

Conservation of Pleske's racerunner (*Eremias pleskei*) in a changing climate

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Received 12 June 2019, final version received 2 Aug. 2019, accepted 12 Aug. 2019

Farashi, A. & Alizadeh-Noughani, M. 2019: Conservation of Pleske's racerunner (*Eremias pleskei*) in a changing climate. — *Ann. Zool. Fennici* 56: 93–106.

Although reptiles are the most diverse group of terrestrial vertebrates, crucial data on their extinction risks are lacking. The reptile species assessed by IUCN are only a fraction of those at risk of extinction. Thus, conservation planning and management decisions are hindered by the lack of ecological information on the species' distribution patterns and their habitat requirements. Pleske's racerunner (*Eremias pleskei*) is a rare and critically endangered species known to occur exclusively in the eastern Anatolian Montane Steppe ecoregion. In this study, we used ten species distribution model algorithms and 62 climate change scenarios (from 19 global climate models under four representative concentration pathways) to predict future habitat suitability for Pleske's racerunner in the Anatolian Montane Steppe ecoregion. Our results indicate that this species may in future migrate from its current distribution range towards the central and western areas of the Anatolian Montane Steppe ecoregion. Our results also show that the variation in the temperature-related variables in suitable habitats will increase in future as compared with the current conditions. It seems that due to climate change, in future, deserts will be appropriate for this species. The same mechanisms, however, will make some of its current habitats unsuitable. Dealing with uncertainties in climate change and species distribution modeling is a major challenge when planning strategies for species' conservation. We recommend conservation measures to be implemented to make sure that *E. pleskei*'s current habitats are suitable for it also in future.

Introduction

Habitat loss and fragmentation have become increasingly more significant threats to biodiversity across the world (Rybicki and Hanski 2013, Matthews *et al.* 2014) with ever-expanding urban development being one of the most important factors (Levia & Page 2000, Garden *et al.* 2007). Growing cities have brought about multi-faceted changes to the structure and spa-

tial patterns of the remaining habitats within the context of landscapes (van der Ree 2004, Tait *et al.* 2005, Garden *et al.* 2007). Among different groups of fauna, reptiles and small mammals are the most vulnerable to urbanization (Garden *et al.* 2007). Due to their limited distribution ranges, reptiles are more severely affected by human activities than other vertebrates such as birds and mammals (Anderson 1984, Anderson & Marcus 1992).

Similarly to urbanization, climate change can contribute to habitat destruction and alter species' distribution worldwide (Levinsky *et al.* 2007). In several studies, possible effects of climate change on the distribution of plants (Thuiller *et al.* 2005) and animals (Meynecke 2004, Levinsky *et al.* 2007) were predicted. Animals are affected by climate change directly through its impact on their physiology, and indirectly due to changes to land cover (Levinsky *et al.* 2007). Reptiles are particularly sensitive to climate change (Sinervo *et al.* 2010) and have been referred to as 'canaries in the coal mine' because of their sensitivity to changes in the environment (Mitchell & Janzen 2010). An assessment by Stuart *et al.* (2004) revealed that amphibians are declining faster than birds and mammals. Huey *et al.* (2010) in turn termed lizards 'the new amphibians' due to their increased extinction risk (Sinervo *et al.* 2010). Climate change contributes to the threats (Carey & Alexander 2003, Stuart *et al.* 2004), and correlative climate envelope models project extinction for 11%–49% of endemic reptiles (Thomas *et al.* 2004). Under assumptions of limited potential for evolutionary adaptation, Sinervo *et al.* (2010) predicted that 20% of lizard species will become extinct by 2080. Sufficient knowledge on threatened species' current and future habitats as well as its biology along with an accurately assigned conservation status are key to successful conservation. Evidence-based approaches should guide conservation and monitoring efforts by managers and scientists (Naveda-Rodriguez 2015). Predictive methods such as species distribution models (SDMs) play an important role in assessment and prediction of species' distribution by means of quantifying species–environment relationships (e.g. Trabucco *et al.* 2010, De Souza *et al.* 2011, Murray *et al.* 2011, Li & Wang 2013, Quisthoudt *et al.* 2013, Rhoden *et al.* 2017). SDMs can help in (1) testing biogeographical, ecological and evolutionary hypotheses can be tested, (2) assessments of species' invasion and proliferation can be made (Farashi & Najafabadi 2015), (3) predicting the effects of changes in climate and land use on species distributions (Thuiller *et al.* 2005, Ebrahimi *et al.* 2017, Farashi and Erfani 2018), (4) improving surveys of threatened species by determining sites with

high occurrence probabilities (Davies *et al.* 2017), and (5) conservation planning (Farashi & Shariati 2017, Farashi *et al.* 2017).

Pleske's racerunner (*Eremias pleskei*) is classified as critically endangered on the IUCN's red list (cf. <https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/164583/114550294>). The distribution range of *E. pleskei*'s highly fragmented populations is limited to the to left-bank valley of the Aras river in Armenia, Nakhichevan (Nahcivan), Azerbaijan in the eastern Transcaucasia, eastern Turkey, and northwestern Iran (Ananjeva *et al.* 2006, Baran *et al.* 2013). *Eremias pleskei* prefers arid, sandy, semi-rocky areas with desert conditions. As a consequence of soil salinification and construction of waste dumps in its suitable habitats, almost no suitable habitats remain within its natural range (sandy areas) (cf. <https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/164583/114550294>).

Taking the entire distribution range of the species as our study area, we used SDMs to (1) identify current and future suitable habitats of *E. pleskei*, (2) identify the major environmental variables affecting habitat suitability at present and in the future, and (3) evaluate the effects of climate change on Pleske's racerunner habitat.

Material and methods

Study area

SDMs must be trained using the data from the region with the known occurrence of the species or its dispersal limits (Soberon & Peterson 2005, Barve *et al.* 2011). We modeled the distribution of Pleske's racerunner using only the known distribution range which is in our case the Eastern Anatolian Montane Steppe Ecoregion (cf. <https://www.worldwildlife.org/publications/terrestrial-ecoregions-of-the-world>). This region is located in Anatolia (eastern Turkey, Armenia, and northwestern Iran; 36°03'26''–48°47'06''N and 40°34'26''–41°43'35.547''E). This ecoregion covers approx. 168 382 km² at the junction of the biogeographic zones of the Lesser Caucasus and the Iranian and Mediterranean zones. It is characterized by both a great range of altitudinal variation (from 375 to 4095 m a.s.l.) and a diversity of climatic zones resulting in a

wide variety of landscapes and natural resources. High mountains and extreme continental climate prevail the ecoregion, and although the most common formation is Montane steppes, other community types such as deserts and semi-deserts, forests and woodlands, alpine and subalpine meadows are also present.

Flora and fauna of the region includes many endemic, relict and rare species. However, habitat loss and modification mainly by agriculture, unsustainable use of biological resources, and the impact of introduced and non-native species have recently degraded natural ecosystems resulting in a decline in populations of native animals and plants. In Armenia, substantial increase in human activities such as agriculture, industry (including energy production), and construction have led to extensive habitat change across all landscape types. In mountainous areas, the threat comes from grazing livestock during the summer. Therefore, more natural reserves are needed to protect diverse habitats (cf. <https://www.worldwildlife.org/ecoregions/pa0805>).

Species data

Occurrence records of the *E. pleskei* were collected from four sources, (1) scientific papers (Kaska *et al.* 2004, Düşen *et al.* 2013), (2) atlases (Mozaffari *et al.* 2014), (3) IUCN database, and (4) publicly available species information databases such as Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF), VertNet, iNaturalist, and Berkeley Ecoinformatics Engine. GBIF is an international network and research infrastructure funded by the world's governments and aimed at providing anyone, anywhere, open access to data about all types of life on Earth. GBIF collects data from several sources including museum records. VertNet — funded by the National Science Foundation (NSF) which is a United States government agency — is the result of the combination and expansion of FishNet, MaNIS, HerpNET, ORNIS. iNaturalist is a crowd sourced species identification system and an organism occurrence recording tool. Berkeley Ecoinformatics Engine allows access to several biodiversity information repositories (<https://holos.berkeley.edu/LearnMore/data-sources/>).

Each database was accessed through their respective packages in R (<https://www.r-project.org/>): *rgbif*, *rvertnet*, *rinat* and *ecoengine*. Queries were made using the species' scientific name and its synonyms, and georeferenced occurrence records since 1 January 1998 were extracted. Duplicates were omitted in R but were later used to model habitat suitability. In total, 71 presence points were collected. Spatially correlated presence points were removed using spatial autocorrelation and Moran's *I* test. Since we only had the presence records of the species, the pseudo-presence/pseudo-absence data points equal in number to the number of presence points were randomly generated (Elith *et al.* 2011). It has been shown that randomly selected pseudo-absence points yield the most reliable logistic-regression species-distribution models (Stokland *et al.* 2011, Lunney *et al.* 2014).

Environmental variables

We used a set of environmental variables based on the available data, knowledge of species ecology and factors affecting distribution of lizards (Kearney & Porter 2004, Pawar *et al.* 2007, Kaliontzopoulou *et al.* 2008, Bombi *et al.* 2009, de Pous *et al.* 2011, Valdeón *et al.* 2014, e Silva *et al.* 2014, Fattahi *et al.* 2014, Block *et al.* 2016, Ribeiro-Júnior & Amaral 2016, Sanchooli 2017). To avoid including highly correlated variables in the model, we screened all the variables for pairwise correlations using Pearson's correlation analysis ('Raster Correlations and Summary Statistics' implemented in SDMTtoolbox: cf. Brown 2014). We considered the variables to be highly correlated if $r > 0.75$ or $r < -0.75$ (Wen *et al.* 2015, Kalboussi & Achour 2018). The analysis did not reveal only few correlations with $r > 0.5$. This method of variable selection resulted in nine variables for potential use in modeling (Table 1). The environmental parameters included climatic and topographic variables. Nineteen bioclimatic predictors were collected from the World Clim 1.4 database (Hijmans *et al.* 2005) at 1-km resolution. The four most important topographic factors (mean and standard deviation (SD) of elevation, and slope of all raster cells included in a 1-km radius) were calculated based on the Shuttle Radar Topography

Mission (SRTM) elevation model (<http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org>), to describe physiographic properties (Table 1). The habitat suitability models were projected to the 62 climate change scenarios for the year 2070, obtained from the WorldClim 1.4 database at a resolution of 1-km.

Climate change models

Representative concentration pathways (RCPs) are four greenhouse gas concentration trajectories adopted by the IPCC for its 5th Assessment Report (AR5) in 2014 (Rogelj 2013). The CO₂-equivalent concentrations are 490, 650, 850, and > 1370 ppm for RCPs 26, 45, 60, and 85, respectively (Meinshausen *et al.* 2011).

A general circulation model (GCM) is a type of climate model that employs a mathematical model of the general circulation of a planetary atmosphere or ocean. Models of such type are used by the Navier–Stokes equations for various energy sources (radiation, latent heat). These equations are used to simulate Earth's atmosphere or oceans. Atmospheric and oceanic GCMs (AGCM and OGCM, respectively) are the main principles along with sea ice and land-surface components (Rogelj 2013). We used 19 GCMs (cf. Table 2) under four representative RCPs (26, 45, 60, 85) to predict habitat suitability for Pleske's racerunner in its entire distribution range.

Species distribution model

We applied ten species distribution modeling (SDM) algorithms for the studied species using the *biomod2* package in R ver. 3.1.25 (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/biomod2/index.html>; cf. also Thuiller *et al.* 2009). These ten algorithms can be classified into four categories: (1) regression, (2) machine-learning, (3) classification, and (4) enveloping.

Regression-based SDMs are generalized linear models (GLMs) and generalized additive models (GAMs) that build linear and non-linear relationships between species occurrence and environmental parameters, respectively. The machine-learning methods include artificial neural networks (ANN), boosted regression trees (BRT), multivariate adaptive regression splines (MARS), maximum entropy (MaxEnt), and random forest (RF). These methods use training data to derive the environmental space of species occurrence.

Classification methods include classification and regression trees (CART) and flexible discriminate analysis (FDA). The objective of these methods is to partition consecutive data into homogeneous groups of responses.

Surface range envelope (SRE) is the method that takes into account the ecological conditions in which the species is present and extrapolates the results into similar areas (Elith & Leathwick 2009, Franklin 2010, Merow *et al.* 2015).

Table 1. Environmental variables and their relative contributions to modeled Pleske's racerunner habitat suitability. Most important variables for predicting the potential geographic distribution of the species are set in boldface.

	Current	Future
Climatic variables		
BIO1 (Annual mean temperature)	0	6.1
BIO3 (Isothermality)	10.4	0
BIO4 (Temperature seasonality)	0	0
BIO6 (Minimum temperature of coldest month)	26.2	32.7
BIO8 (Mean temperature of wettest quarter)	1.1	9.3
BIO9 (Mean temperature of driest quarter)	35.4	30.8
BIO10 (Mean temperature of warmest quarter)	0	0
BIO16 (Precipitation of wettest quarter)	0	0
BIO18 (Precipitation of warmest quarter)	0	1.8
BIO19 (Precipitation of coldest quarter)	1	0
Topographic variables		
Altitude	4.6	3.4
Slope	21.3	15.9

Considering recent concerns regarding robustness of the traditional ROC (receiver operating characteristic) approach (Fielding & Bell 1997, Lobo *et al.* 2008), we used partial ROC area under the curve (AUC; cf. Peterson *et al.* 2008) to evaluate distribution modeling algorithms. Partial ROC, while based on the traditional approach, considers the extent of coverage of the commission error axis by model performances. Model robustness is also assessed by priority to omission *versus* commission error (Peterson *et al.* 2008). We compared model AUCs against null expectations using the software ‘Tool for Partial-ROC’ (Barve 2008); the parameters were: bootstrapping 70% of the evaluation data 1000 times, and $E = 5\%$ of error among occurrences.

To convert the habitat suitability map into a binary map representing suitable and unsuitable areas, a threshold value had to be assigned for

the species. The selection was accomplished by maximizing both training sensitivity and specificity (Liu *et al.* 2011). The values of 0 and 1 were respectively assigned to pixels with habitat suitability lower and higher than the computed threshold value, specifying whether those pixels were suitable or unsuitable for the target species. Variable importance was calculated using a permutation procedure in BIOMOD, which is independent of the modeling technique. Once the models were trained (i.e., calibrated), a standard prediction was made. Then, one of the variables was randomized and a new prediction was made. The correlation score between the new prediction and the standard prediction was calculated to estimate the variable importance in the model (Thuiller *et al.* 2009).

The mobility-oriented parity (MOP) and the multivariate environmental similarity surface (MESS) analyses (Elith *et al.* 2010, Owens *et*

Table 2. Global climate models (GCMs) used in the study.

GCM	Source
ACCESS1-0	CSIRO (Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation, Australia), and BOM (Bureau of Meteorology, Australia)
BCC-CSM1-1	Beijing Climate Center, China Meteorological Administration
CCSM4	National Center for Atmospheric Research
CESM1-CAM5-1-FV2	National Science Foundation, Department of Energy, National Center for Atmospheric Research
CNRM-CM5	Centre National de Recherches Meteorologiques, Centre Europeen de Recherche et Formation Avancees en Calcul Scientifique
GFDL-CM3	Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory
GFDL-ESM2G	Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory
GISS-E2-R	NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies
HadGEM2-AO	National Institute of Meteorological Research, Korea Meteorological Administration
HadGEM2-CC	Met Office Hadley Centre (additional HadGEM2-ES realizations contributed by Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas Espaciais)
HadGEM2-ES	Met Office Hadley Centre (additional HadGEM2-ES realizations contributed by Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas Espaciais)
INMCM4	Institute for Numerical Mathematics
IPSL-CM5A-LR	Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace
MIROC-ESM-CHEM	Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo) & National Institute for Environmental Studies
MIROC-ESM	Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), and National Institute for Environmental Studies
MIROC5	Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), National Institute for Environmental Studies & Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology
MPI-ESM-LR	Max Planck Institute for Meteorology (MPI-M)
MRI-CGCM3	Meteorological Research Institute
NorESM1-M	Norwegian Climate Centre

al. 2013) were used to characterize future climate conditions. MOP identifies environmental conditions not existing at present, while MESS evaluates the level of similarity between climate scenarios. Both helped to identify suitable habitats by extrapolating climate conditions currently prevailing in the Eastern Anatolian Montane Steppe ecoregion (Owens *et al.* 2013). The analysis was performed in R using a sample including 10% of the available environmental variable cells.

Finally, suitable habitats in at present and in future were projected onto a simplified land-cover map (Friedl *et al.* 2017) and a protected area map (defined as Ia: Strict Nature Reserve, Ib: wilderness area, II: national park, III: natural monument or feature, iv: habitat/species management area, V: protected landscape/seascape/area, VI: protected area) (cf. <http://www.protectedplanet.net>) to give a better sense of the habitat type the species could potentially occupy.

Results

The MESS analysis revealed broad areas with environmental conditions in the future similar to those at present for all 62 climate change scenarios. According to the MOP analysis, some sites in Turkey and in the Black Sea area were not suitable for the species under current climate conditions. The MOP analysis also revealed that future projection with BCC-CSM1-1 and RCP45 had the smallest extrapolation areas of all 62 climate change scenarios.

Under current condition, ten models showed good performance (partial ROC > 1) with MaxEnt being the best of those (MARS = 1.12 ± 0.10 , RF = 1.16 ± 0.12 , GLM = 1.19 ± 0.09 , ANN = 1.20 ± 0.10 , FDA = 1.24 ± 0.09 , SRE = 1.29 ± 0.11 , CART = 1.32 ± 0.10 , GAM = 1.38 ± 0.08 , BRT = 1.44 ± 0.15 , MaxEnt = 1.61 ± 0.01). Also, all the distribution models under future conditions performed significantly better than random with BCC-CSM1-1, RCP45 and MaxEnt being more accurate than the others (partial ROC = 1.53).

The most important environmental variables for predicting the potential geographic distribution of the species at present and in future (cf.

Table 1) were the mean temperature of driest quarter, minimum temperature of the coldest month and slope.

According to MaxEnt, parts of the Eastern Anatolian Montane Steppe ecoregion suitable for the species are small and scattered in the center of this ecoregion (Figs. 1a and 2a). Plotting habitats suitable for Pleske's racerunner (Figs. 1b and 2b) on the land-cover map revealed that those habitats are at present and will be in future located mostly in grasslands, barelands and croplands (Fig. 3).

Under current and future conditions, 15 286 km² (9%) and 21 248 km² (13%) of the Eastern Anatolian Montane Steppe ecoregion, respectively, can be regarded as suitable habitats for Pleske's racerunner. Of the habitats suitable at present, around 12 157 km² (80%) will remain suitable in the future and 3129 km² (20%) of them will be lost by 2070. Moreover, by 2070, suitable habitats will grow by around 9091 km², i.e., an area which is equal to 59% of the current suitable habitats. However, under current and future conditions, only 1964 km² (13%) and 3753 km² (18%) of the total suitable habitat area, respectively, is or will be within areas which are currently protected (Figs. 1 and 2).

Response curves of the MaxEnt model revealed that an increase in mean temperature of the driest quarter results in an increase in suitable-habitat area at present and in the future, and an increase in minimum temperature of the coldest month has the opposite effect (cf. Fig. 4).

Discussion

Climate change is expected to affect species distributions worldwide. Our analyses corroborate the hypothesis that increasing temperatures will pose a threat to wildlife as discussed by Levinsky *et al.* (2007), Waltari and Guralnick (2009), Ebrahimi *et al.* 2017.

Comparisons of the predicted current and future suitable habitats indicate future migration of Pleske's racerunner from its current distribution areas in the Eastern Anatolian Montane Steppe ecoregion towards central and western regions of the area.

We also found a relation between new suitable habitats and climatic patterns, hinting that

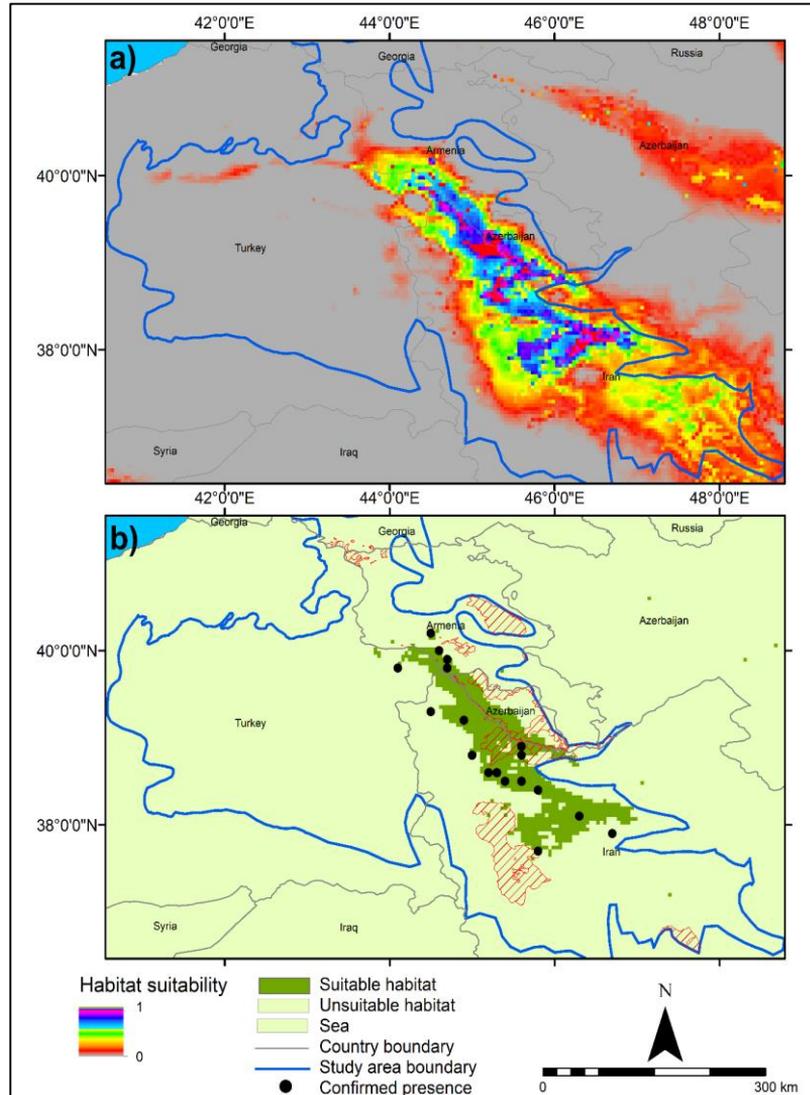


Fig. 1. Maps presenting (a) habitat suitability for Pleske's racerunner at present according to MaxEnt, and (b) suitable and unsuitable habitats at present with current confirmed occurrences of the species within those habitats.

deserts may become suitable habitats for this species. Pleske's racerunner is thermophilic and thus prefers warmer areas (Darevsky 1957, Aslanyan 2004, Tadevosyan 2007). Due to climate change, however, some habitats suitable at present will in future become unsuitable.

Changes in temperature can also throw sex ratio of reptiles out of balance since sex of many reptilian species is determined by incubation temperature (Eggert 2004, Bull 2008, Nakamura 2009, Pezaro *et al.* 2017). Depending on the species, a temperature increase of 2–4 °C can result in all female (Ewert *et al.* 1994, Janzen 1994), or all male offspring (Ciofi & Swingland 1997, Pieau *et al.* 1999).

When comparing the current land-use in the study area with the area of suitable habitats in 2070, it became apparent that 13% of suitable habitats in the future will be located in areas currently used for agriculture or other human activities (Fig. 3). If human activities expand at the current pace, the area of suitable habitats will greatly shrink.

Our results also revealed a low level of protection of the reptiles in the region. There are two possible reasons for that. First, protected areas are established mainly with big mammals in mind. Second, reptiles have narrow ecological niches, thus parts of their suitable habitats are located outside currently protected areas. Con-

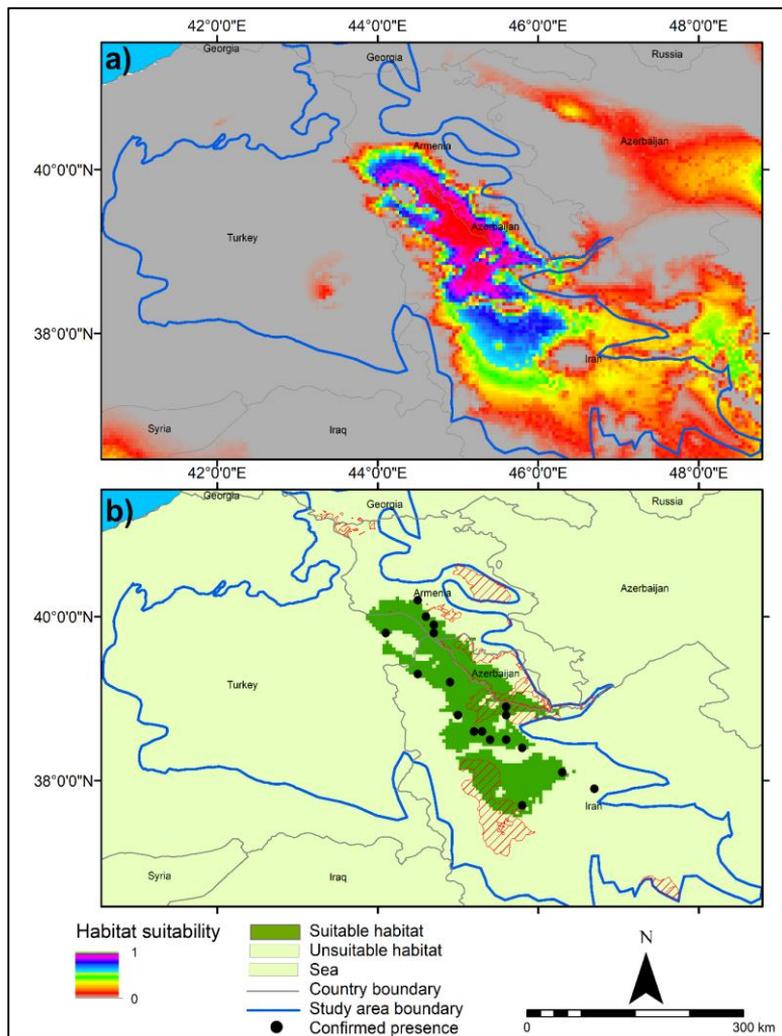


Fig. 1. Maps presenting (a) habitat suitability for Pleske's racerunner in future according to MaxEnt, and (b) suitable and unsuitable habitats in future (2070) with current confirmed occurrences of the species within those habitats.

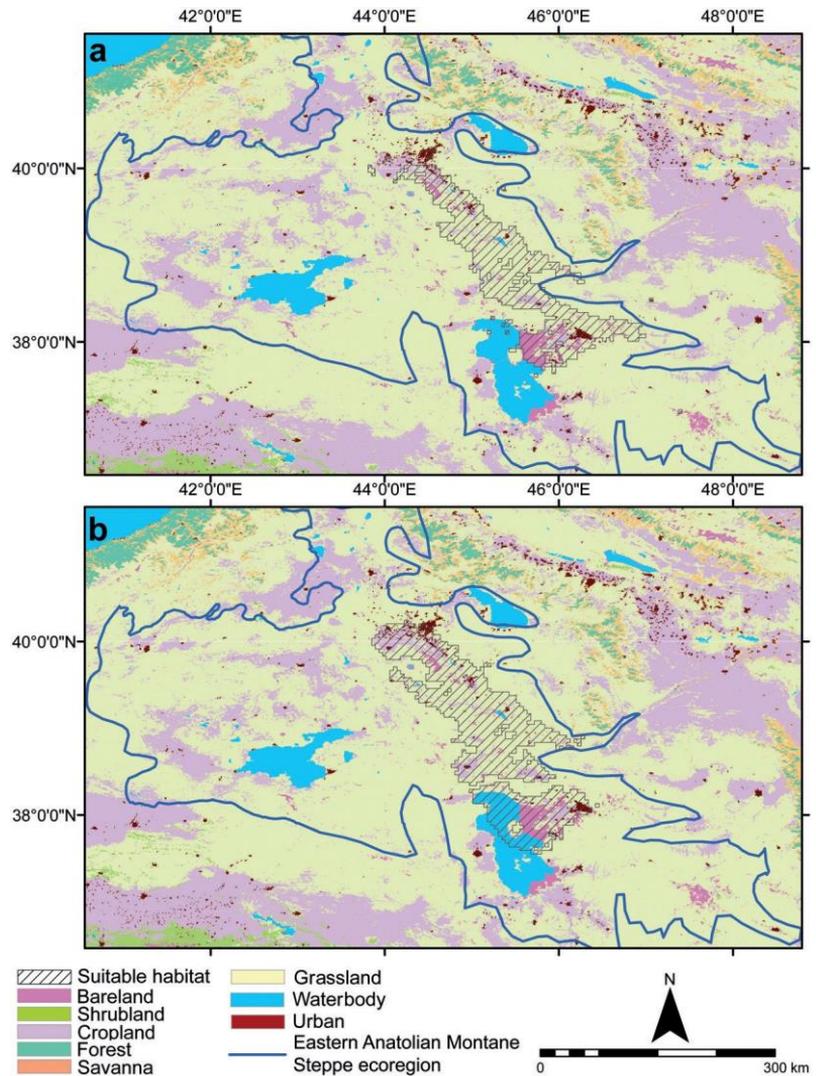
sidering the above, new protected areas should be established within habitats suitable for *E. pleskei*, and if necessary, cross country borders. Moreover, conservation strategies should view the local people as an integral part of the solution (Fischer *et al.* 2012, Popescu *et al.* 2013). Traditionally-managed areas in Romania are a good example of protected landscapes for reptile and amphibian conservation (e.g., Popescu *et al.* 2013).

The results of our study offer insight into the future distribution of Pleske's racerunner at a large scale. For any particular sites, we recommend habitat modeling at the site level. Guisan and Thuiller *et al.* (2005) and Bradley (2010)

suggested the hierarchical framework of species dispersal models, land-use disturbance factors, and/or resource models using bioclimatic envelope models to forecast the species' potential distribution.

One of the major challenges in conservation efforts is managing uncertainties in climate change and species distribution. Based on our findings, we suggest conservation activities to be focused on parts of *E. pleskei* suitable habitats that will retain their properties in the future.

SDMs can shed light on attributes of the natural distribution of species within their current range given the appropriate survey data and relevant predictors are used in a correctly



adjusted model. Under such conditions, models can generate useful ecological information and offer accurate predictions. On the other hand, in cases of species not in equilibrium with their environment, models extrapolating in time or space, and/or using insufficient data, will not be free of uncertainties (Elith & Leathwick 2009). Model accuracy also differs for different species with different levels of mobility (Pearce *et al.* 2001, Seoane *et al.* 2005, Carrascal *et al.* 2006, Pawar *et al.* 2007). Thus, for less mobile species such as amphibians and reptiles modeling techniques which are more conducive to interpretation should be employed (Stockman *et al.* 2006). It should also be noted that models can take

advantage of museum or atlas data. Such data, however, could be biased toward more accessible areas or areas where species are expected to be present (Kadmon *et al.* 2004). Same could be true for our species occurrence input data as they also were not collected according to a sampling strategy or with a specific goal in mind (Elith *et al.* 2006). Sampling bias can, therefore, occur if samples are not collected according to set criteria (such as random or stratified sampling) (Phillips *et al.* 2009, Yackulic *et al.* 2013, Guillera-Arroita *et al.* 2015), especially if the data are used presence-only models. To overcome this, we employed ten different models to select the most accurate one, which in our case was MaxEnt.

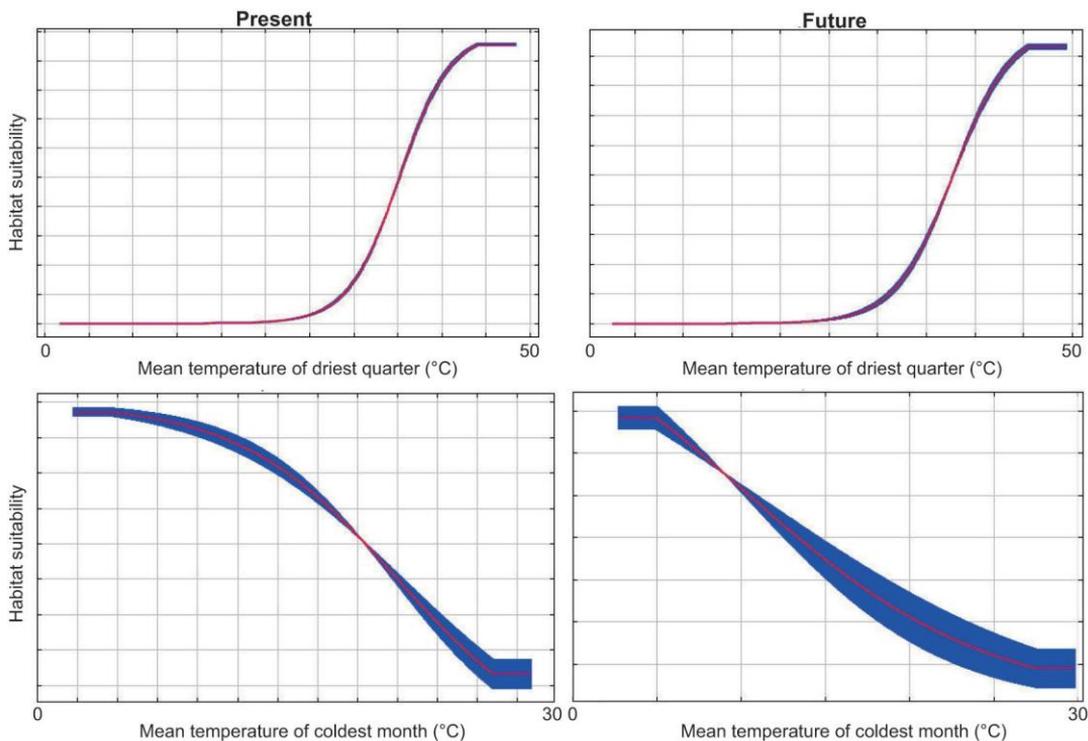


Fig. 4. Response curves of the MaxEnt model for Pleske's racerunner.

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