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Defining endemism levels for biodiversity conservation: tree species in the Atlantic Forest hotspot — [Source link](#)

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1 **Defining endemism levels for biodiversity conservation: tree species in** 2 **the Atlantic Forest hotspot**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 Endemic species are important for biodiversity conservation. Yet, quantifying
6 endemism remains challenging because endemism concepts can be too strict (i.e., pure
7 endemism) or too subjective (i.e., near endemism). We propose a data-driven approach
8 to objectively estimate the proportion of records inside a given the target area (i.e.,
9 endemism level) that optimizes the separation of near-endemics from non-endemic
10 species. We apply this approach to the Atlantic Forest tree flora using millions of
11 herbarium records retrieved from multiple sources. We first report an updated checklist
12 of 5044 species for the Atlantic Forest tree flora and then we compare how species-
13 specific endemism levels obtained from herbarium data match species-specific
14 endemism accepted by taxonomists. We show that an endemism level of 90% separates
15 well pure and near-endemic from non-endemic species, which in the Atlantic Forest
16 revealed an overall endemism ratio of 45% for its tree flora. We also found that the
17 diversity of pure and near endemics and of endemics and overall species was congruent
18 in space. Our results for the Atlantic Forest reinforce that pure and near endemic species
19 can be combined to quantify regional endemism and therefore to set conservation
20 priorities taking into account endemic species distribution. We provided general
21 guidelines on how the proposed approach can be used to assess endemism levels of
22 regional biotas in other parts of the world.

23

24 **Keywords:** biodiversity hotspot, endemism centers, endemism ratio, near endemism,
25 occasional species, plant conservation

26 **1. Introduction**

27 One common practice in biodiversity conservation is to focus on species with high
28 conservation value, such as species threatened with extinction (i.e., threatened species)
29 or those exclusive to a given region or habitat (i.e., endemic species). Threatened and
30 endemic species are important for conservation because they have a greater extinction
31 risk than other species (Brooks et al., 2006; Myers et al., 2000; Peterson and Watson,
32 1998). In addition, the spatial patterns of total and endemic species richness can be
33 congruent (Kier et al., 2009; Bonn et al., 2002; Storch et al., 2012), so prioritizing the
34 protection of areas with high-levels of endemism could also safeguard the remaining
35 biodiversity. However, there have been more efforts to delimit threatened species than
36 endemic ones. Threatened species are grouped by clearly-defined categories, enclosed
37 by objective criteria (IUCN, 2018), while species often are classified simply as being
38 endemic or not.

39 There are proposals to divide endemics species based on spatial scale (e.g.,
40 narrow, regional and continental endemics), evolutionary history (e.g., neo and paleo
41 endemics) or habitat specificity (e.g., edaphic endemics; Ferreira and Boldrini, 2011;
42 Kruckeberg and Rabinowitz, 1985; Peterson and Watson, 1998). These proposals,
43 however, implicitly assume that all individuals of a species are confined to a given
44 region or habitat, also known as true or pure endemism (Tyler, 1996). If one record is
45 found outside the target region, the species is to be (re)classified as non-endemic. Since
46 pure endemism is rather strict, the term near-endemism has been used to describe
47 species with few records outside the target region (Matthews et al., 1993; Carbutt and
48 Edwards 2006; Platts et al., 2011; Noroozi et al., 2018). Near-endemics are the result of
49 rare dispersal events, temporary establishment in different habitats or the existence
50 small satellite populations (Matthews et al., 1993; Perera et al., 2011). It is important to

51 emphasize that both types of endemism refer to species restricted to a specific area or
52 habitat, which does not necessarily imply species with small extent of occurrence
53 (<20,000 km² *sensu* IUCN, 2018) or low local abundance (Rabinowitz, 1981).

54 The differentiation between pure and near endemics is challenging, because it
55 may not be stable in time: near endemics can become pure endemics if habitat loss is
56 higher outside than inside the target region (Carbutt and Edwards, 2006). Conversely,
57 pure endemics may become near endemics with the accumulation of knowledge on their
58 geographical distribution (Werneck et al., 2011). This is particularly true for
59 geographically-restricted species, which often have scarce occurrence data.
60 Furthermore, pure endemics may be classified as near endemics due to species
61 misidentifications (Carbutt and Edwards, 2006) or by a questionable delimitation of the
62 target region (Platts et al., 2011). In practice, conservation aims at protecting as many
63 individuals as possible for a given species (IUCN, 2018). So, the differentiation
64 between pure and near endemism may have little impact to plan conservation actions.
65 Therefore, the question is: how to distinguish both groups of endemic species from non-
66 endemic species? Defining pure endemism is straightforward, but separating near-
67 endemics from non-endemic species can be quite subjective.

68 Here we propose a data-driven approach to objectively separate near-endemic
69 from non-endemic species for conservation purposes. This approach can also be used to
70 separate widespread species from occasional species, i.e., species frequent in other
71 regions but sporadic in a given target region (Barlow et al., 2010). Therefore, its main
72 goal is to classify species occurring inside a target region into pure-endemics, near-
73 endemics, widespread and occasional species, which is done based on their ratio of
74 occurrences inside the target region. As an example, we apply this approach to the
75 Atlantic Forest, a global biodiversity hotspot with abundant knowledge on the

76 taxonomy and distribution of its flora. We focus on the Atlantic Forest arborescent
77 flora, a plant growth form which is well represented in biological collections (Daru et
78 al., 2018). Using millions of carefully curated occurrences from over 500 collections
79 around the world, we evaluate which ratio of occurrences inside the Atlantic Forest
80 match species-specific endemism accepted by taxonomic experts. Finally, we illustrate
81 the implications of the proposed approach to assess endemism ratio, to support on-the-
82 ground conservation actions and to provide additional layer of information to existing
83 tools of spatial prioritization.

84

85 **2. Material and methods**

86 **2.1 An objective approach to delimit species endemism**

87 Here, we formalize the six steps of the proposed approach to objectively classify species
88 endemism levels, which can be applied in respect to any target region based on the
89 distribution of species occurrence records (Figure 1).

90

91 *2.1.1 Define the target area*

92 Species endemism cannot be assessed without defining a geographical area. This area
93 can be a region, domain or a habitat, but endemism is always relative and scale-
94 dependent (Laffan and Crisp, 2003). Although many countries may want to produce
95 their list of endemic species, it is recommended to use natural rather than political
96 boundaries to define the geographical extent of the target area (Ferreira and Boldrini,
97 2011). If the target area is facing changes, such as an increasing loss of natural habitats,
98 specifying the time window over which the target area is being considered may be
99 relevant.

100

101 *2.1.2 Define the target organism(s)*

102 Assessing the endemism of all living species is too time-consuming or data-limited for
103 many taxa. Therefore, one needs to restrict the assessment to one or fewer taxa, that
104 may be chosen according to their taxonomy (e.g., genus, family), or according to their
105 life form, ecology (e.g., ecological guild), function (e.g., trophic levels) or conservation
106 value (e.g., threatened species). Once the target organisms were defined, it is important
107 to build a comprehensive list of names for all species occurring inside the target area.
108 This list that should include synonyms and orthographical variants of the valid species
109 names, to increase changes of occurrence data retrieval. If this a list of names is not
110 available, a list of localities containing the target area (e.g., country names) can be used
111 to generate a list of organisms potentially occurring inside the target area.

112

113 *2.1.3 Obtain species occurrence data*

114 After defining the input list of names to search for species occurrences, it is necessary to
115 define the data sources, which can be primary sources (e.g., personal field collections),
116 secondary sources (e.g., biological collections, floras) or both. In the case of large
117 databases of secondary sources (e.g., GBIF) and/or large number of taxa, the number of
118 occurrences available may be large (thousands to millions). So, the use of automatized
119 tools for data download and documentation may be needed (Chamberlain et al., 2020).

120

121 *2.1.4 Validate occurrence data*

122 Particularly when using data from multiple secondary sources, it is important to validate
123 the information accompanying the occurrences, such as the collector name and number,
124 collection locality and geographical coordinates. In the case of two or more biological
125 collections, the removal of duplicated specimens across collections is advised.

126 Depending on the characteristics of the data sources, one may need to remove spatial
127 duplicates (e.g., records from the same localities) or spatial outliers (probable errors
128 placed too far away from species core distributions). Another important validation step
129 is to define the accepted confidence level of the taxonomic identification of each
130 occurrence (e.g., use only identifications performed by taxonomists).

131

132 *2.1.5 Calculate species endemism levels*

133 Next step simply is the count of the number of valid occurrences inside and outside the
134 target area(s). This can be done by aggregating occurrences by locality names or by
135 crossing a map of the target area with the geographical coordinates of the occurrences.
136 The simplest endemism level metric possible is the number of valid occurrences inside
137 the target area over the total number of occurrences retrieved for each taxon. If there is
138 uncertainty on the delimitation of the boundaries of the target area (e.g., low-resolution
139 map), the occurrences falling close to these boundaries may need a differential
140 treatment to avoid biases on species classifications due to imprecise boundary
141 delimitation (Platts et al., 2011).

142

143 *2.1.6 Classify species for conservation planning*

144 The empirical levels of species endemism calculated in the previous step can be used as
145 a metric of species endemism in itself or as means to classify species into categories
146 according to their degree of endemism. For instance, if all records occur inside the
147 target area the species can be classified as pure endemic and if the majority of the
148 records occur outside, the species can be classified as occasional. One needs to assume
149 (or estimate, see example below) thresholds of endemism level to separate near

150 endemics and occasional from other species. Ideally, the classification should be
151 compared to existing classifications of species endemism for validation.

152

153 **2.2 A case study: tree species in the Atlantic Forest**

154 We applied this approach to the arborescent flora of the Atlantic Forest biodiversity
155 hotspot in eastern South America (see Supplementary Material for full details).

156

157 *2.2.1 Target area and organisms.*

158 The Atlantic Forest originally covered ca. 136 million hectares in three different
159 countries, Argentina, Brazil and Paraguay (geographical range: 4–34° S latitude, 35–57°
160 W longitude – Figure S1a). Therefore, we searched for species occurrence data using a
161 list of species names occurring in South America, compiled from different sources
162 (Zuloaga et al., 2008; Oliveira-Filho, 2010; Grandtner and Chevrette 2013; Lima et al.,
163 2015; Zappi et al., 2015; ter Steege et al., 2016). Here we considered only a part of the
164 Atlantic Forest biota, the arborescent species, hereafter referred simply as trees. We
165 considered tree species occurrences in all Atlantic Forest types, which include
166 evergreen, semi-deciduous, deciduous, mixed temperate (locally known as *Araucaria*
167 forests), white-sand (‘Restingas’ and ‘Mussunungas’), alluvial, cloud and swamp
168 forests, as well as in rocky field and inselberg vegetation. Arborescent species are
169 relatively well represented in herbaria (Daru et al., 2018) and they are defined here as
170 species with free-standing stems exceeding 5 cm of diameter at breast height (1.3 m) or
171 4 m in total height, including arborescent palms, cactus, tree ferns, and woody bamboos.
172 Moreover, some tall shrubs and treelets are included here under the term trees. We
173 carefully inspected the input list of names to avoid the inclusion of exotic and non-
174 arborescent species.

175

176 *2.2.2 Retrieval and validation of occurrence data.*

177 The list of South American tree names was used to download occurrence data from
178 multiple secondary sources, namely *speciesLink* (www.splink.org.br), JABOT
179 (<http://jabot.jbrj.gov.br>, Silva et al., 2017), ‘Portal de Datos de Biodiversidad Argentina’
180 (<https://datos.sndb.mincyt.gob.ar>) and the Global Biodiversity Information Facility
181 (GBIF.org, 2019). We excluded all occurrences described in the specimen notes as
182 being cultivated or exotic. We checked names for typos, orthographical variants and
183 synonyms in the Brazilian Flora 2020 (BF-2020) project (Filardi et al., 2018; Zappi et
184 al., 2015). Decisions for unresolved names were made by consulting Tropicos
185 (www.tropicos.org) or the World Checklist of Selected Plant Families
186 (<http://wmsp.science.kew.org>).

187 There was much variation of the notation across herbaria, on the locality details
188 provided and on the precision of the geographical coordinates among the millions of
189 records retrieved (Appendix A). Therefore, we conducted a detailed data cleaning and
190 validation procedure (see Supplementary Material for details). We standardized the
191 notation of different fields (e.g., locality description, collector and identifier names,
192 collection and identification dates), which were then used to (i) search for duplicate
193 specimens among herbaria; (ii) validate the geographical coordinates at country, state
194 and/or county levels and (iii) to assess the confidence level of the identification of each
195 specimen (i.e., ‘validated’ and ‘probably validated’ identifications - Appendix B).
196 Moreover, (iv) we cross-validated information of duplicate specimens across herbaria to
197 obtain missing or more precise coordinates and/or valid specimen identifications.
198 Finally, (iv) we removed specimens too distant from their core distributions (i.e., spatial

199 outliers), which are often related to specimens collected from cultivated individuals but
200 that are not declared so by the collectors.

201

202 *2.2.3 Calculating species endemism levels.*

203 We calculated an empirical level of endemism based on the position of records for each
204 species in respect to the Atlantic Forest limits (Olson and Dinerstein, 2002; IBGE,
205 2012). Each record was assigned as being inside, outside or in the transition of the
206 Atlantic Forest to other domains (see details in Figure S1b). Records in the transition
207 were those falling inside the Atlantic Forest limits, but in counties with less than 90% of
208 its area inside the Atlantic Forest or vice-versa. Because of the variable precision of the
209 specimen's coordinates and of the uncertainty of the boundary delimitation at the scale
210 of our target area map (1:5,000,000), records in the transition received half the weight
211 other records to calculated species endemism levels:

$$212 \quad 100 \times \left(O_{in} + O_{ti}/2 \right) / \left(O_{in} + O_{ti}/2 + O_{out} + O_{to}/2 \right),$$

213 where, O_{in} , O_{ti} , O_{out} and O_{to} are the number of specimens inside, inside in the transition,
214 outside and outside in the transition to the Atlantic Forest, respectively. This endemism
215 level is actually a weighted proportion of occurrences inside the Atlantic Forest by the
216 total of valid occurrences found, varying from 0 (no occurrences) to 100% (all
217 occurrences inside the Atlantic Forest).

218 We then obtained the endemism classification derived from the expertise of
219 taxonomists working on the BF-2020 project (Filardi et al., 2018), the best reference
220 currently available for the Atlantic Forest flora. Each species was classified as
221 'endemic' if the BF-2020 field 'phytogeographic domain' contained only the term
222 'Atlantic Rainforest' (equivalent to what we refer here as Atlantic Forest with all of its
223 forest types). Correspondingly, a species was classified as 'occasional' if this field did

224 not include this term. Species with no information on the ‘phytogeographic domain’
225 were omitted from this analysis.

226 The comparison between the empirical classification of species endemism and
227 the reference BF-2020 classification was based on thresholds values varying from 0 to
228 100%, in intervals of 1% (i.e., 0, 1, ..., 99, 100%). If a given species had an observed
229 endemism level equal or higher than a given threshold, it was classified as ‘endemic’.
230 For each threshold value, we calculated the number of mismatches between the two
231 classifications (i.e., species classified as ‘endemic’ in the BF-2020 and ‘not endemic’
232 from the observed endemism level or vice-versa). The same procedure was used to
233 calculate the number of mismatches for occasional species. We then plotted the number
234 of mismatches against all thresholds and estimated the optimum threshold that
235 minimizes the number of mismatches between classifications. Optimum thresholds were
236 estimated using piecewise regression, allowing up to five segments (i.e., four breaking
237 points). Thus, we provided the breaking point of each curve (and its 95% confidence
238 interval). We compared the results using only taxonomically ‘validated’ and using both
239 taxonomically ‘validated’ and ‘probably validated’ records.

240

241 *2.2.4 Species classification and implications for conservation planning*

242 We used the optimum threshold values obtained above to classify species into pure
243 endemics, near endemics, widespread and occasional species. Because endemic species
244 are not necessarily narrowly distributed and occasional species may be frequent
245 elsewhere, this terminology tried to reflect broad patterns of species occurrence in
246 respect to the target region (pure and near endemics: all or nearly all occurrences within
247 the target region; widespread: species with many occurrences both within and outside
248 the target area; occasional: species with most occurrences outside the target area). We

249 then used this classification to delimit the centers of diversity for each group of species
250 (Laffan and Crisp, 2003). In order to do so, we plotted the valid occurrences of each
251 group of species against a 50×50 km grid covering the Atlantic Forest and surrounding
252 domains. Next, we obtained different diversity metrics for each group of species per
253 grid cell. We selected two metrics with best performance to describe our data (Figures
254 S2 and S3): corrected weighted endemism (WE) and rarefied/extrapolated richness
255 (S_{RE}). The WE is the species richness weighted by the inverse of the number of cells
256 where the species is present, divided by cell richness (Crisp et al., 2001). The S_{RE} is the
257 rarefied/extrapolated richness (depending on the observed number of occurrences per
258 cell) for a common number of 100 occurrences, calculated based on the species
259 frequencies per cell (Chao et al., 2014). We also obtained the sample coverage estimate
260 (Chao and Jost, 2012), used here as a proxy of sample completeness. We evaluated the
261 relationship of the diversity of endemic and occasional species with overall species
262 diversity using spatial regression models (i.e., linear regression with spatially correlated
263 errors - Pinheiro and Bates, 2000). Centers of diversity were delimited using ordinary
264 kriging and only the grid cells meeting some minimum criteria of sampling coverage
265 (see Supplementary Material). We used the 80% quantile of predicted distributions to
266 delimit the centers of endemism.

267

268 **3. Results**

269 The search for occurrence records based on this input list of tree names resulted in a
270 total of 3.11 million records from 543 collections (Appendix A). After the removal of
271 duplicates, spatial outliers and the geographical and taxonomic validation, we retained
272 593,920 valid records (disregarding records with ‘probably validated’ taxonomy) for the
273 classification of species endemism. We found 252,911 valid records being collected

274 inside the Atlantic Forest limits, which contained a total of 5044 arborescent species
275 (4054 species excluding tall shrubs; Appendix C). If we consider the valid occurrences
276 in the transitions of the Atlantic Forest to other domains, we could add 294 species as
277 probably occurring in the Atlantic Forest (Appendix D). Another 3158 names were
278 retrieved but were finally excluded from the list for different reasons (e.g., synonyms,
279 typos, orthographical variants, species not occurring naturally in the Atlantic Forest,
280 etc.; Appendix E).

281 Based on the valid records retrieved for the Atlantic Forest, we found evidence
282 of pure endemism (i.e., endemism level= 100%) for 1547 tree species (31%; Appendix
283 F). We found that 90.2% of records inside the Atlantic Forest (95% Confidence
284 Interval, CI: 89.3–91.2%) was the threshold of endemism level that best matched the
285 endemism currently accepted by taxonomy experts (Figure 2a). The curve of
286 mismatches between the observed and reference classifications decreases until it reaches
287 a minimum and then it increases again, meaning that more or less restrictive thresholds
288 lead to an increase the number of mismatches. The 90.2% threshold in the Atlantic
289 Forest added 733 near endemic species (15%). Together, pure and near endemics lead to
290 an overall endemism ratio of 45.2% for the Atlantic Forest arborescent flora (Figure 2b)
291 and 1.01 endemic arborescent species per 100 km² of remaining forest (i.e., 2261.2 km²;
292 Fundación Vida Silvestre Argentina and WWF, 2017). Conversely, we found that 8.7%
293 (95% CI: 8.2–9.3%) was the best threshold for separating occasional from widespread
294 species occurring in the Atlantic Forest (Figure 2a), leading to a total of 639 occasional
295 species (13%). The remaining 42% of the species were classified as widespread
296 (Appendix F). Results using only occurrences with taxonomy flagged as ‘validated’
297 were similar (pure endemism: 32%; near endemism: 15%; occasional species: 14%,
298 widespread species: 39% - Figure S4, Appendix F).

299 The diversity of endemic species was strongly correlated with the overall species
300 diversity in the Atlantic Forest (Figure 3). There was also a strong and positive
301 correlation between the number of pure and near endemic species (Figure S5), meaning
302 that the centers of diversity of pure and near endemics are highly congruent in space.
303 The diversity of pure endemics was higher in the rainforests along the coast (Figure 4),
304 corresponding to the rainforests of the Serra do Mar and Bahia Coastal Forests
305 ecoregions (Olson and Dinerstein, 2002). The inclusion of near endemics expanded the
306 diversity of endemic species towards more inland parts of the Atlantic Forest, but
307 spatial patterns remained quite similar (Figure 4 and Figures S6-S8). This expansion
308 was more conspicuous in the colder Araucaria forests in the southern Atlantic Forest,
309 but not to the point of including these forests as centers of diversity (i.e., areas with the
310 80% higher values). On the other hand, occasional species were really rare in the
311 Araucaria forests. Most of the distribution of occasional species was concentrated in the
312 Brazilian Cerrado, but also in the Amazon and slightly less in the Caatinga domain.
313 General patterns were fairly similar when using other diversity measures (Figures S6-
314 S8).

315

316 **4. Discussion**

317 **4.1 Describing species endemism**

318 Near endemism has been used to assess endemism levels of regional floras and faunas.
319 However, such assessments often use loose (Carbutt and Edwards, 2006; Platts et al.,
320 2011) or arbitrary definitions (Perera et al., 2011; Noroozi et al., 2018) of near
321 endemics. Here, we propose and apply an objective approach to find that 90% of the
322 occurrences inside a target region can be used to tell apart endemic species from non-
323 endemic species, a result supported by endemism classifications performed by

324 taxonomic experts. This 90% limit has one important implication: the average
325 endemism concept adopted by taxonomic experts implicitly includes the concept of near
326 endemism, at least for the Atlantic Forest. Indeed, the overall endemism ratio found
327 here for pure and near endemics combined (45%) is within the range of 40-50%
328 endemism level previously reported for the flora of this biodiversity hotspot (Myers et
329 al., 2000; Stehmann et al., 2009; Zappi et al., 2015). Thus, we propose that pure and
330 near endemics can be used together to objectively delimit endemism or as two
331 categories of endemism, similarly to what already exists for the categories of species
332 threat (IUCN, 2018). Moreover, conservation funding is not always aligned with the
333 degree of species endemism (Martín-López et al., 2009), despite the civic and scientific
334 awareness of the role of endemics for prioritizing conservation (Myers et al., 2000;
335 Brooks et al., 2006; Meuser et al., 2009; see Scarano, 2009 for a different point of
336 view). Thus, we hope that the quantitative description of endemism proposed here can
337 help to bridge the scarcity of conservation actions using information on species
338 endemism.

339 The threshold of 90% found here was also used to assess plant endemism in the
340 Mediterranean Basin biodiversity hotspot (Médail and Baumel, 2018), suggesting that
341 this threshold could be used in the assessment of plant endemism of other species-rich
342 regions. However, we did not find similar assessments in the literature to confirm this
343 suggestion. Thus, although our approach to delimit species endemism is objective and
344 more comprehensive than pure endemism, similar assessments in other parts of the
345 world and for other groups of species are still needed. We provide a workflow to
346 perform such assessments, which would require (i) a list of species names, (ii) available
347 sources of occurrence data, (iii) a data cleaning/validation pipeline, (iv) a digitized map
348 of the study area, and (v) a classification of endemism based on taxonomists expertise.

349 Online occurrence data sources (e.g., GBIF) and tools to download data (e.g.,
350 Chamberlain et al., 2020) and validate their geographical coordinates (e.g., Zizka et al.,
351 2019) are becoming increasingly available. Here, we propose a simple but efficient way
352 to validate the taxonomic determinations of specimens (see Supplementary Material).
353 The bottleneck for applying this approach remains on the availability of regional lists of
354 species names and on the quantity and accessibility of data from local collections
355 (Boakes et al., 2010). These constraints may become more restrictive in species-rich and
356 less economically developed regions. The Atlantic Forest, used here as a testing ground
357 to our proposed approach, combines one of the largest number of species occurrences
358 available for the tropics (see details below), with one of the most completed national
359 floras (i.e., expert endemism information available – Brazilian Flora project) and
360 herbaria networks (e.g., *speciesLink*, JABOT).

361

362 **4.2 Implications for conservation**

363 The application of our approach to the tree flora of the Atlantic Forest offers insights on
364 how it can be used for supporting the conservation of local floras or faunas. The first
365 insight is related to the total number of species reported to a given region. The Atlantic
366 Forest is arguably the tropical forest with one of the largest botanical knowledge
367 available, with ca. 680,000 unique specimens of tree species, or 42 specimens per 100
368 km² – average collection density in the Amazon forest is below 10 per 100 km² (ter
369 Steege et al., 2016). Nevertheless, we over 700 new valid occurrences of tree species for
370 this biodiversity hotspot, an increase of 21% to the 3343 trees previously reported by
371 the Brazilian Flora 2020 project (Zappi et al., 2015). About 47% of these new records
372 were represented by occasional species, which correspond to 13% of the total richness
373 of the Atlantic Forest tree flora. This result confirms that occasional species, despite of

374 their infrequency, make an important contribution to overall biodiversity of regional
375 biotas (Barlow et al., 2010; ter Steege et al., 2019). But more importantly, 53% of the
376 new records correspond to widespread species and endemic species. An increase of 16%
377 in the total richness was also observed for the Espírito Santo state flora compared to the
378 reported in the Brazilian Flora (Dutra et al., 2015). The Brazilian Flora 2020 project is
379 permanently being improved and is of utmost importance for the understanding of the
380 Brazilian flora (Zappi et al., 2015; Filardi et al., 2018), the richest in the world (Ulloa et
381 al., 2017). Here, we provide products that can be readily integrated into the Brazilian
382 Flora project (e.g., more refined endemism filters), illustrating how data-driven
383 approaches as the one proposed here can help to refine the knowledge of regional floras,
384 even in regions with a great knowledge about its flora, promoting the accumulation of
385 critical knowledge to support biodiversity conservation.

386 Another possible application of the approach is the detection of centers of
387 endemic species diversity. In the Atlantic Forest example provided here, the centers
388 detected were congruent with previous proposals, which suggested areas of high
389 endemism in the moist and rain forests between the Brazilian states of São Paulo and
390 Rio de Janeiro and between Espírito Santo and Bahia states (Thomas et al., 1998;
391 Murray-Smith et al., 2009). However, our results provided evidence that the coastal
392 lowland forests in the states of Paraná and Santa Catarina (PR-SC) should also be
393 included as important centers of tree endemism for the Atlantic Forest. In accordance to
394 Murray-Smith et al. (2009), we found no strong support for the existence of an area of
395 endemism along the coastal and '*brejo de altitude*' forests in Paraíba, Pernambuco and
396 Alagoas states (Thomas et al., 1998), at least not at the spatial scale used here (50×50
397 km). The Atlantic Forests of northeast Brazil are closer or are surrounded by seasonally
398 dry vegetation (i.e., *Caatinga*) and they share many floristic elements with Amazon

399 forests (Santos et al., 2007), which could lead to the lower endemism levels found for
400 the species occurring in this part of the Atlantic Forest.

401 The provision of lists of species along with their degree of endemism can
402 support the selection of species for conservation projects (Martín-López et al., 2009;
403 Meuser et al., 2009). These projects could be related to on-the-ground actions targeting
404 individual species (e.g., Martins, 2014 or www.saveourspecies.org) or to restoration
405 plans aiming at the maximization of biodiversity conservation outcomes while restoring
406 ecosystem services (Brancalion et al., 2018). Moreover, since range-restricted endemics
407 are probably also threatened, existing initiatives such as the Brazilian Alliance for
408 Extinction Zero (www.biodiversitas.org.br/baze) could incorporate the information on
409 degree of endemism in their species selection methods. It is important to emphasize
410 that not only the degree of endemism should be taken into account in the selection of
411 species for conservation projects. Widespread species may play important functional
412 roles in natural ecosystems, so they should be included in conservation projects as well
413 (Scarano, 2009).

414 The delimitation of centers of endemic diversity also has direct implications for
415 conservation planning. For instance, they can assist the identification of Important Plant
416 Areas (IPA), provided by the Target 5 of the Global Strategy for Plant Conservation
417 (www.cbd.int/gspc), or of Key Biodiversity Areas (KBA -
418 www.keybiodiversityareas.org). Although the delimitation of IPAs and KBAs predicts
419 the use of endemic species, their definition is mainly based on the presence of
420 threatened species. Also, IPAs are highly concentrated non-tropical regions of the
421 northern hemisphere (www.plantlifeipa.org). Our data driven approach, based on
422 careful data curation, proved to be efficient to identify areas of high endemism in one
423 of the richest tropical floras of the world and could be used to expand the IPA and KBA

424 programs. In the specific case of the Atlantic Forest, which has less than 20% of its
425 original forest cover, conservation actions are urgently needed. When combined with
426 other layers of information (e.g., socio-economic), maps of endemic species diversity
427 can be used as an additional layer of biodiversity information in existing tools of spatial
428 prioritization (e.g., Brancalion et al., 2019; Strassburg et al., 2019), aiming to pinpoint
429 remaining natural areas that should be protected or degraded lands that could be
430 prioritized in restoration actions. This suggestion is reinforced by the spatial congruence
431 found between the diversity of endemic and non-endemic tree species, meaning that
432 conservation of areas with high-levels of endemism could also safeguard a great deal of
433 the remaining Atlantic Forest tree flora (Kier et al., 2009; Bonn et al., 2002). Thus,
434 considering that defining threatened and endemic species have the same constraints
435 related to data availability and to the time and spatial scale considered (Ferreira and
436 Boldrini, 2011), the detection of endemics is more straightforward than threatened
437 species, which could speed up the decision-making process for conservation in rich
438 tropical biotas around the world.

439

440 **Data Availability**

441 All data providers and their citations are given in Appendix A. GBIF data used in the
442 analysis is also provided in the references.

443

444 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

445 Renato A. F. de Lima: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation,
446 Funding acquisition, Writing - original draft. Vinicius C. Souza: Validation, Data
447 curation, Writing - review & editing. Marinez F. Siqueira: Methodology, Writing -

448 review & editing. Hans ter Steege: Methodology, Funding acquisition, Writing - review
449 & editing.

450

451 **Declaration of competing interest**

452 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
453 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

454

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461

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618 **Appendices**

619 **Appendix A:** List of collections and data providers used for data compilation.

620 The numbers of records retrieved per collection correspond to overall sum of records
621 before data validation, thus including both valid and invalid records.

622

623 **Appendix B:** List of names of taxonomists per family used for taxonomical validation.

624 The ‘tdwg.name’ represents the taxonomist name following the standard notation of the
625 Biodiversity Information Standards (<https://www.tdwg.org>), which includes different
626 variants of notation found for the same taxonomist name.

627

628 **Appendix C:** Updated, taxonomically vetted checklist of the Atlantic Forest tree flora.

629 For each name included in the checklist we provide the life form, the status of the name
630 in respect to the Brazilian Flora 2020 project, the number of records found inside the
631 Atlantic Forest (both ‘validated’ and ‘probably validated’ taxonomy) and a list of up to
632 30 vouchers (only specimens with ‘validated’ taxonomy), giving priority to type
633 specimens. We also indicate which species were regarded as being taxa of low
634 taxonomic complexity (TBC) or taxa commonly cultivated outside its original range.

635

636 **Appendix D:** List of species with probable occurrence in the Atlantic Forest.

637 We present all names with valid records found only in the transition of the Atlantic
638 Forest to other domains and those names cited in the Brazilian Flora 2020 project as
639 being an Atlantic Forest species, but for which we did not find any valid records. Again,
640 we present for each name the life form, the number of records found and a list of up to
641 30 vouchers.

642

643 **Appendix E:** List of names excluded from the final Atlantic Forest checklist.

644 For each name on the list we provide the life form and the reason why the name was

645 excluded. For synonyms, orthographical variants, common typos we also provide the

646 corresponding valid name used in this study.

647

648 **Appendix F:** Endemism levels for the Atlantic Forest tree flora and the corresponding

649 classification into pure endemic, near endemic, widespread and occasional species.

650 For each species name, we provide the number of valid records outside the Atlantic

651 Forest, outside but in the transition to the Atlantic Forest, inside the Atlantic Forest but

652 in the transition to other domains, and inside the Atlantic Forest. We present the

653 endemism levels and species classifications using only records with validated taxonomy

654 and using records with validated and probably validated taxonomy. Finally, we present

655 the endemism classification currently accepted in the Brazilian Flora 2020 in respect to

656 the Atlantic Forest.

657

658 **Appendix G:** Shapefiles delimiting the centers of the endemic and occasional species

659 diversity in the Atlantic Forest for pure endemics, near endemics, pure + near endemics

660 and occasional species.

661 Each shapefile contains the isoclines corresponding to the 75%, 80%, 85%, 90% and

662 95% quantiles of the distribution of rarefied/extrapolated richness for 100 specimens,

663 predicted using ordinary kriging.

Figures

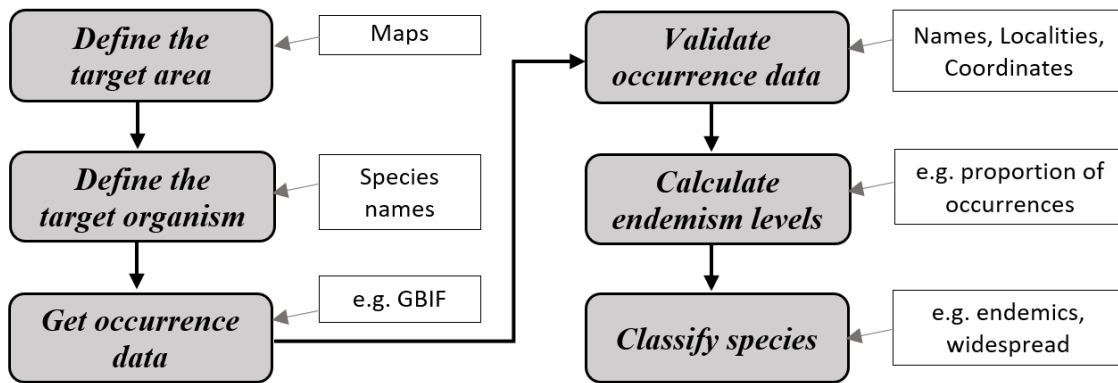


Figure 1. Flow chart showing the six steps of the proposed approach to classify species based on their endemism levels.

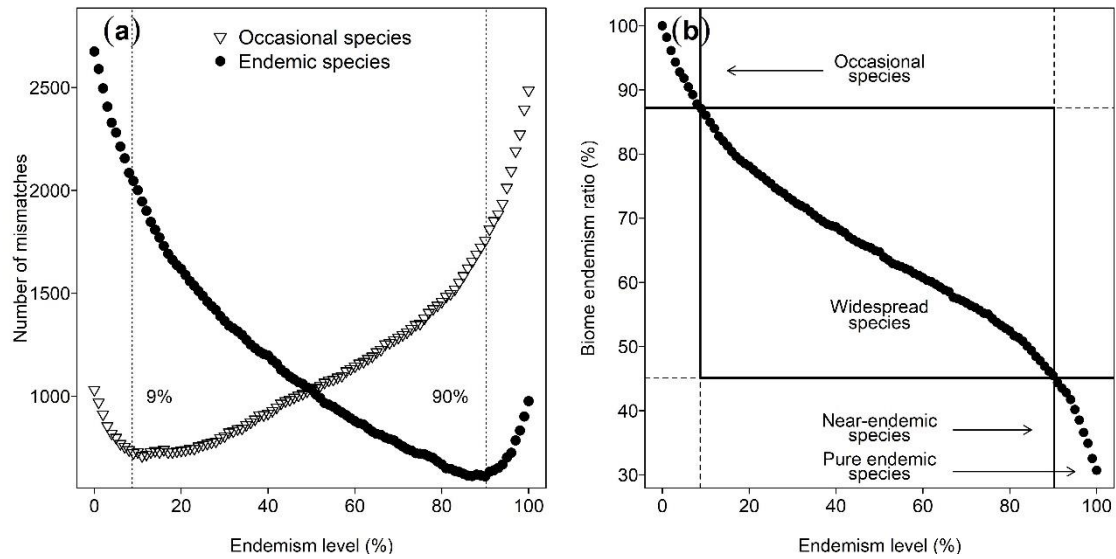


Figure 2. Defining near endemic and occasional tree species using herbarium records for the Atlantic Forest biodiversity hotspot. For both endemic (black circles) and occasional species (triangles), we present (a) the optimum endemism levels (vertical dashed lines) estimated from the distribution of mismatches between the empirical and the Brazilian Flora 2020 classifications and (b) the overall endemism ratio of the Atlantic Forest in intervals of 1% (*x*-axis in both panels).

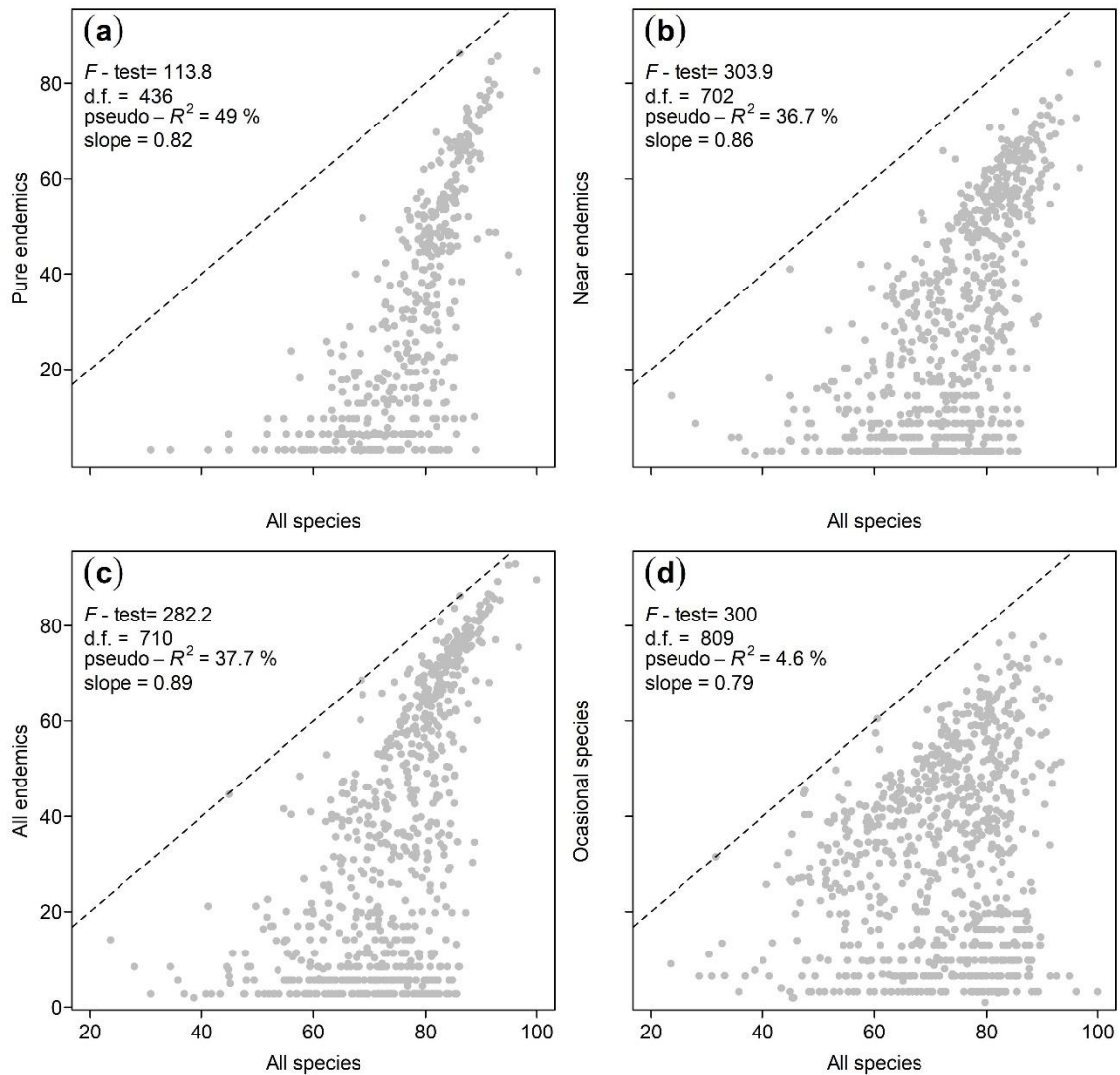


Figure 3. Relationship between the number of rarefied/extrapolated richness per 50x50 km grid cell and the same diversity metric obtained for (a) pure endemics, (b) near endemics, (c) all endemics (pure + near endemics) and (d) occasional species. For each group of species, we present the summary statistics of each spatial regression model (top left; d.f.= degrees of freedom), including the predicted slope of the regression prediction. The spatial regression analysis was performed only for grid cells meeting some minimum criteria of sampling coverage (see Supplementary Methods). The dashed line represents the 1:1 line. All p -values are below 0.001.

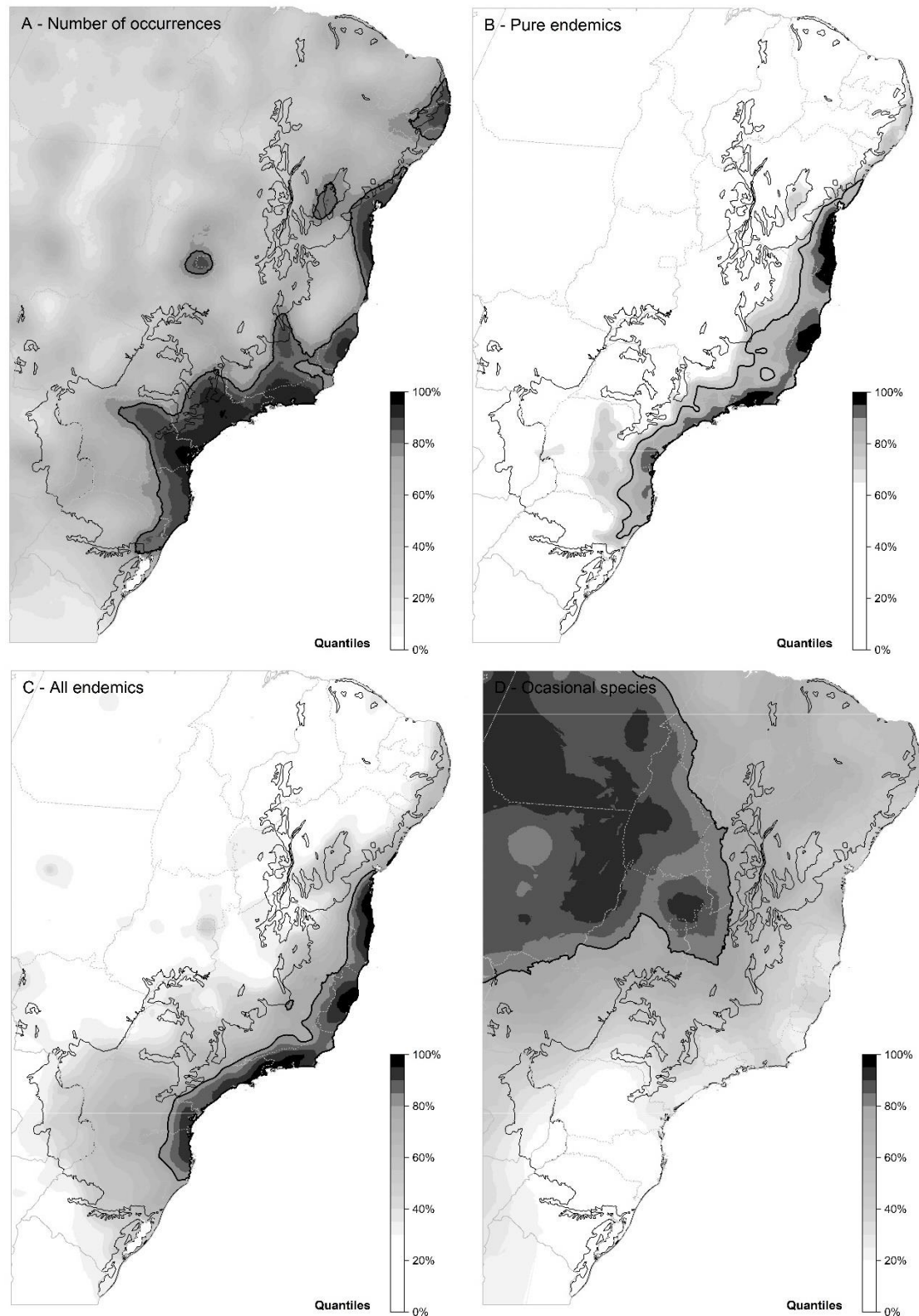


Figure 4. The spatial distribution of (A) the number of occurrences retrieved for the species occurring in the Atlantic Forest, and the centers of diversity of (B) pure endemics, (C) all endemics (pure + near) and (D) occasional species. Maps were

produced using ordinary kriging based on rarefied/extrapolated species richness obtained for a common number of 100 records per grid cell. The color scale represents the 5% quantiles of the metrics distribution, from 0-5% (white) to 95-100% (black). Bold black lines are the area containing the 80% higher richness values. The black line marks the limits of the Atlantic Forest, while the solid and dashed grey lines mark the limits of South American countries and of the Brazilian states, respectively.