taxa. The occurrence records of South African taxa obtained from GBIF (2020) are plotted on the vertical axis. Cultural salience is represented by frequency of taxon names in web pages, and scientific interest is represented by number of scientific articles focused on a taxon are plotted on the horizontal axis. Axes are Log transformed due to disparities among the plotted variables. Circled points represent outliers.