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**Figure 4.1** *Leucospermum cordifolium* (orange-flowered Proteaceae), *Metalasia densa* (white-flowered Asteraceae) and *Berzelia lanuginosa* (yellow-flowered, endemic family Bruniiaceae) on the slopes of the Kogelberg at Betty’s Bay (Western Cape).
List of Vegetation Units

**Fynbos**

**Sandstone Fynbos**
- FFs 1 Bokkeveld Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 2 Graafwater Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 3 Olifants Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 4 Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 5 Winterhoek Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 6 Piketberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 7 North Hex Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 8 South Hex Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 9 Peninsula Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 10 Hawequas Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 11 Koelberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 12 Overberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 13 North Sonderend Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 14 South Sonderend Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 15 North Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 16 South Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 17 Potberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 18 North Outeniqua Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 19 South Outeniqua Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 20 Tsitsikamma Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 21 North Rooiberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 22 South Rooiberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 23 North Swartberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 24 South Swartberg Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 25 North Kammanassie Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 26 South Kammanassie Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 27 Kouga Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 28 Kouga Grassy Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 29 Algoa Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos
- FFs 31 Swartberg Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos

**Quartzite Fynbos**
- FFq 1 Stinkfonteineberg Quartzite Fynbos
- FFq 2 Swartwaggen Quartzite Fynbos
- FFq 3 Matjiesfontein Quartzite Fynbos
- FFq 4 Breede Quartzite Fynbos
- FFq 5 Grotrivier Quartzite Fynbos
- FFq 6 Suurberg Quartzite Fynbos

**Sand Fynbos**
- FFd 1 Namaqualand Sand Fynbos
- FFd 2 Leipoldville Sand Fynbos
- FFd 3 Hopefield Sand Fynbos
- FFd 4 Atlantic Sand Fynbos
- FFd 5 Cape Flats Sand Fynbos
- FFd 6 Hangklip Sand Fynbos
- FFd 7 Agulhas Sand Fynbos
- FFd 8 Breede Sand Fynbos
- FFd 9 Albertina Sand Fynbos
- FFd 10 Knysna Sand Fynbos
- FFd 11 Southern Cape Dune Fynbos

**Shale Fynbos**
- FFh 1 Kouebokkeveld Shale Fynbos
- FFh 2 Matjiesfontein Shale Fynbos
- FFh 3 Swartberg Shale Fynbos
- FFh 4 Breede Shale Fynbos
- FFh 5 Cape Flats Shale Fynbos
- FFh 6 Hangklip Shale Fynbos
- FFh 7 Greyton Shale Fynbos
- FFh 8 Montagu Shale Fynbos
- FFh 9 Garden Route Shale Fynbos
- FFh 10 Suurberg Shale Fynbos

**Fynbos Shale Band Vegetation**
- FFB 1 Northern Inland Shale Band Vegetation
- FFB 2 Western Coastal Shale Band Vegetation
- FFB 3 Central Inland Shale Band Vegetation
- FFB 4 Central Coastal Shale Band Vegetation
- FFB 5 Eastern Inland Shale Band Vegetation
- FFB 6 Eastern Coastal Shale Band Vegetation

**Silcrete, Ferricrete and Conglomerate Fynbos**
- FFc 1 Swellendam Silcrete Fynbos
- FFc 2 Potberg Ferricrete Fynbos
- FFc 3 Swartland Alluvium Fynbos
- FFc 4 Lourensford Alluvium Fynbos

**Granite Fynbos**
- FFg 1 Kamiesberg Granite Fynbos
- FFg 2 Boland Granite Fynbos
1. Introduction: Concepts and Complexity Patterns

1.1 Scope of the Chapter

The primary aim of this chapter is to provide a description of the vegetation units as expressed on the Map (Mucina et al. 2005; see Chapter 18 entitled Vegetation Atlas in this book). Secondly, we attempt to discuss major features of the physical, geographical and evolutionary environment of the region housing the Fynbos Biome of South Africa.

The Fynbos Biome, due to its floristic, evolutionary and ecological peculiarities and conservation appeal, has experienced decades of intensive and dedicated botanical research (see Bond & Goldblatt 1984, Campbell 1985, Cowling 1992, Cowling & Richardson 1995, Cowling et al. 1997, Goldblatt & Manning 2000a and Van Wyk & Smith 2001 for comprehensive reviews as well as Boucher & McDonald 1982 and Boucher et al. 1995, 1996 for compilations of data sources). It may be argued that there is a renewed need to review our knowledge of the Fynbos Biome since the last vegetation-focused review (Cowling et al. 1997) of almost a decade ago. Yet it is not our intention to provide still another, albeit possibly updated, review of the ecology of the Fynbos Biome. Our focus here is on the variability and typification of the vegetation of the Fynbos Biome in relation to geographical conditions, and the comparative ecological and evolutionary driving forces that shaped this unique and rich flora.

1.2 Concepts of the Fynbos Biome

The Fynbos Biome takes its name from fynbos—the dominant vegetation in the region. The concept of the biome is a unit defined on basis of climate, corresponding life-form patterns and major natural disturbances (Rutherford & Westfall 1994). Although well defined geographically, the Fynbos Biome strictly comprises three quite different, naturally fragmented vegetation types (fynbos, renosterveld and strandveld) that occur in the winter- and summer-rainfall areas, are dominated by small-leaved, evergreen shrubs and whose regeneration is intimately related to fire. It is one of two (with Albany Thicket) biomes endemic to South Africa. Although this biome concept is well understood, its fragmented nature is not convenient for inventory and regional analyses, and several additional concepts have arisen.

The earliest of these concepts was the ‘Cape’ as a region, as used by early explorers and botanists. The first concept of the fynbos flora in its modern position—as distinct from the inland Karoo—was that of Bolus (1886). Since then various studies dealing with the region as a phytchoria (a geographical unit based primarily on inventories and classification of species), have been undertaken (Taylor 1978, Cowling 1992). In its modern form, Taylor (1978) defined ‘Capensis’ and White (1983) the ‘Cape regional centre of endemism’ based on exceptional richness and high endemism. Takhtajan (1986) regarded the area as a Cape Floral Kingdom (Capensis)—one of six floral kingdoms in the world. There have also been attempts at uniting the Succulent Karoo and Fynbos Biomes into a single winter-rainfall unit, based on the richness, endemism, the shared richness of the Aizoaceae and geophytes, and possible evolutionary drivers, but these are not relevant here.

However, many modern analyses, inventories and reviews use the concept of a Cape Floristic Region (CFR; e.g. Goldblatt & Manning 2000a). Unlike the above classifications, these include all the vegetation types (i.e. also Succulent Karoo, Albany Thicket and afrotropical forests) within the area covered by the Fynbos Biome. This has been necessitated by the lack of data allowing species to be assigned to the different vegetation types (or biomes) within the region, and the need to conserve and manage the region as an entity. Furthermore, most of these omit the outlying areas of the Fynbos Biome north of Nieuwoudtville, east of Port Elizabeth and on the Great Escarpment. In this they approximate the area of the geological
Cape Fold Belt and effectively include the entire area underlain by the Cape Sequence geology and its basement rocks.

Most reviews summarise features across all these vegetation types, attributing much of the biodiversity and ecology to fynbos vegetation. It is true that almost all the endemic plant families, most of the spectacular floral diversity and endemism, occur in fynbos vegetation. Furthermore, in these attributes, fynbos vegetation so overwhelms the other vegetation types and biomes present in the CFR that it is tempting to ignore the ‘lesser’ elements. Indeed, among the tables, lists and literature, it is hard to extract information relevant to fynbos versus the other vegetation types or biomes. By contrast, the omission of the outlying areas underestimates endemism in fynbos taxa. For instance, endemism of species in the Proteaceae is 96.7% for the CFR, but 99.7% if the entire Fynbos Biome is considered.

To the general public, fynbos vegetation, Fynbos Biome, Cape Floristic Region, and Cape Floral Kingdom, are all synonymous, and the other local vegetation types and biomes are generally assumed to be a ‘type’ of fynbos. This is rendered even more confusing to nonbotanical lay people who mistakenly view ‘fynbos’ as a particular taxon or species.

In this book, we use the term ‘fynbos’ only for the vegetation type sensu stricto, and explicitly state when we are dealing with the biome or other classifications that incorporate the term.

1.3 Extent of the Fynbos Biome

The Fynbos Biome occupies most of the Cape Fold Belt (both north-south and east-west mountain chains and wetter valleys) as well as the adjacent lowlands between the mountains and the Atlantic Ocean in the west and south, and between the mountains and the Indian Ocean in the south. The northern boundary of the main biome area is delimited approximately by the Olifants River Valley north of Klawer and the Bokkeveld Plateau. However, a few patches extend as far north as Hondeklipbaai on the deep, red sands of the Namaqualand Escarpment, Soutpansberg and Blouberg. The eastern borders of the Fynbos Biome are in the Albany region of the Eastern Cape, where grassy fynbos forms an intricate filigree with subtropical thicket units. The inland delimitation comprises relatively sharp boundaries with Succulent Karoo (see Chapter 18 in this book) approximating the Cape Fold Belt range, but outliers of the Roggeveld Escarpment tend to have broad ecotones. Within the biome, the Little Karoo and Robertson Karoo (supporting vegetation of the Succulent Karoo Biome) are large islands of arid bottomlands within the Cape Fold Belt.

Heathlands are not unique to the Fynbos Biome. Analogous evergreen, sclerophyllous shrublands extend as far as the Ethiopian highlands and even Madagascar, as ericaceous and proteaceous heathland and moorland. In South Africa these are found in patches from the Sneeuwberg, Amathole and Drakensberg Mountains, with outliers in Korannaberg and near Nkandla, to the Northern Escarpment, Soutpansberg and Blouberg. Further north they occur at high altitudes in Chimanimani and Inyanga (Phipps & Goodier 1962, Van Wyk & Smith 2001) and East Africa (see Hedberg 1951). These heathlands and moorlands are now thought to be relics of former wetter climatic periods and contain derived elements of Cape clades (e.g. Ehrharta: Verboom et al. 2003; Protea: Barraclough & Reeves 2005), rather than evidence of a northern origin for these elements.

1.4 Delimitation of the Fynbos Biome

The Fynbos Biome mainly borders the Succulent Karoo in the north and northeast and the Albany Thicket Biome in the east. The contact between the Fynbos Biome and Nama-Karoo is marginal (through FRs 3 and 5), as is the contact between the Fynbos Biome and Afrotemperate Forest Biome, especially its largest patch—the Krysna-Tsitsikamma forests. Only fynbos and renosterveld vegetation of the Fynbos Biome border on the neighbouring biomes, while strandveld is entirely contained within the Fynbos Biome and does not have any external boundary.

1.4.1 The Fynbos Biome/Afrotemperate Forest Boundary

Most of the fynbos—with the exception of the dry northern types and possible exception of dry asteraceous fynbos on sandstone and quartzite—is bioclimatically suitable for afrotemperate forest (Campbell 1985, Masson & Moll 1987, Manders 1990a, b, Manders & Richardson 1992, Manders et al. 1992). It is mainly the action of regular fire that excludes forest and allows fynbos to dominate the landscape (Figure 4.2). This is because trees are effectively excluded from fynbos by the slow growth rates due to the nutrient-poor soils and the relatively high fire-return intervals. Although most forest plant species are resprouters, they are unable to grow large enough to attain a tree form and reproduce before the next fire. In addition, seedling recruitment is of an inter-fire nature (not exclusively post-fire as is typical for fynbos) and appears to be tied to recycling nutrients within the litter layer, whereas in fynbos nutrients are volatised or ashed by fire (Cowling & Holmes 1999b, Manders et al. 1992). Only one fynbos species regularly attains a tree form: Protea nitida (waboom), although trees exist among fire avoider species such as Widdringtonia cederbergensis and W. schwarzii in rocky outcrops, and Leucadendron argenteum

Figure 4.2 Southern slopes of the Tsitsikamma Mountains (Groot River gorge north of Nature’s Valley) recovering after a devastating fire. While the proteaceous and ericoid sandstone fynbos burned almost completely, patches of afrotemperate forest protected in deeper kloofs and in mesic subscarp positions were scorched only along the edges.
and species of *Virgilia* on the forest/fynbos interface. Even the waboom is confined to lower talus (richer) soils in fynbos and does not attain a tree form in denser vegetation or on poorer substrates. Other groups of trees found in communities of the Fynbos Biome are primary constituents of Cape thickets and riparian thickets well confined to fire-safe habitats (Campbell 1985). Forests are able to establish on richer soils, such as the shale bands of the Cedarberg Formation and shale soils, presumably because their faster growth allows them to establish a high fire-resistance together with low flammability of fuel (Cowling & Holmes 1992b).

Thus the ‘true’ (evergreen afrotemperate) forests are confined to large screes, deep kloofs and fire-safe zones protected by cliffs and scarps (see also Chapter 12 in this book). There is usually a sharp ecotone, often of the order of only metres in width, between fynbos and forest. The width of the boundary is determined by exposure to fire and the flammability of the vegetation in this zone. In the east, especially in the dissected coastal platform fire refugia driven by berg winds, the boundary is dominated by *Virgilia divaricata* fynbos. The fire-adapted shale-forest margin species (*Virgilia divaricata*, *V. oroboides*) should be considered a fynbos rather than forest element because of their fire-dominated recruitment dynamics and seed germination cues.

Renosterveld never adjoins afrotemperate forest as these habitats are too wet and support fynbos.

1.4.2 The Fynbos Biome/Succulent Karoo Biome Boundary

The interface between the Fynbos and the Succulent Karoo shrublands almost always occurs on sandstone and Tertiary sands in regions experiencing 200–300 mm of rainfall per year. Karoo replaces fynbos where the interplant spacing becomes too large to carry fire. This boundary is not only dynamic in terms of slope, relief, wind channels and fire-protected scarps, but also in that the two main plant protagonists can influence the boundary dynamics. Thus Restionaceae—the primary fire carriers in the fynbos—can carry hot fires into karroid areas, whereas, in the prolonged absence of fire, succulents may establish between the senescing fynbos plants and inhibit spread of fire (Cowling & Holmes 1992b).

It has been proposed that the boundary between Fynbos and Succulent Karoo is determined by the relative costs of evergreenness versus drought deciduousness and succulence, which is turn is determined by soil moisture (Miller 1982). In a review of this biome interface, Cowling et al. (1997) concluded that moisture availability rather than geology is the primary determinant of the Fynbos/Succulent Karoo boundary. In the Matjiesrivier Nature Reserve (MNR) of the eastern Cederberg the boundary can be predicted accurately based on geology and altitude alone: fynbos occurs on sandstone above 800 m (higher rainfall) and Succulent Karoo shrublands below 800 m (Lechmere-Oertel 1998, Lechmere-Oertel & Cowling 1999). In a small glasshouse experiment (Lechmere-Oertel 1998, Lechmere-Oertel & Cowling 2001) it was found that fynbos seedlings could not tolerate xeric conditions, whereas karoo shrub seedlings were able to grow successfully irrespective of moisture regime or soil type. Succulent Karoo vegetation therefore appears to be not limited by the environment, excluding the effects of fire, to the same extent as fynbos. Fire is very destructive in Succulent Karoo and prevents Succulent Karoo species from invading fynbos sites. However, karoo shrubs do not occur in fire-free fynbos habitats occupied by Cape thickets. Thus fire is excluded as an important factor and competition with fynbos excludes Karoo at the MNR. A small transplant experiment across the interface between Fynbos and Succulent Karoo on the Riviersonderend Mountains indicated that at least some karoo species may be limited in their distribution by fire and/or biotic interactions and not by the climate or geology. Here the boundary is determined by the fire-prone fynbos that is confined to sandstone (Agenbath et al. 2004; see also Chapter 3).

The Fynbos/Succulent Karoo boundary patterns are often complex in landscapes dominated by sandstone and quartzitic fynbos, where relief is a major indirect contributor to the boundary. But although the boundary may meander over the landscape, it is usually quite abrupt—in the order of metres. By contrast, in sand fynbos the boundary is often a broad zone of intermediate communities, dominated by *Wildenowia* or *Thamnophyton* stands that may extend over kilometres. Sharper boundaries occur in dune landscapes, but even gentle depressions, such as alongside river courses, can prevent fire and cause quite sharp transitions at a step in a slope.

In the northern extreme of FFd 1 Namaqualand Sand Fynbos, fynbos is not maintained by fire, but primarily by dune or other sand formations, and these communities extend to areas with rainfall below 200 mm rainfall per year on acid soils, presumably over shallow aquifers (A.G. Rebelo, personal observations). Within fynbos, fire-free habitats may contain succulent vegetation rather than forest or Cape thicket, where the soils are skeletal such as on north-facing cliffs and extensive rock slabs (lithophytes), or in fire-safe enclaves within asteraceous fynbos. This interface is very poorly studied and it is not known whether the species in these patches are largely confined to fynbos or are merely islands of species common within Succulent Karoo vegetation. Some typical fynbos species (such as *Protea glabra*) are largely confined to these fire-free habitats.

Overgrazing, presumably by removing fuel, and thus influencing fire dynamics, can convert fynbos into a karoo shrubland, as observed at fence-line contrasts in the Kamiesberg (A.G. Rebelo, unpublished data).

There is very little area of contact between the Fynbos and theNama-Karoo Biome (see Chapter 3). For the most part these biomes are separated by intervening areas of Succulent Karoo Biome or in the east by Albany Thicket.

Renosterveld occupies an intermediate zone on shale and alluvium between Fynbos and Succulent Karoo shrublands. The arid boundary between karoo and renosterveld has never been studied. Casual observations suggest that the boundary is plastic at between 250–300 mm, and that it is determined by the interplay between succulence and flammability of the vegetation. Therefore, like fynbos, the boundary between renosterveld and karoo is controlled by fire. This is supported by many apparently suitable habitats for renosterveld—such as southern slopes on small kopjes, being karroid shrubland when they are too small or too isolated to carry fire (A.G. Rebelo, personal observations). Under exceptional conditions fire does penetrate well into neighbouring karoo shrublands, but this is rare.

1.4.3 The Fynbos Biome/Albany Thicket Biome Boundary

In regions with a considerable share of summer rainfall, Fynbos Biome communities often border on units of the Albany Thicket Biome. This can, for instance, be observed in the Little Karoo Basin, where AT 2 Gamka Thicket meets several arid fynbos units, in the Koega-Baviaanskloof-Grootrivier Mountains region where both AT 3 Groet Thicket and AT 4 Gamtoos Thicket are found bordering on grassy fynbos units. Further east, fynbos (notably FFq 6 Suurberg Quartzite Fynbos and FFh 10 Suurberg
Shale Fynbos) forms an intricate mosaic with core Albany Thicket units, dominated by either succulent shrubs or C₄ grasses (e.g. AT 9 Albany Coastal Belt and SVs 7 Bhisho Thornveld). Here grassy fynbos is replaced by grassland on drier, more inland, northern slopes, especially under lower-rainfall conditions. All factors describe lower moisture availability, suggesting that fynbos requires wetter conditions. This boundary, reflected by the increase in summer-growing C₄ grasses on the more fertile soils and summer-rainfall conditions, suggests that summer growth season temperature is the overriding factor (Cowling & Holmes 1992b). Southern slopes, with less of a summer growth season due to cooler, wetter conditions, may favour competitively superior Restionaceae, resulting in the formation of fynbos under wetter, coastal and higher-rainfall conditions. This would push the system from a near annual to a longer-rotation fire interval, allowing other fynbos species and communities to persist.

In the western part of the Fynbos/Albany Thicket contact (southern Cape and Little Karoo), experiencing a high share of winter rainfall, the border is determined by local geomorphology that controls runoff (soil moisture), exposure to desiccation (steep slopes) and fire movement. AT 1 Southern Cape Valley Thicket is limited to steep, highly exposed slopes and vertical cliffs in deep river canyons, characterised by skeletal, quickly desiccating soils and lack of fire. At AT 2 Gamka Thicket the boundary is determined by fire, although ultimately it is determined by moisture, except that the dynamics are governed more by the flammability of the constituent species as the vegetation does not become too sparse but too succulent to carry fire (Cowling & Holmes 1992b).

The boundary with the Albany Thicket vegetation units thus differs from that with the Succulent Karoo types in that at the Albany Thicket interface the role of fire is actively modified by the plant growth forms present. As a consequence, there is a marked area effect, not so readily observed at the Karoo interface. As most ignition events are caused by lightning, a certain minimum area is needed for fire to be frequent enough to maintain fynbos at the expense of encroaching thicket. Thus the occurrence of fynbos in the thicket-dominated landscapes is determined by the area of uninterrupted veld suitable for carrying regular fire. This produces characteristic patterns of fynbos extent on linear ranges (especially obvious in several quartzite fynbos types) that do not occur with Karoo. Where extensive areas of sandstone occur, fynbos dominates until aridity prevents fire from spreading, as in the case of Karoo. In many cases spekboom (Portulacaria afra) is the dominant plant on this margin.

It is not known if overgrazing, which preferentially removed succulent elements, might favour the encroachment of fynbos into thicket as might be expected—the reverse of the situation in the Karoo.

Renosterveld interfaces with the Albany Thicket Biome along the southern Cape coast, where AT 1 Southern Cape Valley Thicket is embedded within renosterveld units, in the Little Karoo Basin where AT 2 Gamka Thicket meets several renosterveld units, and where AT 3 Groot Thicket and AT 4 Gamtoos Thicket are found bordering on the renosterveld types east of Humansdorp.

On richer soils, renosterveld forms an intermediate zone between fynbos in the wetter areas and subtropical thicket on the arid interface. The boundary between the renosterveld/thicket contact is almost always determined by fire. Although thicket elements are prominent within renosterveld vegetation, the incidence of thicket stands within renosterveld becomes prominent east of Riversdale in FRs 14 Mossel Bay Shale Renosterveld, where the landscape is dissected and fire is unable to spread. Even in this vegetation type, thicket is largely confined to steeper slopes, gullies and outcrops, with renosterveld on the summits. Further east (east of the Kouga Mountains), renosterveld is confined to areas marginal to fynbos where fire is able to exclude thicket and maintain renosterveld. Where fire-prone fynbos does not occur adjacent to richer soils, renosterveld is unable to persist.

1.5 Global Position of the Fynbos Biome

The Fynbos Biome is a member of the global Mediterranean Biome, located on western shores of the continents of the world, at latitudes north (in the northern hemisphere) or south (in the southern hemisphere) of the arid (desert) belt associated with the horse latitudes around the Tropic of Cancer and the Tropic of Capricorn.

The global Mediterranean Biome consists of five geographically remote areas. In the southern hemisphere these areas include: (1) the Cape region housing the Fynbos Biome; (2) a small region in northern Chile, including the surrounds of Valparaiso and Santiago; (3) two separate regions in Australia, including the broad surrounds of Perth in southwestern Australia (also known as South-western Australian Botanical Province) and a smaller region in southeastern Australia (around Adelaide). The northern hemisphere portion includes: (4) the Mediterranean Basin along the coast of southern Europe, the Iberian Peninsular, North Africa, the Middle East, extensive regions in Iran, all Mediterranean islands and small outliers of the Canary Islands; and (5) the Californian Floristic Province (southwestern USA). All these regions are characterised by a mediterranean-type (warm-temperate) climate with warm, dry summers and cool, wet winters and support evergreen sclerophyllous shrublands as the dominant vegetation complex. In the Mediterranean, these are called macchia (maquis), garrique, phrygana, batha, matorral and tomillar. In California they are called chaparral, while in Chile the local ecologists also use the Spanish term matorral. In Australia they are known as kwongan and mallee, while fynbos and renosterveld are well-established terms in South Africa (e.g. Di Castri & Mooney 1973, Di Castri et al. 1981, Specht & Moll 1983, Specht 1988, Cowling 1992, Arroyo et al. 1995b, Davis & Richardson 1995, Allen 1996, Cowling et al. 1996a, 1997, Rundel et al. 1998, Arianoutsou & Pausanas 2004). Australia, South Africa and some regions of the Mediterranean have ecologically comparable nutrient-poor systems. The flora of the regions have apparently very different evolutionary-ary roots (Raven 1973, Axelrod 1975, Axelrod & Raven 1978, Raven & Axelrod 1978, Caldebeck et al. 2003, Linder 2003, Crisp et al. 2004), but a common set of ecological factors (predictable seasonal climate patterns and importance of fire) has produced a number of notable ecological convergences (Cowling et al. 1996a). The question of convergence (and nonconvergence) was the subject of a number of international meetings (Di Castri & Mooney 1973, Krug et al. 1983), and subject to controversial discussions in the past and present (e.g. Schimper 1903, Specht 1969a, b, Parsons & Moldencke 1975, Cody & Mooney 1978, Cowling & Campbell 1980, Milewski & Bond 1982, Milewski 1983, Box 1987, Barbour & Minnich 1990, Herrera 1992, Cowling & Witkowski 1994, Arroyo et al. 1995a, Keeley & Bond 1997, Verdu et al. 2003, Cowling et al. 2005).

The mediterranean-climate regions cover less than 5% of the earth’s surface, but contribute a disproportionately large number of species (about 20%) to the global flora of vascular plants (Cowling et al. 1996a). This floral richness as well as staggering local and regional endemism (for instance almost 70% in the
Fynbos) qualifies these regions as global hot spots (Mittermeier et al. 2000) and prime targets of conservation efforts.

2. Geography of the Fynbos Biome

2.1 Main Geological Patterns

The regions supporting the Fynbos Biome are a mosaic of various geological substrates—one of the major prerequisites for evolution of the remarkable diversity of taxa and vegetation types, making the Fynbos Biome one of the most fascinating botanical destinations. Sandstone, quartzite, granite, gneiss (marginally), shales and also young limestone sediments are the most prominent rocks of these regions (Figure 4.3).

Very prominent mountain chains mainly built of quartzite and sandstone peaks dominate the landscapes of the Fynbos Biome. These predominantly Cape Supergroup rocks are composed almost entirely of quartz and are thus extremely nutrient-poor. Locally, the Permo-Triassic mountain-building event that resulted in the folding of the Cape Supergroup varied greatly in intensity. For this reason, sandstones are found as flat-lying or gently dipping layers (e.g. Cape Peninsula and Cederberg) or as tightly folded, vertical and even overturned layers (e.g. the Langeberg and Swartberg ranges). Due to their extent and hard-wearing nature, these formations determine the morphology of the landscape in the Fynbos Biome.

The northernmost extent of the region of the Fynbos Biome is somewhat removed from the typical Cape Fold Belt-dominated geology of most of the biome. It is found in the Kamiesberg area, which has a basement of Mokolani gneisses formed during the Proterozoic. The Kamieskroon Gneiss and gneisses of the Stalhoek Complex as well as metasediments of the Bushmanland Group were metamorphosed during the Namaqua-Natal Orogeny to form this basement. These patterns as well as the Gariep Orogeny of the Namibian Erathem are discussed in Chapter 6 featuring South African deserts.

The Nardouw Subgroup of the Table Mountain Group is prominent above the Cedarberg and Cederberg ranges. Due to their extent and hard-wearing nature, these formations determine the morphology of the landscape in the Fynbos Biome.

The rocks of the Cape Supergroup have a Precambrian sub-stratum that consists mostly of sedimentary rocks that were deformed and metamorphosed during mountain building in the Pan-African orogenic event. These include the metasedimentary Malmesbury Group of the southwestern Cape as well as the Kango Group of the southern Cape (which includes a considerable amount of limestone). These rocks formed in the oceans that surrounded the fragments of an earlier supercontinent, Rodinia, which rifted apart over 700 mya. These areas of the Peninsula Formation and glacial pavement are still preserved at the top of these quartzites in some places.

Overlying the Bokkeveld is another more quartzite-rich sandstone above the Cedarberg shales. It formed under similar conditions to the Peninsula Formation and is prominent above the Cedarberg shale bands today.

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Overlying the Bokkeveld is another more quartzite-rich Witteberg Group. These sediments were deposited towards the end of the Devonian and probably continued to be laid down during the Carboniferous. The central part of this group is mostly dominated by coarse clastic deposits including well-sorted sandstones, pebble-conglomerates and some siltstones. A prominent, light-coloured quartzite layer is distinctive in the Witteberg Mountains. Above and below this arenaceous (sandy) central part, the Witteberg Group are more argillaceous (shaly) sediments (Truswell 1970).

The Cape Supergroup has three important subdivisions, namely the Table Mountain, the Bokkeveld and the Witteberg Groups, and they remain remarkably distinct along the entire length of the Cape Fold Belt.

On top of the Peninsula Formation are the thin Cedarberg and Pakhuis Formations. These beds serve as fairly distinctive markers throughout the Cape Fold Belt, despite the fact that they are far more easily weathered than the quartzites above and below. They are distinctive because the vegetation that they host forms a green band that contrasts strongly to the bare outcrops of quartzite. The Cedarberg shale bands were formed in a deep-water environment of slow suspension settling of fine mud and organic material. The glaciogenic Pakhuis Formation was deposited on the Peninsula Formation and glacial pavements are still preserved at the top of these quartzites in some places.

The Nardouw Subgroup of the Table Mountain Group is another thick (550 m) package of quartzitic sandstone above the Cedarberg shales. It formed under similar conditions to the Peninsula Formation and is prominent above the Cedarberg shale bands today.

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Figure 4.3 The geology of the Fynbos Biome is an important factor underlying the current diversity of the flora and the evolutionary diversification processes in the past. A: Tertiary limestone (De Hoop Vlei, Overberg); B: hard Ordovician Table Mountain Sandstone forms the dramatic peak and soft Cape Shale forms the shale band exposed by a road cutting (marine drive between Gordon’s Bay and Rooiels); C: eroded Bokkeveld shales exposed on the seashore near the mouth of the Breede River (Witsand, Overberg); D: Nardouw sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Op-die-Berg, Koue Bokkeveld); E: smooth topographic forms of a Cape Granite landscape (Langebaan Lagoon, West Coast). Photographs by L. Mucina.
Towards the end of Cape Supergroup sedimentation, Gondwana was taking up its position over the South Pole and the extensive glaciation that deposited the Dwyka Formation at the base of the Karoo Supergroup commenced. (The stratigraphy of the Karoo Basin is discussed in Chapter 8 on Grassland.)

The Cape Fold Belt is a remnant of the foreland fold and thrust belt of the Permo-Triassic Gondwanide Orogeny, formed when the Palaeo-Pacific Plate was subducted beneath southern Gondwana. Other fragments are preserved in South America, Antarctica and Australia (Trouw & De Wit 1999). Several phases of deformation in the Cape Fold Belt occurred from about 280 mya until around 220 mya (Hàlbdich et al. 1983).

The Cape Fold Belt has two branches that meet in the broad syntaxis domain that stretches from False Bay to Ceres and as far east as Montagu. In the western branch, which stretches to beyond Vanrhynsdorp, the large, gentle folds have a north-northwest strike and fade out towards the north and west. The southern branch has a distinct east-west orientation and experienced much more intense deformation. This branch is characterised by large, tight folds and overfolds as well as thrust faults. These structures verge towards the north and indicate a considerable crustal shortening in this area due to compression from the south (for further reading, see De Beer 1990). The Cape Fold Belt extends as far east as Port Alfred on the coast. Gondwana reconstructions show that the Falkland Islands were situated just to the east of this present-day coastline—they host the same sedimentary rocks.

During the Jurassic, Karoo sedimentation was brought to a close by the volcanic activity that formed the Drakensberg basalts. This period also saw the initiation of the rifting apart of Gondwana, which strongly influenced the geology of the southwestern and southern parts of South Africa. The rifting event, which sculpted South Africa’s coastline to its present form, also caused a horizontal extension that was manifested in large normal faults producing graben and half-graben structures.

The faulting produced marked changes in elevation that led to the rapid erosion of the high-lying areas. This produced the Enon conglomerates and the other clastic deposits of the Enon conglomerates are spatially associated with it. Another example is the Datang fault, against (to the south) much younger Bokkeveld sediments in the Tanqua Karoo, where the Succulent Karoo Biome abuts the Fynbos Biome. A similar outcrop pattern has developed near Oudtshoorn.

In the off-shore basins along the South Coast, the Cretaceous sediments host hydrocarbon reservoirs that are being exploited to a limited extent at present. These large, and numerous, faults are also responsible for preserving outcrops of Cape Supergroup quartzites as down-faulted blocks such as Table Mountain and the Cape Peninsula as well as Piketberg. This has preserved them from erosion, while adjacent higher-lying blocks have been eroded down to the pre-Cape basement.

In more recent times, rates of eustatic uplift together with global changes in sea level have influenced the erosion and sedimentation along the coastline as well as the incision of rivers into the Cape Fold Belt. Periods of high relative sea level have left recent deposits of sandstone and limestone on flat wave-cut platforms in many parts of the southwestern Cape. The Tertiary to Quaternary Bredasdorp and Strandveld Groups are examples. Times of low relative sea level have resulted in the down-cutting of rivers as is characteristic of the southern Cape, with streams occurring in deep incised valleys. Other evidence for this can be found on the off-shore Agulhas Bank across which former channels of the Gourits and Breede Rivers can be traced (Truswell 1970, p. 148).

### 2.2 Landscape Evolution

The West and South Coast lowlands, where most of the lowland renosterveld types are concentrated, have totally different erosion histories. While regions supporting West Coast renosterveld today have had kilometres of sediment removed since Gondwana started separating, erosion of the region of the South Coast renosterveld units has been relatively sedate.

The Witteberg quartzites, Bokkeveld shales and Table Mountain sandstones have been removed over the last 100 my on the West Coast, reducing the geology to the Malmesbury shales and Cape granites up to the Porterville fault. Only three inselbergs of sandstone (with Fynbos) remain on this plain—Piketberg, Riebeek-Kasteel and the Cape Peninsula. A few isolated pockets of silcrete and ferricrete remain, but they are not prominent. Adjacent to the Porterville fault, extensive alluvial fan deposits occur: these are typically covered with fynbos. The topography is relatively flat and low (80–200 m), although there are two elevated watersheds: (1) west of the Berg River comprising the granite hills of the Paarl Mountain, Faardebberg (with fynbos on the summits) and the shale hills of Kanonberg (370 m), Tontelberg (360 m) and Swartberg (480 m), and (2) the shale hills of Tygerberg (460 m), and the granite hills of the Bottelary Hills (480 m, mainly with fynbos), Dassenberg (570 m) and Darling Hills (450 m). North and east of the Berg River the only inselberg is Heuningberg (360 m, with fynbos on its northern end).

East of the Porterville fault, the Cape Group sandstones form a largely flat area—the Cederberg and Bokkeveld covered with fynbos vegetation types, with the exception of the Olifants River and Koue Bokkeveld synclines which are locally strongly down-cut and divided into small fragments. The area dips gently to the east, with younger sediments progressing eastwards: the Witteberg quartzites at Swartkrugers, and finally the Karoo sediments in the Tanqua Karoo, where the Succulent Karoo Biome abuts the Fynbos Biome.

Over most of the South Coast and interior, only the Witteberg quartzites have been removed, so that the Bokkeveld shales form the bedrock, although in the eastern coastal part of the region even this has been removed. Shale renosterveld of the Ruens region—the largest continuous block of renosterveld—is characterised by undulated hills in the west and deeply dissected hills in the east, at a general elevation of 200–300 m. A single Witteberg quartzite inselberg remains at Riversdale. Extensive silcrete and ferricrete remain on higher areas, often forming flat-topped hills and scarp relicts. Enon conglomerates form an apron along the Langeberg and Outeniqua Mountains—these usually support aterasaceous and grassy fynbos, with limited patches of renosterveld. The southern margin adjacent to the coastal limestone is often covered with a thin layer of calcrete, but these areas have been transformed to cropland and their flora is largely unknown. During the Pleistocene glaciations, the Agulhas Plain extended 200 km south of its current range, a fair proportion of this would probably have been renosterveld.

Both the Langeberg and the Swartberg Mountains are major fault zones, the faults being several kilometres south of the current mountain scarp, exposing older rocks which are partly covered by Enon conglomerates deposited as the sandstone scarp.
retreated. These contain mainly fynbos vegetation. Between the Langeberg and Swartberg ranges the rocks are gently folded, giving rise to gentle mountains with fynbos where the sandstone is exposed and valleys with younger sediments and predominantly karoo and renosterveld vegetation. North of the Swartberg range, the Bokkeveld and Witteberg rocks are narrow ranges, but in the western Karoo these are also gently folded, giving rise to parallel scarps of resistant quartzites, with the Witteberg being the northernmost of these before being replaced by younger karoo sediments. Inland renosterveld occurs predominantly on Bokkeveld shales and on Witteberg shales between the quartzite scarps and ridges. Topography varies from subdued in the west, to valley basins in the east and ridges and scarps in the north.

2.3 Soils of the Fynbos Biome

A wide range of environmental conditions, such as present and past rainfall, parent material, terrain type and the age of different landscapes, resulted in the very large variation in soil types and soil associations that are characteristic of the Fynbos Biome (Lambrechts 1983, Schloms et al. 1983, Lambrechts & Fry 1988). Various developmental soil form sequences or cate-nae, based on topographic position, age, clay and iron content, drainage and/or soil depth, can be constructed for different combinations of environmental conditions (see Figures 4.4–4.7). However, parent material (i.e. the underlying rock type) or the nature of recent deposits, is probably the primary factor determinning the physical and chemical nature of the different soil types. In the following paragraphs the dominant soil types (soil forms) associated with different combinations of parent materials are featured and their link to vegetation is discussed. For detailed description of the soil forms defined in the text, refer to the Soil Classification Working Group (1991).

2.3.1 Heavy-textured Soils

Shales and slates of the Malmesbury Group of the southwestern Cape, Kango Group of the southern Cape (including considerable amount of limestones), and of the Bokkeveld Group are less resistant to weathering than quartzites and sandstones of the Cape Supergroup. Due to their mineral composition these rocks give rise to soils that differ considerably from the quartzite-derived soils. These soils are usually heavy-textured, with large fine-sand and silt fractions, and show a much higher nutrient status, especially potassium. Three soil regions (relict erosional plains, coastal foreland and valley zones) can be distinguished on the basis of combinations of environmental conditions (Figure 4.4).

Among the upland plains, the Koue Bokkeveld and Elgin Basin are prime examples of old Tertiary erosion surfaces underlain by Bokkeveld shales. The terrain is undulating, with small remnants of the old land surface. On these remnants, deep red (Hutton form) or yellow-brown (Clovelly and Oakleaf forms), highly weathered, clayey soils occur, with varying amounts of ferruginous gravels and/or laterite. These soils are generally porous, well-drained, highly leached and acid, and rich in kaolinitic clays. Similar soils occur on remnants of lower erosional surfaces (at altitudes of approximately 200–350 m) along the foothills of mountain ranges such as Simonsberg and the Drakenstein Mountains (Figure 4.4). Shale fynbos is associated with these soils.

On younger dissected slopes, moderately to deep yellow apedal soils (Pinedene and Tukulu forms) developed on slope-creep
materials from the upland plains; they are associated with soils from residually weathered shales and slates with thin gravelly colluvial surface layers. These yellow soils are generally less well-drained than the red soils. Due to the relatively high rainfall, the weathering of the underlying rock is moderate to high. On mid- and upper slopes the subsoils are clayey, moderate to strongly structured, with red and yellow geogenic mottingling, and with a fairly low pH and base status. On lower concave slopes the subsoil becomes gleyed (wet and hydromorphic). The well-leached Pinedene and Tukulu forms are usually associated with shale fynbos or with renosterveld (on the less leached, residual soils).

Large areas of the western and southern coastal forelands and the inland valleys are underlain by shales and slates of the Malmesbury and Bokkeveld Groups. Depending on rainfall, terrain position and slope gradient, a series of progressively more developed soils occur from crest positions to the valley floor. In drier areas and steeper terrains shallow (lithosolic) soils of Mispah and Glenrosa forms are dominant. As the slope gradient decreases and/or the rainfall increases, clay migration and the formation of clay-enriched subsoils become prominent. On mid-slopes the dominant soils are of Swartland and Sterkspruit forms. Due to a higher degree of wetness as a result of lateral soil water movement, soils on lower slope positions are characterised by a bleached, pale-coloured E-horizon above a structured cutanic B (Klapmuts and Estcourt forms). In concave or level foothill positions the degree of wetness is such that a gleyed G-horizon (Kroonstad form) replaces the cutanic B-horizon. The soils with cutanic and G-horizons are collectively known as duplex soils because of the significant difference in clay content between the A/E and clay-enriched subsoil horizons. The difference in clay content is partially due to clay migration, but it is significantly enhanced by movement of surface soil material from upslope to lower slope positions through creep and slip and removal of the fine silt and clay from the material that develops into the A- and E-horizon. The lower the clay content of the A/E in a specific climatic zone, the lower the pH and base status. The typical vegetation type associated with these soils is shale renosterveld.

The pH and base of the lithosolic and duplex soils vary greatly as a function of prevailing climate. In warm, dry valleys (e.g. the Little Karoo and eastern Breede River Valley) the soils are normally base-saturated with a slightly acid to neutral pH. Free lime may be present as well. In more humid climate zones these soils are generally acid to very acid throughout the profile. It is the rainfall which largely determines the exchange characteristics of the soils. The very high cation exchange capacity values of the cutanic horizons in Caledon compared to those of Witzenberg, are an indication that the Caledon subsoils contain more 2:1 clay minerals and less kaolinite than those of Witzenberg. This might be an indication of greater shrink-swell and stronger structural development that negatively affects porosity, aeration and wetness. The low-rainfall soils are normally associated with the shale renosterveld and the high-rainfall soils with shale fynbos.

Duplex soils underlain by shales and slates are common in synclinal valleys such as the Langkloof and upper Olifants River Valley. Sandy colluvial material from the surrounding quartzite mountain slopes covers the residually weathered clays. The result is soils with a very sandy, pale-coloured A/E-horizon, periodically saturated with water, on gleyed, prismatic, clayey subsoils. Although the residual clay layers might be base-saturated and even saline, the sandy surface horizons are usually acid and base-unsaturated. These are usually covered with sand or sandstone fynbos.

Although granites are generally more resistant to weathering than shales and slates, granites have undergone deep weathering on old erosional surfaces. The granite hills near Darling (supporting granite renosterveld) and Paarl (supporting both fynbos and renosterveld on the crest and lower slopes, respectively), are some of the well-known plutons of the Cape Granite Suite exposed through erosion of the younger cover rocks. Due to resistance of granite, rock outcrops and very shallow soils of the Mispah and Glenrosa forms are dominant on the crest and upper slope positions on these low granite mountains. Where the slope becomes less steep with a straight slope gradient, soils of the Swartland and Sterkspruit forms, similar to those associated with shales and slates, start to develop. On level and concave slopes, soils of the Klapmuts, Estcourt and Kroonstad forms are found. Because of the coarse sand grade of the quartz particles in the weathering products from granite, sorting and removal of the fine soil fraction through creep and wash usually results in a coarse sandy overburden with low clay content. The coarse sandy overburden is highly permeable and leached, even under fairly low rainfall such as in the Kamiesberg Mountains, to form acid, low-base-saturated A- and E-horizons. These support granite fynbos.

Heuweltjies are a major micro-relief feature in some units of both the West Coast, in FRs 8 Breede Shale Renosterveld, and of the South Coast, in FRs 11 Western Rûens Shale Renosterveld. These are generally raised mounds of soil, regularly spaced and up to 10–20 m in diameter and 5 m high. The density varies from almost continuous in the Piketberg area, to sparsely scattered. The name Tygerberg (‘Leopard Mountain’) is derived from the grass-dominated heuweltjie patches that turn yellow in summer. Heuweltjies are not confined to renosterveld: they are prominent in Succulent Karoo and even in Fynbos, where shale layers are within a few metres of the surface. They are particularly prominent in the winter-rainfall region (Lovegrove & Siegfried 1989). Networking of ground mounds of harvester termites (Microhodotermes viator; Lovegrove & Siegfried 1989). Floristically they are varied and may differ from surrounding communities by supporting pre-dominantly annuals, grasses or thicket elements. These different communities are probably determined by rainfall and grazing pressure (Knight et al. 1989). In many areas, heuweltjies are preferentially used for burrows by aardvarks (Orycteropus afer), porcupines (Hystrix africaeaustralis) bat-eared foxes (Otocyon megalotis) and historically by many other species, and in waterlogged seasons or when covered by thicket) as resting areas by herbivores, which may also play a role in their community dynamics. The significance of heuweltjies in renosterveld grazing and animal ecology is not known, but presumably harvester termites were, and continue to be, an important ecological component in renosterveld ecology.

2.3.2 Sandy Soils of Quartzitic Fold Ranges

Mountain Slope Soils

The hard, resistant Peninsula and Nardouw Formations and Witteberg sandstones and quartzites weather slowly and generally give rise to stony, very sandy soils (Figure 4.5) with a clay content of less than 5% and extremely low levels of free iron
Fynbos Biome

The shale bands associated with the quartzites and sandstones are more weatherable and give rise to deeper, more heavily textured lithosolic soils and even soils of duplex form. Due to the fairly high rainfall in the high-elevation localities where the shale bands occur, these soils are moderately to highly leached with a low base saturation. These soils support shale fynbos, shale renosterveld or karoo vegetation. In many places, however, the weathered shale bands are covered with sandy colluvium from the higher-lying quartzites and sandstones, and carry sandstone fynbos communities.

Pediment and Valley Floor Soil

A great range of sandy soils, usually acid and highly leached, have developed from pedimented colluvial and alluvial accumulation products in intra- and intermountain valleys and on footslopes associated with quartzitic mountain ranges (Figure 4.6). Depending on the source material, the accumulation products vary in free iron oxide content. Sand fynbos is supported by these soils.

On iron-poor parent materials the initial upslope soils usually qualify as Oakleaf or Tukulu forms. With sufficient rain these soils become podzolised. The dominant soil form is Lamotte with a well-developed organic-rich B-horizon and rarely Concordia form with a poorly developed B-horizon. In these soils the E-horizon is usually very thick and the B-horizon might be as deep as 1.5 m. In wetter positions lower down the slopes, the podzol B usually disappears to form Fernwood soils.

In well-drained or drier areas with iron-rich, sandy parent material, yellow (Clovelly form) or red (Hutton form) soils usually develop in upslope positions. With an increase in rainfall or in lower positions, bleached A- and E-horizons develop through removal of iron oxides and, to a lesser extent, clay (Constantia form). In lower positions with a wetter water regime, typical podzolic soils develop with pale-coloured A/E-horizons on a dark reddish brown to yellow, iron- and humus-enriched alluvial B-horizon (Lamotte and Concordia soil forms). The main difference between these soils is that with more leaching in mid- and lower positions, the uniform clay content (5–7%) in the Constantia form differentiates into very sandy A- and E-horizons (<2% clay) and clay increases to up to 10% in the podzol B. The high organic carbon content in the podzol B acts as an absorption reservoir for exchangeable cations as well as

![Diagram](image-url)

**Figure 4.5 Mountain slope soils.** Abbreviations: A = orthic A-horizon; E = E-horizon; Blc = lithocutanic B-horizon; Bre = red apedal B-horizon; Bye = yellow-brown apedal B-horizon; Bpd = podzol B-horizon.
trace elements. There is also a distinct decrease in base saturation at pH 7 from 50–70% in the Clovelly B to lower than 30% in the more leached Lamotte soils.

Although, morphologically, all the soils on the valley slopes appear to be well-drained, the Lamotte and Fernwood in particular may be subject to various degrees of wetness during the rainy season. One of the main causes may be the partially weathered base rock or residual or transported clays below the solum, giving rise to perched water tables. In the Lamotte form, wetness is sometimes manifested in a vesicular hardening (ortstein hardening) of the podzol B-horizon. Along the main drainage channels and depression areas the topsoil of the Lamotte and Fernwood forms is generally dark-coloured and poorly drained, with abnormally high accumulations of slightly decomposed organic material.

The well-drained red and yellow colluvium usually qualifies as soils of the Clovelly and Hutton forms. In midslope positions a podzol B-horizon without (Pinegrove form) or with (Jonkersberg form) a placic pan develops directly below the orthic A-horizon. In lower or concave slope positions that tend to be wet, soils of Witfontein form, similar to Pinegrove, develop on unconsolidated material, with signs of wetness. These soils are extremely acid with pH(CaCl\(_2\)) values usually of < 4.0 and base saturation ≤ 20% at pH 8. The carbon content in the topsoil ranges from 2.0% to as high as 4.5%.

2.3.3 Coastal Plain Soils

Young Dune Sands

Along the West Coast most of the soils (Figure 4.7) have developed from recent drift sands, locally overlying more clayey fluviatile deposits or residually weathered clayey materials. Near the coast the sands are highly calcareous and stratified (Namib form). Inland the lime content gradually decreases through leaching. Depending on rainfall and the initial iron content of the recent sand, different combinations of soils could develop. With a low iron content the Namib form can change with age to Augrabies, Fernwood or Lamotte forms. With higher iron content the Fernwood is replaced by Hutton (drier and warmer areas) or Clovelly (wetter and cooler areas) forms. In the Vredendal area the shallower Hutton variants are classified as soils of the Garies form with relict duripans in the subsoil. With increase in age or rainfall, these soils can further change to Constantia and finally to a Lamotte form. The strandveld vegetation units occur on soils of the Namib and Augrabies forms while the sand fynbos is generally associated with other soil forms.

Scattered along the inland section of the West Coast are fairly large areas of red (Hutton form), yellow (Clovelly form) or grey (Fernwood form) aeolian windblown deposits. These soils are older versions of the younger soils that occur closer to the coast and support sand fynbos.

Especially along the northern section of the West Coast with a fairly low annual rainfall (115 mm) the Hutton, Garies and Clovelly sequence of soils is relatively poorly leached, with neutral to slightly acid pH, base-rich especially in the topsoil, with high concentrations of exchangeable magnesium. Although there is a slight decrease in pH and base status from the Hutton to the Clovelly, soils of the Clovelly form are far less leached than similarly textured Clovelly soils near Knysna. The two main reasons for this difference are the difference in rainfall and the salty sea mist which is common along the West Coast. Soils of the Fernwood and Clovelly forms in the Redelinghuys area with an average annual rainfall of 250 mm are extremely acid (pH of < 4.5) with a low base status.

In localities where the sand cover over the more clayey underlying materials is relatively thin, duplex soils (e.g. Estcourt and Kroonstad forms) support renosterveld.
Fossilised Dunes

In many areas along the West and South Coast old dunes have become fossilised to form lime-rich aeolinites, usually with a thin, hard laminar capping. These aeolinites weather relatively rapidly. Initially shallow soils of the Coega and Glenrosa forms develop from the aeolinites. With age or with increased rainfall, yellow apedal soils (Clovelly form) develop, which with time can develop a bleached E-horizon without (Constantia form) or with (Lamotte form) a podzol B. In warm, dry areas and iron-rich limestone even red apedal soils may develop (Hutton form).

The soils of the Coega and Glenrosa forms associated with aeolinites contain free lime and are base-saturated with alkaline pH values. Calcium is the dominant exchangeable cation. Many of these soils contain high levels of extractable phosphorous but it is unavailable to plants due to the formation of water-insoluble calcium phosphates. These soils support strandveld on the West Coast and limestone fynbos on the South Coast.

An interesting weathering feature in the fossilised dune sands and locally in recent dune sands (e.g. Bredasdorp and Knysna) is that the weathering front is not concordant to the soil surface, but has tongue-like extensions resulting in potholes. On the Bredasdorp coastal plain round pockets of moderately to highly leached, usually acid soils of the Clovelly and Constantia forms are found in a predominantly very shallow Coega and Glenrosa soil landscape. This irregular weathering pattern is probably associated with preferential weathering and leaching along roots of deep-rooted perennial shrubs of the local limestone fynbos.

2.3.4 Soils Associated with Silcrete and Ferricrete

Silcrete (supporting silcrete fynbos) and ferricrete (supporting ferricrete fynbos) are respectively silica- and iron-cemented hardpans. Silcrete probably developed during the Miocene and Pliocene in sandy/gravelly quartz-rich, lower-slope surface deposits overlying saline and/or alkaline clays throughout the western and southern forelands. As a result of the high pH in the clays, silica becomes soluble. Through capillary rise the silica-containing groundwater moves up in the profile and silica precipitates and cements on drying (Smale 1973).

Ferricrete develops on old lower slopes with a fluctuating water table. Due to hydromorphic conditions iron is reduced in the permanently saturated zone and moves into the nonreduced overlying zone with a rise of the water table. On drying and lowering of the water table, the reduced iron becomes oxidised and precipitates as iron oxides in the zone of water fluctuation. If this process continues long enough, it forms a continuous, indurate iron pan through the cementation of the individual soil particles (Alexander & Cady 1962). Ferricretisation is ongoing in sandy soils with fluctuating water tables. Ferricretes occur where the sand has been eroded and the iron pan exposed.

Due to a drop in sea level during the Pliocene and later, the coastal foreland was subjected to intense dissection and erosion of the weathered surface material (Hendey 1983a). Today, as a result of their hardness and resistance to weathering, silcrete, in particular, and ferricrete occur as remnants of spatially more extensive hardpans, usually on crests and upper slopes. On exposure, silcrete weathers slowly to produce a quartz-rich, sandy surface layer. Depending on the thickness of the sandy layer and the degree of breakdown of the underlying silcrete, Mispah and Glenrosa soil forms occur. As a result of the sandy and quartzitic nature of the weathering products, these soils are generally acid and base-unsaturated, even under conditions of relatively low rainfall. Ferricrete weathers faster than silcrete. The depth of weathered material can range from less than 40 cm to as deep as 1 m with an increase in rainfall. A variety of soils can develop in the weathered material, including Wasbank, Glencoe and a variety of podzol soils with and without E-horizons. Because these soils have undergone two cycles...
of soil formation, the clay content is generally low and the soils are highly leached, with low pH.

2.3.5 Other Soils

Many floodplains of the rivers in the Fynbos Biome with surrounding quartzitic and sandstone mountains are covered with deep sandy alluvium. Soils of the Dundee form are found on the youngest alluvium. Depending on iron content, the older alluvium away from the river may develop into a variety of soil forms that may include sandy, apedal yellow (Clovelly and Pinedene) or grey (Oakleaf and Tukulu) soils. Under conditions of relatively high rainfall pale-coloured soils of the Fernwood form and podzolic soils can also develop. These soils are generally acid with a low base status and are characterised by either alluvial fynbos or alluvial renosterveld.

Near Nieuwoudtville and on the Hantam Plateau basic igneous dolerite rocks occur. Dolerite weathers on relatively level land surfaces to form moderately deep, red, swelling clays (Arcadia form). On sloping, steeper land surfaces the depth of weathering is restricted, and shallow soils of the Glenrosa and Hutton forms develop. Due to the fairly low rainfall in the doleritic areas the soils are base-saturated, with a neutral pH. The heavy clayey dolerite-derived soils typically support dolerite renosterveld.

2.4 Current Climatic Patterns

2.4.1 Megaclimatic Framework

The macroclimates of the two African mediterranean-type ecosystems (the North African portion of the Mediterranean and the Fynbos Biome), show symmetric features (Goudie 1996). The summers in both regions are hot and dry, a result of the 20° E—this is associated with frontal systems that pass south of 37° S. The hot summers are associated with a high frequency of relatively high rainfall pale-coloured soils of the Fernwood form and podzolic soils can also develop. These soils are generally acid with a low base status and are characterised by either alluvial fynbos or alluvial renosterveld.

Near Nieuwoudtville and on the Hantam Plateau basic igneous dolerite rocks occur. Dolerite weathers on relatively level land surfaces to form moderately deep, red, swelling clays (Arcadia form). On sloping, steeper land surfaces the depth of weathering is restricted, and shallow soils of the Glenrosa and Hutton forms develop. Due to the fairly low rainfall in the doleritic areas the soils are base-saturated, with a neutral pH. The heavy clayey dolerite-derived soils typically support dolerite renosterveld.

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2.4.2 Regional and Local Climate

Mean annual precipitation (MAP) averaged over the total area of the Fynbos Biome is about 480 mm. This is highest for the fynbos (FF units) at about 540 mm, followed by 370 mm for renosterveld (FR units), and 350 mm for strandveld (FS units). These

![Figure 4.8 Mean annual rainfall along a south–north altitudinal gradient from Herold’s Bay on the coast, across the Outeniqua and Swartberg Mountains to Prince Albert, via the Oudtshoorn basin. Dark blue bars represent rainfall in areas in the Fynbos Biome and light blue bars rainfall in karroid and thicket areas. The red line represents altitude above sea level. Green dots represent towns.][1]
The Fynbos Biome has a wide variation in seasonality of precipitation (Figure 4.9). Most of the biome receives either winter or even rainfall (according to definition of Bailey 1979). The area of ‘strong winter rainfall’ is limited to a section of the West Coast centred on Saldanha and St Helena Bays. However, some of the western parts of the ‘winter rainfall’ zone are marginal to ‘strong winter’. The eastern boundary of the ‘winter rainfall’ zone extends roughly to the lower Breede River Valley and to the north includes the Roggeveld Escarpment and the Hantam Plateau area north of Calvinia. The ‘even rainfall’ zone includes much of the southern Cape as well as the renosterveld areas along the Nuweveld Escarpment. Some of the easternmost islands of fynbos, including several vegetation types of the biome (e.g. on the Grootrivierberge and Klein-Winterhoekberge) in the Eastern Cape, lie marginally in the ‘summer rainfall’ zone.

As a consequence of the winter concentration of rainfall in the west, the solar radiation for winter in the southwestern part of the biome is lower than elsewhere and at any other time of year in South Africa (< 12 MJ.m$^{-2}$.day$^{-1}$ in July from Saldanha Bay to Cape Agulhas).

Cloud cover on the higher mountains is frequent in the west in the dry summer and driven by strong winds, and occurs predominantly on the summits and southern and southeastern slopes. Over 500 mm of water may be precipitated per year from wet stratus cloud without being recorded in standard rain gauges (Fuggle & Ashton 1979). Schulze (1997b) reports more than 600 mm per annum of orographically induced moisture from fog (not recorded by standard gauges) in the Jonkershoek Mountains near Stellenbosch.

Snowfalls occur on the higher mountains of the southwestern parts of the Western Cape, with a frequency estimated at 5.4 falls per year and peaking in late July (Schulze 1965). The snowline is very seldom seen below an altitude of 1 000 m. Snowdrifts of more than one metre deep can occur on high plateaus such as Fonteintjiesberg (1 989 m) in the Hex River Mountains, with snow cover sometimes persisting for two weeks or more. Snowfalls can occur here into early summer (December). There is anecdotal evidence that the duration of persisting snow has declined over the entire region over the past few decades.

Relative humidity is highest (> 70%) along the coast in summer but with high values also extending inland in winter, especially on the mountains.

Temperatures are generally the lowest on the high mountains (mean annual temperatures of less than 12°C) and higher in the lowlands and tend to be the highest near low-lying parts of the Karoo (mean annual temperatures greater than 19°C), but more ameliorated near the coast with mean annual temperatures closer to 16°C.

The lowlands near the coast are generally frost-free. However, frost does occur on higher-lying regions and towards the interior. Thus, for example, the average number of days with heavy frost (screen minimum temperature < 0°C) is 0.3 for Paarl, 3 for Riversdale, 12 for Grabouw, 14 for Ceres and 93 for Sutherland.

Temperature data for the mountains are limited. On the summit of Table Mountain (Cableway) at an altitude of 1 067 m, mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures are 30.3°C and –0.2°C for January and July, respectively. To estimate the likely temperatures on two of the highest peaks in the Fynbos Biome, namely Matroosberg, Hex River Mountains (altitude of 2 249 m), and Seweweekspoort Peak, Klein Swartberg range (altitude of 2 325 m), we applied seasonal temperature lapse rates calculated for mountains of the southwestern Cape and separately for the southern Cape (Schulze 1965) to nearby weather stations (Matroosberg–Helpmekaar and Amalienstein, respectively).

Mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures approximate 28.7°C and –8.9°C for the summit of Matroosberg and 30.1°C and –12.2°C for the summit of Seweweekspoort Peak for January and July, respectively.

One of the highest temperatures ever measured (46.1°C) in the biome was in January at a low altitude near the karroid edge of the biome at Clanwilliam. This absolute figure compares with a mean monthly maximum temperature of 44.1°C and a mean daily maximum temperature of 35.4°C for the same station and

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**Figure 4.9** Classes of rainfall seasonality for the Fynbos Biome (shown in red) using mean winter rainfall (April to September) as a percentage of mean annual rainfall (after Bailey 1979). Rainfall data were interpolated from rainfall station data. Strong winter (80% and over), winter (60–79%), even (40–59%), summer (20–39%); strong summer (0–19%) is not encountered in the Fynbos Biome.
month. Even well within the biome there are also some areas of high summer temperature. Wellington–MUN recorded an absolute temperature of 45.6°C in January. This figure compares with a mean monthly maximum temperature of 38.5°C and a mean daily maximum temperature of 31.2°C for the same station and month.

Mean annual potential evaporation on the lowlands of the coastal belt south of the Riversonderend–Langeberg Mountains is < 2 000 mm, dropping to < 1 800 mm and in parts even < 1 600 mm south of the Outeniqua and Tsitsikamma Mountains. By contrast, the lowlands north of False Bay have a higher mean annual potential evaporation, i.e. greater than 2 000 mm, increasing to more than 2 200 mm north of Malmesbury and to greater than 2 400 mm in the Olifants River Valley, the coastal belt of Namaqualand and the Roggeveld Escarpment. Values on the higher mountains close to the coast are below 1 400 mm.

Fuggle & Ashton (1979) provide a useful summary of the occurrence of wind in the Fynbos Biome. The region's entire coastal belt is characterised by strong winds. Summer winds are dominantly southeasterly to southerly, usually picking up in midmorning and reaching greatest strength in the evening, although often persisting at gale force for days. They are responsible for the orographic summer mist precipitation and the associated 'Table Cloth' and 'Hottentot's Blanket' on the mountains (Figure 4.10). Winter winds dominate from the northwest (prefrontal) and southwest (postfrontal). Sea breezes exert an influence when gradient winds are light, appearing as shallow northwesterly to westerly air drifts along the Atlantic coast but as shallow southeasterly flows on the South Coast. In summer the sea breeze over False Bay reinforces the southerly gradient winds, giving rise to maximum wind velocities in the early afternoon. Land breezes do not occur in the southwestern part of the Western Cape due to the very low sea temperatures.

From Cape Hangklip eastwards a slight sea breeze influence is evident throughout the year, but prevailing winds are roughly easterly and westerly. The main difference between winter and summer winds east of Mossel Bay is the high frequency of easterly winds in summer (greater than 25%). The warm Agulhas Current off the coast provides a land-sea temperature gradient sufficient for land breezes to develop on calm, clear nights. Katabatic drainage down the major valleys cutting through the mountain ranges reinforces the land breeze, giving moderately strong offshore winds seaward of major valleys. In the interior there is much less wind than on the coast, the percentage of calms is higher and in the west a greater westerly component is evident in both summer and winter. In the eastern interior the prevailing winds are easterly to southeasterly in summer and northwesterly in winter.

The entire coastal belt is subject to occasional hot desiccating gusty winds (berg winds), especially in winter. These outbreaks of subsiding air heated by compression become more marked eastward along the coast. The wind blows at right angles to the coast and is responsible for temperature rises of over 10°C in just a few hours. They are associated with approaching low pressure systems and often precede frontal systems.

Wind speed can be high, especially in the west. In Cape Town (Wingfield), the wind speed exceeds 26 km per hour, almost half of the time in January (Schulze 1965). For around 20 hours of this month, wind speed exceeds 42 km per hour. Wind speed and frequency can be expected to be considerably higher on mountain tops.

Lightning frequency and hail are rare in the extreme western parts of the biome but increase eastwards. Yet even in the extreme eastern parts, lightning ground-flash densities remain below 2 flashes per km² per year (Schulze 1997a).

3. Vegetation Types of the Fynbos Biome

There are three major vegetation complexes within the Fynbos Biome—fynbos, renosterveld and strandveld—described below.

Embedded within the Fynbos Biome are edaphically specialised vegetation units of azonal nature (Table 4.1), such as those of coastal vegetation (see Chapter 14) or inland azonal vegetation, including freshwater wetlands and salt pans and alluvia (see Chapter 13). The remnants of the afrotropical and coastal subtropical milkwood forests are of intrazonal nature and are described in Chapter 12.

3.1 Fynbos

Fynbos (derived from the Dutch 'fijn-bosch' and pronounced ‘feinbos’) means ‘fine bush’, with a Dutch connotation for ‘kindling’—as opposed to fire-wood. It is an evergreen, fire-prone shrubland characterised by the presence of restios (wiry, evergreen graminoids of the Restionaceae), a high cover of ericoid shrubs (fine-leaved, principally in the families Ericaceae, Astereaceae, Rhamnaceae, Thymelaeaceae and Rutaceae), and the common occurrence of proteoid shrubs (exclusively Proteaceae). It is thus often considered a ‘heathland’, which it resembles in structure and function, but strictly only ericaceous fynbos is truly a heathland (Cowling et al. 1997). Other important features of fynbos are the presence of leaf spinescence, high sedge (Cyperaceae) cover and low grass cover in mature phases of some facies (Campbell 1985). Campbell (1985) ascribed the origin of the botanical use of the term ‘fynbos’ to...
To date there have been six major classification attempts for the Fynbos Biome: (1) Acocks’s (1953, 1975, 1988) veld type scheme. (2) Moll and Bossi’s (1983) and used by Low & Rebelo (1996). (3) Moll and Bossi’s (1983) large-scale units based on remote-sensing and emphasized the importance of geology and climate depending on the broad subcategory of the classified object, (3) application (albeit only to a limited extent) of the concepts of zonality in the unit delimitation, and (4) high-level of GIS precision of definition of boundaries by using more detailed (and precise) GIS sources—leading to a high level of detail recognisable down to 1:250 000 and in places even 1:50 000 scales. Only the floristic-sociological and structural classifications did not produce a biome-wide map of the region, arguably as they focus at much smaller scales.

The Braun-Blanquet (or ‘BB’) approach, known as ‘phytosociology’ or ‘phytocoenology’ (Braun-Blanquet 1964, Westhoff & Van der Maarel 1978), became the most used method in Europe and was exported worldwide (Van der Maarel 1975). In South Africa this approach has been used in the Savanna and Grassland Biomes, but achieved less success in the Fynbos Biome, where it has been used locally in management plans of some conservation areas.

By addressing the vegetation complexity on habitat (or habitat complex) level, the floristic and structural approaches became a

### 3.1.1 Approaches to Typology of Fynbos

Classification of vegetation of the Cape Floristic Region has been, for descriptive vegetation scientists at least, a challenging and daunting task.

To date there have been six major classification attempts for vegetation in the Cape Floristic Region:

2. Moll and Bossi’s (1983) large-scale units based on remote-sensing and emphasized the importance of geology and climate depending on the broad subcategory of the classified object, (3) application (albeit only to a limited extent) of the concepts of zonality in the unit delimitation, and (4) high-level of GIS precision of definition of boundaries by using more detailed (and precise) GIS sources—leading to a high level of detail recognisable down to 1:250 000 and in places even 1:50 000 scales. Only the floristic-sociological and structural classifications did not produce a biome-wide map of the region, arguably as they focus at much smaller scales.

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By addressing the vegetation complexity on habitat (or habitat complex) level, the floristic and structural approaches became a
focus of controversy, which continues today (Linder & Campbell 1979, Campbell 1986c, Cowling & Holmes 1992b). The use of the BB approach was criticised (if not dismissed) in the Fynbos Biome because of the following flaws and difficulties:

(1) Floristic composition requires cover classes but fynbos takes 8–15 years to mature, during which the species canopy cover changes dramatically. In fact, seral stages recapitulate the fynbos series (see below). Thus, at any one time, a large proportion of fynbos vegetation may be too young for sampling.

(2) The composition of many communities is determined by fire (intensity, season, frequency, veld age, past fire history, lottery recruitment from seed banks following fire), and thus the same community may vary in species composition and abundance between fires. This results in different community classifications for the same site.

(3) As a consequence of focusing on mature communities, fire ephemerals and geophytes are not routinely recorded or included into community descriptions. Phytosociological data do not exist for young fynbos, and it is not known whether the community patterns for young communities reflect or are independent of mature fynbos. Data do not even exist as to which communities have markedly distinct post-fire communities. Some communities have a dominant and high-cover early seral community (usually Asteraceae or Fabaceae), which is completely absent in mature veld, whereas other communities merely change by overtopping of later seral species without much loss of early seral cover. The dynamics of these community changes are unexplored.

(4) We do not understand the geophytic and spring annual communities. These are routinely excluded from phytosociological surveys as they effectively restrict sampling to two or three months of the year. There is some evidence that geophytes are not as geologically restricted in their distributions as many shrubs (phanerophytes). This affects patterns of endemism, with surprisingly many renosterveld geophytes also present in fynbos on sandstone substrates and thus crossing many shrub-based community boundaries, a rare occurrence in shrubs.

(5) The high gamma diversity results in ecologically analogous communities in different areas having different replacement species, not necessarily in the same genus. Consequently, the proportions of replacements between analogous communities will vary between regions and communities to the extent that analogous communities may not be easily detectable.

(6) There are too many species (many of which are identifiable only for short flowering or seeding periods) for the practical identification of species, so that omitted, indeterminate and incorrectly identified taxa will confound floristic analysis. Adequate sampling to resolve these problems will make sampling too expensive.

(7) There are too many species and too many communities, so that a formal (syn)taxonomic synthesis of communities becomes unlikely even given sufficient resources.

(8) Because of the high species numbers it takes a long time to collect field data and also for herbarium identification, making data collection a slow and tedious process. This is not helped by frequent taxonomic name changes, or, less frequently, changes in species and generic delimitation—a constant problem in a rich and diverse flora.

(9) Because of species turnover, floristics will yield biogeographical rather than ecological insights into fynbos.

(10) Time, budgetary and legal constraints require that many studies—especially for Environmental Impact Assessments, Integrated Environmental Management and development applications—have to be completed within a matter of months. It is simply impossible to undertake community-type analyses under these scenarios, and communities are usually merely ‘eye-balled’, with a brief summary of dominant and Red Data taxa (De Villiers et al. 2005).

The first four issues question the theoretical soundness of procedures used in floristic classification of vegetation, based on a misunderstanding of the floristic-sociological approach. Exclusive study of ‘mature’ communities or the deliberate exclusion of a floristic segment is not precluded: the floristic approach is suited for communities at any stage of development. The lack of understanding of the short-lived synusia (such as those of geophytes and annuals) within the Fynbos and Succulent Karoo Biomes is not a theoretical drawback of the approach, but is due to the wrong application of its sampling procedures. The issues (5) to (8) lament the high diversity and the concomitant high time and identification investment needed, and taxonomic deficiencies. All of these issues are logistical and certainly valid. However, these are surmountable provided there is change in political will that would result in more support for vegetation surveys (including better funding) and steady and genuine progress in plant systematics.

The success of the floristic-sociological approach lies especially in the researcher’s or user’s ability to read the ecological message in particular species groups. This implies being able to identify all the species and understand their ecology—admittedly a tall order in a region containing over 9 000 taxa. Consequently only a few areas of the Cape Floristic Region have been studied using the floristic approach—far too few to be of use in the compilation of a detailed vegetation map of the entire Fynbos Biome. The floristic classification of the vegetation of the Cape Floristic Region is possible and necessary, but is still a very distant target. It took European phytosociology more than 100 years to develop a unified vegetation system acceptable to the European Union (EU) legislature (Devilliers et al. 1991, Devilliers & Devilliers-Terschuren 1996, European Commission 1995, Rodwell et al. 2002) and applied on a continent-wide scale (NATURA 2000 network of nature reserves, biotope mapping in the EU, etc.). Despite the lack of manpower and current politically motivated lack of acceptance, South African descriptive vegetation scientists should continue building the floristics-based classification system and ensure that it is used at the proper scale in nature management of the Cape.

Many of these arguments also apply to the alternative structural approach proposed by Campbell (1983, 1985, 1986a, b) for fynbos of the mountainous regions. This system was later tested and extended to the South Coast lowlands by Cowling et al. (1988) and Rebelo et al. (1991). Campbell’s scheme has the advantage in that it is relatively quick to sample and does not require many years of taxonomic experience to execute. However, its reliance on certain easily identified taxonomic groups, and their cover/abundance, renders it equally problematic to floristic studies in terms of requiring mature veld for sampling (Cowling & Holmes 1992b). It is also problematic in that a comprehensive map of structural types across the biome has never been attempted, although it was shown to be amenable to fine-scale mapping on the South Coast.

The structural classification approach fails in several important theoretical and practical aspects. The most serious theoreti-
The drawback is that the vegetation structure is of a convergent nature—the same structural phenomena can be encountered under very different habitat conditions. However, this has not proved a drawback in the Fynbos Biome, with the exception of restioid fynbos, where the arid facies and mesotrophic restioid fynbos were easy to separate at the next hierarchical level (Rebelo et al. 1991). Another serious weakness of the approach lies in the link between the vegetation structure and function, assuming that the ecological message can be detected in growth forms. Admittedly, we know even less about it than about the ecological requirements of particular species. Structural classifications are currently the method of choice for rapid, quick appraisals required for conservation monitoring and Environmental Impact Assessments, where floristics are restricted to the documentation of the dominant 10–20 species and the listing of Red Data taxa. Whatever its deficiencies, fine-scale mapping of core areas of the Cape Floristic Region is currently under way based on Campbell’s methodology as modified by Cowling et al. (1988) and Rebelo et al. (1991).

There is a clear need for a theoretical integration and development of both floristic and structural approaches as well as for a classification of habitats at a scale finer than vegetation types (Linder 2005a).

3.1.2 Structural Communities in Fynbos

Campbell’s (1985) structural approach is based on the cover-abundance in height classes of life or growth forms (e.g. annual grasses, ericoid leaves), single-structural characters (e.g. spinescence, leaf hairiness), higher taxa (e.g. Ericaceae) and dominant species (especially Proteaceae). The interplay between the different structural communities is complex, but clear patterns have been determined.

Within fynbos availability of water appears to be a key element in determining the distribution of structural components across the landscape. Overall, asteraceous fynbos occurs at the most arid extreme, followed by restioid, graminoid, proteoid fynbos and waboomveld, with ericoid and wet restioid fynbos on the moistest extreme. In deep soils with widely fluctuating water tables, shrubs appear to be excluded and restioid and occasionally ericoid fynbos are dominant. This composition appears to be determined by success of post-fire establishment, with shrub seedlings failing to keep in root contact with the dropping water table. In rocky areas, the amount of soil and depth of cracks seem to be important variables for vegetation structure.

Proteoid fynbos (Figure 4.11) is characterised by a high cover of dominant, reseeding overstorey proteoids. These plants are usually tall or emergent, but in ferricrete and silcrete fynbos they may be lower than 1 m. Ferns and evergreen geophytes are prominent, and leafy and wide-leaved sedges are also characteristic. Proteoid fynbos is widespread on the deep and relatively fertile colluvial soils at the foot of mountains. It is often prominent on the Cedarberg shale bands, and more prominent below it than above it. With their deep roots, proteoids exploit deep water unavailable to other fynbos plants, and consequently grow when most other fynbos plants are dormant—the wet season is the major flowering time.

Ericaceous fynbos (Figure 4.11) is dominated by ericoids and a high cover of restioids. Endemic and near-endemic families (Bruniaceae, Penaeaceae and Grubbiiaceae) are also characteristic, as is a high cover of sedges. Ericaceous fynbos occurs at higher altitudes than proteoid fynbos, on permanently wet, cool, relatively fine-grained soils with a high organic carbon content. Mists are prominent in summer, especially under southeasterly wind conditions when the orographic cloud known on some local mountains as the ‘Table Cloth’ or ‘Hottentot’s Blanket’ occurs.

Restioid fynbos (Figure 4.11) is dominated by restioids, with a low cover of shrubs. Because restioid fynbos is dominated by shallow-rooted plants, it occurs on warmer, north-facing slopes that are on shallow or deep soils prone to drought in summer, including dunes and perched sandy plateaus. Restioid fynbos also occurs on waterlogged soils on cooler, south-facing slopes, where root growth is inhibited for much of the year.

Asteraceous fynbos (Figure 4.11) has a relatively low total cover, and often a high grass and eulytrappooid cover, and a prominent deep-rooted nonericaceous ericoid shrub component (Asteraceae, Rhamnaceae and Thymelaeaceae). We exclude talus asteraceous fynbos, which does not fit comfortably within this group, as ‘waboomveld’ (see below). Asteraceous fynbos occurs on the hot, lower, north-facing slopes, on the deeper colluvial soils.

Waboomveld or ‘talus asteraceous fynbos’ (Figure 4.11) has been long recognised as a fynbos community (Taylor 1963). It is characterised by the presence of Protea nitida (waboom), the only stem-resprouting plant in fynbos, a habit which allows it to form a very unusual 2–5 m tall tree overstorey. It is largely confined to the lowest slopes and talus slopes, often on more fertile, deeper soils. The understorey is very varied, but often contains significant nonericaceous ericoids.

Grassy fynbos (Figure 4.11) is characterised by a high grass cover, with an associated high cover of nonproteoid nanophylls and forbs. It is quite distinct from the other fynbos types and has been regarded as a separate grouping, known as ‘Eastern Fynbos’ (Cowling 1984, Campbell 1985). Grassy fynbos occurs on soils of finer texture and higher nutrient levels, and under conditions of less summer drought than the other fynbos types.

It is apparent that ericaceous and proteoid fynbos are more common on the coastal ranges, whereas restioid and asteraceous fynbos prevail on inland ranges. In addition, higher (wetter) mountains have more ericaceous and proteoid fynbos. Flats and lower ranges are dominated by restioid and asteraceous
Figure 4.12 Faces of fynbos shrublands: A: proteoid fynbos dominated by Leucadendron xanthoconus and prominent Phaenocoma prolifera (Potberg); B: waboomveld with tall scattered Protea nitida (Du Toitskloof, Limietberg); C: coastal asteraceous shrubland with Phaenocoma prolifera and Metalasia densa (Betty’s Bay); D: grassy fynbos with low tree of Oldenburgia grandis (Asteraceae) in the foreground (Howison’s Poort near Grahamstown); E: typical ericoid fynbos with Erica laeta dominant in temporary wetlands of the Smitswinkelvlakte (Cape of Good Hope); F: restioid fynbos with Thamnochortus spicigerus on the Agulhas Plain. Photographs by L. Mucina.
fynbos. In the east, where summer drought is less pronounced and soils are more fertile, grassy types dominate. Thus, in the east, proteoid fynbos is replaced by graminoid fynbos, restioid fynbos is replaced by grassland, and asteraceous fynbos is replaced by grassy shrubland. Richer soils (granites, shales, silcretes and ferricretes), if leached by high rainfall (more than 600 mm per year), contain mainly asteraceous and proteoid fynbos (Figure 4.12). Restioid fynbos also occurs in seasonally waterlogged dune environments.

Although complex, structural types occur predictably across landscapes in fynbos vegetation types. Analogues between units are relatively straightforward and allow easy comparison of ecological gradients between units. Generally there is also an altitudinal zonation in the mountains, with waboomveld, proteoid, ericaceous and restioid fynbos on southern slopes, and asteraceous, proteoid, ericaceous and restioid fynbos on the northern slopes. However, these patterns are modified by soil depth and drainage (Cowling & Holmes 1992b).

3.2 Renosterveld

Renosterveld, or renosterbosveld, literally translates as ‘rhinoceros vegetation’. There is confusion as to whether this refers to the historical presence of the hook-lipped or black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*) in this veld type or, more likely, whether it is derived from ‘renosterbos-veld’ (Boucher 1980). Renosterbos refers to *Elytropappus rhinocerotis*, the dominant plant in this vegetation thought to be so named because reputedly only the black rhinoceroses ate it (it is filled with phenolics and eschewed by livestock). A third explanation is the dull, grey appearance of the veld (hence ‘Swartveld’ and ‘Swartland’, meaning ‘black field’ or ‘black land’), which is similar in hue to rhino hide (Boucher 1980).

Renosterveld is an evergreen, fire-prone shrubland or grassland dominated by small, cupressoid-leaved, evergreen asteraceous shrubs (principally renosterbos) with an understorey of Restionaceae and a high biomass and diversity of geophytes (Boucher 1980, Moll et al. 1984, McDowell & Moll 1992). Here we define renosterveld narrowly as excluding (fynbos) types dominated by Proteaceae, Ericaceae or having more than 5–10% cover of Restionaceae. Thus we approximate Campbell (1985) in our approach, in that *Elytropappus*-dominated communities with *Passerina*, *Phyllica* and restioid components considered asteraceous or restioid fynbos types. Our definition is much narrower than that of Moll (Boucher & Moll 1981), but approaches Acocks (1953) for the West Coast. We reject Acocks’s ‘false’ veld types, as a derived type and consider them typical types in their area. However, we include thicket bush-clumps such as those occurring on heuweltjies as a typical renosterveld element. Renosterveld occurs predominantly on clay-rich soils derived from shale and granite and, to a lesser extent, silcrete.

Apart from Asteraceae (including *Elytropappus*, *Eriocephalus*, *Helichrysum*, *Oedera*, *Pteronia* and *Relhania*), other important shrub families represented in renosterveld include Boraginaceae, Fabaceae, Malvaceae, Rosaceae (*Cliffortia*) and Rubiaceae (*Anthospermum*) (Goldblatt & Manning 2002b).

![Figure 4.13 Faces of renosterveld: A: ‘bulbveld’ (bulb-rich herland) at Waylands near Darling (West Coast) with *Zantedeschia aethiopica*, *Sparaxis bulbifera* (white), *Geissorhiza radians* (purple and red), *Trachyandra filiformis* (small whitish stars) and a cloud of blue *Heliophila coronopifolia* in the distance; B: typical renosterveld shrubland dominated by renosterbos (*Elytropappus rhinocerotis*) on a slope overlooking the Koo (western Little Karoo); C: extensive grazing lawns in the valley of the Potberg River in the eastern portion of De Hoop Nature Reserve—the major feeding ground of large herds of bontebok *Damaliscus pygargus pygargus* and eland (*Taurotragus oryx*); D: tussock grassland with *Cymbopogon pospischilii* and *Themeda triandra* on shale slopes in the Potberg section of De Hoop Nature Reserve. Photographs: A: J.C. Manning, B: L. Mucina, C & D: F.G.T. Radloff.](image-url)
Among the geophytes are representatives of both the mono
cots (Amaryllidaceae, Asparagaceae, Asphodelaceae, Iridaceae,
Hyacinthaceae, Orchidaceae) and dicots (Oxalidaceae and
Geraniaceae) (Duthie 1930, Cowling 1983a, Paterson-Jones
1998, Goldblatt & Manning 2002b, Proche & Cowling 2004,
Proche et al. 2005, 2006). Indeed the world cut-flower trade
owes Freesia, bixa, Gladiolus, Ornithogalum (Chinkerinchee) and
Pelargonium to plants originally collected from the CFR. The fre-
cquency and diversity of geophytes, according to Kruger (1979),
crease with that of soil fertility, aridity and fire frequency.
Floristic affinities of renosterveld with fynbos are low in spite
of their structural similarity (Boucher & Moll 1981). Although
many families and genera are shared, apart from geophytes,
very few species are shared, with the exception of the shale and
granite fynbos types where boundaries are often diffuse.
A major feature of renosterveld, at least the coastal units, is
the extensive transformation that has taken place over the last
100 years. Today these areas are predominantly croplands. This
follows on a major shift in large herbivore dynamics that took
place in the early 18th century, as large game and Khoi cat-
tle herds were replaced by European stock farmers. We will
probably never be able to recreate or determine the ecology of
renosterveld in any detail (Krug et al. 2004a, b).
Moll et al. (1984) differentiated renosterveld into four distinct
(more or less biogeographically defined) types. These exclude
the escarpment types, which show strong karroid affiliations.

(1) Renosterveld of the West Coast Centre (west of the
Hottentots Holland and Twenty-four River Mountains) tends
to have a sparser grass cover, comprising mainly
C₃ genera, a higher diversity of deciduous geophytes and
annuals, and Eriocephalus africanaus and Leysera gnapha-
loides as characteristic subdominants. The overstorey
shrubbs have a greater canopy cover (50–90%) than in the
other centres. Heuweltjies support tall clumps of thicket
elements. The unusually high abundance of geophytes is
particularly characteristic.

(2) Renosterveld of the South Coast Centre (south of the
Langeberg and Riviersonderend Mountains) tends
to have less geophytes and more grassy elements (mainly
C₄ genera) with typical subdominants Oedera genistifo-
lium, O. squarrosa and various species of Helichrysum and
Herrmannia. Canopy cover varies from 50–75%. In the east
it grades into Albany Thicket types where dissected topog-
raphy prevents the spread of fire.

(3) Inland renosterveld of the Mountain Centre (from
Nieuwoudtville to Oudtshoorn, east of the Cederberg and
north of the Langeberg) tends to be more xeric and has
a lower cover than the coastal types, but this is determined
by moisture; southern aspects may be as dense as in
coastal renosterveld types. This renosterveld has a higher
proportion of succulents (reflecting a stronger Succulent
Karoo influence), and mixtures of renosterbos and
Rehania as dominants, occasionally with Pteronia incana.
Total cover is low (25–60%). Grasses (mainly C₄ genera)
may be prominent, but are often lost due to overgrazing
and may be absent. Locally Acacia karroo, Euclera undulata
and Aloe ferox may be prominent as scattered elements.

(4) Renosterveld of the Eastern Centre is relatively uniform
with no emergents above the renosterbos-dominated
shrubland. Grasses (mainly C₃ genera) can be a major com-
ponent, but overgrazing may eliminate them. Renosterveld
types of the Eastern Centre have the strongest affinities
with Albany Thicket and grasslands to the east. The east-
ern units of this type are particularly difficult to subdivide.

No further studies on the relationships and determinants of the
groupings of Moll et al. (1984) have been undertaken. Despite
its structural diversity, renosterveld has so far not been sub-
ject to detailed vegetation-structural classification. However
four major structural types have been used in an informal way:
shrubland, tussock grassland, grazing lawn (low, heavily grazed
grasslands), and lately also herbelands dominated by bulbous
plants (‘bulblands’) (Figure 4.13).

3.3 Western Strandveld

Strandveld (Figure 4.14) consists of communities of medium
dense to closed (sometimes forming an impenetrable tangle)
shrublands dominated by sclerophyllous, broad-leaved shrubs
(Moll et al. 1984). Along and stretches (especially at the West
Coast) the succulent shrubby element becomes obvious. The
shrublands are very local, especially closer to the seashore,
but can grow tall in sheltered sites and become replaced by
low scrub milkwood forest (especially on the Agulhas Plain;
see Cowling et al. 1988). Structural and floristic differences
between strandveld and neighbouring fynbos are striking.
Although restios (Ischyrolepis, Thamnochorus, Wildendenia)
can be a common element on deep soils, the Proteaceae are
absent and Ericaceae are extremely rare.

Strandveld vegetation is usually found close to the sea (whence
the Afrikaans term ‘strandveld’ or ‘beach vegetation’) but never
in habitats under direct influence of sea spray and other fac-
tors associated with the influence of the sea water—but these
habitats are occupied by the azonal coastal vegetation (see
Chapter 14). Immediate coastal hinterland with its stabilised
Pleistocene (rarely also post-Holocene) dune cordons showing
signs of soil formation is the characteristic habitat of the typical
strandveld vegetation of the southwestern and southern Cape.
In the coastal hinterland, strandveld also occurs on harder sub-
strates supporting shallow soils, such as on granites (surrounds
of Vredenburg, Saldanha and further south in Cape Town on
the West Coast and on the coast south of George and Krynysa
on the South Coast), Tertiary limestones of the West Coast
(Langebaan area) and South Coast (from De Kelders to as far as
Mossel Bay). Strandveld penetrates deep inland in several locali-
ties, such as east of Langebaan and Saldanha (here found over
sandy overlying calcrite pavements), along limestone krantzes
(cliffs) fringing De Hoop Vlei and in the hinterland of the sedi-
mented portion of Mossel Bay.

As opposed to the sand fynbos (often bordering on the strand-
veld units, both on the West and South Coasts), the substrate
of the strandveld is mineral-rich, with high concentrations of
calcium. Intricate relationships between topography, local
waterlogging and fire dictate the nature of the delimitation of
strandveld and sand fynbos on calcium-rich coastal sands of
the South Coast (see Section 9.1.3 on sand fynbos below for
further details).

Unlike in fynbos or renosterveld, fire plays a lesser role in the
strandveld communities. Despite high cover of the strandveld
shrublands, fire frequency is low. However, the succulent nature
of strandveld impedes the spread of fire, except under excep-
tional conditions. Although no data on fire-return intervals
for strandveld exist, they are probably in the order to 50–200
years. The early seral stages following fire are dominated by
Restionaceae and Rutaceae and have a typical fynbos physi-
ognomy, hence the term ‘dune fynbos’. It takes dune fynbos
over 20 years before it becomes overtopped by more typical
strandveld elements.

The major floristic component of the strandveld communities,
especially on the South Coast, shows subtropical biogeographi-
Fynbos Biome

72 thicket species occurring at Cape St Francis, 56 (hence 79%) species (52%) in the southwestern Cape.

Zygophyllum

An interesting phenomenon linked to the dune thicket vegetation is the change in growth form in response to the dune microclimates. The notable genera occurring in strandveld and pointing towards this (sub)tropical link include for example Aloe, Azima, Cassine, Clausena, Cussonia, Euclea, Diospyros, Grewia, Gymnosporia, Lauridia, Maytenus, Mystroxylon, Pterocelastrus, Rhus, Robsonodendron, Sideroxylon and Tarchonanthus. The strandveld units of the West Coast also show a link to the Succulent Karoo (through the increased occurrence of succulent shrubs genera such as Antimima, Cheiridopsis, Cotyledon, Crassula, Dorotheanthus, Drassantherum, Euphorbia, Mesembryanthemum, Prenia, Ruschia, Tetr Agonia, Tylecodon, Zygophyllum etc.). Floristic links to the fynbos and renosterveld (especially the granite renosterveld) are indicated by the occurrence of genera such as Aspalathus, Babiana, Ehrharta, Ischyrolepis, Metulasia, Oscularia, Oxalis, Phyllica, Psaora Lea, Romulaea, Thamnochortus, Trenia, Trinia and Willdenowia. (For discussion on possible routes of evolution of the strandveld flora, see Section 5.2 below.)

Figure 4.14 Faces of strandveld. A: coastal dune strandveld dominated by aromatic shrubs (bushes) such as Acmadenia mundiana and Agathosma collina and the restio Ischyrolepis eleocharis in De Hoop Nature Reserve (Overberg). B: granite strandveld with spring flower display (Dimorphotheca pluvialis) in the Postberg Reserve (West Coast National Park); C: typical dune strandveld with Metalasia muricata in De Mond Nature Reserve near Struisbaai. Photographs by L. Mucina.

cal links. The notable genera occurring in strandveld and pointing towards this (sub)tropical link include for example Aloe, Azima, Cassine, Clausena, Cussonia, Euclea, Diospyros, Grewia, Gymnosporia, Lauridia, Maytenus, Mystroxylon, Pterocelastrus, Rhus, Robsonodendron, Sideroxylon and Tarchonanthus. The strandveld units of the West Coast also show a link to the Succulent Karoo (through the increased occurrence of succulent shrubs genera such as Antimima, Cheiridopsis, Cotyledon, Crassula, Dorotheanthus, Drassantherum, Euphorbia, Mesembryanthemum, Prenia, Ruschia, Tetr Agonia, Tylecodon, Zygophyllum etc.). Floristic links to the fynbos and renosterveld (especially the granite renosterveld) are indicated by the occurrence of genera such as Aspalathus, Babiana, Ehrharta, Ischyrolepis, Metulasia, Oscularia, Oxalis, Phyllica, Psaora Lea, Romulaea, Thamnochortus, Trenia, Trinia and Willdenowia. (For discussion on possible routes of evolution of the strandveld flora, see Section 5.2 below.)

The dune thicket flora represents a westward extension of the succulent thicket flora into the warm-temperate southern and Western Cape. It is one of the major reasons why Tinley (in Heydoorn & Tinley 1980; see also Moll et al. 1984) extended the concept of ‘thicket’ to the Western Cape strandveld. Why the vegetation map by Low & Rebelo (1996) included the western thicketns of the Western Cape in the (subtropical) Albany Thicket Biome. The clear ‘depauperization’ trend in representation of the subtropical element in the dune thicket flora was reported by Cowling & Pierce (1985), who found that of 72 thicket species occurring at Cape St Francis, 56 (hence 79%) were found in the Mossel Bay and Riversdale regions, but only 38 species (52%) in the southwestern Cape.

An interesting phenomenon linked to the dune thicket vegetation of the strandveld complex is the change in growth form in some typically subtropical woody elements. Sideroxylon inerme can be a tall tree reaching a height of 15 m in the tropics (and still with a tree stature in dune forest along the KwaZulu-Natal coast), becoming only a low tree or shrub (even showing a creeping habit) on the temperate dunes of the southwestern Cape. This remarkable plasticity has also been observed in Pterocelastrus.

Figure 4.14 Faces of strandveld. A: coastal dune strandveld dominated by aromatic shrubs (bushes) such as Acmadenia mundiana and Agathosma collina and the restio Ischyrolepis eleocharis in De Hoop Nature Reserve (Overberg). B: granite strandveld with spring flower display (Dimorphotheca pluvialis) in the Postberg Reserve (West Coast National Park); C: typical dune strandveld with Metalasia muricata in De Mond Nature Reserve near Struisbaai. Photographs by L. Mucina.

3.4 Fynbos Thicket

While the strandveld shrublands are linked to coastal (hinterland) habitats, the fynbos thickets are found in fire-sheltered habitats (Figure 4.15) embedded as fragments within fynbos—sandstone, quartzite and granite fynbos, in particular.

We consider ‘fynbos thicket’ a distinct (from subtropical Albany Thicket, from fynbos per se, from riparian thickets typical of the Fynbos Biome as well as from afrotropical forests) vegetation type characterised by dominant sclerophyllous (‘other than nanophyllous’ sensu Campbell 1985) shrubs and small trees found in fire-sheltered habitats such as steep rocky slopes, boulder formations, crevices and deep kloofs without streams, and embedded within the fire-prone matrix of typical fynbos.

The understory of these small shrublands is sparse. Most importantly, the dominant shrub elements are recruited from taxa with their evolutionary roots (and current centres of diversification) in the (sub)tropics—suggesting ‘pre-fynbos’ age, hence possibly being relics of pre-Pliocene subtropical woodlands that possibly dominated the landscapes of the southwestern Cape.

The fynbos thickets have never been a subject of an exclusive scientific enquiry. Many authors have, however, described their local communities at fynbos forests (e.g. McKenzie et al. 1977, Laidler et al. 1978, Kruger 1979, Taylor 1984b, 1996, Van Wilgen & Kruger 1985, McDonald 1988, Mustard et al. 1993, Cleaver et al. 2005). So far, the most penetrating insight has been provided by structure-oriented studies of Campbell (1985). This author described two structural variations of the fynbos thickets called Cape and Mitchell Thickets. Cowling & Holmes (1992b) introduced an overarching term ‘Western Thicket’ to encompass both.

In deep kloofs on lower northern sandstone slopes, fynbos thickets with species of Buddleya, Rhus, Salvia and Pelargonium occur in fire-safe habitats. These are dominated by aromatic-leaved species, unusual in fynbos, perhaps an adaptation


Here we consider the strandveld units FS 1–9 as intrazonal units of the Fynbos Biome, since their extent is strictly linked to that of the Fynbos Biome—the zonal fynbos units form the inland backdrop to the coastal-bound strandveld units. Hence the strandveld units share the basic feature of the macroclima with the neighbouring zonal fynbos units. We call this group of strandveld units ‘Western Strandveld’ to distinguish them from those fringing our coasts further east (in the realms of the Albany Thicket Biome and Indian Ocean Coastal Belt). The latter have been handled as azonal (AZs 1–3) and featured in Chapter 14.

Moll et al. (1984) recognised two types within strandveld, namely ‘West Coast Strandveld’ and ‘South Coast Strandveld’. Our current classification builds upon this dichotomy (largely motivated by the differences in growth-form composition) and pursues further subdivision based on regional/local bioclimatic and biogeographical patterns as well as geology (reflected in the separation of the limestone and granite strandveld units).
against grazing by animals on their way to summer watering points up the kloofs. They have never been studied ecologically or floristically.

Clumps of the wild olive (*Olea europaea* subsp. *africana*) occurring within renosterveld matrix on rocky outcrops or on tertiaritaria (Boucher 1980) also qualify as patches of ‘fynbos thicket’.

The question arises whether thicket patches found within fynbos matrix should rather be considered forest (Afrotropical Forest Biome) or a Fynbos Biome type. Both may have Restionaceae and other typical fynbos elements as an understorey, in which case they should be considered as ‘thicket fynbos’. In these cases the understorey usually burns. In granite fynbos, granitite boulders often shelter stands of ‘closed-scrub fynbos’ and ‘thicket fynbos’. Presumably on richer soils the forest elements establish more easily by virtue of the richer soils. However, these patches appear to be far more dynamic, often containing restioid, ericoid and proteoid elements, or patches of typical fynbos within them. Furthermore, the boundaries are far more diffuse. These species are not confined to these small forest habitats, but may occur as isolated plants in fynbos in fire-safe areas, some as small as single large rocks. Most of these species fail the test as ‘true forest species’ in that they can establish and survive in fynbos vegetation. They are forest pioneer elements, most of which disappear as the forest matures to afrotropical forest and are more at home in the fynbos landscape than in forest.

Due to the very limited extent of patches of fynbos thicket and virtually no floristic data to address possible subdivision, this type was not mapped and subsumed into the fynbos units in which they occur. We have, however, noted the ‘fynbos thicket’ elements in the species lists in the descriptions of fynbos vegetation units (Table 4.2).

### 3.5 The Within-biome Boundaries

#### Fynbos and Renosterveld

Renosterveld occurs predominantly on clay-rich soils. At drier extremes (usually below 250–300 mm) it is replaced by succulent karoo shrublands, and in wetter areas (usually over 500–800 mm) by fynbos (Cowling & Holmes 1992b). This boundary is not determined by fire, as both communities are dominated by fire, although renosterveld (at least in higher-rainfall areas) typically burns more frequently (3–5 years) than fynbos (10–25 years) because of faster growth rates and dominance by finer fuel grasses. By our definition, the boundary is where Restionaceae stop (or drop to less than 5% cover), usually in mesotrophic asteraceous or graminoid fynbos, but typically Ericaceae and Proteaceae end at these boundaries as well. However, transition zones are broad and diffuse, resulting in different interpretations of the actual renosterveld-fynbos boundary. This transition has been attributed to leaching and consequent loss of soil nutrients supporting fynbos (Cowling & Holmes 1992b).

The fynbos-renosterveld transition appears related to differences in leaching and is determined by annual precipitation but it is unaffected by seasonality of rainfall. Renosterveld does not typically occur on sandstone and quartzite, but occasionally occurs in more arid facies where a thin clay or silt layer, usually derived from remnants of overlying shale, covers the bedrock. Even skeletal layers of clay appear to exclude Restionaceae and most other fynbos taxa. Typically this only occurs in asteraceous fynbos; as in other fynbos types, the clays would be sufficiently leached to allow fynbos to occur.

Overgrazing and excessive burning may convert fynbos to renosterveld on shales, but the mechanism for this is unclear. Bush-cutting and liming of graminoid fynbos in the Langeberg foothills convert it to a grassland or grassy shrubland that, because of the preferential loss of typical fynbos elements, would be classified as renosterveld (A.G. Rebelo, unpublished data).
## Table 4.2 Floristic composition of the fynbos thicket communities embedded within various fynbos units (FFs 1 Bokkeveld Sandstone Fynbos, FFs 4 Cederberg S.F., FFs 10 Hawequas S.F., FFs 9 Peninsula S.F., FFs 25 North Kammanassie S.F.). Status: * found in both western and eastern fynbos thicket, **presumably endemic to fynbos thicket of the Bokkeveld, *typical of coastal-close fynbos thicket of the Cape Peninsula, **presumably endemic to fynbos thicket of the Cederberg, *only in eastern thicket, *presumably endemic to granite fynbos thicket, **presumably endemic of the fynbos thicket of the Hawequas Mountains, *only in western thicket. The entries (numbers) within the body of the table refer to the sources of the data: 1: L. Mucina (unpublished data), 2; Taylor (1996; original taxon names: *Protasparagus, **Myrsiphyllum, ***Colpoon, *Cassine barbara, *E. natalensis, *L. lobata), 3; Mustart et al. (1993; *Protasparagus, *Cassine barbara, *E. natalensis, *L. lobata, *G. heterophylla), 4; Taylor (1983; *T. camphoratus, ***Colpoon, *Cassine barbara, *G. heterophylla)), 5; McKenzie et al. (1977; *Cassine capensis), 6: Van Wilgen & Kruger (1985; *O. europaea, **probably *R. scyphophylla, *A. thunbergianus), 7; Mclonald (1988; *Protasparagus compactus), 8; Cleaver et al. (2005; *Cassine eucalytriformis, *E. natalensis), 9; A.G. Rebelo & N. Helme (unpublished data; see the descriptions of the respective units in this Chapter), 10: PRECIS database.

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Fynbos and Strandveld

Like the fynbos boundaries with the Karoo and Albany Thicket Biomes, the boundary between fynbos and strandveld is largely determined by fire dynamics. Thus sand fynbos tends to occur adjacent to strandveld, with the boundary and its transition zones determined by the interplay of topography (primarily dunes) and succulence associated with more nutrients derived from salt spray from the sea. A dune fynbos occurs as a seral stage to strandveld in areas of intermediate fire. The details of the sand fynbos/strandveld boundary are summarised under sand fynbos.

Renosterveld and Strandveld

Renosterveld does not abut upon strandveld. The two types occur on different soil types and typically the aeolian sand/shale interface is with acid sands supporting sand fynbos rather than strandveld.

4. Evolutionary and Ecological Driving Forces

Four complex factors stand paramount in fynbos ecology, which, taken together, separate the Fynbos Biome from the other biomes of southern Africa. These are: (1) the nutrient-poor soils supporting fynbos, arranged in an archipelago within more nutrient-rich soils containing mainly renosterveld, (2) hot, dry summers alternating with cool, wet winters, typical of other mediterranean-type regions, at least in the west of the biome, (3) recurrent fires at 5–50-year intervals in fynbos and 2–10 years in renosterveld (not nearly annual as in the Grassland and Savanna Biomes, or absent as in the Karoo biomes), and (4) an intricate complex of animal-plant interactions, especially involving grazing, pollination and dispersal (see also Goldblatt & Manning 2002b, Linder 2003, Barraclough 2006).

We do not cover the considerable amount of other information on plant function and ecophysiology in the Fynbos Biome here. Reviews in these fields include those of Lamont (1982), Mooney et al. (1982), Rutherford (1991), Stock & Allsopp (1992), Stock et al. (1992b, 1997).

4.1 Responses to Low Nutrients

The generally nutrient-poor soils of the fynbos proper pose a serious ecological challenge to plants. The significance of the nutrient-poor soils in the Fynbos Biome is overwhelming. Although there is obviously an interplay between fire, climate and biotic interactions, the unique and diverse systems prevalent in fynbos are unsurpassed in all other ecosystems on the subcontinent, and indeed in the world. By contrast, renosterveld and strandveld do not appear to be uniquely unusual in any traits. It is highly likely that further surprises await ecological investigators as ecophysiological and genetic investigations into low-nutrient adaptations progress.

Plants have come up with a number of intriguing answers leading to the evolution of traits of eco-morphological, life-historical and community-assembly rules. Some of the most prominent ecological-evolutionary traits identified that link the composition and dynamics of fynbos to a low soil nutrient status are listed below.

Serotiny: The phenomenon of serotiny (bradyspory) is confined to fynbos vegetation within the Fynbos Biome. It is absent in renosterveld which burns too frequently, and as a fire-related phenomenon it is largely absent in other biomes. In this strategy, species retain the seeds in fire-proof seedheads on the plant and only release them after a fire. This strategy requires thick stems (ca. 10 mm at the flowerhead) to remain standing after the fire and is therefore confined to emergent and overstorey plants (where fires are also cooler), and a few resprouters. Serotiny requires predictable fire-return times at greater than 5-year fire intervals—it is thus rare in grassy fynbos. As a strategy elsewhere it is virtually confined to mediterranean-type ecosystems on nutrient-poor soils (Bond 1985) and coniferous forests. It is sparse in communities too dry (especially asteraceous fynbos, or seasonally dry restioid fynbos) or too cool (especially ericaceous fynbos, where it is most prominent in resprouters) to allow growth of thick stems. It occurs in Proteaceae (Protea, Leucadendron, Aulax), Bruniaceae (Brunia, Berzelia, Nebelia), Ericaceae (Erica sessiliflora), Asteraceae (Phaenocoma) and Cupressaceae (Widdringtonia), totalling just over 100 species. Alien invaders displaying serotiny include species of Hakea, Banksia (both Proteaceae), Pinus (Pinaceae), Callistemon (Myrtaceae) and Casuarina (Casuarinaceae). Seed protection in fynbos species (cones and seedheads) is not as robust as in the heathlands of Australia, where there is a parrot seed predator capable of extracting seeds from fire-proof cones. Seed germination cues are simple, usually requiring cool conditions and saturated soils (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

Because seeds are exposed to predation after release following a fire, nonseasonal fires (spring or early summer in the summer-drought region, and winter and summer in the all-year rainfall region) may decimate post-fire recruitment (S. Heeleman, personal communication), presumably by prolonging the period between release and germination. Non-resprouting serotinous species may be eliminated by fire in young veld (less than 3–8 years of age, depending on species) where plants have not yet set seed—as all the plants typically burn, no reserve seed bank is possible, as with soil-stored seed banks. This feature is used to control serotinous alien invaders: adults are hacked and after seed release the veld is burned, thereby eliminating the species (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). Serotinous species also exhibit senescence, in which plants become moribund, lose their seed banks, and die out when veld exceeds 2–3 times the average fire cycle in age (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

Myrmecochory: Ant seed dispersal is found in 15% of fynbos species (Bond & Slingsby 1983, 1984, Bryenbench 1988, Bond et al. 1990, 1991, Johnson 1992, Cowling et al. 1994b), of almost all characteristic and dominant plant families (although it is very rare in Ericaceae), and in all growth forms. In many cases, wind-dispersed species in neighbouring vegetation types have myrmecochorous congeners in fynbos (Bond & Slingsby 1983, Bond et al. 1991). These species tend to produce small or large nuts with an ant-fruit or elaiosome. The fruit are buried by indigenous ants in their nests, where they remain dormant until after a fire. The alien Argentine Ant (Linepithema humile) consumes the elaiosome above ground and does not bury the seed, resulting in high predation (Bond & Slingsby 1984, Christian 2001, Christian & Stanton 2004, Witt et al. 2004, Witt & Giliomee 2004, Travset & Richardson 2006). Post-fire germination cues are complex and are determined by fire effects, cyclical soil temperature fluctuations and maturation requirements. Burial removes fruit from rodent and bird predation, and from fire and probably provides protection against fungi, especially Phytophthora. Myrmecochorous species are seldom dominants, but they may account for a high cover in the middle strata, and for up to 30% of species in a community.

Apart from a paucity in dry asteraceous fynbos, and low cover in restioid fynbos, myrmecochory has no obvious overall patterns between fynbos communities. Some alien invasive Fabaceae (Acacia) are myrmecochorous. Seed-dispersing ants include...
deep buriers (>50 mm deep), large ants that disperse the larger fruit, and smaller ants with shallow burial sites (10–50 mm) that are unable to move the larger fruit (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). Myrmecochory is almost nonexistent in renosterveld and adjacent biomes, and is usually attributed to the need to rapidly store seeds in predator-free, fire-safe refugia (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

In total contrast to the prevalence of myrmecochory, is the near total absence of ornithochory (seed dispersal by birds) in fynbos. Frugivorous birds are generally absent from fynbos, the red-winged starling (Onychognathus morio) being the notable exception. Fleshy fruit are confined to the aerial parasites Cassytha (Lauraceae) and Viscum (Viscaceae), the root parasite Osyris (Santalaceae) and the fynbos endemic family Grubbaceae. By contrast, ornithochory is a prominent dispersal strategy in strandveld, subtropical thickets and in forests, which all contain abundant and diverse fauna of frugivorous birds (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

Obligate Reseeding versus Resprouting: Fynbos is unusual in the low proportion of woody plants that survive fire by resprouting. Both renosterveld (which burns more frequently) and forest (which hardly ever burns) are characterised by resprouting plants. Similarly, both the Grassland and Savanna Biomes are dominated by resprouters. Because of the predictable fire-return interval, fynbos shrubs appear to invest all their resources in seed production at the expense of regeneration. These species dominate fynbos in terms of cover and comprise most emergent elements. The only true fynbos shrub that is able to regenerate from aerial stems (epicormic resprouter) is the waboom, Protea nitida, which occurs on richer, colluvial substrata. In forest, savanna and grassland, epicormic resprouting is the norm.

Obligate reseeders occur in all plant families and comprise most species of the Ericaceae (>90%), Proteaceae (>80%), Fabaceae (>75%), Asteraceae, Rutaceae and Bruniaceae, and is even common in the Restionaceae, in which it has been underestimated in the past (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). In a study of 10 fynbos species 26 years after a fire at Jonkershoek near Stellenbosch, the ratio between root and shoot mass was lower (0.2) in the obligate reseeders than in the resprouters (2.3) (Higgins et al. 1987, Smith & Higgins 1990). Resprouters can persist at a site through several generations of obligate reseeders (Bond & Midgley 2003). By contrast, reseeders outgrow resprouters, and after 15 years start shading out and reducing the cover of resprouters, resulting in increased species richness in areas dominated by reseeders compared to resprouters (J.H.J. Vlok, personal communication).

Lack of Annuals: Annuals are generally a rare component of fynbos communities, especially when compared to other mediterranean regions (Naveh & Whittaker 1979, Cowling 1983a). Wisheu et al. (2000) attribute the virtual absence of annuals in fynbos, the red-winged starling (Onychognathus morio) being the notable exception. Fleshy fruit are confined to the aerial parasites Cassytha (Lauraceae) and Viscum (Viscaceae), the root parasite Osyris (Santalaceae) and the fynbos endemic family Grubbaceae. By contrast, ornithochory is a prominent dispersal strategy in strandveld, subtropical thickets and in forests, which all contain abundant and diverse fauna of frugivorous birds (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

The lack of fire annuals in fynbos compared to more nutrient-rich renosterveld types is particularly marked. Most early seral species in fynbos live for 3–5 years. Some orchids and bulbs flower only in the year following a fire, but, being geophytic, probably live through several fire cycles.

Scerophyll: Scerophyll is a feature of most mediterranean floras and may be a summer-drought strategy. However, it is especially prominent in systems where low nutrients limit the option of drought deciduousness, and long-lived, tough, low-nutrient leaves capable of resisting desiccation are required. The lack of nutrients results in a carbon-rich, and thus woody, scerophyllous leaf. This effectively eliminates herbivory (the nitrogen-to-carbon ratio is too low to allow animal utilisation, except in young growth). As a consequence, defences against herbivory (thorns, spikes, leaf chemicals) are largely absent in fynbos. In fynbos scerophyll is manifested as proteoid, ericoid, restioiid and spine-tipped leaf forms (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). On richer soils—bearing strandveld and renosterveld—succulent, orthophyllous and drought-deciduous leaves abound, often protected with thorns, spines and aromatic compounds.

Lack of Mycorrhiza and the Presence of Cluster Roots: Two of the dominant components in fynbos, the Proteaceae and the Restionaceae and Cyperaceae, are characterised by not having fungal associates to extract nutrients from the soil. Instead they have, respectively, proteoid and caudiform rootlets, which resemble dense balls or carrots of fine root hairs (Lamont 2003). These cluster roots form a large surface area releasing phosphate-solubilising compounds and efficiently extracting phosphates in a small soil volume (Lambers et al. 2003). Fertilising with phosphorous or potassium kills the plants and on richer soils these rootlets are not produced. It has been argued that because fungi have nitrogen-rich cell walls they are a liability in nutrient-poor fynbos soils and species utilising them are compromised and never attain emergent dominance, except under special conditions as for instance in Ericaceae with endorhizal mycorrhiza under peaty conditions. However, even then Ericaceae are spindly plants lacking the robustness of the other characteristic dominants (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). Cluster roots are apparently not prevalent in renosterveld or strandveld.

Carnivory and Digestive Mutualism: Because of the nutrient-poor soils, and especially peaty soils, it is not surprising that carnivorous plants abound, although they are never dominant. Over 10% of the world’s species of Drosera (15 species) occur in fynbos. Of the other typical plant carnivores, the genus Utricularia is also represented in fynbos wetlands (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). The shrubby endemic family Roridulaceae (two species) superficially resembles Drosera, but plants do not digest trapped insects, utilising heteropterans and spiders to process nutrients (Ellis & Midgley 1996, Anderson & Midgley 2002, 2003, Anderson et al. 2004). The pitcher type of carnivorous plant is absent from fynbos (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

Low Biomass of Herbivores: The low nutrient status of fynbos makes the soils unsuitable for agriculture, although with modern methods of fertilisation via watering this is no longer true. A characteristic of fynbos is the low number and biomass of animals, especially large animals, but also birds and insects, encountered. Carrying capacity for fynbos is generally lower than 1 small stock unit per 8 ha (Stock et al. 1992b). Although large mammals were generally absent, in the past fynbos was probably well traversed by large animals en route to kloof and high-altitude seeps as a water source during the dry periods, and as migration routes between different renosterveld and karroid shrublands. Use of fynbos by large mammals for food was probably limited to early post-fire regrowth. The absence of antiherbivore defence (both structural and chemical) in fynbos
plants is striking (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). Old kraals and historical bomas have distinct and often well-defined ruderal plant communities, as do dune middens of klipspringer and vaal rheeubuck, the largest extant herbivores in fynbos proper today. Mountain zebra tend to frequent shal banks and renosterveld where they have access to these. While biomass of herbivores (and consequently carnivores) is very low, animal diversity is high, especially among insects (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). The fynbos insect fauna is particularly poorly known, but freshwater, cave and forest faunas are particularly rich in species and endemics. Of the six birds endemic to fynbos, two specialise on seeds and two on insects, and two are nectarivores (Stock et al. 1992b). (The significance of large-mammal herbivory in renosterveld is discussed in Section 4.4.1 below.)

*Bird and Mammal Pollination*: One of the most striking features of fynbos on nutrient-poor soils is the contrast between the low biomass of herbivores, insectivores and frugivores, and the relative abundance and conspicuousness of nectarivorous birds. The same is true of the plants: bird-pollinated species are conspicuous, abundant and usually dominant (both in cover and structure) in their communities, especially so in proteoid and ericaceous fynbos. This is unparalleled in renosterveld, strand

- veld, karoo, thicket or forest. Although not so obvious amongst the mammals, mammal-pollinated plants are also abundant and often dominant in terms of cover.

Ornithophily (bird pollination) is most common in fynbos, with 75% of bird-pollinated plant species on the subcontinent occurring in fynbos (Rebelo 1987a). Approximately 5% of fynbos plant taxa are pollinated by birds (Johnson 1992). Nectarivorous birds account for 50% of bird biomass in fynbos, but less than 5% in other vegetation types (Rebelo et al. 1984). Bird-pollinated taxa are concentrated in the Ericaceae (ca. 100 species), Proteaceae (ca. 80 species, especially in *Leucospermum*, *Mimetes*, *Protea*) and in geophytes of Amaryllidaceae and Iridaceae (Rebelo et al. 1984, Johnson 1992, Goldblatt et al. 1999), but are also found in Orchidaceae (Johnson 1996a). Although nectarivore diversity is similar to other ecosystems, bird-pollination systems in fynbos show a striking asymmetry, with several hundred plant taxa relying on only 3–5 bird species for their pollination. Two key pollinators, the Cape Sugarbird (*Promerops cafer*) (primarily visiting Proteaceae) and Orange-breasted Sunbird (*Anthobaphes violacea*), primarily visiting Erica, are endemic to fynbos. The other significant bird pollinator in fynbos is the Malachite Sunbird, which has been suggested to specialise on geophytes, although it regularly visits other plants as well (Rebelo 1987a).

Plants pollinated by birds invariably exhibit a classic syndrome of tubular or brush-like flowers, or cup-shaped flowerheads with copious amounts of dilute nectar and an absence of discernible scent. Colour, however, does not conform to the classical syndrome that includes geoflory (flowers located close to the ground), dull perianth coloration and yeasty fragrance (Wiens et al. 1983). A few other candidates in *Erica* and *Leucadendron* may also be therophilous. First reported in the 1970s (Rourke & Wiens 1977, Wiens & Rourke 1978, Wiens et al. 1983), therophily has also subsequently been found in the geophytes *Massonia* (Hyacinthaceae) and *Androcybe* (Colchicaceae) and the parasitic *Cyrtis* (Cytineae) (Johnson et al. 2001). These plants are not restricted to fynbos, but occur in karoo as well. The arguments for the distribution of therophily within fynbos are similar to those for bird pollination, but the more concentrated nectar lacks the water requirement, allowing therophily to occur in areas too arid for bird pollination. It occurs predominantly in proteoid and ericaceous fynbos. The rodents that visit the flowerheads, appear to rely on nectar only during their breeding season (Fleming & Nicholson 2002a, b). Interestingly, shrews are also pollinators, but appear to be visiting flowerheads for the insects, especially ants, found there (Fleming & Nicholson 2003). Flowering occurs in winter and spring (Rebelo 2001). Based on exclusion experiments, rodents account for about half the seed set in therophilous proteas (Fleming & Nicholson 2002a).

Exclusion experiments have shown that insects, particularly pollen-feeding bees and butterflies, can make a substantial contribution to seed production in plants that otherwise appear adapted for bird or mammal pollination (Coetzee & Giliomee 1985, Wright et al. 1991a, Vos et al. 1994, but see Fleming & Nicholson 2002a, Hargreaves et al. 2004). Reciprocal experiments and the genetic fitness of seeds produced by the different pollinators have not been attempted so far.

Interestingly, fynbos is not known to differ markedly from other vegetation types in other pollination syndromes.

### 4.2 Climate and Growth-form Response

The mediterranean-type and all-year climate regimes have also influenced diversity in the region. The interplay between arid and wet climatic cycles as a species pump for alternatively contracting fynbos and succulent karoo vegetation has resulted in a proposal for a single ‘Winter-rainfall Biome’ encompassing both Fynbos and Succulent Karoo Biomes. However, only two biotic features stand out that link vegetation types between the two biomes, namely (1) the shared abundance of geophytes, and (2) the lack of trees.

*Abundance of Geophytes*: Fynbos, especially renosterveld, has a high diversity of bulbous plants—a striking feature shared with the Succulent Karoo (Esler et al. 1999, Proches & Cowling 2004, Proches et al. 2005, 2006). This suggests a climatic explanation, as fire and nutrients do not appear to be prime factors in the high diversity of geophytes in the region. The absence of annual grasses (and hence the threat of invasive annual grasses to geophytes) has been suggested as a reason. Geophytic diversity is four to five times the geophytic richness of the other mediterranean floras—geophytes comprise some 17% of the flora of the Cape Floristic Region (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a, Manning et al. 2002). Associated with the prevalence of bulbs is the occurrence of four species of exclusively fossorial rodents (mole rats), which subsist primarily on geophytes. More fynbos geophytic species have adopted an evergreen and woody habit than in renosterveld or karoo, and some fynbos Iridaceae have become uniquely shrub-like (*Aristea*, *Klatzia*, *Nivenia*, *Witsenia*). The presence of geophytes in the dicots (e.g. *Oxalis* with 118 species) is very unusual, but again this is not confined to fynbos. Most winter-rainfall geophytes are dormant in summer and flower after leaving in winter, but the Amaryllidaceae—with large particularly poisonous bulbs—leaf in winter and flowering...
in autumn, usually after the first rains (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a). Most fynbos geophytes flower most prolifically after fire, and only rarely in older veld (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992) but in karoo geophytes, flowering is determined more by rainfall. Interestingly, geophytes appear resilient to both frequent fire and heavy grazing regimes (McDowell 1988). However, it is thought that alien invasive grasses compete directly with the geophytic component (Vlok 1988). Certainly in eutrophic areas and old agricultural land, alien annual grasses are dominant at the expense of geophytes (Milton 2004). Heavy grazing might control the annual grasses, but fire and heavy grazing may favour alien annual grasses by virtue of their larger seed banks compared to those of indigenous grasses (Milton 2004). More research into the control of alien invasive grasses is required to ensure that the rich geophytic flora survives.

**Lack of Trees:** The absence of trees in fynbos (Moll et al. 1980) is a feature shared with renosterveld, and the Karoo, Desert and Grassland Biomes. As in arid vegetation types, trees are largely confined to riverine habitats. However, this is more a function of topography, with trees occurring in fire-safe habitats, as in grassland. Despite much debate, the reasons for the lack of trees in fynbos have never been resolved. Part of the reason for this is that alien trees (*Pinus*, *Acacia*, *Eucalyptus*) flourish in the Fynbos Biome. Arguably with adequate biocontrols these alien plants might not attain tree status in Fynbos (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

**Climatic Reliability:** Climatic variables such as the reliability (or predictability) of rainfall and mist precipitation may be linked to certain plant life-history traits in mediterranean-type ecosystems, as noted by Cowling et al. (2005). They suggest that germination response to soil moisture regimes, allocation of resources to below and above-ground biomass, and seedling mortality in relation to short-term stress are major candidates for further studies.

### 4.3 Fire as a Non-selective Grazer

Fynbos and renosterveld are fire-maintained systems (Figure 4.16). Of all fynbos and renosterveld vegetation units, perhaps only Ffd 1 Namaqualand Sand Fynbos and FFq 1 Stinkfonteinberge Quartzite Fynbos are not exclusively driven by fire. Fire in fynbos burns on a 5–50-year rotation, usually in the order of 15–25 years. Fire regimes in renosterveld are largely unknown, but are assumed to be in the 2–10-year range. The fires naturally occur in late summer and early autumn, towards the end of the dry season, and their natural causes include rockfalls and lightning. With increasing population density in and around fynbos, man-made fires have become more frequent. The increased incidence of man-made fires has probably decreased the average fire size, without changing the fire-return interval at any location (Figure 4.17). Arguably, nutrients and climate are the primary determinants of the fire regime (Van Wilgen et al. 1992a, b, Bond & Van Wilgen 1996). Rather than concentrate on all the ramifications of fire, we will confine ourselves to several community-ecology issues such as the fynbos vegetation boundaries, boundaries of internal units, and alternative states maintained by fire.

#### 4.3.1 Fire and Community Composition

**Fynbos**

Typically, boundaries within fynbos units are not determined by fire. However, fire does play a major role in determining species composition and community type. These effects are usually mediated by the fire temperature, which is controlled by air temperature, season, time of day, aspect, wind conditions, aeration, humidity, wood moisture content, veld age, and size of fuel storage (Van Wilgen et al. 1992a).

Although much is made about fynbos burning when too young, fynbos cannot burn until there is sufficient fuel to sustain a fire. Very frequent fires eliminate firstly the serotinous species, which being the dominant overstorey group and with its shad-storey equivalent of ericaceous, restioid or asteraceous fynbos, but extinction of the proteoid element is rare (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992, Van Wilgen et al. 1992a).

Regular frequent fires, as for instance in fire belts, result in bole resprouting species becoming dominant, but the total cover of the area is unaffected. The relative abundance of obligate reseeders versus resprouters is a good indication of historical fire frequency within any vegetation community. In proteoid fynbos this is complicated by aseasonal (spring) burns that reduce serotinous population sizes, allowing nonserotinous species to increase in cover. Thus very frequent fires or aseasonal burns can convert proteoid fynbos to its understorey equivalent of ericaceous, restioid or asteraceous fynbos, but extinction of the proteoid element is rare (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992, Van Wilgen et al. 1992a).

Aseasonal fires (spring versus the natural late summer or autumn fires) reduce population sizes of serotinous species by exposing seeds to rodent and bird predation for prolonged periods prior to germination in autumn. This reduces the cover of these key species in mature
Topography and rockiness drastically affect fire temperature, and favour smaller-seeded species. In addition, these species tend to have soft persistent leaves that retard fire, create much smoke and result in incomplete combustion at ground level due to oxygen starvation (aeration). Occurring in similar habitats, are myrmecochorous species, such as the Rutaceae, which appear to encourage fire with volatile oils. Presumably these two strategies are dominant after a particular fire and attempt to influence future fire temperatures to favour their regeneration niche (Van Wilgen et al. 1992a).

Hottest fires occur in more mature veld, where there is more fuel, and during the summer fire season. Very hot fires have two major effects on species composition. They incur a higher mortality of resprouting species, and in Protea nitida can reduce the plants from epicormic to bole resprouters. Hot fires also eliminate shallow seed banks. Most affected appear to be Asteraceae, with species of Helichrysum, Stoebe and Syncarpha the most marked of these. Presumably ericoid seeds occur in wetter soils and are less affected. Myrmecochorous and serotinous species appear to benefit most from very hot fires. The former are buried too deep to be killed by fire, and the latter are safe in their fireproof cones. Neither establish well in cool fires that leave a thick litter layer; presumably the germination cues are not triggered in myrmecochorous species, and seedling mortality is high in serotinous species. In myrmecochorous species the dormant seedbanks appear to persist to the next fire. It is not known how long-lived the seed banks are—possibly in the order of 40–80 years. Consequently, the species present in a stand of fynbos may depend as much on fire history as on habitat and species pool. Most management fires are cool, as manageability is a function of fire temperature, but natural fires burn larger areas and account for most of the area burned in any year (Bond 1985, 1997, Bond et al. 1990, Van Wilgen et al. 1992a).

Rocky habitats also cool fires down sufficiently to allow canopy survival. This is a relatively rare strategy—Leucospermum conocarpodendron subsp. viridum and Mimetes fimbrifolius are the best known examples of this strategy. On sandstone both species are dominant in rocky areas and seldom reach tree status in open vegetation. In rugged areas where cooler fires do not penetrate, fire escapers such as Protea glabra, P. rupicola, Widdringtonia cedarbergensis and W. swartzii survive (Van Wilgen et al. 1992a).

Fire also affects the minimum patch size of fynbos within non-fire vegetation types. Thus below 600 ha fynbos loses species, and below 4–15 ha fynbos cannot exist (Bond et al. 1988; Rebelo 1992b). This affects patches on hills and peaks within forest, thicket and karoo shrublands. The size of patches determines the probability of a lightning strike and therefore the fire interval. Where this exceeds 30–50 years, fynbos cannot exist (Bond et al. 1988). In larger blocks of fynbos, ignition is not as important as most fires enter any patch from ignition events outside the patch.

Renosterveld

Although renosterveld is clearly a fire-maintained system, there is little evidence as to what might constitute an ideal fire frequency (Von Hase et al. 2003). Estimates of 3–10 (up to 40) years exist (Rebelo 1992a). Presumably heavily grazed areas seldom burn. By contrast, ungrazed areas can accumulate sufficient fuel to maintain fire. Fire-safe habitats—including heuweltjes and Protea species the dormant seedbanks appear to persist to the next fire. It is not known how long-lived the seed banks are—possibly in the order of 40–80 years. Consequently, the species present in a stand of fynbos may depend as much on fire history as on habitat and species pool. Most management fires are cool, as manageability is a function of fire temperature, but natural fires burn larger areas and account for most of the area burned in any year (Bond 1985, 1997, Bond et al. 1990, Van Wilgen et al. 1992a).

Topography and rockiness drastically affect fire temperature, and favour smaller-seeded species. In addition, these species tend to have soft persistent leaves that retard fire, create much smoke and result in incomplete combustion at ground level due to oxygen starvation (aeration). Occurring in similar habitats, are myrmecochorous species, such as the Rutaceae, which appear to encourage fire with volatile oils. Presumably these two strategies are dominant after a particular fire and attempt to influence future fire temperatures to favour their regeneration niche (Van Wilgen et al. 1992a).

Some fire-associated strategies common in fynbos are absent from (e.g. serotiny) or rare (e.g. obligate reseeding, myrmecochory) in renosterveld. Fruit dispersal by birds is common in species of thicket clumps (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

A major complication in the study of renosterveld is the current insularisation of renosterveld. In areas where farmers do not regularly burn for grazing, the vegetation rapidly (within decades) converts to a thicket or a thicket mosaic. Britton & Jackelman (1996) argue that even in 25 year-old renosterveld (protected from grazing, and dominated by Rhus and Hyparrhenia hirta), the geophytes and perennials are actively growing and flowering and that renosterveld species can therefore survive in a fire-free Cape thicket. However, no controls were done and thickets tend not to contain as many geophytes as renosterveld (A.G. Rebelo, personal observations).
4.3.2 Post-fire Regeneration

Seral succession has been poorly studied in the Fynbos Biome. The constraint of veld age on floristic and structural studies has resulted in a dearth of knowledge of pattern and process in early seral (i.e. immature) fynbos communities. The basic post-fire regeneration pattern is obvious and has general features: immediately after a fire, the ‘fire lilies’ (such as Cyrtanthus, Watsonia, etc.) are the first to emerge, sometimes within a few days of the fire (Figure 4.18). A few geophy whole orchids and daisies flower only during these earliest periods, before seeds germinate (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992). If rain is delayed or late in autumn, then seed germination is delayed but most resprouters will commence regrowth. Similarly, early rains result in massive resprouting, but seed germination is usually tied to a strong cold requirement, ensuring that seeds germinate sufficiently well into winter to guarantee follow-up rains. Almost all recruitment appears to occur in the first and possibly second autumn following a fire. Conditions might be laxer in the all-year rainfall area, where it is not known whether spring recruitment may result. During this period, all species present in later seral stages are present as seedlings, and no further significant recruitment occurs, with the exception of the aerial parasites Viscum and Cassytha (spread by birds from fire refugia). This lack of recruitment is thought to be a combination of rodent predation of seeds and overwhelming competition from established plants for water so that any seedling dies during the summer drought period. Most fynbos plants have seeds with strong dormancy-and post-fire-related cues for germination (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

In spring, large-scale flowering of geophy whole orchids and, where present, of annuals occurs. Some species flower only in the first spring, but many flower best two years after a fire. Few species produce more than a small fraction of flowers after the third year (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

The first year or two is dominated by resprouting species and fire ephemerals, with seedlings being small and relatively inconspicuous, although non-resprouting Restionaceae and Cyperaceae rapidly become dominant in some communities. The fire ephemerals are mainly Fabaceae, with Aspalathus being the most obvious element, Asteraceae (Othonna quinquidentata and Ursinia crithmoides require special mention), and some other families such as Campanulaceae (endemic genus Roella) and the monotypic endemic family Lanariaceae (Lanaria lanata). Fire ephemerals can reach 100% cover in shale and granite fynbos as a 0.5–1.5 m layer, but such dominance is rare in other fynbos types. These species peak 3–5 years after a fire, after which senescence eliminates them from the community, where they survive as seeds until the next fire. The effect of these species on seedlings of later seral stages is unknown, but later seral stages do not appear to be compromised by them. Slightly more long-lived, but in the same category, are many grasses and Asteraceae colloquially known as ‘everlastings’ or ‘sewe-jaartjes’ (e.g. of the genera Anaxelon, Edmondia, Helichrysum, Phaenocoma), of which many are harvested from young recovering veld for the cut flower trade (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

Resprouters remain alive in mature veld, but the flowering of most peaks in year 2 or 3 after which growth and flowering declines. Some species remain vigorous, but many seem to enter stasis with minimal new leaf production and few flowers. These species appear to recruit best when veld is burned when young (about 4–6 years old), with little recruitment following fires in older veld. Most mortality in resprouters occurs after regeneration, but it is characteristically low (<5%), suggesting that resprouting plants may be hundreds of years old (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

Most species maturing after four years remain in the community, but the ericoids start emerging and becoming dominant after 4–5 years and the proteoids start emerging after year 4–7 and reach maximum canopy cover between year 8 (dense stands and wetter habitats) and year 15 (sparser stands and more arid situations). Although no mortality of proteoids is usually apparent until senescence sets in, shading and competition in the understory do occur, but mortality rates are unknown. Usually after 30–40 years, senescence sets in. With most plants this manifests as shortening lengths of leaves on the branch tips, until the branches die. Serotinous species lose their seed banks, resulting in reduced populations after fire. Some inter-fire recruitment sets in as plants die off, but survival is still relatively low compared to after a fire. Most flowering ceases and skeletons (thanatocoenoses) form prominent features in the fynbos vegetation (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

Seral succession therefore mirrors structural complexity, with graminoid fynbos being replaced by resi toid fynbos, asteraceous or ericaceous fynbos following, and proteoid fynbos dominant until senescence sets in and closed-scrub fynbos starts appearing. Although the species present and the number of plants remain constant, apart from the ephemeral component, dominance in height and cover alters dramatically as the community ages. Too frequent fires reset the seral complexity at lower stages. However, later stages are important, with proteoids a key element in shading and suppressing resprouters and thus maintaining local species diversity (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

Seral succession has not been recorded from renosterveld communities—pre-
sumably the high fire frequency and grazing maintain renosterveld at an early seral stage.

### 4.3.3 Fire-adaptive Responses

There are at least three striking adaptation phenomena linked to the selective force of fire in the fynbos and renosterveld ecosystems. Of these, the high incidence of obligate reseeding species versus resprouters (Bond & Midgley 2003) and the occurrence of serotiny are most obvious (Bond 1984, 1985). Although these phenomena are related to fire, they are largely confined to fynbos on nutrient-poor soils. The absence of these strategies from other fire-prone ecosystems suggests that it is interplay between the low-nutrient soils and the predictable long-term (5–30-year) fire cycle that have allowed the evolution of these strategies rather than fire per se. A third adaptation is the incidence of smoke-induced seed germination.

Much has been made about the importance of smoke and smoke extracts in inducing germination in seed (De Lange & Boucher 1990, Dixon et al. 1995, Van Staden et al. 2000). Indeed for certain groups it is the only known way of breaking dormancy and obtaining seedlings in cultivation. Still we do not fully understand why natural smoke does not initiate germination in areas that do not burn, and why smoke may initiate germination of species typical of fire-free vegetation types such as karoo shrublands. While the physiological and horticultural importance of smoke is clear (Meets 2000, Brown et al. 2003, Boucher & Meets 2004, Brown & Botha 2004), the ecological significance of smoke requires further investigation, especially by setting in situ experiments.

### 4.4 Animal-plant Interactions

#### 4.4.1 Large Mammal Herbivory


Historical accounts indicate that a high and diverse number of large native herbivore species (> 20 kg) occurred in the Fynbos Biome and more specifically in the low-lying areas of the Western Cape at the time of European colonisation (1652) (Du Plessis 1969, Skead 1980, Rooikmaaker 1989, Boshoff & Kerley 2001). There is little doubt that lowlands supported African elephant (Loxodonta africana), black rhino (Diceros bicornis bicornis), hippo (Hippopotamus amphibius), eland (Taurotragus oryx), mountain zebra (Equus zebra zebra), quagga (Equus burchelli quagga), ostrich (Struthio camelus), red hartebeest (Alcephalus buselaphus) and grey rhebuck (Pala capecolous). In addition, the lowlands to the east of the Overberg also hosted populations of Cape buffalo (Syncerus caffer), blue antelope (Hippotragus leucophaeus; extinct around 1800) and bontebok (Damaliscus pygargus pygargus: Figure 4.19), with bushbuck (Tragelaphus scriptus) present in forest and thicket patches. It is not exactly clear how far west quagga (a subspecies of Burchell's zebra; extinct in 1876) ventured and what its ecological relationship with mountain zebra was. On the West Coast, gemsbok (Oryx gazella) has been reported as far south as Saldanha but is believed to have been only an occasional visitor to this area and more abundant from Namaqualand northwards. Springbok (Antidorcas marsupialis) occurred inland in both the Warme and Koue Bokkeveld regions, but was most likely restricted to these parts within the Fynbos Biome.

In association with these large herbivores all the members of the large carnivore guild of southern Africa were found, including Cape lion (Panthera leo), leopard (Panthera pardus), wild dog (Lycaon pictus), cheetah (Acinonyx jubatus), spotted hyena (Crocuta crocuta) and brown hyena (Hyaena brunnea), with attendant vultures and birds of prey. Unfortunately the size of the populations of these animals changed very rapidly after colonial settlement. It is estimated that by the year 1700 there was no game within 200 km of Cape Town and that by 1800 most large mammals (above 50 kg) and birds had been driven close to extinction within the area today known as the CFR (Rebelo 1992a). Most of these extinctions were due to hunting for meat and sport, or the elimination of predators, scavengers and ‘problem’ animals (Rebelo 1992a, Krug et al. 2004b). Game animals were, however, not the only animals present at the time of colonisation. Around 2 000 years ago, the Khoekhoen introduced live-stock (sheep and later also cattle) to the Fynbos Biome and the number of domestic livestock roaming the Cape forelands could have run well into the thousands with the arrival of the Dutch colonisers (Deacon 1992). Entries in Van Riebeeck’s diary state that the Khoekhoen, eager to trade, gathered in such numbers with their livestock around the fort in Table Bay in December 1652 that they could easily have captured 12 000 cattle if they were so inclined (Thom 1952). A later entry (14 January 1653) gave an estimate of at least 20 000 cattle and sheep.

![Figure 4.19 Bontebok (Damalisus pygargus pygargus)—a conservation symbol of the Fynbos Biome.](image-url)
present in that December. Whether these animals were permanently kept on the coastal lowlands and at such densities is, however, debatable as the same entry mentioned cattle trade by these Khoekhoen with tribes ‘far inland’, indicating migration by these people.

Little is known about the past distribution of large herbivores within the Fynbos Biome. It appears that the largely accepted opinion (Bigalke 1979, Cody et al. 1983, Morrow et al. 1983, Johnson 1992, Rebelo 1992b, Owen-Smith & Danckwerts 1997) is that the sandstone, sand and limestone fynbos did not support large resident herbivore populations and that they rather concentrated on renosterveld on the more nutrient-rich soils. However, this is based primarily on the exceptionally low nutritional status of fynbos (Joubert & Stindt 1979, Campbell 1986b, Le Roux 1988, Johnson 1992) rather than on historical records or habitat choice experiments. The reviews of historical accounts (Du Plessis 1969, Skead 1980, Rookmaker 1989) are vague with regard to the exact areas and habitats occupied (Boshoff & Kerley 2001). Even recent reviews (e.g. Hendey 1983a, b) stating that the influence of large mammals must have been ‘significant and are under-appreciated’ and that they might have been able to keep the vegetation more open and grassy than today, fail to distinguish between fynbos and renosterveld, referring to both as ‘fynbos’. This is in contrast to opinions such as that of Rebelo (1992b) suggesting that the large herbivores never played a major role in the dynamics of nutrient-poor fynbos communities, but were largely confined to renosterveld.

The influence of large herbivores on the Fynbos Biome ecosystem has for the most part been a neglected topic. At the Third International Conference on Mediterranean-type Ecosystems held in 1980 it was concluded that there was very little understanding of the relationship between soil nutrient status, plant nutrition and the vertebrate faunas of any of the mediterranean-like ecosystems (Cody et al. 1983, Morrow et al. 1983). It appears that, for at least the Fynbos Biome, very little has changed since then.

Published studies on large native herbivores in the Fynbos Biome have been conducted mainly in the Bontebok National Park and Elandsberg Private Nature Reserve, with some isolated contributions from the Cape of Good Hope Nature Reserve (now part of the Table Mountain National Park) and De Hoop Nature Reserve. In the Bontebok National Park (primarily Ffc 1 Swellendam Silcrete Fynbos, with patches of FRs 13 Eastern Râens Shale Renosterveld) studies focused on some aspects of Grey Rhebuck ecology (Beukes 1984, Bontebok behaviour (David 1973, Van Zyl 1978) and Bontebok population dynamics (De Graaff et al. 1976). Both Novellie (1987) who focused on grassy elements, and Beukes (1987) who studied especially the shrubby component, conducted studies that looked into the interrelationships between fire, herbivory and vegetation cover. Both studies clearly showed the preference of Bontebok and Grey Rhebuck for recently burnt fynbos. Beukes (1987) reported on a dramatic drop in the utilisation of vegetation older than four years. Novellie (1987) found that intense grazing after fire is not necessarily deleterious to the preferred grass species. Luyt (2005) looked into habitat preference and stocking densities for Bontebok within the park found that Bontebok prefer recently burnt areas and may delay the re-establishment of shrubs if too small an area is burnt at a given time. A small burnt patch can attract a very high density of animals that suppress shrub seedling establishment by indiscriminate grazing of any new growth. Bontebok seek out Cynodon dactylon grazing lawns and might also create and maintain these lawns by positive feedback nutrient loops.

The Elandsberg Private Nature Reserve recently became the focus point of research regarding the restoration of West Coast renosterveld (Krug et al. 2004a, b), although most of the study area is FFa 3 Swartland Alluvium Fynbos. Middiko-Iponga (2004) found that both browsing and competition with grass played a role in transplanted shrub seedling (5 cm high) establishment on old lands, but that competition between shrubs and grasses was more important, although the role of large herbivores via grazing was not included. Shiponeni (2003) looked at seed dispersal by large herbivores (endozoochory) and found that it played an important role in the dispersal of seeds. Cynodon dactylon and several alien invasive grasses were the dominant species dispersed by this means. Here large herbivores may also be instrumental in the establishment and maintenance of Cynodon dactylon grazing lawns on old lands. Walton (2006) studied the influence of grazing on vegetation dynamics after ploughing and found that succession on old fields was retarded by grazing, and the establishment of palatable shrubs, such as Anthospermum and Hermannia, was particularly slow. These results must further be treated with caution with regard to historical/natural ecosystem processes—nearly two thirds of the large herbivores were historically not indigenous to the Elandsberg Reserve, the vegetation is not renosterveld and this study focuses on recovery in fallow lands.

In the Cape of Good Hope Nature Reserve, Langley & Giliomee (1974) found that the introduced population of Bontebok favoured recently burnt areas, fire breaks and well-established Stenotaphrum secundatum lawns. In De Hoop Nature Reserve, Cape Mountain Zebra demography (Lloyd & Rasa 1989) and the decline in Bontebok populations experienced between 1984 and 1990 (Scott 1993) have been studied. The main reason for the population decline was attributed to the lack of suitable habitat in the form of recently burnt veld. A rapid improvement in Bontebok body condition did occur after a controlled fire in 1991, but a subpopulation without access to newly burnt areas also showed an improvement in body condition and survival. Here Bontebok also concentrate on Cynodon dactylon lawns and recently burnt veld. The last study of relevance is that of Milewski (2002) reporting on the diet of forest elephants roaming the forest/fynbos ecotone near Knyasa. Based on opportunistic qualitative data obtained from forest guards, he provides evidence that elephants utilised nutrient-poor fynbos (FFh 9 Garden Route Shale Fynbos). However, in contrast to these, large game numbers at both the Cape of Good Hope Nature Reserve (mainly sandstone fynbos) and in the original Bontebok National Park (limestone fynbos) declined and animal health declined largely due to bone diseases and gut parasites. This resulted in the removal of game from the Cape of Good Hope Nature Reserve and the relocation of the Bontebok National Park from the Bredasdorp area to south of Swellendam.

Grazing lawns have been noted in both recent and old studies (Langley & Giliomee 1974, Scott 1993, Shiponeni 2003, Luyt 2005, Walton 2006) as being an important habitat for large herbivores and especially Bontebok. If large herbivores are capable of establishing and maintaining these grazing lawns, it might provide some new insight on how large herbivores managed to survive on the coastal lowlands. However, apart from Hippo, no short-grass grazer occurred naturally on the West Coast lowlands. Natural grazing lawns may thus have been confined to the regions east of the Overberg Mountains.

Mcdowell (1988) compared the influence on total cover and species diversity of heavy browsing by sheep with adjacent areas ungrazed by domestic livestock for 14 years at Eensaamheid (primarily FFa 3 Swartland Alluvium Fynbos, with some FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld also present). There
was no significant decline in total cover or species diversity, but a definite change in the species composition of the flora was noted. Species of the Poaceae and Rutaceae declined while Asteraceae and Iridaceae increased. Three Proteaceae species were absent from grazed areas and three Thymelaeaceae species were dependent on grazing for survival. Grazing by stock can thus have either a negative or positive influence, depending on how it is managed.

In the Rivieronderend Mountains catchment area, frequent burning and intensive grazing (coupled with trampling) caused a reduction in floral diversity and led to erosion (Le Roux 1988). The latter author recommended that all domestic grazing in mountain fynbos must be stopped as it was not only detrimental to the vegetation, but also economically unviable due to the low nutritional status of the veld.

Some studies suggest that perhaps renosterveld contained more grass (primarily *Themeda*) than is currently the case (Sparrman 1786, Levyns 1956, Joubert & Stindt 1979, Skead 1980, Cowling 1984, Scholtz 1986, Stock et al. 1992a, Rebelo 1995, Krug et al. 2004b, Newton & Knight 2004). About 50 years after European colonisation it was first noted that the amount of grass available for grazing and thatching was declining markedly. At about this time, early naturalists started noting an increase in the abundance of *Elytropappus* throughout the region, apparently due to the increase in grazing pressure. By 1800 this process appeared to have occurred throughout the renosterveld (Cowling et al. 1986).

Isotope analyses yielded no evidence that Swartland Shale Renosterveld could have once been covered by *C4* grass species such as *Themeda triandra* (Stock et al. 1992a). The possibility does, however, exist that the grassland consisted of *C3* grasses but this does not show via isotope analysis.

Severe and continuous overgrazing of freshly burnt veld by domestic stock has been proposed as the cause for the presumed change from a grassland to a shrubland (Sparrman 1786, Du Toit & Du Toit 1938, Joubert & Stindt 1979, McDowell 1988). This followed the advent of settled agriculture, which changed the disturbance regime from an intense and localised, pulsed grazing system by indigenous and domestic livestock coupled with a variable fire frequency, to a system of continuous overgrazing and a fixed burning cycle (Cowling et al. 1986). However, the absence of large native mammals over the past 300 years, more specifically the lack of large browsers that consume the dominant shrubs, has been suggested as a reason for the current existence of renosterveld as a shrubland (Rebelo 1995, Krug et al. 2004b). Until more research is undertaken on the impact of large mammals on renosterveld shrubs, these hypotheses remain speculative.

The interplay between shrubs and grasses in renosterveld is not well understood, and probably was greatly influenced by grazing pressure and fire intervals. Presumably some areas such as natural grazing lawns dominated (as today) by *Cynodon dactylon* and other grasses, were well utilised, whereas others were dominated by shrubs and were relatively less grazed. Thicket probably occurred in fire-safe environments, including heuweltjies and rocky areas. Presumably river margins supported *Acacia karroo*-dominated thickets on the South Coast, although transformation on the West Coast pre-dates any records of the riverine vegetation. Alien grasses are an additional concern: some species, particularly its representatives in the Cape region, has been argued that evolutionary specialisation for pollination by different animals has been a key driving force behind the rampant speciation in the Cape region (Johnson 1996b, 2006). This is based largely on the observation that sister taxa often differ in their pollination systems (Johnson & Steiner 1997) and that large genera show great diversity in pollination systems (Johnson 1996b, Johnson et al. 1998, Goldblatt et al. 2000, 2001). On the other hand, many large genera have only a single pollination system, including wind pollination. The existence of specialised pollination systems also has implications for conservation because these plants may be particularly vulnerable to changes in land use that affect the pollinator fauna (Bond 1994, Johnson & Steiner 2000, Donaldson et al. 2002). Here we outline some of the major pollination syndromes in the Fynbos Biome: *Long-proboscid Fly Pollination*: Highly specialised pollination systems involving long-proboscid flies belonging to the families Nemestrinidae, Tabanidae, and Bombyliidae are well developed in the CFR (Goldblatt & Manning 2000b). These systems are shared between fynbos, renosterveld and succulent karoo shrublands. The flies are flower specialists that feed mostly on nectar (although female tabanids take blood meals and Bombyliidae feed extensively on pollen). Some nemestrinid and tabanid flies have proboscides longer than 50 mm (Johnson & Steiner 1997, Manning & Goldblatt 1997a). This syndrome is concentrated in the Iridaceae, Orchidaceae, Geraniaceae and Ericaceae and probably involves over 100 species (McDonald & Van der Walt 1992, Manning & Goldblatt 1996, Struck 1997, Goldblatt & Manning 2000b). Flies with shorter proboscides are probably also important as pollinators of small open flowers.
but there are fewer documented cases of specific associations between plants and these flies.

**Butterfly Pollination:** A distinctive feature of the winter-rainfall region of southern Africa is the syndrome of bright (red, orange or yellow) odourless and bowl- or disc-shaped flowers pollinated by monkey beetles (Scarabaeidae: Rutelinae: Hoploini) (Picker & Midgley 1996, Goldblatt et al. 1998). Scarab beetles often use flowers as mating rendezvous sites, but there is no strong support for the hypothesis (Steiner 1998) that dark patterns in the centre of these flowers attract male beetles (Johnson & Midgley 2001). On the other hand, the attraction of the beetles to the bright long-wavelength colours is now well documented (Picker & Midgley 1996, Johnson & Midgley 2001). Pollination by small beetles (Nitidulidae, Alticidae, Curculionidae) has been suggested for many fynbos taxa including *Leucadendron* (Proteaceae) and *Audouinia* (Bruniaceae) (Hattingh & Giliomee 1989, Wright et al. 1991b, Hemborg & Bond 2005). Beetle pollination is widespread across all vegetation types and there is no documented guild specific to any major vegetation type.

**Moth Pollination:** Data presented by Johnson (2004) indicate that less than 3% of flowering plants in the CFR are moth-pol­linated, as opposed to 6–7% in the eastern summer-rainfall region. The difference is even more striking for hawkmoth-pollinated plants, which are virtually absent from the CFR (Manning & Snijman 2002). The most likely reason is a paucity of plants in families such as Balsaminaceae and Solanaceae that are the typical larval food-plants for hawkmoths (Johnson 1997b). Pollination by small settling moths (Nocutiidae and Geometridae) has been recorded for several taxa (Johnson et al. 1993, Johnson 1997a), but the relative contribution of moth pollination within units of the Fynbos Biome is unknown.

**Bee Pollination:** Bee diversity in southern Africa increases from east to west, with a maximum diversity in Namaqualand (Eardley 1989). There is no doubt that these insects as a group are the most important pollinators in the CFR. The Cape Honeybee, *Apis mellifera capensis*, is confined to this region and is specifically adapted for colony survival during the cold and wet Cape winters (Hepburn & Crewe 1990, 1991, Hepburn & Guillarmod 1991). Carpenter bees also play a major role in the pollination of larger flowers, especially legumes (Watmough 1974, Johnson 1993). They are abundant in the fynbos, especially after fires when charred woody stems are used as nesting sites (Watmough 1974, Johnson 1997b), and also in forests where woody nesting sites are more abundant. Smaller solitary bees have also been implicated in the pollination of several CFR plant species (Johnson 1994b, Johnson & Steiner 1994). Oil-collecting bees in the genus *Rediviva* (Melittidae) pollinate *Scrophulariaceae*, *Orchidaceae* and *Iridaceae* with oil-producing flowers (Steiner 1989, 1993, Manning & Goldblatt 2002, Steiner & Whitehead 2002). On account of their unusual floral reward and the low diversity of *Rediviva* bees, oil-producing plants have extremely specialised pollination systems (Johnson & Steiner 2003). There appears to be no pattern of bee syndrome pollination within vegetation types of the Fynbos Biome, indeed most are shared with succulent karoo shrublands to the north.

**Bird Pollination:** The significance of bird pollination in fynbos as compared to renosterveld, strandveld and karoo is discussed under the effects of nutrient-poor soils (see Section 4.1). Although the fynbos bird-pollination guild comprises only four pollinators (two endemics), they service almost 400 species of plants. By contrast, strandveld and renosterveld have only two pollinators and a few dozen plant species, comparable with bird pollination systems in the other biomes, although they tend to have more bird species. An unusual strategy is found in *Microloma* (Apocynaceae) by which pollen packets are placed on the tongue of birds (Pauw 1998).

**Nonflying Mammal Pollination:** Among shrubs in the Fynbos Biome, this syndrome is confined primarily to proteoid and asteraceous fynbos. The syndrome is also known in geophytes (*Massonia depressa*; Johnson et al. 2001) and probably in *Androcybium* (Colchicaceae) and *Cytinus* (Cytinaceae). A proper appraisal of the geophytic component is required.

**Bird Fruit Dispersal:** Ornithochory is virtually absent from fynbos, but is well represented both by bird and plant species in strand­veld and renosterveld. Its absence in fynbos is attributed to the lack of a regeneration niche, where the fruit and seedlings are killed by fire. By contrast, in other systems, birds target favour­able microhabitats such as seedling in mature forest and establishment (Le Maitre & Midgley 1992).

### 5. Origins of the Cape Flora

#### 5.1 Palaeoecological Framework

Rare evidence of the origins of species of the CFR is available in the form of fossil pollen of Tertiary age while fossil charcoal only provides information about its most recent history during the Late Quaternary. In comparison with pollen and spore records from the rest of the southern hemisphere, the early to middle Cretaceous in South Africa has not yet developed clearly unique features (Scott 1976, McLachlan & Pieterse 1978). Pollen from Banke in Namaqualand, however, suggests that some groups that could have developed into certain fynbos elements like *Thymelaeaceae*, *Restionaceae* and *Ericaceae*, were already developed by the Late Cretaceous or Palaeogene, although the vegetation in which they occurred was of a subtropical type (Scholtz 1985). According to Linder (2003) who thoroughly reviewed the molecular, geological, climatological, palaeontological and other evidence for diversification of the plants of the CFR, it may have been in existence in isolated locations in the nutrient-poor mountains of the Cape early during the Tertiary period but its dramatic spread in the region may have taken place only by ca. 8–10 mya. Available fossil evidence is not dated well enough to narrow this interval further but the following broad picture of its origin and history can be derived from it.

In Knysna, southern Cape region, subtropical vegetation with *Restionaceae*, palms and forest elements was reported from lignite deposits (Thiergart et al. 1962, Helgren & Butzer 1977, Coetze et al. 1983). Tertiary pollen assemblages in the southwestern Cape at Noordhoek and Langebaanweg, suggest a markedly different subtropical woodland vegetation that include palms (Coetze 1978a, b, Coetze & Rogers 1982, Coetze et al. 1983, Coetze & Muller 1984). Although precise dates have not been established for the Knysna or southwest­ern Cape assemblages, they are apparently of Neogene age. Controversial opinions about the age of the Knysna deposits have been expressed but on the basis of tectonic evidence they
are thought to be of Miocene age (Thiergart et al. 1962, Maud & Partridge 1987, Partridge & Maud 1987). The tropical elements in both regions are probably from a period before the development of the current circum-Antarctic ocean system, the Benguela Current and the enlarged Antarctic Ice Sheet (Shackleton & Kennet 1975, Van Zinderen Bakker 1975, Vail & Hardenbol 1979). These events possibly accompanied a transition from subtropical forest pollen in the Late Miocene to typical fynbos and strandveld elements in the Early Pliocene associated with the well-known fauna from the Varswater Formation at Langebaanweg (Coetzee & Rogers 1982, Hendey 1984, Scott 1995). Asteraceae pollen evolution accompanying the change to Fynbos Biome types showed earlier low-spine Gerbera-like pollen (Mutisiae) and later more diverse and typical modern long-spine and other forms, a situation which seems to be paralleled in South America (Coetzee 1978a, Barreda 1993).

Reconstruction of the Quaternary vegetation of the Fynbos Biome on the basis of fossil pollen data suggests that marked changes took place during this period. More extensive woodland at different times before the Late Glacial Maximum (LGM) which pollen by pollen in lagoon deposits (Schalte 1973) and charcoal from Elands Bay Cave of > 24,000 years cal. BP (Parkington & Cartwright 1997, Cowling et al. 1999a, Parkington et al. 2000). Pollen in hyrax dung suggests that the LGM in the northeastern part of the Cederberg range (Pakhuis Pass) bordering on the Karoo, was characterised by asteraceous shrubland (renosterveld) with fynbos elements such as Proteaceae, Ericaceae, Passerina and Lobostemon etc. (Scott 1994, L. Scott & S. Woodborne, unpublished data). The LGM was by no means a uniform event and showed regular fluctuations in temperature, moisture availability and seasonality (L. Scott & S. Woodborne, unpublished data). In view of climatic forcing of the earth's orbital variations, the latter authors pose the question: What if the fynbos of the LGM experienced a slight shift to more summer rain during the LGM? If so, cool growing seasons prevented it from changing to a more typical summer-rain vegetation type. Variations in δ18O values from the Cango Caves ca. 300 km to the east, suggest a temperature difference of ca. 5°C between the LGM and Holocene (Talma & Vogel 1992). It has been suggested that fynbos and renosterveld elements migrated far to the north to northern Namibia during the LGM following northward penetration of winter rain, according to Shi et al. (2000) who found high concentrations of Ericaceae and Restionaceae in marine sediments off the mouth of the Cunene River. On the basis of fossil pollen of LGM age from the Brandberg/Daures (Namibia) and elsewhere in South Africa and an investigation of source areas and long-distance transport, Scott et al. (2004) consider this unlikely and give different explanations for the composition of the pollen assemblages. Temperatures at the end of the LGM started increasing sharply ca. 16,000 years cal. BP as recorded by pollen changes from the Pakhuis Pass and the vegetation accordingly changed to woodland, with Dodonaea, Olea, Rhus, Ebenaceae and Proteaceae, etc. (L. Scott & S. Woodborne, unpublished data). Paralleling the transition at Pakhuis Pass, charcoal and pollen from archaeological sediments in Boomplaas Cave (Deacon et al. 1984, Scholtz 1986) adjacent to the Cango Caves, show open renosterveld vegetation (Elytrotopappus and Euryops) changing to more woodland. The hyrax dung sequence from the Pakhuis Pass which, however, has a much higher sample resolution than the Boomplaas record, suggests that regular variations persisted throughout the Holocene, indicating markedly contrasting wet and dry phases on a millennial scale, with variations in pollen of Restionaceae, Cyperaceae, Asteraceae and succulent Aizoaceae types (L. Scott & S. Woodborne, unpublished data). The Pakhuis Pass results are, however, in contrast with previous pollen data from the higher mountain peaks of the Cederberg, which suggested that very constant climatic conditions prevailed during the LGM transition and persisted throughout the Holocene, with only Widdringtonia cederbergensis showing a very gradual decline (Meadows & Sugden 1991, 1993). A low degree of change in the high mountain fynbos of the Cederberg during the terminal Pleistocene according to Cowling et al. (1999a) might be explained by different climatic regimes between the moist mountain peaks and the area to the east which lies in the rainshadow of the range.

Late Holocene vegetation was apparently more open in the fynbos environment and the change in firewood in Boomplaas Cave from species on adjacent mountain slopes to Acacia karroo ca. 2,000 years ago, might have been due to the necessity to collect firewood from valley bottoms (Deacon et al. 1984, Scholtz 1986, Scott & Lee-Thorp 2004). An increase in more C4 grassland in the area during this time is indicated by the 13C values from a stalagmite in the nearby Cango Caves (Talma & Vogel 1992). According to the pollen contents, present values of Dodonaea and Euclea pollen at the Pakhuis Pass are much reduced in comparison to the late Holocene. This could possibly be as a result of modern human influence on the vegetation (Scott 1994).

Palynological evidence from coastal lakes and swamps, e.g. Hangklip (Schalte 1973), Groenvlei (Martin 1968) and Verlorenvlei (Baxter & Meadows 1994) suggests that coastal vegetation composition did vary markedly during the Holocene. At Groenvlei the fynbos that occurred during the early Holocene was replaced by coastal forest (Martin 1968). At Verlorenvlei a middle Holocene salt-marsh environment associated with raised sea level changed to a freshwater one, while it has been inferred that anthropogenic disturbance since ca. 1,700 AD is responsible for the development of the current Verlorenvlei environment (Baxter & Meadows 1994).

5.2 Phylogenetic Perspective

The overall lack of fossil plant evidence (Deacon et al. 1983; see also Section 5.1 above) from the region of the current Fynbos Biome makes the inference of palaeo-vegetation patterns very difficult. It is therefore not surprising that alternative sources of information have been sought. Progress in the field of molecular biology driven especially by technological advancement of nucleic acid analysis and the methodological revival of cladistic inference offers unique and powerful tools of phylogenetic inference. Due to its legendary richness, the Cape is in the forefront of phylogenetic studies (Barracough 2006, Linder 2006), and the Fynbos Biome is possibly one of the best researched biomes in the world in terms of using phylogenies in disentangling its origin and evolution.

It is amazing that much of the richness of the CFR (about 50%) is concentrated in only 33 major clades, which most probably originated and radiated within the CFR (Linder 2003, Linder & Hardy 2004), and are largely confined to fynbos. The taxonomic expression of this is an extraordinary abundance of large genera (containing more than 100 species), e.g. Erica with 658 species (Linder & Hardy 2004, Linder 2005b, E.G.H. Oliver personal communication). Another intriguing phenomenon emanating from the high species:genus ratio is the remarkable small-scale (habitat-level) co-occurrence of many congeners, defying entrenched ideas about the role of competition (hence niche differentiation) in community assembly. Prochep et al. (2006) found that in recently radiated classes typical of evolutionary young biomes (such as the Fynbos Biome), the co-occuring
species tend to be more closely related than predicted by classical niche theory.

At large temporal scales, the governing paradigm of the past was that the Cape flora is a *mixtum compositor* of three components, namely (1) a Gondwanan element (also called ‘Antarctic’ by some)—a relict of the Cretaceous Gondwanan flora, (2) an African element, accounting for the bulk of the Cape flora, and (3) an Eurasian element, supposed to have migrated recently along the eastern and southern African mountains to the CFR (see Adamson 1958, Linder et al. 1992, Linder 2005b citing Levy 1962 as further sources of these ideas). Phylogenetic analyses, however, shed slightly different light on these ideas by pointing towards the importance of post-Gondwanan intercontinental dispersal. In general, large-distance intercontinental dispersal events do not seem to be rare (Sanmartin & Ronquist 2004). The CFR appears to be a long-term assemblage with a strong Austral, rather than African, relationship (Linder 2005b).

Furthermore, the dispersal from CFR to the high mountains of the afromontane archipelago has been suggested as the more probable direction, rather than the reverse (Galley & Linder 2006, Reeves et al. 2006; see also Chapter 8 on Grassland).

How old then is the Fynbos Biome? Very roughly we presume that the Mid-Miocene vegetation of the southwestern Cape was (sub)tropical (Axelrod & Raven 1978, Linder 2003, Linder & Hardy 2004) with ancestral lineages of the modern fynbos flora possibly restricted to the mountains. The climate of those times was also (sub)tropical, mesic and with no pronounced dry season. The steepening of the global pole-to-equator climatic gradient linked to complete glaciation of Antarctica and the associated strengthening of the upwelling of cold waters along the Atlantic seaboard of South Africa which started some 8–10 mya (Siesser 1980), blocked off the summer rainfall, leaving only winter rainfall to dominate the southwestern Cape (Linder & Hardy 2004); the eastern regions of the current Fynbos Biome presumably still retained some share of the summer rainfall. The (sub)tropical flora and vegetation of the southwestern Cape was almost obliterated, perhaps except for the remnants of relict forest and fynbos thicket (see Section 1.4.4) patches, opening vacant habitats for fast-radiating lineages of the Cape clades, facilitated by regular fires in the hot and dry summers (Linder & Hardy 2004). According to Goldblatt (1997) the Cape flora is not older than Pliocene age (less than 5 mya), while Cowling & Pressey (2001) suggest that the major diversification is of Late Pliocene age. Richardson et al. (2001) found that the initiation of the *Phyllica* radiation was in the Late Miocene, but other dated phylogenetic studies suggested older radiation dates: Mid-Miocene for *Pelargonium* (Bakker et al. 2005) and *Indigofera* (Schrire et al. 2003), Oligocene or Early Miocene for some tribes of the Iridaceae (Goldblatt et al. 2002), and Oligocene for African clades of Restionaceae (Linder & Hardy 2004). On the other hand, the radiation in *Heliotheca* (Mummenhoff et al. 2005) was found to be of Pliocene age. It appears that adaptive nature of the radiations is a common phenomenon (Goldblatt et al. 2002: *Moraea*; Verboom et al. 2004: *Ehrharta*; Linder & Hardy 2005: *Thamnorchotus*; Manning & Goldblatt 2005: *Tritoniopsis*).

Although the earliest recruitment of an angiosperm lineage into the Cape flora has been dated to the Cretaceous, more lineages have been incorporated into the flora, not really hindered by the opening of the southern oceans (Linder 2005b). The few dated molecular phylogenies available to us suggest a step-wise birth of the biome through accession of diversity (resulting from radiations) over the past 35 my, rather than a boom-like dramatic change of flora as a consequence of a unique change in environmental conditions in the palaeohistory of the Cape (Linder 2005b).

We hypothesise that also the major floristic component of the intrazonal fynbos thicket and strandveld vegetation is a relict of past subtropical periods (see also Linder 2005b). The dominance of genera of Anacardiaceae (*Rhus*), Celastraceae (*Cassine*, *Gymnosporia*, *Lauidia*, *Maytenus*, *Mystroxyylon*, *Pterocelastrus*, *Robsonodendron*), Ebenaceae (*Euclea*, *Diospyros*) and Sapotaceae (*Sideroxylon*) with their evolutionary roots (and current centres of diversification) in the tropics, supports our claim. We further propose, alongside earlier suggestions (Levyns 1964), that the strandveld shrublands of the Cape might be in part relicts of old resident Mid-Miocene woodlands, which retreated to nutrient-rich and climatically more stable, mild (buffering function of the ocean) and fire-sheltered coastal habitats in times when most of the Cape region had been taken over by fire-prone fynbos and renosterveld shrublands since about the Miocene/Pliocene boundary and later throughout the Pleistocene. The increased aridity in the Plio-Pleistocene either prevented migration of coastal elements or increased depauperisation of the strandveld flora. On the other hand, warmer (and possibly also wetter) interglacial periods during the Pleistocene might have encouraged south-bound migration of tropical elements along the coasts—processes naturally dependent on the dynamics of coastal dune fields (accretion rates, stabilisation and abrasion rates). The glacial periods must have had an adverse effect on both south-bound migrations of the subtropical coastal thicket flora due to a decrease in temperature along the South Coast (as much as 6°C lower yearly average for the LGM) and a decrease in precipitation. West of the Caledon Mountains, the depauperisation of the strandveld (‘subtropical’) flora might have been further encouraged by intensification of the winter rainfall on the West Coast during the glacial periods.

We suggest that the core of the present-day strandveld expanded especially after the last major marine transgression about 1.5 mya (Compton 2004). This regression exposed major stretches of the coast (and its hinterland) and today is covered by limestone strandveld and extensive sandy plains underlain by calcarete as well as lower slopes of the granite outcrops on the West Coast. It was after this regression when extensive calcareous sand dune systems were initiated on the South Coast, opening new habitats to strandveld vegetation. The tops of the West Coast granites (Vredenburg and Saldanha Batholiths) were exposed for a long time and experienced isolation caused by marine transgressions about 5 and 1.5 mya (Compton 2004) and we suggest that it is here where the evolutionarily oldest (and most endemic-rich) form of strandveld could have developed on the West Coast.

The young age of the ‘recent element’ in the strandveld flora is documented in genera of typical Cape clades (Linder 2003), which contain species resulting from recent (Plio-Pleistocene) radiations. Such is the case of *Ehrharta villosa* and *E. calycula* (Verboom et al. 2003, 2004), *Thamnorchotus spicigerus* and *T. erectus* (Linder & Mann 1998), *Phyllica littoralis* (Richardson et al. 2000), *Pelargonium gibbosum* and *P. fulgidum* (Bakker et al. 2004), *Matalasia mucrica* (Karis 1989) and *Ischyrolepis eleocharis* (H.P. Linder, personal communication).

6. **Taxonomic Diversity, Endemism and Biogeographical Subdivisions**

Patterns of species diversity and endemicity in the Cape flora have long been the focus of research, both academic and conservation-oriented. These are well reviewed (Kruger & Taylor 1979, Campbell & Van der Meulen 1980, Bond 1983, Cowling et al. 1989, 1992, Cowling & Hilton-Taylor 1994, Goldblatt &

6.1 Plant Diversity along Ecological Scales

The Cape Floristic Region is internationally recognised for its exceptional species diversity, which ultimately led to the recognition of the Cape flora as one of world’s floristic kingdoms, on a par with much larger regions (Engler & Gilg 1919, Good 1947, Takhtajan 1986). It has also been recognised as one of 25 ‘hot spots’ of the world’s diversity (see also Mittermeier et al. 2000, Van Wyk & Smith 2001).

At the local scale, diversity in the CFR is high, without being exceptional. Where relevé data yield more plant species than tropical rainforest plots, this can be simply explained by the size of individual plants, fynbos, renosterveld and strandveld shrubs occupying less space than large forest trees. In fact, where comparisons of nonepiphytic plant diversity adjust the plot size for plant size, rainforest appears more diverse (Latimer et al. 2005). By comparison with other Mediterranean-climate vegetation types, the values recorded in the CFR (10–20 species/10 m²; 30–40 species/100 m²; 40–120 species/1000 m²) are certainly not extreme (see Bond 1983, Cowling 1990a). Plots dominated by taller shrubs have generally lower diversity values compared to plots entirely dominated by smaller plants.

It is at larger spatial scales that the diversity of the CFR becomes exceptional, not only in a Mediterranean-climate context, but in any context. Floristic dissimilarity along transects (often addressed as beta-diversity; Cowling & Campbell 1984, Cowling 1990a) ranging from hundreds of metres to hundreds of kilometres is impressive, with complete turnover of species between vegetation types. It has been alleged that in fynbos vegetation each mountain and valley has a flora of its own (Kruger & Taylor 1979, Cowling 1990a), although endemism levels per mountain unit are typically in the order of 1–10%. The reasons invoked to explain these astounding species numbers are multiple (Table 4.3). While spatial species packing is sufficient at finer scales, broader explanations involving habitat and climatic diversity and speciation-extinction dynamics are necessary at larger scales, most of the recorded species being endemic to fynbos vegetation (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a). Renosterveld diversity is lower in endemic species, with the exception of West Coast renosterveld, and appears to be shared more, with far less turnover, between different vegetation units. It has been suggested that long-term climatic stability was crucial in the attainment of the current levels of species diversity in the CFR (Cowling et al. 2004, Cowling & Procheş 2005).

6.2 Local and Regional Endemism

The CFR’s claim to fame is that it contains almost 9 000 plant species (out of the 20 500 plant species in southern Africa: 44%) on 90 000 km² (or 4% of the area of the subcontinent). Almost 69% of these plant species are endemic to the CFR. This is comparable with many of the richest tropical forests and is exceptional among temperate and African floras (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a). It is the richest temperate flora in the world (Van Wyk & Smith 2001). Most plant species in the CFR are limited to fynbos—about 7 500 of the 9 000 species, of which over 80% are endemic to the region and many (proportion is unknown, perhaps 60%) are endemic to fynbos vegetation itself. Floristically it is unique in having large numbers of species belonging to the Ericaceae (all in Erica with 658 species), Proteaceae (330 species), Restionaceae (318 species), Rutaceae (273 species), Polygalaceae (141 species, with Muralitia accounting for 100 species), Rhannaceae (137 species, with Phylica accounting for 133 species), Thymelaeaceae (124 species) and Rosaceae (120 species, with Cliftonia accounting for 114 species). Of the 942 genera of seed plants native to the CFR, about 160 (16%) are endemic (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a).

Recent taxonomic revisions involving molecular-phylogenetic studies confirmed that five families of angiosperms (Figure 4.20) are endemic to the CFR. These are: Penaeaceae (with 23 species), Roridulaeaceae (2 species), and the monotypic Geissolomataceae, Grubbiaceae and Laniaceae. All of them are confined to fynbos vegetation. Wardiaceae is the only family of mosses considered endemic to the CFR. The Bruniaceae (with 64 species in the CFR and one species in Pondoland) is near-endemic to the CFR and is also confined to fynbos. When described, the family Prionaceae (Munro & Linder 1998) comprised only one species (Prionium serratum), and was considered near-endemic to the CFR (with populations in Pondoland), but it has since been placed in the Thurniaceae, with further representatives in South America (Chase et al. 2000, Goldblatt et al. 2005). The monotypic family Retziaceae previously considered endemic to the CFR (and fynbos vegetation), is now classified in the

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**Table 4.3** Factors and mechanisms underlying the rapid and localised diversification of the Cape flora.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spatial component</th>
<th>Extent</th>
<th>Mechanisms of fine-scale subdivision</th>
<th>Underlying factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spatial component</strong></td>
<td>≈ 90 000 km² (small by global standards)</td>
<td>Landscape patchiness</td>
<td>Climatic diversity</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Topographical heterogeneity</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fire-derived age mosaics</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited seed dispersal</td>
<td>Limited investment in dispersal, determined by low productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Packing of individuals and species</td>
<td>Small plant stature and niche separation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Temporal component</strong></td>
<td>5–15 million years (of relatively high climatic stability, long by global standards)</td>
<td>Short generation time</td>
<td>Connected to fire and small plant stature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Separation between generations</td>
<td>Fire-driven simultaneous cohort death</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Stilbaceae (Kornhall 2004). The Stilbaceae were in turn also previously considered endemic to the CFR (and fynbos vegetation), but a new circumscription of the family (Olmstead et al. 2001, Kornhall 2004) extends it to tropical Africa.

The fact that the CFR endemics belong to families such as the Ericaceae, Proteaceae, Restionaceae, Rhamnaceae and Rutaceae (all with over 90% endemism to the Cape flora; Goldblatt & Manning 2000a)—all families predominant in fynbos vegetation and not a taxonomically representative sample, suggests that fynbos vegetation types contribute significantly to overall levels of endemism. Cowling et al. (1992) have argued that most of the endemics are edaphic specialists, but this might be an artefact of their lowland sampling—the large number of local endemics presented in the descriptions of particular vegetation units as defined in this chapter suggests that on sandstone substrates at least, endemism is strongly influenced by topography. Endemics (on the lowlands) tend to be small shrubs, nonsprouting, with soil-stored, ant-dispersed seeds, and with microsymbiont-mediated nutrient uptake (Cowling et al. 1992), but whether these patterns hold within fynbos throughout the region and how they vary between local and subregional scales and the entire Fynbos Biome, is unknown.

A major problem with studies of endemism requires that detailed and comprehensive distributional data exist for the entire area. This is not generally available, the most comprehensive data being available only at a broad scale (25 x 25 km). Although it is therefore not possible to evaluate subregional or proportional endemism, it is reasonably easy to obtain data on extremely...
localised endemics. Preliminary comparisons of the lists of endemic taxa compiled for each of our vegetation units support the general view of endemism being greatest in the fynbos units of the southwestern mountain ranges, with a strong northern trend and much reduced richness on the eastern ranges east of the Langeberg, paralleling overall trends of species richness of taxa studied by Oliver et al. (1983) and Moline & Linder (2006). For instance, it seems that the extremely high figure for FFs 4 Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos possibly reflects the extensive collecting in the past. With more research, many of these species might be found to be more widespread in the neighbouring fynbos units. This is also supported by the high proportion of the Red Data category ‘Uncertain’ scored by many of the Cederberg endemics (A.G. Rebelo, unpublished data). On the other hand, the endemic accounts for well-researched areas such as Langeberg and Cape Peninsula (e.g. McDonald 1999, Helme & Trinder-Smith 2006) are probably reliable.

Renosterveld has much lower levels of endemism at the local scale (the scale of the vegetation units as defined in this chapter) than most of the units of sandstone fynbos in the western regions of the fynbos, but the endemic counts in many of the shale, granite and dolerite renosterveld units match those of the sandstone fynbos in the eastern regions as well as sand fynbos in general. When groups of ecologically analogous and geographically juxtaposed renosterveld units are considered (for instance West Coast renosterveld, South Coast renosterveld), the regional levels of endemism are considerable (N. Helme, unpublished data).

In strandveld, local endemism is considerably higher in the western units than in the strandveld units fringing the Garden Route. This is probably due to edaphic as well as occasional topographic isolation (formation of islands during marine transgressions). The endemism of the granite and limestone strandveld units of the Saldanha and Langebaan Peninsulas is comparable to those of the endemic-rich fynbos units.

A more detailed analysis of the pattern of endemism and its correlations is imminent, but it remains confounded by the lack of data for the total richness of the different vegetation units, so that the relative importance of endemism to the local and regional species pool cannot be computed.

6.3 Sources of Species Diversity and Endemism

The key to understanding the complexity of the flora and vegetation of the CFR is in understanding the sources of its extraordinary species diversity and endemism. Of the ecological factors correlated with high species diversity and endemism in the fynbos of the Langeberg (McDonald 1995), the most important is limited dispersal of seeds with a high prevalence of ant dispersal (myrmecochory) and species with no obvious adaptations to seed dispersal. Wind-dispersed species generally have broader geographical ranges. Obligate reseeding (i.e. plants incapable of resprouting) is also important, with spatially fluctuating and temporally discrete populations mediated by fire, resulting in more species. Resprouters can survive several successive fire events, and genetic intermixing between the longer-lived generations is possible, impeding speciation, so that richness approaches that of forest or thicket habitats. Consequently, reseeders usually have smaller geographical ranges than resprouters (Cowling 1987). Within the same dispersal and fire survival categories, low shrubs are generally more likely to be local endemics than other growth forms. Of all these factors, limited dispersal is particularly important, as it applies to many plant groups, irrespective of fire survival strategy and growth form (McDonald et al. 1995). This potentially contributes to the understanding of high species diversity in fynbos for groups that are fire-resistant (e.g. geophytes, Proche et al. 2006).

From the point of view of evolutionary processes, the roots of the species diversity should be sought in the nature of speciation and extinction, and their relationship. Lately, Barraclough (2006) has summarised the causes of speciation in the Cape flora under six headings, including topographical complexity, edaphic complexity, pollinator specialisation, fire and short-dispersal distances (see Sections 2 and 4 of this chapter for more details). The patterns of extinction have not been formally analysed in the Cape, but climatic stability (see Section 2.4 for more details) has been cited most often as one of the major reasons for presumably low levels of extinction. For further analyses and insights of the intriguing hot topics forcing functions influencing the patterns of speciation and extinction, consult Dynesius & Jansson (2000), Jansson & Dynesius (2002), Linder (2003, 2005b), Linder & Hardy (2004) and Cowling & Proches (2005).

6.4 Biogeographical Compartmentalisation

The regional distribution of endemism in the CFR was first described by Weimark (1941), who recognised ‘Centres’ of endemism based on the distribution of range-restricted species. These centres, updated to include a limestone centre, are still used as phytogeographical subunits of the CFR in summarising plant distributions (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a). These centres were only partly confirmed in an analytical study on major groups with fynbos endemics (Restionaceae, Ericaceae, Proteaceae, Aspalathus, Muralitia, Oliver et al. 1983), although further division between the western centres is possible (the Southwest Centre is broken down into the Peninsula Centre, West Coastal Centre, Bredasdorp Centre, and Southwest Centre proper), whereas the eastern centres (Karoo Mountain Centre, Langeberg Centre and Southeast Centre) are comparatively uniform. More advanced multivariate techniques showed even further division in the west, at least as far as the Restionaceae are concerned (Linder & Mann 1998, Linder 2001, Molins & Linder 2006). This has led to a more conservative approach by which the CFR is referred to simply as represented by a western part, rich in local endemics, and an eastern part, comparatively poor in local endemics (Cowling & Lombard 2002, Proches et al. 2003).

Comparison of four schemes of phytogeographical subdivision of the CFR (Weimark 1941, Oliver et al. 1983, Linder & Mann 1998, Goldblatt & Manning 2000a) indeed reveals a number of important spatial congruencies, but also leaves us with many open questions, one of the most important ones being the delimitation of lowland phytochoria. However, the lowlands feature prominently in centres of endemism for the Proteaceae (Rebelo & Siegfried 1990, Cowling et al. 1992), placing them clearly within the Centres recognised by Weimark, and suggesting that Weimark’s gaps were due to inadequate data. The resolution was too coarse to delimit the ‘limestone floras’, which are clearly a major centre of endemism (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a). At present, data for most taxa are not available at a fine enough scale (as is available for the Proteaceae) for more detailed analysis, but finer-scale data are becoming available through the geo-referencing of herbarium data and conservation projects such as CREW (Raimondo & Ebrahim 2006). It is likely that species from strandveld and renosterveld within the CFR will show different patterns.

7. Status and Threats

The degree of transformation of the Fynbos Biome vegetation types is strongly linked to topography and geographical location.
Among the ‘Critically Endangered’ and ‘Endangered’ ecosystems rank especially those of the shale, granite, ferricrete and alluvium fynbos in the Southwest Centre, converted to vineyards, fruit orchards and pine plantations to a great extent as well as those of sand fynbos, much of which has been obliterated by urban sprawl of the Cape Town metropolitan area, small holdings and alien plant invasions. All the sandstone fynbos types in the Southwest Centre rank as ‘Least Threatened’, highlighting the lack of transformation in the mountains. A similar pattern is apparent in the Eastern Centre, where lowland types of the granite, shale and sand fynbos are affected primarily by agriculture and afforestation, with the low-lying FFs 29 Algoa Sandstone Fynbos (endangered) due to urbanisation. However, sandstone fynbos units of the Outeniqua and Tsitsikamma Mountains are listed as ‘Vulnerable’ due primarily to afforestation by pines. In the other centres, it is again the lowland (both coastal and inland) and units supported by rich soil that suffered considerable transformation. Predictably, the least transformed units are the best conserved, although the northern and western extent of the Northwest Centre is poorly conserved. The distribution pattern of threatened ecosystems with the highest threat in the lowlands of the Southwest Centre is mirrored in the distribution of threatened butterflies, amphibians, reptiles and plants. Only fish species—most threatened in the Cederberg section of the Northwest Centre—differ from this pattern (Rebelo 1992a). Details of the ecosystem and conservation status are presented in the individual accounts of the vegetation types, and are summarised in Chapter 16.

The above mirrors the threats for the Fynbos Biome identified in the 1980s. In the fynbos of the lowlands, agriculture and afforestation accounted for 49% of the area transformed, with alien invasive Acacia species accounting for a further 36%. By contrast, in the mountains, 26% was transformed by *Hakea* and *Pinus* infestations, a further 10% by *Acacia* infestations and only 7% by agriculture and afforestation (Rebelo 1992a). These vegetation-based threats also mirror those based on Red Data plant species: alien invasive plants are the biggest threat, with agriculture and urbanisation next in line (Rebelo 2001). Among the major modern threats to sand fynbos is the increase in central pivot irrigation, mainly for potatoes, and the extraction of ground water for urban and agricultural use (A.G. Rebelo, unpublished data). The urban Cape Town metropolitan area, which has almost obliterated the FFd 5

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Figure 4.21 Climate diagrams of sandstone fynbos units. For the remainder of the Figure and for its full caption see the opposite page.
The Fynbos biome is characterized by a Mediterranean climate, with dry summers and mild, wet winters. The climate diagrammes for various subtypes of the Fynbos biome show different annual precipitation and temperature patterns. For example, the Cape Flats Sand Fynbos has a higher annual precipitation compared to the Potberg Sandstone Fynbos.

Cape Flats Sand Fynbos, is also a major threat to the vegetation types in its vicinity (Wood et al. 1994). The first prescriptions for the preservation of fynbos for aesthetic and scientific value were made by Wicht (1945). These were followed by more detailed optimal strategies based on vegetation types and biogeographical regions, and iterative approaches (Rebelo 1992a). However, the network of reserves were de facto allocated on agricultural land as foreland area (now mainly nature conservation areas) for water catchment areas. Effectively this meant that over half of the mountains were conserved, but less than 3% of the lowlands were afforded any protection (Rebelo 1992a). This situation remains unchanged today.

A comprehensive action plan for fynbos and other vegetation types within the CFR has been completed (Cowling et al. 1999b) and elaborated upon both regionally and nationally (Pressey et al. 2003, Rouget et al. 2003a, b, 2004, Driver et al. 2005). In the 2000s, the Cape Action Plan for People and the Environment (CAPE) was established to effect conservation in the Fynbos Biome. Among the more significant conservation plans is the construction of ‘megareserves’ focused on the existing conservation areas in sandstone fynbos, but linking them to relatively unconserved renosterveld, karoo shrublands and sand fynbos of the lowlands.

Very little coastal renosterveld remains: most vegetation types are ‘Critically Endangered’—with over 80% of the vegetation transformed to agriculture, chiefly for growing cereals and pastures. The inland units of renosterveld are relatively intact, although farming of these units is increasing and their status may well change over the next decade. The remnants are not representative of the communities that used to occur within renosterveld, being largely in areas that were too steep or shallow to plough mechanically, or otherwise unsuitable for agriculture (Von Hase et al. 2003).

Currently, renosterveld remnants are regularly sprayed with herbicides and insecticides—usually accidentally as drift. Fertiliser runoff also has a major influence on patches downslope of agriculture, and especially valley bottoms, river courses and seepage areas may become eutrophic. Exotic alien grasses are a major threat—apparently competing with the bulb flora. Insulation of remnants is another major force, with many remnants predicted to experience imbalances of pollinators, seed dispersers, herbivores

Figure 4.21 Climate diagrams of sandstone fynbos units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days (days when screen temperature was below 0°C); MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress (% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply).
and predators. Obligate reseeders and specialist (e.g., oil-bee and long-tongue fly pollination, bird seed dispersal, etc.) species will be more affected than geophytic and generalist species. Overwintering requirements and fidelity to renosterveld are little understood for insects (Rebelo 1995, Von Hase et al. 2003).

Some of these aspects, including restoration of agricultural land back to renosterveld, are currently being investigated. It appears that seeds are produced and dispersed into agricultural land, but that seedlings do not establish. However, geophytes and hemi-cryptophytes have short seed dispersal distances, limiting dispersal to remnants in the immediate vicinity. Both grazing and competition with agricultural grasses inhibit this establishment, but changes in soil chemistry, nursery plants and fine-scale heterogeneity after ploughing are probably paramount in affecting establishment of seedlings (Krug et al. 2004b). Unpalatable daisies (Elytrarpappus, Oedera, Relhania) or Galenia often form dense monospecific stands—with a near-total absence of geophytes and grasses—in old fallow lands, which appear to be stable for decades.

Invasive alien species are a major threat to biodiversity in the Fynbos Biome. Although alien organisms from many higher taxonomic groups have invaded the fynbos and renosterveld, alien plants have had by far the greatest and most direct impact on vegetation in the region.

Many plant species were introduced to the Fynbos Biome from Europe and Asia between 1653 and 1806 to fulfill the need of the Dutch colonists to cultivate a wide range of agricultural and horticultural species from their homeland and from Dutch possessions in the East. Introductions continued in the 19th century, with a concerted effort to increase the cover of trees throughout the CFR (the same area as that under urban areas), with another 30% of stability for decades.

In the lowlands, alien annuals reduce small-scale diversity of native herbs in sand fynbos and renosterveld. Tree and shrub invasions in fynbos change many aspects of faunal communities. Studies have documented altered abundance and composition in native ant communities, with implications for the seed dispersal functions of native plants. The altered feeding behaviour of native generalist birds that disperse seeds, with likely detrimental effects on native plant species, has also been described in renosterveld (see Richardson & Van Wilgen 2004 for references).

What is known about the impact of invasive plants in the Fynbos Biome? Dense stands of alien trees and shrubs rapidly reduce abundance and diversity of native plants at the scale of small plots. Regarding mechanisms of this attrition, studies in dense stands of Acacia saligna have documented the decline of soil-stored seed banks of native plants, leading to the local extinction of native species. Such invasions also greatly increase biomass, and change litter-fall dynamics and nutrient cycling. These changes have marked, and varied, effects on fire regimes. Sand fynbos has far more transient seed banks than sandstone fynbos, and nitrogen enrichment results in grassy elements replacing shrubs in sand fynbos, but not in sandstone fynbos. The altered feeding behaviour of native generalist birds that disperse seeds, with likely detrimental effects on native plant species, has also been described in renosterveld (see Richardson & Van Wilgen 2004 for references).
burnt watersheds are denuded of soil, and runoff after rain is rapid, causing flooding, damage to property and infrastructure, and siltation. The extent and consequences of these impacts at regional scales are poorly understood. In coastal zones, stabilisation of naturally mobile sand dunes through increased plant cover and root biomass of planted and invasive Acacia cyclops has radically altered coastal sediment movements, leading to massive beach depletion which is threatening coastal developments along the Eastern and Western Cape coasts (see Richardson & Van Wilgen 2004 for references).

Considerable progress has been made with the management of alien plant invasions in fynbos and riparian zones of the Fynbos Biome. A milestone was the initiation of the Working for Water (WWF) programme in 1995 (Van Wilgen et al. 1996, Van Wilgen & Cowling 1998). Although successful control operations against invasive species were in place before this date, WWF provided the foundation for the initiation and, more importantly, the sustainability of control programmes at local and regional scales in the Fynbos Biome (and throughout South Africa). As its name implies, WWF initially focused largely on the control of invasive species with the specific aim of alleviating the well-documented impacts on water resources. As such, it represents a model case of the leverage of conservation action based on a scientific evaluation of the value of ecosystem services and the threats from invasive species to these services. The focus of the programme has been expanded to deal with all invasive plant species, not only those with a clear impact on water resources.

8. Action and Further Research

Although the Fynbos Biome was subject to intensive study from 1977 to 1989 under the Fynbos Biome Project (Kruger 1978, Day et al. 1979, Kruger 1979, Campbell et al. 1981, Jarman et al. 1981, Boucher & McDonald 1982, Deacon et al. 1983, Bond & Goldblatt 1984, Jarman 1984, MacDonald & Jarman 1984, Moll et al. 1984, Pierce 1984, Hall & Veldhuys 1985, Kruger et al. 1985, MacDonald et al. 1985, Cowling et al. 1987, Manders & Dicks 1987, Rebelo 1987a, Cowling 1992), it is clear that many gaps in our knowledge still exist (Huntley 1992). Thus, although fire ecology was a major research theme under the Fynbos Biome Project, and much was learned, it is still not possible to obtain figures on average fire size and differences in fire-return intervals between major mountain catchments. Although a Red Data Book was published (Hall & Veldhuys 1985), in which the presence of many rare species with small (less than 50 mature plants) isolated (with no seed dispersal) populations was documented, it is still not understood how such small populations can be self-sustaining over the time scales during which they have been observed (over 200 years). What is alarming about these deficiencies, and many others not mentioned, is that they are the cornerstone of management and monitoring of fynbos communities, especially in a world of habitat destruction, alien invasive plant infestations and global climate change. The new initiatives to complete the conservation status of species in a new Red Data List before 2006 (Foden 2006), and the Red Data List for Proteaceae (A.G. Rebelo, unpublished data), highlight these problems, but do not address them.

An understanding of the biogeography of the Fynbos Biome requires detailed inventories of species for the different vegetation types. However, due to the high species richness and turnover, the data required to map the biodiversity of the region do not exist, except for a few isolated units. We know that endemism is high for the biome—it appears to be exceptionally high also for individual mountains and vegetation types, but we do not have the data to discern patterns at any scale finer than 25 x 25 km grid units (Oliver et al. 1983), and even these are patchy. The Protea Atlas Project (Rebelo 1991), running over 10 years from 1991–2001, discovered more than 10 new taxa of Proteaceae, one of the best researched plant families of the Fynbos Biome. More importantly, it hints that much sub-specific diversity exists locally that has never been adequately documented. Primary taxonomy and vegetation inventories are totally inadequate and more work is urgently needed.

Although detailed and comprehensive plans exist for the CFR (Cowling et al. 1999b, Pressey et al. 2003, Rouget et al. 2003a, b, 2004), two key assumptions require more detailed research—the long-term effects of fragmentation, and the significance of corridors. The proposed network is robust enough to cater for the inadequacies of current knowledge, but it is highly unlikely that the ambitious programmes will be comprehensively realised, especially in the lowlands. We need to understand which units and links are indispensable and which can be sacrificed. Another key assumption of the conservation plan is that invasive alien plants will be brought under control and that future invasive species will be controlled timeously. Legislation, in particular the Conservation of Agricultural Resources Act (Act No. 43 of 1983) and National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act (Act No. 10 of 2004), to achieve this, is in effect. However, it remains to be seen whether it will work in practice. Guidelines to assessing environmental impact are also available (De Villiers et al. 2005).

Given the threat of global climate change in the region, we must be able to predict what changes will occur within the region. Unfortunately, the models are not very robust at predicting possible future rainfall patterns. Specifically, to determine the degree of habitat transformation that global climate change will effect, we have to know the annual distribution of precipitation and changes in predictability. We also have to profile which taxa and vegetation types are likely to be most affected and what mitigation (if any) is required. This must take into account that suitable alternative habitats are sometimes already occupied by sister taxa that are also under stress.

A further problem is the conservation of fynbos and renosterveld in urban areas. Current antipollution and fire legislation prevents burning of fynbos areas during peak fire periods. Mowing, which effectively destroys the communities, is preferred as an alternative to fire by some managers. Remnants become invaded with bird-dispersed strandveld species and invasive alien Acacia and grasses. The net effect is that prime conservation land—including some Critically Endangered vegetation units such as Ffd 5 Cape Flats Sand Fynbos—are not being conserved, even though they are in conservation areas and in conservation-managed road reserves.

We know very little about renosterveld ecology, despite it having been used for livestock for over 300 years. It is unique among productive ecosystems worldwide by its very high geophytic flora. The most urgent actions required are to protect sufficient remnants to safeguard the threatened flora in the coastal renosterveld types. To this end, CAPE has identified all lowland renosterveld remnants as ‘critically endangered’ and ‘irreplaceable’ (Cowling et al. 1999b). These are flagged in regional plans as not available for conversion to agriculture or other land uses (Cowling et al. 1999b). Whether this strategy will be sufficient to prevent the further loss of these vegetation types remains to be seen. However, the remnants are too fragmented and too small for effective conservation and any effective conservation plan will require large-scale restoration of agricultural land linking these fragments into coherent units (Krug et al. 2004b).
Opportunities currently exist to reintroduce large mammals into renosterveld ecosystems in the Little Karoo and to attempt to reconstitute extinct grazing and browsing regimes. This is currently being done at various places between Barrydale and Touws River. This is an opportunity to study and recreate a lost ecosystem that should be carefully and vigorously researched.

9. Descriptions of Vegetation Units

9.1 Fynbos

Fynbos vegetation occupies 67% of the area of the Fynbos Biome and 56% of the area of the CFR. By far the most fynbos vegetation units (81%) occur on nutrient-poor sandy substrates derived from sandstone, quartzite and Tertiary sands of the Cape Fold Belt. The classification of the units into groups follows the geology.

All fynbos units contain habitats characterised as ‘wetland’. These vary from seeps of varying permanence and origin, narrow restio alluvi of mountain streams, as well as fynbos peats and mires (see Sieben 2003, Sieben et al. 2004). Within these wetlands, often a single species is dominant, sometimes in zones within the wetlands, and different species may occupy apparently identical ecological niches in different geographical areas, or even in neighbouring wetlands. These communities are often localised and not detectable at the mapping scale adopted in this project (1:2 500 000), being best mapped at scales finer than 1:25 000 (Boucher 1978). Structurally, the fynbos wetlands are mainly restioid (dominated by Anthochortus and Elegia) or ericaceous (dominated by Berzella, Brunia, Erica), but many are dominated by Poaceae.

In compiling species lists, two factors stand out. Firstly, the lack of constant (mono)dominance across communities. The sandstone fynbos units are usually polydominant and even their distribution patterns are not consistent across larger geographic scales. Secondly, it is often impossible to reconcile communities based on localised fine scale with those described in generalised studies. With localised studies the ‘characteristic’ and ‘dominant’ species that define broader types are often absent or insignificant. Hence, an inevitable consequence for our descriptions is that the number of communities and types recognisable is directly proportional to the number of studies undertaken, and at current levels of data, shows no sign of tapering off. Thus, even within FFs 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos, for example, it is difficult to reconcile communities from Kogelberg, Jonkershoek and Groenlandberg: even edaphically matched sites are not easily defined using only floristic composition. This is hardly surprising in the light of the renowned large beta and gamma diversity of the flora (e.g. Kruger & Taylor 1979, Cowling 1983a, 1990a, Cowling et al. 1992, Cowling & Lombard 2002, Proches et al. 2003) and notorious functional redundancy (Cody & Mooney 1978, Cody 1986, Cowling et al. 1994a). Furthermore, most units have never had a comprehensive vegetation survey, so that species lists reflect more about levels of sampling than about ecology or biogeographical effects. There is still much basic survey research required to provide a less distorted image of the diversity of fynbos vegetation assemblages, and indeed in the Fynbos Biome on the whole.

9.1.1 Sandstone Fynbos

Sandstone Fynbos is the most extensive vegetation group in the Fynbos Biome, at 301 km² covering almost four times the area of the next most prominent fynbos group, Sand Fynbos, and about one third the area of the Fynbos Biome. It occurs in high-relief areas underlain by Devonian and Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group which are very resistant to erosion, except where underlain by softer sediments prone to erosion. Thus the Groot Swartberg uppermost sandstone beds (Nardouw-Baviaanskloof) have retreated northwards by a maximum of 25 km in the Swartberg, with a more typical retreat of 5–10 km from the faults along both the Worcester-Outeniqua and the Swartberg faults. The predominant east-west ranges have been stable since the break-up of Gondwana 120 mya, although some of the synclinal exposures in the Little Karoo are probably much younger. By contrast, the sandstones overlaying the West Coast were removed millions of years ago, probably largely during the Cretaceous/Pliocene, and pushed back to the Olifants fault. Remnants of this sandstone sheet still occur as Piketberg, Riebeek-Kasteel and Table Mountain—all synclinal exposures with the higher anticlines removed. Thus an area almost twice as large as the current sandstone exposure has been eroded away since the Gondwana split. Furthermore, these exposures, being anticlinal would have been higher than the current remnants, probably situated at altitudes between 1 000 and 2 000 m (see Compton 2004). The biogeographical evolutionary significance of this historical, large expanse of fynbos has not been explored.

The early post-Cretaceous would have seen a large expanse of exposed sandstone on the West Coast, and the beginnings of the large Cederberg and Kouga Mountains visible today, connected by the linear Langeberg, Riervanderder and Swartberg scarp scars. These latter and the ‘Karoo Island’ sandstone outcrops would have become wider as erosion removed sediments from above the sandstone and decreased the steepness of the fault (South African Committee for Stratigraphy 1980).

Given these substrate patterns, the high richness of fynbos taxa in the west versus that in the east, may be the result of past differences in climate, with the westward and eastward movement of the summer-rainfall area resulting in extinction of fynbos taxa in the east. Under this scenario, the summer-rainfall zones would not have moved west of Riversdale/Swellendam (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a). During these periods, fynbos east of Swellendam would have survived only at higher altitudes where many endemic Cape Fynbos species are found. Those areas are high-altitude species. The high relief of sandstone has resulted in most of it being above the post-Cretaceous marine incursions, with the exception of the Soetanysberg at Agulhas.

Altitudinal zonation has not been formally described for the Cape fynbos, unlike in other mediterranean-type biomes, such as the Mediterranean region itself (Rivas-Martinez 1976, 1981). Such zonation exists, and numerous bands, based both on structural and floristic types, can be observed altitudinally on both northern and southern mountain slopes. Typical idealised north-slope sequences would be encompassing asteraceous, dry restioi, proteoid, ericaceous and wet restioid fynbos, and proteoid, ericaceous and wet restioi on the southern slopes. However, these are too fine to map and have been subsumed into the geographical units. The upper limits above 1 800 m have, however, been documented (Linder et al. 1993, McDonald et al. 1993, Taylor 1996) and have been recognised in this work. Nevertheless, this is the first attempt at comprehensively mapping these zones within the Fynbos Biome. The recognition of the altimontane fynbos units is preliminary, with available data amenable as to their being coherent units as presented herein or subunits of the sandstone types in which they occur. The altimontane fynbos occurs on sandstone substrates, but shale bands also enter this altitudinal zone in a few places, but have been retained with the relevant shale band vegetation.
unit pending more appropriate data. We refrain from using the term ‘alpine’ or ‘subalpine’ since it may invoke unjustified links to altitudinal zonation patterns of the Alps.

FFs 1 Bokkeveld Sandstone Fynbos

VT 28 Western Mountain Karoo (45%), VT 69 Macchia (41%) (Acoks 1953). Dry Mountain Fynbos (78%) (Moll & Rossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (92%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 45 Bokkeveld Mountain Fynbos Complex (51%), BHU 46 Gifberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (41%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Northern and Western Cape Provinces: From the Bokkeveld Escarpment in the north along the Kobee and Matsikamma Mountains to the Gifberge between the Doring (Hantams) River (north of Nieuwoudtville) to the Doring (Tankwa) River (south of Klaver). Altitude 200–1 000 m, with the highest peak being Matsikammbberg (1 016 m).

Vegetation & Landscape Features A flat tableland, on the Bokkeveld Escarpment, elsewhere gently sloping to the east and south, without any faulting or folding in the sandstone beds. Major exposures of sandstone are at the edge of the Escarpment and where younger sediments have been removed. Topography resulting from rivers cutting through the resistant sandstone, forming deep gorges (such as Oorlogskloof) in an otherwise flat sandstone landscape. Although the shale bands of the Cedarberg Formation are largely absent, rugged ‘Cederberg’ landscape is formed on the eastern edge, where shale outcrops with flat-topped hills occur (and support outliers of Bokkeveld Sandstone Fynbos on their summits). Vegetation mainly closed restiolands in deeper moister sands with low, sparse shrubs that become denser with decreased restio-dominance in drier areas. Restioid, proteoid and asteraceous fynbos predominate; some waboosmel found as well.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup), very variable from Glenrosa and Mispah forms to red-yellow apedral to grey regic sands or skeletal. Land types mainly Fa, Ai, Ib and Hb.

Climate MAP 160–430 mm (mean: 290 mm), peaking May to August. The most arid of the Sandstone Fynbos types. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 30.8°C and 4.0°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 1 Bokkeveld Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


Figure 4.22 FFs 1 Bokkeveld Sandstone Fynbos: Dry restioid fynbos with a strong fynbos thicket element, abundant Euryops tenuissimus and a rich annual flora on a shallow-soil sandstone plateau overlooking the Oorlogskloof Canyon on the Farm Krantzkloof, south of Nieuwoudtville (Northern Cape).

Conservation Least threatened. Target 29%. Statutorily conserved (3%) in the Oorlogsloof Nature Reserve. Some 18% transformed (cultivation). The biggest threat to the original vegetation is rooibos tea farming, which results in the ploughing up of the deeper sands. The absence of aliens is very unusual among fynbos types. Erosion very low.

Remarks This is a very poorly studied type. The high endemism within this type has not been appreciated up to now.


FFs 2 Graafwater Sandstone Fynbos

VT 69 Macchia (66%), VT 34 Strandveld of the West Coast (32%) (Acocks 1953). Dry Mountain Fynbos (60%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (88%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 48 Olifants River Mountain Fynbos Complex (53%), BHU 10 Leipoldtville Sand Plain Fynbos (39%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: West Coast region, with the main block from Travall in the Olifants River Valley in the north, through areas east of Graafwater and Redelinghuys to Het Kruis (north of Piketberg) in the south. Smaller isolated patches to the west of this main body include Koevieleberg, Klipfonteinkoppe and Muishoekberg. This fynbos type reaches the Atlantic Ocean through several unmapped patches near Elands Bay. Altitude 100–650 m. It excludes the higher mountains such as Engelsmanse Berg and Swartberg (FFs 4 Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos), which are embedded in the unit.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Low mountains and gently undulating plains. Low scrub with scattered tall shrubs. Structurally it is asteraceous and scrub fynbos, with proteoid thicket and scrub fynbos communities the dominant feature of this vegetation type in rocky areas and cliffs. This is an arid version of FFs 3 Olifants Sandstone Fynbos and lacks denser and wetter vegetation. The Cape thicket communities occur in an arid facies. This type grades imperceptibly into Ffd 2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos on the western edge, depending on sand depth and water table level.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Orдовician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup), predominantly red-yellow apedal or Glenrosa and Mispah forms. Land types mainly Ai, Ib and Fa.

Climate MAP 200–499 mm (mean: 355 mm), peaking May to August when 70% of rain falls. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 30.2°C and 6.1°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3 or 4 days per year. Mists common in winter. See also climate diagram for FFs 2 Graafwater Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


Conservation Vulnerable. Target 29%. None conserved in statutory conservation areas. Some 28% transformed (cultivation), mainly in valley bottoms. Alien woody plants include Acacia cyclops and A. saligna. Erosion very low and low.

Remark Also a feature of this vegetation type, especially on the eastern edge, are heuweltjie communities which are often dominated by succulents (Didelta spinosa, Ruschia decurvans, Tetragonia rosea) in the north, or thicket species (Berkheya fruticosa, Rhus dissecta, Zygothyllium spinosum) in the south.


FFs 3 Olifants Sandstone Fynbos

VT 69 Macchia (91%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (85%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (100%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 47 Cederberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (72%), BHU 48 Olifants River Mountain Fynbos Complex (19%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Figure 4.23 FFs 2 Graafwater Sandstone Fynbos: Small sandstone outcrop with shrubby Heeria argentea (Anacardiaceae) overlooking Verlorenvlei Lake near Elands Bay (Western Cape).

100 Fonbos Biome
Distribution Western Cape Province: Western Cederberg and Koue Bokkeveld Mountains from Bulshoek Dam to Keerom adjacent to Olifants River Valley and to Saron on the lower western slopes of the Vier-en-twintig Riviere ( Voorberg ) Mountains (but see Remark 1 below). Altitude 200–1 200 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Gentle to steep slopes to the Cederberg scarp as well as broad valley bottoms. The Cedarberg Shale Band (supporting vegetation of the FFb group to August when 70% of rain falls. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.6°C and 4.9°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence from 3–10 days per year. See also Climate diagram for FFs 3 Olifants Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group ( Cape Supergroup ). Land types mainly lc, lb and Fa.

Climate MAP 250–700 mm (mean: 450 mm), peaking May to August when 70% of rain falls. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.6°C and 4.9°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence from 3–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 3 Olifants Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 29%. Statutorily conserved (23%) in the Cederberg Wilderness Area with an additional 44% protected in private conservation areas such as Winterhoek and Sederberg. Some 8% transformed (cultivation). Pinus radiata occurs as an alien invader in places. Erosion very low.

Remark 1 This unit was the most obviously discernable on satellite images. There are no floristic data to determine whether the Vier-en-twintig Riviere Mountains south of Piekienierskloof Pass should be included in this unit, so we deferred to the satellite images. Similarly, the boundary with FFs 2 Graafwater Sandstone Fynbos is based on satellite coverage, as there are no floristic data to suggest an alternative.

Remark 2 This unit differs from FFs 2 Graafwater Sandstone Fynbos—probably because of the higher rainfall, with Cape thicket grading into afrotemperate forest in the kloofs and valleys (the largest of these are mapped). Asteraceous fynbos is the dominant fynbos type, but even this has a high abundance of Cape thicket elements. Proteoid fynbos is most common on the lowermost slopes and sandy plateaus, and restioid fynbos occurs on deeper sands and shallower soils.


FFs 4 Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos
VT 69 Macchia (87%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (60%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (96%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 47 Cederberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (40%), BHU 46 Gifberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (31%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Mountains and rocky flats south of the Doring River from the Nardousberge through the Cederberg Mountains including the Pakhuisberge, Krakadouberge, Middelberg, Sneeuwkoeppe, Tafelberg, Sneeuberg (but excluding the uppermost parts of the last-mentioned three), Breekkranseberg and Sandfontein Peaks, and terminating on the Skurweberg (excluding the summit area of Sneeukop).
Also included are the higher peaks (for example, Engelsmanse Berg, Swartberg and Maanberg) west of the Olifants River Valley. Substantial sections of the western parts of the central and northern Cederberg are excluded from this unit. Altitude 300 to just below the border of FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos (at about 1 800 m).

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Flat to gently east- or north-sloping tableland, with steeper west-facing slopes (only upper parts in this unit)—both being rugged and dominated by rocky outcrops with gullies and flats of deep sand. Isolated mountain peaks occur and a more dissected mountainous terrain occurs in the west. The character of the Cederberg—the long, linear step or plateau that dominates the landscape between the upper and lower blocks of rugged sandstone—is given by the Cedarberg Shale Band (see FF 1 Northern Inland Shale Band Vegetation). Vegetation consists of closed restiolands on deeper moister sands, with low, sparse shrubs that become denser and Restionaceae less dominant in the drier areas. Structurally it is predominantly asteraceous, restiodi and proteoid fynbos.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ic, Ib, Ai and Fa.

**Climate** MAP 180–600 mm (mean: 395 mm), peaking May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.4°C and 4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 4 Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

bosa, Ficinia sp. nov. (‘petitiana’), Fuirena hirsuta\textsuperscript{29}, Hypodiscus laevigatus, Juncus capensis, Pentaschistis densifolia, Restio strobolifer, Tetragonia compar, T. nigrovaginata, T. triangularis, Thamnochortus schortleri.


**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 29%. Statutorily conserved (17%) in the Cederberg Wilderness Area, with 29% enjoying protection in private reserves such as Sederberg and Koue Bokkeveld. However, in both the north and south distinctive communities are not conserved. Some 15% transformed, mainly for cultivation of rooibos and vineyards. Pinus radiata is a serious alien intruder. Erosion very low.

**Remarks** Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos has been mapped from the watershed eastwards, based on satellite images. The Krakadouwberg-Welbedacht area was very well sampled by Taylor (1996), but other areas are poorly known. The number of endemics is extraordinary high for the size and location of this type. It is possible that they may occur in neighbouring types as well, but currently they appear to be confined to this type. The boundary between this unit and FFs 3 Olifants Sandstone Fynbos can only be very approximate at this stage.


### FFs 5 Winterhoek Sandstone Fynbos


**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Groot Winterhoek Mountains from Daskal Pass light the north to Sanorserg and

**Figure 4.26 FFs 5 Winterhoek Sandstone Fynbos: Western slopes of the Waboomberg covered with extensive sandstone scree—a view from Gydo Pass north of Ceres (Western Cape). The dominant vegetation below the cliffs is FFs 5. Koue Bokkeveld Shale Fynbos with extensive waboomveld (Protea nitida-dominated fynbos) in the foreground along the pass.**

**Note:** L. Mucina
Figure 4.27 FFs 5 Winterhoek Sandstone Fynbos: Proteoid fynbos with stands of Protea punc-
tata in a matrix of restios on the Skurweberg, north of Ceres (Western Cape).

Nuwekloof Pass, including the Witsenberg and Skurweberg (west of Gydo Pass) (which encircle a large patch of FFh 1 KoueBokkeveld Shale Fynbos in the Agter-Witsenberg) to the vicinity of Ceres and including the Gydo, Waboom, Vaalkloof and Houdenbek Mountains in the east. Altitude 350–1 800 m. (The highest peaks of the Groot Winterhoek Mountains bear vegetation of FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos.)

Vegetation & Landscape Features Moderately undulating high plain in the west, with rugged high peaks in the south and southeast, and two linear parallel north-south high mountains in the east, dissected by the Olifants River Valley. The eastern blocks are relatively flat, south- and north-sloping, dissected tablelands. Vegetation is mainly closed restioland in deeper moist sands, with low, sparse shrubs that become denser and restios less dominant in the drier habitats. Proteoid and ericaceous fynbos are found on higher slopes while asteraceous fynbos are more common on lower slopes. Cape thicket is prominent on the lowest slopes.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ic, Fa and Ib.

Climate MAP 370–1 350 mm (mean: 790 mm), peaking markedly May to August. Southeasterly cloud occasionally brings heavy mist precipitation at higher altitudes in summer. This is the wettest of the northern Sandstone Fynbos types. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.7°C and 3.1°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 5 Winterhoek Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


FFs 5 Pietkberg Sandstone Fynbos

VT 69 Macchia (51%), VT 47 Coastal Macchia (27%), VT 46 Coastal Renosterveld (20%) (Acocks 1953), Pikes Mountain Fynbos (84%) (Moll & Bossi 1983), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (86%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 50 Pietkberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (86%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Mainly on the Pietkberg Mountains in a triangle formed by Aurora, Het Kruis and the town of Pietkberg but also on isolated hills to the north of the mountain including Driefonteinberg, Tiensberg, Dassieberg
and Klein Tafelberg. The low altitude boundary lies at 100 m, while the highest coincides with the highest peak of the Piketberg (Sebrakop 1 458 m).

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Large inselberg built of slowly eroding hard rocks towering over the surrounding sandy and shale plains of the West Coast. Mostly steep slopes, with some small plateaus and peaks. Vegetation is mainly closed restioland on deeper moister sands with low, sparse shrubs that become denser and the restios less pronounced in the drier habitats. Asteraceous and proteoid fynbos predominate in rocky areas, and Cape thicket is prominent as well.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land type mainly lb.

**Climate** MAP 320–860 mm (mean: 510 mm), peaking May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.1°C and 5.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–4 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 6 Piketberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

**Important Taxa**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Genera</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low Shrubs</td>
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<tr>
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**Vegetation & Landscape Features** North-facing steep and gentle slopes from foothills to high mountain peaks. The dominant restiolands often have a proteoid overstorey. Asteraceous fynbos found on lower slopes.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly lb and lc.

**Climate** MAP 300–1 800 mm (mean: 750 mm), peaking markedly in April and July. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.1°C and 5.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–4 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 6 Piketberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

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**References** Linder (1976), Moss & Mettlerkamp (1979).

**FFs 7 North Hex Sandstone Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (69%), VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (24%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (82%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (81%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 52 Matroosberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (81%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province. Northern slopes of the Hex River Mountains from Mitchell's Pass near Ceres to Sonknip Ridge extending along the northern slope of the lower-altitude Witberg Ridge to Grootstraat west of Touws River. Altitude 500–1 800 m. (The highest ridges and peaks of the mountains support FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos.)

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** North-facing steep and gentle slopes from foothills to high mountain peaks. The dominant restiolands often have a proteoid overstorey. Asteraceous fynbos found on lower slopes.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly lb and lc.

**Climate** MAP 300–1 800 mm (mean: 750 mm), peaking markedly in April and July. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.1°C and 5.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–4 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 6 Piketberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

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**References** Linder (1976), Moss & Mettlerkamp (1979).
minimum temperatures 26.0°C and 2.5°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–50 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 7 North Hex Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

**Important Taxa**
- **Tall Shrubs:** Protea laurifolia (d), P. repens (d), Leucadendron rubrum, Metalasia muriattifolia, Protea magnifica. 
- **Low Shrubs:** Stoebre plumosa (d), Aspalathus crenata, A. rugosa, A. rupestris, Athanasia elisiae, Dolichothrix ericoides, Euryops onthonnoides, Leucadendron arcuatum, L. salignum, Metalasia phillipsii subsp. incurva, M. rogersii, Paramonas candicans, Phyllica chionocephala, Prisomatocarpus brevilobus, Protea ampelicaulis, P. effusa, P. pityphylla, P. witzenberigniana, Ursinia pinata, Zyperhis pilosella. 
  - Herbs: Edmondia fasciculata, Ursinia sericea. Geophytic 
  - Herb: Ornithogalum estherhyseniae. 
  - Graminoids: Askidisperma capitatum, Calopis marlothii, Elegia filacea, Ficinia gymdomotana, Ischyrolepis laniger, Pentaschistis ampla, P. colorata, P. rosea subsp. purpurascens.

**Endemic Taxa**
- **Low Shrubs:** Erica atrovina, E. cereris, Lachnaea funicaulis.

**Conservation**
- Least threatened. Target 29%. Statutorily conserved (34%) in the Ben Etive, Bokkeriireviere and Ceres Mountain Fynbos Nature Reserves, with an additional 46% conserved in the Matroosberg Private Nature Reserve. Only 6% transformed (cultivation), mostly along the low-altitude edge of the unit. 
- Pinus radiata is an occasional alien. Erosion is very low.

**Remarks**
- The Hex River Mountains are still botanically poorly researched: our knowledge of vegetation patterns is insufficient as most of the area is very difficult to access. The largest blocks of FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos are embedded within this unit.

**Reference**
L. Mucina & E. Penaar (unpublished data).

**FFs 8 South Hex Sandstone Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (96%) (Acoks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (98%) (Moll & Bosi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (97%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 52 Matroosberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (91%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution**
Western Cape Province: Southern slopes of the Hex River Mountains from Mosterthoek Twins southeast of Wolseley to Kleinstraat west of Touws River. Altitude 400–1 800 m. (The highest ridges and peaks of the mountains support FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos.)

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**
Rugged mountainous terrain with steep, high cliffs and steep slopes facing south and deeply dissected down to valley floors, creating some of the most dramatic relief in the country, for example at Baboon Peak. Vegetation is restioid shrubland with proteoid overstorey. Structurally it is mainly proteoid and restioid fynbos, also with some asteraceous fynbos. Ericeaqueous fynbos becomes prominent at higher altitudes.

**Geology & Soils**
Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergrup). Land types mainly lc.

**Climate**
MAP 300–2 300 mm (mean: 955 mm), peaking markedly May to August. Snow regular in winter. Southeasterly cloud may bring heavy mist precipitation at higher altitudes in summer. This is the third wettest type of the Cape vegetation. Mean daily maximum and minimum monthly temperatures 26.0°C and 2.7°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 8 South Hex Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

**Important Taxa**

**Endemic Taxa**

**Conservation**
Least threatened. Target 29%. Statutorily conserved (16%) in the Fonteintjesberg Nature Reserve, with an additional about 10% in Matroosberg Private Nature Reserve. Only very small portion transformed and alien woody plants are rare (Pinus radiata). Erosion very low.

**Remarks**
This vegetation unit has the largest area of Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos (FFs 30) embedded in it. Altitudinal zonation is clearly evident here, as in a number of other ‘mountain fynbos’ units but remains undocumented. For example, Protea punctata stands out as a typical tall shrub.
near the upper limits of this unit (i.e. immediately below FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos).


**FFs 9 Peninsula Sandstone Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (90%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (91%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (93%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU SS Cape Peninsula Mountain Fynbos Complex (100%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Confined to the Cape Peninsula, from the top of Lion’s Head and Table Mountain (Cape Town) to Cape Point and Cape of Good Hope and including Constantiaberg and Swartkopsberge. Altitude range 20–1 086 m at Maclear’s Beacon on Table Mountain.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Gentle to steep slopes, with cliffs in the north, over a 50 km long peninsula. Vegetation is a medium dense, tall proteoid shrubland over a dense moderately tall, ericoid-leaved shrubland—mainly proteoid, ericaceous and restioid fynbos, with some asteraceous fynbos.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup), Lamotte forms prominent. Land types mainly Ib, Ga and Ic.

**Climate** MAP 520–1 690 mm (mean: 780 mm), peaking May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.0°C and 7.2°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year.Southeasterly cloud (the famous “Table Cloth”), accompanied by high wind, brings heavy mist precipitation at higher altitudes to southern and eastern slopes in summer. The region is under strong maritime influence—no part is more than 7 km from the sea. See also climate diagram for FFs 9 Peninsula Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

**Important Taxa** (Wetlands) Small Tree: Leucospernum conocarpodendron subsp. viridum. Tall Shrubs: Metalasia densa (d), Phyllica buxifolia (d), Protea lepidocarpodendron (d), Psoralea aphylla (d), Aspalathus linearis, Erica tristis, Euryops abrotanifolius. Low Shrubs: Anthaspermum galoideus subsp. galoideus (d), Berzelia lanuginosa (d), Clifftoria drepanoides (d), C. ruscifolia (d), C. subsetacea (d), Cryptadenia grandiflora (d), Ellytrypappus gnaphaloides (d), Erica axillaris (d), E. ericoidea (d), E. hispida (d), E. imbricata (d), E. labialis (d), E. muscosa (d), Felicia fruticosa subsp. fruticosa (d), Helichrysum cymosum (d), Leucadendron lauraeolum (d), L. xanthoconus (d), Othonolobium hirtum (d), Penaea mucronata (d), Roella ciliata (d), Saltera sarcocolla (d), Stoebe cinerea (d), S. tusca (d), Syncarpia speciosissima (d), S. vestita (d), Anthispermum aethiopicum, Aspalathus argyreilla, A. aspalathoides, A. callosa, A. commutata, A. corndata, A. crebula, A. ficallyx, A. macrantha, A. pascaloides, A. quinqufolia subsp. compacta, A. retroflexa subsp. retroflexa, A. tridentata subsp. tridentata, Capelio tabularis, Clutia polygonoides, Cullumia ciliaris, Erica benthamiana, E. confolia, E. exleeania, E. hirtiflora, E. lutea, E. multumbellifera, E. parvi flora, E. pluknetii subsp. pluknetii, E. pulchella, E. sessiliflora, E. similis, E. viscosa subsp. viscosa, Eupros opalus subsp. pectinatus subsp. pectinatus, Helichrysum panduriformium, Metala sia brevifolia, Muralita pageae, Osmitopsis arsenicoides, Otholobium fruticars, Passerina truncata subsp. monticola, Pelargonium cuclellum, Phyllica phyllica, Protea cynaroides, Struthiola ciliata subsp. angustifolia, Stylayerus fruticosus, Ursinae paleacea, Witsenia maura, Zyperphelis foliosa, Z. taxifolia. Semiparastic Shrub: Thesium virgatum (d). Herbs: Conyusbium africanum, Indigofera psoraloides, Ursinae nudicaulis. Geophytic Herbs: Arista bakeri, Geissorrhiza aspera, G. bolusii, G. hispida, G. imbricata subsp. imbricata, G. juncea, G. ovata, G. similis, G. tenella, G. umbrosa, Trachyandra hirsutiflora. Graminoids: Anthochoorits crinialis (d), Ehrharta ramosa subsp. aphylla (d), Elegia ebracteata (d), E. hookeriana (d), E. mucronata (d), E. neesiis (d), E. racemosa (d), E. stipularis (d), E. thyrsifera (d), E. vaginaluta (d), Ficinia acum inata (d), F. bulboasa (d), F. nigrescens (d), F. oligantha, F. tri chodes (d), Hypodiscus aristatus (d), Ischyrolepis cincinnata (d), I. gaudichaudiana (d), Pantemaris macrocalycina (d), Platycaulos compressus (d), Pseudopentameris macranta (d), Restio bifidus (d), R. perplexus (d), Saberobra distachys (d), S. vaginata (d), Tetraira flexuosa (d), T. involucrata (d), Thamnochortus frutic osus (d), T. lucens (d), T. obtusus (d), Ehrharta villosa var. vil losa, Ischyrolepis capensis, Pentachisit colorata, Restio dodii, Tetraira cuspidata, T. ligulata, T. microstachys.


Conservation Least threatened. Target 30%. Statutorily well conserved (90%) in the Table Mountain National Park. About 75% transformed (urban sprawl, pine plantations). Acacia melanoxylon and Pinus pinaster are occasional woody aliens. Many local patches of alien vegetation are very dense. Erosion very low.

Remarks This unit is, not surprisingly, the best explored and described vegetation type in the biome due to its locality in the Cape Town metropolitan area and near the University of Cape Town as a major research institution. A finer-scale mapping of the structural-floristic types can be found in Taylor (1984b) and Simmons (1996).


**FFs 10 Hawequas Sandstone Fynbos**


**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Between the Nuwekloof Pass near Gouda in the north to Franschhoek Pass near Franschhoek including the Elandskloof, Hawequas, Slanghoek, Klein-Drakenkloof, Wemmershoek, Du Toitskloof and Stettyns Mountains. Altitude 250–1 800 m. Patches of FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos on some of the few peaks above 1 800 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Mountains with slopes of various steepness, flanks of intermontane valleys and upland plateaus. A band of Cedarberg Shale Formation forms a prominent step at high altitude. Vegetation a low closed shrubland dotted with emergent tall shrubs—mainly proteoid, restioid and asteraceous fynbos with much waboomveld at lower altitudes, ericaceous fynbos at higher altitudes and abundant Cape thickets (especially in the north of the unit) on cliffs and very steep rocky (scree) slopes.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ic and Ib.

**Climate** MAP 530–2 140 mm (mean: 1 200 mm), peaking markedly May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.4°C and 4.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–20 days per year. Southeasterly cloud brings heavy mist precipitation to southern and eastern slopes at higher altitudes in summer. See also climate diagram for FFs 10 Hawequas Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

ciilor, A. filicaulis, A. lancefolia, A. pachyloba subsp. pachyloba, A. perfoliata subsp. perfoliata, A. perforata, A. pinea subsp. caudata, A. quinquefolia subsp. compacta, A. radiata subsp. radiata, A. rugosa, A. ulicina subsp. ulicina, Clutia alaternoides, Diosma hisruta, Elytrropappus glandulosus, Erica benthamiana, E. daphniflora, E. parilis, E. philippisi, E. rigidula, E. ventricosa, Euryops pectinatus subsp. pectinatus, E. rupestris var. dasycarpus, E. rupestris var. rupestris, Gnidia anomala, G. oppositifolia, Leucadendron spissifolium subsp. spissifolium, Leucospermum tottum, Linconia cuspidata, Lobelia coronopifolia, Metalasia cephalotes, M. dregeana, M. fastigiata, M. rhodoides, Paranomus capitatus, Passerina truncata subsp. monticola, Pelargonium cucullatum, P tabulare, Printzia aromaticum, Protea acaulos, P. effusa, P. nana, Psoralena lucida, Rhus scythophylla, Stoebe incana, Thamnea unifolia, Ursinia filipes, U. paleaceae, U. pinnata, U. punctata. Succulent Shrubs: Oslavia deltoides (d), Crassula coccinea. Woody Climber: Secamone alpini (d). Herbs: Knowltonia capensis (d), Corymbium scabrum, Dianthus bolusii, Grammatophyta bergiana, Ursinia oreo. Genoephityc Herbs: Lanaria lanata (d), Mohria cafforum (d), Arieta saffronica, A. capitata, Geissorhiza alticola, G. aspera, G. bolusii, G. confusa, G. grandiflora, G. ovata, G. pseudineaegalis, G. ramosa, G. scillaris, Romulea flexuosa. Graminoids: Anthochortus graminifolius (d), Askidiosperma paniculatum (d), Cannomois parviflorus (d), Chrysitrice capensis (d), Cymbopogon marginatus (d), Euryops speciosus (d), E. neesi (d), E. thyrsifera (d), E. vaginulata (d), Hypodiscus argenteus (d), H. aristaicus (d), Ischyrolepis curvibrans (d), I. gaudichaudiana (d), Neesennbebekia punctoria (d), Pentaschistis eriostoma (d), Restio pedicellatus (d), R. perplexus (d), Staberoha cemua (d), Tetraria crinifolia (d), T. cuspidata (d), T. fasciata (d), T. ustulata (d), Cannomois virgata, Elegia asperifolia, Ficinia distans, F. oligantha, Ischyrolepis capensis, I. sieberi, Mexmuelleria rufa, Pentaschistis curvibrans, Restio filiformus, Tetraria involucrata, Thamnochortus fruticosus, Willdenowia sulcata.


Conservation Least threatened. Target 30%. More than half statutorily conserved in the Limietberg, Theewaters and Waterval Nature Reserves, with an additional 36% protected in the Hawequas Mountain Catchment Area. Only 4% transplanted (pine plantations, cultivation). Local occurrences of alien Hakea sericea and Pinus pinaster are of concern. Erosion very low.

Remarks Like the neighbouring (to the south) FFs 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos, this unit has high specific endemism. Endemic genera include Spetaea (Hyacinthaceae) and Hydroidea (Asteraceae). Empereilegium and Euthystachys are Cape endemic genera shared only with FFs 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos.


FfS 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos


Distribution Western Cape Province: From Franschhoek, Groot-Drakensteinberge and Simonsberg (near Stellenbosch) in the north passing southwards between Gordon’s Bay and Bot River to Cape Hangklip and Kleinmond in the south including the Jonkershoek, Stellenbosch, Franschhoek, Groenland, Hottentots Holland, Kogelberg and Palmietberge Mountains. Altitude 20–1 590 m at summit of Somerset Sneeukop.

Vegetation & Landscape Features High mountain ranges with steep to gentle slopes, and undulating plains and hills of varied aspect. General appearance of vegetation low, closed shrub-
land with scattered emergent tall shrubs. Proteoid, ericaceous and restioid fynbos dominate, while asteraceous fynbos is rare. Patches of Cape thicket are common in the northern areas; in the south similar habitats are occupied by scrub fynbos. Numerous seeps and seasonally saturated mountain-plateau wetlands (locally called ‘suurvlakte’) are very common and support restioid and ericaceous (dominated by Bruniaceae) fynbos.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Deep sandy blankets (white, nutrient-poor acidic sand) develop in depressions and on slopes resisting erosion. Land types mainly ic, lb and gb.

Climate MAP 670–3 000 mm (mean: 1 330 mm), peaking markedly May to August. This region has the highest recorded rainfall in the Cape (see Section 2.4.2 of this chapter). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 24.0°C and 6.1°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. The summit cloud (the ‘Hottentot’s Blanket’) is a regular feature in summer when the Southeaster (part of the global system of trade-winds) brings heavy mist precipitation to the summits and adjacent south-facing and east-facing slopes. See also climate diagram for FFs 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Important Taxa (Cape thickets, Wetlands) Small Trees: Brabejum stellatifolium (d), Widdringtonia nodiflora (d), Heena argentea (d), Leucospermum concarpodendron subsp. viridum, Metrodioseroides angustifolia (d), Podocarpus elongatus (d), Protea nitida. Tall Shrubs: Brunia alibiflora (d), Cliftonia cuneata (d), Diospyros glabra (d), Leucadendron salicifolium (d), Liparia myrtifolia (d), Metalasia densa (d), Myrtes argenteus (d), Protea neriifolia (d), R. repens (d), Psoralea pinnata (d), Aspalathus linearis, A. wildenowiana, Cunonia capensis (d), Erica perspicua var. perspicua (d), Euphorbus abrotanoides, F. serra, Laurophyllus capensis (d), Liparia rafniioides, Myrsine africana (d), Pseudobaeckea africana, Psoralea aphylla, Rapania melanoploeo (d), Rhus tomentosa (d). Low Shrubs: Agathosma ovata (d), A. serratifolia (d), Aulax cancellata (d), Berzelia lanuginosa (d), B. squarrosa (d), Brunia alopecuroides (d), Cliftonia graminea (d), C. hirsuta (d), C. pedunculata (d), C. polygonifolia (d), C. ruscifolia (d), Cullumia setosa (d), Diosma hirsuta (d), Erica coccinea subsp. coccinea (d), E. desmantha (d), E. equisetifolia (d), E. fastigiata (d), E. hispidula (d), E. imbricata (d), E. labialis (d), E. lutea (d), E. muscosa (d), E. parviflora (d), E. pulchella (d), E. similis (d), E. viscara subsp. longifolia (d), Euphorus pinnatipartitus (d), Grubbia tomentosa (d), Leucadendron gandogen (d), L. platyspermum (d), L. salignum (d), L. spissifolium subsp. spissifolium (d), L. xanthoconus (d), Leucospermum oleifolium (d), Myrtes coccifera (d), Nebelia fragranoides (d), N. paleacea (d), N. phaeocephala (d), Osmiropsis asteriscoides (d), Otholobium obliquum (d), Penaea mucronata (d), Phaenocoima proliera (d), Phytolacca anomala (d), Protea cynaroides (d), P. grandiceps (d), Retzia capensis (d), Roella ciliata (d), Saltera sarcoidea (d), Serruria inconspicua (d), Stoebe incana (d), S. plumosa (d), Syncarpia vestita (d), Ursinia paleacea (d), Amphithalia ericifolia subsp. scoparia, Anaxeton asperum, Anthospermum aethiopicum, A. gaeroides subsp. gaeroides, Aspalathus angustifolia subsp. angustifolia, A. aspalathoides, A. attenuata, A. bracteata, A. caledonensis, A. callosa, A. ciliaris, A. commutata, A. cordata, A. crenata, A. cytisoides, A. divaricata subsp. divaricata, A. divaricata subsp. gracilior, A. dunsondiana, A. filicaulis, A. intervalliars, A. macrantha, A. marginata, A. oblongifolia, A. perfoliata subsp. perfoliata, A. perforata, A. pinea subsp. caudata, A. radiata subsp. radiata, A. ramulosa, A. stenophylla, A. tridentata subsp. tridentata, Asparagus lignosus, A. rubicundus, Berzelia abrota- noideis, B. intermedia, Brunia laevis, B. nodiflora, Capelio tabul- laris, Cliftonia atrata, C. exilifolia, Cluta polygonoides, Diastella divaricata subsp. montana, Dolichothrix ericoides, Elytropappus gnaphaloides, Erica axillaris, E. benthamiana, E. corforia, E. corydalis, E. curviflora, E. ericoides, E. exileana, E. interfalla- ria (d), E. massoni, E. odorata, E. petrophila, E. pilosiflora subsp. pilosiflora, E. pluknetii subsp. pluknetii, E. rigidula, E. serrata, E. sessiliflora, E. taxifolia, E. totta, E. transparenis, E. ventricosa, Euryops rupestris var. dascycarpus, E. rupestris var. rupestris, Gnidia pinifolia, Halleria elliptica, Hernias villosa, Hippia plosa, Indigofera glomerata, I. trita subsp. subulata, Klatia partita, Leucadendron laureolum, L. microcephalum, Linconia cuspi- data, Liparia splendens, Lobelia pinifolia, Maytenus oleoides (d), Melasalia brevifolia, M. cephalotes, M. erubescens, M. inversa, M. plicata, M. tenuifolia, Microdendron dubius, Osteospermum cili- atum, Otholobium fruticans, Paronomus sceptrum-gustavianus, Passerina truncata subsp. monticola, Phylica lasiocarpa, Polygala pottebergensis, Prismapatocarpus diffusus, P. schlechteri, Protea angustata, P. lorea, P. scabra, P. speciosa, Rasplia microphylla, R. roella incurva, Serruria acocarpa, S. flagellifolia, S. phylidolae, S. rostellaris, S. rubrcaulis, Spatalla longifolia, S. propinqua (d), S. racemosa, Teedia lucida, Thamnea uniflora, Ursinia pinnata, U. quinquenpartita (d), Zyperphils foliosa, Z. laciocarpa, Z. taxifolia. Succulent Shrubs: Othonna quinquedentata (d), Crassula coc- cinea, Osculacea deltoria, Semiasparitic Shrubs: Thesium carina- tum, T. ericaefolium. Pseudocarnivorous Shrubs: Ronulida gorgo- nias. Herbs: Arctotis semipapposa (d), Carpeco smepermacoa, Centella difformis, C. eriantha, C. viriga, Chironia decumbens, Corymbium congestum, C. glabrum, Edmondia sesamoideae, Helichrysum littorale, Nemisia acuminata, Pseudoleago serrata, Ursinia nudicaulis, U. oreogena, Villarsia capensis (d). Geoaphyct: Herbs: Blechnum punctulatum (d), Lanaria lanata (d), Pteridium aquilinum (d), Schizaea pectinata (d), Watsonia brononica subsp. brononica (d), Agapanthus africanus, Aristea africana, A. capitata, Blechnum capense, Bobartia indica, Bulbinella nutans

Figure 4.33 FFs 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos: Species-rich proteoid fynbos on coastal sandy plains in the Kleinmond Nature Reserve at the Palmit River mouth near Kleinmond (Western Cape), with small trees of Leucospermum concarpodendron subsp. viridum and pink-flowered Pelargonium cucullatum (Geraniaceae).
Tall Shrubs: *Anthochortus crinalis*, *flexuosa* M. *tasparagifolia* Rumohra *adiantiformis* theria (d), *E. sitiens* E. *tatrachela*, *E. lytopodium* Aranearum *anana* subsp. roloma lis, *lis* nubigena ractarum ellipticum egregius paniculatum. Carnivorous Herb: *M. Lichtensteinii*, *M. vulpina* A. *salicifolia* W banksii, *E. cabernetea* W, *E. viscaria* A. *vacciniifolia* Berzelia dregeana, *Klattia flava* Agathosma rosmarinifolia. Succulent Herb: *M. occidentalis* T. *capillacea* Epischoenus quadrangularis Elegia *capensis* E. *teucra* W, *E. retorta* E. *viscaria* A. *graminifolius* W banksii, *Nevillea obtusissima* E. *pycnantha* R. *triticeus* Mimetes *arboreus* E. *ceraria* W. Erica *cristata* Ficinia *acuminata* Galium *rourkei* R. *purpurascens* Willdenowia *humilis* Neesenbeckia, Oreoleysera, Phaenocoma, Saltera. Remark 3 This is the heart of the Cape flora—a true crown jewel of the temperate flora of the world. The species-level endemism is staggering and this unit contains two endemic genera, *Charadrophila* (still unclear whether Stilliaeaceae or Scrophulariaceae) and Glisicrollica (Paeoniaceae). Monotypic genera occurring also outside this unit include Atrichantha, Audouinia, Bryomorphe, Capeobolus, Emeritellidium, Euphystachys, Evotella, Glia, Itasia, Lanaria, Mystropetalon, Neesenbeckia, Oreoleysera, Phaenocoma, Saltera and Witsenia. Endemic Cape genera such as Retzia, Orothannnus, Pillansia and Sonderothamnus are shared with FfS 12 Overberg Sandstone Fynbos. Genera such as Anaxeton, Aulax, Bolusbra, Brunia, Capelio calyptratus, Chrysitrichis, Cliffordia, Diastella, Dilatis, Disa, Elegia, Erica, Euprys, Grubbia, Helichrysum, Herma, Hypocalyptus, Klettia, Liparia, Metalasia, Mimetes, Muraltia, Oldenburgia, Osmotispos, Pristomacarpus, Protea, Raspalia, Restio, Siphocodon, Spatalla, Stavia, Syncarpha, Thamnophyllum, Thesium, Ursinia and Wachendorfia are either remarkably species-rich in this unit or have most of the

Endemic Taxa ([Wetlands] Small Tree: Memites arboresus. Tall Shrubs: Protea stokoei (d), Aspalathus globosa, A. stokoei, Cliftonia heterophylla, Liparia calycina, Memites hottentoticus, Orothannnus zeyheri (small population also in FfS 12), Podalyria cordata. Low Shrubs: Berzelia dregaeana (d), Erica cristata (d), E. siliens (d), Leucospermum bolusi (d), Spatalla setacea (d), Ursinia caledonica (d), Acmadenia candida, A. nivea, Adenandra multiforma, Agathosma rosmaninifolia, A. stokoei, Amphithalea bowiei, A. oppositifolia, A. stokoei, Anaxeton leucophyllum, Aspalathus acanthiobola, A. cornua, A. mono sperma, A. salicifolia, A. vacciniifolia, Berzelia ecklonii, Brunia stokoei, Capelio caledonica, Cliftonia hermanothoidica, C. ovalis, C. viridis, Diastella fraterna, D. thymelaeoides subsp. meridiana, D. thymelaeoides subsp. thymelaeoides, Erica amphigena, E. atricha, E. banksii subsp. banksii, E. banksii subsp. comptonii, E. bibax ([Wetlands] E. cabernetae, E. campanularis, E. ceraria, E. chiroptera, E. cincta, E. cuniennis, E. cygnea, E. extrusa, E. foliaecia, E. gysbertii, E. hamerinia, E. hottentotica, E. humifolia, E. intonsa, E. jacksoniana, E. kogelbergensis, E. krugeri, E. lananthera, E. latiflora, E. leucotrichala, E. lycopodiastema, E. macrostoma, E. magistrati, E. multiflora, E. nolotheleana, E. oreophila, E. pageana, E. perlpea, E. pilanisi subsp. ferdvica, E. pilanisi subsp. pillansii, E. pycnantha, E. retorta, E. ribisaria, E. salax, E. squarroso, E. stokeoanthus ([Wetlands] E. stokoei, E. suffultua, E. thomae, E. truncata, E. tubercularis, E. valvis araneearum, E. viridimontana subsp. nivicola, E. viridimontana subsp. viridimontana, E. viscaria subsp. gallum, Eucharis glabra, Euryops indecorus, Glisicrollica formosa, Grubbia rourkei, Heliocephila rossianissima, Klettia flavia, K. stokoei, Leucospermum cordatum, Liparia bonaepaei, L. boucheri, Metalasia confusa, M. humilis, M. lichtensteinii, M. quinceflower, Memites capitulatus, M. stokoei (extinct in wild), Muraltia aciphylla, M. aspalathia, M. asparagifolia, M. capensis, M. chamaepepsis, M. Guthriei, M. hyssopifolia, M. occidentalis, M. paludosus, M. pubescens, M. stokoei, M. vulpina, Nivenia concinna, N. levynsiae, N. stokoei, Osmitopsis glabra, O. parvifolia, Paranonius spicatus, Phyllica guthriei, P. linifolia, P. variabilis, Prismaticarpus cordifolius, Rafnia racemosa subsp. pumila, Raspalia globosa, Senecio speciosissimum ([Wetlands] Serruria deliuvalis, Sonderothamnus petraeus, Sorocephalus clavigerus, S. palustris ([Wetlands] S. tenuifolius, Spathala mollis, S. prolifer ([Wetlands] S. stokoei, Syncarpha lepidoopodium, Thamnophyllum multiformor, Ursinia eckloniana. Succulent Shrubs: Lampanthus middlemostii, L. wordsworthiae, Ruschia lavisi. Semiparasitic Shrubs: Thesium brachygyme, T. quinqueflorum. Herbs: Centella pilosa, Charadrophila capensis, Galium rourkei, Peucedanum triternatum. Geophytic Herbs: Agapanthus walshi, Desa begleyi, D. brevipepeta, Geissorhiza litchlicola, Gildalious neoidixae, Ixia estheruyaenia, Watsonia distans. Carnivorous Herb: Drosera estheruyaenia. Memites littoralis subsp. litoralis, Meteorysis saxatifis, Restio distans, R. fusiformis, R. involutos, R. ruwebergenis, R. verrucosus, Tetraria crassa, Willdenowia purpurea, W. rugosa. Conservation Least threatened. Target 30%. The unit is statutorily well conserved (58%) in the Hottentots Holland and Groenlanden Nature Reserves and especially in the Kogelberg Biosphere Reserve (including Kogelberg and Kleinmond Nature Reserves). An additional 18% is protected in the Hottentots-Holland Mountains catchment area. Some 17% transformed (pine plantations, cultivation, urban sprawl and spread of informal settlements). Aliens Pinus pinaster and Hakea sericea have been targeted for clearing, but remain of concern in some areas. Erosion very low. **Remark 1** Vegetation of this unit was reasonably well surveyed at Kogelberg, Jonkershoek, Jakkalskloof and Haasvlei. Data suggest that this vegetation unit might perhaps be divided into two or three units, but the boundaries are not obvious—Sir Lowry’s and Viljoen’s Passes appear to be the boundary of a northern Jonkershoek subunit, and the Kogelberg subunit may perhaps be further subdivided with a northern Groenlanden subunit separated between the Highlands and Houwhoek Passes. However, at present there are insufficient data to verify this. **Remark 2** In this unit, more than any other, Sandstone Fynbos communities are floristically quite distinctive in that local patches may be dominated by species that are rare in similar communities elsewhere. Matching communities floristically from similar habitats across the region is therefore very difficult. Even structural types vary fromericaceous to restioid to proteoid across matched habitats for no obviously discernable reasons. **Remark 3** This is the heart of the Cape flora—a true crown jewel of the temperate flora of the world. The species-level endemism is staggering and this unit contains two endemic genera, Charadrophila (still unclear whether Stilliaeaceae or Scrophulariaceae) and Glisicrollica (Paeoniaceae). Monotypic genera occurring also outside this unit include Atrichantha, Audouinia, Bryomorphe, Capeobolus, Emeritellidium, Euphystachys, Evotella, Glia, Itasia, Lanaria, Mystropetalon, Neesenbeckia, Oreoleysera, Phaenocoma, Saltera and Witsenia. Endemic Cape genera such as Retzia, Orothannnus, Pillansia and Sonderothamnus are shared with FfS 12 Overberg Sandstone Fynbos. Genera such as Anaxeton, Aulax, Bolusbra, Brunia, Capelio calyptratus, Chrysitrichis, Cliffordia, Diastella, Dilatis, Disa, Elegia, Erica, Euprys, Grubbia, Helichrysum, Herma, Hypocalyptus, Klettia, Liparia, Metalasia, Mimetes, Muraltia, Oldenburgia, Osmotispos, Pristomacarpus, Protea, Raspalia, Restio, Siphocodon, Spatalla, Stavia, Syncarpha, Thamnophyllum, Thesium, Ursinia and Wachendorfia are either remarkably species-rich in this unit or have most of the
extant species of the genus in this area. The unit contains representatives of almost all endemic families of the CFR (or of the Cape Floristic Kingdom) (the only notable exception being Geissolomataceae of the Langeberg). Many of the endemics are confined to vulnerable wetland habitats (mainly seeps) or are found in sheltered rocky habitats such as on steep cliffs. Many species still await formal description.

Remark 4 Shale bands are a prominent feature in the landscape, with areas below the shale band predominantly proteoid fynbos, whereas above the shale band ericaceous and restioid fynbos predominate. It is unclear whether this is due to the Nardouw sandstones being relatively nutrient-poor compared to the Peninsula sandstones, or due to nutrient input from the shale.


FFs 12 Overberg Sandstone Fynbos

VT 69 Macchia (64%), VT 47 Coastal Macchia (31%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (85%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (85%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 13 Springfield Sand Plain Fynbos (25%), BHU 57 Klein River Mountain Fynbos Complex (25%), Bredasdorp Mountain Fynbos Complex (23%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Spread irregularly from Bot River and Hawston in the northwest to the Souteynberg and Bredasdorp in the southeast, including the Caledon Swartberg, Babilonstoring, Kleinrivier and Bredasdorp Mountains and Agulhas hills such as Franskraal se Berge and Buffeljachtsberg. Altitude 20–1 167 m on the summit of Babilonstoring.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Low mountains, undulating hills and moderately undulating plains supporting moderately tall, dense restioid, ericoid-leaved and proteoid shrublands. Structurally these are mainly proteoid and ericaceous fynbos, with restioid fynbos also occurring locally.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup), Houwhoek, Glenrosa and Mispah forms prominent. Land types mainly lb and Gb.

Climate MAP 450–830 mm (mean: 585 mm), peaking May to August. Southeasterly cloud brings mist precipitation to eastern and southern slopes at higher altitudes in summer. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.6°C and 6.3°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 12 Overberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Important Taxa (Wetlands) Small Tree: Leucopseudum conoco
carpospermum subsp. viridum. Tall Shrubs: Protea repens (d), Euryops abrotanifolius, Passerina corymbosa, Protea compacta. Low Shrubs: Erica globiceps subsp. globiceps (d), E. pulchella (d), Phaenocoma prolifera (d), Serruria fasciflora (d), Agathisana sargylicata, Aspalathus angustifolia subsp. angustifolia, A. alpina fasciculata, A. caudenis, A. callosa, A. dunsdoni
a, A. elliptica, A. intervallaris, A. marginita, A. oblongifolia, A. pachyloba subsp. pachyloba, A. psoraleoides, A. quinge


Remarks The Babilonstoring and Kleinrivier Mountains have many local endemic taxa and could perhaps be separated (together with Caledon Swartberg) at the Klein River as a separate unit. There are no reliable data to suggest that the Caledon Swartberg warrants a separate unit, unlike Piketberg and Potberg. More data and further research are needed.


**FFs 13 North Sonderend Sandstone Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (82%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (45%), Dry Mountain Fynbos (37%) (Moll & Bossi 1983), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (83%) (Cowling & Rebelo 1996), BHU 59 Riviersonderend Mountain Fynbos Complex (84%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Northern slopes of the Riviersonderend Mountains from Villiersdorp to Bromberg and Luipersdberg east of Stormsvlei, including Klipberg and Sandberg towards Robertson. Altitude from 150 m, with the highest peaks exceeding 1 600 m (Jonaskop, Pilaarkop and an unnamed peak).

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Gentle to steep north-facing slopes, highly dissected in a few places, with a midslope sandy plateau and extensive gentle lower slopes. Vegetation is an open, tall, proteoid-leaved evergreen shrubland with a dense moderately tall, ericoid-leaved shrubland as understory. This is mainly astereaceous fynbos on the western and lower slopes, but extensive proteoid and restioid dominate the middle slopes. Ericaceous fynbos is restricted to the highest peaks. This unit (in facies with extensive astereaceous fynbos—with emergent Aloe ferox) borders on succulent karoo shrublands at the lowest elevations and to the east. The deep sand habitat of the northern plateau, which runs along the length of the mountain, is a distinctive feature associated with many endemic species.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ic.

**Climate** MAP 250–1 410 mm (mean: 605 mm), peaking May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.2°C and 4.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 7–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 13 North Sonderend Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Endemic Taxa


Conservation

Least threatened. Target 30%. Statutorily conserved (21%) in the Rivieronderend Nature Reserve, with an additional 51% mainly in a private conservation area of the same name. Only 2% transformed by cultivation for protea nurseries and fruit orchards—these being on the deep sand habitat of the northern plateau supporting many threatened taxa. The threat of transformation in this area is serious since none of the deep-sand northern plateau is under formal conservation. Alien shrub husbandry and Haakse veld occasionally occur over about half of the area. Erosion is very low.

Remark 1

The northern slopes of the Rivieronderend Mountains is a poorly explored area. The data of the Protea Atlas Project suggest that the sandstone units FFs 13 and FFs 14 (see below) best form the centre of specific diversity in Proteaceae; especially the genus Serruria is very speciose here. This may well be found to be true of other genera and families after more exploration. Endonema (Penaeaceae) is endemic to the Rivieronderend.

Remark 2

Jonaskop (1 646 m) and the slopes facing the renosterveld and karoo regions to the north have become the focus of observational and experimental research into a range of ecological questions along the elevational gradient. These studies include work on plant functional types, phenology, transplant experiments and predictions of the effects of climate change.

References


FFs 14 South Sonderend Sandstone Fynbos

VT 69 Macchia (87%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (77%), South West Coast Renosterveld (11%) (Moll & Moss 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (79%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 59 Rivieronderend Mountain Fynbos Complex (73%), BHU 18 Genadendal Grass Fynbos (22%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution

Western Cape Province: Southern slopes of the Rivieronderend Mountains from Villiersdorp and Eseljagsberg in the west to Stormsvlei in the east. Altitude from 200 m, with the highest peaks exceeding 1 600 m (Jonaskop, Pilaarkop and an unnamed peak).

Vegetation & Landscape Features

Steep to gentle southern slopes, with extensive cliffs in places. Vegetation a moderately tall, dense ericoid-leaved shrubland with open emergent proteoids. Ericaceous and restiid fynbos most common, with proteoid fynbos found mainly on lower slopes.

Geology & Soils

Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ib, Ic and F.

Climate

MAP 380–1 650 mm (mean: 785 mm), peaking May to August. Southeasterly cloud brings heavy mist precipitation at higher altitudes in summer. Mean daily maximum and minimum monthly temperatures 25.7°C and 4.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 14 Sonderend Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Important Taxa


Endemic Taxa


Conservation Least threatened. Target 30%. Statutorily conserved (40%) in the Riviersonderend Nature Reserve, with an additional 39% mainly in a private conservation area carrying the same name. Only 7% transformed (cultivation, pine plantations). Alien Hakea sericea and Pinus pinaster occur occasionally, the latter in very dense stands between Genadendal and Jonaskop above Riviersonderend.

Remarks To date this vegetation has not received attention from vegetation ecologists and it remains floristically poorly described. The distribution data on Proteaceae (Protea Atlas Project) suggest that the eastern end of this unit has affinities with FFS 16 South Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos, whereas the western edge shares many species with FFs 10 Hawequas ties with FFs 16 South Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos, whereas the latter in very dense stands between Genadendal and Jonaskop above Riviersonderend. The bordering area around Pilaarkop above Riviersonderend.


FFs 15 North Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (47%), VT 69 Macchia (24%) (Acoks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (30%), Dry Mountain Fynbos (30%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (67%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 64 Southern Langeberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (46%), BHU 60 Koo Langeberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (20%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Northern slopes of the Langeberg from the Keerom Mountains near Worcester in the west to Cloete’s Pass north of Albertinia in the east, and to the interior on the Waboomsberg and Warmwaterberg Mountains north of Montagu and Barrydale, respectively. Also includes Aasvoëlberg hills from Albertinia to Mossel Bay. Altitude range very broad, 100–1 800 m, with several high peaks such as Misty Point (1 709 m) and Groothoek (1 637 m), generally higher in the west than the east. FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos on the western peaks above 1 800 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Gentle to steep, north-facing slopes, not much dissected over much of the range. Surface is gently sloping foothills of Waboomsberg, Warmwaterberg and Aasvoëlberg. The Cedarberg Shale Band is prominent in the west, mainly as a smooth-sided valley, along which most of the hiking trails are orientated. Vegetation is mainly proteoid and restioid fynbos, with ericaceous fynbos at higher altitudes and asteraceous fynbos on the lower slopes. Old African surface conglomerates (mapped as part of this unit) on the lower slopes have asteraceous fynbos dominated by Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia. Ravines support Cape thicket, dominated by Buddleja saligna, and species of Pelargonium, Rhus and Salvia.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosols soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly IC, IIB, DB and FC.

Climate MAP 250–1 200 mm (mean: 580 mm), peaking very slightly in winter and with a slight low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.5°C and 4.1°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–20 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 15 North Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Important Taxa (Wetlands) Small Tree: Protea nitida (d). Tall Shrubs: Leucadendron eucalyptifolium (d), Metalasia densa (d), Protea neriifolia (d), P. repens (d), Chrysanthemoides monilifera, Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia, Protea eximia, Psoralea pinnataW. Low Shrubs: Agathosma ovata (d), Diosma tenella (d), Erica anguliger (d), E. hispidula (d), E. melanthera (d), E. rosacea subsp. rosacea (d), E. versicolor (d), Leucadendron salignum (d), Leucospermum calligerum (d), Passerina obtusifolia (d), Phylica pinea (d), Agathosma cerefolium, Anthospermum spathulatum subsp. spathulatum, Aspalathus granulatus, A. inops, A. vulpina, Berzelia galpiniiW, Brunia macrocephala, Cyclopia bowieana, Elytrarpous hispidus, Erica arctilis, E. coarctata, E. cubica, E. tenuis, Euryops pinnatifidus, Gnidia francisci, Indigofera pappei, Leucadendron cordatum, Leucospermum cuneiforme, L. mundii, Lobelia capillifolia, Lobostemon decorus, Metalasia massonii, M. pulcherrima f. pallescens, Mimetes cucculatus, Murtalia heisteria, Paranomas candicans, Penaea cneorum subsp. ruscifolia, Phaenocoma prolifica, Phylica axillaris, Protea aspera, P. Ioniolia, Stoebe aethiopica, S. cinerea, S. saxatilis, Syncarpha milleflora, Ursinia hispida, U. rigidula, Wahlenbergia tenella. Succulent Shrubs: Adromischus triflorus, Crassula atropurpurea var. atropurpurea, Machairophyllum albidum, Oscularia deltoides, Senecio azoides, Woody Succulent Climber, Zygophyllum fulvum, Semiparastic Shrub: Thesium subnudum. Herbs: Lobelia pubescens var. pubescens (d), Centella virgata, Linum gracile, Peucedanum ferulaceum, Polygala refracta, Ursinia nwidicaulis, Geophytic Herbs: Lanaria lanata (d), Aristeia racemosa. Herbaceous Parasitic Climber: Cassytha ciliolata. Graminoids: Ceratocaryum decipiens (d), Ehrharta dura (d), E. ramosa subsp. aphylla (d), Elegia filacea (d), E. galpinii (d), Heteropogon contortus (d), Hypodiscus argenteus (d), H. aristatus (d), H. striatus (d), Merxmuellera decora (d), Pentachistis colorata (d), P. eriostoma (d), Restio filiformis (d), R. inconspicuos (d), Staberoha cernua (d), Tetraphis bro-moides (d), T. flexuosa (d), T. ustulata (d), Willdenowia bolusi (d), Calopsis filiformis, C. rigida, Cannomoid purpuriflora, Ossularia deltoides, P. elegia, asperiflora, Ficinia acuminata, F. lacinia, F. trichodes, Hypodiscus lan-vigatus, H. montanus, Ischyrolepis capensis, I. sieberi, Masteriella purpurea, Pentameris macrocalycina, Pentachistis malouinensis, Restio peculiaris, R. stric-
tus, R. triticeus, Rhodocoma fruticosa, Tetaria involucrata, T. thermallis, Thamnochortus cinereus.


Conservation Least threatened. Target 30%. Statutorily con-
served (13%) in the Boomsmansbos Wilderness Area, with an additional 45% in mountain catchment areas such as Langeberg-ooos, Langeberg-wes and Matroosberg. Some 8% transformed (cultivation). Ailens include Pinus pinaster, Hakea sericea and Acacia mearnsii. Erosion very low and moderate.

Remark 1 The eastern boundary of North Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos has been set at Cloete’s Pass, but could equally well have been set at Robinson Pass. The area between the Robinson and Cloete’s Passes has at least two near endemic Proteaceae (Leucospermum saxatile, Paranomus longicaulis), which extend west of the Gouritz River gap. More data are needed to determine an optimal boundary between the North Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos and FFs 18 North Outeniqua Sandstone Fynbos based on species distributions and associated vegetation patterns.

Remark 2 The coastal range of the Aasvoëlberg, although isolated, clearly fits within FFs 15 North Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos. However, we have tentatively included the southern slopes of the Aasvoëlberg within this unit, pending further investigation.

References Muir (1929), McDonald (1993a, b, c, 1995, 1999), McDonald et al. (1995, 1996).

FFs 16 South Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (51%), VT 69 Macchia (26%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (61%), Dry Mountain Fynbos (24%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LT 64 Mountain Fynbos (89%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 64 Southern Langeberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (56%), BHU 64 Koo Langeberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (30%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Southern slopes of the Langeberg from the Keerom Mountains near Worcester to Cloete’s Pass north of Albertinia, Waboomsberg (north of Montagu), Warmwaterberg (north of Barrydale) and Amandelbosberg (northeast of Heidelberg) Mountains. Altitude 200–1 800 m with several high peaks such as Misty Mountain (1 709 m) and Grootberg (1 637 m), generally higher in the west than the east. FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos on the western peaks above 1 800 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Complex of gentle to very steep, south-facing slopes, not much dissected over most of the range, but deeply dissected in parts. The Cedarberg Shale


Conservation Least threatened. Target 30%. Statutorily con-served (23%) in the Marloth Nature Reserve and Boomsbos Wilderness Area. An additional 54% enjoys protection in moun-tain catchment areas such as Langeberg-ies, Langeberg-oes and Matroosberg. Only 3% transformed (pine plantations, cultiva-tion). Alien Pinus pinaster, Hakea sericea and Acacia meam-siri are found in places. Erosion very low and moderate.

Remark 1 Fire-safe kloofs support afrotropical forest, with the westernmost extent of large forests at Grootvadersbos. There are indications that the MAP modelled in parts of this unit is an underestimate.

Remark 2 There are insufficient data to determine whether the Keerom Mountains (north and west of the Nuy Valley) should be grouped with FFs 8 South Hex Sandstone Fynbos or with this unit. Protea Atlas data suggest strong links to the Hex unit.

Remark 3 We have assumed that the eastern boundary of FFs 16 South Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos is at Cloete’s Pass, based on FFs 15 North Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos. However, this assumption may not be correct, and more data are needed to determine an optimal boundary with FFs 19 South Oeteniqua Sandstone Fynbos based on species distributions and associated vegetation patterns.

References Muir (1929), Kruger (1979), Rebelo et al. (1991), McDonald et al. (1993a, b, c, 1995, 1999), McDonald et al. (1995, 1996).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Mainly on the insel-berg-like Potberg Mountain south of the lower Breede River to Melkhoutrivier, with an extension on to the flats towards Noetzie and an outlier on the coastal flats at Infanta. Altitude from the coast to 611 m on the highest peak of Potberg.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Prolonged, moderately steep sandstone coastal inselberg supporting moderately tall, dense restioid, ericoid-leaved and mainly proteoid shrublands. Proteoid and restioid fynbos predominate, other structural types are rare. Deep kloofs support broad-leaved Cape thicket.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup), Glenrosa and Mispa forms are prominent. Land types mainly Ic, Ib and Fb.

Climate MAP 410–550 mm (mean: 500 mm), fairly evenly throughout the year, but with a low from December to February. Mists covering the ridge are common in summer. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.7°C and 6.1°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 17 Potberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Important Taxa (‘Capet thickets’) Tall Shrubs: Protea nerifolia (d), P. repens (d), Leucadendron eucalyptifolium (d), Aloe arbo-rescens, Diospyros dichrophylla, Eucla polyantha, Euryops
Fynbos Biome


Remarks This is a very poorly explored unit from a vegetation-ecological point of view. Potberg Sandstone Fynbos has floristic links to both Langeberg (to the north), generally the higher altitude species, and to the Overberg sandstone mountains (to the west).

References C. Burgers (unpublished data), L. Mucina (unpublished data).

FFs 18 North Outeniqua Sandstone Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (67%), VT 43 Mountain Renosterbosveld (29%) (Acocks 1953). Dry Mountain Fynbos (48%), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (22%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (74%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 69 Outeniqua Mountain Fynbos Complex (71%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Northern slopes of the Outeniqua Mountains from the Cloetesberg northeast of Albertinia in the west to Vlug se Berg south of Uniondale in the east, and eastwards along the low range north of the N9 road. Altitude 300–1579 m on Cradock’s Berg north of George.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Gentle to steep north-facing slopes, with some intramontane valleys over a 135 km long area. Vegetation is a tall, open to medium dense shrubland with medium dense, medium tall shrub or restioid understorey with scattered, emergent, tall Proteaceae shrubs. Restioid and proteoid fynbos is the dominant vegetation-structural feature of the Outeniqua landscapes, with ericaceous and asteraceous fynbos becoming widespread at higher and lower altitudes, respectively. The lower boundary north of the N9 road becomes more arid as asteraceous fynbos approaches renosterveld. The old African surface conglomerates that occur on the northern slopes, especially west of Robinson Pass—and are mapped as part of this unit—are covered with Dodonaea-dominated asteraceous fynbos.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils (Glenrosa and Mispah forms prominent) derived from Ordovician sandstones of the

Figure 4.39 FFs 17 Potberg Sandstone Fynbos: Proteoid fynbos with Leucadendron xanthoconus and Protea nerifolia on the slopes of the Potberg—a sandstone inselberg in the southeastern Overberg (Western Cape).

Figure 4.40 FFs 18 North Outeniqua Sandstone Fynbos: Ericaceous fynbos with Erica discolor var. hebecalyx and proteoid fynbos (dominated by Leucadendron salignum) on the northern slopes of the Outeniqua Mountains, north of George (Western Cape).
Western Cape Province: Southern slopes of Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ib and Fc.

**Climate** MAP 240–950 mm (mean: 520 mm), evenly throughout the year. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.2°C and 3.9°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence varies around 10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 18 North Outeniqua Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 23%. Statutorily conserved (11%) in the Doringrivier, Ruitersrivier and Witfontein Nature Reserves. Some 14% transformed (cultivation). Alien *Hakea sericea* and *Pinus pinaster* scattered over part of the area. Erosion very low and low.

**Remarks** The western boundary of this unit is discussed under FFs 15 North Langeberg Sandstone Fynbos. The eastern boundary is also more of a transition zone and is somewhat arbitrary in its easternmost extremes. It could be located somewhere between Dieprivier (selected herein) and Prince Alfred’s Pass, and can be refined only when sufficient distributional data become available.

**Reference** Bond (1981).

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**FFs 19 South Outeniqua Sandstone Fynbos**

VT 4 Knysna Forest (80%), VT 70 False Macchia (18%) (Acocks 1953). Wet Mountain Fynbos (48%), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (32%) (Moll & Boshi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (78%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 69 Outeniqua Mountain Fynbos Complex (54%), BHU 71 Tsitikamma Mountain Fynbos Complex (23%), BHU 100 Knysna Afromontane Forest (17%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Southern slopes of the Outeniqua Mountains from the Cloetesberg northeast of Albertinia in the west to the upper reaches of the Keurbooms River where it borders on FFs 20 Tsitikamma Sandstone Fynbos. It includes sandstone outcrops on the lowlands from the vicinity of the Goukamma River near Knysna in the west and Komkromma Point near Nature’s Valley in the east. Altitude from the coast to 1 579 m on Cradock’s Berg north of George.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Gentle to steep south-facing slopes, over a 160 km long area, relatively broad with some moderately sloping intramontane valleys in the west where it is over 10 km wide. The dominant vegetation is a tall, open to medium dense shrubland with medium dense, medium tall shrub understorey—mainly proteoid and restioid fynbos, with extensive ericaceous fynbos on the upper slopes. Some grassy fynbos at lower altitudes, and scrub fynbos in riverine areas. Patches of this unit are not confined to south-facing slopes, but are found on all slopes south of the highest peaks in the range. Thus there are extensive northern slopes in some intramontane valley systems, the most significant of those found in the Doring River Wilderness Area.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosols soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ib, Gb and Fa.

**Climate** MAP 360–1 170 mm (mean: 785 mm), with a slight bimodal winter and a low in December. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.8°C and 4.8°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 19 South Outeniqua Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

color variant ‘speciosa’, E. formosa, E. fuscovaginata, E. gracilis, E. hispidula, E. lanata, E. nabea, E. similis, E. simulans, E. sparsa, E. versicolor, Euryops pinnatifidus, Lachnea diasmoides, Leucadendron comosum subsp. comosum, L. salignum, L. spissatolimii subsp. fragrans, Leucozpermum cuneiforme, L. wittebergense, Linconia alopecuroides, Lobelia neglecta, Memetes cucullatus, Otholobium carneum, Scabiosa prolifera, Phyllica confusa, Protea cynaroides, P. lorifolia, Pseudoboeckea cordata, Relhania calycina, Senecio glastifolius, Stebee alopecuroides, Struthiola eckloniana, Synarcmus paniculata, Ursinia coronopifolia, U. scariosa subsp. scariosa, U. trifida. Semi-parasitic Shrub: Thesium virgatum. Herb: Carpaaco spermaecoa, Centella affinis, C. virgata, Dichocephala integrifolia subsp. integrifolia, Helichrysum felnum, Mairia crenata. Geophytic Herbs: Pteridium aquilinum, Thesium virgatum, Zyrphelis outeniquae, Agathosma alaris, Struthiola tectloniana, Capeobolus brevicaulis. Statutorily conserved (47%) in the pro-Capeobolus flora. Fourcadei torta, folium, folia. Cedarberg Shale Bands were not adequately mapped within this unit due to a lack of proper geological coverage. The eastern boundary is also more of a transition zone and is somewhat arbitrarily taken as approximating the Keurbooms River (for the mountain section). It can be refined when sufficient distributional data become available.


FFs 20 Tsitsikamma Sandstone Fynbos

VT 4 Knysna Forest (58%), VT 70 False Macchia (42%) (Acocks 1953). Wet Mountain Fynbos (33%), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (21%) (Moll & Bossi 1983), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (54%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 71 Tsitsikamma Mountain Fynbos Complex (49%), BHU 100 Knysna Afromontane Forest (19%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution: Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Tsitsikamma Mountains from Uniondale to Cape St Francis, north of the Keurbooms River and south of Langkloof. Altitude 100–1 675 m (at the highest Peak Formosa).

Vegetation & Landscape Features: A relatively low mountain range with gentle to steep both northern and southern slopes of 140 km, with a few high peaks and moderately undulating plains. Relatively broad compared to the other coastal mountain ranges varying from 10–20 km in width. Vegetation is a medium dense, tall proteoid shrubland over a dense moderately tall, ericoid-leaved shrubland—mainly proteoid, restiid and ericoid fynbos, with fynbos thicket in wetter areas.

Geology & Soils: Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup), plinthic catenas prominent. Land types mainly Ib, Ca and Bb.

Climate: MAP 480–1 230 mm (mean: 845 mm), fairly even throughout the year. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.5°C and 5.8°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 20 Tsitsikamma Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Important Taxa: (Cape thickets) Tall Shrubs: Cliftonia serpyllifolia (d), Leucadendron capicicum (d), L. eucalyptifolium (d), L. uliginosum subsp. glabratum, Leucozpermum glabrum, Metalasia densa, M. trivialis, Memetes pauciflorus, Passerina corymbosa, P. falcifolia, Protea eximia, P. mundii, P. nerifolia,

Figure 4.21 FFs 20 Tsitsikamma Sandstone Fynbos: Wet proteoid fynbos with dominant Leucadendron and abundant Erica on the south-facing slopes of the Tsitsikamma Mountains.

Endemic Taxa Low Shrubs: Aspalathus teres subsp. thodei, Erica trachysantha, E. zitikammensis, Felicia tsitsikamiae, Helichrysum outeniquense.

Conservation Vulnerable. Target 23%. Statutorily conserved (about 40%) in the proposed Garden Route National Park (including Tsitsikamma and Soetkraal). Some 33% transformed (cultivation, pine plantations). With scattered alien Pinus pinaster and Hakea sericea. Erosion very low.

Remark 1 Wetter habitats, especially in berg wind shadows east of dissected valleys, support afrotemperate forests. Most of the bigger patches of the forest are positioned on and around the middle levels, and waboomveld and asteraceous fynbos at the top margin of fynbos within asteraceous fynbos, giving way to karoo shrublands and spekboomveld, the boundary being a fire-maintained mosaic of fynbos with karoo shrubland in the more fire-protected areas. Deep kloofs have a thicket with Buddleja saligna as well as various species of Pelargonium and Salvia.


FFs 21 North Rooiberg Sandstone Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (73%), VT 25 Succulent Mountain Scrub (Spekboomveld) (27%) (Acocks 1953). Dry Mountain Fynbos (84%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (92%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 67 Rooiberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (95%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Northern slopes of the mountains of Rooiberg, Gamka and the Amalienstein Ridge-Sandberg-Bakenkop range. Altitude 500–1 490 m on the summit of Rooiberg.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Systems of gentle to steep north-facing slopes, deeply dissected in parts. The Cedarberg Shale Band is prominent in parts. Vegetation is mainly asteraceous (lowest slopes), proteoid and restioid fynbos. Proteoid overstorey often found over restioid shrubland.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly lc.

Climate MAP 160–710 mm (mean: 330 mm), with no prominent peak, but a low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.7°C and 3.0°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–20 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 21 North Rooiberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Important Taxa (‘Cape thickets) Small Tree: Protea nitida (d). Tall Shrubs: Passerina corymbosa (d), Protea repens (d), Diospyros dichrophylla, Leucadendron rubrum, Leucospernum pluridens, Protea eximia. Low Shrubs: Agathosma ovalifolia (d), Elytropappus rhinoceros (d), Leucadendron salignum (d), Phyllica purpurea (d), Protea loriifolia (d), Syncarpha paniculata (d), Anthospermum aethiopicum, Aspalathus granulatula, A. rubens, Cullumia bisulca, Dioctothrix ericoides, Elytropappus glandulosus, Euryops erectus, Felicia filifolia subsp. filifolia, Leucospermum wittebergense, Lobelia coronopifolia, Metalasia pallida, Oedera squarrosa, Paranomus dispersus, Pelargonium tricolor, Phyllica rigidifolia, Struthiola martiana, Ursinia heter rodonta, Wahlenbergia neoergida. Herbs: Centella virgata (d), Gazania linearis. Geophytic Herb: Geissoschiza roseaobla. Graminoids: Ehrharta ramosa subsp. aphylia (d), Hypodiscus striatus (d), Ischyrolepis capensis (d), Mastersiella purpurea (d), Mexmuelleria arundinacea (d), Pentaschistis enistoma (d), Rhodocea fruticosa (d), Tetraria ustulata (d), Thamnochortus cinereus (d), Ehrharta calycina, Elegia galpinii, Pentaschistis collo rata, Tetraria exilis.

Endemic Taxa Tall Shrubs: Freylinia vlokii, Paramorus roode bergensis. Low Shrub: Lotiononis dahlgrenii.

Conservation Least Threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved (33%) in the Gamkaberg, Groenefontein and Rooiberg Nature Reserves, with an additional 25% protected in Rooiberg Mountain Catchment Area. No transformation recorded and aliens Pinus halepensis and Hakea sericea are rare. Erosion very low and low.

Remarks Arid lower slopes at the bottom margin of fynbos give way to karoo shrublands and spekboomveld, the boundary being a fire-maintained mosaic of fynbos with karoo shrubland in the more fire-protected areas. Deep kloofs have a thicket with Buddleja saligna as well as various species of Pelargonium and Salvia.


FFs 22 South Rooiberg Sandstone Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (64%), VT 25 Succulent Mountain Scrub (Spekboomveld) (33%) (Acocks 1953). Dry Mountain Fynbos (66%), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (28%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (95%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 67 Rooiberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (93%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Southern slopes of the mountains of Rooiberg, Gamka and the Amalienstein Ridge-Sandberg-Bakenkop range. Altitude 350–1 490 m on the summit of Rooiberg.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Steep to gentle south-facing slopes, deeply dissected in a few places. Ericaceous fynbos found at high altitudes, with proteoid and restioid fynbos at middle levels, and waboomveld and asteraceous fynbos at the lowest altitudes within the unit. The lower edge with a tendency to patches of restioid fynbos within asteraceous fynbos, being too dry in the central and eastern sections to support proteoid fynbos.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ib and lc.

Climate MAP 250–710 mm (mean: 465 mm), fairly even but with a low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.4°C and 3.5°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–20 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 22 South Rooiberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).
Figure 4.43 FFs 22 South Rooiberg Sandstone Fynbos: Proteoid fynbos dominated by Leucaden-
dron salignum in the Rooiberg Mountains near Ladismith (Western Cape).

Important Taxa

Endemic Taxa Low Shrubs: Anderbergia rooibergensis, Argyrolobium rarum, Aspalathus karrooensis, Asparagus oliveri, Cliftonia concinna, Metalasia tricolor, Selago rubromontana.

Conservation Least Threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved (34%) in the Rooiberg Nature Reserve, with an additional 10% protected in the Rooiberg Mountain catchment area. Only very little transformed. The alien tree Pinus halepensis occurs, but is generally rare. Erosion generally low.

Remarks Vegetation data are from a provisional and structural survey addressing the westernmost regions of the unit. No data exist for the eastern section, which contains the Gamka Nature Reserve. South Rooiberg Sandstone Fynbos forms a partial corridor between fynbos types at a similar aspect on the Swartberg and Langeberg Mountains, and this probably partly accounts for the higher richness of the Klein Swartberg compared to the Groot Swartberg (A.G. Rebelo unpublished data).


FFs 23 North Swartberg Sandstone Fynbos


Distribution Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Stretching 270 km along the northern slopes of the Anysberg, Klein and Groot Swartberg to Slpysteenberg and Resbosrand in the
boundary of the FFs 31 Swartberg Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos at about 1 800 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Steep, very steep, and precipitous south-facing slopes, deeply dissected in parts, of rugged mountain ranges. Vegetation is a medium tall shrubland and heathland. Proteoid and restioid fynbos dominate, with eracaceous fynbos at higher altitudes and scrub fynbos at lower altitudes.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergrroup). Land types mainly Ib and Ic.

**Climate** MAP 170–850 mm (mean: 475 mm), peaking slightly in March, but otherwise even with a low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.5°C and 2.0°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 24 South Swartberg Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. Some 47% statistically conserved in the Groot Swartberg, Swartberg East and Anysberg Nature Reserves, with an additional 35% conserved in mountain catchment areas (Klein Swartberg, Groot Swartberg, Swartberg-ooos). Only very small portion has been transformed. Alien woody species worth mentioning are *Sceletium strictum*, *Berkheya francisci*, *Sutera tenuicaulis*, *Geissorhiza nigromontana*, *Gladiolus aquamanus*, and *Moraea exiliflora*. Succulent Herb: *Crassula peculiars*. Graminoids: *Ficinia petrophila*, *Restio rarus*.

**Remarks** The Klein Swartberg portion deserves to be recognised as a centre of endemism in its own right and should perhaps have been separated as a unit herein. However, at this stage it is not clear how much of this is an effect of altitude, since many near-endemics to this portion have been found at higher peaks to the east, most notably Blesberg (including FFs 31 Swartberg Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos). The logical boundary (based on Proteaceae) is the Gamka River gap. In the west there appear to be few species confined to Anysberg, with one confined to Touwsberg. In the east Antoniesberg shares marginally more species with FFs 28 Kouga Grassy Sandstone Fynbos than with Swartberg and has been linked with the former, although the eastern Groot Swartberg also tends to share many species with the Kouga Mountains.


**FFs 25 North Kammanassie Sandstone Fynbos**

VT 70 False Macchia (77%), VT 25 Succulent Mountain Scrub (Skeerboomveld) (22%) (Acocks 1953). Dry Mountain Fynbos (65%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (74%), VT 63 South & South-East Coast Renosterveld (22%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 70 Kamanassie Mountain Fynbos Complex (77%), BHU 44 Uniondale Inland Renosterveld (19%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: On northern slopes of the Kammanassie Mountains with an extension on to Keurfontein between Dylselsdorp and Uniondale. Altitude 500–1 800 m. (The highest peak of the Kammanassie—Mannetjesberg at 1 955 m—probably supports altimontane fynbos; see FFs 31 Swartberg Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos.)

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Steep to gentle, rugged northern slopes with extensive upland plateau. The vegetate comprises restiolyans, often with a proteoid overstorey. Proteoid, restioid and grassy fynbos present, with prominent asteraceal fynbos. Lower slopes grade into Succulent Karoo at lowermost reaches.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Glenrosa and Mispah forms prominent. Land types mainly lb, lc and Fb.

**Climate** MAP 310–150 mm (mean: 690 mm), even with no peak, but with a low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.0°C and 2.3°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 26 South Kammanassie Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


**Endemic Taxa** Low Shrubs: *Erica annalis*, *E. kammanassiaeae*. Geophytic Herbs: *Bobartia paniculata*, *Romulea vlokii*.

**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved (66%) in the Kammanassie Nature Reserve, with an additional 13% in the Kammanassie Mountain catchment area. Only very little transformed and the only notable woody alien is *Hakea sericea*. Erosion low and moderate.

**Reference** Cleaver et al. (2005).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved (13%) in the Kammanassie Nature Reserve, with an additional 57% enjoying protection in a private conservation area also carrying the name Kammanassie. Only 4% has been transformed. Alien Hakea sericea and Pinus pinaster scattered over large areas. Erosion low. Extraction of water is apparently drying up seepages and springs on the western edge of this unit.

Remarks The southern slopes of the Kammanassie are poorly explored. This unit is clearly related to the Swartberg Sandstone Fynbos units and could possibly have been included within it. However, many of the shared taxa are high-altitude species, with low-altitude species having more in common with FFS 27 Kouga Sandstone Fynbos.

Reference Cleaver et al. (2005).

FFS 27 Kouga Sandstone Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (87%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (76%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (81%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 72 Kouga Mountain Fynbos Complex (44%), BHU 73 Bavianskloof Mountain Fynbos Complex (16%), BHU 74 Cockscomb Mountain Fynbos Complex (16%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Main area from the Dieprivier and the ridge of Bak se Baken in the west, through Uniondale, eastwards along the main chain of the Kouga Mountains (and continuous with some small ridges such as Ouposberg and Dwarsberg to the northwes), interrupted by the thicket of the Kouga River, and terminating in the vicinity of Blouberg. A narrower band occurs along the upper and generally south-facing parts of the Bavianskloofberge on the northern side of Bavianskloof from the Winterhoekberge in the west and continuing up to the gorge of the Groot River. The unit is found at high altitudes (with a southerly aspect) on the main ridge of the Groot Winterhoekberge to the high mountain parts above Uitenhage (e.g. Vermaakskop) and also occurs on some subsidiary high ridges to the south. Also found along the higher and south-facing parts of the Elandsberg as well as on the Van Stadenberg to near Fitches Corner. A narrow band occurs on the southern slopes of the Suuransyberge on the northern side of the lower Langkloof Valley, Kareedouw. Altitude 400–1 758 m (Cockscomb Peak in the Groot Winterhoekberge).

Vegetation & Landscape Features

Mainly long, rounded mountain chains with moderately steep to gentle slopes. The high-altitude slopes support communities dominated by low fynbos. As is typical for this fynbos, the intermediate slopes support three strata, with Proteaceae shrubs forming the dominant tall shrub stratum. Wet, mesic and dry variations occur.

Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from sandstones of the Table Mountain Group as well as quartzitic sandstones of the Witteberg Group (Nardouw Subgroup). Land types mainly lb, lc and Fa.

Climate MAP 270–910 mm (mean: 600 mm), with a slight bimodal peak in March and October. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.3°C and 2.9°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFS 27 Kouga Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


Leucadendron orientale, L. sorocephalodes, Paranomus ester-hyuseniae, P. reflexus, Senecio oederifolius.

Conservation Least threatened. Target 23%. About 40% statutorily conserved in wilderness areas such as the Kouga, Guerna, Groendal, Baviaanskloof and Berg Plaatz as well as in other nature reserves such as Stinkhoutsberg and Lady Slipper and in Longmore State Forest. An additional 4% protected in private conservation areas such as Hankey Stadensberg and in Longmore State Forest. An additional 4% protected in private conservation areas such as Hankey Forest Reserve, Kouga, Sepree River, Sustersdal and Van Stadensberg. About 8% transformed (pine plantations, cultivation). Pinus piniaster, Hakea sericea and Acacia saligna are the main alien woody plants of concern. Much transformed by conversion to grassy pasture by too frequent burning. Erosion mostly low and very low.

Remark This unit also comprises patches of renosterveld vegetation on the heavier soils with higher clay content, which we did not map due to lack of information.


Geology & Soils Acidic lithosol soils derived from sandstones of the Table Mountain Group as well as quartzitic sandstones of the Witteberg Group (Nardouw Subgroup). Glenrosa and Mispah forms prominent. Land types mainly Ib and Fa.

Climate MAP 270–800 mm (mean: 540 mm), evenly throughout the year with a slight peak in March and October–November. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.0°C and 4.2°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 28 Kouga Grassy Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 23%. About 20% conserved in wilderness and conservation areas including the Baviaanskloof, Berg Plaat, Groendal, Guernca, Kouga, Welbedacht State Forest, and in Mierhoop and Stinkhoutsberg Nature Reserves. About 2% in addition enjoy protection in private reserves such as Jumanji Game Farm, Rooi Banke Forest Reserve, Paardekop Game Farm, Thaba Manzi Game Farm, and in Bekosneck, Kouga and Sepree River Private Nature Reserves. Some 9% transformed (cultivation) but in addition much transformed to grassy pasture by too frequent burning. Notable aliens include Pinus pineaster, Acacia cyclops and A. mearnsii. Erosion very low and low, but also high in some areas.


**FFs 29 Algoa Sandstone Fynbos**

**Climate** MAP generally 450–3 140 mm (mean: 1 385 mm), peaking May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.2°C and 7.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 29 Algoa Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


**Conservation** Endangered. Target 23%. About 2% conserved in the Van Stadens Wild Flower Reserve, The Island Nature Reserve as well as in several private nature reserves. More than 50% transformed (cultivation, urban sprawl of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Area). Several Australian Acacia species occur as invasive aliens, but only to a limited extent. Erosion moderate and very low.


**FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos**

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Summits and top ridges from around 1 800 m upwards including patches on Jurie se Berg (Sneuukoppe; 1 930 m), Shadow Peak (1 898 m) and Sneuuberg (2 026 m) in the Cederberg, Sneuukop (2 071 m) in Skurweberge, Groot Winterhoek Peak (2 078 m), Eureka Peak (1 987 m), Medina Peak (1 905 m) and Sneugat Peak (1 884 m), Groot Winterhoek, as well as a series of larger patches along the Hex River Mountains on Mostertshoek Twins (2 030 m), Waaihoek Peak (1 948 m), Mount Superior (1 913 m), Fonteintjesberg (1 989 m), Sentinel Peak (1 939 m), Buffelshoek Peak (2 059 m), Milner Peak (1 995 m), Groothoek Peak (2 099 m), Rooberg (2 209 m), Sonkliprug (2 100 m) and Matroosberg (2 249 m). This unit includes Keeromsberg (2 071 m) situated in the extreme west of the Langeberg as well as Du Toits Peak (1 994 m) in the Du Toitsberg.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** High-altitude summit peaks, generally fragmented and localised, but relatively extensive in the Hex River Mountains. Vegetation in these high-altitude positions is low, open to medium dense restiofynbos, with ericaceous and asteraceous fynbos occurring locally. Proteoid fynbos generally absent.

**Geology & Soils** Skeletal and rocky acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Ic and Ib.
temperatures 22.9°C and 0.1°C for February and July, respectively. Microclimatical measurements at altitudes of about 1 900 m on Waaihoek Peak (Boelhouwers 1998) revealed that diurnal frost cycles range from May to September. The annual precipitation totals 2 488 mm at Waaihoek Peak, 77% of which falls during the freeze/thaw season. Presence of snow estimated to occur on 31 days per year. Unlike on shale (see a note under FFb 2), despite 74 frost days a year at Waaihoek Peak, no evidence in favour of soil needle-ice formation observed. See also climate diagram for FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 29%. Statutorily conserved (35%) in the Cederberg and Groot Winterhoek not included in this unit. This area requirement resulted in all mapped patches reaching an altitude of more than 1 900 m. Other possible candidates (currently unmapped) for this unit include Bokkeveld Tafelberg (1 910 m) and Baviaansberg (1 946 m) in the Kouebokkeveld and the Klein-Winterhoek Peak (1 955 m) in the Winterhoek. The question remains whether vegetation of some somewhat lower mountain peaks such as the Stettynsberge (Stettynspiek: 1 821 m) and Heksberg (1 801 m) in the northern Kouboekkeveld should be classified within this vegetation unit as well.

Remark 2 Some shale bands (Cederberg Formation, Cape Supergrroup) are found at high altitudes, but their vegetation has been mapped elsewhere (FFb 1 and FFb 2).

References Marloth (1902), Linder et al. (1993), McDonald et al. (1993), Taylor (1996).
Vegetation & Landscape Features

High-altitude summit peaks. The patches of this vegetation type are generally linear, trending in an east-west direction. The vegetation is low, open to medium dense restioid fynbos, also with some more localised ericaeuous and asteraceous fynbos. As in FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos, proteoid fynbos is generally absent.

Geology & Soils

Skeletal and rocky acidic lithosol soils derived from Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Narrow shale bands run across some ridges in both the Klein and Groot Swartberg. Land types mainly lc and lb.

Climate

MAP 310–900 mm (mean: 585 mm), peaking slightly in March, but relatively even with a low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 23.6°C and −1.1°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFs 31 Swartberg Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos (Figure 4.21).

Important Taxa

Low Shrubs: Acnadenia teretifolia (d), Anthospermum spathulatum subsp. spathulatum (d), Erica esterhuyseanla (d), E. strigilifolia (d), Spatalla confusa (d), Aspalathus pedicellata, A. rubens, Cyclophia aloepecuroideae, C. burtonii, Helichrysum zwartbergense, Helophila rimbica, Lachnaea buxifolia, L. elsiae, Leucadendron dregei, Otholobium swartbergense, Protea montana, P. rupeicola, P. scolopendrifolia, P. venusta, Raspalia variabilis, Selago pulchra, Syncarpha montana, Tittmannia laxa. Herb: Dianthus laingsburgensis. Geophytic Herb: Watsonia marlothii (d). Graminoids: Cannomois nitida (d), Enharta rupestris subsp. tricostata (d), Elegia filacea (d), Ischyrolepis laniger (d), L. schoenoides (d), Pentameris macr calycina (d), Rhodocoma alpina (d), Willdenowia stokoei (d), Ischyrolepis wittebergensis, Pentaschistis montana, P. rigiddissima.

Endemic Taxa

Low Shrubs: Erica toringbergensis (d), Calotesta alba, Cyclophia aurescens, C. bolusi, Erica gossypioideae, E. hebdomadalis, E. jugicola, E. lignosa, E. oreoogrus, E. roseo loba, Protea prinuosa, Selago esterhuyseanla. Graminoids: Pentameris glucialis (d), P. zwartbergensis (d), Restio papyraceus (d), Thamnochortus papyraceus (d), Staberoha stokoei.

Conservation

Least threatened. Target 29%. Almost the entire area of the unit enjoys protection in conservation areas, including Towerkop, Klein Swartberg, Groot Swartberg and Swartberg-oos. Almost none of the area has been transformed. Hakea sericea can pose some invasion threat. Erosion very low.

Remark 1

There is no abrupt interface between altimontane and other sandstone fynbos types. There is a gradual change between middle-altitude communities and high-altitude communities, both structurally and floristically. More important factors are water-logging, soil depth and rockiness, which determine floristic and structural composition irrespective of altitude. Endemism and dominants are characteristic of the local species pools, with an equal amount of local and regional endemism shared between distinct altimontane sandstone fynbos sites.

Remark 2

A minimum mapping patch area of about 40 ha was applied, meaning that, for example, several small peaks on the Kammanassie Mountains (especially those around the highest point of Mannetjesberg (1 955 m) were not included in this unit. This area requirement resulted in almost all mapped patches reaching an altitude of more than 1 900 m.

References

Marloth (1902), Linder et al. (1993), McDonald et al. (1993).

9.1.2 Quartzite Fynbos

Quartzite fynbos comprises almost 10% of the area of fynbos vegetation, being the third most extensive fynbos group, after sandstone and sand fynbos. Within the Fynbos Biome it is largely confined to the more arid areas. Two vegetation types within quartzite fynbos are the only fynbos types not known to have endemic species.

Unlike most of the sandstones of the Cape Supergroup, quartzites have undergone drastic changes in location over the past 120 million years since the break-up of Gondwana. All coastal remnants (with an exception at Riversdale) and Little Karoo exposures (with the exception of remnants at Montagu and Bethal Dam) have been totally removed by erosion. Exposures on the West Coast were probably well eroded during the Cretaceous. Extensive exposures still occur on the borders of the Tanqua and Great Karoo from Wuppertal to Laingsburg. These are now generally 40 km east of the Olifants fault, 15 km north of the Swartberg fault, and—exposing the Steylerville Karoo—some 35 km north of the Bavianskloof fault.

Quartzite fynbos is not a geological type per se—it is merely named after the Witteberg quartzites on which it occurs most frequently. It is primarily an arid unit, characterised and distinguished from sandstone fynbos by the typically linear nature of the units, and/or by much higher levels of remnant surface clays. These appear to be derived not only from overlying geology, but also from wind and water erosion. Even a rudimentary clay soil is sufficient to exclude fynbos and result in renosterveld or karoo vegetation, except in wetter areas where it has features and species more typical of shale fynbos, and is mapped as such. Quartzite fynbos may occur in very small patches within this environment, usually along scarps and ridges. In drier areas they may be confined to a narrow linear zone (sometimes only
some metres across) at the base of these scarp.

It is probably a historical and topographical accident that almost all Witteberg quartzite exposures now occur in relatively arid areas. Erosion has effectively moved exposures to the inland margins of the Cape Fold Belt. It is generally true that ‘quartzite fynbos’ could equally be described as ‘arid fynbos’. Thus the fynbos on the Witteberg quartzite in the wetter Koue Bokkeveld is grouped with FFq 5 Winterhoek Sandstone Fynbos, and not with the drier FFq 2 Swartruggens Quartzite Fynbos.

Due to its aridity, the dominant communities on quartzite fynbos are asteraceous and proteoid fynbos. Restioid fynbos occurs in quartzitic fynbos, and the fire-protected habitats tend toward Succulent Karoo or Albany Thicket vegetation instead, in the west and east of the Fynbos Biome, respectively. The two eastern units are dominated by graminoid fynbos. Waboomveld is never found to be part of quartzite fynbos.

The drier edge of these communities has not been adequately mapped. Until better data are available we have included the basal Succulent Karoo vegetation within this mapped unit. This extends further up on north facies, is usually absent on south facies, and may occur within areas expected to have fynbos where patches are too small to maintain fire (e.g. where the surrounding veld is Succulent Karoo or Albany Thicket).

Geology & Soils A wide spectrum of different rocks, mostly quartzite, as well as other metamorphosed clastic sediments and minor volcanic rocks of the Stinkfontein Subgroup of the Precambrian Gariep Supergroup. Soils mainly loams or loamy sands. Land types mainly lc.

Climate MAP probably slightly over 200 mm. Fog occurs especially on the western side. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.8°C and 2.8°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–20 days per year.

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Euryops tenuissimus (d), Diospyros ramulosa, Helichrysum hebelepis, Montinia caryophyllacea, Rhus incisa, R. populifolia. Low Shrubs: Elytropappus rhinocerotis (d), Anthospermum dregei subsp. dregei, Asparagus exuvialis, Berkheya canescens, Blepharis furcata, Chrysocoma oblongi.

FFq 1 Stinkfonteinberge Quartzite Fynbos

VT 28 Western Mountain Karoo (69%) (Acock 1953). LR 56 Upland Succulent Karoo (100%) (Low & Rebelo 1996).

Distribution Northern Cape Province:

Central Richtersveld—a narrow belt along the top mountain ridges of the Vanderstepberge (1 366 m) east of Koeboes in the north, Cornelsberg (1 377 m) and Stinkfonteinberge (1 230 m) immediately north of Eksteenfontein in the south. Altitude about 1 100–1 377 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features This unit forms the upper north-south-trending backbone of the Richtersveld. The landscape at the high altitudes above 1 100 m is as diverse as the geomorphology of the longitudinal mountain range. While over long distances it forms a ridge, in other places steep or rounded moun-

tain tops are embedded, separated by saddles and valleys. In other parts, a plateau has been formed, allowing accumulation of soils above bedrock. Therefore, habitat types differ greatly and are controlled by rock structure, overlying soil depth, slope and inclination. Dense shrublands can form where soil depth and rock structure allow water storage over longer periods of the year. Flatter plateau positions on leached quartzite soils can bear open Merxmuellera dura grasslands, while very shallow soils and bare rock support the presence or dominance of leaf-succulent dwarf shrubs.

Figure 4.52 FFq 1 Stinkfonteinberge Quartzite Fynbos: Low grassy shrubland on top of the ridge of the Stinkfonteinberge in the Richtersveld showing a matrix of Merxmuellera dura, Didelta spinosa, Elytropappus rhinocerotis and Lobostemon echioides.

Conservation Least threatened (due to poor accessibility and low economic attractiveness). Conservation target (28%) already achieved since more than 30% is conserved in the Richtersveld National Park, but its southern somewhat mesic part is not formally protected. Grazing is light, with very little disturbance, and erosion is very low.

Remarks Better developed on the Stinkfonteinberge than on the Vandersterrberg, following the northward gradient of increased aridity. Apparently absent from the east-reaching mountains of similar altitude, for example the Rosnytjieberg (1 332 m) associated with an eastward gradient of increased aridity in this area.


*FFq 2 Swartruggens Quartzite Fynbos*

VT 69 Macchia (76%) (Acocks 1953). Central Mountain Renosterveld (31%), Mosaic of Dry Mountain Fynbos & Karroid Shrublands (15%), Dry Mountain Fynbos (4%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 57 Lowland Succulent Karoo (54%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 49 Swartruggens Mountain Fynbos Complex (42%), BHU 36 Koueboekkloof Inland Renosterveld (29%), BHU 78 Tanqua Vygieveld (23%) (Cowling et al. 1999b), Cowling & Heijnis (2001).

**Distribution** Western and Northern Cape Provinces: West of the Cederberg from the Tra-Trabeberg north of Wuppertal, interrupted by the Tra-Tra River Valley, continuing on the high plateau including the Vaalheuningberge, Matjesrivier, Klipbokkberg, Rietriviersberg, eastern Blinkberg, continuing on the Swartruggens Plateau, Vlieberg, Watervalberg, Bavainsberg and Kwarriberg at Karoopoort in the south. Altitude 800–1 800 m. The area above 1 800 m on Bavainsberg (summit 1 946 m) probably qualifies for FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Mountains alternating with broad ridges and plains, supporting medium density, moderately tall, restioid and ericoid shrubland with open, emergent, tall proteoid shrubs. This is a diverse fynbos, with all structural types mainly Ib and Fa.

**Climate** Subarid, winter-rainfall regime with MAP 200–620 mm (mean: 330 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.9°C and 2.7°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–20 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFq 2 Swartruggens Quartzite Fynbos (Figure 4.51).


*Figure 4.53 FFq 2 Swartruggens Quartzite Fynbos: Protea glabra on a quartzite outcrop covered with succulent shrubs (Ruschia, Crassula, Othonna) and annual herbs (Ursinia anthemoides subsp. versicolor) in the Swartruggens Mountains near Op-die-Berg (Western Cape).*
**Fynbos Biome**

Vlok (2002), C. Boucher (unpublished), Western Cape Province: A complex of ridges and parallel ridges in a west-east orientation. Apart from the Witteberg and Elandsberg, this vegetation type consists of nar-

tional 5% protected in Groenfontein Private Nature Reserve. Only 2% has been transformed (mainly cultivation). Erosion generally low.

**Remark** The delimitation of this unit and the neighbouring SVk 2 Swartruggens Quartzite Karoo follows the boundary rules as suggested by Lechmere-Oertel (1998).


**FFq 3 Matjiesfontein Quartzite Fynbos**


**Distribution** Western Cape Province: A complex of ridges and low mountains mostly in the Western Little Karoo extending from Saalberg near Karoopoort and Skulpiesklip in the west to Elandsberg near the Gamkapoort Dam in the east. This includes parts of the Bontberg, Voetpadsberg and Koegaberge in the vicinity of Touws River, the Witteberg south of Matjiesfontein including many ridges between the Witteberg and Anysberg, and the higher ridges north of, and running parallel to, the Klein Swartberg. Also between Ouberg Pass and Gatskraal (Mont Eco) west of Warmwaterberg and on hill summits around Ladismith, including Ladismith Hill. Altitude 750–1 684 m at an unnamed point north of Towerkop.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Low flat mountains and parallel ridges in a west-east orientation. Apart from the Witteberg and Elandsberg, this vegetation type consists of narrow, linear bands surrounded by FFq 2 Matjiesfontein Shale Fynbos and Succulent Karoo vegetation. It is a medium dense, medium tall shrubland, structurally classified mainly as asteraceae and proteoid fynbos, although restioid fynbos is also present. The lower northern slopes in the east, where there is a rainshadow effect due to the Swartberg Mountains, support Succulent Karoo vegetation.

**Geology & Soils** Sandy and skeletal soils derived from Witteberg Group quartzites. Land types mainly lc, lb and Fc.

**Climate** MAP 150–450 mm (mean: 320 mm), peaking slightly from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.5°C and 2.2°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFq 3 Matjiesfontein Quartzite Fynbos (Figure 4.51).


**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved in the Anysberg Nature Reserve (5%) and a further 3% in Vaalkloof Private Nature Reserve. Only about 15% has been transformed (cultivation). Erosion low and moderate.

**Remarks** This little known vegetation requires detailed study. The southern outliers (largely unknown) near Bellair Dam (the lowest MAP in the basin of the Little Karoo) may comprise a separate unit, being biogeographically allied to the Warmwaterberg and Waboombes. Similarly, the outliers around Ladismith are currently unknown and their affiliation with this unit is speculative. The northernmost border with Succulent Karoo on quartzite is largely unknown and has not been accurately mapped, except at a few mountain passes, from which it has been extrapolated.


**FFq 4 Breede Quartzite Fynbos**

VT 26 Karroid Broken Veld (52%) (Acocks 1953). Central Mountain Renosterveld (46%), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (23%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 61 Central Mountain Renosterveld (51%), LR 58 Little Succulent Karoo (25%), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (23%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 38 Ashton Inland Renosterveld (60%), Robertson Broken Veld (29%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Southern Breede River Valley from the Brandvlei Dam at Die Nekkies near Worcester to northeast of Bonnievale, but with by far the largest extent on the Hammansberg, Ouhangsberge,
Gannaberg, Gannaberg and Rooiember. Altitude 200–876 m on the summit of Gannaberg.

Vegetation & Landscape Features A single range of parallel ridges and flat-topped hills in the west, and high hills and low mountains in the east. The vegetation is an open tall shrubland in a medium dense, medium tall shrub matrix, structurally classified as asteraceous, res- tioid and proteoid fynbos. Northern slopes tend to support karoo shrublands, especially at lower reaches.

Geology & Soils Sandy and skeletal soils (Glenerosa and Misph forms prominent) derived from Witteberg Group quartzites. Land types mainly lc and Fb.

Climate MAP 190–550 mm (mean: 320 mm), peaking slightly from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.6°C and 4.7°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 5–8 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFq 4 Breede Quartzite Fynbos (Figure 4.51).

Important Taxa Small Tree: Protea nitida (d). Tall Shrubs: Protea repens (d), P. launifolia. Low Shrubs: Diosma ramosissima, Leucadendron salignum (d), L. teretifolium, Leucospermum cal-ligerum, L. utriculosum (Robertson form), Protea humiflora, P. restionifolia, Serruria acrocarpa.

Endemic Taxa Low Shrubs: Erica boucheri, Lobostemon gracilis.

Conservation Least threatened. Target 30%. Only very small portion statutorily conserved in the Vrolijkheid Nature Reserve, but 9% enjoys protection in the Quaggas Berg and Drooge Riviers Berg Private Nature Reserves. Some 6% has been transformed (cultivation). No aliens are found at significant densities, although Hakea sericea is prominent in places. Erosion very low and moderate.

Remarks This is a very poorly known unit related to FFs 13 North Sonderend Sandstone Fynbos, and perhaps best consi- dered as part of it, but markedly more arid and typically linear. At present its delimitation is largely based on the occurrence of Proteaceae. The karoo shrublands on the northern slopes at lower reaches have simply been mapped as fynbos as their lower limits are unknown and their communities are different to Succulent Karoo shrublands on shales.


Figure 4.55 FFq 5 Grootrivier Quartzite Fynbos: Dry fynbos on the ridges of the Grootrivier Mountains, north of Steytlerville (Eastern Cape).

FFq 5 Grootrivier Quartzite Fynbos

VT 25 Succulent Mountain Scrub (Spekboomveld) (61%), VT 70 False Macchia (28%) (Acoccks 1953). Dry Grassy Fynbos (25%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 8 Spekboom Succulent Thicket (49%), LR 65 Grassy Fynbos (22%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 98 Willowmore Xeric Succulent Thicket (56%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Ridges north of the Groot Swartberg and Baviaanskloof Mountains, from Prince Albert to Wolwefontein west of Kirkwood, but mainly in the Grootrivierberge mostly north of the Groot River between Willowmore and Steytlerville as well as on the adjoining Witteberg north of the Grootrivierberge. Generally a very narrow strip (< 1 km wide) west of the Boesmanspoortberg at Willowmore. Separated from the most easterly quartzite fynbos unit (FFq 6 Suurberg Quartzite Fynbos) by the Wolwefontein- Baroe Valley. Altitude 650–1 579 m on the summit of the Witteberg.

Vegetation & Landscape Features A series of narrow parallel scarp, much broader, higher and more extensive in the west at Witberg. Typical vegetation is a medium dense, moderately tall, restiid and ericoid shrubland dotted with emergent, tall proteoid shrubs in the wetter west, and containing more grassy elements in the east. Proteoid fynbos is confined to the higher peaks, with asteraceous fynbos the dominant component in the west and grassy fynbos in the east. The northern edge is primarily determined by Spekboomveld, and the southern edge by other Albany Thicket communities. Grasses are relatively abundant, especially on northern slopes.

Geology & Soils Sandy and skeletal soils, often red-yellow, apedal and shallow, derived from Witteberg Group quartzite. Land types mainly Ib, Ag and lc.

Climate MAP 160–560 mm (mean: 330 mm), peaking in March, with a low from June to September. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 30.1°C and 1.4°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFq 5 Grootrivier Quartzite Fynbos (Figure 4.51).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 23%. None conserved in statutory conservation areas and only 1% protected in Timbili Game Reserve. Only very small portion has been trans-
formed, incidence of alien flora is insignificant. Erosion low and very low.

Remarks This is a very poorly explored vegetation type. This unit could, based on edaphic criteria, be more widespread than it is at present, but the extent of suitable habitat complex is too small to support fires and too linear to allow their spread. Consequently, much of the quartzites is covered by dense Albany Thicket vegetation. Judging from the extent of the remnants, the unit must have been much more extensive in the past.


FFq 6 Suurberg Quartzite Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (64%) (Acocks 1953). Valley Bushveld (64%), Dry Grassy Fynbos (22%) (Moll & Bossi 1983), LR 65 Grassy Fynbos (37%), LR 6 Xeric Succulent Thicket (28%) (Low & Rebelo 1996), BNU 23 Suurberg Grassy Fynbos (12%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Eastern Cape Province: From Baroe in the west along the Kleinwinterhoekberge, the Suurberg north of Kirkwood, multiple ridges in the vicinity of Somerset East and Alicedale, immediately south of Grahamstown some slopes and hills, e.g. Signal Hill to the Kaprivierberge east of Grahamstown. Altitude 350–1 010 m at the highest point in the Kleinwinterhoekberge.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Low rounded hills and mountains supporting low to medium high, ericoid shrubland or grassland, with closed restioid and/or grass understorey. Grassy fynbos is the most typical structural type, with localised patches of dense proteoid and ericaceous fynbos. On drier, north-facing slopes grassland replaces this unit, but the south-facing slopes always carry fynbos unless converted to grassland by over-burning, or to thicket by over-protection from fire. Thicket is found on the richer soils at the base of the formation and in gullies.

Geology & Soils Sandy soils, predominantly Glenrosa and Mispah forms, derived from Witteberg Group quartzite. Land types mainly Fa, Fb and Ib.

Climate MAP 220–820 mm (mean: 545 mm), peaking bimodally from October–November and February–March. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.7°C and 4.7°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFq 6 Suurberg Quartzite Fynbos (Figure 4.51).


Endemic Taxa Small Tree: *Oldenburgia grandis* (d). Low Shrubs: *Euryops hypnoideae*, *E. polytrichoides*.

Conservation Least threatened. Target 23%. Statutorily conserved in the Greater Addo Elephant National Park (15%), with an additional 16% protected in the private Rockdale Game Ranch and Frontier Safaris Game Farm. Only 1% has been transformed (cultivation), but over-burning (occurring quite frequently) resulting in conversion of fynbos to grassland should be considered as transformation as well. Erosion moderate and very low.

Remarks Historically, there has been no obvious attempt to separate fynbos on quartzite and shale in this region. Protea Atlas data suggest that there may be a separation, but the lack of references in the literature suggests that any such differ-

Figure 4.56 FFq 6 Suurberg Quartzite Fynbos: Quartzite ridge southwest of Grahamstown [Eastern Cape] with grassy fynbos with enigmatic local endemic tree daisy Oldenburgia grandis [Asteraceae].

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ences are not obvious. Hence the proper delimitation of FFq 6 Suurberg Quartzite Fynbos and FFq 10 Suurberg Shale Fynbos remains a challenge.


### 9.1.3 Sand Fynbos

Sand fynbos is the second largest unit accounting for 15% of the area of Fynbos. It is almost entirely coastal, occurring on Quaternary and Tertiary sands of marine and aeolian origin. Deep sand on the West and South Coasts reflects a broad soil-reaction gradient—spanning acidic, neutral to alkaline. All alkaline sands on the West Coast support strandveld, and on the South Coast they carry either thicket (strandveld) or dune fynbos, depending on the underlying topography and fire regime. With time the sands become leached and are invaded by sand fynbos, which should therefore strictly be called `acid sand fynbos', although some communities may also occur on soils of neutral reaction (pH 6–7). The dominant structural type of sand fynbos depends on the water table. Where water tables are deep (access to rainfall is only in winter), restio fynbos dominates, usually with marked absence of shrubs. Where the water table is more accessible, asteraceous fynbos may occur, usually dominated by species of *Pasarina* and *Phyllica*. This type usually has a marked spring-flowering component, comprising both annuals and geophytes. At relatively shallow and non-fluctuating water tables proteoid fynbos dominates—one with a more closed canopy and relatively fewer annuals and geophytes. Depending on water depth, soil fertility and topography, different communities within these types can be distinguished.

Ericaceous fynbos is relatively localised and rare, especially to the north, and is associated with seeps and peaty soils.

On the aridity gradient to the north, the West Coast, Ericaceae are the first to disappear, so that only FFD 5 Cape Flats Sand Fynbos and FFD 4 Atlantis Sand Fynbos retain a marked ericaceous component. Proteoids drop out next, and the restiod component is the most persistent, but diminishes as cover gets too sparse to support fire. Stands of Restionaceae persist beyond the fire margin in dune slacks where the water table prevents shrub growth by fluctuating from waterlogged in winter to rather dry in summer (and strandveld persists on the dunes and their crests). A curious exception to the role of fire in fynbos occurs in the FFq 1 Namakuland Sand Fynbos, where Proteaceae persist on moving dune ridges, with restios in dune slacks, where sands are acidic and water tables shallow. Regeneration of proteoids occurs in deflation hollows and most populations are dominated by gnarled, senescent plants.

The boundary of sand fynbos with strandveld is a dynamic one, powered both by sparseness of the vegetation not supporting fire and by dune topography. However, the boundary is a broad one and probably relates to a diminishing return time between fires as one approaches true strandveld. The boundary is often appreciably broader, with adjacent strandveld communities dominated by succulent species, than those dominated by thicket elements. Usually thicket elements are confined to fire-safe environments of dunes, old deflation hollows and emergent rock outcrops.

A gradation occurs from proper sand fynbos inland, to transitional communities, and further to proper strandveld at the coast. The intermediate habitats are dominated by those fynbos species (chiefly Asteraceae and Restionaceae including *Elegia*, *Thamnochortus* and *Wildenowia*) that are able to grow

**Figure 4.57** Climate diagrams of sand fynbos units. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days; MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress.
in very infrequently burned habitats. The margin mapped here tends to be the strandveld (coastal) end of the mosaic of intermediate communities. Fynbos stops at any dune topography, often not very prominent, which retards the spread of fire. Similarly, scarps adjacent riverine or wetland vegetation often support strandveld. Where the topography is flat, acid sands, and thus sand fynbos, may approach the beach cordon, but this is rare. The width of the ecotone from pure strandveld to pure fynbos may vary from quite abrupt to 2–5 km in certain areas. In the wider zones, several zones of transitional communities may be apparent, typically being species-poor and dominated by *Willdenowia incurvata* and a few other species (e.g. *Erioccephalus africanus*, *Wiborgia obcordata*). The strandveld boundary of these ecotone communities is more accurately mapped as adjacent succulent-dominated thicket. With thicket-dominated strandveld, fine-scale patterns may result in a mosaic with pockets of strandveld and patches of fynbos embedded in the dominant vegetation type, at a scale too fine to map.

The proneness of sand fynbos to invasion by alien annual grasses—in marked contrast to other fynbos vegetation types—suggests some important, but poorly understood, ecosystem processes operating in the system. One possibility is that grazing is more important and that it is required to remove ephemeral species, especially after fire. This is paralleled by the restoration problem occurring after alien *Acacia* invaders have been removed, whereby the shrubland is effectively converted to an *Eragrostis* or *Cynodon* grassland—due to the increased nitrogen levels—preventing re-establishment of shrubs. Possibly this may relate to the relatively sedentary water table which does not flush nutrients downslope, but retains them in the system. The net effect in grazed areas is a conversion to grassland, with near-annual fires, which eliminate fynbos. In areas where fire is prevented, a stable-state grassland appears to persist and recolonisation by fynbos species from the edges is very slow (metres per fire cycle), suggesting that recruitment rather than seed availability is the problem to fynbos recolonisation.

With liming and bush-cutting, sand fynbos can be converted to pasture, especially on the South Coast, and especially on more neutral soils. Any such conversion leads to an explosion of mole rat (*Bathyergus suillus*) populations, underscoring their importance in sand fynbos and suggesting a possible key role in this system. Sand fynbos is often subject to bush-cutting and converted from proteoid fynbos to restioid fynbos by the thatching industry. Because of its low relief, sand fynbos might be expected to be heavily impacted by increased evaporation and lower rainfall when the effects of global climate change are realised.

**FFd 1 Namaqualand Sand Fynbos**

VT 31 Succulent Karoo (72%), VT 34 Strandveld of West Coast (24%) (Acocks 1953). LR 57 Lowland Succulent Karoo (78%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 77 Knersvlakte Vygieveld (37%) (Cowing et al. 1999b, Cowing & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western and Northern Cape Provinces: Coastal plains with a well-separated patch between Kommagas and Koingnaas in the north, and a series of patches south of the Spoog River, to the Olifants River near Koekenaap extending to close (around 2 km) to the coast at places, for example near Geelwal and Ruitersvlei. Altitude 60–300 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Slightly undulating plains comprising both isolated streets and dune fields of aeolian sand. Scattered 1–1.5 m tall shrubs 1–3 m in diameter, but dominated by Restionaceae in between, can have a dense canopy cover (50%), but is easily overgrazed to a sparse cover (20%). Restioid and asteraceous fynbos predominate, with localised pockets of proteoid fynbos. There are substantial differences between dune ridges and dune slacks, with dune slacks far more succulent, often tending to Succulent Karoo, and a much higher diversity than surrounding strandveld habitats. Ericaceae are absent, proteoids seldom numerically important, and restioids often dominant. Related to FFd 2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos south of the Olifants River, mainly due to the dominance of *Willdenowia incurvata* and the presence of proteoids, but Namaqualand Sand Fynbos has fewer species and less cover.

**Geology & Soils** Aeolian, deep, loose, red sand overlying marine or other sediments. Land types mainly Ah, Hb and Ai.

**Climate** Winter-rainfall regime, with very low precipitation (MAP 70–150 mm; mean: 105 mm), peaking between May and August. This is the driest of all fynbos types, with less than half the rainfall of the driest classical sand fynbos types, and almost qualifying as desert but with probably multiple alternative sources of water. Dense mists are common in winter and may contribute significantly to precipitation. Thicker deposits of sand (dunes) allow for water storage and some localised water aquifers occur. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.4°C and 7.0°C for February and July, respectively. Very low frost incidence (1 or 2 days per year). See also climate diagram for FFd 1 Namaqualand Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).


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**Figure 4.58 FFd 1 Namaqualand Sand Fynbos: Leucospermum praemorsum (Proteaceae) and restio Willdenowia incurvata on old inland dunes of Namaqualand Sandveld supporting relicts of fynbos, east of Hondeklipbaai (Northern Cape).**


**Endemic Taxa** Succulent Shrub: *Lampranthus procumbens*. Geophytic Herbs: *Albuca decipiens*, *Babiana brachystachys*.

**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 29%. At present only 1% statutorily conserved (Namaqua National Park), but proclamation of the proposed new national park at the coast between the mouths of the Groen and Spoeg Rivers may extend the area under protection. About 2% has been transformed for cultivation. The area is subject to extensive sheep grazing on some farms. Aliens *Acacia cyclops* and *A. saligna* occur as scattered. Erosion very low at present, but heavy grazing can lead to re-mobilisation of the stabilised dunes.

**Remarks** These dune fields are probably the leached remnants of northerly dune plumes originating from the major river mouths during pluvial periods. At the northern limits of these dune plumes dominant proteoids are usually senescent and recruitment occurs on the dunes in deflation hollows and bare areas after the death of old plants. These areas are too arid to support fire. This is the only known case of nonfire-maintained fynbos (other than waterlogged dune slacks in strandveld, where restios occur as ‘sedge’ communities).


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**FFd 2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos**

VT 34 Strandveld of West Coast (71%) (Acock 1953). West Coast Strandveld (16%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 68 Sand Plain Fynbos (43%), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (25%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 10 Leipoldtville Sand Plain Fynbos (47%), BHU 83 Lamberts Bay Strandveld (15%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: On the coastal plains on either side of the Olifants River to Aurora and extending deep inland to the foot of the Graafwater Mountains and Piketberg. It also occurs in the Olifants River Valley from the Bulshoek Dam to The Baths (Keerom), with a gap between Klawer Vlei and Sandkop. Outliers are found scattered in the Swartveld from Het Kruis to the vicinity of Porterville. Altitude 50–350 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Plains, slightly rolling in places, covered with shrublands with an upper open stratum of emergent, 2–3 m tall shrubs in clumps. The vegetation matrix is formed by fairly dense, 1–1.2 m tall restioliands, with numerous medium tall to low shrubs scattered in between. Understorey with a conspicuous winter to spring herbaceous complement of annuals and geophytes occurs in years with good rain. Structurally, these are mainly restioid and astera-

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**Geology & Soils** Deep, acid, Tertiary sands, generally pale yellow to reddish brown, or grey. Land types mainly Ai, Hb, and Ca.

**Climate** Winter-rainfall regime with precipitation peaking from May to August. MAP 130–450 mm (mean: 260 mm). Dense mists are common in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 30.2°C and 6.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3 or 4 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFd 2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).


**Endemic Taxa** Low Shrubs: *Agathosma insignis*, *A. involu- crata*, *Aspalathus rostąpietala*, *Erica dregie*, *Leucadendron brunioides* var. *flumenlupinum*, *Leucospermum arenarium*, *Lotononis racemiflora*, *Manuela pillansii*, *Selago hetero-

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**Figure 4.59 FFd 2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos**: Arid proteoid fynbos with *Leucadendron pubescens* and restios dominant on deep sands near Verlorenvlei on the West Coast (Western Cape).

Conservation Endangered. Target 29%. At present none of the unit is conserved in statutory or private conservation areas, which is alarming since 55% has already undergone transformation, including cultivation (primarily potatoes, rooibos) with central pivot irrigation, and pastures. Water extraction for central pivot irrigation and other agricultural uses is reputedly drying out this vegetation type. Alien Acacia saligna and A. cyclops are a problem. Erosion very low.

Remarks The southern boundary is not clear-cut and, being transitional, could justifiably be taken at the Berg River, the area where some elements are shared with Ffd 3 Hopefield Sand Fynbos. The northern boundary is very diffuse and becomes progressively arid, gradually grading into SKs 7 Namaqualand Strandveld. Heuweltjies occur on shallower sands and support karoo shrublands (Didelta spinosa, Rhus dissecta, Tetragonia fruticosa, Zygophyllum morgansana).


FFd 3 Hopefield Sand Fynbos


Distribution Western Cape Province: West Coast lowlands from Aurora to Rondeberg, just south of Yzerfontein, with an outlier in the Strandveld at Kleinberg north of Langebaanweg. Altitude 20–150 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Coastal sand plains, flat to undulating, and also including localised inland dune fields. Vegetation is a moderately tall, ericoid-leaved shrubland with dense herbaceous stratum of aphyllous hemicyrptophytes. This is mostly asteraceous and restioid fynbos, although proteoid fynbos is extensive and ericaceous fynbos occurs in seeps and along watercourses. Hopefield Sand Fynbos has all three typical fynbos elements, but with a paucity (in species richness and density) of Ericaceae. This unit is most diverse in the Hopefield area, where extensive stands of Leucadendron foedum, Leucospermum rodolentum and Serruria fucifolia are dominant.

Geology & Soils Deep, acid, tertiary sands, generally grey regic sands, sometimes pale yellow to reddish brown. Land types mainly Hb, Ha and Db.

Climate MAP 210–430 mm (mean: 325 mm), peaking from May to August. Mists common in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.3°C and 7.1°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3 or 4 days per year. See also climate diagram for Ffd 3 Hopefield Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Leucadendron foedum (d), Leucospermum rodolentum (d), Leucadendron pubescens, Putterlckia pyracantha. Low Shrubs: Diosma hirsuta (d), Phyllica cephalantha (d), Anaxeton asperum, Anthospermum spathulatum subsp. spathalatum, Aspalathus lotoidea subsp. lagopus, A. ternata, Erica mammosa, E. plumosa, Leucadendron cinereum, L. salignum, Leucospermum hypophyllocaurapodendron subsp. canaliculatum, Metalasia capitata, Pharmaceum lanatum, Phyllica harveyi, Serruria decipiens, S. fucifolia, Trichocephalus stipularis. Succulent Shrub: Euphorbia muiri. Herbs: Helichrysum tinctum, Indigofera procumbens, Knowltonia vesicatoria. Geophytic Herbs: Geissorhiza purpurascens, Lachenalia reflexa, Romulea obscura. Graminoids: Cannomosis parviflora (d), Cynodon dactylon (d), Ehrharta villosa var. villosa (d), Elegia lactuca (d), Staberoha cernua (d), Thamnochortus erectus (d), T. punctatus (d), Willdenowia incurvata (d), Elegia verreauxii.


Conservation Endangered. Target 30%. Very small portion statutorily conserved in the West Coast National Park, with an additional 2% protected in Hopefield and Jakkalsfontein Nature Reserves. Already 40% transformed for cultivation (especially cash crops) and grazing land. Increased occurrence of aliens such as Acacia saligna, A. cyclops as well as various species of Pinus and Eucalyptus is of concern. Erosion very low. Local farmers claim that water extraction is drying out rivers, marshes and wetlands.

Remarks The northern boundary of this unit grades into Ffd 2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos between the Berg River and Aurora; the mapped boundary coincides with the distribution limits of most proteoid elements. On pockets of limestone, usually associated with higher relief and on the coastal edge on alkaline sands, this sand fynbos acquires strandveld elements and is replaced by FS 3 Saldanha Flats Strandveld. On the inland border, it forms mosaics with FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld as the sand thins out over the shale—most of these communities have been ploughed up for wheatlands.

FFd 4 Atlantis Sand Fynbos

VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (64%) (Acocks 1953). Sand Plain Fynbos (22%) (Moll & Boss 1983). LF 68 Sand Plain Fynbos (73%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 11 Hopfeild Sand Plain Fynbos (64%) (Cwoling et al. 1999b, Cwoling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Rondeberg to Blouberg on the West Coast coastal flats; along the Groen River on the eastern side of the Dassenberg-Darling Hills through Riverlands to the area between Atlantis and Kalbaskraal, also between Kliphuewel and the Paardeberg with outliers west of the Berg River east and north of Riebeek-Kasteel between Hermon and Heuningberg. Altitude 40–250 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Moderately undulating to flat sand plains with a dense, moderately tall, ericoid shrubland dotted with emergent, tall sclerophyllous shrubs and an open, short restiostratium. Restiot and proteoid fynbos are dominant, with asteraceous fynbos and patches of ericaceous fynbos in seepages.

Geology & Soils Acidic tertiary, grey regic sands, usually white or yellow. Land types mainly Db, Ha, Hb and Ca.

Climate Winter-rainfall regime with precipitation peaking from May to August. MAP 290–660 mm (mean: 440 mm). Mists (fogs) common in winter and supplying additional precipitation. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.9°C and 7.0°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFd 4 Atlantis Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).

Important Taxa (Cape thickets) Tall Shrubs: Diasyporum glabra (d), Euclea racemosa subsp. racemosa (d), Metalasia densa (d), Passerina corymbosa (d), Protea burchelli (d), P. repens (d), Putterlickia pyracantha (d), Rhus laevigata (d), Gymnospora buxifolia, Hymenolepis parviflora, Wiborgia obcordata. Low Shrubs: Anthospermum aethiopicum (d), Berzelia abrotanoides (d), Diastella proteoides (d), Elytopappus rhinoceros-tis (d), Erica plumosa (d), Leucadendron salignum (d), Phyllica cephalantha (d), Salvia lanceolata (d), Staavia radiata (d), Trichocephalus stipularis (d), Amphithalea ericifolia, Aspalathus loxoles subsp. loxoles, A. quinequifolia subsp. quinequifolia, A. ternata, Athanasia trifurcata, Cliftonia drepanoides, C. furiginea, C. polygonofolia, Cryptadenia grandiflora, Erica ferra, E. mammosa, Helichrysum tomentosulum, Hermannia alnifolia, Hippia pilosa, Lachnostemon imbricatum, Leonotis leonurus, Leucadendron cinereum, L. lanigerum var. lanigerum, Leucopogum hypophyllocarpodendron subsp. canaliculatum, Leysera gunnaphalodes, Metalasia adunca, M. capitata, M. distans, Oedera imbricata, Otholobium hirtum, Protea acaulos, P. scoly-mocephala, Psoralea ensifolia, P. laxa, Rhus dissecta, Serruria decipiens, S. fasciflora, S. trilopha. Succulent Shrub: Crassula flav. Woody Climbers: Asparagus asparagoides, Microlophia saxitum. Semiparastic Shrubs: Thesium nigromontanum (d), T. scabrum. Herbs: Annesorhiza macrocarpa, Arctopus echni-tus, Castalis nudicaulis, Hlapocarpa lanata, Nemesia bicornis, Phyllopidium cephalophorum. Geophytic Herbs: Aristeia africana, Disa obtusa, Geissorhiza humilis, G. purpurascens, Othonna stenophylla, Satyrium bicorne. Herbaceous Climber: Cynanchum africanum. Herbaceous Parasitic Climber: Cassytha ciliolata. Graminoids: Aristida diffusa (d), Cannomis parviflora (d), Ehrharta calycina (d), E. villosa var. villosa (d), Ischyrolepis monanthos (d), Scirpoidea thunbergii (d), Stabera ho distachys (d), Themnochrotus obtusus (d), T. punctatus (d), Wildenowia incurvata (d), W. sulcata (d), Cyperus textilis, Elegia nuda, Ficinia nigrescens, Pentaschistis curvifolia.

Endemic Taxa Low Shrubs: Leucopognum parile (d), Erica malmesburiensis, Serruria linearis, S. roxburghii, S. scoparia. Herb: Steriordiscus speciosus.

Conservation Vulnerable. Target 30%. About 6% conserved in Riverlands, Paardenberg and at Pella Research Site. Some 40% has been transformed, mainly for cultivation (agricultural smallholdings and pastures), by urban sprawl of Atlantis and for setting up pine and gum plantations. Woody aliens include Acacia saligna, A. cyclops and various species of Eucalyptus and Pinus. Erosion very low and low.

Remark 1 This unit has greater species diversity than the sand fynbos units to the north, and exemplifies the northern limit of extensive ericaceous fynbos in sand fynbos. A record 76 species in a 5 x 10 m plot have been counted (C. Boucher, unpublished data).

Remark 2 This is probably the best researched sand fynbos type due to the location of the Pella Research Site which served as base for intensive research into fynbos ecology of the sand plain lowlands in the 1980s. Because of its history of past research (and valuable historical data), the site should be revitalised for long-term research and monitoring purposes.


FFd 5 Cape Flats Sand Fynbos

VT 47 Coastal Macchia (66%) (Acocks 1953). LR 68 Sand Plain Fynbos (85%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 12 Blackheath Sand Plain Fynbos (83%) (Cwoling et al. 1999b, Cwoling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Cape Flats from Blouberg and Koebberg Hills west of the Tygerberg Hills to Lakeside and Pelican Park in the south...
near False Bay, from Bellville and Durbanville to Klipmuts and Joostenberg Hill in the east, and to the southwest of the Bottellary Hills to Macassar and Firgrove in the south. Altitude 20–200 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Moderately undulating and flat plains, with dense, moderately tall, ericoid shrubland containing scattered emergent tall shrubs. Proteoid and restioid fynbos are dominant, with asteraceous and ericaeous fynbos occurring in drier and wetter areas, respectively.

**Geology & Soils** Acid, tertiary, deep, grey regic sands, usually white, often Lamotte form. Land types mainly Ga, Hb and Db.

**Climate** Winter-rainfall regime with precipitation peaking from May to August. MAP 580–980 mm (mean: 575 mm). Mists occur frequently in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum monthly temperatures 27.1°C and 7.3°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. This is the monthly temperatures 27.1°C and 7.3°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. This is the


**Conservation** Critically endangered. Target 30%. Less than 1% statutorily conserved as small patches in the Table Mountain National Park as well as some private conservation areas such as Plattekloof 430 and Blaauw Mountain. This is the most transformed of the sand fynbos types—more than 80% of the area has already been transformed (hence the conservation target remains unattainable) by urban sprawl (Cape Town metropolitan area) and for cultivation. Most remaining patches are small pockets surrounded by urban areas, for example Rondevlei, Kenilworth, Milnerton, 6BKD, Plattekloof, and Rondebosch Common. Most of these patches have been identified as ‘Core Conservation Sites’ (Wood et al. 1994). They are mismanaged by mowing, fire protection and by alien plant invasion. Mowing eliminates serotinous and taller species, while fire protection results in a few common thicket species (e.g. Carpobrotus edulis, Chrysanthemoides monilifera), replacing the rich fynbos species. Alien woody species include Acacia saligna, A. cyclops and species of Pinus and Eucalyptus. Dumping and spread of alien grasses (both annual and perennial) have also a major problem. Alien acacias result in elevated nutrient levels and a conversion to Eragrostis curvula grassland and near-anual fires. Some 84 Red Data sand fynbos plant species occur on the remnants within Cape Town. The endemics include six species listed as extinct in the wild, some of which are being reintroduced from botanical gardens. Erosion very low.

**Remark** Cape Flats Sand Fynbos is richer than the other West Coast sand fynbos types, not only in Proteaceae, but also in other woody shrubs.

FFd 6 Hangklip Sand Fynbos


**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Cape Peninsula on old dune fields at Hout Bay, in the Fish Hoek gap (between Fish Hoek and Noordhoek) and on Smith’s Farm (Cape Point Nature Reserve). Further it occurs on the coastal flats from Rooiels and Cape Hangklip to Hermanus and it is well developed at the Bot River estuary. Altitude 20–150 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Sand dunes and sandy bottomlands supporting moderately tall, dense ericoid shrubland. Emergent, tall shrubs in places. Proteoid, ericaceous and restioid fynbos are dominant, with some asteraceous fynbos also present. On the coastal fringe this unit borders on strandveld. The deep soils of the coastal plains are replaced by shallow soils on mountain slopes on the northern edge. Hangklip Sand Fynbos occurs mainly on old dunes, but the high rainfall and leaching allows many typical sandstone fynbos species to occur on older deposits as well, so that this unit is not as floristically distinct as other sandstone fynbos units.

**Geology & Soils** Leached, acid Tertiary sand in coastal areas, Leached, acid Tertiary sand in coastal areas, Leached, acid Tertiary sand in coastal areas, Leached, acid Tertiary sand in coastal areas, Leached, acid Tertiary sand in coastal areas, Leached, acid Tertiary sand in coastal areas. Emergent, tall shrubs in places. Proteoid, ericaceous and restioid fynbos are dominant, with some asteraceous fynbos also present. On the coastal fringe this unit borders on strandveld. The deep soils of the coastal plains are replaced by shallow soils on mountain slopes on the northern edge. Hangklip Sand Fynbos occurs mainly on old dunes, but the high rainfall and leaching allows many typical sandstone fynbos species to occur on older deposits as well, so that this unit is not as floristically distinct as other sandstone fynbos units.

**Climate** MAP 520–1 170 mm (mean: 750 mm), peaking from May to August. By far this is the wettest of all the sandstone fynbos types. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.9°C and 7.5°C respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFd 6 Hangklip Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).

**Important Taxa** Upright (Cape thickets, Wetlands) Tall Shrubs: Euclea racemosa subsp. racemosa (d), Leucadendron coniferum (d), Metalasia densa (d), Passerina corymbosa (d), Pseoralea pinnata (d), Rhus laevigata (d), Erica perspicua var. perspicua (d), E. tristis, Halleria lucida, Mimetes hirtus, Protea compacta, Pterocelastrus tricuspidatus, Rhus glauca, R. lucida. Low Shrubs: Aspalathus nigra (d), Berzelia abrotanoides (d), Brunia alopecuroides (d), Coleonema album (d), Erica mammosa (d), E. multumbellifera (d), E. muscosa (d), Eriocephalus africanus var. africanus (d), Osmotopsis asteriscoides (d), Protea scolympocephala (d), Serruria glomerata (d), Adenandra viscida, Agathosma imbricata, Aspalathus forbesii, Berzelia lanuginosa, B. squarrosa, Cassine peragusa subsp. barbara, Cliftonia graminea, Diosma hirsuta, Erica coccinea subsp. coccinea, E. fastigiata, E. pater-sonii, E. pulchella, Eriocephalus racemosus, Indigofera brachy-stachya, Leucadendron gandogleri, L. laureolum, L. salignum, Leucospermum hypophyllocarpodendron subsp. hypophy-locarpodendron, Metalasia pulchella, Mimetes cucullatus, Morella querucifolia, Orphium frutescens, Passerina ericoides, Pelargonium betulinum, P. cucullatum, Phyllica ericoides, Polyarrhena reflexa subsp. reflexa, Protea cymaroides, Stilbe eri-coides, Struthiola ciliata subsp. schlechteri, Trichogyne stipulis, Trichogyne repens. Succulent Shrub: Tetragonia fruticosa. Herbs: Carpaceae spermacoceae, Cineraria geifolia. Geophytic Herbs: Convolvum bifidum, Geissorhiza humilis, Romulea triflora, Wachendorfia thyrsifora. Succulent Herbs: Carpoprotus edulis (d), C. acinaciformes. Herbaceous Climber: Cynanchum obas-sifolium. Graminoids: Elegia filacea (d), E. nuda (d), Episcoeonus gracilis (d), Imperata cylindrica (d), Ischyrolepis eloecharis (d), Thamnochortus erectus (d), T. obtusus (d), T. scipigerus (d), Merxmuelleria cincta, Stahroha cernua, Tetraria theralis.


**Conservation** Vulnerable. Target 30%. About 20% statutorily conserved in the Table Mountain National Park and Kogelberg Biosphere Reserve, with an additional 3% protected in private conservation areas such as Sea Farm and Hoek-van-die-Berg. There are several reserves between Pringle Bay and Hermanus, but they are badly mismanaged with a continual attrition of reserves with sewerage farms, graveyards, golf courses and squatters and over-harvesting of flowers and plants for oils. Some 31% has been transformed, mostly by development of holiday home settlements (coastal platform between Pringle Bay and Hermanus), but also by cultivation and building of roads. Alien woody plants include Pinus pinaster, Acacia cyclops, A. saligna, various Eucalyptus species and many other species in localised patches. Erosion very low.

**Remark 1** Pockets of Sideroxylon-domi-nated thicket and small forests occur in fire-safe hollows and dune edges, throughout the region. There are some limestone deposits associated with the old dunes, but these are localised and do not have a typical limestone fynbos community; they share species with sandstone fynbos and FS 7 Overberg Dune Strandveld.

**Remark 2** Hangklip Sand Fynbos is well-sampled only in the west; there are no representative data available for patches found east of the Palmiet River.

Ffd 7 Agulhas Sand Fynbos

VT 47 Coastal Macchia (98%) (Acocks 1953). Limestone Fynbos (20%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (54%), LR 67 Limestone Fynbos (23%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 15 Hagelkraal Limestone Fynbos (71%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Very fragmented patches on the Agulhas forelands from around the lower Ulikraalsrivier near Gansbaai, Hagelkraal, flats west of the Soetanysberg, small patches east of Elim to the largest patch northwest of Struisbaai, west of Arniston and south of Bredasdorp, with unmapped patches to Hermanus in the west, and De Hoop Vlei in the east. Altitude 20–100 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Low-lying coastal plains supporting dense moderately tall, ericoid shrubland or tall, medium dense shrubland, with some emergent tall shrubs. Communities of this fynbos unit are structurally defined either as restioid or proteoid fynbos.

**Geology & Soils** Neutral to acid Tertiary sands over various substrates, but most commonly over limestone of the Bredasdorp Formation. Land types mainly Db and Hb.

**Climate** MAP 380–660 mm (mean: 475 mm), peaking slightly in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.6°C and 7.0°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for Ffd 7 Agulhas Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).


**Conservation** Vulnerable. Target 32%. Some 7% statutorily conserved in the Agulhas National Park, with a further 1% found in private conservation areas such as Brandfontein, Groot Hagelkraal, Heunings River and Andrewsfield. About 27% transformed, mainly for cultivation, but alien plants (Acacia cyclops, A. saligna and Leptospermum laevigatum) have caused a much larger transformed area. Erosion low and very low.

**Remark 1** The more alkaline communities can be arbitrarily assigned to either limestone fynbos or sand fynbos, whereas proteoid fynbos communities can be readily assigned. Some restiod and asteraceous fynbos communities are more contentious. We have defined this unit largely by Leucadendron coniferum in deeper sands and L. linifolium in seasonal vleis. The latter also occurs extensively on shallow sands over limestone that could justifiably be classified as limestone fynbos. The asteraceous fynbos communities also intergrade with Ffd 1 Elim Ferricrete Fynbos.

**Remark 2** This vegetation unit is more extensive than mapped, mainly within what is mapped as limestone fynbos—we lack adequate field surveys to map them accurately. The border with Ffd 9 Albertinia Sand Fynbos has been chosen at about De Hoop Vlei. This boundary coincides with the easternmost Leucadendron coniferum (near Arniston), and the westernmost L. eucalyptifolium, L. galpinii, Protea lanceolata and the large form of Leucospermum truncatum (morphologically approaching the appearance of L. praecox) near Koppie Alleen.


Ffd 8 Breede Sand Fynbos

AT 43 Mountain Renosterbosveld (66%), VT 26 Karroid Broken Veld (32%) (Acocks 1953). Central Mountain Renosterveld (24%), Karroid Shrublands (19%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 61 Central Mountain Renosterveld (64%), LR 58 Little Succulent Karoo (26%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 26 Breede Fynbos/Renosterbosveld (50%), BHU 87 Robertson Broken Veld (27%), BHU 38 Ashton Inland Renosterveld (23%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Small patches usually in close proximity to the Breede River from the Brandvlei Dam to near Robertson. Altitude 200–350 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Very fragmented, occurring as dune plumes and dune seas in the valley bottoms primarily south of the Breede River, and extending up the sides of adjacent hills. Vegetation is an open proteoid tall shrubland combined with an open to medium dense restioid herbrand in undergrowth. Proteoid and restioid fynbos are dominant, with some asteraceous fynbos also found.

**Geology & Soils** Recent aeolian sand accumulations of riverine origin (Breede River). Land types mainly Fc, Bb and Hb.

**Climate** MAP 230–560 mm (mean: 345 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.6°C and 5.0°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–6 days per year. See also climate diagram for Ffd 8 Breede Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).

**Remark** This vegetation unit is more extensive than mapped, mainly within what is mapped as limestone fynbos—we lack adequate field surveys to map them accurately. The border with Ffd 9 Albertinia Sand Fynbos has been chosen at about De Hoop Vlei. This boundary coincides with the easternmost Leucadendron coniferum (near Arniston), and the westernmost L. eucalyptifolium, L. galpinii, Protea lanceolata and the large form of Leucospermum truncatum (morphologically approaching the appearance of L. praecox) near Koppie Alleen.


Figure 4.64 Ffd 7 Agulhas Sand Fynbos: Patch of Agathosma callina (green shrub) within restioid fynbos dominated by Thamnochortus insignis in De Hoop Nature Reserve near Arniston (Western Cape).
Important Taxa

Endemic Taxon Geophytic Herb: *Ixia pumilio*.

Conservation Vulnerable. Target 30%. None of the unit conserved in statutory conservation areas and only 2% protected in the Hawequas and Quaggas Berg Private Nature Reserves. The unit enjoys conservation interest for isolated, southeasternmost populations of West Coast species. Some 45% of the area has been transformed, mainly for cultivation (pasture and vineyards) and by building of the Brandvlei and Kwaggaskloof Dams. By far the largest patch of this unit is now almost entirely under water of these reservoirs. Low levels of infestation by alien *Eucalyptus*, *Acacia saligna* and *Hakea sericea* have been recorded. Erosion very low and moderate, but also high in some places.

Remarks This is a poorly studied vegetation unit. Whereas most of the species are shared with FFs 13 North Sonderend Sandstone Fynbos and FFq 4 Breede Quartzite Fynbos, and a few with the South Coast FFd 9 Albertinia Sand Fynbos, it is the affinities with FFd 2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos that are most striking, suggesting that dunes once straddled the Hawequas Mountains, probably west of Tulbagh, allowing species to move across.

References C. Boucher (unpublished data), L. Mucina (unpublished data).

**FFd 9 Albertinia Sand Fynbos**

**VT 47 Coastal Macchia (86%)** (Acocks 1953). **Limestone Fynbos (49%)**, **Dune Fynbos (20%)** (Moll & Bossi 1983). **LR 67 Limestone Fynbos (53%)** (Low & Rebelo 1996). **BHU 17 Canca Limestone Fynbos (27%)**, **BHU 34 Riversdale Coast Renosterveld (25%)**, **BHU 14 Albertinia Sand Plain Fynbos (23%)** (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Generally longitudinally east-west-trending patches on the coastal plain from Potberg in the west to the Gouritz River in the east. Also found from Kleinberg to west of Mossel Bay, with isolated unmapped outliers near Groot Brak River and between Potberg and De Hoop Vlei. The patches of this vegetation unit almost always border a limestone fynbos type. When enclosed by limestone, it is often found in depressions which can be extensive, for example the Wankoe south of Riversdale and Canca se Leegte south of Albertinia. Altitude 20–260 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**

Plains and undulating hills with numerous dune slacks—forming the most extensive area of sand fynbos within the limestone fynbos area and occupying most of the depressions, valleys and lower slopes. Vegetation is characterised by medium tall (1.5–2 m tall) open shrub layer, together with a dense stratum of 1–1.2 m tall shrubs and hemicyryptophytes. It is structurally predominantly proteoid fynbos, but with extensive restioid fynbos in the watercourses and coastal edges.

**Geology & Soils**

Deep neutral to acid, usually red, Tertiary sands associated with limestone of Bredasdorp Formation, but also acid sands derived from alluvial deposits from the Gouritz River. Acid tertiary sands, usually grey, from Potberg and Aasvogelberg are locally prominent. Land types mainly Fc, Hb and Db.

**Climate** MAP 230–620 mm (mean: 430 mm), with no clear peak and a slight low in December–January. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.5°C and 6.4°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about...
3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFd 9 Albertinia Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).

**Important Taxa** (‘Cape thickets, ‘Wetlands’) Tall Shrubs: Cassine peragua subsp. peragua (d), Leucadendron eucalyptofolium, Metalasia densa (d), Protea repens (d), P. susannae (d), Nynaldia spinosa, Passerina corymbosa, Pseoriae pinna ta (d). Low Shrubs: Chironia baccifera (d), Cliftonia illinicia (d), C. stricta (d), Erica imbricata (d), Lachnea axillaris (d), Agathosma bifida, A. scabera, Amphithela tobomusta, Anthospermum prostratum, Aulax umbellata, Carpaace vaginellata, Chrysocoma ciliata, Cliftonia drepanoidea, Diospyros dichophylla, Erica discolor, E. pulchella, E. sessiliflora, E. versicolor, Euypops ericoides, Leucadendron meridianum, L. salignum, Muraltia ciliaris, Passerina galpini, P. rigida, Phyllica parviflora, Pseoriae laxa, Senecio illicifolius, Staavia radiata, Struthiola ciliata subsp. incana, Syncaipa paniculata, Trichocephalus stipularis, Trichogyne repens. Herbs: Edmondia sesamoides, Senecio laevigatus. Geophytic Herbs: Pteridium aquilinum (d), Bobartia robusta, Bulbine frutescens, Romulea dichotoma, R. gigantea (d). Graminoids: Calopis adpressa (d), Elegia stipularis (d), Ischyrolepis leptoclados (d), Mastersiella purpurea (d), Thamnochortus insignis (d), Cydonod dactylon, Elegia muirii, E. tectorum, Mastersiella spathulata, Staberoha distachys, Thamnochortus erectus, T. fruticosus, Wildenowia teres.


**Conservation** Vulnerable. Target 32%. About 5% statute residually conserved in De Hoop, Pauline Bohn, Geelkrans, Kleingjongsfontein, Skulpiesbaai and Blomboschfontein Nature Reserves, with an additional 2% protected in private conservation areas such as Rein’s Coastal (Gouriqua) Nature Reserve, Die Duine etc. Some 26% transformed for cultivation (pasture) and pine plantations, but a large proportion has also been transformed by alien plants (Acacia cyclops and A. saligna). In addition, areas have been converted from proteoid fynbos to restioid fynbos by bush-cutting for thatching. Conservation very low.

**Remark** The boundary between the limestone and sand fynbos is often one of soil depth, with limestone fynbos being largely confined to skeletal soils. In permanently wet areas and fire-safe habitats, thicket may occur, often in association with Protea lanceolata, Elegia microcarpa and Thamnochortus erectus—these are usually at the interface between sand and limestone fynbos. Leucospermum muini is endemic to the grey, sandstone-derived soils—it is not known whether other endemics to this soil type occur or whether this deserves special recognition.

**Remark** This unit is still not accurately mapped and is more extensive than shown. Pockets occur in valleys and depressions within limestone fynbos as far west as De Hoop Vlei and as far east as the Groot Brak River. Disturbed areas on the coastal fringe sometimes converted to Cyndon grazing, with extensive mole rat (Bathyergus suillus) activity.

**Remark** The tall tussock restios typical of this sand fynbos are an important source for the thatching industry.


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**FFd 10 Knysna Sand Fynbos**

VT 4 Knysna Forest (85%) (Acoks 1953). LR 2 Afromontane Forest (72%), LR 4 Dune Thicket (24%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 100 Knysna Afromontane Forest (72%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Garden Route coastal flats from Wilderness, generally to the north of the system of lakes, several patches around the Knysna Lagoon, with more isolated patches eastwards to the Robberg peninsula near Plettenberg Bay. Altitude 40–300 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Undulating hills and moderately undulating plains covered with a dense, moderately tall, microphyllous shrubland, dominated by species more typical of sandstone fynbos.

**Geology & Soils** Deep, acid Tertiary sand inland of coastal dunes forming regic sands and soils of Lamotte form. Land types mainly Hb and Ga.

**Climate** MAP 670–1 090 mm (mean: 850 mm), with a slight peak in autumn and spring. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.3°C and 7.3°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFd 10 Knysna Sand Fynbos (Figure 4.57).


**Conservation** Endangered. Target 23%. Patches are statistically conserved in the proposed Garden Route National Park (about 3%) as well as 2% in several private nature reserves. Almost 70% already transformed (pine and gum plantations, cultivation, Knysna urban sprawl, building of roads). Alien Acacia melanoxylon, A. mearnsii and A. longifolia occur locally at low densities. Erosion very low and moderate.

**Remark** This is a very poorly researched vegetation unit.


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**FFd 11 Southern Cape Dune Fynbos**


**Distribution** Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Two large mapped patches on the Indian Ocean coast span the Wilderness Estuary and Buffels Bay near Knysna (Western Cape), and Tsitsikamma River mouth to Oyster Bay (Eastern Cape).
Vegetation & Landscape Features Coastal dune cordons (those towering above the Groenvlei near Sedgefield considered the tallest vegetated dunes in southern Africa) often with steep slopes. The vegetation is fynbos heath dominated by sclerophyllous shrubs with a rich restio undergrowth. The dominant shrubs include *Olea exasperata* and *Phyllica litoralis*, while among restios *Ischyrolepis eleocharis* is most prominent. The relatively recent last 100 years exclusion of fire from a large percentage of this unit enabled many woody species to displace the fynbos vegetation. The alien *Acacia cyclops* often acted as a predecessor for the establishment of thicket vegetation in sites where fynbos or coastal dunes used to occur. These thicket clumps occurring within this dune fynbos are not rich in species and have *Pterocelastrus tricuspidatus*, *Rhus lucida*, *Sideroxylon inerme* and *Tarchonanthus littoralis* as the dominant species.

Geology & Soils Stabilised old calcareous or neutral dunes (some as old as 120 000 years) outside the influence of salt spray built of deep sands, moving in places. Soils of Lamotte form, mainly land types Hb and Gb.

Climate MAP 600–900 mm (mean: 757 mm), with a slight peak in autumn and spring. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.3°C and 8.0°C for February and July, respectively. Frost is a rare phenomenon due to the strong marine influence of the ocean. See also climate diagram for Ffd 11 Southern Cape Dune Fynbos (Figure 4.57).


Remarks Taylor & Morris (1981) made an explicit link between (coastal) ‘Grassland’ and ‘Calcrete Fynbos’ and claimed that the balance between these two is a delicate one, being controlled by the depth of soil (hence nutrient status) as well as by degree of grazing and trampling. According to local farmers in the Port Elizabeth area, fire is supposed to be of minor importance. Cowling & Pierce (1985) observed that in areas with pronounced summer rainfall, the dune fynbos is almost entirely replaced by grasslands dominated by *Themeda triandra*, *Stenotaphrum secundatum* and elements of *Cymbopogon*. They suggested that the dune fynbos would extend along the eastern seaboard of South Africa as far north as KwaZulu-Natal. Indeed the elements of coastal dune fynbos representing geographically outlying taxa of the genera *Metalasia* (M. muricata), *Passerina* (P. corymbosa, P. rigida), *Morella* (M. quercifolia), *Phyllica* (P. ericoida) etc. occur along those coastal stretches on exposed dune slopes and crests. This narrow belt thins out towards the north to become only few metres broad on the KwaZulu-Natal coast. A report by Vlok & Euston-Brown (2002; see their description of the Kiwane Dune Thicket) supplies further thoughts about the link between coastal grasslands and coastal fynbos. *Acmadenia kiwanensis* (at present considered by us as endemic to AT 9 Albany Coastal Belt) may be an indicator of former transformation of this fynbos-grassland complex.

with it. In many high-rainfall areas, the shales are covered by silcrete and ferricrete, dealt with as separate vegetation units. Shale fynbos is the fourth largest group of fynbos types and comprises 5% of the area of fynbos.

Floristically and structurally the shale fynbos is very similar to granite fynbos, except that it lacks the rocky outcrops and boulders typical of granite fynbos and thus lacks the scrub forest and thicket elements. The much smoother terrain results in a far more uniform landscape, with seeps and slopes generating most habitat heterogeneity. In proteoid fynbos in the Western Cape, Protea coronata and P. lepidocarpon are more prominent than in granite fynbos. There is a preponderance of grasses, with graminoid fynbos being prominent, especially in the eastern units of shale fynbos.

Shale fynbos grades into shale renosterveld on lower slopes and in drier areas. Shale fynbos has been poorly studied and it is not known how the interface between frequent fires (every 2–5 years) in renosterveld and rarer fires (15–30 years) typical of fynbos varies across the two vegetation types. Presumably shale fynbos burns on an intermediate cycle and may form the zone in which the apparently disparate fire regimes intergrade. Too frequent burning can convert shale fynbos to grassland (and often used for pasture), especially when coupled with bush-cutting, liming and the introduction of aggressive pasture grasses.

A prominent feature of shale fynbos is the abundance of grasses and herbs in the early seral stages. In the wettest areas the fire ephemerals may become 1 m tall in the first spring—dying back after three to four years, and the acaulescent and proteoid components then begin to dominate the vegetation. Shale fynbos in the winter-rainfall area is very dense when mature, with all proteoids in the overstorey, and a dense understory of ericoids. In the more even-rainfall areas, the mature veld is typically a dense, low shrubland with prominent grassy elements.

The current structural classification (Campbell 1985) for shale and silcrete fynbos types is inadequate. Most key out as mesotrophic asteraceous fynbos, primarily because low (< 1.5 m) serotinous proteas do not feature in the key. However, the recognition of key species (Leucadendron elinense, L. globosum, L. laxum, L. modestum, L. teretifolium, L. stelligerum) as characteristic taxa of mesotrophic proteoid fynbos is required for these fynbos types. Wabooveld—characterised by Protea nitida—is curiously lacking in certain units within this type. Where present, P. nitida is often found as the dwarf form resprouting at the base, or occurs in screes which possibly provide some fire protection, although this species is remarkably fire-resistant elsewhere.

**Figure 4.68** Climate diagrams of shale fynbos units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days [days when screen temperature was below 0°C]; MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress (% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply).
derived from Bokkeveld Shales. Land types mainly Db, Fb, Fa, Bb and Ib.

Climate MAP 300–920 mm (mean: 570 mm). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.1°C and 3.1°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 1 Kouebokkeveld Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).


Conservation Endangered. Target 29%. No statutory reserves, but almost 20% protected in the Koue Bokkeveld (mountain catchment area) and private nature reserves such as Wakerstrroom and Opdrag. About 40% has been transformed, mostly for fruit orchards and grazing land, with large areas of seeps and lower areas converted to farm dams. North of Gydo Pass it is largely transformed, so that the remaining areas are not representative of the vegetation type. Alien Pinus radiata occurs occasionally. Erosion very low and moderate.

Remarks This is a poorly studied vegetation type. The listed taxa are not representative of the diversity in this type, since most of the accessible landscape has been transformed. In the east it is predominantly grassy, whereas in the west the proteas form a dense overstorey.


Figure 4.69 FFh 1 Kouebokkeveld Shale Fynbos: Waboomveld with Protea nitida on the Gydo Pass, north of Ceres (Western Cape).

Figure 4.70 FFh 2 Matjiesfontein Shale Fynbos: Dry restioid fynbos with scattered shrubs of Protea laurifolia on the Farm Elandsfontein at the southern foot of the Witteberge near Touwsrivier.
Fynbos Biome - Western Cape Province: Breede River and Winter-rainfall climate with Small Tree:

Vegetation & Landscape Features

Gideonshoop southwest of Klaarstroom. Altitude 650–1 150 m.

Geology & Soils

Forms derived from shales of the Bokkeveld Group (Devonian) from the southern foothills of the Klein and Groot Swartberge, Lochness and the Cango Group (Namibian Erathem). Land types mainly Fa, Fb and Ic.

Climate

MAP 230–780 mm (mean: 420 mm), with no clear peak and a slight low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.9°C and 2.6°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 3 Swartberg Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).

Important Taxa

Small Tree: Protea nitida (d). Tall Shrubs: Cliftonia serpyllifolia (d), Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia, Leucadendron rubrum, Protea eximia, P. punctata, Rhus lucida'.

Conservation

Least threatened. Target 27%. Almost 30% statutorily conserved in the Anysberg Nature Reserve in the eastern part of its distribution area. The western portion does not enjoy any formal protection. About 3% transformed for cultivation. Erosion low and very low.

Remarks

A very poorly studied vegetation type, requiring detailed study. It shares many species with FFq 3 Matjiesfontein Quartzite Fynbos, but often contains far more grasses. It grades into renosterveld, which covers all the northern slopes and most of the bottomlands on shales within the landscape.

References


FFh 3 Swartberg Shale Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (82%) (Acocks 1953). South Coast Renosterveld (58%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (56%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 43 Kango Inland Renosterveld (93%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution

Western Cape Province: A very fragmented unit from the southern foothills of the Klein and Groot Swartberge, occurring in isolated pockets from the vicinity of Ladismith to Matjiesrivier and north of the Groot Swartberge around Gideonshoop southwest of Klein Slaap. Altitude 600–1 150 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features

Steep to gentle slopes below sandstone mountains, supporting moderately tall and dense shrublands, structurally classified as asteraceous and proteoid (mesotrophic) fynbos.

Geology & Soils

Acidic, moist clay-loam, Glenrosa or Mispah forms derived from shales of the Bokkeveld Group (Devonian) and the Cango Group (Namibian Erathem). Land types mainly Fc, Fb and Ib.

Climate

MAP 230–780 mm (mean: 420 mm), with no clear peak and a slight low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.9°C and 2.6°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 3 Swartberg Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).

Important Taxa

Small Tree: Protea nitida (d). Tall Shrubs: Cliftonia serpyllifolia (d), Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia, Leucadendron eucalyptifolium

Conservation

Least threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved in the Groot Swartberg (9%) and Klein Swartberg Nature Reserves (3%). About 12% of the area has been transformed, mostly for cultivation. Erosion very low and low.

Remark

This is a poorly studied vegetation unit, confined to the higher foothills of the Swartberg, mostly as transition to renosterveld.

References


FFh 4 Breede Shale Fynbos


Distribution

Western Cape Province: Breede River and Slanghoek Valleys discontinuously from Tulbagh (Winterhoek ‘Kom’) to Swellendam, on the lower southern slopes of the Groot Winterhoek, Witsenberg, Hex and Langeberg Mountains and at places along the base of the Slanghoekberge and western Badsberg. Altitude 150–750 m, with pockets up to 900 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features

Steep upper slopes below mountains grading to slightly undulating plains, well dissected by rivers. Vegetation is a moderately tall and dense shrubland—mostly restioid, proteoid and asteraceous (mesotrophic) fynbos. A remarkably tall and dense post-fire component dominates early seral communities on wetter slopes.

Geology & Soils

Acidic, moist clay-loam, Glenrosa or Mispah forms derived from Bokkeveld Shales, underlain by rocks of the Malmesbury Group. Land types mainly Fa, Fb and Ic.

Climate

Winter-rainfall climate with MAP 300–1 300 mm (mean: 690 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.2°C and 4.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 4 Breede Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).

Important Taxa

Small Tree: Protea nitida (d). Tall Shrubs: Cliftonia serpyllifolia (d), Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia (d), Leucadendron eucalyptifolium...
Vulnerable. Target 30%. About 30% con,
var. Herb: Geophytic Herb: (d),
Succulent - (d),
Tetragonia fruticosa 30% of the area is transformed, mostly for cultivation.
Vexatorella latebrosa
Shales. Land types mainly Ac, Fa and Ic.
Vegetation & Landscape Features
Vegetation is
serves in Cape Nature and other statutory nature reserves such as

Endemic Taxa Low Shrubs: Rafnia angulata subsp. thunbergii,

Conservation Vulnerable. Target 30%. About 30% con-
served in Cape Nature and other statutory nature reserves such as
Grootwinterhoek Wilderness Area, Dassieshoek, Marloth,
Wittebrug and Witteenberg and in mountain catchment areas such as
Langeberg-wes, Matroosberg and Winterhoek. About 30% of the area is transformed, mostly for cultivation. Pinus

Remark This is a very poorly studied vegetation unit.


FFh 5 Cape Winelands Shale Fynbos

VT 69 Macchia (81%) (Acoks 1953), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (53%)
(Moll & Bossi 1983), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (61%), LR 62 West Coast
Renosterveld (27%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 32 Boland Coast
Renosterveld (39%), BHU 54 Franshoek Mountain Fynbos
Complex (28%), BHU 56 Kogelberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (18%) (Cowling et
al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Higher hills and lower
mountain slopes in the Stellenbosch and Somerset West areas,
in patches from Blousteen on Clarence Drive at Kloebbaai to
south of Elsaenberg and within the Jonkershoek Valley, with
pockets on the Cape Peninsula at Devils Peak, the Tygerberg
Hills on Kanonkop, Groenberg near Wellington and the upper
Franschoek Valley. Altitude 0–700 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Moderately undulating
plains and steep slopes against the mountains. Vegetation is
a moderately tall and dense shrubland dominated by proteoid
and closed-scrub fynbos in structural terms.

Geology & Soils Acidic, moist clay-loamy, red-yellow apedal
and Glenrosa and Mispah forms derived from Malmesbury
Shales. Land types mainly Ac, Fa and lc.

Climate MAP 520–1 690 mm (mean: 865 mm), peaking from
May to August. This is the shale fynbos unit with the high-
est rainfall. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures
26.4°C and 6.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost inci-
dence 2 or 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 5
Cape Winelands Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).

Important Taxa ('Cape thickets, 'Wetlands) Small Trees: Kiggelaria africana, Leucadendron concaprodendron subsp. viridum, Protea nitha. Tall Shrubs: Aspalathus uniflora (d), Cliftonia cuneata (d), C. philii (d), Hallea lucida (d), Maytenus acuminate (d), Myrsine afric-
a (d), Olea europaea subsp. africana (d), Protea coronata (d), P. repens (d), Rhus angustifolia (d), Chrysanthemoides moni-
fera, Cononia capensis, Diopsyrus glabra, Metalasia densa,
Protea lepidocarpodendron, Rhus tomentosa (d). Low Shrubs: Aspalathus cephalotes subsp. violacea (d), Brunia nodiflora (d), C. polygonifolia (d), C. ruscifolia (d), Cullumia ciliaris (d), C. setosa (d), Erica equisetifolia (d), E. hirta (d), E. hispidula (d), E. nudiflora (d), E. parviflora (d), Leucadendron sessile (d), L. spinifolia (d), subsp. spissifolia (d), Stoebe cinerea (d), Anthospermum aethiopicum, A. spathulatum subsp. spathu-
latum, Aspalathus lebeckioides, Elytrropappus gnaphaloides, E. rhinocerotis, Erica paniculata, Erioccephalus africans var. africana,
Helichrysum pandurifolium, H. teretifolium, Leucadendron salignum, Maytenus oleoides (d), Protea acaulus, P. lorea, P. scabra, Salvia africana-caerulea, Senecio pubigerus, Stoebe
plumosa. Geophytic Herbs: Bobartia indica (d), Mohria caffro-
(d), Pentaschistis colo-
pus, Watsonia borbonica subsp. borbonica (d), Aristea cantharophila, A. capitata, Badiana villo-
sula, Micranthus junceus, Romulea rosea. Herbaceous Parasitic
Climber: Cassytha ciliolata. Graminoids: Cannomoidis virgata (d),
Ehrharta ramosa subsp. ramosa (d), Elegia juncea (d), Ficinia
oligantha (d), F. trichodes (d), Ischyrolepis capensis (d), I. gau-
dichauiana (d), Merxmuelleria stricta (d), Pentaschistis colora-
d (d), P. eriostoma (d), Restio triticeus (d), Schoenoxiphium
lanceum (d), Staberoha cernua (d), Tetraria cuspidata (d),
Ehrharta calycina, Ficinia indica.

Endemic Taxon Geophytic Herb: Moraea aristata.

Conservation Endangered, but well conserved. Target 30%
already reached since about 25% is statutorily conserved in
the Table Mountain National Park, Helderberg and Hottentots
Holland Nature Reserves. An additional 25% enjoys protection
in mountain catchment areas (Hottentots Holland, Hawequas).
The rest of the area has been transformed, mainly for pine

Figure 4.72 FFh 5 Cape Winelands Shale Fynbos: Proteaceous fynbos dominated by Protea coronata, Leucadendron sessile and Leucospermum guerinii on shale slopes below the Helderberg Mountain (Western Cape).

L. Melica
plantsations and vineyards as well as by urban development of the Cape Town metropolitan area. Essentially only the steeper upper portions remain. The notable woody aliens include Pinus pinaster and Hakea sericea. Erosion very low.

Remarks This is a poorly studied vegetation type. Vegetation should be subjected to detailed analysis. This type may occur in FFb 2 Western Coastal Shale Band Vegetation but in this region the shale band occurs at altitudes (500–1 500 m) well above that typical of the vegetation described for this unit. Many species are shared with the Ffg 3 Peninsula Granite Fynbos and include several local endemics (e.g. Leucadendron argenteum, L. daphnoides, Leucopseudum grandiflorum, L. guenzi, Serruria kraussii).


**Ffh 6 Elgin Shale Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (98%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (17%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (75%), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (24%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 25 Elgin Fynbos/ Renosterveld Mosaic (39%), BHU 33 Overberg Coast Renosterveld (21%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Elgin Basin east of Grabouw and Villiersdorp Basin around Vyeboom, with pockets to the north at the uppermost part of Stettynskloof, Kaaimansgat and Rooihoogte Pass, and at the Steenbras Dam to the west. Altitude 200–450 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Undulating hills and moderately undulating plains and steep slopes of adjacent mountains. An open to medium dense tall proteoid shrubland over a matrix of moderately tall and dense evergreen shrubs, dominated by proteoid, asteraceous and closed-scrub fynbos, and ericaceous fynbos in the wetter facies.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic, moist clay-loam, Glenrosa or Mispaforms derived from Bokkeveld Group shales. Land types mainly Fa.

**Climate** Winter-rainfall regime, with MAP 560–1 300 mm (overall mean: 830 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.2°C and 6.2°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 6 Elgin Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).


**Endemic Taxa** Low Shrubs: Leucadendron elimenense subsp. yveboomensis, L. globosum.

**Conservation** Critically endangered. The target of 30% is double that of the remaining natural distribution. Some patches of the unit are statutorily conserved in the Theewaters and Limietberg Nature Reserves. The privately owned Solva Farm (near Grabouw) has probably the best preserved patch of this rare fynbos type. Almost 80% of the areas have been transformed, with cultivation accounting for almost 60% (mainly fruit orchards, pine plantations and the flooded area of the Theewaterskloof and Steenbras Dams). This region is characterised by very intensive and profitable agricultural land. Aliens Pinus pinaster and Hakea sericea are problems in the remaining remnants. Erosion very low.

**Remarks** Many of the remnants are too small to burn regularly and diversity in the stands is declining. This is the only winter-rainfall shale fynbos type with extensive ericaceous fynbos. Amongst the shale fynbos types, this unit has few succulents. This type may occur in FFb 2 Western Coastal Shale Band Vegetation, but in this region the shale band occurs at altitudes (500–1 500 m) well above that typical of the vegetation described for this unit.


**Ffh 7 Greyton Shale Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (64%) (Acocks 1953). Dry Mountain Fynbos (30%), South West Coast Renosterveld (27%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (63%), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (37%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 18 Genadendal Grassy Fynbos (72%), BHU 33 Overberg Coast Renosterveld (20%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: South of Rivieronsderend and Caledon Swartberg Mountains on higher-altitude
shales from Theewaterskloof Dam to Stormsvlei, including the Bergfontein and Spitskop hills north of Caledon. Altitude 200–550 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Moderately undulating plains and steep slopes of adjacent mountains. The vegetation is a moderately tall and dense shrubland, predominantly proteoid and asteraceous fynbos, with some graminoid fynbos.

**Geology & Soils** Acidic, moist clay-loam and colluvium with various, often Glenrosa and Mispah forms, derived from Bokkeveld Group shales, often with Ordovician sandstones of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Fa, Fb and Db.

**Climate** Rainfall peaks slightly in winter (August high). MAP 320–710 mm (mean: 485 mm). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.6°C and 5.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. See also VT 70 False Macchia (45%), VT 43 Mountain Renosterbosveld (23%) (Acoks 1953). Central Mountain Renosterbosveld (60%), Karroid Shrublands (23%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 61 Central Mountain Renosterbosveld (63%), LR 58 Little Succulent Karoo (22%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 41 Montagu Inland Renosterbosveld (63%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: A fragmented unit from the western Little Karoo at relatively high altitudes north of the Langeberg Mountains from Keerom to Langkloof east of Garcia’s Pass (north of Riversdale). Includes parts of The Koo, Ouberg Pass area (between Montagu and Ladismith), Kleinberg (MontEco) and Wildehondskloofhoogte (between Montagu and Barrydale). Altitude 680–1 150 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Moderately undulating uplands and undulating foothills to steep mountains, supporting moderately tall and dense shrublands, with proteoid fynbos and asteraceous fynbos with scattered proteoid emergents. Localised waboomveld also occurs.


**Endemic Taxa** Low Shrubs: Podalyria orbicularis, P. reticulata. Semiparasitic

**FFh 8 Montagu Shale Fynbos**

**Conservation** Vulnerable. Target 30%. Only 1% statutorily conserved in the Riviersonderend Nature Reserve with an additional 6% enjoying protection in a private conservation area of the same name. Some 30% of the area already transformed, mostly for cultivation. Lower-lying areas are the most heavily converted. Woody aliens include Hakea sericea, various Pinus species and Acacia cyclops. Erosion very low and moderate.

**Remarks** This is a poorly researched vegetation unit. Amongst the shale fynbos types, it has few succulents.

**Reference** N. Helme (unpublished data).

Figure 4.74 FFh 7 Greyton Shale Fynbos: Proteoid fynbos with Leucadendron salignum and Protea repens (and scattered alien Hakea sericea and Pinus pinaster, in the background) on shale slopes below a sandstone ridge south of Genadendal (Western Cape).

Figure 4.75 FFh 8 Montagu Shale Fynbos: Asteraceous fynbos on shale in the Koo Valley east of Montagu (Western Cape) in the rainshadow of the Langeberg. A group of planted Eucalyptus is in the background.
Geology & Soils Acidic, moist clay-loamy Glenrosa and Mispah forms derived from Bokkeveld Group shales. Land types mainly Fc and Fb.

Climate Rainfall at the edge of semi-aridity, with MAP 240–800 mm (mean: 375 mm), peaking slightly in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.9°C and 3.4°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 8 Montagu Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).


Biogeographically Important Taxon Geophytic Herb: Ixia gloriosa (Little Karoo endemic).

Endemic Taxa Low Shrubs: Amphithalea pageae, Aspalathus rostrata, Lophonis argentea, Stirtonanthus insignis.

Conservation Least threatened. Target 30%. Conserved in the Garcia Nature Reserve and Langeberg-wes mountain catchment area. Some 15% transformed for cultivation. Alien Pinus pinaster and Acacia cyclops scattered in some areas. Erosion high in most of the unit, but very low in some areas.

Remark This is an almost unknown vegetation unit, revealed only recently by the Protea Atlas Project activities—another type well below lower rainfall limits of about 600 mm for shale fynbos.


Fff 9 Garden Route Shale Fynbos

VT 4 Krynna Forest (58%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (17%), South Coast Renosterveld (17%), Afro-Montane Forest (16%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 2 Afromontane Forest (46%), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (27%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 100 Krynna Afromontane Forest (41%), BHU 28 Blanco Fynbos/Renosterveld Mosaic (21%) (Cowing et al. 1999b, Cowing & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Patches along the coastal foothills of the Langeberg at Grootberg (northeast of Heidelberg), the Outeniqua Mountains from Cloete’s Pass via the Groot Brak River Valley, Hoekwil, Karatara, Barrington and Krynna to Plettenberg Bay. Patches from the Bloukrans Pass along coastal platform shale bands south of the Tsitsikamma Mountains via Kleinbos and Fynbosheok to south of both Clarkson and the Kareedouw Mountains. Altitude 0–500 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Undulating hills and moderately undulating plains on the coastal forelands. Structurally this is tall, dense proteoid and ericaceous fynbos in wetter areas, and graminoid fynbos (or shrubby grassland) in drier areas. Fynbos appears confined to flatter more extensive landscapes that are exposed to frequent fires—most of the shales are covered with afrotemperate forest. Fairly wide belts of Virgilia oraboides occur on the interface between fynbos and forest. Fire-safe habitats nearer the coast have small clumps of thickets, and valley floors have scrub forest (Vlok & Euston-Brown 2002).

Geology & Soils Acidic, moist clay-loam, prismacutic and pedocutanic soils derived from Caimans Group and Ecc (in the east) shales. Land types mainly Fc and Fb.

Climate MAP 310–1 120 mm (mean: 700 mm), relatively even throughout the year, but with a slight low in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.6°C and 6.5°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 9 Garden Route Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).


Endemic Taxa Geophytic Herbs: Cyphia georgica, Disa newdigateae, Gladiolus roseovenosus.

Conservation Endangered. Target 23%. Statutorily conserved in the proposed Garden Route National Park (4%) and Boomsmansbos Wilderness Area (1%). A further 3% are protected in other (mainly private) conservation areas such as the Robbe Hoek Forest Reserve. More than half of the area has already been transformed for cultivation and pine plantations. Much of the remaining veld has been converted to pasture. Remnants are found largely on steep inclines and in areas unsuitable for agriculture. Alien plants such as Hakea sericea and various species of Acacia locally infest natural remnants. Erosion very low and moderate.

Remarks This is a poorly studied vegetation type. Rebelo et al. (1991) have incorrectly placed this unit on sandstone in the Riversdale area.


Fff 10 Suurberg Shale Fynbos

VT 70 False Macchia (64%) (Acocks 1953). Valley Bushveld (61%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 65 Grassy Fynbos (42%), LR 6 Xeric Succulent Thicket (37%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 23 Zuurberg Grassy Fynbos (19%) (Cowing et al. 1999b, Cowing & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Eastern Cape Province: East-west-trending, complex and multiple bands from the Klein Winterberg at Baroe in the west, Suurberg, and highly fragmented distributions around Riebeek East and Grahamstown. Altitude 400–900 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Low mountains or hills, supporting low to medium high, closed, ericoid shrubland or grassland, with closed restioid and/or grass understorey. Graminoid fynbos, with localised patches of dense proteoid fynbos, also occurs.
Geology & Soils  Acidic, moist clay-loam Mispah and Glenrosa forms derived from Witteberg Group shales, associated with quartzite. Land types mainly Fa, lb and Fb.

Climate  MAP 210–770 mm (mean: 510 mm), with a bimodal peak in October–November and January–February and a low in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.4°C and 4.6°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFh 10 Suurberg Shale Fynbos (Figure 4.68).

Important Taxa  (Cape thickets) Tall Shrubs: Aspalathus setacea (d), Metalasia densa (d), Montinia caryophyllacea, Phyllica paniculata, Protea iarifolia, Rhus lucida. Low Shrubs: Selago corymbosa (d), Agathosma ovata, Diospyros dichrophylla; Elytropappus rhinocerotis, Erica thamnoides, Felicia filifolia subsp. filifolia, Leucadendron saltgnum, Leucospermum cuneiforme, Metalasia pungens, Protea naucodes, P. foliosa. Succulent Shrub: Cotyledon orbiculata var. oblonga. Geophytic Herbs: Bobartia orientalis subsp. orientalis, Oxalis punctata. Graminoids: Themeda triandra (d), Diheteropogon filifolius, Ehrharta ramosa subsp. ramosa, Harpochloa falx, Hypodiscus striatus, Restio triticus, Tetraria cuspidata, T. exilis, Tristachya leucothrix.

Conservation  Least threatened. Target 23%. About 40% statutorily conserved in the Greater Addo Elephant National Park, and 6% in addition in the private Rockdale Game Ranch and Kuzuko Game Reserve. Only about 1% has been transformed and levels of alien infestation (Acacia mearnsii, species of Eucalyptus and Pinus pinaster) are low. Erosion very low and low.

Remark  Few studies have separated the quartzite from the shale fynbos types in the Eastern Cape and therefore the distinction we suggest is tentative, pending detailed studies.


9.1.5 Fynbos Shale Band Vegetation

Between the two massive sandstone blocks (Peninsula and Nardouw Formations) in the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup) lies a series of only 40–140 m wide shale bands (vertical) of the Cedarberg Formation. Despite their limited spatial extent, they are a major topographical feature in the mountains due to special geomorphological features (smoother landscape) and vegetation quite distinct from that of the surrounding sandstones, although sandstone overburden on the shales can blur distinctions in places. Because the bands weather preferentially, they form 20–500 m steps or shelves in horizontal beds or smooth U-valleys in more vertical beds, extending for hundreds of kilometres (Figure 4.78). The exposed shale width varies depending on its erosion at the lower edge and on sandstone-derived screes and deposits (colluvial sediments) on the upper edge. However, because the rainfall limits for the succulent karoo, renosterveld, fynbos and forest are higher for shale than sandstone, different vegetation types often occur juxtaposed on the two substrates. Where fynbos occurs on both geologies almost invariably different structural fynbos units juxtapose. Due to a lack of studies, we have been unable to separate these different communities within the shale bands other than to note that they are distinct from the surrounding sandstone fynbos communities and—based on the studies to date—from more extensive shale communities as well. We therefore predict that at lower altitudes these communities will resemble nearby shale communities (renosterveld, succulent karoo), but with increasing altitude these communities will become more unique and less associated with neighbouring vegetation types irrespective of substrate. The uppermost shale band will have alimontane fynbos.

Important microclimatic differences were found between soils derived from sandstone and shale at high altitude by Boelhouwers (1998). His measurements made in the Hex River Mountains (at an altitude of about 1 900 m) suggested that while the porous and light-coloured sandstone-derived soils failed to provide evidence for needle-ice formation, the high water content in the loamy soil derived from shale was favourable for needle-ice formation during the freeze/thaw cycles from April to November.

Patterns of vegetation on the shale bands are complicated by the sandstone colluvium and mixing of this with clays from the shale bands. Shale bands often show signs of silcrete and ferricrete formation. More important, though, is that the shale bands are relatively impervious to water and so often become associated with seep communities, often much wetter and waterlogged than those on the associated sandstones. It is possible then that the shale bands of the Cedarberg Formation are refugia for renosterveld elements and those shale fynbos communities that tolerate a much wetter climate than at present.

Based on patterns within fynbos, we have divided them tentatively into six major geographical units, based primarily on the known phytogeographic centres of endemism (Goldblatt & Manning 2000a). This is entirely an interim classification and we expect that when sufficient data become available, the larger area of these units to be subsumed into the current vegetation types within Succulent Karoo, shale renosterveld and shale fynbos. A few new high-altitude shale fynbos types might be warranted.
**Figure 4.77** Climate diagrams of shale band vegetation units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days (days when screen temperature was below 0°C); MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress (% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply).

**Figure 4.78** Schematic map of the shale-band vegetation units (FFb) in the Fynbos Biome.

**FFb 1 Northern Inland Shale Band Vegetation**

VT 69 Macchia (Fynbos) (97%) (Acocks 1953), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (94%) (Moll & Bosi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (100%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 47 Cederberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (53%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Narrow shale band from Mount Synnot near the Pabkuis Pass in the Cederberg, to the Skurweberg, Koue Bokkeveld, Groot Winterhoek, Hex River and Keeroms Mountains. Small portions of this shale band unit are found at Piketberg and Breëvlei north of Het Kruis. Altitude 400–1650 m, with extremes from 100 m to lower altitude limits of FFs 30 Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos. See also Figure 4.78 featuring the simplified distribution of this unit.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** A narrow 80–200 m linear feature, smooth and flat in profile compared to surrounding areas and thus favoured for paths and roads. The dominant landscape of the Cederberg (the long, linear plateaus) is often associated with the shale bands. At present the vegetation of this unit encompasses diverse shrublands ranging from karoo at lower altitudes and northerly aspects, renosterveld at low and medium altitudes on various aspects, to fynbos at higher altitudes and also much lower on southern aspects. Fynbos includes all structural types; it is often quite grassy in character, and usually waboomveld occurs at the lowest altitudes. Heuweltjies prominent in northern portion of the band.

**Geology & Soils** Clays derived from shales of the Cederberg Formation. Land types mainly lc and lb.

**Climate** MAP 250–1360 mm (mean: 590 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.2°C and 3.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFb 1 Northern Inland Shale Band Vegetation (Figure 4.77).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 29%. More than 80% statutorily conserved in the Cederberg and Grootwinterhoek Wilderness Areas, Ceres Mountain Fynbos, Botriviervlei and Ben Etive Nature Reserves as well as in mountain catchment areas such as Sederberg, Koue Bokkeveld, Matroosberg and Winterhoek. Only 4% transformed (cultivation). The only alien woody species of concern is Pinus radiata. Erosion very low.

Remarks The classification of the low-altitude (below altitude of 1 000 m) patches of this shale band unit, especially those in the central and southern Cederberg (so-called Pakhuis shale band of Taylor 1996), those of the Olifants River Valley south of Citrusdal as well as those embedded within FFs 6 Piketberg Sandstone Fynbos and FFs 2 Graafwater Sandstone Fynbos, is only tentative. According to available data, a small portion of these low-altitude shale bands at Pakhuis (see Community 8 in Taylor 1996) has a dry form of renosterveld (FRs 4 Ceres Shale Renosterveld), but the geographical limits of this type have not been mapped. At lower altitudes in the Olifants River Valley those portions of the shale band with SKk 7 Citrusdal Vygieveld have been mapped as such.


FFb 2 Western Coastal Shale Band Vegetation

Distribution Western Cape Province: Embedded within the mountain ranges of Elandskloof, Limietberge, Wellington Sneeukop, Slanghoek, Du Toitsberge, Klein Drakenstein, Wemmershoek, Stettyns, Franschoek (including Victoria Peak and Emerald Dome), Groenland, Hottentots Holland (including Triplets and Somerset Sneeukop), and Kogelberg. These bands extend eastwards through the Kleinrivierberge, Caledon Swartberg and Bredasdorpberge. Also included are the shale bands of the Riviersonderend Mountains and of Potberg. Altitude 50–1 800 m. See also Figure 4.78 featuring the simplified distribution of this unit.

Vegetation & Landscape Features A narrow 80–200 m linear feature (up to 1 km wide in a few places and also forming rings on some ‘Sneeukop’ peaks),
smooth and flat in profile compared to surrounding areas. The band supports diverse renosterveld and fynbos shrublands of all structural types including waboomveld at lower altitudes.

Geology & Soils

Clays derived from shale of the Cedarberg Formation. Land types mainly lc and lb.

Climate

MAP 280–2 000 mm (mean: 1 070 mm), peaking from May to August. Southeasterly cloud brings heavy mist precipitation at higher altitudes in summer. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 24.3°C and 5.0°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFb 2 Western Coastal Shale Band Vegetation (Figure 4.77).

Important Taxa

1. Cape thickets, 2. Wetlands: Small Trees: Protea nitida (d), Widdringtonia nodiflora. Tall Shrubs: Leucadendron salicifolium (d), Montinia caryophyllacea (d), Protea neriifolia (d), Curtisia dentata, Diospyros glabra, Maytenus acuminate, Protea eximia, P. lepidocarpodendron, P. mundii, P. repens, Rapanea melanophloeo. Low Shrubs: Anthospermum aesthiopicum (d), Aulax umbellata (d), Berzelia lanuginosa, Diastella diversicata subsp. montana (d), Elytropappus glandulatus (d), Erica equisetifolia (d), E. hispidula (d), E. quadrangularis (d), Leucadendron xanthocorus (d), Protea scabra (d), Agathosma caespitosa, Anthospermum galoides subsp. galoides, A. prostratum, Brunia neglecta, B. nodiflora, Cliffortia atrata, C. eriogalina, C. polygonifolia, Clutia polygonoides, Diosma hirsuta, Erica filiformis, E. pluenetii subsp. pluenetii, E. viscaria subsp. longifolia, Euryops pinnatifolius, Helichrysum tomentosulum, Leucadendron salignum, L. spissifolium subsp. spissifolium, Leucospermum cordifolium, Lonchostoma purpureum, Paranomus adiantifolius, Phyllica sipicata, Polyarthra reflexa subsp. reflexa, Protea acaulos, P. cordata, P. longifolia, Rhus rosarinifolia, Stoebe plumosa. Herbs: Peucedanum furvaleaceum, P. strictum.

Endemic Taxa


Conservation

Least threatened. The target of 30% has been achieved since almost 45% of the unit is protected in statutory and local authority reserves such as Limietberg, Kogelberg, Rivieronderend, Hottentots Holland, Thewaters, De Hoop and Waterval, while an additional almost 30% is protected in mountain catchment areas such as Hawequas, Rivieronderend and Hottentots Holland. Small patches are protected in a number of private reserves. Some 6% transformed by pine plantations. Aliens Pinus pinaster and Hakea sericea scattered on about half of the area of the unit. Erosion generally very low.

Remark 1

Although classified within this shale band unit, the shale band of Potberg has several prominent species (e.g. Protea aurea, P. coronata) shared with the FFb 3 Central Inland Shale Band Vegetation. Further vegetation studies are needed to clarify these links.

Remark 2

These shale bands often support small patches of afrotropical forest in gullies and on saddles.

References


FFb 3 Central Inland Shale Band Vegetation


Distribution

Western Cape Province: Shale bands of the Klein and Groot Swartberge, Touwsberg, Sandberg, Rooiberg, Gamkaberg and Kammanassie. Altitude 500–1 800 m. See also Figure 4.78 featuring the simplified distribution of this unit.

Vegetation & Landscape Features

A narrow 80–200 m (wider in places), linear, smooth and flat feature of high-altitude slopes or mountain ridges. Vegetation diverse, from karoo shrublands at lower altitudes, to renosterveld and fynbos shrublands. Fynbos includes all structural types including graminoid fynbos, and usually waboomveld and asteraceous fynbos at lowest altitudes.

Geology & Soils

Clays derived from shale of the Cedarberg Formation. Land types mainly lc and lb.

Climate

MAP 140–980 mm (mean: 460 mm), relatively even with a bimodal peak in March and November and a low in
December–January. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.2°C and 1.7°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFb 3 Central Inland Shale Band Vegetation (Figure 4.77).


**Conservation** Least threatened. The target of 27% has been achieved since 68% of the unit already protected in statutory reserves such as Groot Swartberg, Kammanassie, Towerkop, Swartberg East, Gamkaberg and Rooiberg. Additionally almost 25% is protected in mountain catchment areas such as Kammanassie, Klei Swartberg, Rooiberg, Swartberg-oos and Groot Swartberg. Only about 1% transformed so far. Woody aliens include Pinus pinaster, P. radiata, P. halepensis and Hakea sericea. Erosion very low and low.

**Reference** Bond (1981).

**FFb 4 Central Coastal Shale Band Vegetation**

VT 70 False Macchia (57%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (76%) (Moll & Böss 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (82%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 64 Southern Langeberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (52%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: A virtually continuous band traversing the entire length of the Langeberg, with bands in the eastern regions of the Outeniqua Mountains and of the Grootberg-Amandelbosch as well as some areas, for example Die Bergies, west of Mossel Bay. The extent of the shale band in the Outeniqua Mountains has not been adequately mapped and its eastern boundary remains unknown. Altitude 50–1 700 m. See also Figure 4.78 featuring the simplified distribution of this unit.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** A narrow 80–200 m linear feature (wider in places), smooth and flat in profile compared to surrounding areas. Vegetation comprises various fynbos shrublands.

**Geology & Soils** Clays derived from shale band of the Cedarberg Formation. Land types mainly Ib, Ic and Db.

**Climate** MAP 280–1 560 mm (mean: 680 mm), relatively even with a low in December–January. Southeasterly cloud brings heavy mist precipitation at higher altitudes in summer. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.2°C and 4.8°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFb 4 Central Coastal Shale Band Vegetation (Figure 4.77).

**Important Taxa** Tall Shrubs: Leucadendron eucalyptifolium, Protea aurea subsp. aurea (d), P. nervifolia (d), P. coronata, P. eximia. Low Shrubs: Erica hispidula (d), Phylica pinea (d), P. rubra (d), Aspalathus juniperina subsp. monticola, Aulax cancellata, Cliftonia atrata, Cyclopia sessiflora, Erica pubigera, Helichrysum panduriforme, Hermannia stricta, Indigofera sarmentosa, Leucadendron salignum, Mimetae cicutella, Pelargonium cordifolium, Protea cynaroides, P. grandiceps, Senecio lineatus, Serruria fasciflora, Stoebe plumosa. Herbs: Alepidea capensis, Carpacoce speranacoeae, Knowltonia capensis. Geophytic Herbs: Lanaria lanata (d), Geissorhiza hesperanthoides, G. nubigena. Graminoïdes: Cannomois virgata (d), Ischyrolepis hystrix (d), Tetraria bromoides (d), T. flexuosa (d), Ehrharta dura, Pentaschistis malouinensis.

**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. About 25% conserved in statutory and local-authority reserves such as Boomsmansbos Wilderness Area, Marloth, Garcia, Tygerberg, Montagu Mountain, Ruitersbos, Twintriet and Spioenkop. In addition 43% enjoys protection in mountain catchment areas such as Langeberg-wes, Langeberg-oos and Matroosberg. Some 15% transformed (mainly cultivation, but also pine plantations). Aliens such as Pinus pinaster, Hakea sericea and Acacia mearnsii are locally of concern. Erosion very low and low.


**FFb 5 Eastern Inland Shale Band Vegetation**


**Distribution** Eastern and Western Cape Provinces: Shale bands of the Kouga-berg and Baviaanskloof-berg with parallel occurrences to the south but remaining north of the Langkloof. Also on Antoniesberg, south of Willowmore. Altitude 250–1 650 m. See also Figure 4.78 featuring the simplified distribution of this unit.
Vegetation & Landscape Features A narrow 80–200 m (greater widths in the uppermost Baviaanskloof area), linear, smooth and flat landscape feature supporting various shrublands, from thicket, renosterveld and fynbos at higher altitudes. Fynbos includes all structural types, but predominantly graminoid fynbos.

Geology & Soils Clays derived from shale of the Cedarberg Formation. Land types mainly Ib, Fa, Fb and Ic.

Climate MAP 290–910 mm (mean: 535 mm), relatively even with a slight peak in March. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.9°C and 3.3°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for Ffb 5 Eastern Inland Shale Band Vegetation (Figure 4.77).


Endemic Taxon Low Shrub: Aspalathus incana.

Conservation Least threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved (38%) in the Kouga, Guerna and Berg Plaatz Wilderness Areas. Small patches also protected in private nature reserves (Sustersdal). Some 7% transformed (cultivation). All Alien Pinus pinaster occurs in places. Erosion is low and very low.

FFb 6 Eastern Coastal Shale Band Vegetation

VT 70 False Macchia (54%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Grassy Fynbos (30%), Wet Mountain Fynbos (12%), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (7%), Afro-Montane Forest (4%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 65 Grassy Fynbos (46%), LR 2 Afrotamontane Forest (34%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 100 Krynka Afrotamontane Forest (34%), BHU 29 Langloof Fynbos/Renosterveld Mosaic (22%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Shale bands in the eastern Outeniqua (often also bearing forest patches), Langkloof, Tsitsikamma and Kareedouw Mountains and along the southern Cape coastal plains to around Oyster Bay with the most seaward belt reaching the coast at, for example, Clinton’s Bank south of Bloukrans Pass. Altitude 0–1 100 m. See also Figure 4.78 featuring the simplified distribution of this unit.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Shale bands form narrow 80–200 m, linear, smooth and flat landscape features and support various shrublands, ranging from thicket to renosterveld and fynbos at higher altitudes. Fynbos includes all structural types, quite often grassy in character.

Geology & Soils Clays derived from shale of the Cedarberg Formation. Land types mainly Db, Ca, Bb, and Ib.

Climate MAP 500–1 140 mm (mean: 815 mm), relatively even with a bimodal peak in March and August–November. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.1°C and 7.0°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 0–20 days per year. See also climate diagram for Ffb 6 Eastern Coastal Shale Band Vegetation (Figure 4.77).

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Leucadendron eucalyptifo- lium, Protea neriifolia. Low Shrubs: Leucadendron salignum, Leucopappus cuneiforme.

Conservation Endangered. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved (16%) in the proposed Garden Route National Park (including Tsitsikamma National Park), Koomans Bush State Reserve as well as in Lottening Forest Reserve, Plaatbos Nature Reserve, Kwaai brand and Langebosch Forest Reserves and several other private conservation areas. Some 65% transformed, with cultivation accounting for most of the transformation, followed by pine plantations. Alien Pinus pinaster and Hakea sericea occur as scattered. Erosion is very low.

Remark Large portions of the shale band in this area support FOz 6 Southern Coastal Forest and these areas are mapped as such.


FCC 1 Swellendam Silcrete Fynbos

VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (59%) (Acocks 1953). South Coast Renosterbosveld (62%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterbosveld (85%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 19 Suurbraak Grassy Fynbos (41%), BHU 34 Riversdale Coast Renosterbosveld (29%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Relatively large patches on southern foothills of the Langeberg from around Swellendam to north of Dekriet/Soutpan (between Riversdale and Albertinia), becoming highly fragmented between Albertinia and the southern side of Robinson Pass to around Molenvierv (north of Klein-Brak River). Altitude 100–400 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Mainly undulating hills on the coastal forelands, the remains of the old African surface. Structurally it is a medium tall evergreen shrubland or grassland. Predominantly arid fynbos, but graminoid fynbos on summits and northern slopes where disturbed. Proteoid fynbos occurs on southern slopes and ericaceous fynbos is found in wetter habitats. Afrotamontane forest occurs in fire-safe alluvial areas, such as along perennial rivers. It is uncertain whether proteoid fynbos, renosterveld or thicket was the dominant type in some of the eastern plateaus—it has all been converted to pasture.

Geology & Soils Silcrete and conglomerate with dry, shallow, loamy sand of Houwhoek form. Land types mainly Db and Gb.

Climate MAP 320–860 mm (mean: 520 mm), with no clear peak, but a low in December–January. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28°C and 5.5°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FCC 1 Swellendam Silcrete Fynbos (Figure 4.83).

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Erica prolata (d), Leucadendron eucalyptifolium, Metulasia densa, Passerina corymbosa, Protea


Conservation Endangered. Target 30%. Only 4% statutorily conserved in the Bontebok National Park and small patches also in Langeberg-ooos (mountain catchment area). More than 40% already transformed for cultivation (pastures) and pine plantations. Alien Acacia cyclops occurs in places. Erosion generally moderate and very low, but also high in some places.

Remarks This little known vegetation unit shows floristic features of both fynbos and of renosterveld. Overgrazing converts this to graminoid fynbos on the northern slopes and to a species-poor renosterveld elsewhere. It appears to be easily converted to pasture by frequent burning and liming.


Distribution Western Cape Province: Extensive areas between the Bot River Valley, Hemel en Aarde Valley, Stanford environs, Salmonsdam and Baardskeerdersbos, with the most extensive parts around Elim on the Agulhas Plain spanning the area from Soetansberg in the north to Buffeljags and the Soetansberg in the south. Outliers found on the northern slopes of the mountains adjacent to those of the Rûens around Napier and at Perdekamp north of Arniston. Altitude 20–300 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Undulating hills and plains covered with open to closed dwarf shrubland with occasional scattered tall shrubs. It is a diverse unit, with all structural fynbos types present, but with extensive areas of asteraceous fynbos dominated by low proteoid elements. To differentiate mesotrophic asteraceous from mesotrophic proteoid fynbos the following proteoid types are recognised: Leucadendron elimense, L. laxum, L. modestum, L. stelligerum and L. teretifolium. When degraded, this vegetation type becomes dominated by Elytropappus rhinocerotis. On transitions to deep sandy soils, Protea repens may be dominant, and these transitional communities are often much richer in species than associated FFs 12 Overberg Sandstone Fynbos.

Figure 4.84 FFc 1 Swellendam Silcrete Fynbos: Regenerating one-year old proteoid fynbos with resprouting Leucadendron salignum on gravel terraces, regularly burned for grazing, in the Bontebok National Park near Swellendam (Western Cape).
Fynbos Biome

Succulent Ff 2 Potberg Ferricrete Fynbos: Proteoid fynbos with Acacia-invaded river course in the background, near Viljoenshoog on the Agulhas Plain (Western Cape).

Geology & Soils Glenrosa and Mispah and prismatic and pedocutanic soils, derived from Bokkeveld Shale, Cape Granite (of the Hermanus Suite), and ferricrete and silcrete. Land types mainly Pb and Db.

Climate Mainly winter-rainfall regime, also with some summer rain. MAP 350–770 mm (mean: 545 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.8°C and 6.7°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for Ff 1 Elim Ferricrete Fynbos (Figure 4.83).


Conservation Endangered. Target 30%. This vegetation type is known to be a major node of Red Data plant taxa. Statutorily conserved in the Agulhas National Park (5%) and small patches in the Oude Bosch Private Nature Reserve. Some 42% transformed (cultivation of wheat, pastures, vineyards). Alien Acacia cyclops, A. saligna, Pinus pinaster, Hakea gibbosa, H. sericea, species of Eucalyptus and Leptospermum laevigatum are common invaders. Erosion low and very low.

Remarks This unit is a major regional centre of endemism located on the Agulhas Plain, significant especially for the high number of endemic Proteaceae. Some regional endemic taxa are shared with FRc 2 Rûens Silcrete Renosterveld.


Ff 2 Potberg Ferricrete Fynbos

VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (72%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (13%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (79%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 34 Riversdale Coast Renosterveld (78%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Northern and western lowermost slopes of Potberg Mountain from Potberg to Poortsrivier and bordered on the north by the Breede River from Diepkoof eastwards. Altitude 20–220 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Slight slopes and moderately undulating plains perched on the northern slopes below Potberg. A medium tall evergreen shrubland. Asteraceous and

Figure 4.85 Ff 1 Elim Ferricrete Fynbos: Remnant patch of proteoid fynbos dominated by Leucadendron salignum and L. elimense subsp. elimense, with Acacia-invaded river course in the background, near Viljoenshoog on the Agulhas Plain (Western Cape).

Figure 4.86 Ff 2 Potberg Ferricrete Fynbos: Proteoid fynbos with Leucadendron modestum dominant on ferricrete plains in the Potberg section of De Hoop Nature Reserve in the Overberg (Western Cape).
proteoid fynbos are dominant, with localised stands of restrioid fynbos.

Geology & Soils Ferricrete with dry, shallow loamy sand; also silcrete and Ordovician sandstone of the Table Mountain Group (Cape Supergroup) colluvium over shales. Shallow stony soils and sandy loams derived from shale. Rounded ferricrete stones, gravel and cobble covering the surface are locally called ‘koffieklip’ due to their brown colour. They are considered to be remains of the old African surface. Land types mainly Db, Fc, Fa and Fb.

Climate MAP 300–540 mm (mean: 455 mm), with no clear peak but a low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.0°C and 6.2°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFF 2 Potberg Ferricrete Fynbos (Figure 4.83).

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Protea repens (d), P. nerifolia, Rhus pallens. Low Shrubs: Elytropappus rhinocerotis (d), Erica quadrangularis (d), Leucadendron modestum (d), Amphithalaea ciliaris, Chrysanthemoides monilifera, Erica imbricata, E. puberuliflora, E. viscosa subsp. longifolia, Leucadendron coronarium, L. cryptocephalum, L. salignum, L. teretifolium, Oedera squarrosa, Serruria ludwigi. Graminoids: Cymbopogon ppositischili, Ficinia oligantha, Ischyrolepis capensis, Karroochola purpurea, Merxmuellera stricta.

Endemic Taxon Geophytic Herb: Bulbinella potbergensis.

Conservation Endangered. Target 30%. According to current coverage, about 6% of the unit is statutory conserved in De Hoop Nature Reserve. About 40% of the area transformed (cultivation). Acacia cyclops and A. saligna are notable invading aliens. Erosion moderate and very low.

Remark This little known vegetation unit has features of both fynbos and of renosterveld. Elytropappus rhinocerotis is present but not very conspicuous. It shares features with similar communities occurring on ferricrete or silcrete surfaces, and has the largest extant populations of Red Data silcrete endemics such as Leucadendron coronarium, L. cryptocephalum and Protea decurrens.

**FF1 Kango Conglomerate Fynbos**

VT 25 Succulent Mountain Scrub (Spekboomveld) (38%), VT 43 Mountain Renosterveld (30%) (Acocks 1953). South Coast Renosterveld (72%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (74%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 43 Kango Inland Renosterveld (75%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Northern foothills of the Little Karoo basin, south of the Groot Swartberg, from Gamkapoort to Barandas. Usually at higher altitude than the adjacent FR1 1 Kango Limestone Renosterveld such as on the Andriesberg. Altitude 400–200 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features High foothills, tending to have flat summits, but well dissected. Vegetation a dense shrubland, especially on southern aspects and higher slopes where it is represented by proteoid and asteraceous fynbos and some graminoid fynbos. Upper southern slopes very dense proteoid fynbos.

Geology & Soils Shallow to deep, often yellow-red apedal soils derived chiefly from Cango sandstones, but also Buffelskloof conglomerate and dolerite intrusions. Land types mainly lb.

Climate MAP 230–730 mm (mean: 455 mm), relatively even, but with a peak in March and a low in December–January. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 30.6°C and 3.1°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–20 days per year. See also climate diagram for FF1 1 Kango Conglomerate Fynbos (Figure 4.83).

Important Taxa (‘Cape thickets’ Small Tree: Protea nitida. Tall Shrubs: Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia (d), Leucadendron rubrum (d), Protea repens (d), Freylinia lanceolata, Rhus angustifolia, R. incisa. Low Shrubs: Antherosperum aethiopicum (d), Elytropappus rhinocerotis (d), Muraltia ecafeolai (d), Paranomus dregei (d), Passerina obtusifolia (d), Agathosma recurvifolia, A. roodebergensis, Anisodontea scabrosa, Athanasia filiformis, A. triflora, Cliftonia ruscifolia, Herrmannia holosericea, Leucadendron salignum, Leucospermum cuneiforme, L. wittebergense, Muraltia ericoides, Paranomus dispersus, Protea intonsa, P. lorifolia, Psoralea oligophylla. Succulent Shrub: Crassula nuckialis. Geophytic Herb: Drimia intricata. Graminoids: Cannomos scirpoides, Carex glomerabilis, Cymbopogon marginatus, Ischyrolepis gaudichaudiana, Karroochoia curva, Thamnochortus fruticosus.


Conservation Least threatened. Target 27%. Conserved for instance in the Swartberg Nature Reserve, Swartberg- oos (mountain catchment area) and Groot Swartberg. Only about 2% has been transformed (cultivation). This is largely an unploughable unit occurring on the summit of rugged hills. Erosion low and very low.

Remarks The ecology and floristics of this unit are largely unknown. The name ‘conglomerate’ is for expediency only as it occurs equally on sandstones and dolerites in this area. This unit grades into FR1 1 Kango Limestone Renosterveld in the south and at lower altitudes and shares with it the high abundances and dominance of Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia. On steep north-facing slopes, and especially in kloofs, spekboom thickets dominated by Portulacaria afra border on the vegetation of this ‘conglomerate fynbos’. Narrow, fire-protected ravines on the southern slopes shelter remnants of afrotemperate forest.


**FF2 Loerie Conglomerate Fynbos**

VT 70 False Macchia (59%) (Acoks 1953). Mesic Grassy Fynbos (29%), Valley Bushveld (28%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (34%), LR 65 Grassy Fynbos (28%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 30 Krome Fynbos/Renosterveld Mosaic (41%), BHU 21 Humansdorp Grassy Fynbos (40%) (Cowling et al. 1999b; Cowling & Heijnis 2001). STEP Loerie Fynbos Thicket (31%), STEP Andrieskraal Fynbos Thicket (15%), STEP Zuurberg Forest Thicket (5%) (Vlok & Euston-Brown 2002).

Distribution Eastern Cape Province: Hankey Valley on both sides of the Gamtoos River, from Andrieskraal to Mondplaas on the southwestern side, and Patensie to Thornhill on the north-eastern side. Also found in the lower Kwazunza Valley above Springfield and Rooikrans near Uitenhage. Altitude 80–400 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Moderately undulating plains dissected by major rivers. Vegetation low shrubland or grassland with sparse emergent tall shrubs, and rich in succulents and geophytes. Structurally these are graminoid, asteraceous and proteoid fynbos types.

Geology & Soils Acidic, moist clay-loam, Glenrosa and Mispah soils and conglomerates associated with shales and conglomer-
Fynbos Biome

Ates of the Karoo Uitenhage sequence. Land types mainly Fc, Fa and Ib.

Climate: MAP 360–780 mm (mean: 600 mm), even throughout the year with a slight bimodal peak in March and October–November. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.1°C and 6.9°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFt 2 and Ib.

Important Taxa


Figure 4.87 FFt 2 Loerie Conglomerate Fynbos: Mixed proteaceous-ericaceous fynbos with Leucadendron salignum and Erica species near Hankey (Eastern Cape).

Ates of the Karoo Uitenhage sequence. Land types mainly Fc, Fa and Ib.

Climate: MAP 360–780 mm (mean: 600 mm), even throughout the year with a slight bimodal peak in March and October–November. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.1°C and 6.9°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFt 2 and Ib.


Endemic Taxon: Succulent Shrub: Erepsia aristata.

Conservation: Least threatened. Target 23%. Some 11% statistically conserved in the Groendal Wilderness Area. Small patches are also found in the private Kabeljous River Natural Heritage Site. About 9% transformed (cultivation). Erosion very variable, including significant areas of high and moderate erosion, but also very low in some areas.

Remarks: Fire-protected gullies with AT 4 Gamtoos Thicket and a forest (dominated by Ficus sur) form an intricate mosaic with the fynbos. The boundary towards adjacent renosterveld is particularly indistinct and very broad, supporting communities of transitional character. The flatter, old African surfaces are dominated by Clorftoria ruscifolia and Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia.


9.1.7 Alluvium Fynbos

Alluvium fynbos has previously been mapped as renosterveld. It covers relatively large blocks where there is a fine sediment talus adjacent to mountains in wetter areas. It is essentially a high-rainfall version of alluvium renosterveld, the major difference relating to the coarser nature of the sediments, the higher rainfall associated with elevated areas and adjacency to mountains and the consequent higher levels of leaching. It is also far wetter than can be gauged by its rainfall, as it is a conduit for

Figure 4.88 Climate diagrams of alluvium fynbos units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days (days when screen temperature was below 0°C); MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress (% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply).
streams and rivers adjacent to mountains, which braid out in alluvial taluses before coalescing into the rivers of the plains. Floristically the alluvial fynbos therefore contains large portions of Restionaceae, Proteaceae and Ericaceae and classifies as true fynbos rather than renosterveld.

From its topographical position at the foot of the mountains, alluvial fynbos is well traversed with alluvial (riverine) vegetation patches, ranging from seeps to open to deep channels, with different amounts of colluvial rock. It also usually grades into adjacent shale fynbos units, but these have fine-grained sediments. Typically the dominant communities are asteraceous, proteoid (Leucadendron chamaelea, L. corymbosum are prominent emergents) and restioid fynbos types. Considering its small aerial extent, some units are relatively rich in endemics, mainly bulbs, Fabaceae and Proteaceae. High levels of historical transformation may have resulted in high levels of extinction of endemics prior to intensive botanical collection. Still today, with the notable exception of FFa 3 Swartland Alluvium Fynbos (see Walton 2006) at Elandsberg Private Nature Reserve (north of Wellington), this is a poorly studied group of vegetation types.

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**FFa 1 Kouebokkeveld Alluvium Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (100%) (Acocks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (31%), Central Mountain Renosterveld (17%), Dry Mountain Fynbos (6%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (81%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 47 Cederberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (47%), BHU 49 Swartruggens Mountain Fynbos Complex (35%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Fringes of the northern Koue Bokkeveld valleys from Op Die Berg (north of Ceres) northwards to Tandfontein and eastwards to Excelsior, extending to the Blinkberg Pass and Winkelhaak. Smaller unmapped patches are also found at north-facing entrances to valleys of the Hex River Mountains. Altitude 850–1 000 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Slightly undulating plains in mountain valleys where alluvium has accumulated alongside rivers and as alluvial fans. Vegetation is emergent proteoids in a low medium dense grassy shrubland, structurally primarily asteraceous and proteoid fynbos, with prominent ericaceous fynbos in numerous seeps.

**Geology & Soils** Sandy to silty alluvium with small cobbles embedded over Bokkeveld shales. Soils are duplex and dystrophic plinthic catenas and grey regic sands. Land types mainly Ca, Bb and Hb.

**Climate** Winter-rainfall climate with MAP 240–730 mm (mean: 400 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.0°C and 3.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence fairly infrequent, 10–30 days per year. This is the driest and coolest of all alluvium fynbos types due to the rainshadow effect and high elevation. See also climate diagram for FFa 1 Kouebokkeveld Alluvium Fynbos (Figure 4.88).


**Conservation** Endangered. Target 29%. None statutorily conserved, with 1.4% conserved in Koue Bokkeveld mountain catchment area. Almost half of the area transformed for cultivation for orchards and pastures. Erosion very low and low.

**Remarks** This is a poorly studied vegetation unit. It grades into FFh 1 Kouebokkeveld Shale Fynbos as alluvium thins out.

**Reference** C. Boucher (unpublished data).

**FFa 2 Breede Alluvium Fynbos**


**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Upper Breede River Valley flats from Tulbagh to the Brandwag Dam near Worcester including the Slanghoek and Brandwag Valleys, and extending to the Hex River Valley. Altitude 200–350 m, with few patches reaching altitudes as high as 600 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Slightly undulating plains and adjacent high mountains, with numerous alluvial fans and streams. Open emergent tall proteoids in a moderately tall shrub matrix with a gramnoid understoody. Asteraceous and proteoid fynbos are dominant, with localised restioid fynbos and ericaceous fynbos.

**Geology & Soils** Quaternary alluvial deposits consisting of round cobbles embedded in fine loamy sand, over metasediments of the Malmesbury Group and Bokkeveld Group shales. Soils are usually of alluvial land type la, with some Fa land type.
Climate Seasonal, winter-rainfall climate peaking June–August. MAP 90–970 mm (mean: 480 mm). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.9°C and 4.8°C for February and July, respectively. MAT close to 17°C. Frost incidence infrequent. Although in the rainshadow of the Hawequas Mountains, the area is well fed with water from the mountains. See also climate diagram for FFa 2 Breede Alluvium Fynbos (Figure 4.88).


Conservation Endangered. Target 30%. Small patches conserved in the statutory Fonteintjiesberg and Limietberg Nature Reserves, Matroosberg and Hawequas (both mountain catchment areas) as well as in the private Quaggas Berg. Almost 60% already transformed for cultivation (vineyards, pastures, pine plantations), road building and urban sprawl. This area is susceptible to transformation through long-term continuous grazing and repeated short-interval burning. This disturbance eliminates palatable grasses and increases the unpalatable shrubs that sprout after fire or have a short life cycle. Aliens do not play a major role except for Acacia saligna, Hakea sericea and a number of alien annual grasses. Erosion very low and low.

Remarks This unit shares ecological and floristic features with FFa 1 Breede Alluvium Renosterveld, with which it grades to the east in the lower valleys. It also contains elements of the FFd 4 Atlantic Sand Fynbos, suggesting an ancient link, possibly as dune corridors over the Hawequas Mountains north of the Nuwekloof Pass.


FFa 3 Swartland Alluvium Fynbos

Figure 4.90 FFa 2 Breede Alluvium Fynbos: Proteoid fynbos dominated by Leucadendron salignum with emergent Cliftonia ruficarpa near Worcester (Western Cape).


Conservation Critically endangered. Target 30%. Nearly 10% conserved in the Waterfall Nature Reserve, Winterhoek (mountain catchment area) and private reserves such as Elandsberg, Langerug and Wiesenhof Wildpark. More than 75% already transformed for vineyards, olive orchards, pine plantations, urban settlements and by building of the Voëlvlei and Wemmershoek Dams. Alien Acacia saligna and Hakea sericea are prominent in places. Erosion moderate and very low.

Remarks Previously this was considered to be part of renosterveld (e.g. Moll & Bossi 1983, Low & Rebelo 1996), but it is clearly a fynbos type. This unit forms a complicated mosaic with FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld at its lower extremity, and some of the communities have an ecotonal character, for example where the soils are dominated by clay-rich silts.


**Ffa 4 Lourensford Alluvium Fynbos**

VT 47 Coastal Macchia (52%) (Acoks 1953). LR 62 West Coast Renosterveld (46%), LR 68 Sand Plain Fynbos (29%), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (21%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 32 Boland Coast Renosterveld (42%), BHU 12 Blackheath Sand Plain Fynbos (30%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Low-lying areas between Figgrow and Gordon’s Bay, including much of the Strand and Somerset West, extending up the Lourens River Valley to the Sawmill above Lourensford Estate. Altitude 20–150 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Low-lying plains supporting low, medium dense shrubland with short graminoid understorey. Restioid and asteraceous fynbos are dominant, although there is some evidence that proteoid fynbos might once have been dominant. Some remnants are exceptionally rich in geophytes.

**Geology & Soils** Plinthic, duplex, silty soils often with small cobbles and pebbles embedded. Found over Cape Suite granite and metasediments of the Tygerberg Formation (Malmesbury Group). Land types mainly Ca and Ac.

**Climate** Winter-rainfall climate peaking from May to August. MAP 470–980 mm (mean: 640 mm). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.0°C and 7.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence infrequent. This is the only alluvium fynbos under strong maritime influence. See also climate diagram for Ffa 4 Lourensford Alluvium Fynbos (Figure 4.88).


**Conservation** Critically endangered. About 3% conserved in the Helderberg and Harmony Flats Nature Reserves and a further 22% in Lourens River (protected natural area). The conservation target of 30% is unattainable since more than 90% of the area has been transformed for urban development (Helderberg Municipality), cultivation, pine plantations and roads. Erosion very low and moderate.

**Remarks** This unit falls within areas farmed since earliest colonial times (Farm Vergelegen of W.A. van der Stel since 1700). Most of the remnants are transformed by grazing, mowing and changes in fire regime, and it is uncertain what has been lost and whether the remaining patches are representative of the original vegetation type.

References C. Boucher (unpublished data), N. Helme (unpublished data).
Granite fynbos occurs on only 2% of the area of fynbos vegetation. It has two major facies. In wetter areas on steeper slopes it is usually on a deep, well-drained soil, prone to further erosion by large dongs that extend from a watercourse upslope of the base of the overlying sandstone cliffs. These usually have pure fynbos communities, although in screens and canalised watercourses, closed-scrub fynbos and Cape thicket occur. In drier areas and areas of harder rock, large granite domes are prominent, with pockets of deep soil. Here, in relatively firesafe environments, the Cape thicket element is dominant on the lower edges of the boulders, within boulder fields and in gullies, with fynbos in the open areas in between. In addition, rock communities are prominent, and characteristically support a succulent flora.

Granite fynbos is characteristically tall and dense, often with *Cliffortia* and other spiny-leaved species. Floristically and structurally this type shares most elements with shale fynbos, except for the dominance of patches of closed-scrub fynbos and Cape thicket elements. Being more fertile than sandstone fynbos, granite fynbos has a very distinctive post-fire seral phase dominated by dense 1–1.5 m tall stands of Asteraceae and Fabaceae, primarily Aspalathus. These stands last for two to three years before they die away and the asteraceous, restiid and proteoid fynbos grow through and become dominant. Structurally this vegetation is taller and denser than typical fynbos. Drier slopes support asteraceous fynbos, dominated by spined-leaved species and large resprouting shrubs, whereas proteoid fynbos is dominant in wetter areas. Waboomveld is dominant in the mid-lower slopes.

### 9.1.8 Granite Fynbos

Granite fynbos units. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days; MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASM: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress.

**Figure 4.92** Climate diagrams of granite fynbos units. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days; MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASM: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress.

**FFg 1 Kamiesberg Granite Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (75%) (Acocks 1953). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (74%) (Low & Rebelo 1996).

**Distribution** Northern Cape Province: Namaqualand, summits and upper slopes of Rooiberg in the north (1 395 m) on the Farm Pedrskloof, Sneekop (1 589 m), Kamiesberg (1 527 m), Johannes se Berg (1 550 m), Sittenberg (1 553 m), Eselkop (1 664 m) and Rooiberg (1 705 m) south of Rheboksloof in the south, in the Kamiesberg Mountains (roughly in the area between Kamieskroon, Leliefontein and Garies). Rather anomalously, the unit is not very strongly correlated with altitude. Although the low altitude limit is roughly 1 450 m, outliers occur as low as 1 200 m including some sporadic occurrences on flats between the mountains. It is absent from many areas above 1 200 m in the region. The upper altitude limit is the summit of Rooiberg (1 705 m), the highest peak in Namaqualand.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**

System of round-top mountains and broad-shoulder ridges dominated by granite domes and slabs. The dominant vegetation is usually medium tall (1–2 m), sparse (cover 30–40%, up to 60%) shrubland dominated by malacophyllous shrubs. In structural terms this shrubland ranks as asteraceous fynbos. Localised patches of fynbos may occur lower in the landscape within renosterveld in seepages and in alluvial washes. When heavily grazed, this vegetation type is transformed into karoo, resulting in fence-line contrasts of succulent karoo shrubs versus asteraceous fynbos. When burned or bush-cut, the annual and bulb flora result in spectacular displays.

**Geology & Soils**

Granites and gneisses of the Mokolani Kamieskroon Gneiss and Stalhoek Complex. Soils skeletal, shallow and sandy, typical of lc land type.

**Climate**

Precipitation low, with the lowest average values at the semi-arid limit. MAP 240–450 mm (mean: 355 mm), peaking from May to August. This type is near the lower-rainfall limits for fynbos on granite, and is the driest of the granite types. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 24.9°C and 2.1°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFg 1 Kamiesberg Granite Fynbos (Figure 4.92).

**Important Taxa**


**Biogeographically Important Taxa** (all Kamiesberg endemics) Low Shrubs: *Aspalathus angustifolius* subsp. *robusta*, *Murutia rigidia*. Herbs: *Centella tridentata var. dregaeana*, *Lotononis acu*.


Conservation Least threatened. Target 27%. None conserved in statutory or private conservation areas. Only about 2% transformed (cultivation), but much of the ‘natural veld’ is degraded by heavy grazing. Erosion is moderate.

Remark 1 The proteoid affinities of this vegetation are with derived elements in quartzitic fynbos, suggesting that only arid-adapted species crossed the Krom River gap to the south. Some fynbos elements (e.g. Erica plukenetii, Ischyrolepis sieberi) occur well north of Kamiesberg in the Springbok area, but in these habitats these ‘tramp’ species are generally found as a rare admixture within a matrix of renosterveld.

Remark 2 The FFg 1 Kamiesberg Granite Fynbos is embedded within the FRg 1 Namaqualand Granite Renosterveld. These two vegetation units form the core of the Kamiesberg Centre of Endemism (Van Wyk & Smith 2001). The lower boundary of the granite fynbos with renosterveld is complex and the transition varies. In places it is clear-cut, but in other areas broad transition zones can be found, with fynbos elements persisting within renosterveld in rocky and moist facies, and renosterveld elements found on the deeper soils within fynbos. The large bare slabs of granite support small and shallow-soil grit pans filled with coarse granite sand. These habitats as well as crevices in the granite slabs contain lithophytic communities dominated by Polymita albescens, Othonna euphorbioides, and many other succulent taxa (Anacampseros, Conophytum, Cotyledon, Crassula etc.) and geophytes. These patches of vegetation should be classified within the SKn 1 Namaqualand Klipkoppe Shrubland (see also the Chapter on Succulent Karoo).


**FFg 2 Boland Granite Fynbos**

VT 69 Macchia (82%) (Acoks 1953). Mesic Mountain Fynbos (56%) (Moll & Bossi 1983), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (59%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 32 Boland Coast Renosterveld (41%), BHU 54 Franschoek Mountain Fynbos Complex (29%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Upper slopes and summits of Paarlberg and Paarl Mountain as well as the lower slopes of mountains spanning the Groenberg and Hawequasberge (western foothills near Wellington), Pniel (Simonsberg and Groot Drakenstein Mountains and Klapmutskop), Franschoek (Middelberg, Dassenberg, Skerpeuwel, Middagkranberg), Stellenbosch (Jonkershoek Valley and northern side of the Helderberg) and Helderberg Municipality (including lower south- and west-facing slopes of Haelkop and the Hottentots Holland Mountains and also the free-standing Skapenberg). It also occurs in the Du Toitskloof and Wemmershoek Valleys, Kaaimansgat and lower Stettynskloof, with outcrops on the Bottelary Hills and Kanonkop (near Pella). Altitude 150–650 m, reaching 850 m in places.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Moderately undulating plains and hills, varying from extensive deep soils, to localised deep soils between large granite domes and sheets. A fairly dense, 1–2 m tall closed shrubland with occasional low, gnarled trees dotted through the landscape. A diverse type, dominated by scrub, asteraceous and proteoid fynbos (with Protea repens, P. burchellii, P. launfolia with Leucadendron rubrum and L. daphnoides as dominants on drier slopes, Leucospermum grandiflorum or L. gueinzii dominant in seepage areas, and P. nerifolia and Leucadendron sessile on moist slopes), but with patches of restioid and ericaceous fynbos in wetter areas. Waboomveld is very typical and very extensive within this unit.

**Geology & Soils** Cape Granite Suite rocks (Paardeberg, Paarl, Stellenbosch and Wellington Plutons). Soils usually of Glenrosa.
Mispah forms, or red-yellow apedal. Freely draining soils are common in winter. See also climate diagram for Ffg 2 Boland Granite Fynbos (Figure 4.92).

**Important Taxa** (Cape thickets, Wetlands) Small Trees: Protea nitida (d), Brabejum stellatifolium, Heeria argentea, Leucospermum concapodonerdon subsp. vindum, Podocarpus elongatus. Tall Shrubs: Cliftonia cuneata (d), Diospyros gabra (d), Eucaea racemosa subsp. racemosa (d), Leucadendron rubrum (d), Olea europaea subsp. africana (d), Protea nevilliana (d), P. repens (d), Patterickeria pyracantha (d), Rhus angustifolia (d), R. laevigata (d), Cassine chineoides, Chrysanthemoides monilifera, Cliftonia phyllisiphilis, Cunonia capensis, Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia, Euryops abrotanifolius, Gymnosporia buxifolia, Haleria lucida, Ricinus communis. Montfroia capensis, Montfroia paphylla, Myrsine africana, Passerina corymbosa, Podalyria myrtillifolia, Protea burchelliana, Ranaea melanophloeos, Rhus glauca, R. lucida, R. tomentosa, Viburnum obtcordata. Low Shrubs: Anthospermum aethiopicum (d), Belzia lanuginosa (d), Brunia nodiflora (d), Cliftonia rufiscia (d), Elytropappus rhinocerotis (d), Erica muscosa (d), E. plukenetii subsp. pluknetii (d), Erioccephalus africans var. africans (d), Helichrysum teretifolium (d), Leucadendron salignum (d), Osmotopsis asteriscoides (d), Salvia lanceolata (d), Agathosma imbricata, A. serpilfacea, Aspalathus bracteata, A. elliptica, A. lebeckioideae, Cliftonia dentata, Clutia pubescens, Erica abietina subsp. aurantiaca, E. hispidula, E. imbricata, E. sphaeroidea, Erioccephalus africans var. paniculatus, Eucalyptus tomentosa, Euphorbia genistoides, Euryops thunbergii, Helichrysum zeyheri, Hermannia cuneifolia, H. scabra, Leucadendron daphnoides, L. sessile, Microdon dubius, Muraltia decipiens, Otholobium obliquum, O. rotundifolium, Polangium tabulare, Phyllica thumbergiana, Printzia polifolia, Protea acaulus, P. scordonerafolia, Salvia africana-lutea, Serruria kraussii, S. subsp., Ursinia palaeantha, Xiphophora lanceolata. Succulent Shrubs: Aloe parvifolia, Antinima granitica, Lampranthus spinififormis, Tetragonia spicata. Woody Climbers: Asparagus scandens, Microloma sagittatum, Secamone alpin, Zygophyllum sessiliformis. Semiaridic Shrub: Thesium funerales. Herbs: Annoserhiza macrocarpa, Corymbium scabrum, Galium munroniferum, Gazania ciliata, Helichrysum crispum, Knowltonia vesticitaria, Lichtensteinia obscura, Mairia burchellii, Nemesia affinis, Polycarca capensis, Pseudoselagus serrata, Senecio arenarius, Tripterus tomentosus, Wimmera bifiida. Geophytic Herbs: Aristeia capitata (d), Pteridium aquilinum (d), Blechnum australe, Bobartia indica, Cyphia phyteuma, Lachenalia aloides, Leucosporia corymbosa, Morea galaxia, Oxalis bifiida, Romulea hisruta, Rumohra adianthiformis, Spiloxene serrata, Trachychandra formilformis, Wachendorfiapaniculata, Watsonia barbocinica subsp. barbocinica, Zantedeschia aethiopica. Herbaceous Climber: Cynanchum africanaum. Graminoids: Cymbopogon marginatus (d), Ehrharta calycina (d), E. villosa var. villosa (d), Eleagnus angustifolia (d), Ischyrophly capensis (d), L. gaudichaudiana (d), Merxmuelleria cincta (d), M. rubra (d), M. stricta (d), Restio filiformis (d), Tetraria fasciata (d), Aristida vestita, Cannomos virgata, Ehrharta ottonis, Ergrostis curvula, Ficinia indica, F. nigrescens, F. trichodes, Hyparrhenia hirta, Ischyrophyle sieberi, Neesenebecka punctaria, Pentachistis aristoides, Platycalyx depauperatus, Schoenoxyphium eklophi, S. lanceum, Tetraria bromoides, T. burmannii, T. sylvatica, Themeda triandra, Wildenowia incurvata.


**Conservation** Endangered. Target 30%. Some 14% statutorily conserved in the Hawequas, Hottentots Holland and Paarl Mountain Nature Reserves, with a further 34% found in Hawequas, Hottentots Holland mountain catchment areas and Helderberg and Paardenberg Nature Reserves. More than half of the area has been transformed for vineyards, olive groves and pine plantations. Most common woody aliens include Pinus pinaster, Hakea sericea and Acacia saligna. Erosion very low and moderate.

**Remark** 1 Many species common to this unit are shared with Ffg 5 Cape Winelands Shale Fynbos, to which this unit is closely related—the two share many endemics (e.g. Leucadendron daphnoides, Leucospermum gueinzii, Serruria kraussii). Although many species are shared, granite fynbos extends to lower rainfall than shale fynbos does (although the mean is higher due to higher relief of granite), so that species found in narrow, upper zones within shale fynbos are often quite widespread in granite fynbos.

**Remark** 2 Cape thicket and occasionally also forest patches occur within fire-protected sites against the granite outcrops, on sandstone- or calcareous slopes and in steeper river courses. Succulent and geophytic ‘gardens’ (Oscularia and Crassula are well represented here) are found on extensive granite domes and slabs which also support epilithic lichen flora.

**References**

**VT 69 Macchia (74%) (Acocks 1953).** LB 64 Mountain Fynbos (53%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 55 Cape Peninsula Mountain Fynbos Complex (63%), BHU 12 Blackheath Sand Plain Fynbos (36%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Lower slopes on the Cape Peninsula from Lion’s Head to Smitswinkel Bay almost completely surrounding Table Mountain, Karkonkelberg and Constantiaberg through to the Kalk Bay Mountains. South of the Fish Hoek gap, it is limited to the eastern (False Bay) side of the Peninsula from Simon’s Bay to Smitswinkel Bay, with a few small patches between Fish Hoek and Ocean View. Altitude 0–450 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Steep to gentle slopes below the sandstone mountain slopes, and undulating hills on the western edge of the Cape Flats. Medium dense to open trees in tall, dense proteoid shrubland. A diverse type, dominated by asteraceae and proteoid fynbos, but with patches of Restio and ericaceous fynbos in wetter areas. Waboomveld is extensive in the north and heavily encroached by afrotropical forest in places. South of Hout Bay, the dwarf form of Protea nitida is dominant, so that there are no emergent proteoids.
Groves of Silver Trees (Leucadendron argenteum) occur on the wetter slopes.

Geology & Soils Deep loamy, sandy soils, red-yellow apedal or Glenrosa and Mispah forms, derived from Cape Peninsula Pluton of the Cape Granite Suite. Land types mainly Ac, Fa and Bc.

Climate Typical winter-rainfall climate peaking from May to August. MAP 590–1 320 mm (mean: 960 mm). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.0°C and 7.2°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. The climate of this unit is almost identical to that of FFg 2 Boland Granite Fynbos, but shows a far stronger maritime influence. See also climate diagram for FFg 3 Peninsula Granite Fynbos (Figure 4.92).


Conservation Endangered. Target 30%. Conserved in the Table Mountain National Park as well as on the premises of the Kirstenbosch National Botanical Garden. However, much of the conserved fynbos has been transformed into afrotemperate forest due to fire protection policies at Orangeskloof and Kirstenbosch and a reluctance to use fire in green belts and on the urban fringe. The effective fynbos area conserved is thus much lower. A total of 56% transformed, mostly Cape Town urban areas (40%) on low-lying flat areas, including vineyards and pine plantations (13%). The most common alien woody species include Acacia melanoxylon, Pinus pinaster and numerous other more localised invasive alien species, reflecting the long history of colonisation and the relatively fertile soils. Erosion is very low.

Remarks Although well studied, published knowledge is largely confined to Kirstenbosch and Orangeskloof. There are almost no data for the eastern and northern slopes of Table Mountain, and none for the area south of Constantia Neck. The northern tip of this unit was visited by the much venerated Charles Darwin in 1844 at the point of contact of the granite with the neighbouring shale.


FFg 4 Robertson Granite Fynbos

VT 69 Macchia (56%) (Acorcks 1953), Central Mountain Renosterveld (57%) (Moll & Bosi 1983), LR 61 Central Mountain Renosterveld (58%) (Low & Revelo 1996), BHU 38 Ashton Inland Renosterveld (58%), BHU 64 Southern Langeberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (26%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution Western Cape Province: Confined to southern foothills of the Langeberg, namely the higher parts of Tierberg northwest of Robertson and the Langeberg from the Kabous River at Bergenheim to Bakoodshoogte west of Swellendam. Altitude 250–400 m for the belt near Swellendam, and 550–949 m at Graanpunt, the summit of Tierberg.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Steep, undulating hills covered with a dense proteoid shrubland, or shrubland with high grass cover. Structurally it is mostly graminoid and proteoid fynbos.

Geology & Soils Deep loamy sands, Glenrosa and Mispah forms, derived from Cape Granites (Robertson and Dassenheuvel Plutons of Cambrian age). Land types mainly Fb and Fa.

Climate MAP 190–1 000 mm (mean: 505 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum tempera-
Fynbos Biome... 

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Moderately undulating plains and undulating hills on the coastal forelands. Dense proteoid and ericoid shrubby grassland. Proteoid and graminoid fynbos are dominant with ericaceous fynbos in seeps. In the west, most remnants of this type are dominated by proteas. Eastwards graminoid and ericaceous fynbos are dominant on the flat plateaus, with proteas confined to the steep slopes.


**Climate** MAP 350–880 mm (mean: 600 mm), with a slight low in early winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.8°C and 4.0°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for Ffg 5 Garden Route Granite Fynbos (Figure 4.92).

**Reference** N. Helme (unpublished data).

**Ffg 5 Garden Route Granite Fynbos**

VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (70%) (Acocks 1953). South Coast Renosterbosveld (22%) (Moil & Bossi 1983). LR 2 Afromontane Forest (67%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 100 Krynys Afromontane Forest (64%), BHU 28 Blanco Fynbos/Renosterbosveld Mosaic (36%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Conservation** Endangered. Target 23%. Only about 1% conserved in the proposed Garden Route National Park. About 70% has been transformed for cultivation (56%), pine plantations (7%) and by urban development (6%). Remnants are largely confined to isolated pockets on steeper slopes. Erosion moderate and high. Very few patches of this type remain in a pristine condition as most of it has been converted to pasture by liming, bush-cutting and frequent burning, and augmented with pasture grasses. Western remnants suggest that proteoid fynbos might have been dominant historically. It is easily converted to graminoid fynbos by regular fires and augmentation with pasture grasses.

**References** Drews (1980b), Hoare et al. (2000).

**9.1.9 Limestone Fynbos**

Limestone fynbos is a coherent edaphic unit floristically very different from the other fynbos vegetation. Even at detailed scales, limestone fynbos shares very few species with sandstone fynbos, and only a few with sand fynbos. Although intermediate communities do exist where neutral sand overlies limestone, the vegetation...
The mapped extent of limestone and sand fynbos within the Small limestone lenses at Onrus, Hangklip, Macassar, Wolfgat fields and raised platform topography retard the spread of fire. the littoral fringe along the South Coast, except where dune areas are found in Britton (1972), Taylor (1972b, 1983, 1984b), species completely and replace them with sand fynbos communities. While these communities are floristically distinct, some communities are structurally identical and cannot be distinguished on satellite images or aerial photographs. Therefore it is not possible to map the two types accurately at this stage. Small limestone lenses at Onrus, Hangklip, Macassar, Wolfgat and Cape Point were not mapped. Brief descriptions of these areas are found in Britton (1972), Taylor (1972b, 1983, 1984b), Low (1989) and Privett (1998). West of Hermanus, proper limestone communities do not seem to occur on the small outcrops present. Although these are spatially well defined, they do not appear to contain most of the characteristic limestone species, having depauperate, if distinct, sand fynbos communities.

Limestone fynbos contains all structural types of fynbos, determined primarily by slope and soil depth. Restiofynbos and Leucadendron muirii proteoid fynbos occur on skeletal soils and limestone pavements. Protea obtusifolia–Leucadendron meridianum proteoid and scrub fynbos occur on deeper soils, with asteraceous fynbos on the drier northern slopes and ericaceous fynbos restricted to a few higher-altitude southern facies. The interface of sand and limestone fynbos often contains stands of Cape thicket, presumably relating to availability of water and fire protection where limestone outcrops form steeper slopes. Similarly, old sink holes (filled with a sand base) and shafts (leading to caves) are usually fringed with thicket elements, especially Sideroxylon inerme. Where rivers have deposited silt on the limestone, even in very thin layers, renosterveld elements become dominant. These are extremely localised and have not been mapped. A prime example of such ‘limestone renosterveld’ is found in De Hoop Nature Reserve (just south of the headquar ters). Similarly, the areas of Bokkeveld shale that were covered by calcrites washed from the limestone have all been ploughed up (except for thicker expanses which are either limestone fynbos or, where protected from fire, have become thicket stands) and the nature of original vegetation types remains uncertain. These have been mapped as renosterveld.

**Figure 4.97** Climate diagrams of limestone fynbos units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days (days when screen temperature was below 0°C); MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASM5: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress (% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply).

**FFI 1 Agulhas Limestone Fynbos**

VT 47 Coastal Macchia (75%) (Acoccks 1953), South Coast Strandveld (38%), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (27%) (Moll & Bossi 1983), LR 67 Limestone Fynbos (40%), LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (27%) (Lov & Rebelo 1996), BHU 15 Hagedralka Limestone Fynbos (44%), BHU 6 Agulhas Fynbos/Thicket Mosaic (25%), BHU 13 Springfield Sand Plain Fynbos (25%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Agulhas Plain from the vicinity of Hermanus to Bredasdorp and Struisbaai. The largest expanses of limestone are found between the Klein River Lagoon and Grootbos, around Hagedralka, Hueningrug and Soetanysberg. Some unmapped outliers occur at Hangklip, Macassar (False Bay) and Buffels Bay (Cape Peninsula). The most southerly patch of the unit extends to within 300 m of the southern tip of Africa. Altitude 20–400 m, with some patches found at 500 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Low hills in plains, fragmented on the coastal margin of the Agulhas coastal forelands. Mainly on the plains, but with significant patches at higher altitudes such as on Soetanysberg. Moderately dense, low shrublands contain tall, emergent proteoids. Structurally it is
mainly asteraceous and proteoid fynbos, with restioid fynbos in sandy areas and on limestone pavements. Wetter areas, such as waterlogged bottomlands, are dominated by Leucadendron linifolium restioid fynbos, grading to FFd 7 Agulhas Sand Fynbos where sands become deeper.

**Geology & Soils** Shallow alkaline bedrock and alkaline, grey regic sands on limestones of the Bredasdorp Formation. Land types mainly HB, Db and Fa.

**Climate** MAP 410–660 mm (mean: 530 mm), peaking slightly from June to August. This is the wettest of all the limestone fynbos units. Mean daily minimum and maximum temperatures 25.5°C and 7.0°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FF 1 Agulhas Limestone Fynbos (Figure 4.97).


**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 32%. Statutorily conserved (8%) especially in the Agulhas National Park (small patches also in Kogelberg Biosphere Reserve, Table Mountain National Park and Wolfag Nature Reserve), with a further 4% protected in private conservation areas such as Groot Hagelkraal and Oude Bosch. Only 5% has been transformed for cultivation and by urban development. Woody aliens Acacia cyclops. A. saligna and Leptospermum laevigatum are of conservation concern. Erosion very low and low.

**Remark 1** Compared to the other two areas of limestone fynbos, this is the smallest but the most diverse. Given the lack of distinct structural types recorded in this vegetation, the floristic diversity is astounding.

**Remark 2** In fire-safe habitats, such as depressions and on calcareous cretices, milkwood forests occur (Cowling et al. 1988, Von Maltitz et al. 2003).


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**FFI 2 De Hoop Limestone Fynbos**

VT 47 Coastal Macchia (95%) (Acocas 1953). Limestone Fynbos (91%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 67 Limestone Fynbos (91%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 16 De Hoop Limestone Fynbos (87%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Broad swathe on the coastal forelands from Struisbaai and Bredasdorp to Infanta at the Breede River mouth, remaining seawards of the Potberg and including the hills of Bobbejaanskans and Voëlneskans north of De Hoop Vlei. Altitude 20–240 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** An inland range of hills, with plains and moderately undulating plains on the seaward foreland, in places dotted with karstic sinkholes and dry valleys (poljes). Some of the depressions can be longer than 2 km. Structurally it is mainly asteraceous and proteoid fynbos, with restioid fynbos in sandy areas. These areas were converted to grazing lawns in formerly disturbed (ploughed) areas currently with high game concentrations. Neutral to acid sands support Ff 7 Agulhas Sand Fynbos and Ffd 9 Albertinia Sand Fynbos. Extensive skeletal calcrete over shale on the inland border may once also have held limestone fynbos or renosterveld ecotone communities, but these have all been converted to pasture and wheatland, and their vegetation was not documented before their conversion.

**Geology & Soils** Shallow, alkaline to neutral sand and bedrock, Glenrosa and Mispah forms on limestone of the Bredasdorp Formation. Topographically with less variegated relief than in the other limestone fynbos units, characterised by distinctive karstic valleys, sinkhole depressions and caves. Land types mainly Fc, Ic and Ic.

**Climate** MAP 250–530 mm (mean: 385 mm), peaking slightly in autumn and...
winter with a low from December to February. This is the driest of the limestone fynbos types. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.6°C and 6.6°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FFI 2 De Hoop Limestone Fynbos (Figure 4.97).


**Endemic Taxa** Low Shrubs: *Acmena mundiana*, *Argyrolobium harmsianum*, *Aspalathus pallescens*, *A. prostrata*, *Brachysiphon mundii*, *Cliffordia burgerii*, *Erica scytophylla*, *Sideroxylon inerme* forest patches. Fire-safe sinkhole depressions have *Sideroxylon inerme* stands and occasionally dune thicket. These are sometimes converted to grazing lawns of creeping grass (mainly dominated by *Cynodon dactylon*) in areas of high antelope populations (bontebok, eland, rheebok) and zebras.

**Remark** 2 Fire-safe habitats such as steep cliffs support dense sclerophyllous thickets and small *Sideroxylon inerme* forest patches. Fire-safe sinkhole depressions have *Sideroxylon inerme* stands and occasionally dune thicket. These are sometimes converted to grazing lawns of creeping grass (mainly dominated by *Cynodon dactylon*) in areas of high antelope populations (bontebok, eland, rheebok) and zebras.


**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Coastal forelands from Witsand at the mouth of the Breede River to Mossel Bay, with narrow outliers close to the coast between Hartenbos and Groot Brak River. Furthest occurrence inland is at about 10 km south of Riversdale or roughly 25 km from the coast. Altitude 20–300 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** A series of hills with parallel crests, sand-filled plains and undulating hills. Neutral and acid sands support FFI 9 Albertinia Sand Fynbos, which dominates the valleys and is far more extensive than in the other limestone fynbos units. This landscape is dominated by the Canca se Leegte and Wankoe depressions, with most of the limestone fynbos on the hill tops and ridges. This vegetation

**Figure 4.99** FFI 2 De Hoop Limestone Fynbos: Species-rich proteoid fynbos in De Hoop Nature Reserve (Overberg, Western Cape), with a prominent coastal limestone endemic *Leucadendron muni* (left) and a local endemic *Metalasia calcicola* (Asteraceae).

**Figure 4.100** FFI 3 Canca Limestone Fynbos: Proteoid fynbos with *Protea obtusifolia* (foreground) and *Leucadendron meridianum* (background), on limestone ridges north of Still Bay (Western Cape).
has tall, emergent proteoids in a medium dense low shrubland—mainly asteraceous and proteoid fynbos, with restiod fynbos on skeletal soils. Communities east of the Gouritz River lack the proteoid overstorey and are poorer in species, with *Erica* particularly rare. Rutaceae are dominant and succulents and geophytes are more abundant, grading into succulent thicket on the coast. Local diversity east of the Gouritz River depends on the extent of limestone patches, with smaller outcrops lacking characteristic species.

**Geology & Soils**

Shallow alkaline to neutral grey regic sands and Glenrosa and Misphah forms on limestone of the Bredasdorp Formation. Land types mainly Fc and Hb.

**Climate**

MAP 310–630 mm (mean: 485 mm), relatively constant throughout the year, but with a low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.5°C and 6.3°C for February and July, respectively. A mild temperature regime, with frost incidence only about 3 days per year. This is a marginally warmer unit than the other two limestone fynbos units. See also climate diagram for FFI 3 Canca Limestone Fynbos (Figure 4.97).

**Important Taxa**

- Cape thickets: *Protea obtusifolia* (d), *Chrysanthemeonoides monilifera*, *Eria prolata*, *Protea lanceolata*.

**Endemic Taxa**


**Conservation**

Least threatened. Target 32%. Only very small portion statute conservatively in the Pauline Bohnen and Geelkraans Nature Reserves, with an additional 3% protected in private reserves such as Rein's Coastal (Gouriqua), Stilbaai Fynbos, Die Duine, Mosselbankfontein and Annet. Some 14% has already been transformed, mainly for cultivation. Ailens *Acacia cyclops* and *A. saligna* are common. Erosion is very low.

**Remarks**

Fire-safe habitats such as depressions and limestone ridges support Cape Milkwood Forests (see Von Maltitz et al. 2003), often with notably darker soils and extending well into the sandy soils. *Protea lanceolata* is a marked dominant in wetter areas and in ecotones, with dune thicket patches away from the coast. West of Blombras a small transitional form between *Leucospermum praeox* and *L. truncatum* is as much at home in the limestone as in the sand fynbos. There are still remnants of the shallow calcretes over shale north of the limestone deposits (not mapped). These do bear limestone fynbos, but more often have geophytes, but this may be due to conversion of the veld into pasture and wheatlands, with only thicker calcretes remaining and protected from fire.

**References**


9.2 Renosterveld

Renosterveld vegetation occupies 29% of the area of the Fynbos Biome and 25% of the area of the CFR. By far most renosterveld vegetation units (86%) occur on shale, but it can be found on any substrate except sandstone and quartzite (on which it may be found locally where there are overlying remnants of shale or colluvial clay layers).

9.2.1 Shale Renosterveld

Shale renosterveld is the predominant renosterveld group, accounting for 86% of the area of renosterveld. Renosterveld, unlike fynbos, extends beyond the Fynbos Biome on the Cape Fold Belt onto the karoo shales, where rainfall patterns allow a high grass cover (chiefly *Mimexmuellera stricta*) and abundance of nonsucculent shrubs such as *Elytropappus rhinocerotis*. Affinities are more with neighbouring karoo types than with other renosterveld types, which show strong affinities to their neighbouring fynbos types, especially regarding geophytes. Within the classical Fynbos Biome, shale renosterveld accounts for 90% of the area of renosterveld.

Low & Rebelo (1996) mapped an extensive patch of renosterveld in the Spektakelberg Pass area on the Escarpment west of Springbok in northern Namaqualand. Surrounded by the unique and endemic-rich SKn 2 Namaqualand Shale Shrubland, some renostersbos-dominated shrublands do occur here on the exposed edge of the Escarpment (see Van Jaarsveld & Koutnik 2004, p. 54), probably linked to more frequent fog precipitation and possibly also orographic rain in the region. Low & Rebelo’s coverage (see above) is too extensive and comprises much of the succulent shrubland on shale as well. Due to lack of adequate field data, we have mapped this area as part of SKn 2 Namaqualand Shale Shrubland pending better data.

**FRs 1 Vanrhynsdorp Shale Renosterveld**

VT 69 Mackia (56%), VT 28 Western Mountain Karoo (32%), VT 31 Succulent Karoo (12%) (Acocks 1953). Dry Mountain Fynbos (58%), Mesic Mountain Fynbos (32%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 64 Mountain Fynbos (92%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 45 Bokkeveld Mountain Fynbos Complex (75%), BHU 46 Gifberg Mountain Fynbos Complex (16%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijns 2001).

**Distribution**

Northern and Western Cape Provinces: Below generally west- and north-facing sandstone cliffs of the Bokkeveld Escarpment and Matsikamma Mountains from Die Toring north of Van Rhyns Pass to the Gifberg near Klawer. Also extensive in internal valleys of the Koebbe in the area of the confluence of the Oorlogs River and the Klein Kobee River. Altitude 150–880 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**

Valley bottoms and steep slopes below often sheer sandstone cliffs, supporting moderately tall, cupressoid-leaved shrublands dominated by renostersbos. Geophytes and annuals are common and conspicuous in spring. In some areas, transitional to Succulent Karoo shrublands, extensive *Montinia caryophyllacea* stands occur (see SKs 13 Klaver Sandy Shrubland).

**Geology & Soils**

Clays and clayey loams primarily derived from mudstone and siltstone of the Knersvlakte Subgroup (Vanrhynsdorp Group) and schist and phyllite of the older Gariep Supergroup (last two are of Namibian Erathem). Soils are primarily of Glenrosa and Misphah form, closely associated with quartzite and shale of Nardouw Subgroup (Table Mountain Group) forming neighbouring cliffs and scree. Land types mainly Fa and lb.
Climate  MAP 180–450 mm (mean: 285 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 31.2°C and 4.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 1 Vanrhynsdorp Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia (d), Montinia caryophyllacea (d), Nylandia scoparia (d), Rhus incisa (d), Diospyros australis-africana, D. glabra(d), Halleria lucida(d), Maytenus acuminate, Olea europea subsp. africana, Wiborgia senecia. Low Shrubs: Berkheya fruticosa (d), Elytrarhapus rhinocerotis (d), Helichrysum revolutum (d), Passerina truncata subsp. truncata (d), Pteronia pallens (d), Amphiglossa tomentosa, Anthospermum spathulatum subsp. spathulatum, Asparagus capensis var. capensis, Eriocerephalus africanus var. africanus, E. microphylus var. pubescens, Felicia dubia, Galenia africana, Helichrysum cylindriflorum, Maytenus oleoides, Pelargonium praemorsum, Phormium dichotomum, Pteronia paniculata, Struthiola leptantha. Succulent Shrubs: Dideltha spinosa (d), Euphorbia burmannii (d), E. loricata, E. mauritanica, Othonna

Figure 4.101 Climate diagrams of shale renosterveld units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days [days when screen temperature was below 0°C]; MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress [% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply].

**Endemic Taxon** Geophytic Herb: *Eriospermum minutipustulatum*.

**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved (4%) in the Oorlogskloof Nature Reserve. About 2% transformed (cultivation). Erosion very low and moderate.

**Remarks** This unit is distinct from FRs 2 Nieuwoudtville Shale Renosterveld primarily by the lack of endemic geophytes characteristic of the latter, but also by abundant succulents found in this vegetation at the lower transitions towards the Succulent Karoo shrublands. Vanrhynsdorp Shale Renosterveld and FRs 1 Bokkeveld Sandstone Fynbos share a number of regional endemics, such as *Athanasia leptcephala* and *Podalyria pearseni*. Fynbos and Cape thicket communities occur on the scree and talus cones at the base of the sandstone cliffs, but these have not been mapped.


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**FRs 2 Nieuwoudtville Shale Renosterveld**

VT 28 Western Mountain Karoo (83%) (Accocks 1953). Mosaic of Dry Mountain Fynbos & Karroid Shrublands (93%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 55 Upland Succulent Karoo (91%) (Low & Rebelo 1998). BUH 35 Nieuwoudtville Inland Renosterveld (57%), BHU 75 Western Mountain Vygiesveld (34%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Northern Cape Province: Bokkeveld Plateau at Nieuwoudtville extending in a 1–4 km wide strip 13 km south of Boererus on the Oorlogskloof River near Papkuilsfontein and almost 20 km north of Nieuwoudtville in the vicinity of Kleinplaas. Altitude 600–850 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Flat tableland covered with uniformly structured low renosterveld shrubland with small, woody shrubs (0.5–1.6 m tall) and a variable grass layer. A diverse geophyte and annual community is prevalent in the wet season. Dominants are strongly related to soil, displaying large compositional turnover with soil texture, depth and aspect. The transition to fynbos in the west is abrupt and determined by sandstone geology. Progressively increasing aridity results in a more gradual transition to STK 2 Hantam Karoo in the east.

**Geology & Soils** The soils have a well-developed clay E-horizon (leading to seasonal water-logging of soils) in places and are derived from Dwyka Group diamicites (tillites) that have a fine-grained (shale) matrix. There are even areas with only skeletal clays over the Nardouw Subgroup rocks (Cape Supergroup). Land types mainly Db and Fb.

Climate MAP 190–350 mm (mean: 285 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 31.0°C and 3.2°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 2 Nieuwoudtville Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).


**Conservation** Endangered. Target 27%. None conserved in statutory or private conservation areas. Almost 50% transformed, mainly for cultivation. While most of the area of this vegetation unit has been transformed into croplands, the remaining portions are threatened by fire, overgrazing and by infestation by aliens such as *Medicago polymorpha*. This unit is a major node of geophytic diversity requiring a higher conservation status. Erosion moderate and high.

**Remarks** Together with FRd 1 Nieuwoudtville-Roggveeld Dolerite Renosterveld, this region represents the highest known concentration of geophytes, with bulbous species constituting 40% of the flora. Of interest are the number of sister taxa, with one species in this unit and the other in the neighbouring FRd 1 Nieuwoudtville-Roggveeld Dolerite Renosterveld.

Northern and Western Cape Provinces: Major part of the Roggeveld bordered by the edge of the western Great Escarpment mostly above the Tanqua Basin. South of the Hantam Plateau region in the upper parts of the range of the Keiskierberge and isolated high plateaus to the south including plateaus such as Grootberg, Saalfontein se Berg, Sneewkrans and Swaanweerberg encompassing the vicinity of Middelpos and Sutherland, reaching as far east as the highest-lying areas of the Teekloof Pass south of Fraserburg along the northwest summit plateaus of the Nuweveldberge. Altitude 1 200–1 900 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Undulating, slightly sloping plateau landscape, with low hills and broad shallow valleys, supporting mainly moderately tall shrublands dominated by renosterbos, with a rich geophytic flora in the wetter and rocky habitats.

Geology & Soils Mudrocks and sandstones of the Adelaide Subgroup (Beaufort Group of the Karoo Supergroup) dominate the geology. Some intrusions of the Karoo Dolerite Suite are also present. Glenrosa and Mispah forms are prominent. Land types mainly Fc and Da.

Climate MAP 180–430 mm (mean: 305 mm), even throughout the year, showing a slight peak in March. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.3°C and 0.2°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence is remarkably high for a renosterbos climate (30–70 days per year). See also climate diagram for FRs 3 Roggeveld Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 27%. None conserved in statutory or private conservation areas. Only 1% transformed, but danger of overgrazing is locally high. Erosion mainly moderate, with the remainder low.

Remarks The Roggeveld is named after the indigenous rye species (Secale africana) now almost extinct due to grazing pressure. The Roggeveld region is rich in endemic geophytes, most notably the monotypic Devia xeromorpha. It is an important centre of radiation for several other genera such as Hesperantha and Romulea (Iridaceae), Zaluzianskya (SPharophilaeseae) as well as Lachenalia and Polyxena (both Hyacinthaceae). Most of the endemics of this vegetation type are found on the dolerite cappings. This unit belongs to the core of the Hantam-Roggeveld Centre of Endemism (Van Wyk & Smith 2001).


FRs 4 Ceres Shale Renosterveld


Distribution Western Cape Province: Warm Bokkeveld Valley at Ceres and Laastedrift to the east; Cederberg from Matjiesrivier (not mapped) to Koue Bokkeveld at Blinkberg Pass, the Odessa area north of Gydoberg and Baviaanshoek. Altitude 500–1 300 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Moderately undulating plains and lower mountain slopes supporting medium tall cupressoid-leaved shrubland dominated by renosterbos. Heuweltjies are prominent in places.

Geology & Soils Clays derived from shale and sandstone of the Ceres (mostly) and the Bidouw Subgroups of the Bokkeveld Group. Some Nardouw Subgroup shales (Table Mountain Group) and Dwyka diamictites (Karoo Supergroup) also

Figure 4.103 FRs 3 Roggeveld Shale Renosterveld: Renosterbos (Elytropappus rhinocerotis) shrubland on the top of Verlatenkloof near Sutherland (Northern Cape).
occur. Glenrosa and Mispah forms are prominent. Land types mainly Fb, Fa and Bb.

**Climate**

MAP 290–720 mm (mean: 430 mm), peaking from May to August. The Warm Bokkeveld communities are much more arid than those in the Koue Bokkeveld. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.9°C and 3.2°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 4 Ceres Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

**Important Taxa**


**Endemic Taxa**

Succulent Shrub: *Didymaotus lapidiformis*. Herb: *Lotononis exstipulata*.

**Conservation**

Vulnerable. Target 27%. Few patches conserved in the Ben Etive Nature Reserve, an additional 1% in the Koue Bokkeveld (mountain catchment area) and the Matroosberg Private Nature Reserve. Some 36% of the area transformed, mainly by cultivation; also threatened by short-interval burning and overgrazing. Erosion varies widely, from very low to high.

**Remarks**

This unit possibly also occurs in the FFb 1 Northern Inland Shale Band Vegetation at lower altitudes from Pakhuis Pass southwards, and also locally within SKv 3 Agter-Sederberg Shrubland, where it occurs at the upper reaches in wetter areas from Matjiesrivier to Blinkberg—these occurrences were too localised or too poorly surveyed to be mapped.

**References**


Conservation Least threatened. Target 27%. None conserved in statutory or private conservation areas. Only about 1% transformed. Erosion moderate.

Remark This is a very poorly known renosterveld type despite its interesting biogeographical borderline position—the unit straddles the Fynbos, Succulent Karoo and marginally the Nama-Karoo Biomes. It does not appear to have any endemic species.


**FRS 6 Matjiesfontein Shale Renosterveld**

VT 43 Mountain Renostersbosvel (38%), VT 70 False Macchia (25%) (Acoks 1953). Karroid Shrublands (51%), Central Mountain Renosterveld (44%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). Inland Renoster Shrubland (Campbell 1985). LR 61 Central Mountain Renosterveld (46%), LR 58 Little Succulent Karoo (40%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 81 Touws Vygieveld (34%), BHU 39 Matjies Karoo Biomes. It does not appear to have any endemic species. BHU 81 Touws Vygieveld (34%), BHU 39 Matjies

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: From De Doorns and the top of the Thorsensberg Pass in the west to Garnka Poort in the east, remaining north of the Wabooberg and Warmwaterberg in the Little Karroo and north of the Anysberg and Groot Swartberg and positioned south of the Tanqua Karoo, the Grootrivier near Matjiesfontein and the Floriskraal Dam south of the Tanqua Karoo. This type surrounds the many higher elevation ridges of FFq 3 Matjiesfontein Quartzite Fynbos and FFh 2 Matjiesfontein Shale Fynbos. Altitude 750–1 300 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Low mountains, parallel hills and mid-altitude plateaus supporting a low, open to medium dense, lepto-phyllophyll shrubland with a medium dense matrix of short, divaricate shrubs, dominated by renosteros. Heuweltjes present at low densities in places.

**Geology & Soils** Clays and loams derived from Witteberg and Bokkeveld Group shales of the Cape Supergroup; Glenrosa and Mispah forms prominent. Land types mainly Fc, Ic, Ib and Fb.

**Climate** MAP 150–470 mm (mean: 300 mm), peaking slightly from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.4°C and 2.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRS 6 Matjiesfontein Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

**Important Taxa** Low Shrubs: Elytrarapappus rhinocerotis (d), Aspalathus alpestris, Asparagus capensis var. capensis, Athanasia flexuosa, Chrysocoma ciliata, C. oblongifolia,

**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. About 7% in totally conserved in the Anysberg Nature Reserve (CapeNature) and private conservation areas such as Rooikrans. Some 9% totally transformed (mainly cultivation). Erosion moderate to very low as well as very high in places.

**Remarks** This is a very poorly studied vegetation unit. Although grouped with FRS 5 Central Mountain Shale Renosterveld by Acoks (1988), this unit has more fynbos and fewer karoo elements. This unit also occurs in the FFh 3 Central Inland Shale
Band vegetation at moderate altitudes (1 300 m), but has not been mapped as its extent is uncertain.

**References**

**FRs 7 Montagu Shale Renosterveld**


**Distribution**
Western Cape Province: Patches in the western Little Karoo south of the Waboomberg and Warmwaterberg and south of the Anysberg and Klein Swartberg as well as along the northern foothills of the Langeberg and the southern foothills of the Anysberg, Klein Swartberg, Rooiberg and Gamkaberg, from The Koo in the west to Calitzdorp and Cloete’s Pass in the east. The largest patch occurs between Montagu and Barrydale. Altitude 200–1 020 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**
Undulating hilly landscape with broad valleys supporting open, tall shrubland in a medium dense matrix of short, divaricate shrubs, dominated by renosterbos. Transitions with succulent Karoo units can be observed at lower altitudes.

**Geology & Soils**
Clays mostly derived from Bokkeveld and some Witteberg Group shales; Glenrosa and Mispah forms prominent. Some extensive quartzitic pebble fields occur. Land types mainly Fc and Fb.

**Climate**
MAP 140–560 mm (mean: 320 mm), with a slight peak in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.1°C and 4.1°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–20 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 7 Montagu Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

**Important Taxa**
**Small Tree:** Acazia karroo. Succulent Tree: Aloe ferox. Tall Shrubs: Diospyros pallens, Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia, Eleuca undulata, Metaslyca densa, Rhus pterota. Low Shrubs: Athanasia vestita (d), Chrysocoma oblongifolia (d), Elytroappus rhinocerotis (d), Felicia filifolia subsp. filifolia (d), Oeder genistifolia (d), O. squarrosa (d), Pteronia pallens (d), Tripteris sinuata (d), Dermisia africana, Athanasia microchepha, Chrysocoma clithi, Cymbopappus adenosolen, Diospyros austro-africanana, Gnida inconspicua, G. sericea, Helichrysum hamulosum, Herrmannia flamea, Leucadenron salignum, Lycium cinereum, Passerina comosa, R obtusifolia, Pteronia incana, Selago corymbosa. Succulent Shrubs: Aloe arborescens, Crassula ciliata. Herbs: Arctotheca calendula, Cotula turbina, Helichrysum crispum. Geophytic Herb: Romulea sphaeroarpa. Gramnoids: Menxmmellera stricta (d), Cynodon dactyly.

**Biogeographically Important Taxon**
Geophytic Herb: Ixia gloriosa (Little Karoo endemic).

**Endemic Taxa**

**Conservation**
Least threatened. Target 27%. Statutorily conserved in the Anysberg Nature Reserve (2%), and an additional 4% protected in private reserves such as Botterboom, Kanaland and Doornkloof. Some 15% transformed (cultivation). Local low levels of infestation with alien Acacia cyclops and A. saligna. Erosion mainly high, but also very low in some areas.

**Remark**
This vegetation type is in urgent need of research attention.

**References**
Muir (1929), Vlok (2002).

**FRs 8 Breede Shale Renosterveld**

VT 26 Karroid Broken Veld (45%), VT 69 Macchia (33%) (Acocks 1953). Central Mountain Renosterveld (39%), Karroid Shrublands (17%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 61 Central Mountain Renosterveld (70%), LR 58 Little Succulent Karoo (23%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 38 Ashton Inland Renosterveld (56%), BHU 87 Robertson Broken Veld (23%), BHU 37 Waveren-Bokkeveld Inland Renosterveld (14%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution**
Western Cape Province: Patches in the Breede River Valley from Tulbagh to Swellendam; more specifically, most of the valley floor between Tulbagh and Wolseley, isolated small patches to the vicinity of Worcester, diverse patches between Stettyn and McGregor south of the Breede River, a near continuous but irregular band on the southern foothills of the Langeberg from Philippsdale near Worcester to Ashton. The most extensive area occurs near Ashton. McGregor and the confluence of the Rivieronderend and Breede Rivers west of Swellendam. Altitude 100–650 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**
Low hills, slightly undulating to undulating plains and lower mountain slopes. In the western regions low, cupressoid-leaved shrubland (with scattered emergent small trees) is dominated by renosterbos. Elements...
of shale fynbos are present. In the eastern regions open, tall shrublands (possibly closely affiliated to FRs 12 Central Renshaw Renosterveld) are found, with microphyllous shrubs forming the dominant layer. Breede Renosterveld grades into Skv 7 Robertson Karoo in the central valley, with karoo shrublands usually occurring on the northern aspects and renosterveld found on the southern aspects, with a decline in the extent of the karoo shrublands to the south. Heuweltjies are very prominent, with either bush clumps in moister areas or succulent shrubs in drier habitats.

**Geology & Soils** Clays and loams mostly derived from Bokkeveld and some Witteberg Group shales as well as Porterville Formation phylite shale of the Malmesbury Group (Namibian Erathem) in the northwest. Glenrosa and Mispah were the extent of this is unknown it has not been mapped.

**Climate** MAP 210–610 mm (mean: 370 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.3°C and 4.8°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3–8 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 8 Breede Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

**Important Taxa**

- **Tall Shrubs:** Euclea undulata (d), Lycium feroxissimum (d), Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia, Euryops tenuissimus, Rhus angustifolia, R. undulata. Low Shrubs: Aspalathus steudeliana (d), Elytrarappus rhinocerotis (d), Galenia africana (d), G. herniariaefolia (d), G. secunda (d), Oedera sedifolia (d), O. squarrosa (d), Pentzia incana (d), Pteronia incana (d), P. paniculata (d), Anthaspermum aethiopicum, Aspalathus caniculans, A. pachyloba subsp. macroclada, A. submisia, A. varians, Carissa bispinosa subsp. bispinosa, Chrysosma ciliata, C. coma-aurea, Felicia filifolia subsp. filifolia, F. flanaganii, Freynia undulata, Herrmannia vestita, Heterolepis peduncularis, Metalasia cotyledonia, Oedera genistifolia, Passerina obtusifolia, Pteronia fasciculata, Selago fruticosa, Senecio pinifolius, Wahlenbergia tenella. Succulent Shrubs: Delosperma pageanum (d), Euphorbia burmannii (d), E. maurusitica (d), Ruschia caroli (d), R. festiva (d), Tylecodon paniculatus (d), Adromischus filiculuis subsp. filiculuis, Aloe microstigma subsp. microstigma, Crassula atropurpurea var. atropurpurea, C. pubescens subsp. pubescens, C. rupestris, C. tetragona, Pelargonium alternans, Psilocaulon cori- anum, Ruschia multiflora, Tetragonia fruticosa, T. sarcophylla, Tylecodon grandiflorus.


**Conservation** Vulnerable. Target 27%. The unit is statutorily conserved in the Vrijheid Nature Reserve (2%) as well as in Langeberg-wes and Matroosberg mountain catchment areas. Some 31% transformed, mainly by cultivation. Alien Pinus pinaster and several species of Acacia occur locally, at low levels. Erosion spans high and very low.

**Remarks** Little known and in urgent need of detailed study before totally modified by agriculture and mining. Around Noree (between Robertson and Worcester) there are small exposed dolomite lenses (partly subject to mining), supporting species such as Aloe microstigma, Antimima lepoldii and a new species of Gazania pending formal description. The identity of this vegetation and its possible recognition as a separate vegetation unit needs further study. This unit extends onto FFb 4 Central Coastal Shale Band Vegetation in the Langeberg near Nuy but as the extent of this is unknown it has not been mapped.


**Fynbos Biome** 181

**FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld**

VT 46 Coastal Renosterveldbosveld (85%) (Acocks 1953). LR 62 West Coast Renosterveld (86%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 32 Boland Coast Renosterveld (27%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001). Coast Renoster Shrubland (Campbell 1985).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Large, generally continuous areas of the Swartland and the Boland on the West Coast lowlands, from Het Kruis in the north, southwards between the Piketberg and Olifantsrivierberge, widening appreciably in the region around Moorreesburg between Gouda and Hoefield, and encompassing Riebeek-Kasteel, Klipheuwel, Philadelphia, Durbanville, Stellenbosch to the south and Sir Lowry’s Pass Village near Gordon’s Bay. Altitude 50–350 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Moderately undulating plains and valleys supporting low to moderately tall leptophyllous shrubland of varying canopy cover as well as low, open shrubland dominated by renostebos. Heuweltjies are a very prominent local feature of the environment, forming ‘hummockveld’ near Piketberg and giving the Tygerberg Hills their name. Stunted trees and thicket are often associated with the...
Fynbos Biome – (Low Shrubs: subsp. – subsp. (d), var. Tall. Geophytic Herbs: , (mauve-flowered vygie) and , – (d), – (d). Herb: , (d), ’grazing lawns’ also occur in abundance.

270–670 mm (mean: 430 mm), peaking respectively. Frost incidence 3 or 4 days per year.

Clay soils derived from Malmesbury Group shales (specifically the Porterville Formation in the north and east and the Moorreesburg Formation in the west). The soils diagnostic horizons and Glenrosa and Lichtensteinia obscura, Manuclea cephalotes, Senecio laxus, Stachys aethiopica. Geophytic Herbs: Cyanella hyacinthoides (d), Melasphaerula ramosa (d), Albuca maxima, Aristea africana, Babiana melanoops, Cheilanthes capensis, Disa physodes, Geissorhiza imbricata subsp. bicolor, G. inffexa, G. juncea, G. purpureolutea, G. tubaghenesis, Lachenalia longibracteata, L. pallida, L. polyphylla, Mohria cafforum, Ornithogalum thyrsoides, Oxalis pes-caprae, Romulea flavia, R. leipoldtii, R. rosea, R. tabularis, Watsonia marginata. Graminoids: Cynodon dactylon (d), Ehrharta calycina (d), Elegia capensis (d), E. recta (d), E. tectorum (d), Ficinia brevifolia (d), Ischyrolepis capensis (d), Merxmuella stricta (d), Ehrharta delicatula, E. thunbergii, Hordeum capense, Merxmuella arundinacea, Tribolium hispidum.


Geology & Soils Clay soils derived from Malmesbury Group shales (specifically the Porterville Formation in the north and east and the Moorreesburg Formation in the west). The soils contain prismatic and pedocutaneous diagnostic horizons and Glenrosa and Mispah forms are predominant. Land types mainly Db, Fb and Da.

Climate Winter-rainfall regime, with MAP 270–670 mm (mean: 430 mm), peaking from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.6°C and 6.3°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3 or 4 days per year. Mists are common in winter. See also climate diagram for FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

Important Taxa (Wetlands) Tall Shrubs: Aspalathus acuminata subsp. acuminata (d), Olea europaea subsp. africana (d), Rhus angustifolia (d), R. incisa (d), Chrysanthemoides monilifera, Euryops speciosissimus, E. tenuissimus, Gymnosporia buxifolia, Lebeckia cytisoides. Low Shrubs: Anthospermum aethicicum (d), A. spathulatum subsp. tulpbghense (d), Elytropappus rhinoceron-tis (d), Eriocephalus africanus var. africana (d), Euryops thunbergii (d), Galenia secunda (d), Helichrysum cymosum (d), H. teretifolium (d), Octeospermum spinosum (d), Otholobium hirtum (d), Agathosma glandulosa, Aspalathus aculeata, A. pinguis subsp. pinguis, A. spinosa subsp. flavispina, A. tridentata subsp. stau rantha, A. varians, Asparagus rubicundus, Athanasia trifurcata, Cliftonia marginata, Diosma hirsuta, Euclea acutifolia, Felicia filifolia subsp. filifolia, F. hyssopifolia, Galenia africana, Lebeckia cinerea, Leucadendron lanigerum var. laniger, Marasmodes polyccephala, Metalasia dregaeana, M. octofo. Muralia decipiens, M. onidifolia, Ortia africana, Passerina truncata subsp. truncata, Phyllica gracilis, Plecostachys serpyllifolia, Pteronia divaricata, P. incana, Rhus dissecta, Senecio pubigerus, Stoeb plumosa. Succulent Shrubs: Euphorbia burmannii (d), E. mau ritanica, Lampranthus elegans. Woody Climber: Microloma sagittatum. Herbs: Berkheya armata (d), B. rigida, Cotula tur binata, Echiostachys spicatus, Lichtensteinia obscura, Manuclea cephalotes, Senecio laxus, Stachys aethiopica. Geophytic Herbs: Cyanella hyacinthoides (d), Melasphaerula ramosa (d), Albuc maxima, Aristea africana, Babiana melanoops, Cheilanthes capensis, Disa physodes, Geissorhiza imbricata subsp. bicolor, G. inflexa, G. juncea, G. purpureolutea, G. tubaghenensis, Lachenalia longibracteata, L. pallida, L. polyphylla, Mohria cafforum, Ornithogalum thyrsoides, Oxalis pes-caprae, Romulea flava, R. leipoldtii, R. rosea, R. tabularis, Watsonia marginata. Graminoids: Cynodon dactylon (d), Ehrharta calycina (d), Elegia capensis (d), E. recta (d), E. tectorum (d), Ficinia brevifolia (d), Ischyrolepis capensis (d), Merxmuella stricta (d), Ehrharta delicatula, E. thunbergii, Hordeum capense, Merxmuella arundinacea, Tribolium hispidum.

Figure 4.109 FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld: Renosterveld (Elytropappus rhinocerontis) shrublands on Malmesbury shales at the foot of Spitskop, near Piketberg, with Moraea tulpbghense (orange, Red Data species), Lampranthus dilutus (mauve-flowered vygie) and Ilxia lutea (cream-coloured in the background).

Figure 4.110 FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld: A typical landscape mosaic of the West Coast renosterveld region—arable fields surround renosterveld shrublands which become limited to solitary hills (below Piekenierskloof Pass, Western Cape).
Conservation
This is a critically endangered vegetation unit. Target 26%, but since 90% of the area has been totally transformed (mainly for cropland), the target remains unattainable. The remnants are found in isolated pockets, usually on steeper ground. So far only a few patches have been included in conservation schemes (e.g. Elandsberg, Paardenberg). Aliens include Acacia saligna (very scattered over 65%), A. mearnsii (very scattered over 62%) as well as several species of Prosopis and Eucalyptus. Alien annual grasses of the genera Avena, Briza, Bromus, Lolium, Phalaris and Vulpia are a primary problem in remnant patches. Other serious aliens include herbs such as Erodium cicutarium, E. moschatum, Echium plantagineum and Petrorhagia prolifera. Erosion very low and low.

Remark 1
No floristic or phytosociological support for the north-south split into Swartland and Boland BHUs (Cowling & Heijnis 2001) could be found. Nor could we find any patterns associated with the coastal-inland geological belts (tygerberg, mooresburg and brandwacht formations).

Remark 2
Various special vegetation units are embedded within the West Coast renosterveld matrix, composed of vernal pools, ferricrete gravels, quartz patches and seasonally wet lowlands—all ranking among the most threatened Cape habitats and housing many endemic taxa.

References

FRs 10 Peninsula Shale Renosterveld
VT 69 Macchia (57%), VT 34 Strandveld of West Coast (40%) (Acoks 1953). West Coast Renosterveld (7%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 62 West Coast Renosterveld (63%), LR 68 Sand Plain Fynbos (32%) (Lov & Rebelo 1996). BHU 55 Cape Peninsula Mountain Fynbos Complex (71%), BHU 12 Blackheath Sand Plain Fynbos (29%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution
Western Cape Province: Signal Hill and on the lower northern slopes of Table Mountain and Devil’s Peak; approximately centred on the city bowl of Cape Town. Altitude 0–350 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features
Gentle to steep lower slopes with tall, open shrubland and grassland, typically with renosterbos not appearing very prominent. This vegetation is very grassy due to frequent fires and lack of grazing. On Devil’s Peak these ‘renosterveld grasslands’ are frequently mowed for grazing. On south-facing slopes and upper slopes this unit merges into fynbos. The early seral stages are dominated by Asparagus capensis, Hyparrhenia hirta, Haemanthus sanguineus, various Oxalis species and resprouting Rhus lucida, after which tussock grasses, shrubs and ferns emerge. After only 12 months the reseeding species start to become more obvious.

Geology & Soils
Clay soils derived from shale of the tygerberg formation, Malmesbury Group; Glenrosa, Mishap and lamotte forms prominent. Land types mainly Fa and Ga.

Climate
MAP 480–870 mm (mean: 720 mm), peaking markedly from May to August. This is the wettest renosterveld type by far. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.7°C and 7.8°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2 or 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 10 Peninsula Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

Important Taxa
(‘Cape thickets’) Tall Shrubs: Gymnosporia buxiolata (d), Noltea africana (d), Rhus angustifolia (d), R. glauca (d), R. lucida (d), R. tormentosa (d), Myrsine africana, Olea europaea subsp. africana, Putterickia pyracantha, Rhus laevigata. Low Shrubs: Cliftonia polygonofolia (d), Elytrarpappus rhinoceros (d), Erica filiculoides var. africana (d), Helichrysum cymosum (d), H. patulum (d), Lobostemon argenteus (d), Salvia africana-caerulea (d), Steebe cinerea (d), Antherpermum spathulatum subsp. spathulatum, Chrysanthemoides incana, Clutia pulchella, Diasma hirsuta, Erica baccans, Gnidia inconspicua, Otholobium hirtum, Salvia africana-lutea. Succulent Shrubs: Eresia anceps, Tylecodon grandiflorus. Herbs: Stachys aethiopica (d), Knowltonia capensis, Pseudoselago serrata. Geophytic Herbs: Cheilanthes capensis (d), Mohria caffrorum (d), Asplenium aethiopicum, Geissorhiza inflexa, G. pusilla. Graminoids: Hyparrhenia hirta (d), Cymbopogon marginatus, Ehrharta erecta, Eragrostis curvula, Merxmullera stricta, Pentaschistis aspera, Themeda triandra, Tribolium uniolae.

Conservation
Critically endangered vegetation unit. Target of 26% is unattainable since 77% of the area has been totally transformed (urban sprawl, cultivation and building of road infrastructure). It is statutorily conserved in the Table Mountain National Park (19%). A fair proportion of the conserved area on Devil’s Peak is covered by pine and gum parkland. These should be restored to renosterveld as soon as possible. Notable aliens include various species of Acacia (especially A. melanoxylon). Erosion very low.

Remarks
This vegetation burns every 3–5 years to the consternation of Cape Town citizens. Large portions of Signal Hill have been, however, protected from fire for up to 25 years. The upper reaches of this mapped unit on the northern slopes of Devil’s Peak should be FFh 5 Cape Winelands Shale Fynbos.

References
**FRs 11 Western Rûens Shale Renosterveld**

VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (79%), VT 69 Macchia (21%) (Acocks 1953). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterbosveld (94%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 33 Overberg Coast Renosterbosveld (92%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Western parts of the Rûens region (Overberg)—from Bot River and Villiersdorp eastwards, surrounding the Caledon Swartberg, and approximately to a line between Napier and Genendal. Altitude 60–450 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Moderately undulating plains, today mostly stripped of natural vegetation and where preserved, supporting an open to medium dense, cupressoid and small-leaved, low to moderately tall grassy shrubland dominated by renosterbos. Heuweltjies are not conspicuous. This unit is distinguished from other Rûens renosterveld types by the absence of Hemannia flammis, and rare occurrence of Aloe ferox and Acacia karroo complex. Shrubby Asteraceae increase as grazing reduces the palatable grass component (mostly Hyparrhenia hirta), resulting in subsequent erosion.

**Geology & Soils** Clays and loams derived from Bokkeveld Group shales, particularly the Ceres Subgroup. Glenrosa and Mispah forms are dominant. Land types mainly Fb and Fa.

**Climate** MAP 360–700 mm (mean: 490 mm), with a peak in winter (May to August). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.9°C and 6.1°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 11 Western Rûens Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

**Important Taxa** Tall Shrub: Rhus pallasii (d). Low Shrubs: Aspalathus nigra (d), A. spinosa subsp. flavispina (d), A. submissa (d). Asparagus capensis var. capensis (d), Athanasia trifurcata (d), Elytrarpyopus rhinocreros (d), Erica setacea (d), Felicia filifolia subsp. filifolia (d), Helichrysum petiolare (d), Metalasia acuta (d), Oedera squarrosa (d), Printzia polifolia (d), Stoebe plumosa (d), Aspalathus steudeliana. Succulent Shrub: Drosanthemum flavum. Herb: Cymrium cymosum (d). Geophytic Herbs: Bobartia indica (d), Micranthus juncus (d), Geissorhiza ornithogaloides, Oxalis duriuscula, O. livida var. altior. Graminoids: Cymbopogon pospisilii (d), Cynodon dactylon (d), Ehrharta calycina (d), Ficinia nigrescens (d), Hyparrhenia hirta (d), Ischyrolepis capensis (d), Merxmuelleria stricta (d), Themeda triandra (d).


**Conservation** Critically endangered. Target 27%. None of the area is conserved statutorily and only a small portion (about 1%) enjoys protection in the Witdraai Private Nature Reserve. Some 86% has already been transformed (thus target is unattainable), mostly by cultivation. Only the steepest slopes carry remnants of the natural vegetation. Erosion very low and low.


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**FRs 12 Central Rûens Shale Renosterveld**

VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (88%) (Acocks 1953). South Coast Renosterbosveld (2%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterbosveld (96%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 33 Overberg Coast Renosterbosveld (90%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Central parts of the Rûens region (Overberg) from Greyton and Stormsvlei (and Bromberg) to Napier and Bredasdorp and centred on Klipdale and Protem; also on the coastal flats southeast of Bredasdorp towards Arniston. Fragmented outliers are found on the southern part of the Agulhas Plain between Soetendalsvlei and Waskraalsvlei. Altitude 20–340 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Moderately undulating plains and pans. Vegetation is open to medium dense cupressoid and small-leaved, low to moderately tall grassy shrubland, usually dominated by renosterbos. It is distinguished from the Eastern Rûens Shale Renosterveld by the absence of Aloe ferox. Shrubby Asteraceae increase as grazing reduces the palatable grass component (mostly Hyparrhenia hirta) and subsequent erosion results. Heuweltjies not conspicuous, except in the south of the area. South of Bredasdorp this type is restricted and replaced by FF1 Elim Ferricrete Fynbos in wetter areas.

**Geology & Soils** Clays and loams derived from Bokkeveld Group shales, with Glenrosa and Mispah forms dominant. Land types mainly Fb.

**Climate** MAP 300–480 mm (mean: 380 mm), with a slight peak in winter (August), 49% of rain falling from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.3°C and 5.6°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence about...
3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 12 Central Rûens Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

**Important Taxa**


**Endemic Taxa**


**Conservation**

Critically endangered vegetation unit. Target of 27% cannot be attained since 87% of the area has already been transformed by cultivation. Small patches are conserved in the Agulhas National Park. Remnants are mainly on the sides of steeper hills. There is a notable absence of alien woody plants. Erosion very low and moderate.

**References**


**FRs 13 Eastern Rûens Shale Renosterveld**

VT 46 Coastal Renosterveld (89%) (Acocks 1953). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (97%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 34 Riversdale Coast Renosterveld (53%), BHU 33 Overberg Coast Renosterveld (34%), BHU 19 Suurbraak Grass shrubland (10%) (Cowling et al. 1997b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution**

Western Cape Province: Eastern Rûens (Overberg) from Bredasdorp (Patryskraal) and the area of the Breede River near Swellendam, between the coastal limestone (and sandstone) belt in the south and vegetation types of the southern foothills of the Langeberg, encompassing the areas in the vicinity of Malgas and Heidelberg, to the Goukou River at Riversdale. Altitude 40–320 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**

Moderately undulating hills and plains supporting cupressoid and small-leaved, low to moderately tall grassy shrubland, dominated by renosterbos. The southern limits are often covered by a thin layer of calcrite. Little of this vegetation remains, but some thicker calcrite deposits, too thick to be ploughed, support mesotrophic asteraceous “fynbos” with *Crassula expansa, Leucadendron linifolium* and *Nylandia spinosa*. It is not known whether the thinner deposits supported renosterveld or intermediate communities. In some places, especially closer to the mountains (Langeberg), *Themeda triandra* grasslands are found (see Raitt 2005).

**Geology & Soils**

Clays and loams derived from Bokkeveld Group shales with some contribution from Mesozoic Uitenhage Group sediments in the northeast; Glenrosa and Mispah forms dominant. Land types mainly Fb, Fc and Db.

**Climate**

MAP 270–540 mm (mean: 385 mm), with an even distribution and a slight low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.9°C and 5.9°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 13 Eastern Rûens Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

**Important Taxa**


**Important Taxa**


**Endemic Taxa**


**Conservation**

Critically endangered vegetation unit. Target of 27% cannot be attained since 87% of the area has already been transformed by cultivation. Small patches are conserved in the Agulhas National Park. Remnants are mainly on the sides of steeper hills. There is a notable absence of alien woody plants. Erosion very low and moderate.

**References**


**Endemic Taxa**


**Conservation**

Critically endangered. Target of 27% cannot be attained since over 80% of the area has been transformed, mostly for cropland. Only patches on the steepest slopes remain in a more or less natural state. Small fractions conserved in the Bontebok National Park, De Hoop and Werner Frehse Nature Reserves as well as in the private Grootvadersbosch Conservancy. Invasion of alien woody plants does not seem to constitute a problem, only Acacia cyclops occurs in places. Erosion moderate and very low.

**Remarks**

River valleys, watercourses and bottomlands support Aza 2 Cape Lowland Alluvial Vegetation dominated by Acacia karroo, Aloe ferox, Buddleja saligna and Rhus pallens. These are extensive, but have not been mapped so far.

**References**


**FRs 14 Mossel Bay Shale Renosterveld**

VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (76%) (Acoks 1953). South Coast Renosterveld (38%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (93%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 34 Riversdale Coast Renosterveld (64%), BHU 28 Blanco Fynbos/Renosterveld Mosas (24%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001). STEP Herbertsdale Renoster Thicket (46%), STEP Gouritz Valley Thicket (10%) (Vlok & Euston-Brown 2002).

**Distribution**

Western Cape Province: Coastal plains and valleys from the Kruisriver near Riversdale to Botterberg, west of the Robinson Pass, centred on the Gouritz River and bordered by mountains (Langeberg, Outeniqua) to the north and the N2 road to the south, except for a few small patches further south (south of Cooper). Altitude 120–360 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**

Undulating hills and tablelands, steeply dissected by rivers. The vegetation of the area is mainly a medium dense, medium tall cupressoid-leaved shrubland dominated by renosterbos, dotted by sparse, tall shrubs. Thicket patches and thicket elements are common, possibly because the landscape is more rugged than in the case of the Rögens shale renosterveld types, and therefore less prone to fire. Fire-safe habitats, such as steep slopes, gullies and territaria have thicket clumps, dominated by Euclea undulata, Putterlickia pyracantha and Rhus lucida. Steep north-facing slopes have succulent thicket elements. The southern reaches may be covered with a calcare layer bearing South Coast limestone fynbos elements.

**Geology & Soils**

Clays and loams mostly derived from Bokkeveld Group shales as well as Uitenhage Group clastics in the west and east. Prismatic or pedocutonic diagnostic horizons occur in soils. Glenrosa and Misphah forms dominant. Land types mainly Db, Ea and Fc.

**Climate**

MAP 270–620 mm (mean: 425 mm), even throughout the year with a slight low in December. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.6°C and 6.1°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 14 Mossel Bay Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).

**Important Taxa**


**Endemic Taxa**


**Conservation**

Endangered. Target 27%. None conserved in statutory conservation areas and only small patches protected in Langeberg-ooi mountain catchment area. Some 58% has been transformed (croplands and pastures). Erosion mainly moderate and high, but with some areas ranking as very low.

**Remarks**

Overgrazing can eliminate grasses, resulting in a grass-free shrubland or thicket. FFC 1 Swellendam Silcrete Fynbos can be converted to Mossel Bay Shale Renosterveld by overgrazing.

**References**


**FRs 15 Swartberg Shale Renosterveld**

VT 70 False Macchia (54%), VT 26 Karroid Broken Veld (42%) (Acoks 1953). South Coast Renosterveld (60%), Karroid Shrublands (37%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). Grassly Renoster Shrubland (Campbell 1985). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (62%), LR 54 Central Lower Nama Karoo (26%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 43 Kango Inland Renosterveld (45%), BHU 68 Prince Albert Broken Veld (28%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution**

Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Mainly northern slopes of the Groot Swartberg and some parallel ridges in the Oukloof and Droekloof from near Prince Albert in the west to Vartjesriver in the east; an outlier further west on the Swartberg in the upper reaches of the Waterkloofrivier catchment between Elandspad and Kliphuisvlei (above and east of Gamkaskloof or Die Hel). Altitude 750–1 200 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features**

Steep and gentle intermontane valleys with low, medium dense cupressoid-leaved shrubland having an open grassy understory and dominated by renosterbos. Heuweltjies are rare.

Fynbos Biome
Geology & Soils The soils derived from several shale sources within the Table Mountain Group (particularly the Nardouw Subgroup) as well as the Witteberg and Bokkeveld Groups of the Cape Supergroup that underlie this area. Prismatic acutic and pedocutanic and Glenrosa or Mispah forms are prominent. Land types mainly Ib, Ic and Fc.

Climate MAP 150–440 mm (mean: 285 mm), even throughout the year. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 30.0°C and 2.3°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 15 Swartberg Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 29%. Statutorily conserved in the Groot Swartberg (8%), with additional 1% protected in the Swartberg East mountain catchment area. Only 3% transformed (cultivation). Erosion very low and low.

Remark This is a poorly known vegetation type. Unmapped portions of this unit have been subsumed into FFb 3 Central Inland Shale Band Vegetation.

FRs 16 Uniondale Shale Renosterveld

VT 43 Mountain Renosterbosveld (50%), VT 26 Karroid Broken Veld (27%) (Acocks 1953). Karroid Shrublands (48%), South Coast Renosterveld (24%), Mosaic of South Coast Renosterveld (19%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). Grassy Renoster Shrubland (Campbell 1985). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (49%), LR 54 Central Lower Nama Karoo (23%) (Low & Rebelo 1998). KMG 330 Mountain Renosterbosveld (35%) (Vlok & Euston-Brown 2002). FRs 16 Uniondale Shale Renosterveld: Renosterbos shrublands with Elytropappus rhinocerotis, Athanasia furcata and Cytledon orbiculata (in the foreground) in the Klein Langkloof Valley along the northern foot of the Oуниципa Mountains (Western Cape).

Climate MAP 170–660 mm (mean: 350 mm), even throughout the year with a slight peak in March. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.6°C and 2.4°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 16 Uniondale Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 29%. Only a few patches (less than 1%) are protected in the private Sunnysisde Game Farm and in Welbedacht State Forest. Some 15% transformed (cultivation). Woody aliens include Hakea sericea and Pinus pinaster. Erosion mainly high and moderate.

Remark This is a poorly known vegetation type.


FRs 17 Langkloof Shale Renosterveld


Distribution Western and Eastern Cape Provinces: Narrow belt from Herold on the northern side of the Outeniqua Mountains to Kykoe, then descending along the upper reaches of the Keurbooms River Valley, south of the Prince Alfred Pass, to Vlentjie se Berg, in the Langkloof Valley from Harmonie via Avontuur to Haarlem and further from Kreakelrivier via Joubertina and Kareedouw to Salielaagtje. Small outlier at Brandhoek northeast of Joubertina. Altitude 220–950 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Intermontane valleys and lower slopes with low, medium dense graminoid, dense cupressoid-leaved shrubland, dominated by renosterbos and surrounded by fynbos.

Geology & Soils A very narrow east-west distribution of clays and loams derived from shales of the Nardouw Subgroup of the Table Mountain Group. Prismatic and pedocutanic and Glenrosa and Mispah forms are prominent. Land types mainly Db, Fa and Bb.

Climate MAP 280–770 mm (mean: 505 mm), relatively even with a bimodal peak in March and October–November. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.9°C and 4.6°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 2–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 17 Langkloof Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).


Conservation Endangered. Target 29%. None conserved in statutory or private conservation areas. Some 61% transformed (mainly fruit orchards and pastures). Important woody aliens are Hakea sericea and Pinus pinaster. Erosion very low and low.

Remark This is a poorly known vegetation type. Unmapped portions have been included within the mapped patches of FFb 6 Eastern Coastal Shale Band Vegetation.


FRs 18 Baviaanskloof Shale Renosterveld


Distribution Eastern Cape Province: Two relatively small groups of digitally shaped lower hillslopes dissected by many ravines (kloofs) containing AT 3 Groot Thicket on the southern side of the Baviaanskloof Valley from Voorkloof to Vleikloof in the west and from Kleinkommandokloof to Drinkwaterkloof in the east. Altitude 600–1 150 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Flat, lower mountain bases covered with low, medium dense, cupressoid-leaved shrubland, dominated by renosterbos and with graminoid undergrowth. Rocky areas have some localised thicket patches. This renosterveld type often grades into the surrounding fynbos.

Geology & Soils Often skeletal clays and loams derived from shales of the Nardouw Subgroup (Table Mountain Group). Glenrosa and Mispah forms prominent. Land types mainly lb and Fb.

Climate MAP 200–620 mm (mean: 365 mm), even throughout the year, with a peak in March. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 27.9°C and 2.5°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 18 Baviaanskloof Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).


Conservation Least threatened. Target 29%. It is statutorily conserved in the Guerna (16%) and Baviaanskloof Wilderness Areas (4%), with some small patches also conserved on private land (Beakosneck). The unit has not experienced notable transformation so far, except for the occurrence of aliens such as Acacia mearnsii, A. saligna, Pinus pinaster and Opuntia ficus-indica. Erosion mainly low and moderate.

Remark This is a rare and poorly studied vegetation type.


FRs 19 Humansdorp Shale Renosterveld

VT 70 False Macchia (91%) (Acoks 1953). Mosaic of South Coast Renosterveld (83%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (89%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 30 Kromme Fynbos/ Renosterveld Mosaic (90%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001). STEP Kabeljous Renoster Thicket (17%), STEP Rocklands Renoster Thicket (8%) (Vlok & Euston-Brown 2002).

Distribution Eastern Cape Province: Three swathes: from Jeffreys Bay and Marina Glades near the coast inland past Humansdorp to the lower reaches of the Diep rivier near Two Streams; the Mondplaas/Mondhoek area near the mouth of the Gamtoos River stretching inland in a series of patches south of the Gamtoos River to west of Patensie; between thicket and fynbos types from Burghley Hills to Rocklands and the Dell to Nooitgedacht southwest of Uitenhage. Coastal forelands from Humansdorp to Port Elizabeth. Altitude 20–360 m.
Vegetation & Landscape Features Moderately undulating plains and undulating hills supporting vegetation composed of low, medium dense graminoid, dense cupressoid-leaved shrubland, dominated by renosterbos. There are both grassland and shrubland forms of the renosterveld present, probably depending on grazing and fire regimes. In wetter areas (> 550 mm) it grades into FT 2 Loerie Conglomerate Fynbos. Thicket patches are common on termitearia (heuweltjies) and are absent and in fire-safe enclaves, especially in the east. It is dominated by Aspalathus nivea in the post-fire, early seral stages.

Geology & Soils Clays and loams derived from the Ceres Subgroup of the Bokkeveld Group shales. Plinthic catenas prominent. Land types mainly Ca and Bb.

Climate MAP 500–850 mm (mean: 630 mm), peaking slightly in March, but otherwise even. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.1°C and 7.5°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRs 19 Humansdorp Shale Renosterveld (Figure 4.101).


Endemic Taxa Succulent Shrubs: Delosperma patensia, Trichodiadema fourcadei. Geophytic Herb: Cyrtanthus wellandii.

Conservation Endangered. Target 29%. None conserved in statutory conservation areas and only 6% enjoys protection on private land (Thaba Manzi and Lombardini Game Farms). Some 61% already transformed (cultivation). Erosion very low and low.

Remark Locally, thicket is burnt and converted to renosterveld for grazing.


9.2.2 Granite and Dolerite Renosterveld
Granite renosterveld is the second most widespread renosterveld group, comprising 6% of the area renosterveld. Only three units, in the Kamiesberg, Swartland and at Robertson, are recognised. All are quite distinct and unrelated to one another. Granite renosterveld has very strong affinities with granite fynbos. This edaphic transition appears to have been responsible for a fynbos ‘derivation’ of renosterveld on the West Coast, or at least a high proportion of fynbos elements within the renosterveld (chiefly geophytes). Prominent on granites are high bulb diversity and a very strong forest-thicket element, especially on rocky outcrops and fire-safe habitats which abound in granite landscapes.

Dolerite renosterveld is confined to the Western Escarpment between Nieuwoudtville and Calvinia, with outliers to Sutherland. Like granite renosterveld, this has a high bulb diversity, with Nieuwoudtville being recognised as the bulb capital of the world—an unusually high proportion of species within the vegetation type are geophytes, and exceptional bulb densities can be found here.

FRg 1 Namaqualand Granite Renosterveld
VT 43 Mountain Renosterbosveld (63%), VT 33 Namaqualand Broken Veld (Acocks 1953). LR 59 North-western Mountain Renosterveld (53%), LR 56 Upland Succulent Karoo (39%) (Low & Rebelo 1996).

Distribution Northern Cape Province: Namaqualand, east of Kamieskroon and northeast of Garies in the higher-altitude parts of the Kamiesberg area from Os Plaat se Berge and the Douwabesberge in the north to Stalberg and Grasberg in the south and including a central area around Leliefontein. The most easterly extension is in the vicinity of Paulshoek. Embedded within this unit are several patches of generally highest-altitude FFg 1 Kamiesberg Granite Fynbos. Altitude 1 100–1 450 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Plateaus, low mountains and broken veld of typical granite landscapes, covered with dense, 1–1.5 m tall shrublands dominated by renosterbos (Elytropappus rhinocerotis) and other, mainly asteraceous (Euryops, Arctotis) shrubs. Overgrazing increases the cover of karoo elements. Abandoned ploughed fields on the plateaus present spectacular annual floral displays.

Geology & Soils In this area granitic gneiss of the Stalhoek Complex, the Kamieskroon Gneiss and the Nababep Gneiss is partly overlain by quartzite and other metasediments of the Bitterfontein
Fynbos Biome

Climate MAP 130–370 mm (mean: 235 mm), peaking from May to August. This is the most arid of the renosterveld types. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.6°C and 2.7°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–30 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRg 1 Namaqualand Granite Renosterveld (Figure 4.117).

Biogeographically Important Taxa (all Kamiesberg endemics, 100% wetlands) Low Shrubs: Antithrixia flavicoma, Aspalathus angustifolia subsp. robusta, Felicia diffusa subsp. khamiesbergensis, Muralita rigidia. Herb: Centella tridentata var. dregaeana. Geophytic Herbs: Crocosmia fucata, Disa macrostachya, Hesperanthia latifolia, Moraea kamiesmontana, Romulea pearsonii.


Conservation Least threatened. Target 27%. None conserved in statutory or private conservation areas. About 5% transformed (cultivation), but large portions suffer from heavy overgrazing. Erosion moderate and low.

Remark 1 This unit and FFg 1 Kamiesberg Granite Fynbos form the core of the Kamiesberg Centre of Endemism (Van Wyk & Smith 2001), which also comprises parts of the SKn 6 Kamiesberg Mountains Shrubland. The boundary between fynbos and renosterveld in this unit is determined by both rainfall and the composition of toxic fynbos, so that clay-rich south-facing slopes may contain renosterveld up to 1 500 m. The lower boundary with karoo is often diffuse, with karoo incursions on northern slopes, shallow soils and heuweltjies, and renosterveld extending into karoo on deeper soils, southern slopes and wetter facies. Overgrazing increases the cover of karroid elements, leading to replacement of fynbos by karoo.


Distribution Western Cape Province: Discrete areas in the Swartland and...
Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRg 2 Swartland Granite Renosterveld (Figure 4.117).


Endemic Taxa Low Shrubs: *Agathosma hispida*, *A. latipetala*, *Aspalathus glabratra*, *A. nuciflora*. Succulent Shrubs: *Antimima mennei*, *Erepsia hallii*, *Lampranthus citrinus*, *L. scaber*, *Phyllobolus suffruticosus*, *Ruschia klipsbergensis*. Herbs: *Arctopus dregei*, *Oncosiphon glabratrum*. Geophytic Herbs: *Babiana pygmaea*, *B. regia*, *B. rubrocyanea*, *Geissorhiza darlingensis*, *G. eury stigma*, *G. malnesbriensis*, *G. mathewsi*, *G. radians*, *Haemanthus pumilio*, *Ixia aurea*, *I. curta*, *Lachenalia purpureo-caerulea*, *Moraea amissa*, *Oxalis stictocheila*, *Watsonia humilis*. Conservation This is a critically endangered vegetation unit of which almost 80% has already been transformed due to prime quality of the land for agriculture (vineyards, olive orchards, pastures) and also by urban sprawl. Hence the conservation target of 26% remains unattainable. Only very small portions (0.5%) enjoy statutory protection in the Paarl Mountain Nature Reserve and Pella Research Site, and also (2%) in the Paardenberg Tienie Versfeld Flower Reserve near Darling and in the Duthie Nature Reserve in Stellenbosch. Alien grasses are particularly pervasive, the most important being *Lolium multiflorum*, *Avena fatua* and *Bromus diandrus* (Musil et al. 2005). Alien woody species include *Acacia saligna*, *Pinus pinaster* as well as various species of *Eucalyptus*. Erosion very low, low and moderate.

Remarks The grassland phases of this vegetation unit as well as the rocky outcrops are particularly rich in geophytes. Several regional and local endemic taxa are shared with FRg 9 Swartland Slate Renosterveld.

**FRg 3 Robertson Granite Renosterveld**


**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Extremely limited area: confined to low altitudes of the Tierberg north of La Colline near Robertson in the Breede River Valley. Altitude 250–850 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Gentle to steep slopes of a granite dome, with fairly dense 1–2 m tall, closed grassy shrubland with a greater than average succulent element and with scattered small trees. Bulbs are lacking diversity and grasses are currently dominant. Heuweltjies are present, but do not appear as a prominent feature. This unit is largely surrounded by shale renosterveld at lower elevations. At upper elevations, especially in the south, it grades into granite fynbos.

**Geology & Soils** Loamy soils, primarily of Glenrosa and Mispah forms derived from the Robertson Pluton of the Cape Granite Suite. Land type mainly Fb.

**Climate** MAP 360–740 mm (mean: 440 mm), with a slight peak from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.7°C and 4.0°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 6–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRg 3 Robertson Granite Renosterveld (Figure 4.117).

**Important Taxa** (Cape thickets) Tall Shrubs: Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia (d), Euclea undulata (d), Euryops tenuissimus, Myrsine africana, Olea europaea subsp. africana, Rhus lucida, R. pallens, R. tomentosa. Low Shrubs: Elytropappus rhinocerotis (d), Encephalas africanus var. africanus (d), Oedera squarrosa (d), Pteronia incana (d), P. pallens (d), Senecio pinifolius (d), Euryops rehmannii, Maytenus oleoides. Succulent Shrubs: Ruschia caroli (d), Tylecodon paniculatus (d), Euphorbia burmannii. Gramnoids: Ehrharta calycina (d), Ficinia ramassissima (d), Pentaschistis eriostoma (d), Ehrharta thunbergii, Ischyrolepis gaudichaudiana.

**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. About 30% protected in Langeberg-wes mountain catchment area. Only a small fraction has been transformed. The lowest-lying areas have been converted to vineyards and orchards, but slopes are generally too steep for further transformation. Erosion moderate.

**Remark** This unit is a virtually unknown vegetation type deserving scientific attention due to the isolated character of the granite pluton.

**Reference** N. Helme (unpublished data)

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**FRd 1 Nieuwoudtville-Roggeveld Dolerite Renosterveld**

VT 28 Western Mountain Karoo (53%) (Acocks 1953). LR 56 Upland Succulent Karoo (62%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). Karroid Shrublands (73%), Mosaic of Dry Mountain Fynbos & Karroid Shrublands (27%) (Moll & Bosi 1983). BHU 75 Western Mountain Vygieveld (14%), BHU 35 Nieuwoudtville Inland Renosterveld (13%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Northern Cape Province: Dolerite ridges and surrounding plains east of the Bokkeveld Plateau, immediately east and northeast of Nieuwoudtville between the Doring River in the vicinity of Grasberg in the north and Schoongezicht in the south as well as similar small areas but collectively larger areas on the Roggeveld Plateau, between Middelpos and Sutherland. Altitude 740–1 500 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Ridges composed of rounded-block koppies and surrounding plains. The plains support species-rich herbland, seasonally dominated by geophytes and annuals, with an overstorey of non-succulent shrubs, while the koppies supporting scattered shrubbery with low trees also occur in places. The vegetation of the dolerite plains is unique in being almost devoid of shrubs or perennial grasses. The koppies generally consist of cosmopolitan species derived from the adjacent karoo and renosterveld. Geophytes and annuals compose 90% of the cover and 80% of the species.

**Geology & Soils** Intrusive dolerites of the Jurassic Karoo Dolerite Suite giving rise to clay soils varying from fine-textured sands on the koppies to heavy red-clay vertisols on the lower slopes and plains. Land types mainly Fc, Ea, Da and lb.

**Climate** MAP 140–530 mm (mean: 290 mm), peaking slightly from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 30.3°C and 1.5°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–50 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRd 1 Nieuwoudtville-Roggeveld Dolerite Renosterveld (Figure 4.117).

**Important Taxa** (Koppies) Tall Shrubs: Olea europaea subsp. africana (d), Rhus undulata (d), Montinia caryophyllacea, Melanthus comosus. Low Shrubs: Pentzia incana, Pteronia glauca, Stachys rugosa. Woody Climber: Microloma sagittatum. Woody Succulent Climber: Zygophyllum foetidum.

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**Figure 4.120** FRd 1 Nieuwoudtville-Roggeveld Dolerite Renosterveld: Spring aspect with flowering Bulbine latifolia var. doleritica (Asphodelaceae) on Glen Lyon Farm near Nieuwoudtville (Northern Cape).


**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. Partly conserved in the Nieuwoudtville Flower Reserve as well as on Glenlyon Farm (by local farmer and conservationist Neil McGregor). About 4% transformed (mainly cultivation). The unit is under threat from overgrazing and invasion by alien grasses and herbs (Avena fatua, Bromus pectinatus, Hordeum murinum, Loli mum rigidum and Medicago polymorpha) which are becoming dominant in many areas and suppressing the unique bulb flora. Erosion moderate and low.

**Remarks** Concentrations of number of geophytes near Nieuwoudtville have been verified as extremely high, reaching up to 25 000 bulbs per square metre (S.W. Todd & J.S. Donaldson, unpublished data). Together with FRs 2 Nieuwoudtville Shale Renosterveld, this as well as several SKv and SKt units form the core of the Roggeveld-Hantam Centre of Endemism (Van Wyk & Smith 2001), which contains the richest geophytic flora in the Cape flora. Geophytes constitute 40% of the local flora.


**Frd 2 Hantam Plateau Dolerite Renosterveld**

VT 28 Western Mountain Karoo (62%), VT 43 Mountain Renostervasboed (26%) (Acoks 1953). LR 56 Upland Succulent Karoo (78%), LR 60 Escarpment Mountain Renosterveld (21%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU Loeriesfontein Broken Veld (4%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Northern Cape Province: Plateau of the Hantamberg in the triangle between Sandkop, Downnes and Driekuilspunt north of Calvinia as well as surrounding points such as Toringkop, Blomberg and to the south, Rebunieberg. Altitude 550–1 672 m at the (unnamed) highest point on the Hantam Plateau.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Plateau of tafelbergs supporting low shrubland with rich herblands containing a wealth of geophytes, especially in the more open, wetter or rocky habitats.

**Geology & Soils** Heavy, clayey soils and outcrops of intrusive dolerites (Jurassic Karoo Dolerite Suite) as well as (to a small extent) shales of the Ecca Group (Karoo Supergroup). Land type mainly lb.

**Climate** MAP 160–440 mm (mean: 250 mm), peaking slightly from May to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 31.1°C and 1.4°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–40 days per year. See also climate diagram for Frd 2 Hantam Plateau Dolerite Renosterveld (Figure 4.117).


**Endemic Taxa** Geophytic Herbs: *Babiana praemorsa*, *Hesperantha hantamensis*, *H. oligantha*, *Moraea reflexa*, *Romulea hantamensis*.

**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 27%. Only 1% conserved (Akkerendam Nature Reserve near Calvinia). Only a very small portion has been transformed, but part of the area is exposed to grazing. Erosion moderate.

**Remarks** The Hantamberg is home to several endemic geophytes. These species are restricted to seasonally moist or inundated flats on the summit plateau. Disjunct links to the higher-
lying, wetter parts of the Roggeveld Escarpment include Cliftonia arborea, Romulea diversiformis and Sanieilla occidentalis. This unit forms part of the Roggeveld-Hantam Centre of Endemism (Van Wyk & Smith 2001).


9.2.3 Alluvium Renosterveld

Alluvium renosterveld is relatively rare, being confined to gravelly valley bottoms that usually contain either fynbos (locally where sand predominates) or of succulent karoo—the latter especially in rocky and fire-safe habitats. This is an unusual azonal renosterveld straddling the ecotone between azonal saline (heavy soils) vegetation on one hand and AZa 2 Cape Lowland Alluvial Vegetation on the other. Only two types are recognised.

**FRa 1 Breede Alluvium Renosterveld**

VT 26 Karroid Broken Veld (90%) (Acocks 1953), LR 58 Little Succulent Karoo (69%), LR 61 Central Mountain Renosterveld (24%) (Low & Rebelo 1996), BHZ 87 Robertson Broken Veld (69%), BHZ 38 Ashton Inland Renosterveld (24%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Breede River, broad areas and narrow bands on valley bottomlands from Worcester to Ashton including the largest patch from Worcester to Nuy and Toontjiesrivier, and the belt in the vicinity of the Breede River also with many of its tributaries such as the Doringrivier south of Kwaggaskloof, Poesienetsrivier, Vinkrivier and Keisersrivier. Altitude 150–450 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Flat alluvial fans and valley bottoms supporting short grassy cupressoid-leaved shrubland usually dominated by renosteros.

**Geology & Soils** Fine loamy sand with high gravel and cobble contents of alluvial fans and river terraces, overlying a variety of rocks from the Cape and Karoo Supergroups as well as the Uitenhage Group. Glenrosa and Mispah forms and soils with prismatic and/or pedocutanic diagnostic horizons are dominant. Land types mainly Fc, Db, Da, Ae and la.

**Climate** MAP 170–470 mm (mean: 265 mm), peaking slightly from July to August. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.8°C and 4.7°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 4–10 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRa 1 Breede Alluvium Renosterveld (Figure 4.123).

**Important Taxa**


**Endemic Taxon** Geophytic Herb: Ixia collina.

**Conservation** Endangered. Target 27%. Small patches conserved in the Vrolijkheid and Riviersonderend Nature Reserves. Some 57% already transformed (cultivation, mainly vineyards). Alien species of Acacia occur locally at low densities. Erosion generally moderate and very low, but also high in some places.

**Remark** Breede Alluvium Renosterveld becomes replaced by AZi 8 Muscadel Riviere on heavier and more saline soils in the eastern parts of the Breede River Valley.


**FRa 2 Swartland Alluvium Renosterveld**

VT 47 Coastal Macchia (63%), VT 46 Coastal Renosterbosveld (37%) (Acocks 1953), LR 68 Sand Plain Fynbos (79%), LR 62 West Coast Renosterveld (21%) (Acocks & Rebelo 1996). Sand Plain Fynbos (22%) (Moll & Bossi 1983), BHZ 11 Hopefield Sand Plain Fynbos (67%), BHZ 31 Swartland Coast Renosterveld (31%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Narrow belts in the southern Swartland encompassed by Klipheuwel, Malmesbury, Figure 4.122 FRa 1 Breede Alluvium Renosterveld: Disturbed renosterveld shrubland with Elytroappus rhinocerotis and Galenia africana at the bottom of the Breede River Valley near Worcester (Western Cape).

Figure 4.123 Climate diagrams of alluvium renosterveld units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days (days when screen temperature was below 0°C); MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress (% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply).
Moorreesburg and Darling along the Groen and Diep Rivers. Altitude 40–150 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features
Riverine plains and bottomlands. Open, low, short cupressoid and low to moderately tall, grassy shrubland, dominated by renostersbos.

Geology & Soils
Mainly fine silty and sandy alluvial sediments, mainly derived from Cape Granite. Soils with prismacutanic and/or pedocutanic diagnostic horizons are dominant. Land types mainly Db.

Climate
MAP 300–490 mm (mean: 370 mm), peaking from May to August. Mists common in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.8°C and 7.0°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRa 2 Swartland Alluvium Renosterveld (Figure 4.123).

Important Taxa
(Wetlands) Tall Shrubs: Psoralea aphylla (d), Rhus angustifolia (d), R. laevigata. Low Shrubs: Cliftonia ferruginea (d), Galenia secunda (d), Aspalathus spinosa subsp. spinosa, Asparagus capensis var. capensis, Cliftonia juniperina, Diospyros austro-africana, Eriocephalus africanus var. africanus, Galenia africana, Oftia africana, Stoebe plumosa, Xiphothero lanceolata. Herbs: Adenogramma glomerata, Berkheya rigida, Dischisma ciliatum subsp. ciliatum, Echiostachys spicatus. Geophytic Herbs: Pteridium aquilinum (d), Zantedeschia aethiopica (d), Ornithogalum thyrsoides (d), Oxalis goniorrhiza. Graminoids: Cynodon dactylon (d), Ficinia brevifolia (d), Sporobolus virginicus (d), Calopsis paniculata, Elegia tectorum, Isolepis antarctica (d), I. trachysperma (d), Juncus capensis (d), Pyreus polystachyos (d), Tribolium echinatum.

Conservation
Vulnerable. Target 26%. None conserved in statutory or private conservation areas. Total transformed 40% (mainly cultivation). Infection by alien woody species is serious and involves various species of Acacia, Eucalyptus, Pinus and Prosopis. Erosion low and very low.

Remarks
We presume that this vegetation type might have been much more extensive in the past and might have had a greater tree component along the river courses. On heavier and more saline soils this vegetation becomes replaced on alluvia of (often intermittent) West Coast rivers by azonal inland saline vegetation of the AZi 9 Cape Inland Salt Pans and AZa 2 Cape Lowland Alluvial Vegetation.

References

9.2.4 Silcrete and Limestone Renosterveld
These miscellaneous renosterveld types tend to be transitional to fynbos. They are unrelated to one another and share species with their neighbouring types. All are extremely poorly known and given their peculiar substrates and circumstances, may well yield new and endemic species. Together they comprise less than 3% of the area of renosterveld vegetation.

FRC 1 Swartland Silcrete Renosterveld
VT 46 Coastal Renosterveld (92%) (Acocks 1953), LR 62 West Coast Renosterveld (76%), LR 68 Sand Plain Fynbos (24%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). BHU 31 Swartland Coast Renosterveld (63%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

Distribution
Western Cape Province: A highly fragmented type, scattered in the form of small patches throughout the Swartland from near Fertino and Kuils River in the south to Eendekuil to Piketberg in the north. Mostly embedded within FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld followed by FRg 2 Swartland Granite Renosterveld. The largest patch is at Oups between Moorreesburg and Mamre. Altitude 40–220 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features
Moderately undulating lowlands, often on elevated areas. An open, low, cupressoid- and small-leaved, low to moderately tall shrubland with many succulents, dominated by renostersbos.

Geology & Soils
Remnants of silcrete layers over Malmesbury Group Shale and Cape Granite. Soils with prismacutanic and/or pedocutanic diagnostic horizons or plinthic catena are dominant. Land types mainly Db, Ca and Fc.

Climate
MAP 250–650 mm (mean: 425 mm), peaking from May to August. Mists common in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 28.7°C and 6.8°C for February and July, respectively. Frost incidence 3 or 4 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRC 1 Swartland Silcrete Renosterveld (Figure 4.124).

Important Taxa

Endemic Taxa

Conservation
Critically endangered and the conservation target of 26% remains unattainable due to total transformation of 90% (mainly turned into agricultural land). Small patches

Figure 4.124 Climate diagrams of silcrete and limestone renosterveld units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days (days when screen temperature was below 0°C); MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress (% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply).
**Fynbos Biome**

  - Critically endangered. The target of 27%.

- **Low Shrubs:**
  - Altitude 50–350 m.

### Vegetation & Landscape Features

- **Distribution**
  - Western Cape Province: Rûens coastal forelands from Rivierendonderend to Riversdale, with isolated outliers westwards to Bot River, but only really common within FRs 13 Eastern Rûens Shale Renosterveld. A highly fragmented unit by nature of its tendency to occur on the well-dissected, old African surface. Particularly common along the lower Breede River south of Buffeljagsrivier to Malgas and further downstream, and also south of Heidelberg and Riversdale (particularly in the Brakrivier area). Altitude 50–350 m.

- **Vegetation**
  - Highly fragmented patches on the summits and highlands of undulating hills and plains, larger patches often associated with drainage systems. In contrast to the isolated and rare occurrence of silcrete renosterveld on the West Coast, on the South Coast this is a major landscape feature on the uplands, where it forms a remnant African surface. These isolated habitats support open, low, cupressoid and small-leaved, low to moderately tall shrubland characterised by many succulents and usually dominated by renosterbos.

### Geology & Soils

- Shallow soils with silcrete caps over deep pink and orange shales of the Bokkeveld Group, on hill tops. Occasionally they also occur on ferricrete or in quartz patches. Soils are prismatic and pedocutanic. Land types mainly Db, Fc and Fb.

### Climate

- MAP 280–770 mm (mean: 440 mm), relatively even throughout the year with a slight low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.9°C and 6.0°C for January–February and July, respectively. Frost incidence about 3 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRc 2 Rûens Silcrete Renosterveld (Figure 4.124).

### Important Taxa

- **Tall Shrub:** Rhus lucida. Low Shrubs: Cymbopappus adenosolen (d), Elytropappus rhinocerotis (d), Erica karooica (d), Hermannia sacrama (d), Oedera squarrosa (d), Reihania garnotii (d), Agathosma foetidissima, Euchaetis longicornis, Macledium spinosum, Polhilia pallens, Selago corymbosa, Sutera aethiopica. Succulent Shrubs: Drosanthemum asperulum (d), Cymopterus subulata var. subulata. Herb: Tripterys tomentosa (d). Geophytic Herbs: Bulbinella barteri, Tritoniopsis flexuosa. Succulent Herbs: Psilocaulon parviflorum, Stapeliopsis breviflora. Graminoids: Cymbopogon pspischilii (d), Ficinia oligantha (d), Merxmuellera stricta (d), Erargrostis curvula, Merxmuellera disticha, Themeda triandra.

### Endemic Taxa

- Low Shrubs: Erica venustiflora subsp. glandulosa (d), Liparia striata, Polhilia canescens. Succulent Shrubs: Acrodon diminutus, Antimima sp. nov. (N. Helme 2101 NBG), Brownanthus fraternus, Drosanthemum quadratum, Gibbaea esterhuyssenii, G. haagei. Succulent Herbs: Haworthia variegata var. hemicyrpta, Stapelia divericata, Stapelliaopis saxonitis subsp. stayeri.

### Conservation

- Critically endangered. The target of 27% remains unattainable since 78% of the area has already been cleared.
transformation for intensive agricultural land. Very small portion (less than 1%) statute conservedly in the Werner Frehse Nature Reserve (near Riversdale). Alien Acacia cycadas scattered over parts of the area. Erosion moderate and low.

**Remarks** A number of regional taxa are shared with the Rüens renosterveld units. Some of the succulent elements (Drosanthemum, Gibbaeum) provide a biogeographical link to SkV7 Robertson Karoo.


### FRI 1 Kango Limestone Renosterveld

VT 25 Succulent Mountain Scrub (Spekboomveld) (65%), VT 43 Mountain Renosterveld (27%) (Acoks 1953). South Coast Renosterveld (58%) (Moll & Boss 1983). LR 63 South and South-west Coast Renosterveld (67%), LR 8 Spekboom Succulent Thicket (26%) (Lou & Rebele 1996). BHU 43 Kango Inland Renosterveld (68%), BHU 97 Spekboom Xeric Succulent Thicket (27%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001). STEP Mergingpoort Fynbos Thicket (20%), STEP Mons Ruber Fynbos Thicket (16%), STEP Cango Renost Thicket (4%) (Vlok & Euston-Brown 2002).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Northeastern regions of the Little Karoo south of the Groot Swartberg, from near Gamkapoort, north of Calitzdorp eastwards including Matjesrivier and the Cango Caves area, with another band extending from upper Schoensmanpoort and De Rust to north of the Stompdrift Dam. Altitude 450–950 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Low mountains and steep hills, supporting low, medium dense graminoid and medium to tall, dense, cappuccino-leaved shrubland, dominated by renosterveld and Dodonaea. The upper and wetter slopes are dominated by Dodonaea viscosa var. angustifolia, which although it is the visual signature of this type, extends onto neighbouring fynbos types. Frequent burning leads to a Themeda grassland. The early post-fire stages are characterised by a high diversity of herbaceous species—on limestone *Herrmannia holosericea* is dominant in the early seral stages. A feature of the type is the marked lack of geophytes (only Hypoxis villosa).

**Geology & Soils** Clays and loams derived from the Cango Caves Group shales and limestone of the Namibian Erathem; in the south the area overlies clastic sediments of the Mesozoic Uitenhage Group; soils of Glenrosa and Mispah forms or red-yellow apedal soils dominant. Land types mainly Ib, Fc and Ag.

**Climate** MAP 200–720 mm (mean: 405 mm), peaking in March but otherwise even with a slight low from December to February. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 31.0°C and 3.5°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence 10–20 days per year. See also climate diagram for FRI 1 Kango Limestone Renosterveld (Figure 4.124).


**Conservation** Least threatened. Target 29%. Very small portion conserved in Groot Swartberg and Rietvlei. Only 14% transformed (cultivation), but almost exclusively on the valley bottoms. Erosion low and very low.

**Remarks** Although centred on limestone, this unit also occurs on other geological substrates occupied by renosterveld in the Cango Valley of the Swartberg foothills. Compared to the richness of other limestone areas in the Cape flora, this unit is unusually poor—probably because it is poorly explored. In fire-protected sites such as steep rocky slopes and ravines this renosterveld is replaced by dense succulent thickets of AT 2 Gamka Thicket.


### 9.3 Western Strandveld

Western Strandveld currently consists of nine vegetation units that basically reflect phytogeographical (hence climatic to an extent) and geological patterns. Six of the units are found on the dry West Coast. Those occurring on and around Langebaan Peninsula (especially on granite, limestone) are floristically diverse and possibly also evolutionary older as they contain a high number of local endemics. FS 1 Lambert’s Bay Strandveld and FS 5 Langebaan Dune Strandveld are rich in succulent elements. The classification of the remaining three strandveld types reflects floristic gradients between the western and eastern portions of the South Coast. More data are needed to judge the
role of geology in the differentiation of the Western Strandveld types, especially along those parts of the South Coast that do not have limestone geology. Basic ecological characteristics of the Western Strandveld are discussed in Section 3.3.

**FS 1 Lambert’s Bay Strandveld**

VT 34 Strandveld of West Coast (100%) (Acocxs 1953). LR 55 Strandveld Succulent Karoo (57%) (Low & Rebelo 1996). West Coast Strandveld (49%), Sand Plain Fynbos (39%) (Moll & Bossi 1983). BHU 83 Lambert’s Bay Strandveld (57%) (Cowling et al. 1999b, Cowling & Heijnis 2001).

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: Broad coastal strip between Donkin Bay (north of Lambert’s Bay) and Elands Bay (Verlorenvlei), penetrating deeply inland north of and along the Jakkals and Langvlei Rivers. Altitude 20–180 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Series of old dunes and slightly undulating, consolidated sand-dune fields supporting mixed, 1.2–1.5 m tall, dense shrubland composed of evergreen, sclerophyllous and fleshy, drought-deciduous-leaved shrubs, with a dense understorey of low (0.2–0.5 m), unpalatable, succulent shrubs. Perennial herbs and annuals are dominant in degraded areas.

**Geology & Soils** Table Mountain Group sandstones form a rocky coastline and occur as sporadic outcrops throughout the area. The substrate is mainly deep, Tertiary to Quaternary, white to pale red, calcareous, aeolian, sandy to sandy loam soil of the hillocky veld. Local white sand of Pleistocene origin forms unstable blow-out dunes north of the mouths of the Verlorenvlei River at Elands Bay and the Jakkals River at Lambert’s Bay. Recent calcareous sands of marine origin also line the coastal strip. Dominant land types Hb and Ha.

**Climate** Mainly cyclonic annual rainfall varying from approximately 125 mm in the north to 200 mm in the south (overall MAP: 175 mm), occurring on average over six days in winter. Fog and dew contribute to the moisture in summer and autumn. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 29.1°C and 7.0°C for February and July, respectively. Frost and hail are rare phenomena. The winds tend to be strong southerly in summer and northerly in winter. Hot, dry, desiccating offshore winds occur in both winter and summer. Salt-laden on-shore winds stunt shrubs along the coast. See also climate diagram for FS 1 Lambert’s Bay Strandveld (Figure 4.128).


**Endemic Taxa** Herb: *Felicia josephinae*. Succulent Herb: *Conophytum obcordellum* subsp. *roelfii*.

**Conservation** Vulnerable. Target 24%. Only about 1.5% statistically conserved in the Elandsbaai Nature Reserve and a further about 7% in private conservation areas such as Soopjeshoogte.

Figure 4.128 Climate diagrams of Western Strandveld units. Blue bars show the median monthly precipitation. The upper and lower red lines show the mean daily maximum and minimum temperature respectively. MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; APCV: Annual Precipitation Coefficient of Variation; MAT: Mean Annual Temperature; MFD: Mean Frost Days (days when screen temperature was below 0°C); MAPE: Mean Annual Potential Evaporation; MASMS: Mean Annual Soil Moisture Stress (% of days when evaporative demand was more than double the soil moisture supply).
Donkins Bay, Zeven Puts and Doorspring Nature Reserves. About a quarter transformed for cultivation. This vegetation has been exposed to 2 000 years of stock farming. 

**Acacia cyclops** and **A. saligna** are serious invading aliens. Erosion generally very low.

**Distribution** Western Cape Province: On the West Coast, granite domes from Vredenburg to St Helena Bay and many points along the coast including Paternoster and Saldanha’s North Head; also around Langebaan town and at Postberg on the Langebaan Peninsula. Altitude 0–180 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Rounded forms of granite sheets and smooth forms at their feet dominate the landscapes of this vegetation unit. Low to medium shrubland, containing some succulent elements, alternates with grassy and herb-rich spots supporting a rich geophyte flora.

**Geology & Soils** Deep, coarse sandy to loamy soils derived from the Vredenburg Batholith in the north and the Saldanha Batholith in the south (both of the Cape Granite Suite). Dominant land type Ab, followed by Fc.

**Climate** Mainly cyclonic annual rainfall varying from approximately 250 mm in the north to 350 mm in the south, almost exclusively in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.4°C and 7.9°C for February and July, respectively. Advectional sea fog and dew contribute significantly to the moisture in summer and autumn. Frost rare. Winds tend to be strong northwesterly in winter and southerly in summer. See also climate diagram for FS 2 Saldanha Granite Strandveld (Figure 4.128).

**Important Taxa**

**Tall Shrubs:**
- Euclea racemosa subsp. racemosa,
- Passerina corymbosa,
- Rhus glauca.

**Low Shrubs:**
- Pteronia divaricata (d),
- Agathosma bifida,
- Eriocephalus africanus var. africanus,
- Exomis microphylla,
- Otholobium hirtum,
- Polygala myrtifolia,
- Pterocelastrus tricuspidatus,
- Putterlickia pyracantha.

**Succulent Shrubs:**
- Aloe perfoliata,
- Drosanthemum floribundum,
- Euphorbia mauritanica,
- Lycium tetrandrum,
- Othonna flori-bunda,
- Tetragonia fruticosa,
- T. spicata,
- Tylecodon paniculatus,
- Zygophyllum morgsana.

**Woody Climber:**
- Cissampelos capensis.

**Semiparasitic Shrub:**
- Osyris compressa.

**Herbs:**
- Dimorphotheca pluvialis (d),
- Oncosiphon suffruticosum (d),
- Adenogramma glomerata,
- Nemesis versicolor,
- Senecio arenarius,
- Ursinia anthemoides subsp. anthemoides.

**Geophytic Herbs:**
- Amaryllis belladonna,
- Chasmanthe floribunda,
- Freesia viridis,
- Geissorhiza monanthos,
- Lachenalia pustulata,
- Melasphaerula ramosa,
- Romulea hirsuta.

**Succulent Herb:**
- Dorotheanthus bellidiformis (d).

**Graminoids:**
- Chaetobromus involucratus subsp. dregeanus,
- Cynodon dactylon,
- Ehrharta L. Mucina.

**Remarks** Increased occurrence of Succulent Karoo elements underlines the similarity of this vegetation unit to SKs 7 Namaqualand Strandveld. The white calcareous dunes lining the Atlantic seaboard support vegetation, with close affinity to FS 5 Langebaan Dune Stramdveld occurring further south.

**References**
- Boucher (1982), Liengme (1987),
- Boucher & Le Roux (1993), Boucher (1998d, f),
- Venter & Venter (2003), Downing & Van der Merwe (undated).

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**FS 2 Saldanha Granite Strandveld**


**Distribution** Western Cape Province: On the West Coast, granite domes from Vredenburg to St Helena Bay and many points along the coast including Paternoster and Saldanha’s North Head; also around Langebaan town and at Postberg on the Langebaan Peninsula. Altitude 0–180 m.

**Vegetation & Landscape Features** Rounded forms of granite sheets and smooth forms at their feet dominate the landscapes of this vegetation unit. Low to medium shrubland, containing some succulent elements, alternates with grassy and herb-rich spots supporting a rich geophyte flora.

**Geology & Soils** Deep, coarse sandy to loamy soils derived from the Vredenburg Batholith in the north and the Saldanha Batholith in the south (both of the Cape Granite Suite). Dominant land type Ab, followed by Fc.

**Climate** Mainly cyclonic annual rainfall varying from approximately 250 mm in the north to 350 mm in the south, almost exclusively in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.4°C and 7.9°C for February and July, respectively. Advectional sea fog and dew contribute significantly to the moisture in summer and autumn. Frost rare. Winds tend to be strong northwesterly in winter and southerly in summer. See also climate diagram for FS 2 Saldanha Granite Strandveld (Figure 4.128).

**Important Taxa**

**Tall Shrubs:**
- Euclea racemosa subsp. race-mosa,
- Passerina corymbosa,
- Rhus glauca.

**Low Shrubs:**
- Pteronia divaricata (d),
- Agathosma bifida,
- Eriocephalus africanus var. africanus,
- Exomis microphylla,
- Otholobium hirtum,
- Polygala myrtifolia,
- Pterocelastrus tricuspidatus,
- Putterlickia pyracantha.

**Succulent Shrubs:**
- Aloe perfoliata,
- Drosanthemum floribundum,
- Euphorbia mauritanica,
- Lycium tetrandrum,
- Othonna flori-bunda,
- Tetragonia fruticosa,
- T. spicata,
- Tylecodon paniculatus,
- Zygophyllum morgsana.

**Woody Climber:**
- Cissampelos capensis.

**Semiparasitic Shrub:**
- Osyris compressa.

**Herbs:**
- Dimorphotheca pluvialis (d),
- Oncosiphon suffruticosum (d),
- Adenogramma glomerata,
- Nemesis versicolor,
- Senecio arenarius,
- Ursinia anthemoides subsp. anthemoides.

**Geophytic Herbs:**
- Amaryllis belladonna,
- Chasmanthe floribunda,
- Freesia viridis,
- Geissorhiza monanthos,
- Lachenalia pustulata,
- Melasphaerula ramosa,
- Romulea hirsuta.

**Succulent Herb:**
- Dorotheanthus bellidiformis (d).

**Graminoids:**
- Chaetobromus involucratus subsp. dregeanus,
- Cynodon dactylon,
- Ehrharta L. Mucina.

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**Figure 4.129 FS 1 Lambert’s Bay Strandveld: Low strandveld shrubland with dominant Afrolimon peregrinum (Plumbaginaceae) and abundant succulents (Amphibolia, Concosia, Euphorbia, Mesembryanthemum, Ruschia) near Lambert’s Bay (Western Cape).**

**Figure 4.130 FS 2 Saldanha Granite Strandveld: Succulent-rich shrublands on steep slopes of a granite koppie near Langebaan (Western Cape) with Aloe mitriformis, Othonna arborescens and Cheiridopsis rastrata.**
calycina, E. villosa var. villosa, Festuca scabra, Tribolium echinatum, Wilkdenowia incurvata.


Endemic Taxa Succulent Shubs: Lampanthus aureus, Oscularia steenbergensis, O. vredenburgensis, Ruschia langebaanensis. Geophytic Herbs: Lachenalia mathewsi (d), Hesperantha saldanhae, Lachenalia viridiflora, Morea loubseni (extinct in the wild), Ornithogalum rupestre, Oxalis burtoniae, Pauridia lonituba, Polyxena paucifolia, Romulea saldanhensis, Strumaria chaplinii, Watsonia hysterantha.

Conservation Endangered. Target 24%. Almost 10% statutorily conserved in the West Coast National Park, SAS Saldanha and Columbine Nature Reserves, and a small portion in private reserves such as West Point, Groot Paternoster and Swartriet. About 70% transformed for cultivation or by urban development. This vegetation type is regularly utilised for grazing. Australian Acacia saligna, A. cyclops and A. baileyana are causing serious infestations in many places. Coastal development is a further threat to this vegetation type. Erosion low and very low.

Remarks The most northerly distribution of Erica tristis trees are found at Langebaan, with a gap of at least 100 km to the nearest other plants commonly found in rocky coastal habitats between the Cape Peninsula and Gansbaai.


Distribution Western Cape Province: Extensive coastal flats from St Helena Bay and the southern banks of the Great Berg River near its mouth in the north to Saldanha and Langebaan in the south, with the southernmost extension at the coast near Yzerfontein and Rietduin. Altitude 0–120 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Sclerophyllous shrublands built of a sparse emergent and moderately tall shrub layer, with an open succulent shrub layer forming the undergrowth. With conspicuous displays of geophytes and annual herbaceous flora in spring.

Geology & Soils The main geology is shallow calcareous sand over a fossiliferous Pleistocene limestone hardpan layer along an old marine terrace. The hardpan of the Sandveld Group is exposed in places while farmers often rip the hardpan and accumulate rock piles in cultivated fields. The Sandveld Group overlies the Cape Granite as well as the Malmesbury Group metasediments into which the granites intruded. Dominant land type Hb (almost 50%), followed by Db and Ha.

Climate Mainly cyclonic rainfall varying from approximately 250 mm in the north to 380 mm in the south (overall MAP: 300 mm), almost exclusively in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.6°C and 7.9°C for February and July, respectively. Mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures for Langebaanweg 36.5°C and 2.2°C for January/February and July/August, respectively. Advection sea fog and dew contribute to the moisture balance in summer and autumn. Frost infrequent. Strong southeasterly winds typical of the summer period, northerly winds more frequent in the winter months, especially between May and August. See also climate diagram for FS 3 Saldanha Flats Strandveld (Figure 4.128).

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Euclea racemosa subsp. racemosa (d), Nylandia spinosa, Rhus glauca. Low Shrubs: Aspalathus lotoides subsp. lagopus, Cluita daphnoidea, Euryops linifolius,


Endemic Taxa Geophytic Herbs: Hessea mathewsi, Romulea elliptica.

Conservation Endangered. Target 24%. Some 11% statute-richly conserved in the West Coast National Park and Yzerfontein Nature Reserve and a very small portion also in private conservation areas such as Jakkalsaagfontein and West Point. More than a half has already been transformed for cultivation, road building or by urban development. Serious alien infestation is caused by trees such as Acacia cyclops and A. saligna and herbs including Bromus diandrus and Medicago hispida. Erosion generally very low.


FS 4 Saldanha Limestone Strandveld


Distribution Western Cape Province: Very limited area with a larger patch on the Kliprug ridge between Saldanha and Paternoster, with several smaller outliers including those between Saldanha and north of Club Mykonos on the Langebaan Lagoon. Unmapped are small outcrops at Yzerfontein and on the tip of Langebaan Peninsula. Altitude 20–120 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Slightly undulating ridges and steeper coastal slopes supporting low shrublands built of low succulent-stemmed and deciduous, fleshy leaved shrubs in deeper soils. Patches of prostrate, succulent-leaved dwarf shrubs and annual or geophytic herbs occupy cracks or shallow depressions in the exposed limestone.

Geology & Soils Shallow sandy soil on hardpan Tertiary limestone of the Sandveld Group. Dominant land types Fc and Hb.

Climate Mainly cyclonic rainfall varying from approximately 250 mm in the north to 350 mm in the south, almost exclusively in winter (overall MAP is around 300 mm). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.3°C and 8.0°C for February and July/August, respectively. For other climate characteristics, see FS 4 Saldanha Granite Strandveld as well the climate diagram for FS 4 Saldanha Limestone Strandveld (Figure 4.128).


Biogeographically Important Taxa (all West Coast endemics) Low Shrubs: Afrolimon capensis (d), Asparagus capensis var. littoralis. Herb: Zaluzianskya parviflora. Graminoid: Thamnochortus spicigerus.


Conservation Endangered. Target 24%. None conserved in statutory conservation areas and only a small fraction protected in the Swartriet Private Nature Reserve. About 40% has been transformed for cultivation or development of coastal settlements. Some portions are under heavy grazing pressure. Aliens Acacia cyclops and A. saligna can become a problem in...
places. Erosion generally very low. This vegetation unit is rich in Red Data plants (at least 20 species, some of them restricted to this unit).


FS 5 Langebaan Dune Strandveld


Distribution Western Cape Province: This strandveld occurs in three large disconnected patches: one is a narrow coastal strip from Elands Bay to the mouth of the Great Berg River at Veldrif, the second one covers parts from Britannia Bay past Paternoster to Danger Bay near Saldanha Bay, while the last one surrounds Langebaan Lagoon from the north on the Langebaan Peninsula at Donkergat west of the lagoon and Langebaan, east of the lagoon, via Geelbek to Yzerfontein continuing as a very narrow strip along the West Coast seaboard as far south as Silverstroomstrand at Bokbaai (west of Atlantis). Altitude 0–100 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Flat to slightly undulating old coastal dune systems and stabilised inland duneveld supporting closed, evergreen, up to 2 m tall, sclerophyllous shrubland with prominent annual herbaceous flora occurring in gaps (and forming spectacular displays, especially after good rain in late winter).

Geology & Soils Deep Tertiary to Recent sands and calccrete of marine origin. Dominant land types Hb (slightly prevailing), Fc and Ha.

Climate Mainly cyclonic rainfall varying from approximately 230 mm in the north to 355 mm in the south, almost exclusively in winter and accompanied by frequent and strong north-westerly winds and cooler temperatures. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.1°C and 7.8°C for February and July, respectively. Mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures for Cape Columbine 29.8°C and 6.1°C for March and July, respectively. Southeasterly winds prevail in summer. Fog and dew contribute to the moisture in summer and autumn (especially in the northern part of the unit). Frost an infrequent phenomenon. See also climate diagram for FS 5 Langebaan Dune Strandveld (Figure 4.128).

Important Taxa

Tall Shrubs: Euclera racemosa subsp. racemosa (d), Metalasia muricata, Morella cordifolia, Olea exasperata, Rhus glauca, R. laevigata. Low Shrubs: Chrysanthemoides monilifera (d), Pteronia divaricata (d), Salvia africana-lutea (d), Ballota africana, Chironia bac-cicera, Chrysanthemoides incana, Clutia daphnoides, Eriocephalus africanus var. africanus, E. racemosus, Helichrysum niveum, Lebeckia multiflora, Maytenus lucida, Pterocelastrus tricuspistatus, Putterlickia pyracantha. Succulent Shrubs: Zygophyllum morgsana (d), Cotyledon orbiculata var. dactylopis, C. orbiculata...


Endemic Taxon Semisaparatic Shrub: Thesium litoreum.

Conservation Vulnerable. Target 24%. Almost 30% statutorily conserved in the West Coast National Park and in Rocherpan, SAS Saldanha, Columbine and Yzerfontein Nature Reserves. An additional 1% is protected in private reserves such as Groot Paternoster, Jakkalsfontein, Swartriet and Grotto Bay. Some 35% already transformed for cultivation and by urban sprawl. Alien Acacia cyclops and A. saligna have infested broad stretches of this vegetation unit. Erosion generally very low.

Remarks This is an intermediate strandveld type containing elements from the north and from the south. Sporadic local patches of FS 1 Lambert’s Bay Strandveld (not mapped due to small extent) intrude into the Langebaan Dune Strandveld as far south as St Helena Bay. Species such as Maytenus lycidas, Rhus pterota and Osyris compressum, conspicuous in this vegetation unit, are absent in the strandveld communities further north along the West Coast.


FS 6 Cape Flats Dune Strandveld


Distribution Western Cape Province: This unit occurs as four discontinuous regions—the largest patch spans the south coast of False Bay (between Gordon’s Bay and Muizenberg) and penetrates deep into the Cape Flats as a broad wedge as far north as Bellville, the other patch spans Silverstroomstrand and Table Bay (Cape Town) and includes the Atlantis dune plume, the third region is a series of small patches covering coastal dune pock-ets on the Cape Peninsula, while the last patch is situated on Robben Island. Altitude 0–80 m, but reaching 200 m in places.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Flat to slightly undulating (dune fields) landscape covered by tall, evergreen, hard-leaved shrubland with abundant grasses and annual herbs in gaps.

Geology & Soils Built mainly of Tertiary calcareous sand of marine origin and overlying metasediments of the Tygerberg Formation (Malmesbury Group, Namibian Erathem). Outcrops of Sandveld Group limestone (hardpan) are found on the False Bay coast (Cape Peninsula and especially the Wolvengat area). Dominant land type Ha (about 50%), with Hb and Ga playing subordinate roles.

Climate Exclusive winter-rainfall regime with mean annual rainfall of approximately 350 mm in the north to 560 mm in the south. The winter rains are accompanied by strong north-westerly winds and cooler temperatures. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.7°C and 7.5°C for February and July, respectively. Winds are southerly or southeasterly Winds in summer. Frost very infrequent. See also climate diagram for FS 6 Flats Dune Strandveld (Figure 4.128).

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Euclea racemosa subsp. racemosa (d), Metalasia muricata (d), Rhus glauca (d), Morella cordinolia, Nylanthia spinosa, Olea exasperata, Rhus crenata, R. laevigata, R. lucida. Low Shrubs: Chrysanthemoides monilifera (d), Cullumia squarroso (d), Pterocelastrus tricuspidatus (d), Salvia africana-lutea (d), Cassine peragia subsp. barbara, Chironia baccifera, Ericephalus africanus var. africanus, E. racemosus, Helichrysum niveum, H. teretifolium, Lessertia fruticosa, Otholobium bracteolatum, Passerina paleacea, Phyllicola ericoides, Putterlickia pyrantha, Robsonodendron maritimum. Succulent Shrubs:


Endemic Taxon Succulent Shrub: Lampranthus tenuifolius.

Conservation Endangered. Target 24%. More than 6% statutorily conserved in the Table Mountain National Park, Blouberg, Driftsands, Wolfag and Raapenberg Nature Reserves as well as in Rondevlei and Zandvlei Bird Sanctuaries. Private nature reserves protect about 4% of the unit (Blauw Mountain, Koeberg, Lourens River, Rietvlei, Somchem). Almost 40% already transformed by urban sprawl, road building or cultivation. Alien species of Acacia, pines and gum trees (Eucalyptus) have replaced the original strandveld vegetation in large areas. Erosion generally very low.

Remark Sideroxylon inerme, a conspicuous common species along the southern coastal strandveld, finds its westernmost distribution in this vegetation type and it does not extend northwards into the drier strandveld types.


FS 7 Overberg Dune Strandveld


Distribution Western Cape Province: Scattered patches from Rooiels (Cape Hangklip area) as far east as Cape Infanta at the mouth of the Breede River, with the largest one surrounding the Agulhas Peninsula—as a rule bordering on coastal limestone formations. Altitude 0–100 m, but reaching 160 m in places.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Flat or slightly undulating dune fields of Die Plaat near Stanford and those of De Hoop, supporting up to 4 m tall, closed, evergreen, hard-leaved shrublands in moist dune slacks and wind-protected valleys and up to 1 m tall, coastal thicket in many places wind-shorn along exposed littoral situations.

Geology & Soils Deep, Recent marine-derived calcareous sands forming dunes that line the coast (Quaternary Strandveld Formation of the Bredasdorp Group), to shelly, shallow-marine sandstones and limestones of the Bredasdorp Group deposited on underlying Table Mountain Group sandstone. The most important land types include Hb (37%), Ha (31%) and Fc (18%).

Climate Mainly cyclonic rainfall varying from approximately 400 mm in the east to 600 mm in the west, mainly in winter, but still with considerable summer rainfall in the eastern regions of the unit. The winter rains are accompanied by strong northwesterly winds and cooler temperatures. The winds tend to be strong southwesterly (trade winds with average velocity of 35 km per hour) in summer. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures for Cape Agulhas 27.1°C and 7.3°C for January and June, respectively. Mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures for Cape Agulhas 27.1°C and 7.3°C for January and June, respectively. No incidences of snowfalls have been recorded; frost is infrequent and hail occurs occasionally. Dense mist banks regularly occur through the Overberg region in autumn and winter. See also climate diagram for FS 7 Overberg Dune Strandveld (Figure 4.128).

Important Taxa Tall Shrubs: Euclea racemosa subsp. racemosa (d), Metalasia muricata (d), Rhus crenata (d), R. glauca (d), R. laevigata (d), Chionanthus foveolatus, Cussonia thyssiflora, Gymnosporia buxifolia, Morella cordifolia, Myrsine africana, Olea exasperata, Passerina corymbosa, Rhus lucida, R. undulata, Sideroxylon inerme, Tarchonanthus littoralis. Low Shrubs: Chrysanthemoides monilifera (d), Passerina paleacea (d), P. rigid a, Pterocelastrus tricuspidatus (d), Aspalathus forbesii,


Conservation Least threatened. Target 36%. Some 30% statutorily conserved in De Hoop, Walker Bay and De Mond Nature Reserves and in the Agulhas National Park. A further 11% of the unit is protected in private conservation areas, such as Andrewsfield, Brandfontein-Rietfontein, Groot Hagelkraal, Hoek-van-de-Berg, Kleinrivier, Paapekuiltfontein and Waterkop. More than 5% has been transformed by urban development and cultivation. Established thickets of alien Acacia cyclops, A. saligna and Leptospermum laevigatum are of serious concern. Erosion very low and low.

Remarks Parts of this vegetation unit have a drier climate than the FS 8 Blombos Strandveld with fewer components typical of coastal thickets fringing the seaboard further east. It has also fewer succulents than the strandveld types along the western seaboard.


FS 8 Blombos Strandveld


Distribution Western Cape Province: Narrow strip of interrupted patches along the coast of the Indian Ocean between Witsand and Gouritsmond (bordering on the easternmost occurrence of coastal limestone). Altitude 0–180 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Flat or slightly undulating coastal landscapes with dense, evergreen, sclerophyllous shrublands and thickets, with a poorly developed undergrowth layer. The thicket vegetation is best developed in dune slacks, where it is well protected from occasional fires that may penetrate the coastal zone from the inland areas and from salt-laden onshore winds that cause stunting (0.5 m tall, dense vegetation) in exposed littoral situations.

Geology & Soils Mainly on the Bredasdorp Group limestones and sandstones, but also on younger, unconsolidated lime-rich Strandveld and Waenhuiskrans Formations, which consist of white dune sands with fine shell material and occasionally with calcrite lenses present; in places with an admixture of littoral calcareous or sandstone cobbles. Most important land types Hb (39%), Ha (29%) and Fc (13%).

Climate Mainly cyclonic rainfall varying from approximately 300 mm in the east to 600 mm in the west. Precipitation is weakly bimodal, with peaks in spring and autumn. Morning fogs are common in winter. Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 25.0°C and 6.4°C for February and July, respectively. The prevailing winds are easterly and westerly, with a sea breeze influence on the vegetation. Strong and dry off-shore berg winds occur in late autumn and early winter, increasing the chance of veld fires. Frost incidence infrequent. See also climate diagram for FS 8 Blombos Strandveld (Figure 4.128).

Important Taxa Small Trees: Chionanthus loveolatus, Clausena anisata, Zanthoxylum capense. Tall Shrubs: Chrysanthemoides monilifera (d), Metalasia mucicata (d), Pterocelastrus tricuspidatus (d), Azima tetracantha, Cussonia thyrsiflora, Euclea racemosa subsp. racemosa, Grewia occidentalis, Gymnosporia capitata, Maytenus procumbens, Morella cordifolia, Mysteroxylon aethiopicum, Olea exasperata, Pteraoxylon obliquum, Putterlickia pyracantha, Rhus crenata, R. glauca, R. longispina, R. lucida, Sideroxylon inerme, Tarchonanthus littoralis. Low Shrubs:

Figure 4.138 FS 8 Blombos Strandveld: Dense coastal thicket kept low by strong winds and the influence of salt spray, with Exomis microphylla (Chenopodiaceae), Tergochenia fruticosa [Aizoaceae] and Rhus crenata [Anacardiaceae] at Groot Jongensfontein near Still Bay (Western Cape).

Biogeographically Important Taxa (both South Coast endemics) Low Shrub: Berkheya coriacea. Geophytic Herb: Freesia alba.


Conservation Least threatened. Target 36%. More than 20% statutorily conserved in the Kleinjongensfontein, Geelkrans, Blombergkraal, Skulpiesbaai and Pauline Bohnen Nature Reserves. A further 11% enjoys protection in private reserves such as Duivenhoksriviermond, Reins Coastal (Gouriqua), Vergaderingskop, Blomberg, Die Duine and Orca. The vegetation is relatively well preserved and has not experienced much transformation, except for local infestation by alien Acacia cyclops and A. saligna. Erosion generally very low.


FS 9 Groot Brak Dune Strandveld


Distribution Western Cape Province: Coastal stretches between the mouth of the Gouritz River as far east as Victoria Bay near the Wilderness, with by far the largest area covering the flats north of Mossel Bay (along the lower reaches of the Groot Brak, Klein Brak and Hartenbos Rivers) and extending up to 17 km from the coast. Altitude 0–180 m.

Vegetation & Landscape Features Flats, undulating landscapes (stabilised dunes) and steep coastal slopes, covered by dense and tall (up to 3 m), spiny, sclerophyllous scrub with gaps supporting shrublands with ericoids or succulent-leaved shrubs. The graminoid layer is sparse and short.

Geology & Soils Mostly underlain by the clastic sedimentary rocks of the Kirkwood Formation (Mesozoisch Uitenhage Group). In the east, quartzite, schist and phyllite of the Kaaimans Group (Namibian Erathem) and Cape Granite (edges of high coastal cliffs) are also present. In parts along the coast, these rocks are covered by the unconsolidated dune sand of the Strandveld Formation (Bredasdorp Group). Most important land types Db and Dc.

Climate MAP varies between approximately 350 mm in the west to 750 mm in the east, with approximately 40% of the rain falling in summer (October–March) and 60% in winter (April–September). Mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures 26.8°C and 7.7°C for February and July, respectively. Mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures for Cape St Blaize 29.0°C and 7.1°C for April and August, respectively. See also climate diagram for FS 9 Groot Brak Dune Strandveld (Figure 4.128).


**Biogeographically Important Taxa** (both South Coast endemic-ics) Herb: *Indigofera tomentosa*. Geophytic Herb: *Freesia alba*.

**Conservation** Endangered. Target 36%. None conserved in statutory conservation areas and only about 1% protected in private reserves (George, Kanon, Blydskap, Kwelanga). Almost half of the region has been transformed for cultivation, by building of roads or by development of coastal settlements. Erosion generally moderate and high, with some areas ranking as low.

**References**

### 10. Credits

The first draft of the introductory text was written by A.G. Rebelo. L. Mucina wrote most of Sections 1.1, 1.3, 1.5, 2.4.1, 5.2, and contributed to 1.4.3. The following sections were rewritten or contributed to by: R.A. Ward wrote most of the geological patterns (Section 2.1), F. Ellis and J.J.N. Lambrechts wrote Section 2.3 (soils), M.C. Rutherford wrote most of the regional climate (Section 2.4.2) and contributed to discussion on boundaries of the Fynbos and Karoo (Section 1.4.2), as well as to the section on climate and ecophysiological response (4.2). F.G.T. Radloff wrote most of the section on large mammal herbivory (Section 4.4.1). L. Scott contributed the section featuring the palaeoecological framework (Section 5.1), S.M. Prochez contributed to endemicity and species diversity patterns (Sections 6.1 and 6.3). S.D. Johnson contributed extensively to section 4.4.2 (pollination and dispersal), D.M. Richardson wrote the account of the role of alien flora in the Fynbos Biome (Section 7.2) and B.A. Walton made a contribution to the section on renosterveld (3.2). All sections were extensively edited and adapted by A.G. Rebelo, L. Mucina and M.C. Rutherford.

An initial theoretical framework was done by C. Boucher and L. Mucina based on satellite imagery supplied by CapeNature (then Western Cape Nature Conservation Service) and digitised by R.S. Knight and S. Jonas (then Univ. of Western Cape). These were discarded and a redefinition of fynbos and renosterveld units based on geology was done by A.G. Rebelo in consultation with C. Boucher, N. Helme, R.M. Cowling, J.H.I. Vlok, A.B. Low, L. Mucina and M.C. Rutherford. Mapping was done by A.G. Rebelo with GIS help from W.J. Smit. Map units were used or used to inform units included unpublished digitised versions provided for the Cederberg by D. Bands (Jonkershoek), Little Karoo by J.H.I. Vlok, Agulhas by D.I.W. Euston-Brown, South and West Coast renosterveld units by N. Helme, and Cape Flats by A.B. Low. Further GIS assistance in the final stages was provided by L.W. Powrie.

The conceptual scheme for the mapping of the Kamiesberg units (FFg 1 and FRg 1) was conceived by A. le Roux, L. Mucina and M.C. Rutherford in concert with the establishment of the mapping boundaries of the surrounding Succulent Karoo units. The boundaries of the unit FFg 1 were replaced by A.G. Rebelo based on the distribution of Proteaceae: this was chosen as the 1 400 m altitude. The original mapped extent of FFg 1 (as suggested by N. Jürgens) has been modified by M.C. Rutherford and L. Mucina.

A.G. Rebelo is sole author of the descriptions of FFh 1, 8–10, FFq 4–6, FFs 1, 5, 8, 20–22, 26, 29, FF 1–2, FRi 1 and FRs 6, and further contributed to all other vegetation units (for most of which he is the leading author) except for FFd 11, FFq 1 and FS 1–9. L. Mucina is the sole author of the description of FFd 11, wrote all FS units, is the leading author of the units FFs 27–28 and 30–31 as well as of FRd 1–2, FFq 1 and FS 2 and 5. He further co-authored all FFA units, all FFb units, FFc 1, FFd 1 and 8–9, FFf 2, FFg 1–2, 5, all FFS units, FFs 6–7, 10–12, 17, 19, 25, all FRA units, FRc 2, FRg 2 and FRs 8–10, 13 and 19. C. Boucher participated in all FS units, is the leading author of FFA 4, FFA 8, 10, FRs 4, 17 and further co-authored FFA 1–3, FFC 1, FFD 2–7, 9, FFF 1, FFg 2–3, FFh 6, all FFI units, FFF 2–3, FFS 2–4, 9–16, 19, 23–24, both FRA units, FRg 2, FRs 8–9, 11–15 and 18. N. Helme is the leading author of FFD 1, FRG 3, FRs 11–13 and further co-authored descriptions of FFA 3, both FFF units, FFG 1–4, FFG 2–7, FRJ 1, FRK 2, FRs 2–7, 15–16. M.C. Rutherford co-authored FFB 2, FFF 4, FFq 1 and 3, FFs 8, 13, 16–18, 23, 27–30 and FRG 1. A.L. Skowno and S.A. Todd co-authored the description of FRs 2. J.A.M. Janssen contributed to the descriptions of FFI and FFs 12. A. le Roux contributed to FFD 1 and FFq 1. B.A. Walton contributed to FFB 3, D.B. Hoare to FFd 11, FRs 19 and D.J. McDonald to FFs 16. N. Jürgens is the sole author of FFq 1.

M.C. Rutherford and L.W. Powrie prepared all climate diagrams and their captions. M.C. Rutherford contributed to the editing of the climate characteristics of all FS units. For all vegetation units M. Rouget, and others within the Directorate of Biodiversity Programmes, Policy & Planning of SANBI, provided quantitative information on conservation status and targets, areas currently conserved and areas transformed for each vegetation unit. W.J. Smit and L.W. Powrie assisted in preparing the data on conservation and transformation, correspondence with other classification schemes, climate, altitude ranges, alien invasive species and distribution of Proteaceae, which were used in the text for all vegetation unit descriptions except for FFS. Introductory texts to the fynbos and renosterveld units (within the section on Descriptions) were written by A.G. Rebelo and edited by L. Mucina. Within the same section L. Mucina contributed the short characteristics of the sandstone and limestone fynbos as well as strandveld.

The initial species lists for most of the FF and FR units have been prepared by A.G. Rebelo, assisted by N. Helme (especially in FR units) and C. Boucher. The lists have been revised in depth by L. Mucina, especially FFs 7, 10–12, 17, 24–26, FFF 2, 5 and 6, FFq 1, 7–8 and 10, FFs 1–2, 5–6 and 10, FFI 1–6 (here also assisted by M.C. Rutherford and L.W. Powrie), FFA 1, 3 (assisted by B.A. Walton) and 4, FFG 1 (using an unpublished list of endemics by N. Helme as an important source), 2, 4 and 5, FFF 2, FFJ 1–3, FRs 2–4, 6–7, 9 (assisted by B.A. Walton), 11–15, 18 (assisted by M.C. Rutherford and L.W. Powrie) and 19, FFg 1 (using unpublished lists of species by A. le Roux and N. Helme as important sources) and 3, FRd 1–2, FRA 2 (assisted by B.A. Walton), FRC 1 (assisted by B.A. Walton) and 2. L. Mucina also provided completely new lists for FFs 27–28 and 30–31, FFd 11 and FRs 5. The original species list of FFq 1 was provided by N. Jürgens.

The major sources of the species lists were the unpublished data from the PRECIS system, Acocks database, Protea Atlas Project, conspectus of Cape flora (Goldblatt & Manning 2000b), published phytosociological literature (for details see the References further on) as well as unpublished field records of all authors.
involved in this chapter. L.W. Powrie and W.J. Smit assisted with extraction of species lists from the SANBI databases (PRECIS, ACKDDAT). We thank the Data Management Section of SANBI (Pretoria) for making these databases accessible to the VEGMAP Project. E.G.H. (Ted) Oliver checked the affiliation of the Erica species against particular species lists, while J.C. Manning checked the affiliation of the bulbous plants (including Iridaceae, Hyacinthaceae, Tephaloideae, etc.). The initial species lists of the F5 units by C. Boucher have been extensively edited by L. Mucina. The link to all Proteaceae to the Fynbos units were corrected by A.G. Rebelo.

Endemic species lists were extracted from Protea Atlas Project data and the conspectus of Cape flora (Goldblatt & Manning 2000b) by A.G. Rebelo, and from unpublished lists by N. Helme for West and South Coast renosterveld and by A. le Roux and N. Helme for the Kamiesberg. These were checked by E.G.H. (Ted) Oliver and R. Turner (Ericaceae), J.C. Manning (Iridaceae, Hyacinthaceae, Tephaloideae), D. Snyman (Amaryllidaceae), P. Chesselet (Aizoaceae), and A. Schutte-Vlok (Fabaceae) among others, except for Restionaceae, which were checked using Linder (1999) as the major source. N. Helme checked the endemic species lists of the renosterveld units. All lists of endemics were extensively checked by L. Mucina in the final leg of editing.

Most of the photographs were contributed by L. Mucina. Other photographers include D. Gwynne-Evans, J.C. Manning, F.G.T. Radloff, K.J.C. Melvin-Phillips, P. Goldblatt, C. Boucher, A. van Niekerk, L.W. Powrie, M.C. Rutherford, C. Paterson-Jones, J.P. Groenewald and A.V. Köcke. Figures 4.4 to 4.7 were supplied by F. Ellis and J.J.N. Lambrecht and Figures 4.8 and 4.9 were prepared by M.C. Rutherford and L.W. Powrie. Figure 4.78 was constructed by L.W. Powrie and L. Mucina. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 were contributed by L. Mucina and Table 4.3 was prepared by Ş.M. Proche. The captions to the photographs were created by L. Mucina (with the help of other photographers and expert advice) and edited by A.G. Rebelo.

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