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Geographic and taxonomic patterns of extinction risk in Australian squamates

Reid Tingley¹, Stewart L. Macdonald², Nicola J. Mitchell³, John C.Z. Woinarski⁴, Shai Meiri^{5,6}, Phil Bowles⁷, Neil A. Cox⁷, Glenn M. Shea⁸, Monika Böhm⁹, Janice Chanson⁷, Marcelo F. Tognelli⁷, Jaclyn Harris¹, Claire Walke¹, Natasha Harrison³, Savannah Victor³, Calum Woods³, Andrew P. Amey¹⁰, Mike Bamford¹¹, Gareth Catt¹², Nick Clemann¹³, Patrick J. Couper¹⁰, Hal Cogger¹⁴, Mark Cowan¹⁵, Michael Craig^{3,16}, Chris R. Dickman¹⁷, Paul Doughty¹⁸, Ryan Ellis^{18,19}, Aaron Fenner²⁰, Stewart Ford²¹, Glen Gaikhorst²², Graeme R. Gillespie²³, Matthew J. Greenlees^{17,24}, Rod Hobson²⁵, Conrad J. Hoskin²⁶, Ric How¹⁸, Mark N. Hutchinson²⁷, Ray Lloyd²⁸, Peter McDonald²⁹, Jane Melville³⁰, Damian R. Michael³¹, Craig Moritz³², Paul M. Oliver^{33,34}, Garry Peterson³⁵, Peter Robertson³⁶, Chris Sanderson³⁷, Ruchira Somaweera³⁸, Roy Teale²¹, Leonie Valentine³, Eric Vanderduys³⁹, Melanie Venz⁴⁰, Erik Wapstra⁴¹, Steve Wilson¹⁰, David G. Chapple^{1*}

1. School of Biological Sciences, Monash University, Clayton, Victoria Australia
2. CSIRO Land and Water Flagship, Townsville, Queensland, Australia
3. School of Biological Sciences, The University of Western Australia, Crawley, Western Australia, Australia
4. Threatened Species Recovery Hub, National Environmental Science Program, Charles Darwin University, Darwin, Northern Territory, Australia
5. School of Zoology, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel
6. Steinhardt Museum of Natural History, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel
7. Biodiversity Assessment Unit, International Union for Conservation of Nature and Conservation International, Washington DC, USA.
8. Faculty of Veterinary Science, University of Sydney, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia
9. Institute of Zoology, Zoological Society of London, London, UK
10. Natural Environments, Queensland Museum, South Brisbane, Queensland, Australia
11. Bamford Consulting Ecologists, Kingsley, Western Australia, Australia
12. Kanyirninpa Jukurrpa, 18 Panizza Way, Newman, Western Australia, Australia
13. Arthur Rylah Institute for Environmental Research, Department of Environment, Land, Water and Planning, Heidelberg, Victoria, Australia
14. Australian Museum, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia
15. Department of Biodiversity, Conservation and Attractions, Western Australia, Australia
16. School of Veterinary and Life Sciences, Murdoch University, Murdoch, Western Australia, Australia.

- 37 17. School of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Sydney, Sydney, New South
38 Wales, Australia
- 39 18. Department of Terrestrial Zoology, Western Australian Museum, Welshpool, Western
40 Australia, Australia
- 41 19. Biologic Environmental Survey, Subiaco, Western Australia, Australia
- 42 20. School of Biological Sciences, Flinders University of South Australia, South Australia,
43 Australia
- 44 21. Biota Environmental Sciences, Leederville, Western Australia, Australia
- 45 22. GHD Consultants, Perth, Western Australia, Australia
- 46 23. Flora and Fauna Division, Department of Environment and Natural Resources, Palmerston,
47 Northern Territory, Australia
- 48 24. Department of Biological Sciences, Macquarie University, North Ryde, NSW, 2109,
49 Australia.
- 50 25. Department of National Parks, Sport and Racing, Queensland, Australia
- 51 26. College of Science and Engineering, James Cook University, Townsville, Queensland,
52 Australia
- 53 27. Herpetology Section, South Australian Museum, Adelaide, South Australia, Australia
- 54 28. Fauna Track, Western Australia, Australia
- 55 29. SPREP Pacific Environment, Samoa
- 56 30. Department of Sciences, Museums Victoria, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia
- 57 31. Institute for Land, Water and Society, Charles Sturt University, Albury, New South Wales,
58 Australia
- 59 32. Research School of Biological Sciences and Centre for Biodiversity Analysis, Canberra,
60 Australian Capital Territory, Australia
- 61 33. Biodiversity and Geosciences Program, Queensland Museum, Brisbane, Queensland,
62 Australia
- 63 34. Environmental Futures Research Institute, School of Environment and Science, Griffith
64 University, Queensland, Australia
- 65 35. Department of Environment, Land, Water and Planning, Warrnambool, Victoria, Australia
- 66 36. Wildlife Profiles, Hurstbridge, Victoria, Australia
- 67 37. School of Biological Sciences, University of Queensland, St Lucia, Queensland, Australia
- 68 38. CSIRO Land and Water, Floreat, Western Australia, Australia
- 69 39. CSIRO Land and Water, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia
- 70 40. Department of Science, Information Technology, Innovation and the Arts, Brisbane,
71 Queensland, Australia
- 72 41. School of Biological Sciences, University of Tasmania, Hobart, Tasmania, Australia

73 *Corresponding author: Assoc Prof David Chapple, School of Biological Sciences, Monash
74 University, Clayton, Victoria, Australia, Email: David.Chapple@monash.edu

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86

87

88 **Abstract**

89 Australia is a global hotspot of reptile diversity, hosting ~10% of the world's squamate (snake and
90 lizard) species. Yet the conservation status of the Australian squamate fauna has not been assessed for
91 more than 25 years; a period during which the described fauna has risen by ~40%. Here we provide
92 the first comprehensive conservation assessment of Australian terrestrial squamates using IUCN Red
93 List Categories and Criteria. Most (86.4%; n=819/948) Australian squamates were categorised as
94 Least Concern, 4.5% were Data Deficient, and 7.1% (range 6.8%–11.3%, depending on the treatment
95 of Data Deficient species) were threatened (3.0% Vulnerable, 2.7% Endangered, 1.1% Critically
96 Endangered). This level of threat is low relative to the global average (~18%). One species (*Emoia*
97 *nativitatis*) was assessed as Extinct, and two species (*Lepidodactylus listeri* and *Cryptoblepharus*
98 *egeriae*) are considered Extinct in the Wild: all three were endemic to Christmas Island. Most (75.1%)
99 threat assessments were based on geographic range attributes, due to limited data on population trends
100 or relevant proxies. Agriculture, fire, and invasive species were the threats that affected the most
101 species, and there was substantial geographic variation in the number of species affected by each
102 threat. Threatened species richness peaked on islands, in the Southern Alps, and across northern
103 Australia. Data deficiency was greatest in northern Australia and in coastal Queensland.
104 Approximately one-in-five threatened species were not represented in a single protected area. Our
105 analyses shed light on the species, regions, and threats in most urgent need of conservation
106 intervention.

107

108 **Keywords:** assessment; conservation status; extinction risk; IUCN; reptiles; threat status

109 **1. Introduction**

110 For over 50 years, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of Threatened
111 Species (IUCN, 2018) has been an important tool for establishing global conservation priorities.
112 However, even among terrestrial vertebrates—the world’s most intensively studied group of
113 species—25.6% of currently recognized taxa have not been evaluated against the IUCN Red List
114 Categories and Criteria (IUCN, 2018). Within terrestrial vertebrates, estimates of extinction risk are
115 primarily based on studies of birds, mammals, and amphibians; indeed, only ~64% of the world’s
116 ~11,000 reptile species have published extinction risk assessments (IUCN, 2018). This is despite
117 evidence of ongoing reptile declines globally (Huey et al., 2009; Sinervo et al., 2010; Tingley et al.,
118 2016). A recent analysis of global time series data, for example, estimated an average decline in
119 reptile populations of 54–55% (Saha et al., 2018). Of those reptile species that have been assessed for
120 the IUCN Red List (7,023 species), 18% are assessed as threatened (meeting criteria for Vulnerable,
121 Endangered, or Critically Endangered), and 15% considered Data Deficient (IUCN, 2018).

122
123 Here we provide the first comprehensive assessment of the extinction risk of Australian terrestrial
124 squamates (snakes and lizards) using IUCN criteria; the first such assessment of this group in >25
125 years (Cogger et al., 1993). Australia is a hotspot of squamate diversity (~1,020 species; 807 lizard
126 species, 213 snake species), hosting ~10% of the world’s squamate species (Uetz et al., 2019); yet,
127 prior to our assessment, Australia was the biogeographic realm with the lowest percentage (15%) of
128 squamate species assessed by the IUCN (Meiri and Chapple, 2016), and most of these species were
129 assessed using an older version of the IUCN Red List criteria. This ‘assessment’ gap mirrors a chronic
130 knowledge gap, with the biggest conservation challenge for the Australian squamate fauna being a
131 lack of information on population sizes and trends (Woinarski, 2018). The richness of the known
132 Australian squamate fauna has increased by approximately 38% (from 738 to 1,020 species, as of
133 2018) over the past 25 years, with an average growth rate of ~11 new species described per year
134 (Cogger et al., 1993; Uetz et al., 2019), and we are still evaluating the number of species that actually
135 occur in Australia. In addition, we have limited understanding of the threats facing each species
136 (Webb et al., 2015; Woinarski et al., 2018), and the extent to which threatened squamates are
137 conserved by Australia’s network of protected areas (Lunney et al., 2017; Watson et al., 2011).
138 Collectively, these issues have hampered efforts to assess the conservation status of the Australian
139 squamate fauna and hence to prioritise and enact appropriate conservation management.

140
141 Our comprehensive assessment of Australian terrestrial squamates represents a major step towards
142 addressing this knowledge gap, as we use the resulting data to: (i) elucidate key threats to Australian
143 squamates; (ii) evaluate whether there are geographic and taxonomic biases in those threats, as well as
144 in threatened and Data Deficient species richness; (iii) assess the extent to which the distributions of
145 squamate species overlap with the Australian protected area network; and (iv) compare key threats,

146 extinction risk, and data deficiency between Australian squamates and other Australian terrestrial
147 vertebrate groups. We anticipate that our study will draw attention to species of conservation concern
148 and spur targeted research and management on Australia's threatened, Near Threatened, and Data
149 Deficient squamate species, thereby greatly improving our knowledge of, and conservation efforts for,
150 this diverse group.

151

152 **2. Methods**

153 **2.1 IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria**

154 The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species is based on five criteria that relate to different indicators of
155 extinction risk: rate of population decline (Criterion A); restricted geographic range and
156 decline/fragmentation (Criterion B); small population size and decline (Criterion C); very small or
157 restricted populations (Criterion D); and probability of extinction from quantitative analysis (Criterion
158 E) (IUCN, 2012). Red List assessments for each species typically involve collating available
159 published data on these indicators, which are subsequently evaluated by experts in regional or
160 taxonomic workshops. This evaluation serves three functions: to obtain further, often unpublished,
161 information relevant to these indicators; to compare the resulting data against quantitative thresholds
162 to determine whether a species warrants listing in any of the three 'threatened' categories (Vulnerable,
163 Endangered, or Critically Endangered); and to identify further research priorities and conservation
164 measures. Species accounts and maps are then reviewed post-workshop (by IUCN staff in
165 collaboration with experts) to ensure consistency in the application of the categories and criteria, with
166 the agreed final global conservation status published on the IUCN Red List (www.iucnredlist.org).

167

168 **2.2 Australian squamate workshops**

169 Two five-day IUCN workshops were held in Australia to assess the extinction risk of Australian
170 terrestrial squamates against IUCN criteria; in Perth (February 2017) and in Melbourne (June 2017).
171 Marine and freshwater turtles, crocodiles, and sea-snakes were not evaluated, as these are assessed
172 separately by taxa-focused IUCN Species Survival Commission Specialist Groups. Here we further
173 restrict our analyses to terrestrial and freshwater squamates; i.e. we excluded species that were listed
174 as occupying marine habitats, freshwater and marine habitats, or terrestrial and marine habitats (as
175 listed in the 'systems' field recorded by the IUCN). We also excluded the three introduced squamates
176 now present on the Australian mainland and/or adjacent islands (Asian house gecko *Hemidactylus*
177 *frenatus*, the common sun skink *Eutropis multifasciata*, and the flowerpot blind snake *Indotyphlops*
178 *braminus*), as well as introduced squamates whose Australian range is restricted to Christmas Island
179 and the Cocos (Keeling) islands (*Lycodon capucinus*, *Lygosoma bowringi*, *Gehyra mutilata*,
180 *Lepidodactylus lugubris*). Our final species list included 948 species, of which almost all (98.7%) are
181 endemic to Australia and its island territories (see Table S1 for a list of species).

182

183 Each workshop involved coordinators, spatial analysts, IUCN facilitators, and approximately 25
184 experts who had knowledge of the species being assessed. Prior to the workshops, IUCN staff collated
185 basic data (e.g., geographic range, population abundance, habitat and ecology, threats, conservation
186 measures, and relevant bibliographic information for sources) on each species from existing literature
187 and entered it into the IUCN's Species Information Service (SIS) database. The pre-entered
188 information was reviewed by workshop participants during the workshops and modified as needed.
189 Following agreement on the supporting information by participants, the IUCN Red List Categories
190 and Criteria (IUCN 2012) were applied to each species, and this was recorded in SIS. All assessments
191 were reviewed and accepted by the IUCN, and published on the Red List website
192 (www.iucnredlist.org) during 2018.

193

194 **2.3 Species distribution data**

195 Occurrence data for all native Australian terrestrial squamate species were collated from various
196 sources, including museums, State and Federal Government Departments, citizen science programs,
197 and academic researchers. These data were transformed to a common geographic coordinate system
198 (WGS84). All records with missing geographic coordinates were removed. Records were reclassified
199 so that they adhered to a common taxonomy following the Australian Society of Herpetologists
200 official species list (available from [http://www.australiansocietyofherpetologists.org/position-](http://www.australiansocietyofherpetologists.org/position-statements)
201 [statements](http://www.australiansocietyofherpetologists.org/position-statements)).

202

203 Experts subsequently reviewed all distribution maps at the two workshops. For each species, experts
204 were presented with a printed geographic range map consisting of the collated occurrence records, a
205 minimum convex polygon encompassing those records (the minimum extent of occurrence of each
206 species), and an expert-derived range map from the Australian Reptile Online Database (AROD;
207 <http://www.arod.com.au/arod>), overlaid on a Google Maps base map. Experts then deleted or added
208 records on the maps where appropriate. One dedicated spatial analyst in each working group then
209 amended the AROD range polygon in real-time with the experts using custom software. The result of
210 this process was a refined geographic range polygon for each species, converted to a shapefile and
211 clipped to the Australian coastline. These spatial data are available from <https://www.iucnredlist.org/>.

212

213 **2.4 Estimating overall extinction risk**

214 Species classified as Data Deficient introduce uncertainty into calculations of the percentage of
215 threatened species (i.e. those classified as Vulnerable, Endangered, or Critically Endangered). We
216 therefore estimated the percentage of threatened species using three different approaches to the
217 treatment of Data Deficient species, following Böhm et al. (2013).

218

219 First, we assumed that the true extinction risk of Data Deficient species would fall into the three
220 threatened categories in the same proportions as observed in currently assessed species:
221 $(CR+EN+VU)/(N-DD)$, where N is the total number of Australian squamate species, and CR, EN,
222 VU, and DD are the numbers of Critically Endangered, Endangered, Vulnerable, and Data Deficient
223 species, respectively. Second, we produced an optimistic (lower bound) estimate of the percentage of
224 threatened species by assuming that no Data Deficient species were threatened: $(CR + EN + VU)/N$.
225 Finally, we produced a pessimistic estimate by assuming that all Data Deficient species were
226 threatened: $(CR + EN + VU + DD)/N$. We also report the number of Extinct and Extinct in the Wild
227 species, but do not include these species in estimates of the numbers of threatened species, nor in our
228 spatial analyses.

229

230 Population trajectories for each species were categorised as stable, increasing, decreasing, or
231 unknown, based on published reports and expert assessments of population trends.

232

233 **2.5 Geographic and taxonomic patterns of extinction risk**

234 Species geographic range maps were overlaid on a 25 km x 25 km grid to estimate spatial patterns of
235 species richness. This was done for (i) all squamate species; (ii) threatened species (using both
236 optimistic and pessimistic estimates of the number of threatened species, as described in 2.4); and (iii)
237 Data Deficient species. We mapped the absolute numbers and the proportions of threatened and Data
238 Deficient species in each grid cell. We also calculated an alternative approach to visualise geographic
239 patterns of threat, in which we converted the IUCN Red List categories into a continuous score,
240 whereby LC=0, NT=1, VU=2, EN=3, and CR=4. We present sums and means of those scores for each
241 25-km grid cell. For example, if six species were present in a grid cell, of which four were LC, 1 was
242 VU and 1 was EN, the sum for that cell would be 5 $((4*0)+(1*2)+(1*3))$, whereas the weighted mean
243 would be 0.83 (5/6). The latter approach accounted for overall species richness in a cell. We repeated
244 all the above analyses at 1 km resolution for Christmas Island, Lord Howe Island (group), and
245 Norfolk Island (group). This finer spatial resolution was used to better visualise geographic patterns,
246 given the relatively small spatial extent of the islands. We also evaluated whether threatened species
247 were randomly distributed among snakes and lizards, and among families using Fisher's Exact Tests,
248 with p-values computed via Monte Carlo simulation.

249

250 **2.6 Threatening processes**

251 Major threats were assigned for every species by experts at the workshops. We used this threat
252 information to map the number and proportion of species threatened by agriculture (IUCN threat type
253 2), fire and fire suppression (IUCN threat type 7.1), and invasive and other problematic species and
254 diseases (IUCN threat type 8.1, 8.2 and 8.4; no species were classified under the other threat 8

255 subcategories). We did this for all species irrespective of IUCN status, and for only threatened species
256 (omitting Data Deficient species).

257

258 **2.7 Protected area coverage**

259 We examined the extent to which squamate species were likely to be present in the Australian
260 protected area network, using all 10, 778 available protected areas (IUCN protected area categories I-
261 VI) contained in the 2016 version of the Collaborative Australian Protected Area Database
262 (<https://www.environment.gov.au/land/nrs/science/capad/2016>). We estimated the proportion of each
263 species' estimated range that overlapped the protected area network, as well as the number of species
264 (total and threatened), that: (i) did not overlap with any protected area; and (ii) had $\leq 10\%$ of their
265 geographic range within the protected area network. To provide upper and lower bounds on these
266 calculations for threatened and non-threatened species, we either assumed that Data Deficient species
267 were non-threatened (optimistic) or threatened (pessimistic), as above. We used a Wilcoxon Rank
268 Sum Test to examine whether there was a difference between the median proportion of a species'
269 geographic range within protected areas between threatened and non-threatened species. All analyses
270 were conducted in R v3.5.2 (R Core Team, 2018).

271

272 **3. Results**

273 **3.1 Overall extinction risk**

274 Based on the results of the assessment workshops, 819 (86.4%) Australian squamate species were
275 assessed as Least Concern (Table 1). Nineteen species (2.0%) were classified as Near Threatened. In
276 the threatened categories, 28 (3.0%) species were Vulnerable, 26 (2.7%) were Endangered, and 10
277 (1.1%) were Critically Endangered. One species (*Emoia nativitatis*) was considered to have recently
278 become extinct, and two species (*Lepidodactylus listeri* and *Cryptoblepharus egeriae*) were assessed
279 as Extinct in the Wild. Additionally, 43 (4.5%) species were classified as Data Deficient (see Table S2
280 for a list of Data Deficient species). Assuming all Data Deficient species will be assigned to
281 threatened categories in the same proportions as non-Data Deficient species, the total percentage of
282 threatened (Vulnerable, Endangered or Critically Endangered) Australian squamates is 7.1%.
283 Optimistic and pessimistic estimates are 6.8% and 11.3%, respectively. Population trends were
284 assessed as stable for 59.2% (n=561) of species, decreasing for 6.3% (n=60), and unknown for 34.2%
285 (n=324).

286

287 Most species (68.7%; n = 57) that were classified in a more imperilled status than Least Concern (i.e.
288 Near Threatened–Critically Endangered) were classified as such based largely on having a restricted
289 geographic range (typically less than 20,000 km²) with an ongoing threat that reduces this
290 distribution, or the quality of habitat within it (IUCN Criterion B). Including in this category those
291 species also listed under criterion D2 (restricted area of occupancy or few locations, with a highly

292 plausible near-future threat) increases the total percentage of species classified on the basis of their
 293 geographic range to 75.1% (n=72). Indeed, geographical range sizes of threatened species were
 294 considerably smaller than those of non-threatened species (Fig. 1). Three species (3.6%) were listed
 295 under both D criteria (few mature individuals in addition to the D2 criteria noted above). A further
 296 6.0% of species (n=5) were classified solely due to severe (>30%) reductions in population size over
 297 the last ten years or three generations (Criterion A). Only one threatened species (*Liopholis kintorei*)
 298 was classified as threatened based entirely on its small population size and population decline
 299 (Criterion C). The remaining two species were classified as threatened using a combination of B and
 300 C (*Simalia oenpelliensis*), and C and D (*Bellatorias obiri*) criteria.

301

302 **3.2 Geographic and taxonomic patterns of extinction risk**

303 Squamate species richness was highest in the Wet Tropics of north-eastern Australia, in the
 304 Kimberley and Pilbara regions of Western Australia, and in central Australia (Fig. 2). Geographic
 305 patterns of threat were largely congruent when summarised using different metrics. Total threatened
 306 species richness was highest in the Alps of south-eastern Australia, and in northern Australia, with a
 307 particularly high number of threatened species in the vicinity of Kakadu National Park and across the
 308 Kimberley region (Fig. 3A&C). South-western Australia also hosted high total threatened species
 309 richness. Similar geographic patterns were evident when controlling for total species richness, except
 310 that controlling for species richness emphasised threats facing squamates on Australia's island
 311 territories (Fig. 3B&D). Christmas Island, the Norfolk Island group, and the Lord Howe Island group
 312 each hosted two species (total n=4 species), all of which were threatened (see insets of Fig. 3).
 313 Christmas Island was also the only known location for the one species assessed as extinct (*Emoia*
 314 *nativitatis*), and the two species that were considered Extinct in the Wild (*Lepidodactylus listeri* and
 315 *Cryptoblepharus egeriae*). The sum and mean of IUCN scores showed similar relative geographic
 316 patterns to total species richness (Fig. 3A&C cf. Fig. 3E) and proportional species richness (Fig.
 317 3B&D cf. Fig. 3F), respectively.

318

319 Assuming that no Data Deficient species were threatened, we found no evidence of overall bias at the
 320 level of taxonomic family ($P = 0.61$; Table 2) or suborder ($P = 0.13$). Similarly, when assuming that
 321 all Data Deficient species were threatened, we found no evidence of overall bias at the level of
 322 taxonomic family ($P = 0.44$; Table 2) or suborder ($P = 0.89$). We found qualitatively similar results
 323 when excluding families with fewer than five species (Acrochordidae, Colubridae, Homalopsidae,
 324 Natricidae).

325

326 Although there was no evidence of taxonomic bias overall, some families possessed high proportions
 327 of threatened species, with carphodactylid geckos being the most threatened, followed by pygopodid
 328 geckos and skinks (Table 2). It is interesting to note that Carphodactylidae and Pygopodidae are the

329 only two regionally endemic families. Assuming all Data Deficient species are threatened led to a
330 large increase in the percentage of threatened blind snakes (Typhlopidae).

331

332 Data deficiency was highest near the Kimberley region, with secondary hotspots in coastal
333 Queensland and across the Northern Territory (Fig. 4A). The Kimberley region remained a hotspot of
334 data deficiency when controlling for total species richness (Fig. 4B).

335

336 **3.3 Threatening processes**

337 Invasive and other problematic species and diseases were the most prevalent threats to Australian
338 squamates (14.6% of species; n=138), followed closely by agriculture (12.4%; n=118). Natural
339 system modifications affected 9.3% of species; fire and fire suppression (threat type 7.1) affected 90%
340 (n=79) of species within this broader category. Other notable threats included biological resource use
341 (4.4%; n=42), including hunting (n=33) and logging (n=9), energy production and mining (4.1%;
342 n=39), and climate change and severe weather events (3.8%; n=36).

343

344 Effects of agriculture were most pronounced in eastern and south-western portions of the country
345 (Fig. 5A&B), whereas effects of fire and fire suppression were more geographically heterogenous and
346 widespread (Fig. 5C&D). Numerous species across northern Australia, Queensland, and the Alps
347 were impacted by invasive species (Fig. 5E); accounting for species richness highlighted additional
348 hotspots in western Victoria and Tasmania (Fig. 5F). All species that were endemic to Christmas
349 Island, or to the Norfolk and Lord Howe Island Groups, were threatened by invasive species.

350

351 Geographic variation in threatening processes was similar when considering only threatened species.
352 However, compared to squamates overall, fewer threatened squamates were impacted by agriculture
353 and fire in south-western Australia, and by fire and invasive species in Queensland (Fig. S1).

354

355 **3.4 Protected area coverage**

356 Across all 945 assessed species (excluding three species classified as Extinct/Extinct in the Wild),
357 distributions of 3.7% (n=35) were completely outside Australia's protected area network.

358 Representation was not equally distributed among threatened and non-threatened species, however.

359 Between 17.2% (optimistic; n=11) and 21.5% (pessimistic; n=23) of threatened species were not
360 represented in a single protected area, compared to 2.7% (n=24)–1.4% (n=12) of non-threatened
361 species. Roughly one quarter (24.1%; n=228) of species had less than 10% of their distribution in the
362 protected area network (31.3%–39.3% of threatened species; 23.6%–22.2% of non-threatened
363 species).

364

365 Conclusions regarding differences in the extent to which threatened and non-threatened species were
366 protected by the network were sensitive to the treatment of Data Deficient species. When Data
367 Deficient species were assumed to be non-threatened, threatened species' distributions overlapped to a
368 greater extent with protected areas than did the distributions of non-threatened species (median
369 overlap for threatened species = 32.2%; non-threatened species = 17.8%; $W = 23848$, $p = 0.04$);
370 however, the opposite was true when assuming that Data Deficient species were threatened
371 (threatened species = 15.2%; non-threatened species = 18.0%; $W = 44483$, $p = 0.9$). Nonetheless,
372 there was substantial variation within each group in both cases, particularly for threatened species.
373 Over one-quarter (27.9%) of Data Deficient species did not occur in a protected area, and the
374 distributions of 51.2% of Data Deficient species had <10% overlap with the protected area network.
375 Threatened and Data Deficient species that do not overlap a single protected area are provided in
376 Table S3.

377

378 **4. Discussion**

379 Our analysis of the conservation status of Australian terrestrial squamates documents how their plight
380 has deteriorated over the past 25 years, with the proportion of species assessed as threatened nearly
381 doubling from 1993 (Cogger et al., 1993) to 2017 (this study). As the number of recognized squamate
382 species has grown substantially during this period (by nearly 40%), this equates to a doubling of the
383 number of threatened species from 32 to 64. Alarming, the last decade has seen the first documented
384 extinction of an Australian squamate (the Christmas Island forest skink, *Emoia nativitatis*: last
385 recorded in the wild in 2010), and two other Christmas Island species becoming extinct in the wild
386 (blue-tailed skink, *Cryptoblepharus egeriae*: last wild record in 2010; Lister's gecko, *Lepidodactylus*
387 *listeri*: last wild record in 2012; Andrew et al., 2018). In addition, no squamate species that was
388 considered threatened in 1993 has improved its conservation status to an extent that it is no longer
389 considered threatened.

390

391 **4.1 Australian squamates have a lower proportion of threatened species than the global average**

392 Our 2017 assessments revealed that 7.1% of Australian terrestrial squamates are threatened with
393 extinction. This percentage is substantially lower than the global average for reptiles (18% as of April
394 2019; IUCN 2019), and for Australian terrestrial mammals (9% extinct, 18.5% threatened) and frogs
395 (1.7% extinct, 12.1% threatened), although it is higher than for Australian terrestrial birds (1.2%
396 extinct, 5.3% threatened). However, the proportion of threatened species is similar to that reported for
397 South African reptiles (5.4%; Tolley et al., 2019). To some extent, the relatively low percentage of
398 threatened Australian terrestrial squamates may simply reflect our limited knowledge and
399 understanding of the population sizes and trends of this group, and the threats to which they are
400 exposed (Doherty et al., 2015; Webb et al., 2015; Woinarski et al., 2018), rather than a lower degree
401 of imperilment.

402

403 One quarter of all Australian terrestrial squamates have an extent of occurrence smaller than 20,000
404 km² (i.e. the Red List threshold for being eligible for being considered Vulnerable; IUCN, 2012), and
405 therefore improved knowledge of the threats impacting specific species has the potential to push many
406 species from Least Concern, Data Deficient, or Near Threatened into a threatened category under
407 Criterion B. This is a realistic possibility: although only 6.3% of species were reported as declining,
408 the population trend for a third of all Australian squamate species is currently unknown. In addition,
409 many of the known population trends were estimated from expert opinion, which may overlook real
410 declines. The fact that Data Deficient species have geographical range sizes comparable to those of
411 threatened species (Fig. 1) suggests that many Data Deficient species, in particular, may be at high
412 risk of extinction.

413

414 Clear geographic biases were evident in the distributions of threatened squamates. Geographic
415 hotspots of threat have been reported for reptiles at both local (New Zealand: Tingley et al., 2013;
416 Africa: Tolley et al., 2016) and global scales (Böhm et al., 2013; Maritz et al., 2016). The locations of
417 threat hotspots for Australian squamates coincide with the increased prevalence of key threatening
418 processes, such as land clearing (south-western Western Australia, south-eastern Australia,
419 Queensland) and invasive predators and competitors (northern Australia, alpine region, offshore
420 islands) (Fig. 5). Offshore islands are also hotspots for threatened terrestrial birds (notably Christmas,
421 Norfolk, and Lord Howe), as is south-eastern Australia (Garnett et al., 2011; Geyle et al., 2018).
422 Hotspots of threatened squamate richness differ from amphibian and mammal threat hotspots,
423 however. Threatened amphibians are predominantly clustered along the coast of northern New South
424 Wales and southern Queensland, and in the Wet Tropics (IUCN, 2018). In contrast, mammal losses
425 have been associated mainly with introduced predators that have extensive ranges across the
426 Australian mainland, and thus mammal extinction risk is more spatially homogenous compared to
427 other vertebrate groups (Burbidge et al., 2009; Woinarski et al., 2015, 2014).

428

429 Worldwide, the majority (73 of 82; 89%) of recorded Quaternary reptile extinctions have been of
430 island endemics (Slavenko et al., 2016). This pattern is clearly evident in Australian squamates. In
431 addition to the three Extinct or Extinct in the Wild species on Christmas Island, all endemic squamate
432 species on that island (n=2), and other offshore islands (Norfolk Island group, Lord Howe Island
433 group; two species present on both island groups), are listed as threatened (Fig. 4). The Christmas
434 Island reptile fauna suffered the most spectacular of these losses, largely due to catastrophic declines
435 since the 1980s. The introduced wolf snake (*Lycodon capucinus*) is thought to have been a major
436 driver of these declines, with non-native yellow crazy ants (*Anoplolepis gracilipes*), cats (*Felis catus*),
437 rats (*Rattus rattus*), and centipedes (*Scolopendra subspinipes*) also being suspected as major threats.
438 While the literature is mostly a record of loss, we recognise that intensive management (through

439 capture of individuals from the rapidly dwindling wild populations, and establishment of a successful
440 captive breeding program) has been instrumental in averting the extinction of an endemic skink and
441 an endemic gecko (Andrew et al., 2018). Continuing intensive conservation efforts, especially
442 biosecurity, will be required to ensure the persistence of native squamate species on all Australian
443 offshore islands.

444

445 Interestingly, we detected no evidence of overall taxonomic bias in conservation status among
446 Australian terrestrial squamates, although some families are clearly over-represented among
447 threatened species (e.g., Carphodactylidae). This is in contrast to most other studies of reptile
448 extinction risk, which have demonstrated that a species' susceptibility to extinction is non-random
449 (Böhm et al., 2016b; Reed and Shine, 2002; Tingley et al., 2013), and that elevated extinction risk is
450 clustered within particular taxonomic groups (Böhm et al., 2013; Tonini et al., 2016; Tolley et al.,
451 2016). This may reflect a true uniformity of threat for Australian squamates; alternatively, it could
452 simply be an artefact of incomplete knowledge of taxonomy and population trends (Woinarski, 2018),
453 or due to the fact that familial divisions in reptiles are relatively coarse. As clear taxonomic biases
454 exist in regard to where suspected species complexes occur (as outlined in the taxonomic notes in the
455 Red List assessments), and newly described species possess traits that are more likely to result in their
456 being listed as threatened species (Meiri, 2016), increased knowledge of the biodiversity of Australian
457 squamates may result in the future detection of taxonomic biases in threat.

458

459 **4.2 High rates of Data Deficiency relative to other Australian terrestrial vertebrates**

460 Forty-three Australian squamate species (4.5%) were classified as Data Deficient (Table S1). This
461 level of Data Deficiency is relatively low compared to the global average for reptiles (15%; IUCN
462 2019); however, the number of Data Deficient Australian squamates that lack information on
463 population status and trends (86%) is comparable to the same figure for squamates globally (97%
464 including Australian species; IUCN, 2018). Thus, despite the relatively low percentage of Data
465 Deficient species found here, conservation of the Australian squamate fauna is clearly impeded by a
466 lack of critical information on population sizes and trends. This not only impedes assessment of
467 species under Criterion A, but also implies a lack of long-term knowledge of biology, ecology and
468 threatening processes, which further limits the potential to assess species against Criteria B-E. Indeed,
469 according to IUCN assessments, squamates have the highest proportion of Data Deficient species of
470 any Australian terrestrial vertebrate group (mammals: 1.3%, birds: 0%, frogs: 0%).

471

472 Levels of Data Deficiency in squamates were particularly high in tropical northern Australia
473 (Kimberley region, Northern Territory, northern Queensland). This lack of knowledge on the
474 squamates of northern Australia is likely due to its relative remoteness and inaccessibility, its diverse
475 reptile fauna, and substantial ongoing taxonomic reappraisal for many groups from this region

476 (Rosauer et al., 2016). Targeted research should continue across northern Australia to fill this
477 substantial knowledge gap.

478

479 **4.3 Invasive species and habitat loss are key threats to Australian squamates**

480 The major threats to Australian squamates are invasive species (predators and competitors, such as
481 cats (*Felis catus*) and rats (*Rattus rattus*); and toxic cane toads (*Rhinella marina*), habitat loss or
482 modification (agriculture, urbanisation, altered fire regimes, mining activities), biological resource
483 use, and climate change. These threats are consistent with those that have been identified for reptiles
484 at both local (e.g. South Africa: habitat loss and modification; Tolley et al., 2019) and global scales
485 (e.g. habitat loss, harvesting, climate change; Böhm et al., 2016a, 2013; Sinervo et al., 2010). Indeed,
486 these threats are generally the same as those identified for Australian reptiles 25 years ago (Cogger et
487 al., 1993), although there has been an increase in the number of species recorded as impacted by
488 invasive species (cane toads, weeds, predators) and climate change. With regard to invasive species,
489 the extent of the threat posed by introduced predators, particularly feral cats (*Felis catus*), has
490 undoubtedly been underestimated until recently (Doherty et al., 2015). For instance, Woinarski et al.
491 (2018) estimated that ~649 million Australia reptiles are killed each year (or 1.8 million per day) by
492 cats, most of which are feral. However, habitat loss continues to be a key threatening process in
493 Australia, as the country has one of the highest rates of land clearing in the world (~395,000 ha per
494 year in Queensland; Webb et al., 2015), with most clearing occurring and continuing in Queensland
495 (Bradshaw, 2012). The threats facing Australian reptiles largely mirror those facing other Australian
496 vertebrate groups (Garnett and Crowley, 2000; Woinarski et al., 2015, 2014).

497

498 **4.4 Threatened and Data Deficient squamates are poorly represented by the protected area** 499 **network**

500 We found that the distributions of many threatened and Data Deficient squamate species showed low
501 spatial congruence with Australia's protected areas. This finding may reflect the fact that threatened
502 and Data Deficient species have, on average, more restricted distributions than non-threatened species
503 (Fig. 1); however, it is consistent with that reported for South African reptiles (Tolley et al., 2019).
504 The low representation of Data Deficient species in protected areas explains why the distributions of
505 threatened species overlapped with protected areas to a lesser extent when we assumed that Data
506 Deficient species were threatened, compared to when we assumed that they were non-threatened. It is
507 important to note, however, that IUCN range maps are generalised range maps and thus often depict
508 the suspected range of a species, and not actual localities where the species occurs (which are
509 unknown for nearly all Australian squamates). Thus, the extent to which species' ranges overlap with
510 protected areas (or other landscape features) should be interpreted with caution. It is anticipated that
511 the quality of IUCN range maps will be improved in the near future through the ongoing development
512 of Extent of Suitable Habitat maps, which will provide more refined representations of species

513 distributions. An additional caveat of our findings is that population persistence is not necessarily
 514 guaranteed just because a species occurs in one or more protected areas (Kearney et al., 2018).
 515 Nonetheless, our analysis represents an initial first-step toward understanding existing conservation
 516 measures for Australian terrestrial squamates. Future studies could usefully examine the optimal
 517 placement of additional protected areas using the distribution data collated here, in a similar fashion to
 518 a recent analysis for threatened Australian mammals (Ringma et al., 2019).

519

520 **Conclusions**

521 The 25-year period since the last national assessment of Australian squamates (Cogger et al., 1993)
 522 has seen a marked deterioration of their conservation status, highlighted by three species being
 523 assessed as Extinct or Extinct in the Wild, a doubling in the number of recognised threatened species,
 524 and an expansion of the number of threats impacting native species. Although intensive taxonomic
 525 study over the past few decades has increased the size of the described Australian terrestrial squamate
 526 fauna by ~38%, substantial research effort needs to continue to uncover the true diversity. The rapidly
 527 expanding list of known species, combined with the remoteness/inaccessibility of many areas, has
 528 resulted in poor knowledge of distributions, biology, ecology, threats, and population trends. Thus,
 529 targeted studies are urgently needed on the threatened, Near Threatened, and Data Deficient species
 530 recognised here.

531

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676

677 **Table 1.** Number of terrestrial Australian squamates in each IUCN conservation status category.

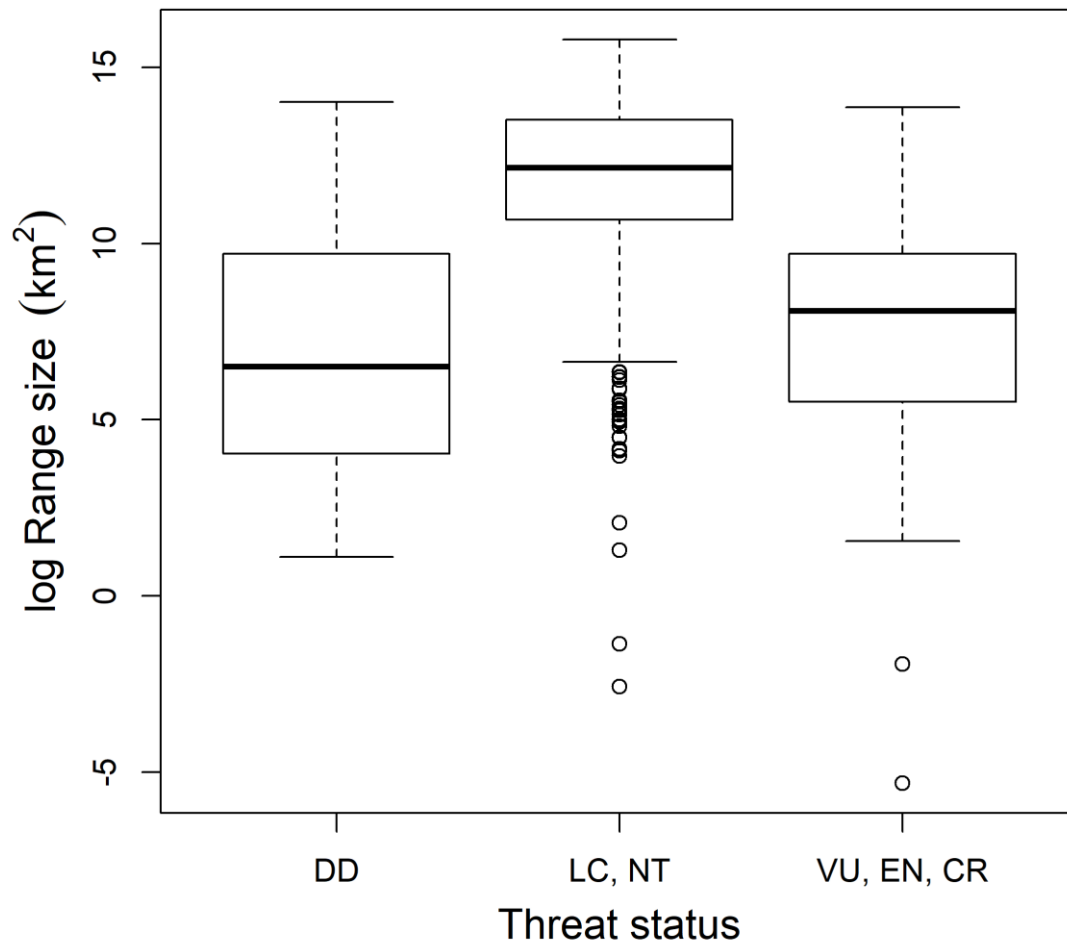
Category	Percentage of species	N
Extinct	0.1	1
Extinct in the Wild	0.2	2
Critically Endangered	1.1	10
Endangered	2.7	26
Vulnerable	3.0	28
Near Threatened	2.0	19
Least Concern	86.4	819
Data Deficient	4.5	43

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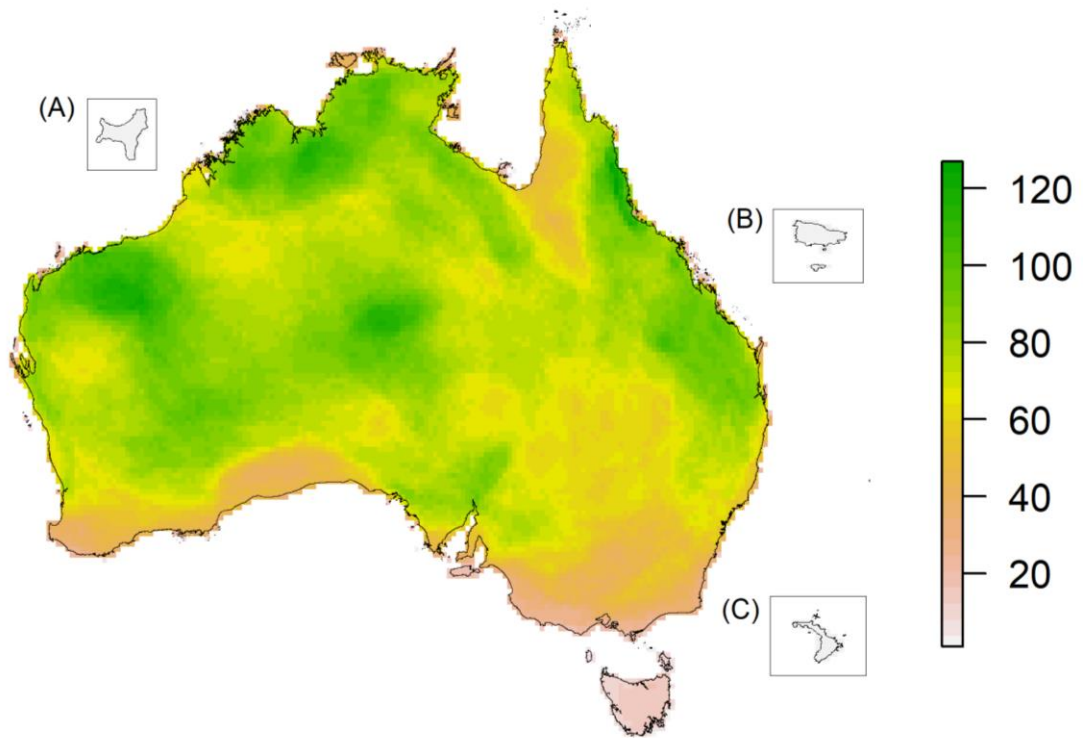
679 **Table 2.** Number of terrestrial Australian squamates within each taxonomic family and IUCN
 680 conservation status category. Optimistic estimates of the percentage of threatened species assume that
 681 DD species are not threatened; pessimistic estimates assume that all DD species are threatened.
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Family	LC	NT	VU	EN	CR	EW	EX	DD	Total	Percentage threatened (optimistic)	Percentage threatened (pessimistic)
Acrochordidae	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Agamidae	76	1	2	3	0	0	0	6	88	6	13
Carphodactylidae	22	3	2	2	1	0	0	0	30	17	17
Colubridae	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0
Diplodactylidae	85	2	3	1	0	0	0	2	93	4	6
Elapidae	95	2	3	1	0	0	0	5	106	4	8
Gekkonidae	43	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	47	6	9
Homalopsidae	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Natricidae	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Pygopodidae	36	1	1	3	0	0	0	3	44	9	16
Pythonidae	13	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	14	7	7
Scincidae	379	10	15	13	7	1	1	17	443	8	12
Typhlopidae	35	0	0	1	1	0	0	8	45	4	22
Varanidae	28	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	31	6	10

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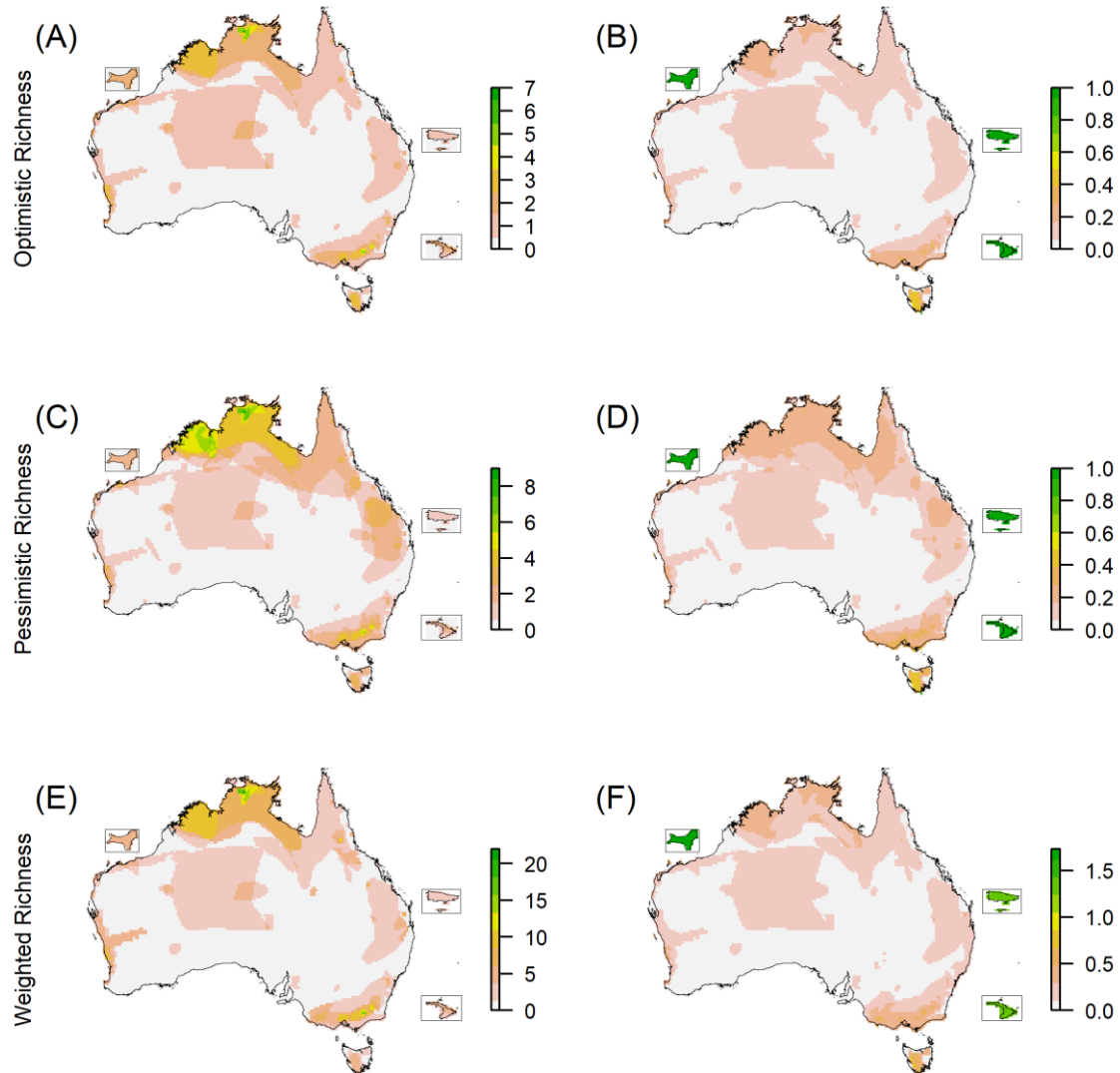
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 685 **Fig. 1.** Geographical range size (ln-transformed) of Data Deficient (DD), non-threatened (LC, NT)
 686 and threatened (VU, EN, CR) species. Note that only Australian portions of a species' range are
 687 included.
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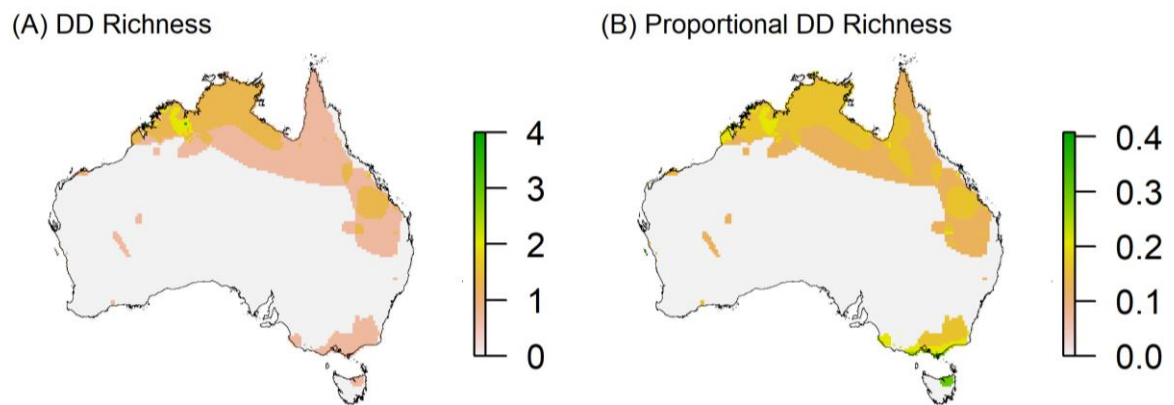
Fig. 2. Species richness of Australian squamates. Insets (not to same scale) show Christmas Island (A), Norfolk Island group (B), and Lord Howe Island group (C).

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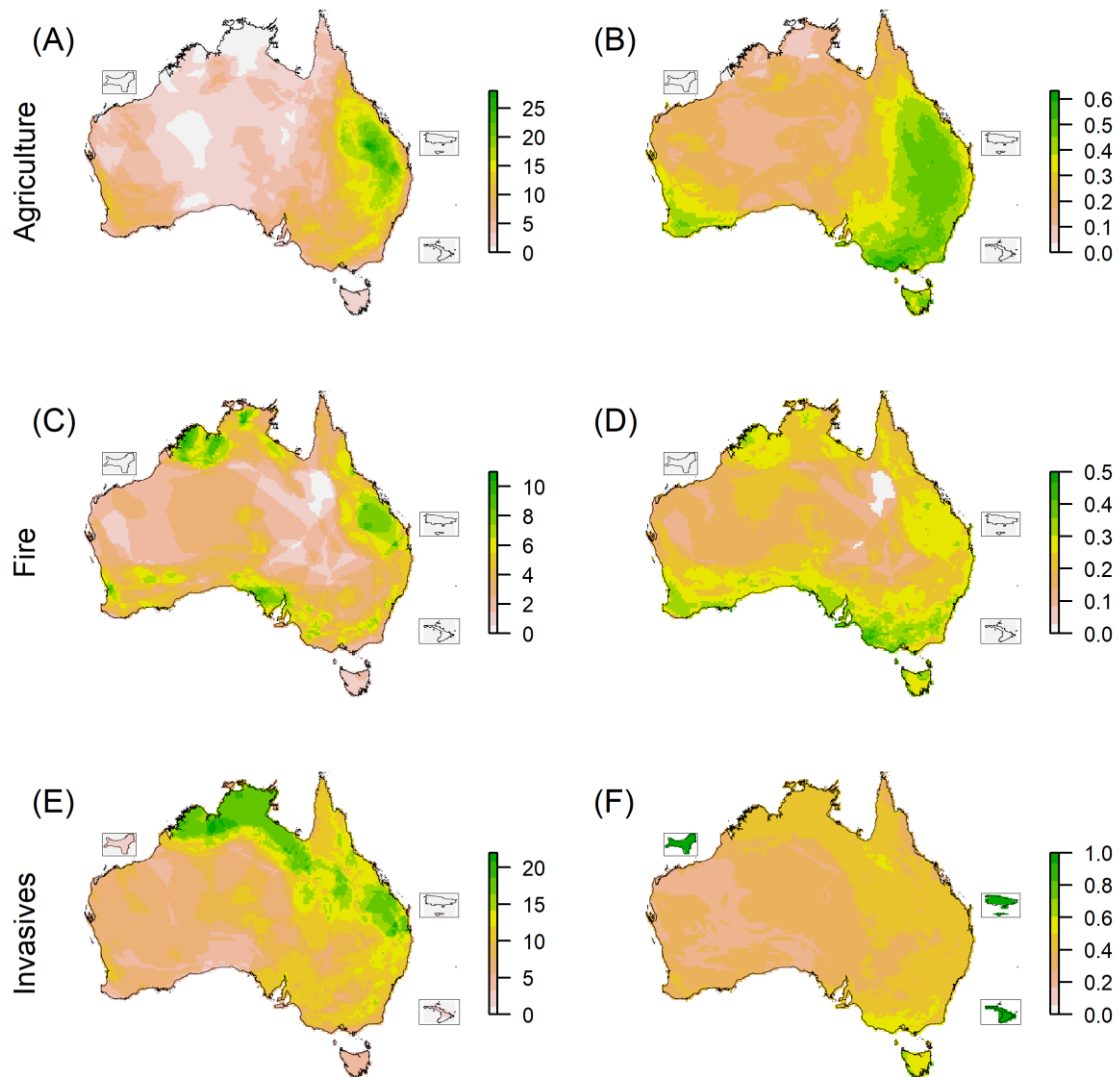
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695 **Fig. 3.** Species richness of threatened Australian squamates under different assumptions. Panels (A)
 696 and (C) make optimistic and pessimistic assumptions, respectively, about the threat status of Data
 697 Deficient species (see Methods for details). Panels (B) and (D) represent the same data presented in
 698 (A) and (C), expressed as a proportion of absolute species richness (square-root transformed). Panels
 699 (E) and (F) represent weighted conservation status sums and weighted conservation status means,
 700 respectively, calculated by assigning continuous values to IUCN conservation status categories:
 701 0=LC, 1=NT, 2=VU, 3=EN, 4=CR. Islands shown in inset maps are the same as those in Fig. 1.
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Fig. 4. Species richness of Data Deficient squamates (A), and of Data Deficient squamates expressed as a proportion of absolute species richness (B). Note that values in panel (B) are square-root-transformed to improve clarity.



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Fig. 5. The number of Australian squamate species affected by different threat types. Panels on the left show the numbers of species affected by agriculture (A), fire (C), and invasive and other problematic species and diseases (E). Panels (B), (D), and (F) represent the same data presented in (A), (C), and (E), expressed as a proportion of absolute species richness (square-root-transformed).