

Supplementary Materials

Table S2: Extinction of unknown species review table:

| Term | No. | Summary and Analysis | References |
|------------------|------------|--|--|
| Cryptic | 10 | <i>A mix of uses for the term, including firstly, the extinction of a species that went unnoticed due to being uncharismatic as a species [1]; and extinct species, 'newly described' through close examination of morphology [2]. Secondly, the term refers to potential or suspected cryptic (often genetically analysed) extinctions that have already occurred [3]. Thirdly, two papers specific to the extinction risk for undescribed species of lizard (in two papers) and unspecified endophytes [4]. Finally, one paper had a paleontological focus [5]. All papers, except Schlegel et al., analyse one or more specific named species or guild that are extinct or suspected of extinction; very specific species guild. However, Schlegel's work examines endophytes for a particular tree species, so specificity is a key theme.</i> | [1]: (Fisher and Ineich 2012); [2]: (Nakamura et al. 2013); [3]: (Leonard et al. 2007; McKinney et al. 2012; Melzer et al. 2019; Scarsbrook et al. 2021); [4]: (McDonald et al. 2022; Oliver et al. 2023; Schlegel et al. 2018); [5]: (Cowman and Bellwood 2011) |
| Crypto | 2 | <i>One paper uses a similar definition and meaning to that of dark extinction, though a little less explicit regarding human-induced extinction, the authors mention human activities p. 73 [6]. The other paper uses crypto-extinction in the abstract, but does not mention or define it again. They use the term 'undescribed' much more frequently in the paper [7].</i> | [6]: (Giam et al. 2011) [7]: (Kristensen et al. 2020) |
| Dark | 2 | <i>Clearly define dark extinction as species extinct prior to scientific discovery through human causes ('anthropogenic extinction') [8, 9]. The authors provide precise historical layers and timings set in the environmental history of the location of study [8] and make it clear most dark extinctions will never become specifically named species with specimens or physical remains.</i> | [8]: (Lambdon and Cronk 2020) [9]: (Boehm and Cronk 2021) |
| Hidden | 4 | <i>In two cases, 'hidden extinction' seems to be a synonym for cryptic extinctions, where the loss of specific species was only revealed after later genetic analysis [10]. In two cases, the term was utilised by science communicator and a reporter, the term 'hidden' was not used in the original academic article, suggesting the recognition a more public-facing term would be beneficial [11].</i> | [10]: (Wu et al. 2022; Yan et al. 2018) [11]: (Callaway 2020; Lawton 2023) |
| Invisible | 2 | <i>Both uses of this term come from more popular, non-scientific and non-high-academic sources. The first author [12] enjoys writing about the environment, referring to extinction crisis as invisible to most urban dwellers of Australia because they incorrectly assume wildlife areas hold the wildlife and don't see the losses. The second [13] is a short piece from non-ecology experts, drawing attention to unnoticed anticipated extinction and decline in insects and incorporating art/graphic design to make this message clearer.</i> | [12]: (Rawson 2018) [13]: (Boggs and Siegrist 2020) |
| Secret | 1 | <i>The oldest paper for this topic from the Web of Science search (1993) [14]. A paper on genetic biodiversity lost in forests which looks at local population genetic diversity loss that goes unseen.</i> | [14]: (Ledig 1993) |

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| Undetected | 3 | <i>The first paper using this term [15] presents a non-parametric model for calculating previously unknown extinctions; the second [16] notes likely extinctions of rare species already extinct in the area of their study. Finally, [17] provide a comparison of two models for calculating undetected extinctions, one model being [15], the other uses the label 'undescribed' [18]</i> | [15]: (Chisholm et al. 2016) [16]: (Kaye et al. 2019) [17]: (Lum et al. 2021) |
| Undescribed | 1 | <i>Full term used is 'undescribed species extinction' [18], though numerous variations and terms are used throughout the article, it seems no one term is chosen or defined. The first quantitative model for estimating theoretical past unknown extinctions.</i> | [18]: (Tedesco et al. 2014) |
| Undocumented | 2 | <i>Both focus on marine extinctions and seem to be pre-cursors to the notion of theoretical unknown extinctions outside of palaeontology: [19] explores the potential for undocumented extinctions in marine life [20] considers suspected previous and future undocumented extinction in marine sediment biodiversity.</i> | [19]: (Powles et al. 2000) [20]: (Snelgrove 1998) |
| Unknown | 2 | <i>Both articles are from environmental humanities scholars and focus on conceptualisation and engaging with absence of unknown species [21].</i> | [21]: (Bastian 2020; van Dooren 2022) |
| Unrecognised | 2 | <i>Both quite different to previous search results: [22] examined the potential extinction of specific ancestral silk genes (a type of spider's silk gene paralog), in this sense, it was most similar in topic to [14]. [23] reanalysed elements of fossil records leading to 'new' extinctions, previously unrecognised. No anthropological factors were noted, more focused on sea level changes due to non-human-induced climate conditions.</i> | [22]: (Ayoub and Hayashi 2008) [23]: (Pimiento et al. 2017) |
| Unrecorded | 3 | <i>Early discussion of theoretical potential for unrecorded extinctions to mean hypothetical extinctions that we cannot know what they were but can be confident species are already extinct due to anthropogenic factors such as deforestation [24]. [25] mentions unrecorded extinctions in a similar meaning to dark extinctions, but the focus is on rats as the cause for these unknown extinctions. [26] sees overlaps with cryptic and hidden extinctions, using the term to mean unaware of previous extinctions (of plants in this case).</i> | [24] (Cardoso et al. 2010) [25] (Harper and Bunbury 2015) [26] (Vorontsova et al. 2021) |
| Notes on 'dark extinction' literature search: All search results from Web of Science. Search results that returned articles which used the terms but not similar meanings were removed from results (for example, 'unknown extinctions' included 6 publications relating to beyond-earth extinctions, such as the extinction of stars, and 3 'false hits', where the words 'unknown' and 'extinction' were found together, but had been taken out of context, the articles were focused on other elements of extinction, such as unknown extinction risks for pandas as their conservation status was downgraded). Where American spelling variations existed, both British and American search terms were used ("unrecognised extinction\$" OR "unrecognized extinction\$"). | | | |

List of References for Table S2

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Figure S6: A bar chart showing twenty-one labels found in literature relating to shadow diversity language and the total number of publications found in the Web of Science data base for each term under a ‘topic’ search. The highest bars are for cryptic species and taxa, undescribed species and taxa, and unknown species and taxa.

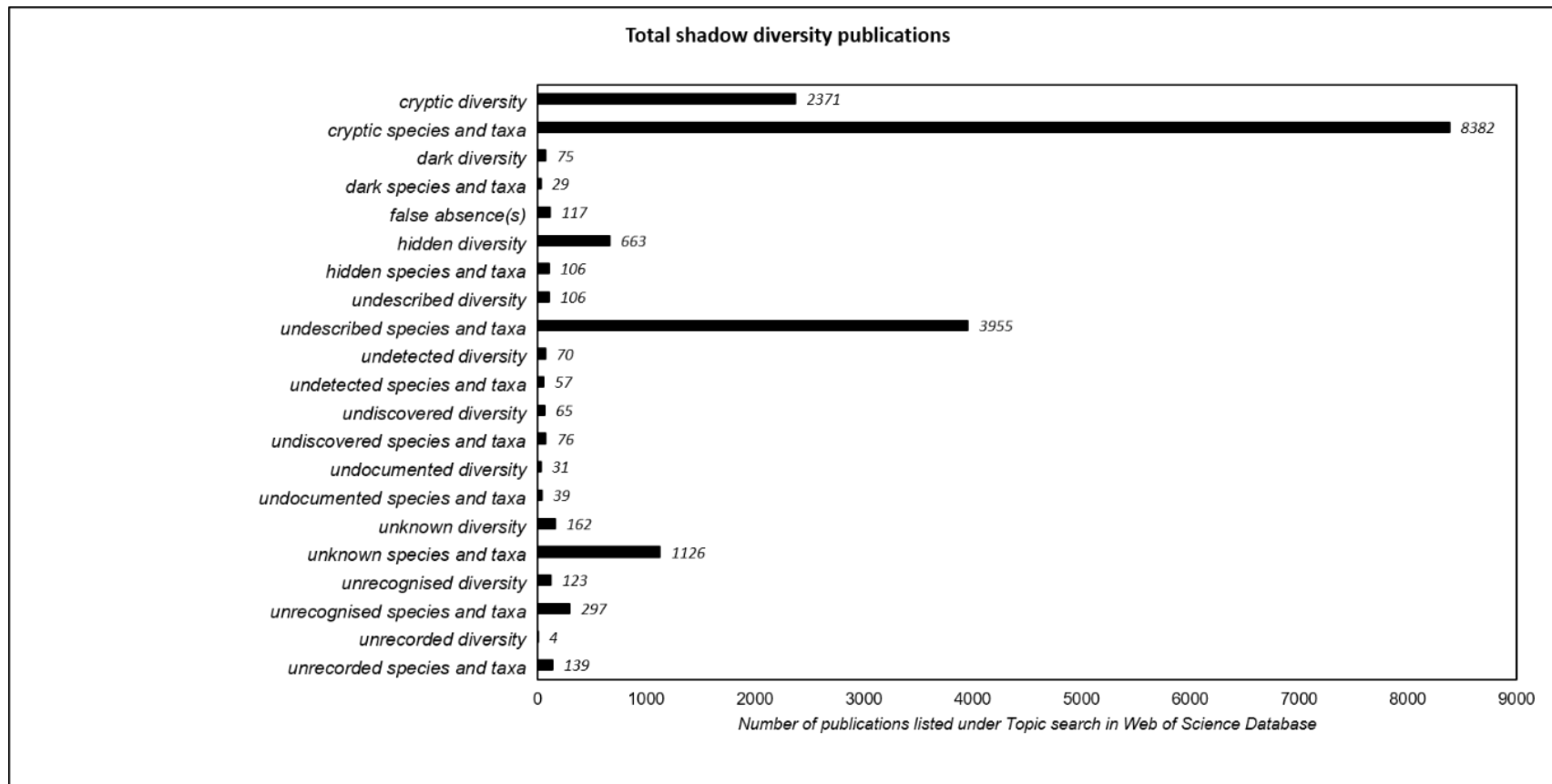


Table S3: Shadow diversity terminology review table

| Term | Previous studies | References |
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| Cryptic | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Cryptic species are frequently defined as multiple species previously thought to be one species, with differentiating characteristics shown via genetic sequencing, chemical tests, or other non-morphological techniques such as auditory differences [1]. Most studies using the term “cryptic” use phylogenetic or molecular DNA or RNA-based techniques [2]. Others use cryptic to mean obscured, such as underground species or well-camouflaged [3]. A previous review of cryptic species literature noted the confusion in defining the term and range of meanings it had already been used for by 2007 [1] and pleas for consistent accurate use of language for this concept continue [4].</i> <i>Overall, literature regarding cryptic focus on speciation and species boundaries [5]; estimated numbers of cryptic species [6]; and novel methods of discovery, such as near-infrared spectroscopy [7] to support species differentiation; DNA barcoding [8]; or integrated approaches using eDNA and morphology or traditional identification approaches [9].</i> <i>Several studies note the importance of incorporating cryptic species into ecological and conservation models and approaches [10].</i> | <p>[1] (Bickford et al. 2007) Examples: (Grabowski et al., 2017; Morinière et al., 2019; Sharkey et al., 2021) [2] (Delić et al. 2017; Grabowski et al. 2017; Hebert et al. 2004; Jofre et al. 2022; Marko and Moran 2009) [3] (Claridge et al. 2004) [4] (Janosik and Halanych 2010) [5] (De Clerck et al. 2013; Jorna et al. 2021) [6] (Baker and Bradley 2006; McDonald et al. 2022) [7] (Klarica et al. 2011) [8] (DeSalle and Goldstein 2019; Hebert et al. 2004) [9] (Mátis et al. 2022; Moraes et al. 2021) [10] (Delić et al. 2017; Fišer et al. 2018)</p> |
| Dark | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Dark diversity is an estimated measure for absent species that ecologically would be expected to inhabit an area, but do not [11]. Dark diversity is therefore a set term with accompanying methods. The purpose of calculating dark diversity, is the aim to measure actual, rather than false, absences. Up to the 2023, we found 70 papers using the term ‘dark diversity’ as per this definition and method [12]. We concluded the term is not suitable for describing anticipated dark extinctions without adding to confusing and contradictory definitions.</i> <i>All ‘dark species’ search results used the term ‘dark’ in the context of describing and comparing species, for example, darkly-coloured creatures [13], though some studies included finding new species [14], in all cases, the term ‘dark’ was referring to colour or shade in the context of those articles, therefore only dark taxa and dark taxon were included.</i> <i>‘Dark taxa’ refers to species for which we have some genetic material, often from genetic sequencing, but no matching described organism in metabarcoding databases, because the species is undiscovered, or unnamed, or because we do not yet have confirmed genetic sequences in the database for the species we have described traditionally [15].</i> | <p>[11] (Pärtel et al. 2011) [12] Examples include: (Boussarie et al. 2018; de Bello et al. 2016; Fernandes et al. 2019; Fløjgaard et al. 2020; Ronk et al. 2015; Valdez et al. 2021) [13] Examples (Damm et al. 2010; Ito et al. 2015; Johnson and Rutowski 2022; Nupponen and Junnilainen 1998; Phinney et al. 2021; Roth et al. 2021; Strong et al. 1991) [14] (Balboa et al. 2017; Hedges and Garrido 1992; Huber et al. 2019; Kasperek 2019; Mejdalani and Cavichioli 2014) [15] (Kortmann et al. 2022; Morinière et al. 2019; Nilsson et al. 2019; Page 2011, 2016; Ryberg and Nilsson 2018)</p> |

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| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Biological dark matter, or microbial dark matter and viral dark matter [16]: refer to understudied biological particles and substances, often evading visible detection, and previously thought not to be consequential for the biological functioning of a creature or cell.</i> | [16] (Bernard <i>et al.</i> 2018; Bruno <i>et al.</i> 2017; Ross 2016; Zamkovaya <i>et al.</i> 2021) |
| False absences | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Almost all papers encountered referred to the importance of accounting for imperfect detection and false absences for conservation purposes and accurate data to inform conservation decisions [17].</i> • <i>Most papers deal with various forms of occupancy modelling, however these models are focused on minimising or eliminating false absences of known species, often already a subject of conservation [18]</i> • <i>Models centre on calculating detection probabilities of specific species (see list above), method [19], or area, for purposes of calculating minimum survey efforts [20] and to account for false absences [21], providing statistical methods to estimate these [22].</i> • <i>Newest models allow for latest methods of data collection, such as remote data rather than only traditional physical survey visits [23].</i> | [17] (Ariefiandy <i>et al.</i> 2014; Benoit <i>et al.</i> 2018; Issaris <i>et al.</i> 2012) [18] (Bingham <i>et al.</i> 2009; Fusco-Costa <i>et al.</i> 2023; Hanspach <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lauriault and Wiersma 2019; Williams and Berkson 2004) [19] (Wedderburn 2018) [20] (Garrard <i>et al.</i> 2015; Wintle <i>et al.</i> 2005) [21] (Riva <i>et al.</i> 2020) [22] (Wilson <i>et al.</i> 2011; Wintle <i>et al.</i> 2005) [23] (Mohankumar and Hefley 2022; Rhinehart <i>et al.</i> 2022) |
| Hidden | <p><i>Mixed use:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>This can be speciation, often used interchangeably with ‘cryptic species’ [24] to refer to new discoveries previously ‘hidden’ within a genus, often revealed via DNA or new methodologies, or anticipated future cryptic species still in hiding.</i> • <i>Practical nature of false absences [25]</i> • <i>Similar to ‘unknown’ species, focus on habitats or microhabitats previously under-researched, such as a plant rhizosphere [26]. The focus is usually on one genus or taxonomic group per study.</i> • <i>Hidden diversity has a similar application, but is additionally used to refer to estimates of further anticipated novel species, such as in [27].</i> • <i>Some cultural ‘hidden diversity’, such as [28], referring to multiple species by one local, vernacular term. In this sense, it resembles a cultural version of cryptic diversity.</i> | [24] (Milić <i>et al.</i> 2019; Stork 2018) [25] (Birks <i>et al.</i> 2016; Pärtel 2014) [26] (Bass <i>et al.</i> 2018) [27] (Kynčlová <i>et al.</i> 2010) [28] (Cavalcanti and Albuquerque 2013) |
| Invisible | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Invisible diversity is seldom utilised in ecology: Of the two papers on “invisible diversity”, only one is widely available: This examines co-extinction of parasites, a focus of study neglected by ecologists according to Votýpka and colleagues [29].</i> • <i>Beyond ecology ‘invisible diversity’ is more commonly used to discuss and study human equality diversity and refers to invisible traits and characteristics within this [30]. This would make it a confusing term to adopt for quite different purposes in biological setting.</i> • <i>Invisible species and taxa is used infrequently. The main use seems to relate to molecular level species, which are quite literally, invisible, within biophysics and</i> | [29] (Votýpka <i>et al.</i> 2020) [30] (Blank 2005; Peters 2021; Popova 2018) [31] (Hansel <i>et al.</i> 2015; Ross 2016) [32] (Hurrell and Puentes 2017; Puentes <i>et al.</i> 2019) |

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| | <p><i>biochemistry. The exception to this are two recent articles who utilise 'invisibility' regarding invisible, biocultural knowledge of plants, which owes its invisibility to use of different cultures Chinese immigrants to Argentina and commercial invisibility of some taxa [32].</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall, the term 'invisible' seems to be used either to denote literal invisibility at a molecular level, or in the context of social and cultural invisibilities. With less than ten papers (six in total) referring to invisible diversity or species/taxa, this term was excluded from Figure 4. | |
| Neglected | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'Neglected' is used to highlight previous lack of attention towards biodiversity of specific regions [33], groups of species [34], or specific species for taxonomic revision [35]. Though even where the neglect cited is for a wide geographical range [33], the study realistically focuses on just one or two hitherto cryptic species. In this sense, 'neglected' diversity is being used as a synonym for overlooked areas of biodiversity [36], in practice, most often looking at specifically previously overlooked species. • Around half of the search results for neglected species related to plant science [36], suggesting 'neglected' is a term particularly favoured by plant taxonomists or commonly used within that taxonomic specialism. | <p>[33] (Caković et al. 2018) [34] (Durigon et al. 2019; Gorbalenya and Siddell 2021; Lehnert et al. 2009; Lopes et al. 2021; Lopez-Vaamonde et al. 2019; Reumont and Marcus 2018; Wanninger 2008) [35] (Bakalin et al. 2019; Luna et al. 2021) [36] (Wyckhuys et al. 2021) [37] (Martínez-Azorín et al. 2018; Uotila 1979)</p> |
| Overlooked | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heavily dominated by studies focused on less popular species [38], uncharismatic species [39] and those difficult to detect [40]. • Clear crossover of concept with the label 'neglected' as a synonym for this label, with many of the same patterns, including a high number of plant science-based papers [41] (with the topic 'plant science' making up around 40% of results, compared to approximately 30% listed under zoology, etymology and marine freshwater topics combined). | <p>[38] (Bronne et al. 2022) [39] (Boom 2021) [40] (Mannerkoski 2000; Sampaio et al. 2010) [41] (Lumbsch et al. 2003; Maldonado et al. 2017; Metusala 2019)</p> |
| Undescribed | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We estimate around half of articles focus on the discovery of novel species and use 'undescribed' as a linguistic tool to emphasise the taxonomic novelty and significance of the new descriptions: we eliminated over 45% (1,750 of 3,955 articles) of search results for 'undescribed species' by excluding entries preceded by 'hitherto-', 'previously-' and excluding entries encased by a number and 'of' a particular species. We still saw numerous entries describing new species even after these exclusions. Examples of newly discovered species using this term in their title, abstract or keywords: [42]. • Of newly described species, some used traditional methods such as morphology or culturing [43], most frequent was the sole or combined use of DNA sequencing, such as use of mitochondrial DNA and morphological features for the snail genus <i>Lithasa</i> [44], molecular phylogenetics used to distinguish deep- | <p>[42] (Doucette 2012; Dumont and Batra 1978; Long 1916; van der Linde et al. 2022) [43] (Catania and Romero 2005) [44] (Minton and Lydeard 2003) [45] (Horton et al. 2020) [46] (Belluardo et al. 2022) [47] (Decker 2016; Ebejer and Barták 2019; Fujikura et al. 2010; García-Avendaño and Guerrero 2018; Hawksworth 2004; Stork et al. 2008; Timm 1998) [48] (Smith and Heard 2001) [49] (De Laubenfels and Adema 1998; Nuryadi et al. 2020; Orange 2004)</p> |

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| | <p><i>sea amphipods [45], and Madagascan ‘narrow-mouthed frogs of the genus Rhombophryne’ [46].</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Beyond describing new species, a large portion of articles used ‘undescribed’ to differentiate between an organism that had been found, collected, or in some was discovered, but not yet formally described [47]. In some cases, this use of the term ‘undescribed’ became mixed with the now newly described [48]. Others used this differentiation in tandem with calls for further studies required [49], or to alert their taxonomic peers to newly described species as well as likely future undescribed diversity [50].</i> • <i>A smaller subset of articles focused on where or how much undescribed remains. These articles provided macro-level analysis, utilising large-scale datasets; statistical estimates or modelling, and often at global scales. They include undescribed mammals [51], fungi [52], amphibians and land mammals [53].</i> • <i>One article looked at dark extinction estimates, again at global level using statistical modelling [54].</i> | <p>[50] (Orihara and Smith 2017) [51] (Fisher et al. 2018) [52] (Hawksworth and Rossman 1997) [53] (Giam et al. 2011) [54] (Tedesco et al. 2014)</p> |
| Undetected | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>High numbers of papers use this term to refer to statistical models used to estimate numbers of species not captured by sampling efforts [55] and especially dominated by Chao’s work [56]. In this sense, we see high crossover with ‘false absences’, see above.</i> • <i>Still some studies focussed on particular species that have gone unnoticed [57], new species taxonomically delimited via phylogenetic methods [58] and use of new methods to find species [59] and predictions for where further undetected species might yet be found [60].</i> • <i>Finally, though looking at local extinction, we also find a further dark extinction statistical estimate for butterflies in Singapore [61].</i> | <p>[55] (Gotelli et al. 2010; Iknayan et al. 2014; Mao and Colwell 2005; Montgomery et al. 2021; Yamaura et al. 2011) [56] (Chao et al. 2015, 2017a, 2017b; Chao and Shen 2004; Huber and Chao 2019) [57] (Berger 2008; Madani 2021; Slapcinsky and Lasley 2007) [58] (Lavin et al. 2018) [59] (Webster et al. 2022) [60] (Hohlfeld and Arndt 2022; Hsieh and Linsenmair 2011) [61] (Theng et al. 2020)</p> |
| Undiscovered | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Focus on patterns of, discovery and predictions for locating undiscovered species, often on macro-scale quantitative studies [62] or how many species of a kingdom are yet to be discovered [63]. The term is strongly linked to species discovery curves and models using this [64].</i> • <i>A small number of papers describe novel species [65]: similar to ‘undescribed’, see above. However a larger number use the term to refer to the continued need to study a particular geographical or taxonomic area due to high likelihood of yet undiscovered species [66] and the concerns for conservation implications [67] as a result.</i> | <p>[62] (Costello et al. 2015; Fisher et al. 2018; Giam et al. 2010; Hawksworth and Rossman 1997; Joppa et al. 2011; Lu et al. 2021; Lücking 2012; Moura and Jetz 2021) [63] (Stork et al. 2008) [64] (Solow and Smith 2005) [65] (Almeida et al. 2012; Godeas and Arambarri 1996; Liu et al. 2022) [66] (Fernandes et al. 2015)</p> |

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| | | [67] (Ota et al. 2015; Payo-Payo and Lobo 2016) |
| Unknown | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Focus on discoveries of new species [68]</i> • <i>Focus on habitats which have led to the ‘discovery’ of multiple new species. [69]</i> • <i>Methodology often utilises DNA sequencing [70].</i> • <i>Less frequent under this label, but still some quantitative estimates of unknown biodiversity [71]</i> | <p>[68] (Agudelo-Zamora et al. 2020; Kumar et al. 2017; Schuster and Machado 2021)</p> <p>[69] (Schmidt et al. 2015)</p> <p>[70] (Bráte et al. 2010; Vieira et al. 2019)</p> <p>[71] (Gustafsson et al. 2019)</p> |
| Unrecognised | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Commonly used as a synonym or alternative term to ‘cryptic diversity’ [72] and helping to clarify species boundaries where confusion existed [73].</i> • <i>Some overlap with hidden species [74].</i> • <i>At times used to mean previously overlooked taxa, such as in the case of investigating orthoreoviruses in North American bats (Feng et al. 2022), or the gut parasites of small crustaceans, copepods [75]. Janosik and Halanych (2010) highlight this linguistic distinction, stating ‘we argue that there is a need for using more precise scientific language when discussing whether lineages of distinct species are difficult to detect (i.e., cryptic) or merely have not been noticed (i.e., unrecognized)[76]. Despite their plea, however, cryptic and unrecognised species are often used somewhat interchangeably, as noted above.</i> • <i>Majority of articles focus on newly discovered species, as per references above and almost exclusively utilise DNA analysis to support the recognition of previously unrecognised species [77]. The exception to this being papers published prior to genetic sequencing, in this case dealing with disagreements over the ‘correct’ placement of species within the taxonomic system [78].</i> • <i>As with cryptic diversity, the vast majority of studies are hyper-specific to a particular sub-set of species or sub-genus [79], either from a defined, local area [80], or reviewing the taxonomy of a specific area of phylogenetics or taxonomy. These hyper-precise micro studies are reflected in that the most frequent publications are Zootaxa and Zookeys, followed largely by an array of specialist publications such as Mycotaxon and Canadian Entomologist. This is indicative that many of these studies deal with finer points of precise, niche, specialist taxonomy.</i> | <p>[72] (Baker and Bradley 2006; Francis et al. 2010; Jofre et al. 2022; Mátis et al. 2022; Muis et al. 2023; Pereira and Prado 2022; Řičan et al. 2022; Rowley et al. 2015; Schilthuizen et al. 2022; Stefan et al. 2018; Wright et al. 2022)</p> <p>[73] (PAcheco et al. 2020)</p> <p>[74] (Brownstein et al. 2022; Packer and Taylor 1997)</p> <p>[75] (Skovgaard et al. 2012)</p> <p>[76] (Janosik and Halanych 2010)</p> <p>[77] (Akob et al. 2022; Caldwell and Chatterton 1995; Craig and Felder 2022; Eitner 1995; Huang and Shen 2016; Oberprieler et al. 2018; Prihatini et al. 2016; Saha et al. 2022)</p> <p>[78] (Welden 1958)</p> <p>[79] (Marko and Moran 2009)</p> <p>[80] (López et al. 2007)</p> |
| Unrecorded | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>We see a high crossover with ‘unrecognized’, ‘unknown’ and ‘undescribed’ for the term unrecorded: this includes ‘hitherto’ unrecorded species to highlight novelty [81]</i> • <i>Unlike labels ‘overlooked’ and ‘neglected’, which had higher use for studies on plants, we found the highest number of unrecorded species publications were categorized under ‘biodiversity conservation’ and within this, around two thirds of publications focused on Korean and South Korean new species [82], which may</i> | <p>[81] (del Carmen H. Rodríguez et al. 2021; Miranda 2017)</p> <p>[82] (Choi et al. 2020; Humala et al. 2022; Kim et al. 2012, 2020; Roh et al. 2016)</p> |

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| | <i>suggest particular cultural or linguistic preferences (or translation practicalities) for using one term in English over another.</i> |
| Other | Other terms searched for with ten or fewer relevant results: mystery (0 (bio)diversity, 1 species, 0 taxa); concealed (3 for (bio)diversity, 7 for species, 0 for taxa); unnoticed (4 (bio)diversity, 4 for species, 1 for taxa); secret (1 for (bio)diversity, 1 for species 0 for taxa). |
| All terms were searched for using the Web of Science database “topic” search, for species, taxa, taxon, diversity and biodiversity, with US spelling variations included where appropriate (such as ‘unrecognized’ and ‘unrecognised’), time period from earliest available in Web of Science, to end of 2022. | |

List of References for Table S3

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Table S4: Summary of additional sources supporting Figure 4's cycle of factors perpetuating ignorance of shadow diversity in the conservation discourse.

| Section of diagram | Explanatory notes / main points | References |
|--|---|--|
| Cultural and historical context | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Encompasses the way in which biodiversity has historically been approached and the traditions and institutional precedents that still hold power to inform the ways in which researching biodiversity is done now</i> • <i>Botanical gardens were once centres for driving training of botanists and sending forth “botanical conquistadors” [1].</i> • <i>Kew Botanical Gardens is still world-leading in its plant research [2]. Botanical gardens are still the providers of funding and knowledge, as well as specimen storage [3]: the power dynamic is retained to a degree.</i> | <p>[1] (Bleichmar 2018) [2] (Farjon 2018) [3] (Kew Royal Botanic Gardens 2020)</p> |
| Geographical and habitat biases | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Numerous studies highlight that we have more biodiversity records and conservation data from the global north, areas closest to the Greenwich Meridian line, and temperate areas, as well as higher data collection and study of species found in wealthier nations [4]</i> | <p>[4] (Costello et al. 2015; Moussy et al. 2021; Nuñez et al. 2021; Titley et al. 2017)</p> |
| Socio-cultural values | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Academic communities, such as adhering to particular species concepts and taxonomic norms expected of scientific inquiry [5].</i> • <i>Crisis discipline of conservation [6].</i> • <i>Species constructs and conservation terms, such as umbrella [7] and keystone species [8].</i> • <i>Popular public opinion can rally around one species whilst ignoring or attacking another [9].</i> • <i>Some studies conclude public opinion is one of the biggest factors in perpetuating taxonomic bias [10].</i> | <p>[5] (Meier et al. 2021) [6] (Sarkar 2019; Soulé 1985) [7] (Breckheimer et al. 2014) [8] (Mills et al. 1993) [9] (Crowley et al. 2018; Garibaldi and Turner 2004; Hooykaas et al. 2022; RSPB 2016; Tsing 2015) [10] (Troudet et al. 2017)</p> |
| Funding | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Vertebrates and megafauna tend to receive the greatest amounts of funding at species-level research [11]</i> • <i>NGO conservation fundraising is an example of the result of this focus on mega fauna [12]</i> • <i>Exceptions include recent funding allocated for the Society for Protection of Underground Networks [13], and continued calls for greater funding towards megafauna [14].</i> | <p>[11] (Di Marco et al. 2017; Ford et al. 2017) [12] (Smith et al. 2012) [13] (Society for Protection of Underground Networks (SPUN) 2021) [14] (Ripple et al. 2016)</p> |
| Technology | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Availability of technology which supports particular types of conservation studies, ranging from the invention and availability of the microscope [15], to DNA sequencing, particularly the High Throughput Sequencing we see now</i> • <i>Researchers tend to choose species more practical to study, those that offer accessible sampling and standardised taxonomic approaches [16]. Physical traits, or “biological impediments” make particular species less visible and</i> | <p>[15] (Ainsworth 1976) [16] (Pawar 2003; Wilson et al. 2007) [17] (Mammola et al. 2021)</p> |

| | | |
|-----------------------|---|---|
| | therefore less likely to show in ecological sampling data and more difficult to sample or study [17]. | |
| Taxonomic bias | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In addition to habitat, geographical, and funding mentioned above we also note a well-documented taxonomic bias towards vertebrates (Bonnet et al. 2002; Seddon et al. 2005; Donaldson et al. 2016; Troudet et al. 2017). • Lorimer’s [19] notion of ‘nonhuman charisma’ suggests particular species possess characteristics more appealing than others through aesthetic, ecological and corporeal charisma. The result is that more research occurs on vertebrates most closely resembling humans, those who have a high emotional impact when interacted with, and those easy to recognise. • Invertebrates, plants and parasites are last to be mentioned in research where they are mentioned at all [20]. • Popular opinion receives blame over the choices of individual scientists for this taxonomic bias [21]. | <p>[18] (Bonnet et al. 2002; Donaldson et al. 2016; Seddon et al. 2005; Troudet et al. 2017)</p> <p>[19] (Lorimer 2015, 43–60)</p> <p>[20] (Ceballos et al. 2020)</p> <p>[21] (Troudet et al. 2017; Wilson et al. 2007)</p> |
| Training | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education and training availability and uptake has contributed to a shortage of taxonomists, particularly for less popular species. This ‘taxonomic impediment’ includes a lack of trained professionals, amongst other factors, resulting in taxonomic blindness [22]. • A well-cited example is “plant blindness” [23], which includes lack of experience with plants, failure to notice plants, and failure to recognise their ecological value. Plant blindness has led to a lack of taxonomists with adequate interest or training in botany and plant identification. • As Knapp [24] notes, plant blindness could reasonably be extended as blindness to all non-vertebrate species. This is a position echoed by a recent German project to study dark taxa of insects: this required training taxonomists with new specialist skills [25]. • Whilst Joppa and colleagues [26] debate the relative drop in numbers of taxonomists compared to species, most literature across neglected taxa seems to agree that there are not enough taxonomists trained in species beyond large vertebrates. | <p>[22] (Engel et al. 2021)</p> <p>[23] (Wandersee and Schussler 1999)</p> <p>[24] (Knapp 2019)</p> <p>[25] (German Barcode of Life (GBOL) 2020)</p> <p>[26] (Joppa et al. 2011)</p> |

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