

Supplementary Materials for  
**Occurrence-based diversity estimation reveals macroecological and  
conservation knowledge gaps for global woody plants**

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**The PDF file includes:**

Supplementary Text  
Figs. S1 to S27  
Tables S1, S4, and S5  
Legends for tables S2 and S3  
References

**Other Supplementary Material for this manuscript includes the following:**

Tables S2 and S3

30

## 31 **Supplementary Text**

### 32 **1. Sample coverage levels of standardisation of species diversity**

33 To fairly compare diversity values among locations, we need to consider the spatial inequality of  
34 sample completeness (6). In the case of the global diversity of woody plants, the observed  
35 number of species showed strong correlation with the number of species incidences (fig. S1),  
36 indicating that the spatial distribution of sample completeness contaminated the observed species  
37 diversity patterns. Because the relationships between observed species diversity and number of  
38 species incidences were often unsaturated in our dataset, we could not use the asymptotic  
39 diversity value to ‘fairly’ compare the diversities among grid cells (15). Instead, we applied a  
40 non-asymptotic approach whereby species diversity is standardised using rarefaction  
41 (interpolation) or extrapolation based on sample completeness (14).

42

43 Sample completeness can be evaluated using sample coverage, i.e. the proportion of the number  
44 of individuals (or frequency of incidences) detected in the focal assemblage. The sample  
45 coverage is more accurate than the conventional richness ratio (i.e. observed species  
46 richness/Chao-2 estimator), which is positively biased when sample size is inadequate (14). As a  
47 guideline, Chao and colleagues recommended using the minimum sample coverage value of  
48 doubled reference sample size for reliable extrapolation (15). However, in macro-scale studies,  
49 the magnitude of difference in true diversity could be huge ( $10^1$ – $10^4$ ), and species-poor sites  
50 (e.g. temperate regions) tend to be explored better (higher sample coverage) than species-rich  
51 sites (e.g. tropical regions). Indeed, in our data set, sample coverage showed a large spatial  
52 variation, especially at the finest spatial resolution (fig. S2). In such a case, if we applied a too  
53 small sample coverage, we would miss diversity gradients in regions showing less species  
54 richness. To deal with this, we relaxed the restriction to extrapolation by using percentiles of  
55 sample coverage values of doubled reference sample size as the level of standardization (17).  
56 When we used the  $p$ -th percentile as the level of standardization, extrapolation to more than  
57 double its reference sample size will be applied to  $p\%$  of the grid cells, while rarefaction or  
58 extrapolation to less than double its reference sample size will be applied to  $(100 - p)\%$  of the  
59 grid cells. There is no prescribed percentile value. Therefore, we set several percentiles (1st, 5th,  
60 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles; see table S4 for the specific values of sample

61 coverage at each percentile) and assessed the impact of arbitrary choice of the level of  
62 standardization on descriptions, interpretations, and modelling of geographical diversity patterns.  
63 We also included the asymptotic diversity (i.e., assuming  $\infty$  sampling effort or sample coverage  
64 = 1) for comparison.

65

### 66 *Impacts of sample coverage-based standardisation on geographical diversity patterns*

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68 Standardisation based on sample coverage influenced the shape of latitudinal diversity gradients  
69 (LatDGs) differently for the three longitudinal zones: Americas, Africa-Europe, and Asia-  
70 Oceania (fig S3). The shape of the LatDG was relatively robust to the level of sample coverage-  
71 based standardisation in the Americas zone (fig. S3). A relatively minor difference was observed  
72 in the steepness of the LatDG slope in the transition from tropical to temperate regions; the  
73 observed species richness tended to underestimate the slope owing to the undervalue in the  
74 tropical regions. In the Africa-Europe zone, although the LatDG was unclear for the observed  
75 species richness owing to large intra-regional variation in Africa and super-high representation in  
76 Europe (fig. S3), sample coverage-based standardisation clarified consistently high species  
77 richness within the tropical zone and a decreasing trend from the equator to the northern pole. In  
78 the Asia-Oceania zone, the observed LatDG peaked in the Southern Hemisphere (around the  
79 Tropic of Capricorn) and decreased towards the northern pole (fig. S3); the sample coverage-  
80 based standardisation toned down the southern peak, and depicted alternative peak around the  
81 northern middle latitudes which represents the transition from tropical to temperate regions.  
82 Although the level of standardization affected the absolute values of diversity (i.e., the vertical  
83 position of LatDGs), they did not have a large influence on the shape of LatDGs.

84

85 Longitudinal diversity gradients (LonDGs) were also influenced by sample coverage-based  
86 standardisation, although they were less sensitive than LatDGs (fig. S4). In the north  
87 extratropics, the standardised species richness became too low (almost zero) at the smallest level  
88 of standardization (1st percentile of sample coverage), obscuring the LonDG and generating a  
89 dip in the eastern margin ( $>100^\circ$ ). In the tropics and the south extratropic, the standardised  
90 species richness was highest in the western parts (South America and/or South Africa) and

91 decreased towards the east, whereas the observed species richness was over-represented in the  
92 eastern regions (fig. S4).

93

#### 94 *Impacts of sample coverage-based standardisation on environmental driver analysis*

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96 We analysed relationships between the diversities and environmental variables using three  
97 regression models: ordinary least squares (OLS), generalised additive model (GAM), and  
98 random forest (RF). We used log-scaled species richness as the response variable, and 11  
99 environmental variables as the explanatory variables associated with energy, water, their  
100 seasonality, topography, habitat heterogeneity, and historical climatic stability: mean annual  
101 temperature (Bio1), temperature seasonality (Bio4), annual precipitation (Bio12), precipitation  
102 seasonality (Bio15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity  
103 index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in  
104 temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present  
105 day.

106

107 The influence of sample coverage-based standardisation depends on the environmental variables  
108 and the modelling frameworks. In the OLS model, the linear relationship with the log-scaled  
109 species richness (residuals after controlling for the effect of the other explanatory factors) was  
110 maintained well for Bio 12 and AET (fig. S5), whereas the reverse relationship was observed for  
111 Bio 4, Bio 15, PET, AI and  $D_{temp}$ . The effect size was magnified in the standardised species  
112 richness for Bio1 and Elv, but weakened for Elv.sd and  $D_{prec}$ .

113

114 In the GAM model, the response curves (with the effect of the other explanatory factors fixed as  
115 their respective means) to individual explanatory factors differed between the standardised and  
116 observed species richness, but were qualitatively similar among the sample coverage levels (fig.  
117 S6). The curve for AET was the most robust to presence/absence of sample coverage-based  
118 standardisation; a consistent positive monotonic linear relationship was observed. Meanwhile,  
119 sample coverage-based standardisation was most influential on the relationships with Bio1, PET  
120 and Elv.sd. The observed (also asymptotic) species richness was high at extremely low Bio 1 and  
121 high PET (>2500 mm). This suggests that the observed diversity suffered from a

122 multicollinearity associated with the biased geographical representation (e.g., higher latitudes).  
123 Such unrealistic patterns were not observed for the sample coverage-based standardised species  
124 richness.

125  
126 In the RF model, the partial dependency curves were generally stable to presence/absence of  
127 sample coverage-based standardisation and its levels (fig. S7). An exception was Bio 1 for which  
128 the partial dependency tended to be higher between 5 and 15 °C for the observed (and  
129 asymptotic) species richness, compared with that for the standardised diversities (fig. S7). The  
130 species diversities were higher in regions with higher Bio 1, Bio 12, AET, AI, Elv and Elv.sd,  
131 lower Bio 4, Bio-15,  $D_{temp}$  and  $D_{prec}$ , and intermediate PET.

132  
133 We evaluated the potential impacts of sample coverage-based standardisation on relative  
134 importance of the explanatory variables using the coefficients of partial determination ( $r^2$ ) and  
135 the mean squared error in out-of-bag data, for the OLS and RF models, respectively. The most  
136 important variable was consistently AET, regardless of sample coverage-based standardisation  
137 and the modelling approach (figs. S8 and S9). In OLS, the model with the observed species  
138 richness tended to overvalue the relative importance of Bio 15, but undervalued Bio 1. In RF, the  
139 overall importance ranking was relatively stable against sample coverage-based standardisation,  
140 whereas the rank of  $D_{temp}$  (historical temperature change) changed depending on the level of  
141 standardization: the importance increased with reduction in the level, suggesting that  $D_{temp}$  would  
142 have better explanatory power when ignoring the diversity variation in species-poor regions, and  
143 may act as a dichotomous factor at the global scale (i.e., historically stable vs unstable sites).

144  
145 The RF model showed the highest explanatory and prediction performance among the three  
146 modelling frameworks (figs. S10 and S11). In all approaches, the explanatory power ( $R^2$ ) was  
147 higher and the predictive error (root mean squared error based on a 10-fold cross-validation test)  
148 was smaller for the sample coverage-based standardised diversities than for the observed  
149 diversity. The explanatory and predictive performance was generally comparable among the  
150 level of standardisation, but slightly better in the intermediate levels (20th–40th percentiles).

151

152 Finally, we projected the regression models on the geographical space to visually check how the  
153 influence of sample coverage-based standardisation transmitted to spatial predictions. The spatial  
154 predictions based on the observed and asymptotic species richness were highly influenced by the  
155 geographical pattern of sample coverage (figs. 1 and S12). The prediction based on low level  
156 standardisation (1st and 5th percentiles) failed to capture the diversity gradients in species-poor,  
157 higher-latitude regions. The spatial congruence among the predicted values derived from the  
158 three modelling frameworks exhibited a slight improvement when using standardized species  
159 richness for the spatial projection, compared with using observed species richness (fig. S12). For  
160 the predictions based on the intermediate levels of sample coverage-based standardisations, the  
161 OLS model reflected a large-scale diversity trend from species-rich lower latitudes to species-  
162 poor higher latitudes, but obscured intraregional diversity variation. The nonlinear frameworks  
163 (GAM and RF) were successful in visualizing local diversity peaks (South America, central  
164 Africa, and south China) as well as the large-scale diversity trends from lower to higher latitudes  
165 (fig. S12).

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## 168 **2. Impacts of spatial resolution on species diversity analyses**

169 The sample coverage is dependent on spatial resolution (grid-cell size): the coarser the spatial  
170 resolution, the higher the sample coverage on average, and the smaller its variance (fig. S2). To  
171 test potential impacts of spatial resolution on the species richness estimations and  
172 biogeographical patterns, we repeated the above-mentioned suite of analyses at coarser spatial  
173 resolutions ( $\sim 200 \text{ km} \times 200 \text{ km}$ ,  $400 \text{ km} \times 400 \text{ km}$ , and  $800 \text{ km} \times 800 \text{ km}$ ).

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175 Even at the coarser spatial resolutions ( $\geq 200 \text{ km} \times 200 \text{ km}$ ), we observed LatDGs (fig. S13).

176 Species richness was highest in the tropics (the Americas and the Africa-Europe zones) or the  
177 tropics-extratropics boundary (the Asia-Oceania zone), and decreased toward higher latitudes.

178 The LonDGs were relatively sensitive to the spatial resolution, especially for the north

179 extratropics (fig. S14). At the finest resolution ( $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$ ), species richness was higher

180 in the eastern region (East Asia) than in the western regions (Europe and North America),

181 whereas at the coarser resolutions, a bimodal diversity pattern with comparable peaks in the

182 eastern North America and East Asia were observed. In the tropics, at any spatial resolution, the

183 species richness was highest in South America. In the southern extratropics, the species richness  
184 was highest between 45°W and 45°E (eastern South America and the tip of South Africa) at any  
185 spatial resolution. In LatDGs and LonDGs, the disparity between the observed (and asymptotic)  
186 and the sample coverage-based standardised species richness was greatest at the finest resolution  
187 (100 km × 100 km) but was reduced at the coarser resolutions.

188  
189 Overall, the spatial resolution showed only marginal effects on the correlative relationships  
190 between species richness and the environmental variables (figs. S15–S17), except for the  
191 environmental variables whose range was truncated at the coarser resolutions (Bio 12, Bio 15,  
192 AI, Elv.sd, and  $D_{prec}$ ). In OLS models, the effect size and estimation error of regression  
193 coefficients tended to be larger at coarser resolutions in general (fig. S15). In GAM models, the  
194 response curves tended to deviate among spatial resolutions, especially at the edges of variable  
195 ranges (fig. S16). The shape of partial dependency plots in the RF models was relatively stable to  
196 the difference in the spatial resolution (fig. S17).

197  
198 AET was consistently the most important explanatory variable regardless of the spatial  
199 resolution, whereas the ranking of the other variables were depending on the spatial resolution  
200 (figs. S8 and S9). The relative importance ranking (except for AET) was more sensitive to the  
201 spatial resolution in OLS (fig. S8) than in RF models. In the RF models, the relative importance  
202 ranking, particularly for the four most important variables (AET, PET, Bio 1 and Bio 4) was  
203 stable (fig. S9). Interestingly, at coarse resolutions ( $\geq 400$  km × 400 km), the relative importance  
204 of historical temperature change ( $D_{temp}$ ) was higher in OLS and RF models (figs. S8 and S9).

205  
206 In general, the explanatory power ( $R^2$ ) was slightly better, but the prediction error was greater, at  
207 coarser resolutions (figs. S10 and S11). The RF models consistently showed the best explanatory  
208 and predictive performances across all spatial resolutions (figs. S10 and S11). Exceptionally, the  
209 GAM models showed the highest  $R^2$  at the 800 km × 800 km, which is likely to be an artefact of  
210 overfitting owing to a small sample size (80).

211

### 212 **3. Comparison of geographical patterns between diversities at different orders**

213

214 To test the potential influence of species incidence frequencies on biogeographical patterns, we  
215 checked the behaviour of species diversities at different orders. In a Hill number-based approach,  
216 species diversity ( $D$ ) is represented by the following equation (14):

217 when  $q \neq 1$ ,  ${}^qD = (\sum_{i=1}^S p_i^q)^{1/(1-q)}$ ;

218 when  $q = 1$ ,  ${}^1D = \exp(-\sum_{i=1}^S p_i \log p_i)$ ,

219 where  $S$  is the total number of species in an assemblage, and  $p_i$  is the relative abundance of the  $i$ -  
220 th species. The parameter  $q$  controls the weighting for relative abundance: the larger  $q$  is, the  
221 larger the weight for abundant (dominant) species (15). At  $q = 0$ , all species are treated equally,  
222 then  ${}^0D$  represents number of species (or species richness); at  $q = 1$ , species are weighted by their  
223 relative abundance, then  ${}^1D$  corresponds to the exponential of Shannon entropy; at  $q = 2$ , species  
224 are weighted by their squared relative abundance (i.e., relatively dominant species will receive a  
225 higher weight), then  ${}^2D$  becomes the inverse of Simpson's diversity index. This formulation can  
226 be straightforwardly extended to species incidence data by replacing relative abundance with  
227 relative frequency of incidence (15).

228

229 We compared the geographical patterns (LatDGs and LonDGs) and the results of environmental  
230 driver analysis between species richness ( $q = 0$ ), Shannon diversity ( $q = 1$ ) and Simpson  
231 diversity ( $q = 2$ ) at the scale of  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cells. To reduce the volume of  
232 supplementary materials, we only show the results of RF models for the observed and  
233 standardised (at the 40th percentile of sample coverage = 0.82) diversities.

234

235 The orders of diversity ( $q = 0, 1$  and  $2$ ) did not change the biogeographical patterns of global  
236 woody angiosperm diversity, as shown in the global maps (fig. S18). All diversities showed  
237 similar latitudinal and longitudinal gradients (fig. S19 and S20). While the absolute values were  
238 different ( ${}^0D > {}^1D > {}^2D$ ), the patterns of partial dependency curves along the environmental  
239 gradients in RF models were similar between the orders (fig. S21). The relative importance  
240 ranking of environmental variables in RF models was also similar among the orders (fig. S22).  
241 Because the rarefaction/extrapolation estimators for high orders ( $q > 0$ ) are nearly unbiased and  
242 valid for a wide range of prediction (15), the consistency of geographical patterns among  
243 different orders of diversities ( $q = 0$ : species richness,  $q = 1$ : Shannon diversity,  $q = 2$ : Simpson  
244 diversity) suggests a robustness of our findings.



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#### **4. Regional difference in environmental drivers of species diversity**

To test the generality or region-specificity of environmental drivers of species richness, we conducted a regional-scale environmental driver analysis (with the RF approach) using the standardised species richness (at the 40th percentile of sample coverage = 0.82) at the scale of 100 km × 100 km grid cells. We used the three longitudinal (Americas, Africa-Europe, and Asia-Oceania) and three latitudinal (north extratropics, tropics, and south extratropics) zones as the unit of regions.

Consistent relationships among the regions were observed for AET (positive monotonic), and Bio 12, AI, and Elv.sd (positive saturation) (fig. S23). For the other variables, the relationships differed among the latitudinal and longitudinal zones (fig. S23). Along the temperature gradient (Bio 1), the standardised species richness was saturated in the south and north extratropics, Americas, and Asia-Oceania zones, whereas it steeply dipped at higher temperature in the tropics (>25 °C) and the Africa-Europe zone (>20 °C). Negative relationships with temperature seasonality (Bio 4) were evident in the Americas and Africa-Europe zones, but not in the Asia-Oceania, and longitudinal zones. Precipitation seasonality (Bio 15) showed high regional variation: unimodal patterns in the tropics, south extratropics, and Asia-Oceania zone, a saturating pattern in the north extratropics, and a negative relationship in the Africa-Europe zone. PET showed a strong negative relationship in the tropics, a unimodal pattern in the Americas zone, and a saturating pattern in the south extratropics; notably, the peak and saturating points were common among the regions (about 1500 mm). With regard to elevation (Elv), the standardised species richness increased rapidly from lowlands (Elv = 0 m) to several hundred metres in all regions except the north extratropics where a rapid increase was observed only above 1,000 m. Historical temperature change ( $D_{temp}$ ) showed positive relationships within a small degree (<5 °C), but changed to negative with greater change in temperature; this trend was most prominent in the Americas zone. Historical precipitation change ( $D_{prec}$ ) showed an abrupt decline of diversity at ~1,000 mm in the tropics, and a weak negative relationship in the Asia-Oceania zone, whereas no clear trends were observed in the other regions.

275 The relative importance ranking of the environmental variables differed among the zones (fig.  
276 S24). For the LatDGs (Americas, Africa-Europe, and Asia-Oceania zones), energy (AET), the  
277 climatic seasonality (Bio 4 and Bio 15) and historical temperature change ( $D_{temp}$ ) showed high  
278 relative importance. For the LonDGs (north extratropics, tropics, and south extratropics), the  
279 factors relevant to availability of energy and water (AET, PET, AI, Bio 1 and/or Bio 12) were the  
280 most important drivers of species richness.

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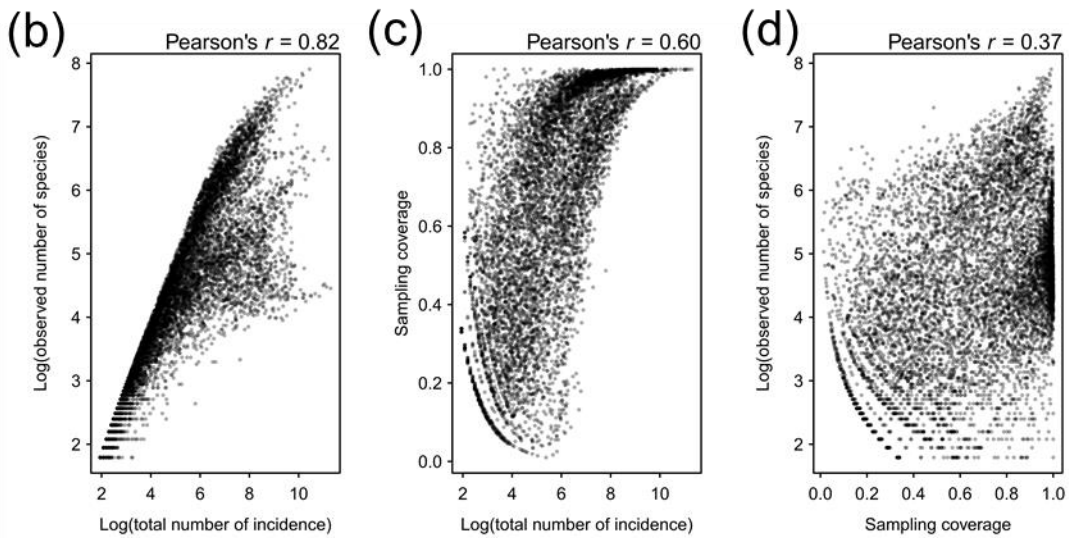
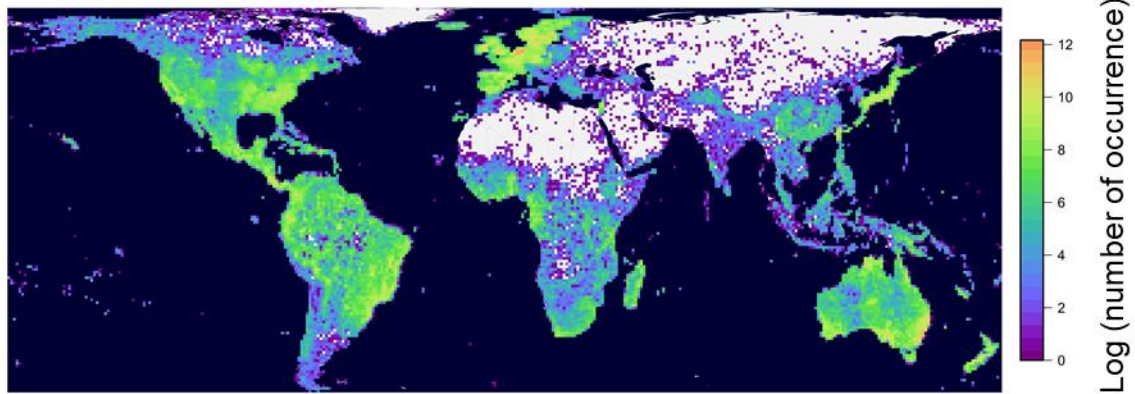
## 282 **5. Software**

283 All analyses were performed in the R statistical environment (ver. 4.1.1) (81) with the following  
284 packages: ‘data.table’ (82), ‘dplyr’ (83), ‘tidyr’ (84) for handling data; ‘doParallel’ (85),  
285 ‘foreach’ (86) for processing parallel computation; ‘geodata’ (87), ‘maps’ (88), ‘maptools’ (89),  
286 ‘raster’ (90), ‘rasterVis’ (91), ‘rgdal’ (92), ‘rgeos’ (93), ‘sf’ (94), ‘stars’ (95), ‘terra’ (96), for  
287 editing spatial data; ‘ggplot2’ (97), ‘colorRamps’ (98), ‘pals’ (99), ‘RcolorBrewer’ (100), ‘sm’  
288 (101), ‘TeachingDemos’ (102) for graphic working; ‘rgbif’ (103) for downloading species  
289 occurrence records from GBIF; ‘iNEXT’ (104) for estimating and standardizing species  
290 diversity; ‘mgcv’ (75) for conducting GAM analysis; ‘ranger’ (105) for conducting Random  
291 Forest analysis; ‘pdp’ (106) for calculating partial dependence plots of Random Forest model;  
292 ‘spm’ (107) for cross-validation of Random Forest model; ‘plotbiomes’ (108) for drawing  
293 Whittaker biome; ‘car’ (109) for checking multicollinearity, ‘pgirmess’ (110) for Moran’s I test  
294 ‘SpatialPack’ (111) for checking spatial correlations; ‘htmlwidgets’ (112), ‘networkD3’ (113),  
295 ‘webshot’ (114) for making sankey diagrams.

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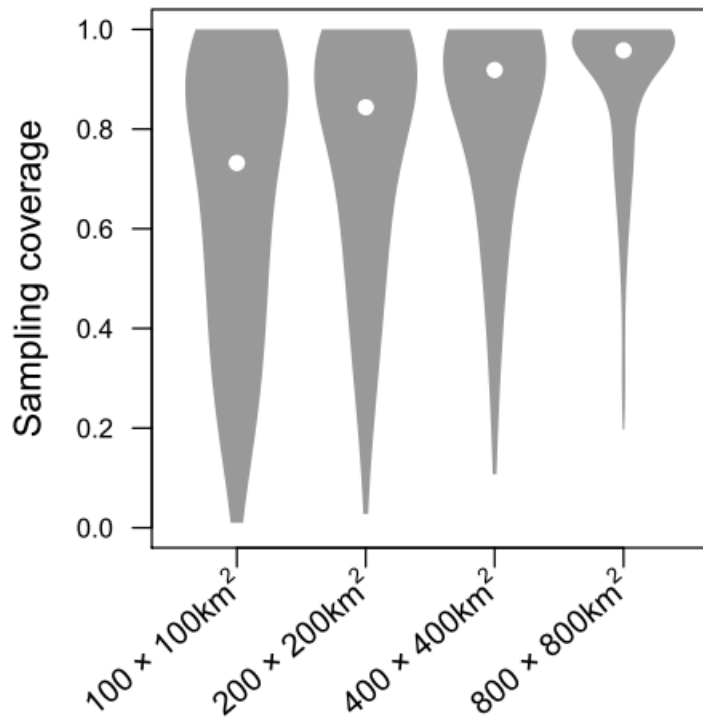
(a)



299  
300 Global maps of log-scaled total number of occurrence records (a) and the relationships between  
301 observed number of species, total number of incidence, and sample coverage (b-d) at the level of  
302 100 km x 100 km grid cells.

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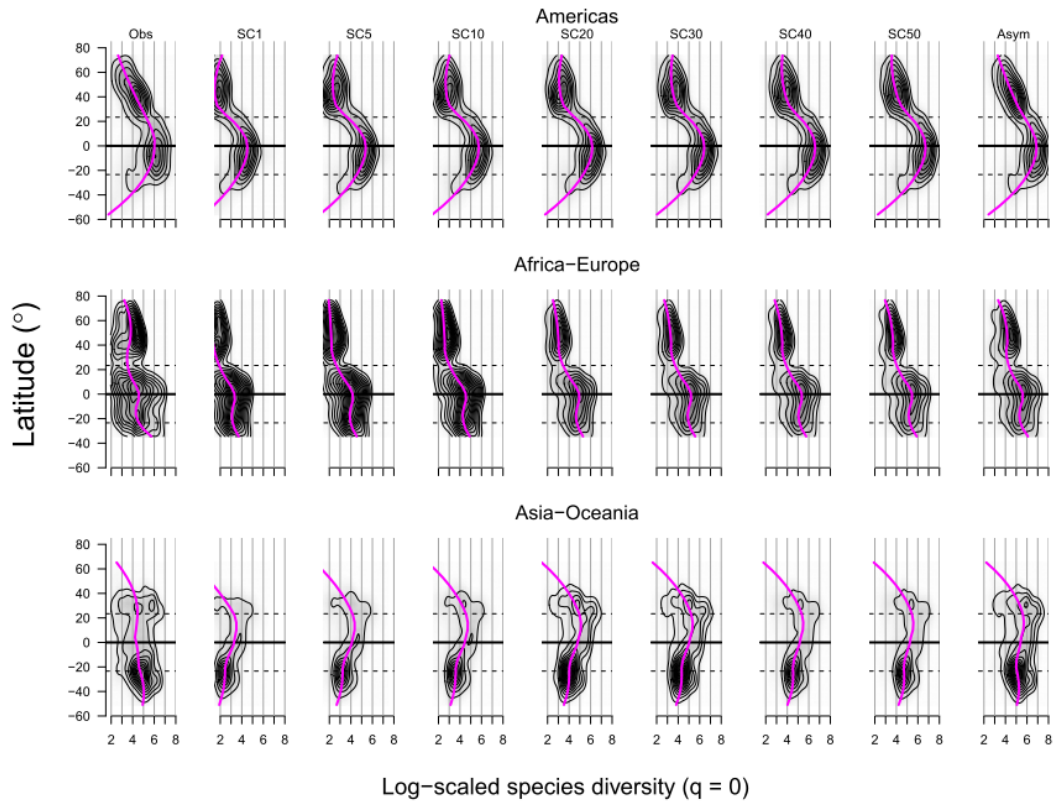
306 **Fig. S2.**



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308 Violin plots of sample coverage values at four different spatial resolutions. White point shows  
309 mean value.  
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313 **Fig. S3.**



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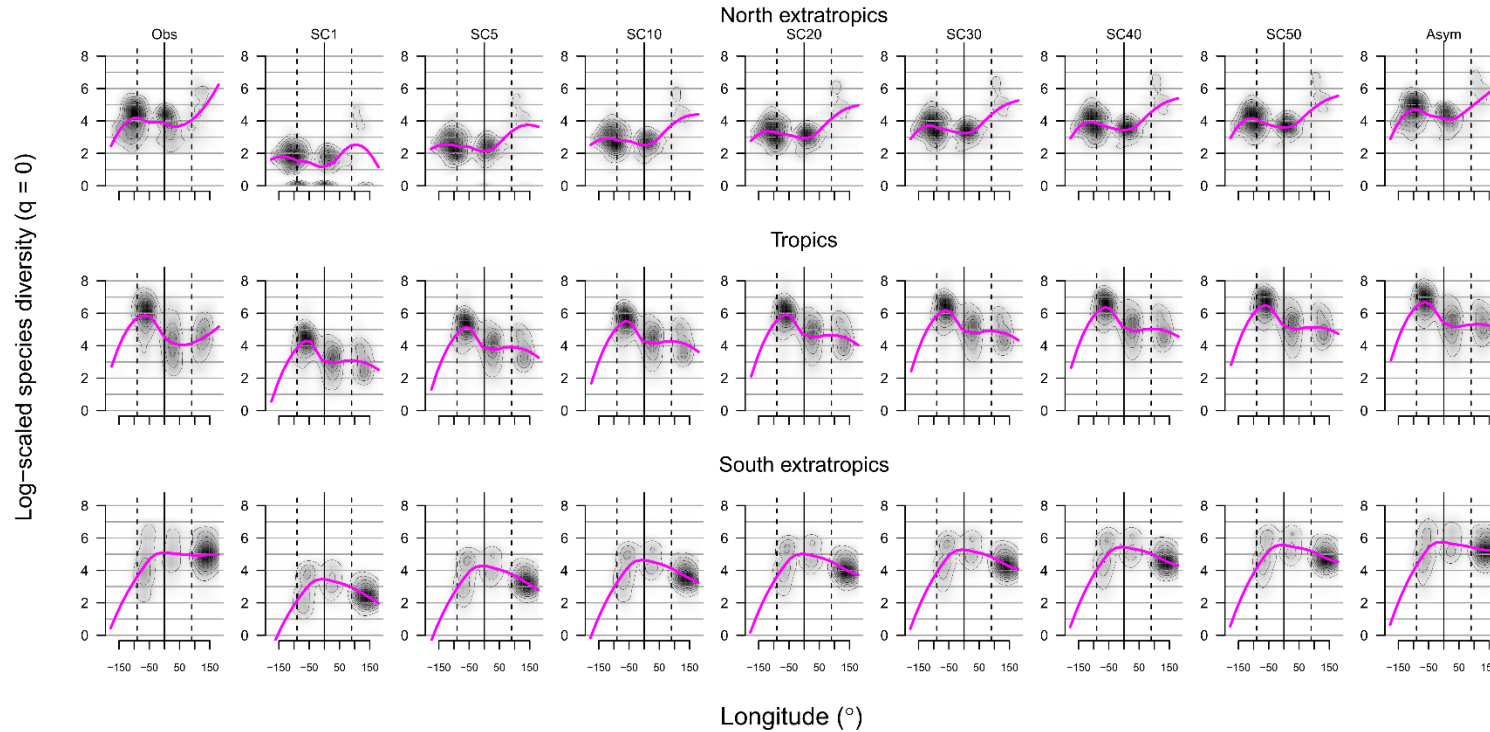
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316 Latitudinal gradients of species richness at three longitudinal zones for the 100 km × 100 km grid  
317 cells with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage  
318 (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see  
319 table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC =  
320 100%). The diversity values are log-scaled. Loess (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing)  
321 curve (scaling parameter alpha = 0.6) is shown (pink line). Thick vertical line represents the  
322 equator. Dashed lines represent the tropics of Capricorn and Cancer.

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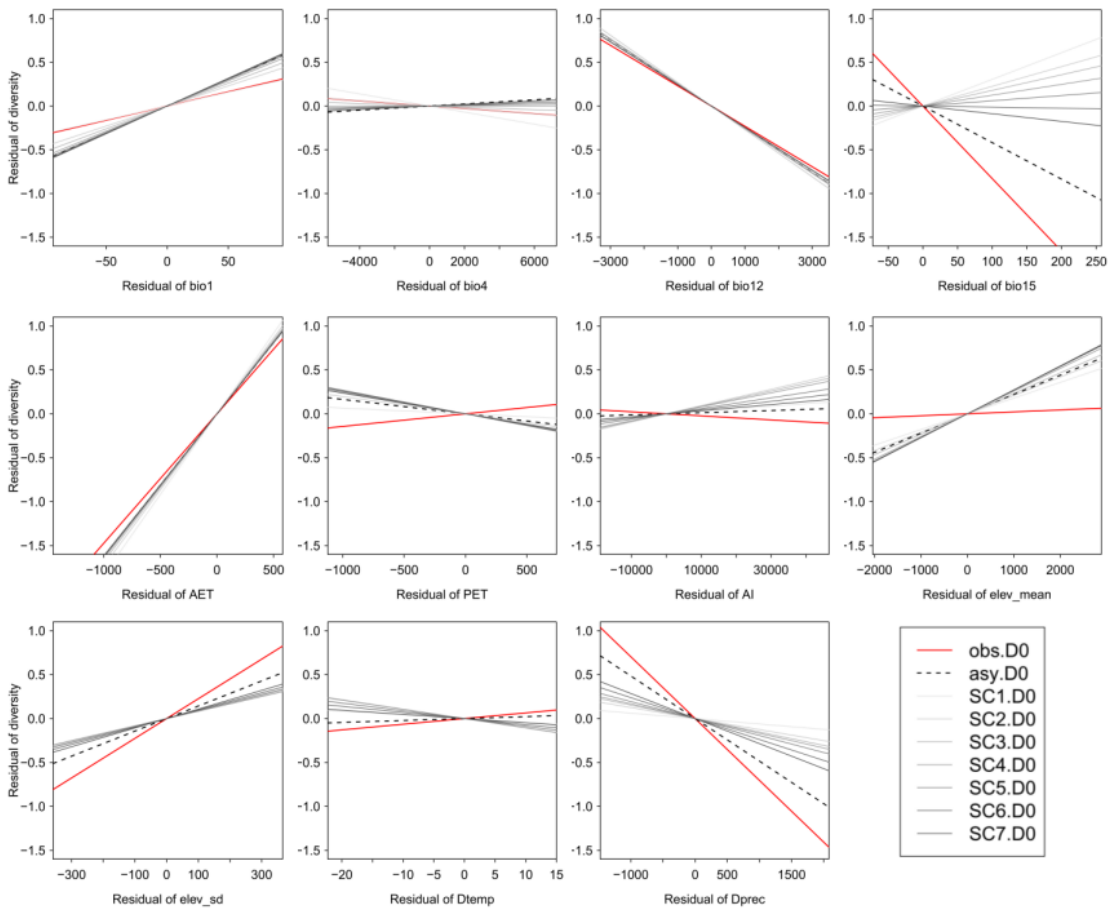
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**Fig. S4.**



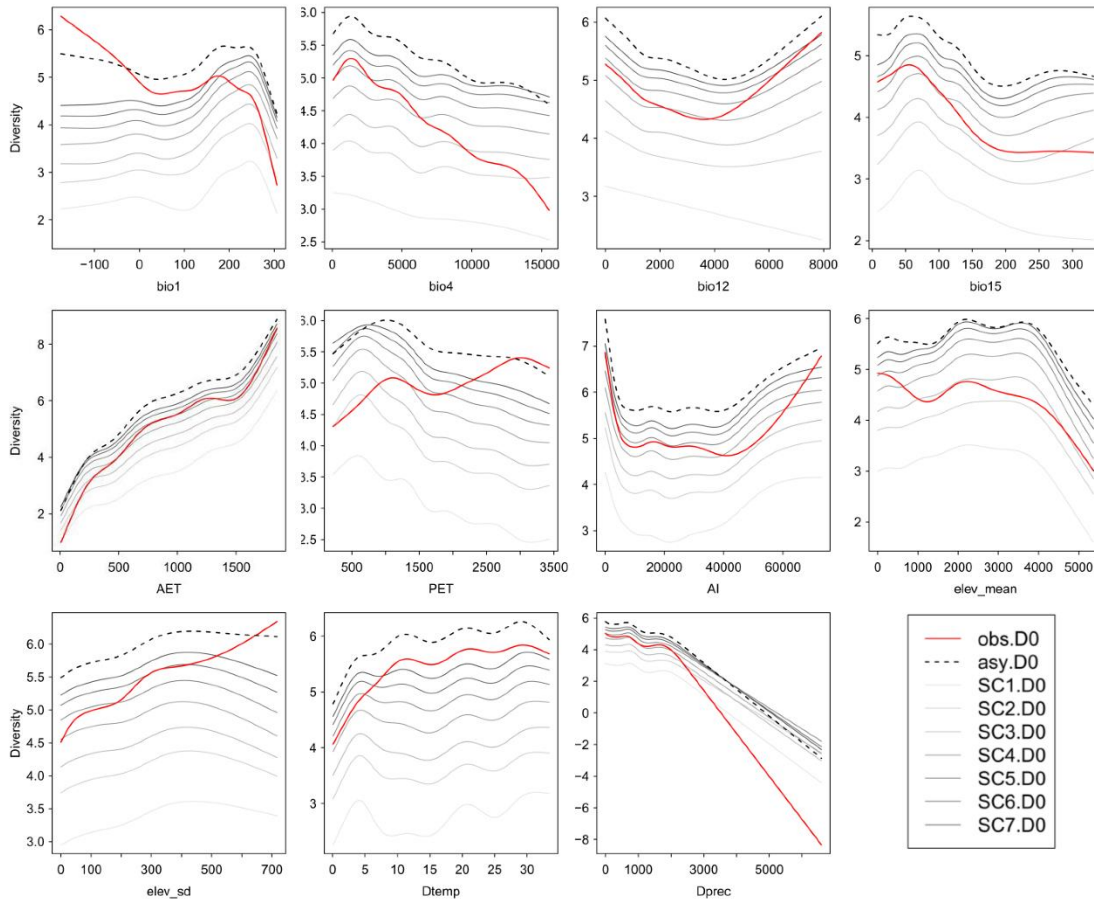
Longitudinal gradients of species richness at three latitudinal zones (tropics and north and south extratropics) for the  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cells with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%). The diversity values are log-scaled. Loess (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing) curve (scaling parameter  $\alpha = 0.6$ ) is shown (pink line). The dashed vertical lines represent  $\pm 90$  degrees in longitude.

**Fig. S5.**



Linear relationship between species richness and environmental variables analysed by ordinary least squares model for the 100 km × 100 km grid cells. The partial effect of each variable was evaluated by the residual regression. Species richness is standardised with different levels of sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%). The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

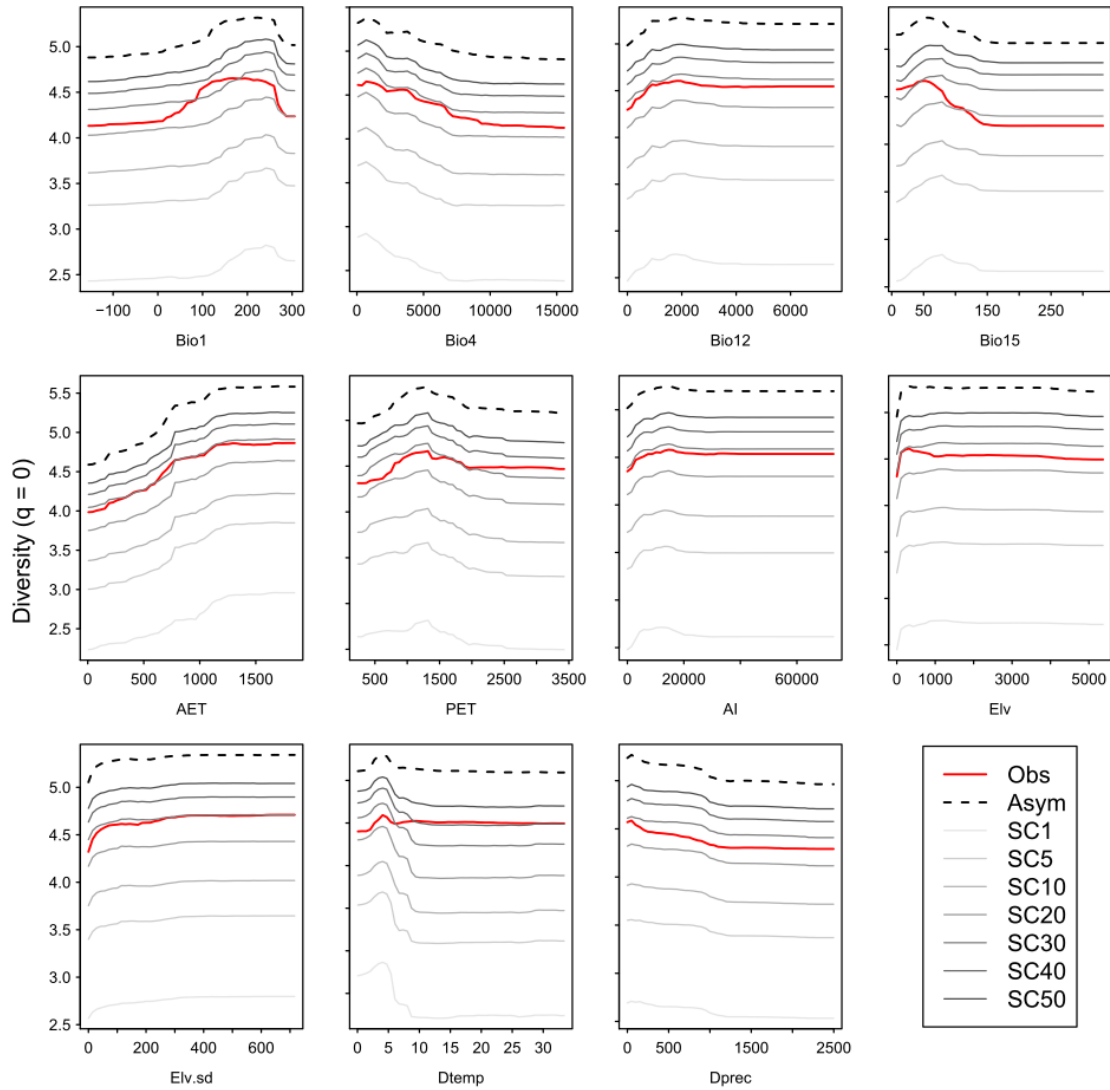
**Fig. S6.**



Relationship between species richness and environmental factors analysed by generalized additive model for the  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cells. Species richness is standardised with different levels of sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%). The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (bio1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{\text{temp}}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{\text{prec}}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

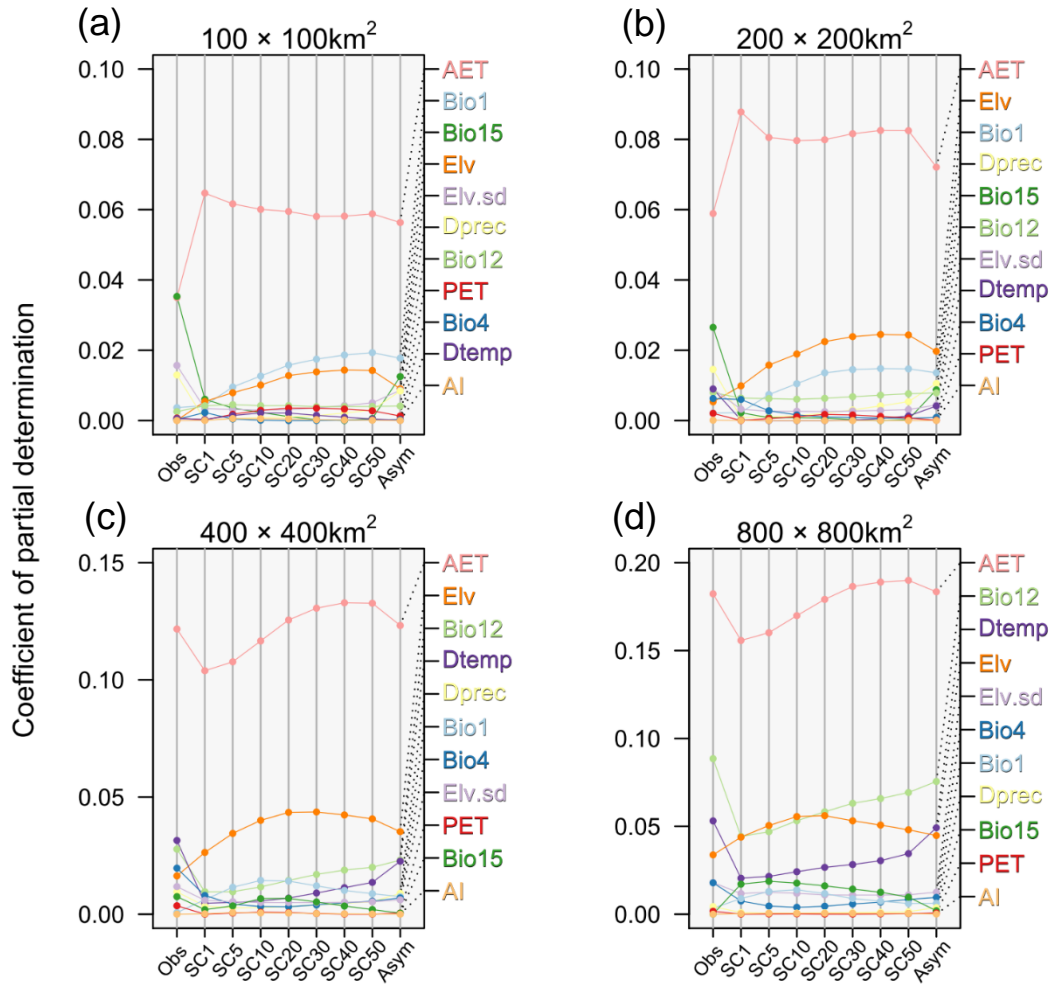


**Fig. S7.**



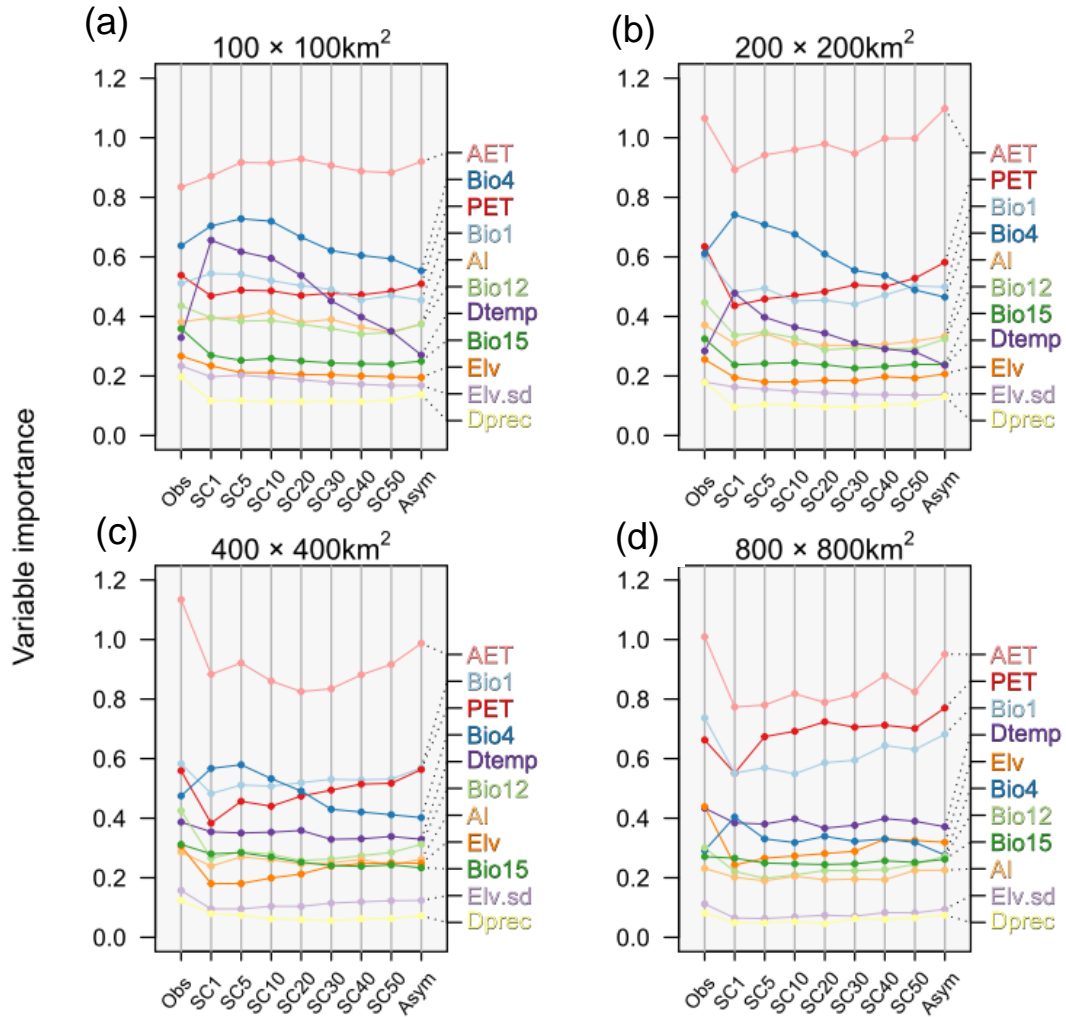
Partial dependency plot between species richness and environmental factors analysed by random forest model for the 100 km × 100 km grid cells. Species richness is standardised with different levels of sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%). The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

**Fig. S8.**



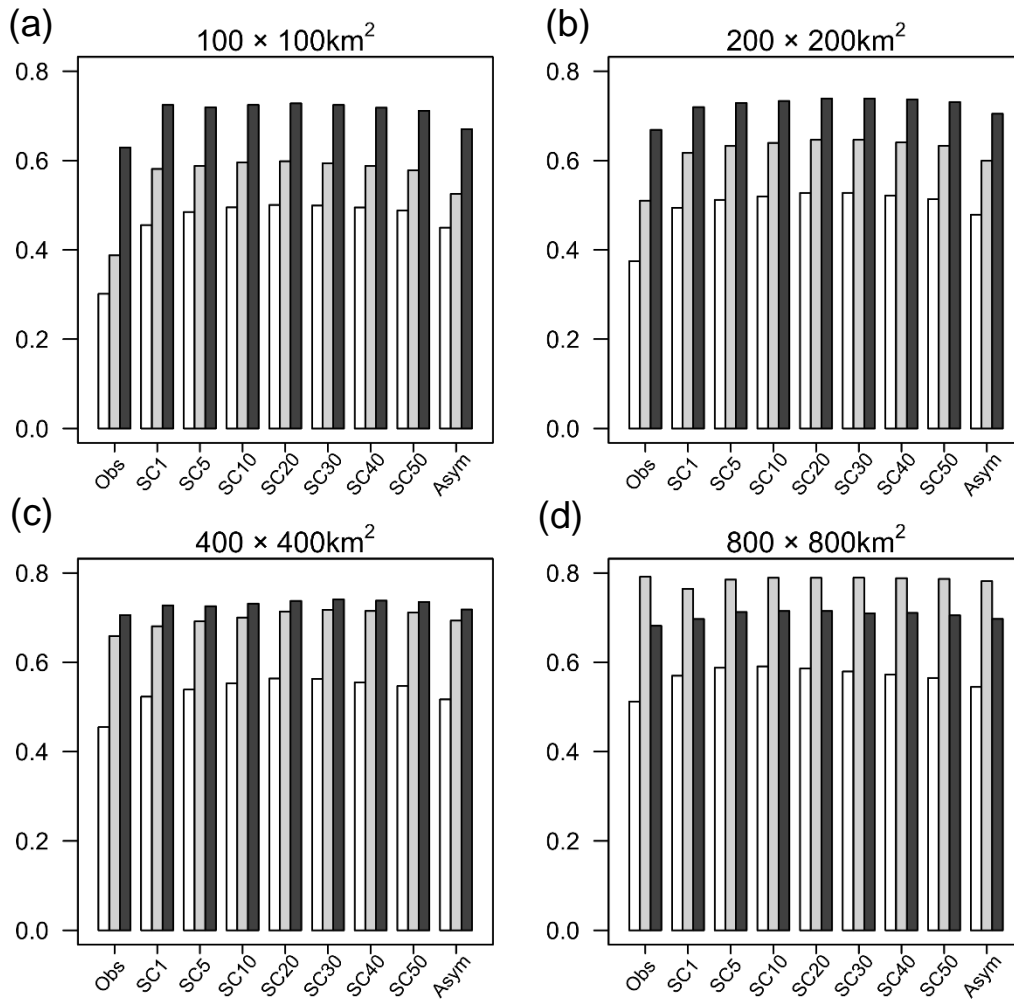
Relative importance (coefficients of partial determination) of environmental variables in the ordinary least squares model explaining species richness for four spatial resolutions ((a) 100 km  $\times$  100 km, (b) 200 km  $\times$  200 km, (c) 400 km  $\times$  400 km, and (d) 800 km  $\times$  800 km) with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%) at different spatial resolutions. The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

**Fig. S9.**



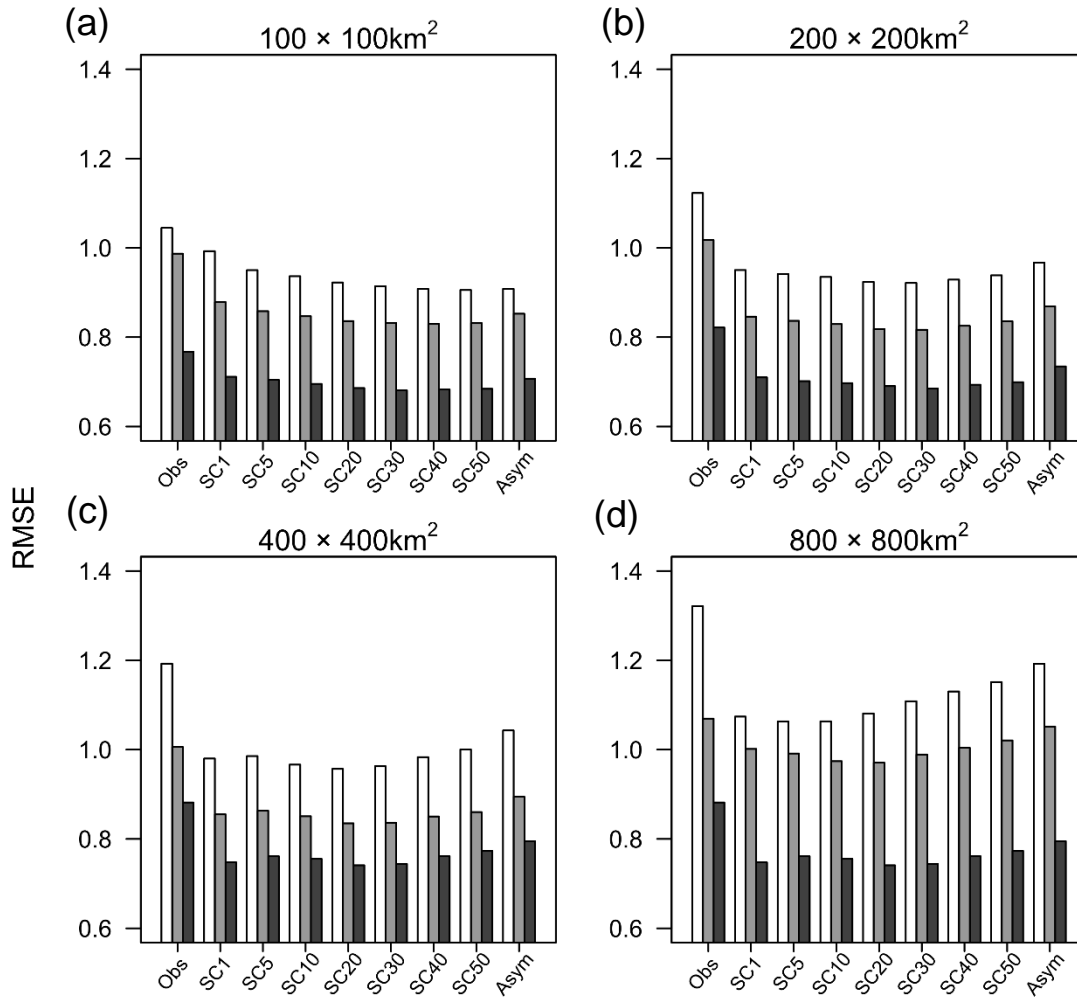
Relative importance (permutation importance) of environmental variables in the random forest models explaining species richness for four spatial resolutions ((a) 100 km × 100 km, (b) 200 km × 200 km, (c) 400 km × 400 km, and (d) 800 km × 800 km) with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%) at different spatial resolutions. The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

**Fig. S10.**



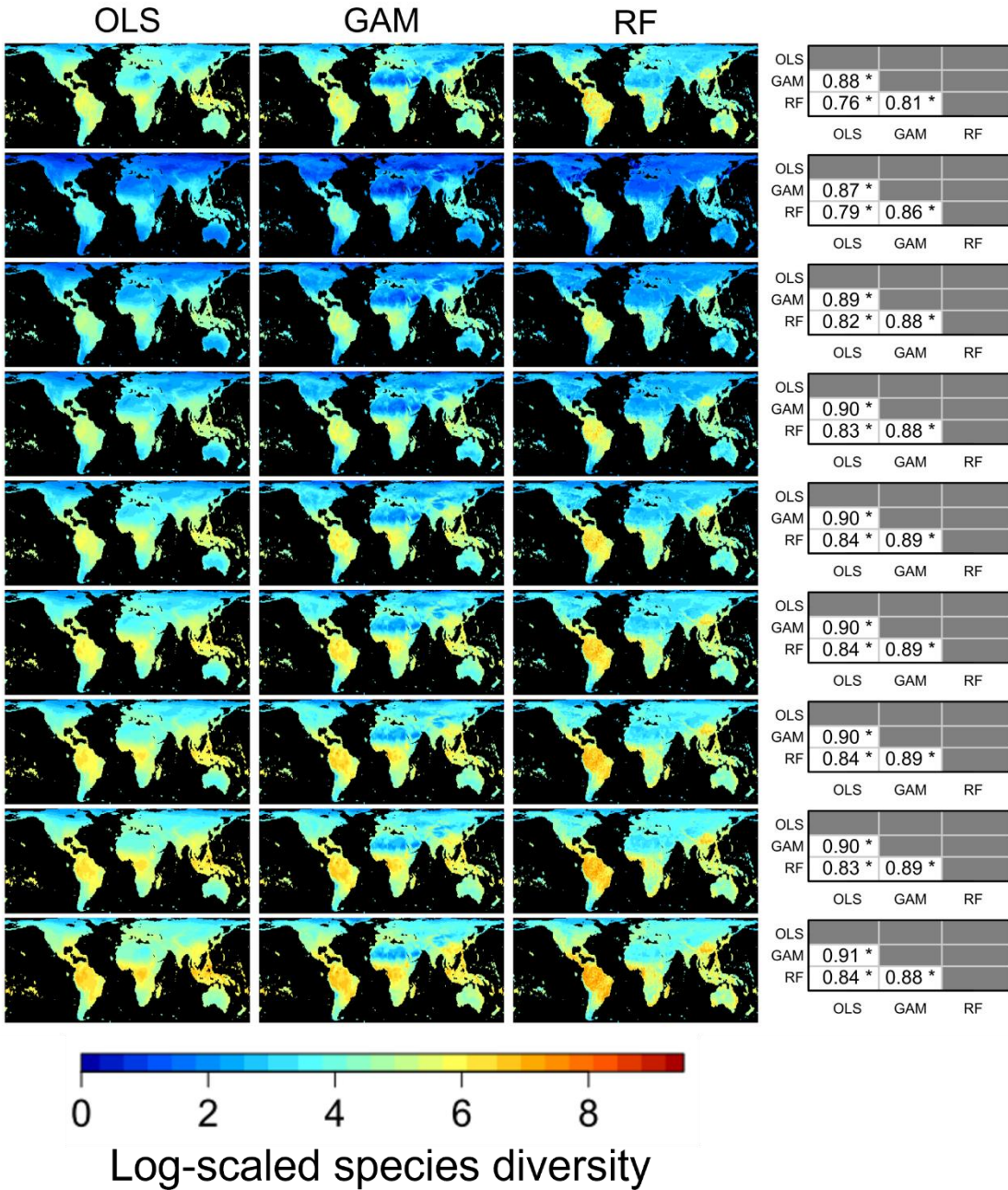
Explanatory power ( $R^2$ ) of regression models (ordinary least squares = white, generalized additive model = light grey, random forest = dark grey) for four spatial resolutions ((a)  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$ , (b)  $200 \text{ km} \times 200 \text{ km}$ , (c)  $400 \text{ km} \times 400 \text{ km}$ , and (d)  $800 \text{ km} \times 800 \text{ km}$ ) explaining the relationship between environmental variables and species richness with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%).

Fig. S11.



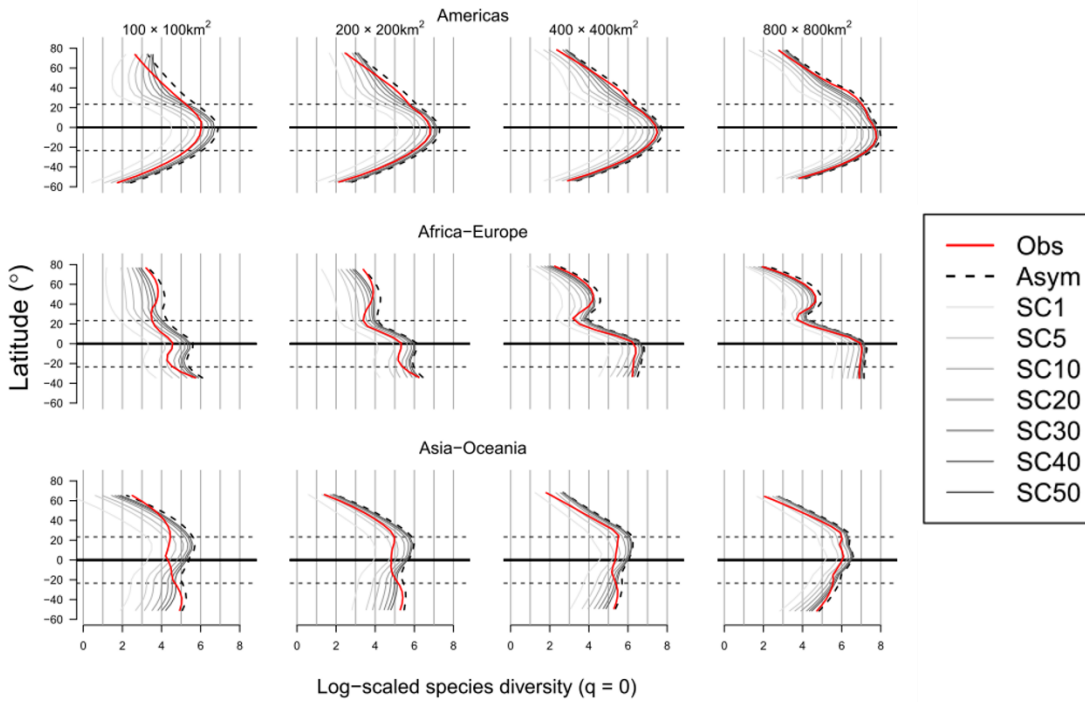
Predictive performance (root mean squared error from 10-fold cross-validation) of regression models (ordinary least squares = white, generalized additive model = light grey, random forest = dark grey) for four spatial resolutions ((a) 100 km × 100 km, (b) 200 km × 200 km, (c) 400 km × 400 km, and (d) 800 km × 800 km), explaining the relationship between environmental variables and species richness with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%).

Fig. S12.



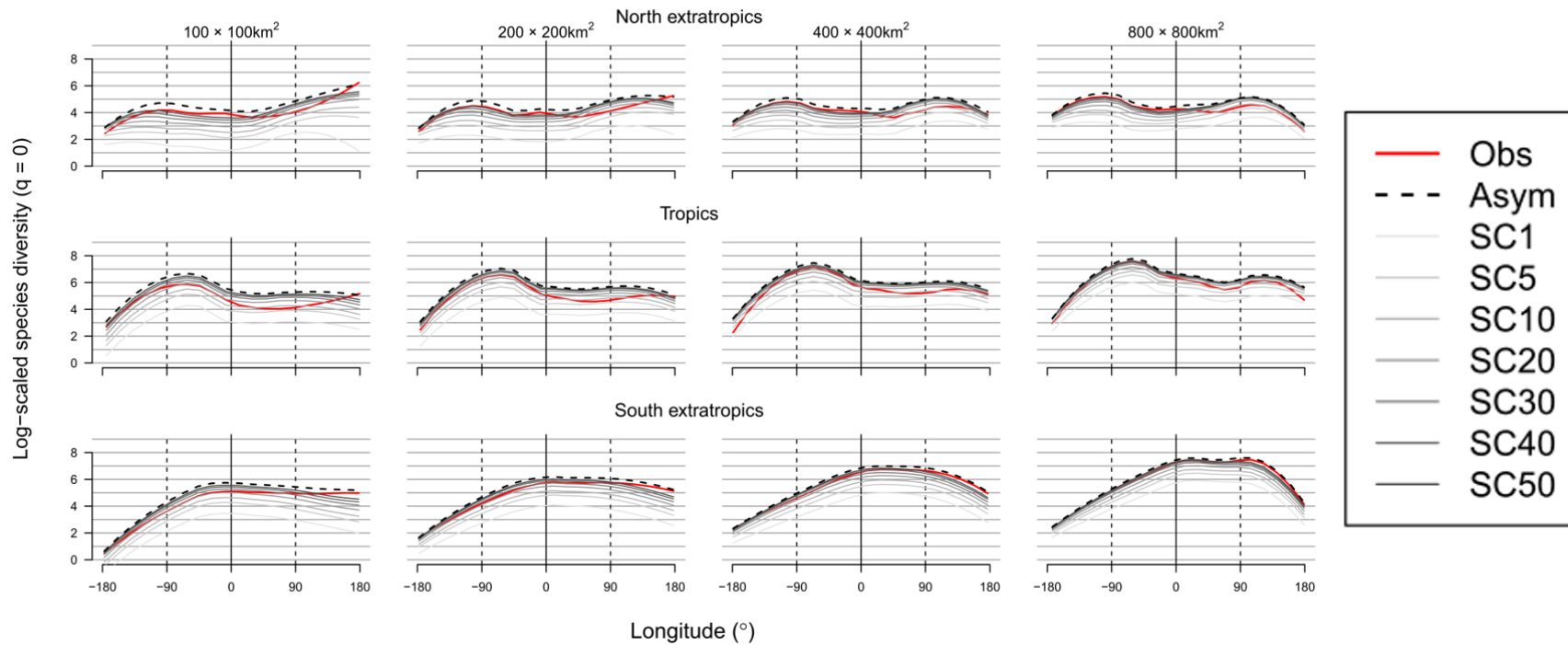
Projection of species richness with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC; see table S4 for corresponding SC values) predicted using ordinary least squares (OLS), generalized additive model (GAM) and Random Forest (RF) with environmental variables at 100 km  $\times$  100 km grid cell level. The right-hand column presents the table of correlation coefficients among the predicted values of three modelling frameworks. Asterisk indicates statistically significant correlation at  $p$ -value  $< 0.05$  in the modified-t-test (97).

**Fig. S13.**



Latitudinal gradient of species richness at different spatial resolutions for three longitudinal bands: the Americas, the Africa-Europe, and the Asia-Oceania zones. Loess (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing) curves (scaling parameter  $\alpha = 0.6$ ) are shown per species richness estimate with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%). The diversity values are log-scaled. Thick vertical line represents the equator. Shaded area represents the tropical zone between the tropics of Capricorn and Cancer.

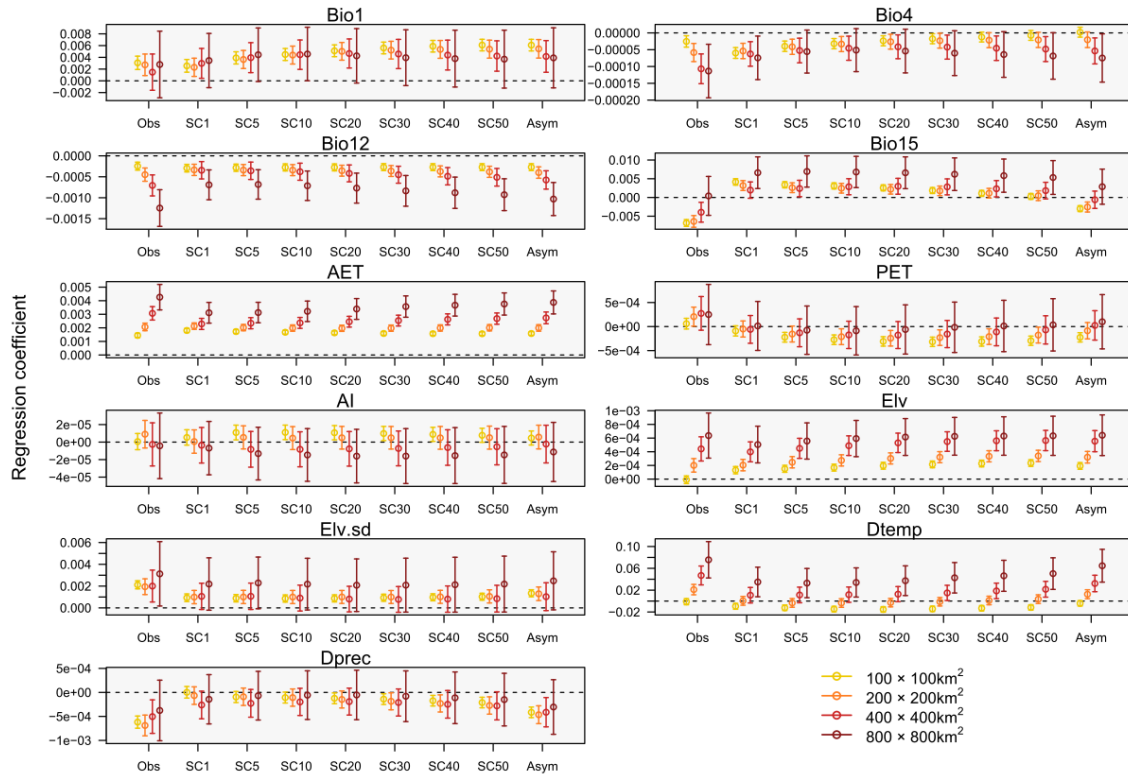
Fig. S14.



Longitudinal gradients of species richness at different spatial resolutions for three latitudinal zones (tropics and north and south extratropics) with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%). The diversity values are log-scaled. Loess (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing) curves (scaling parameter  $\alpha = 0.6$ ) are shown per species richness estimate. Thick vertical line represents the Prime meridian.

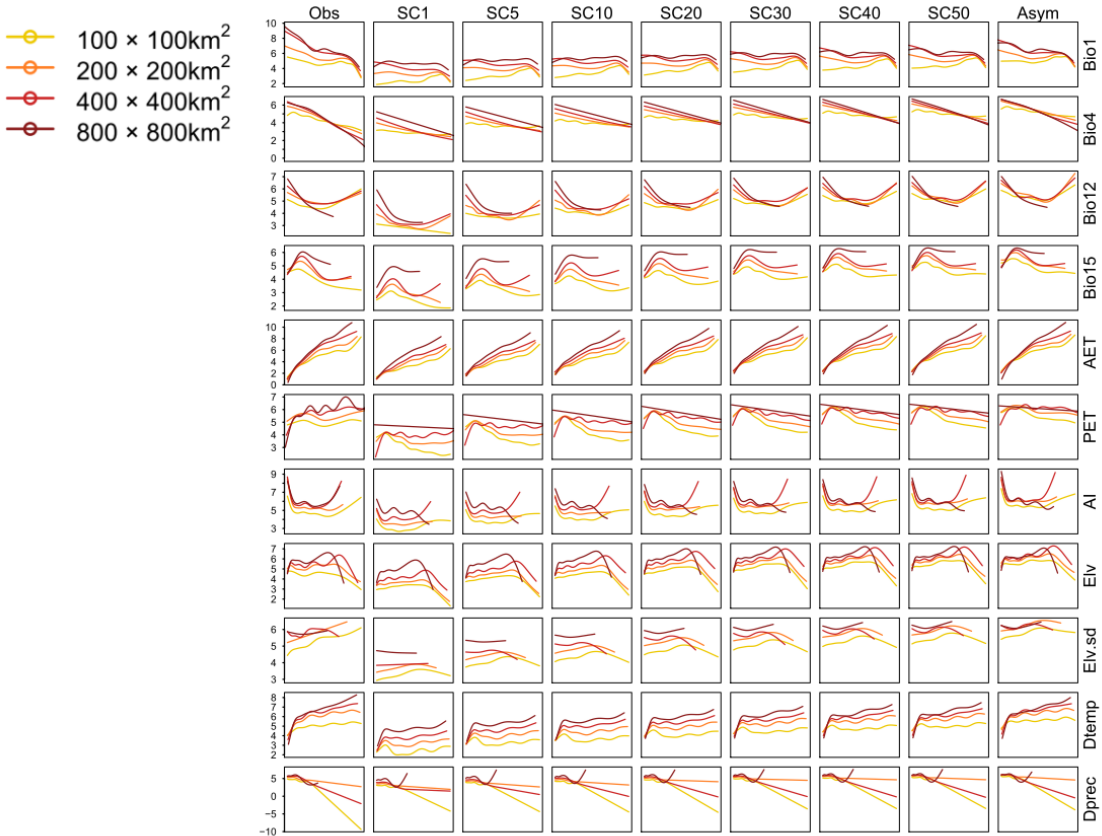


**Fig. S15.**



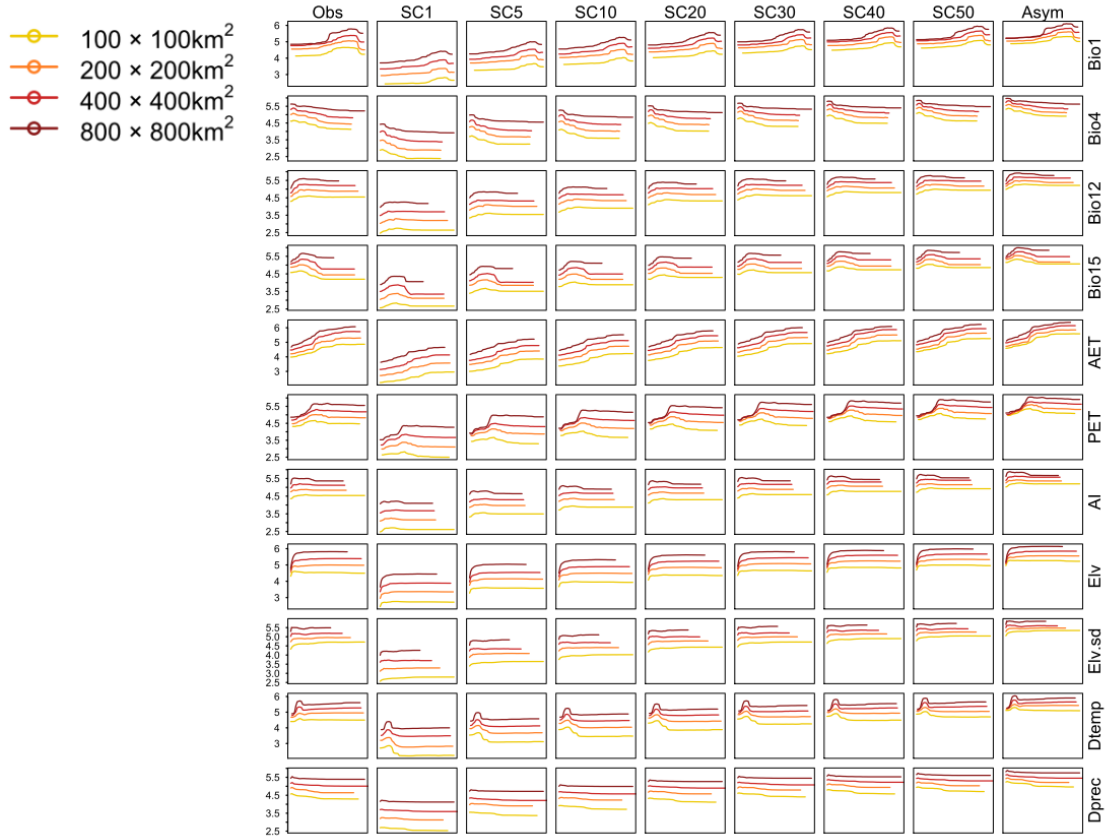
Impact of spatial-resolutions on the standardised regression coefficient of the environmental variables in ordinary least square regression model explaining species richness with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%) analysed using generalized additive model. The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

**Fig. S16.**



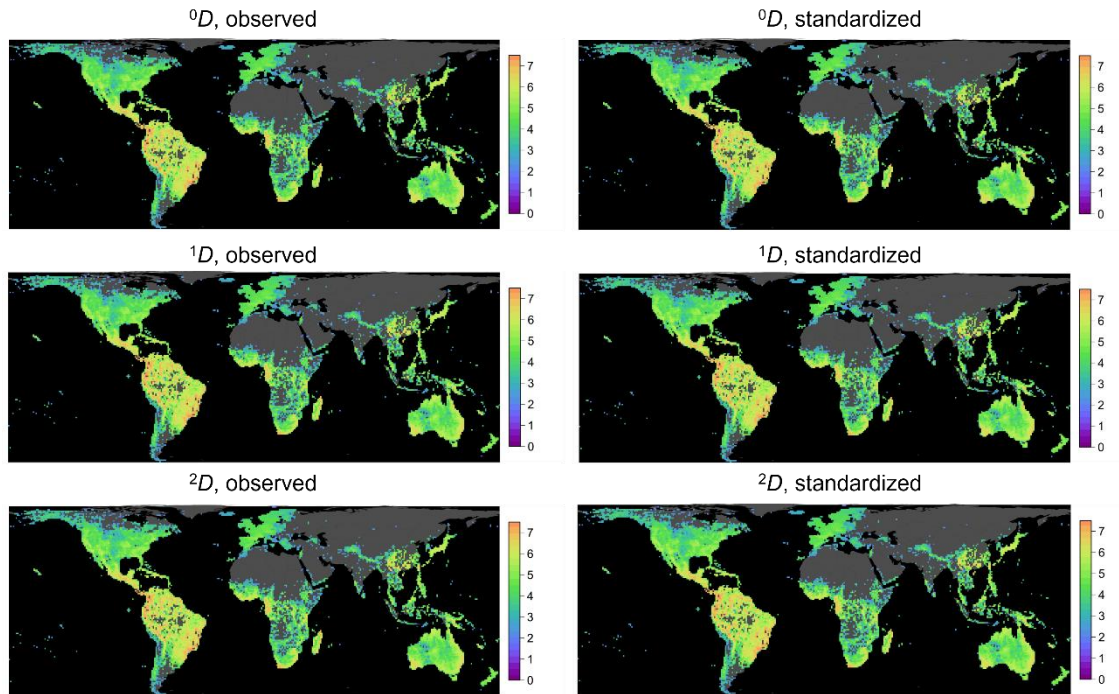
Impact of spatial-resolutions on the relationships between the environmental variables and species richness with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1–50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%) analysed using generalized additive model. The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

**Fig. S17.**



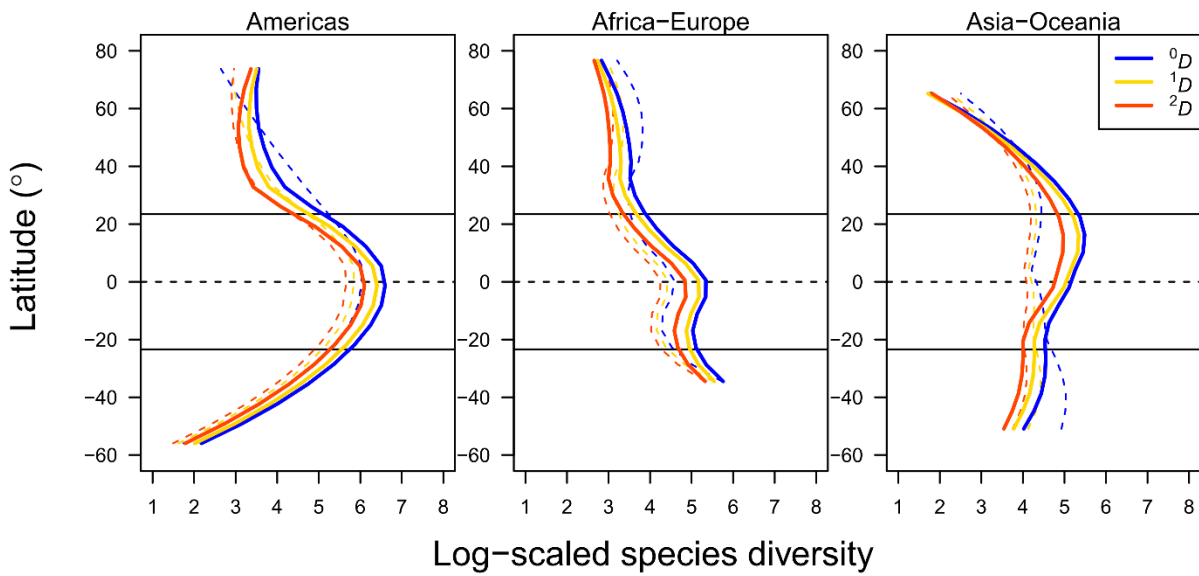
Impact of spatial-resolutions on the relationships between the environmental variables and species richness with different levels of standardization by sample coverage (SC): observed sample coverage (Obs), standardised at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles of SC (SC1-50; see table S4 for corresponding SC values), and asymptotic diversity (Asym; corresponding to SC = 100%) analysed using random forest model. The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

**Fig. S18.**



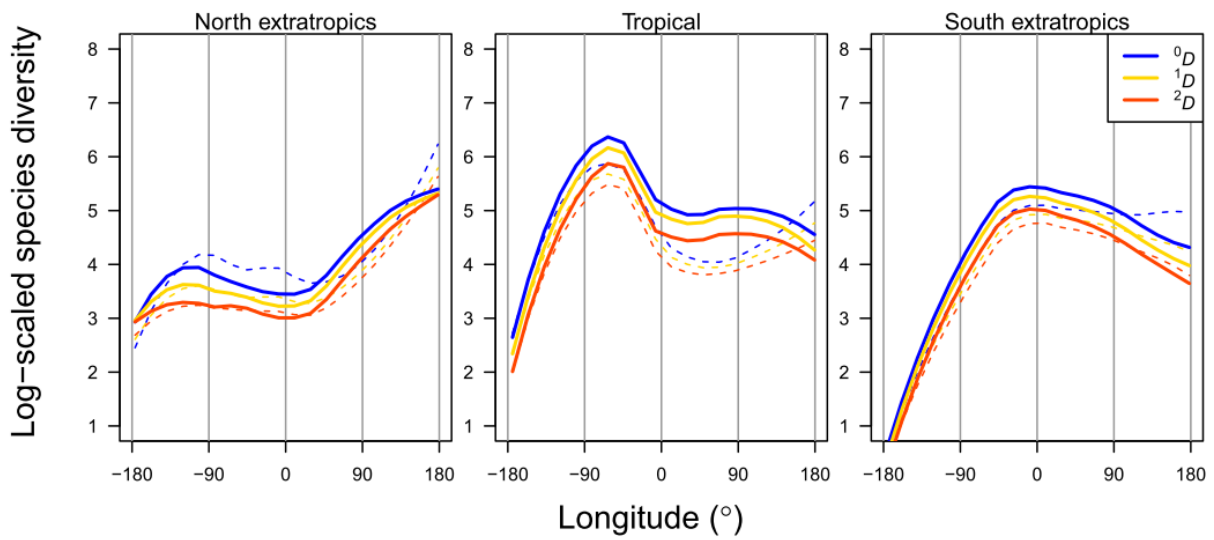
Geographical maps for the observed and standardised (at 40th percentile of sample coverage = 0.82) species diversity based on Hill numbers: species richness ( ${}^0D$ ), Shannon diversity ( ${}^1D$ ), and Simpson diversity ( ${}^2D$ ), at approximately  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cell level.

Fig. S19.



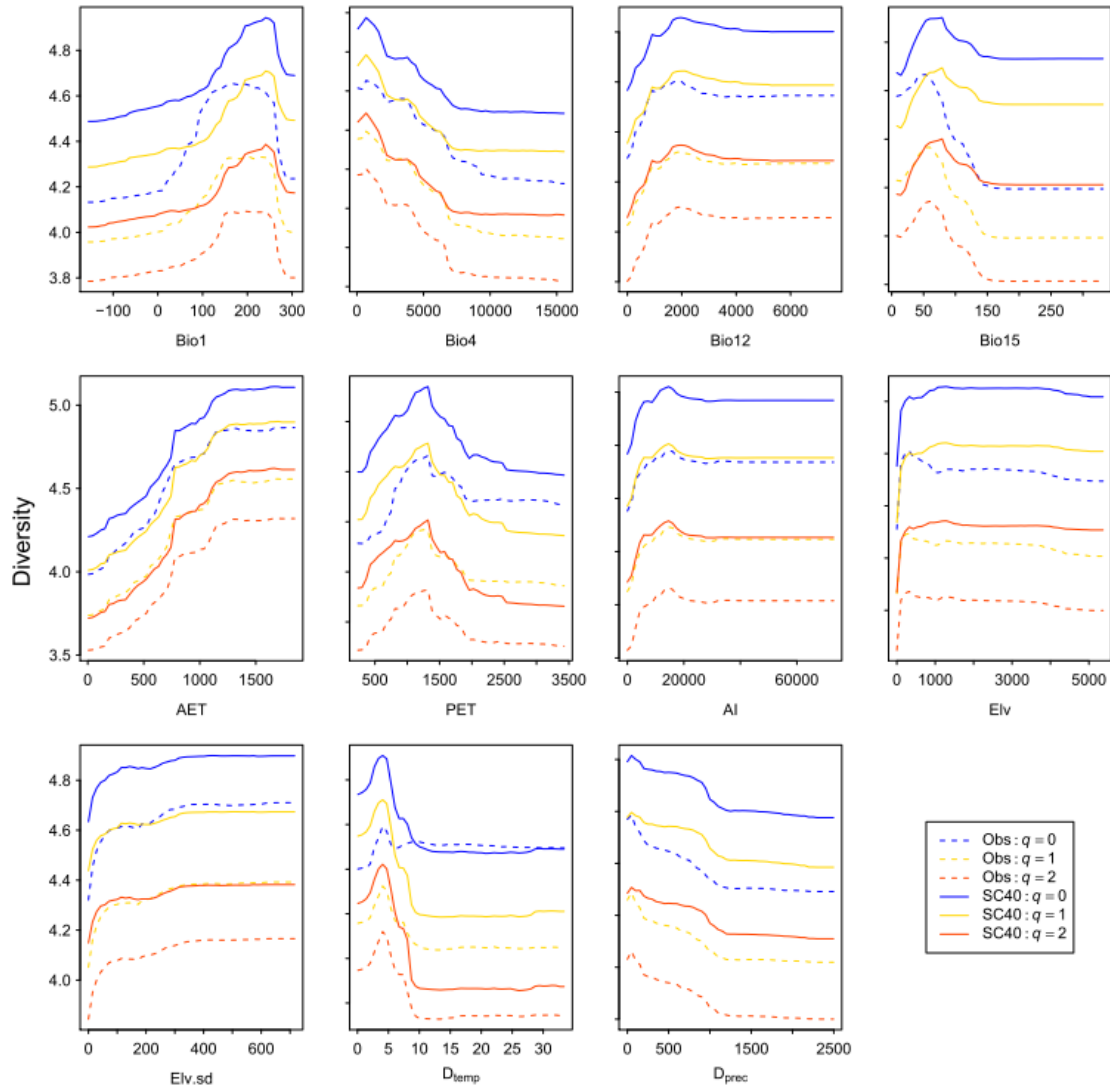
Latitudinal gradient of species diversity based on Hill numbers ( ${}^qD$ ;  $q = 0, 1, 2$ ) at approximately  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cell level. Dashed and solid lines represent observed and standardised (at 40th percentile of sample coverage = 0.82) values, respectively. Loess (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing) curves (scaling parameter alpha = 0.6) are shown.

**Fig. S20.**



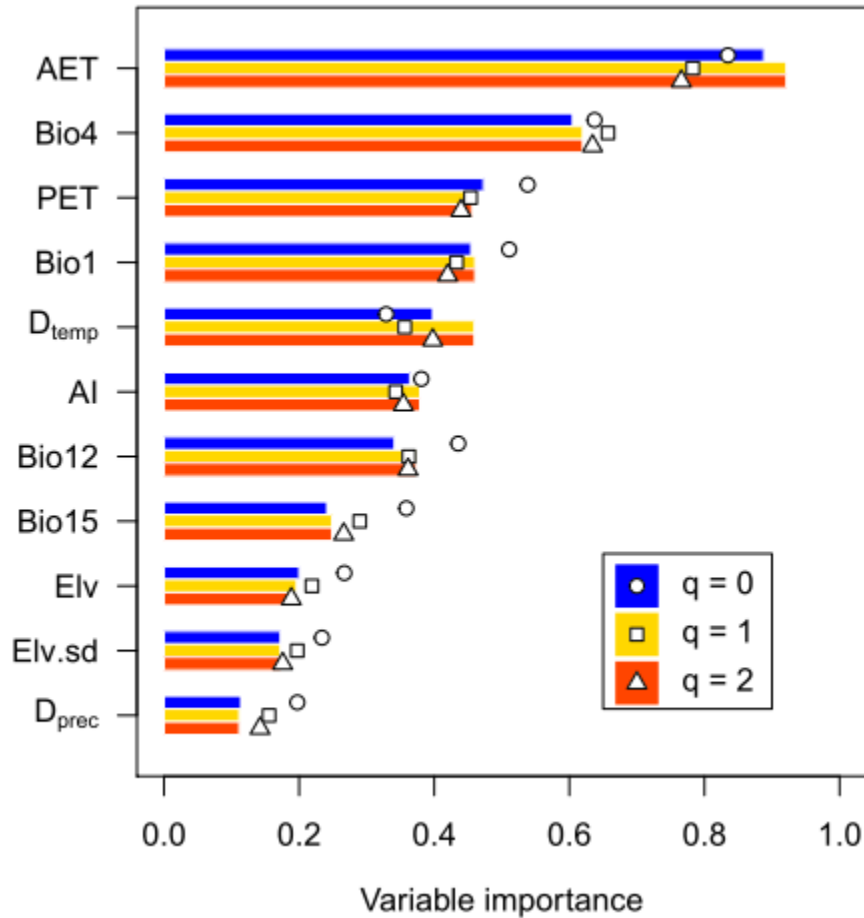
Longitudinal gradient of species diversity based on Hill numbers ( ${}^qD$ ;  $q = 0, 1, 2$ ) at approximately  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cell level. Dashed and solid lines represent observed and standardised (at 40th percentile of sample coverage = 0.82) values, respectively. Loess (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing) curves (scaling parameter  $\alpha = 0.6$ ) are shown

**Fig. S21.**



Comparison of partial dependency of explanatory variables in the Random Forest models explaining species diversity based on Hill numbers ( ${}^qD$ ;  $q = 0, 1, 2$ ) at approximately  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cell level. Observed diversity (Obs) and standardized (at 40th percentile of sample coverage = 0.82) species diversity (SC40) are shown. The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{\text{temp}}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{\text{prec}}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

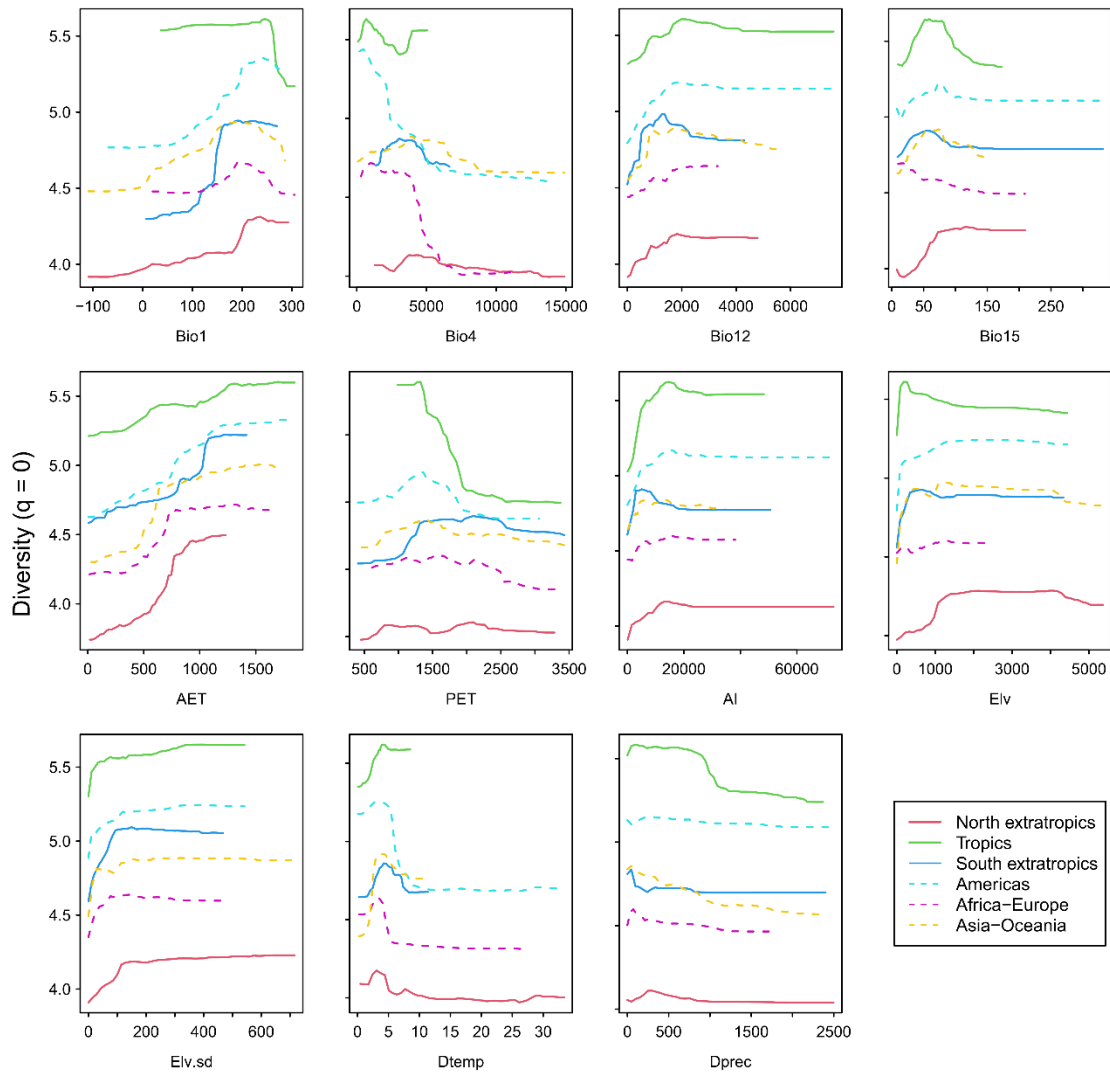
Fig. S22.



Comparison of relative importance (permutation importance) of explanatory variables in the random forest models explaining species diversity based on Hill numbers ( ${}^qD$ ;  $q = 0, 1, 2$ ) at approximately  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cell level. Bars and points represent observed and standardised (at 40th percentile of sample coverage = 0.82) values, respectively. The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio 1), temperature seasonality (Bio 4), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation seasonality (Bio 15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{\text{temp}}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{\text{prec}}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

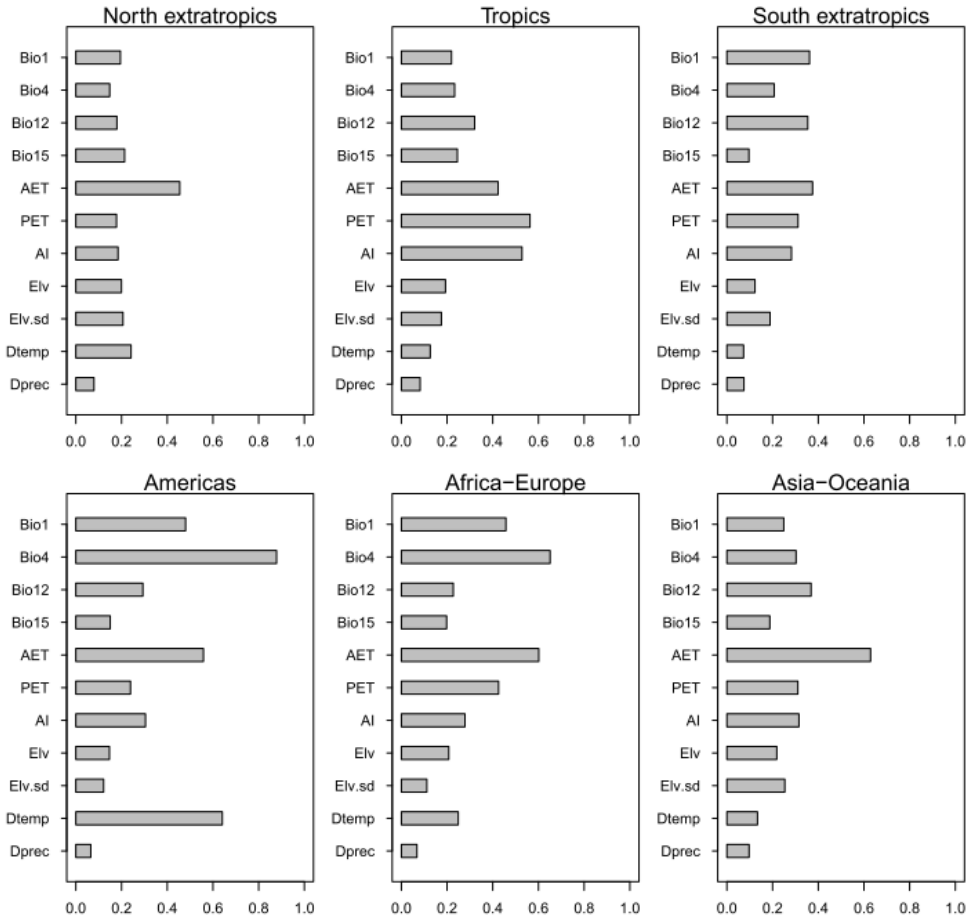


**Fig. S23.**



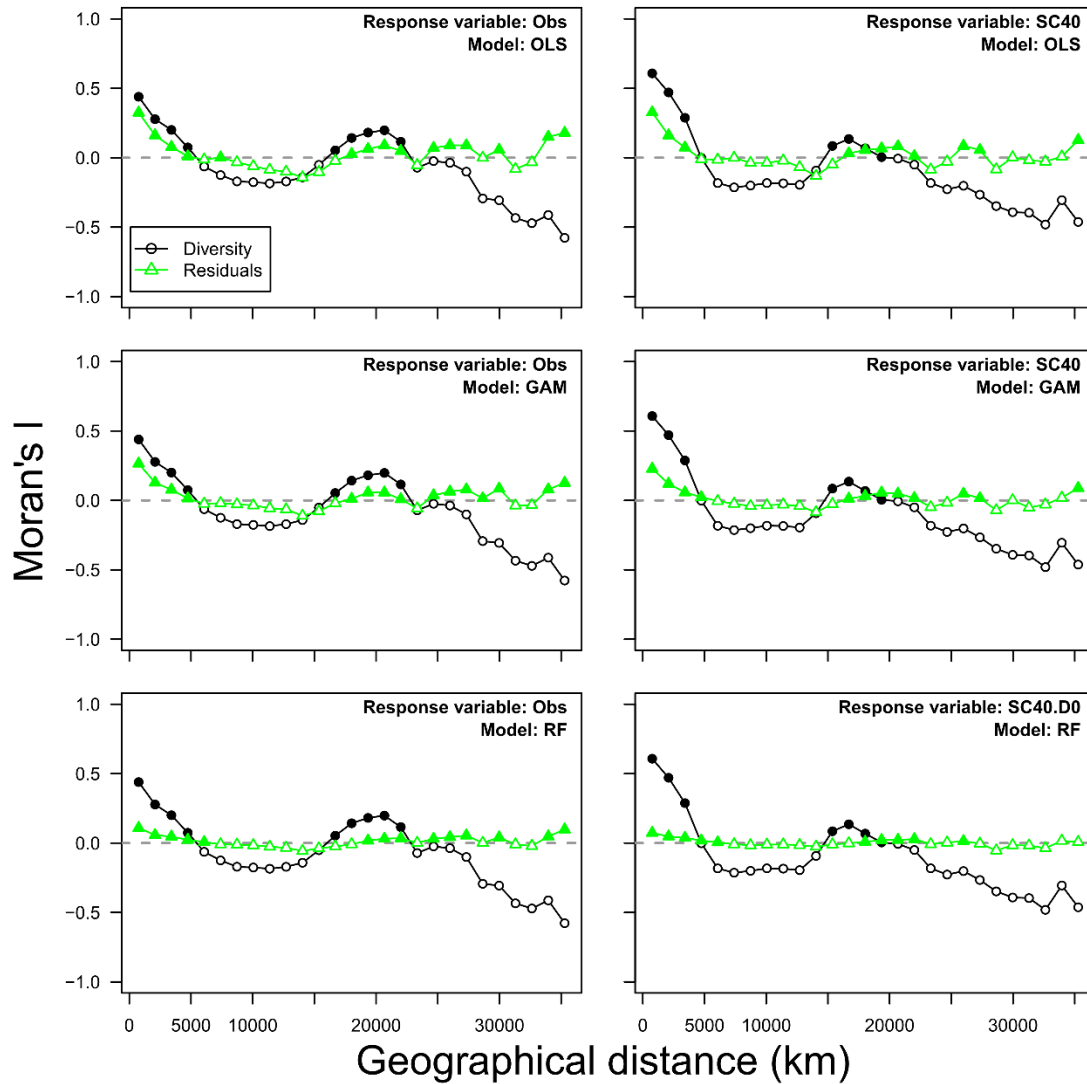
Comparison of partial dependency of explanatory variables in the random forest models explaining species richness among latitudinal (tropics and north and south extratropics) or latitudinal (Americas, Africa-Europe, and Asia-Oceania) zones. The species richness at approximately  $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$  grid cell was standardised at the 40th percentile of sample coverage (0.82). The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio1), temperature seasonality (Bio4), annual precipitation (Bio12), precipitation seasonality (Bio15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv\_sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{\text{temp}}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{\text{prec}}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

**Fig. S24.**



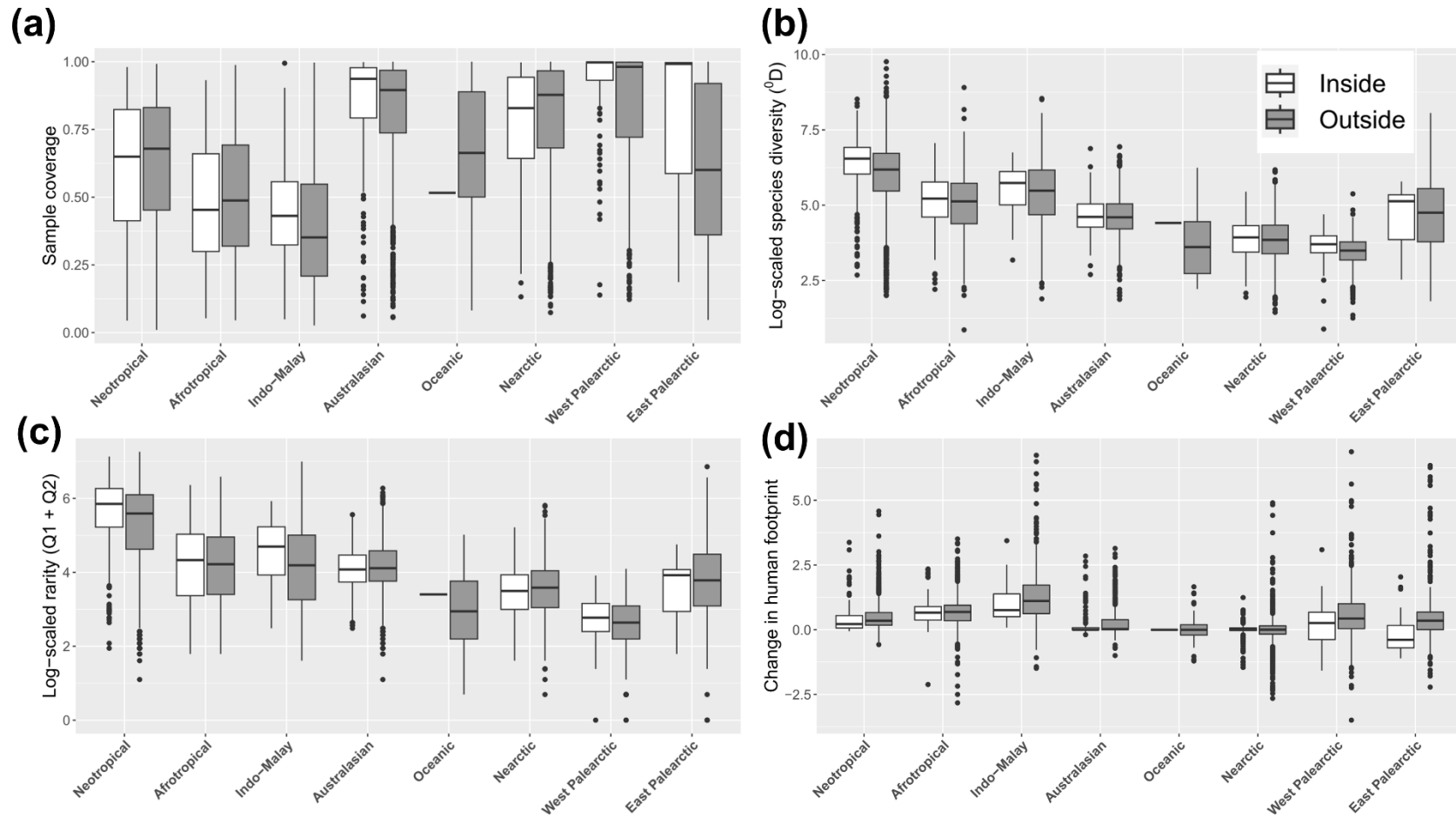
Comparison of relative importance of explanatory variables in the random forest models explaining species richness among latitudinal (tropical and north and south extratropics) or latitudinal (Americas, Africa-Europe, and Asia-Oceania) zones. The species richness at approximately 100 km × 100 km grid cell was standardised at the 40th percentile of sample coverage (0.82). The environmental variables are mean annual temperature (Bio1), temperature seasonality (Bio4), annual precipitation (Bio12), precipitation seasonality (Bio15), actual evapotranspiration (AET), potential evapotranspiration (PET), aridity index (AI), average elevation (Elv), standard deviation of elevation (Elv.sd), and differences in temperature ( $D_{temp}$ ) and precipitation ( $D_{prec}$ ) between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

Fig. S25



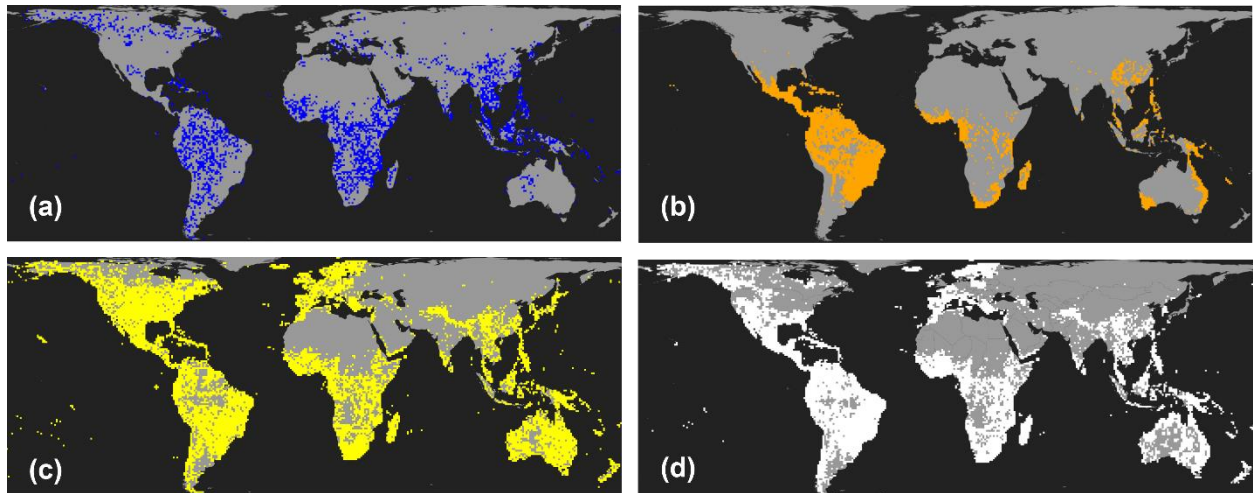
Spatial correlogram of species richness and of the residuals of regression models analyzed at 100 km  $\times$  100 km grid cell level: ordinary least squares (OLS), generalized additive model (GAM), Random Forest model (RF). The observed (Obs) and the sample coverage-based standardized (SC40) species richness (sample coverage = 0.82) are shown.

Fig. S26



Comparison of grid-cell properties associated with woody angiosperm diversity between inside and outside the existing protected areas (PA): (a) sample coverage, (b) log-scaled standardized species richness, (c) rarity defined as the number of unique and duplicated species, and (d) change in the Human Footprint between 2000 and 2018.

**Fig. S27**



Global map of binarized variables used to determine spatial priority areas for improving sampling completeness of species occurrence records of woody angiosperms: a) low sampling coverage areas (lower than the 30<sup>th</sup> percentile; blue); b) high species rarity areas (upper than the 70<sup>th</sup> percentile; orange); c) unprotected areas (yellow); d) areas experiencing escalating human pressure between 2000-2018 (white).

**Table S1.**

Overview of literature sources used to compile the woody angiosperm data

<b>Type</b>	<b>Sources</b>
Country flora list	Refs. 115-211
Botanical literature	Refs. 119, 124, 130, 131, 148, 171, 176, 202, 213-237
Species occurrence records	Refs. 145, 238-242; GBIF*

\* See table S3 for doi for the occurrence data downloads

**Table S2 (separate file)**

Global woody angiosperm species list

**Table S3 (separate file)**

Digital object identifiers (doi) for the download of species occurrence data from GBIF



**Table S4**

Sample coverage (SC) values at 1st, 5th, 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th and 50th percentiles at different spatial resolution

Spatial resolution	SC1	SC5	SC10	SC20	SC30	SC40	SC50
ca 100 km × 100 km	0.142	0.313	0.431	0.596	0.729	0.820	0.889
ca 200 km × 200 km	0.227	0.449	0.579	0.734	0.836	0.905	0.944
ca 400 km × 400 km	0.336	0.559	0.697	0.829	0.902	0.95	0.972
ca 800 km × 800 km	0.470	0.69	0.799	0.896	0.951	0.972	0.986

**Table S5**

Correlations among environmental variables and their variance inflation factors (VIF) used in environmental driver analysis

	Bio1	Bio4	Bio12	Bio15	AET	PET	AI	Elv	Elv.sd	D <sub>temp</sub>	D <sub>prec</sub>
Bio1											
Bio4	-0.80										
Bio12	0.37	-0.54									
Bio15	0.33	-0.23	-0.23								
AET	0.51	-0.63	0.86	-0.18							
PET	0.68	-0.32	-0.23	0.47	-0.17						
AI	-0.02	-0.27	0.84	-0.41	0.64	-0.55					
Elv	-0.33	0.12	-0.23	0.23	-0.24	-0.03	-0.22				
Elv.sd	-0.32	0.05	0.03	0.07	-0.09	-0.22	0.09	0.69			
D <sub>temp</sub>	-0.68	0.73	-0.29	-0.33	-0.36	-0.48	0.01	-0.06	-0.12		
D <sub>prec</sub>	-0.02	-0.13	0.54	-0.17	0.32	-0.25	0.53	-0.06	0.16	0.04	
VIF	20.88	6.78	13.10	1.64	9.15	9.15	7.56	3.32	2.59	3.08	1.73

Bio1: mean annual temperature; Bio 4: temperature seasonality, Bio12: annual precipitation; Bio15: precipitation seasonality; AET: actual evapotranspiration; PET: potential evapotranspiration; AI: aridity index (AI); Elv: average elevation; Elv.sd: standard deviation of elevation, D<sub>temp</sub>: differences in temperature between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present; D<sub>prec</sub> differences in precipitation between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present.

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