



Diversity patterns and evolutionary history of Arabian squamates

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Funding information

Taif University, Saudi Arabia; MICIU, Spain, Grant/Award Number:

Abstract

Aim: Deserts are generally perceived as areas of low diversity, and hence receive little attention from researchers and conservationists. Squamates are the dominant group of vertebrates in arid regions, and as such represent an ideal model to study biodiversity patterns in these areas. We examine spatial patterns of diversity, evolutionary history and endemism of terrestrial squamates of the Arabian Peninsula and test hypotheses on the role of topography and history of isolation so as to identify possible environmental drivers of diversification.

Location: The Arabian Peninsula.

Taxon: Squamate reptiles (Squamata; lizards and snakes).

Methods: We generated distribution maps for all Arabian squamate species (including yet undescribed) and reconstructed their phylogenetic relationships using existing and newly produced genetic data for nearly all the species. We assessed patterns of the distribution of species richness, phylogenetic diversity and phylogenetic endemism across the peninsula to identify areas that could be considered evolutionary or endemism hotspots for squamates. We evaluated community turnover across the peninsula and assessed the possible environmental drivers affecting the diversity of Arabian squamates in a regression framework.

Results: The main hotspots of Arabian squamate diversity are mostly along the mountains that rim the peninsula while the most arid, central regions support a low diversity of species. The distribution of the phylogenetic diversity mirrors that of the species richness. Phylogenetic endemism is also highest in the mountains, especially when only endemic species are analysed. The deserts of northern Arabia are poor in terms of species richness and they show low connectivity to the peninsular communities. Topographic heterogeneity is the strongest predictor for Arabian squamates, followed by elevation. There is no correlation between richness and temperature.

Main conclusions: The mountains of Arabia support rich and unique squamate communities that are dominated by local radiations of closely related and narrow-ranging species. In particular, the Asir Mountains of SW Arabia, Dhofar Province of Oman and

FPU18/04742; MINECO, Spain, Grant/Award Number: BES-2016-078341 and BES-2013-064248; Ministry of Culture of the Czech Republic; MCIU/AEI/FEDER, UE, Grant/Award Number: PGC2018-098290-B-I00; Grantová Agentura České Republiky

Handling Editor: Krystal Tolley

the Hajar Mountains of northern Oman and UAE show unprecedented levels of squamate endemism and phylogenetic endemism. While many generalist species range across Arabia, a low number of species is shared between the peninsula and mainland Asia, indicating an effective isolation of the Arabian fauna. Squamate richness is highest in heterogeneous, topographically complex habitats.

KEYWORDS

deserts, diversification, Middle East, phylogenetic diversity, phylogenetic endemism, reptiles, Squamata

1 | INTRODUCTION

The distribution of biodiversity on Earth is neither even nor random. Different processes determine biodiversity variation at different scales. At the global scale, the most prominent pattern is the tendency for most groups to have more species in the tropics, the so-called latitudinal diversity gradient, a trend that has been recognized for over two centuries in most groups of organisms and whose explanation still remains a matter of debate (Mittelbach et al., 2007; Pianka, 1966; Rabosky et al., 2018; Wiens et al., 2006; Willig et al., 2003). At more local scales, richness gradients have been attributed to manifold sources such as ambient temperature (Allen et al., 2002), habitat heterogeneity (Badgley et al., 2017), aridification (Richardson et al., 2001) and water availability (Hawkins et al., 2003). Extreme environments such as hyper-arid deserts rank in this respect among the most challenging, yet least studied habitats.

Deserts cover nearly one fifth of the world's land mass and are generally perceived as uniform areas that support low diversity of life. Yet they support very specific biota perfectly adapted to their harsh environmental conditions and often showing a high degree of endemism (e.g. Brito et al., 2014; Lewin et al., 2016; Simmons et al., 1998). At the same time, however, arid regions tend to be among the most difficult to access for researchers (Ficetola et al., 2013) and suffer from the lack of precise data on species distributions and community structure. Thus, biodiversity of such areas is often underestimated and poorly represented in conservation actions and main drivers shaping its distribution remain little understood (Brito et al., 2014; Durant et al., 2012).

Squamate reptiles (lizards and snakes) are unusually diverse in arid and semi-arid regions of the world compared to other groups of vertebrates (Powney et al., 2010; Roll et al., 2017). It is hypothesized that, being ectotherms, squamates achieve high species richness in deserts because thermoregulation is cheap there and times of stress may be overcome by inactivity (Schall & Pianka, 1978). Therefore, they represent an ideal model to study how the extreme desert environments affect the distribution of biodiversity in space and time. The diversity of desert reptiles and the factors influencing it have been studied across continents (Lewin et al., 2016; Pianka, 1986; Powney et al., 2010; Vale et al., 2020), yet the results they provide are not congruent. In Africa, the alpha (species richness) and beta (species turnover) diversity patterns of squamates match those of

other terrestrial vertebrate groups (amphibians, birds and mammals), perhaps as a result of similar responses to environmental variables (Lewin et al., 2016; Vale et al., 2020). The richness of African lizards is strongly influenced by topographic heterogeneity, reflecting their ability to specialize in diverse ecoregions. On the other hand, in Australia, squamate species richness differs from other vertebrates. While the richness of Australian amphibians, birds and mammals increases with evapotranspiration, squamate richness is predicted by different factors, being highest in dry and hot regions (Powney et al., 2010).

The Arabian Peninsula is a biogeographically complex region with historical affinities to the African continent. While the north of the peninsula was traditionally considered to be part of the Palearctic zoogeographic realm and the south of the Afrotropical realm, recent studies show the entire peninsula to be rather a transition zone between the two, termed the Saharo-Arabian realm (Ficetola et al., 2018; Holt et al., 2013; Kreft & Jetz, 2013). The mountains rimming the peninsula in the west, south and east have been shown to hold exceptional diversity of species and especially endemics, which contrasts with the relatively depauperate interior (Arnold, 1986; Cox et al., 2012; Gasperetti, 1988). These diversity patterns have, however, never been examined in detail and explanations have relied on *ad hoc* collected data. It is therefore unclear to what extent this pattern can be attributed to varying sampling efforts in different parts of Arabia. The last two decades have brought major improvements to our knowledge of the distributions, taxonomy, species limits, systematics and phylogenetic relationships of most groups of Arabian squamates. For example, many new species have been described or documented for the first time in the Arabian Peninsula (e.g. Carranza & Arnold, 2012; Machado et al., 2019; Sindaco et al., 2018; Šmíd, Moravec, et al., 2017; Šmíd et al., 2015; Tamar, Mitsi, et al., 2019), subspecies have been raised to the species level (Šmíd et al., 2021), generic reassignments have been made (Nazarov et al., 2018; de Pous et al., 2016), candidate species have been delimited (Garcia-Porta et al., 2017; Simó-Riudalbas et al., 2019), results of regional surveys have been published (e.g. Alshammari et al., 2017; Alshammari & Ibrahim, 2015), previously unexplored areas have been surveyed (Metallinou et al., 2014; Šmíd, 2010), and detailed atlases have been compiled (Sindaco & Jeremčenko, 2008; Gardner, 2013; Sindaco et al., 2013; Cogălniceanu et al., 2014; Carranza et al.,



2018; Burriel-Carranza et al., 2019; see Appendix S1 for a complete list of references). As a result of all these efforts, we now have unprecedented knowledge on the composition and distribution of the unique fauna of Arabian squamates, yet a synthesis is still lacking.

In this study, we assess spatial patterns in the distribution of squamates across the Arabian Peninsula to identify and delineate hotspots of their diversity and evolutionary history. First, we examine the species richness pattern to confirm previous findings reporting high diversity in the peripheral mountains. Second, with the knowledge on the evolutionary relationships among Arabian squamates, we test whether the regions of high species richness also serve as reservoirs of evolutionary history. If species in the mountains are mostly a product of recent diversification events, which seems to be the case at least in some groups (Garcia-Porta et al., 2017; Šmíd, Shobrak, et al., 2017), then phylogenetic diversity of such places would be low compared to lowland areas. Alternatively, if mountain communities are not dominated by young species or if the mountain and lowland biota experience frequent transitions, then phylogenetic diversity would grow linearly with species richness. Third, we map the distribution of phylogenetic endemism to find out which parts of Arabia support spatially restricted evolutionary history. We hypothesize that the mountains will be the most important hotspots for endemic squamates. Fourth, we examine the distribution of squamate diversity in major Arabian ecoregions to assess their importance as local diversity hotspots. The degree of turnover between the ecoregions is used as an indicator of their mutual differentiation and as a gauge to measure each ecoregion's separation. Lastly, we investigate the possible drivers of species richness in Arabian squamates. Considering previous reports on the extraordinarily high richness of squamates in the mountains, we hypothesize that species richness will positively correlate with elevation. Based on findings from communities of Australian squamates we hypothesize that the Arabian squamate richness will be influenced by ambient temperature, and that the level of endemism will scale positively with topographic heterogeneity. To tackle these goals, we compiled a comprehensive dataset of species distribution records for all native terrestrial squamate species of Arabia, totalling over 18,000 records, and generated species distribution models for each species. Moreover, using a multilocus genetic dataset generated for this study, we inferred a nearly fully sampled phylogeny that included described species and well-supported candidate species to account for cryptic diversity.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Study area delineation

We follow the political definition of Arabia that defines the peninsula as comprising the following countries: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Yemen.

We did not include the Socotra Archipelago politically belonging to Yemen for its remoteness from mainland Arabia.

2.2 | Baseline taxonomy

Since the focus of this study were terrestrial squamates native to Arabia, we excluded from our analyses species that have been introduced by human-mediated transport (i.e. *Calotes versicolor* [Agamidae], *Hemidactylus flaviviridis*, *H. leschenaultii* [Gekkonidae] and *Indotyphlops braminus* [Typhlopidae]). We did not include the following species previously recorded from Arabia for reasons provided: *Acanthodactylus yemenicus* (Lacertidae) – although the species is listed in the Reptile Database (Uetz et al., 2020), we follow Sindaco and Jeremčenko (2008) and consider it conspecific with *A. felicis*; *Myriopholis yemenica* (Leptotyphlopidae) – there is only one known specimen, which is the holotype, and the type locality was in the original description described only vaguely as 'Yemen' (Scortecci, 1933), hence the systematic status and details on its distribution remain unknown; *Mesalina* sp. B (Lacertidae) – only one specimen has ever been collected (Arnold, 1980) and its phylogenetic affinities are uncertain; *Pristurus mazbah* (Sphaerodactylidae) – although listed in the Reptile Database (Uetz et al., 2020), Arnold (2009) did not consider it a valid species; and *Trapelus jayakari* (Agamidae) – listed in the Reptile Database, but Arnold (1986) considered it a younger synonym of *T. flavimaculatus* and it is still treated as such (Carranza et al., 2018). We retained *Chalcides ocellatus* (Scincidae) in the dataset but it must be noted that its native status is under question (Kornilios et al., 2010). The taxonomy of the genus *Platyceps* (Colubridae) is convoluted and various names are used to refer to similar species in the literature. We use the nomen *Platyceps rogersi* for the Arabian Gulf species, which is sometimes referred to as *P. ventromaculatus* (Burriel-Carranza et al., 2019; Gardner, 2013) or *P. chesnei* (Sindaco et al., 2013) based on Schätti's (2006) indication of the conspecificity of these species. Although *rogersi* was later considered a subspecies of *P. karelini* by the same author (Schätti et al., 2012), the two taxa belong to different clades within the genus' phylogeny (Sinaiko et al., 2018).

The list of native terrestrial squamates of Arabia contains 176 described species and 12 additional candidate species that were delimited in previous studies as well as ongoing projects (Badiane et al., 2014; Garcia-Porta et al., 2017; Metallinou et al., 2015; Sindaco et al., 2018; Tamar, Chirio, et al., 2019) and are awaiting description (work in progress). In total, the final list comprises 188 species from 56 genera of 15 families (Table S1).

2.3 | Analysis of spatial data

We compiled a dataset of georeferenced distribution records for all Arabian squamates by searching published literature, public biodiversity databases and citizen science websites, museum catalogues (see Appendix S1 for a complete list of collections and references),

gathering unpublished field observations provided by colleagues, and conducting targeted field work in different parts of Arabia (Oman, Saudi Arabia, UAE).

The original raw dataset was carefully curated for outlying and dubious records. Records that could not be assigned with certainty to species level due to recent taxonomic changes were removed. We used the R package *CoordinateCleaner* (Zizka et al., 2019) to flag potentially erroneous coordinates. We found and removed eight records placed in country centroids. The final dataset used for downstream spatial processing contained 18,053 records (Figure S1). The number of species-specific unique records ranged between 1 and 565 records (mean = 69, median = 31; Table S1).

2.3.1 | Species distribution modelling

We used a species distribution modelling (SDM) approach to derive the distribution ranges. Of the 188 species used in the analyses, 26 species had less than five unique records (Table S1). Small sample size may negatively influence modelling success (Rissler et al., 2006), and we therefore did not develop SDM for these species. Instead, their distributions were inferred as described below in the section *Environmentally informed buffer design*. We used the maximum entropy approach implemented in Maxent 3.3 (Phillips et al., 2006) to estimate the distribution of the potentially suitable habitat for each species. The spatial background defined for developing the models matched the study area defined above.

We used a set of 23 environmental and topographic variables as predictors to capture the diverse habitat preferences across species of such a heterogeneous group as squamates. The variables included: (a) 19 bioclimatic variables (CHELSA; Karger et al., 2017); (b) elevation and slope; (c) mean monthly potential evapotranspiration (averaged over 12 monthly layers; Trabucco & Zomer, 2019) and (d) mean monthly solar radiation (averaged over 12 monthly layers; Fick & Hijmans, 2017). All layers were downloaded at the resolution of or were rescaled to 2.5-arcmin ($\sim 4.6 \times 3.9\text{--}4.5$ km at the latitude of Arabia). Some of the variables presented obvious spatial artefacts with inconsistent spatial patterns, likely due to interpolations, and were removed (BIO8, BIO9 and BIO18). The remaining variables were tested for collinearity using ENMTools (Warren et al., 2010), and of those with strong correlation (Pearson's $r > 0.7$) we retained the biologically more meaningful ones (Elith & Leathwick, 2009).

The final set of uncorrelated variables that were used for the modelling included [units in brackets]: elevation [m], slope [degrees], BIO15 – precipitation seasonality [coefficient of variation], BIO17 – precipitation of driest quarter [mm/quarter], mean monthly potential evapotranspiration [mm/month] and mean annual solar radiation [$\text{kJ}\times\text{m}^{-2}\times\text{day}^{-1}$]. We ran Maxent with the following settings: random seed, regularization multiplier = 1, maximum number of background points = 10,000, number of replicates = 10, replicated run type = cross validate and maximum iterations = 5000. To account for the bias in sampling effort in different parts of Arabia, we generated a Gaussian kernel density layer based on the complete

curated dataset of all squamate records and a search radius 0.5° , and used this layer as a bias file in the modelling process (Kramer-Schadt et al., 2013). Model accuracy was determined by means of the area under the receiver-operating curve (AUC) and the true skill statistic (TSS; Allouche et al., 2006). AUC was classified according to Araújo et al. (2005). The distribution model of each species was evaluated based on the two metrics and on how realistic it was given our expert knowledge on the species ecology and habitat requirements (Table S1). Predictive models were reclassified to binary presence/absence maps using the maximum training sensitivity plus specificity threshold. Models of potential species distribution may be over-predicted as they are built using abiotic environmental predictors while relevant biotic factors such as species dispersal limitations or interspecific interactions are ignored (Graham & Hijmans, 2006; Peterson, 2011b; Vasconcelos et al., 2012). To at least partially alleviate the model over-prediction, we followed Kremen et al. (2008) and cropped away species ranges lying more than 100 km from each species' localities.

2.3.2 | Environmentally informed buffer design

Distributions of 59 species could not be modelled by the SDM approach. This concerned three categories of species: species with less than five unique records (26 species); species whose ranges could not be predicted for poor model performance or an unrealistic range estimate (30 species) and island endemics (3 species). We buffered all localities of these species by 50 km buffers and applied the deductive approach to species distribution modelling that uses species ecological requirements to extrapolate suitable areas from the environmental variable layers (Corsi et al., 2000; Rondinini et al., 2006). We used the distribution data to extract values of key environmental predictors as detailed below.

To account for the elevational preference of each species, we extracted the information on the elevation of all its Arabian records and we calculated the mean and standard deviation (SD) of it. We then cropped out parts of the buffers laying outside the elevational tolerance of the species, defined as mean $\pm 2\times\text{SD}$. For species that only had one known record within Arabia and for which the SD could not be calculated, we applied hard boundaries of 250 m of elevation around it. This procedure was repeated with the slope, cropping out flat and steep surfaces that are unsuitable for the various species. Finally, because there are many habitat specialists among the Arabian squamates (e.g. strict sand-dwellers such as *Eryx jayakari* [Boidae] or *Trigonodactylus arabicus* [Gekkonidae]), we used soil type as a factor determining species distribution. We first classified Arabia into soil classes based on the global soil type layer (ISRIC World Soil Information; <https://www.isric.org/>). There are 15 main soil types present in Arabia (Appendix S2). We classified records of each species according to the soil type using the *SpGeoCod* function of the *SpeciesGeoCoder* R package (Töpel et al., 2016). Soils present in more than 10% of a species records were considered suitable for that species and other soil types were removed from the buffer.



Our approach was not followed for habitat generalists that are not selective of a particular soil type (e.g. *Varanus griseus* [Varanidae]), or for species with a broad range of elevational preferences within Arabia (e.g. *Acanthodactylus schmidti* [Lacertidae]), or island endemics (*Hemidactylus masirahensis* [Gekkonidae], *Pristurus masirahensis* and *P. schneiderii* [Sphaerodactylidae]). The final range estimate for each species was a carefully considered and environmentally informed combination of these variables.

2.3.3 | Species grid maps

The species distribution maps were intersected with a grid of 10-arcmin (~18 × 15.7–18.1 km at the latitude of Arabia) to create species grid maps. Although it is difficult to avoid species richness overestimation when combining range maps produced by SDM (Guisan & Rahbek, 2011), we attempted to reduce this bias by applying a criterion according to which, when the species range covered less than 1% of a grid cell area then that cell was not considered to be occupied by that species.

2.3.4 | Alternative distribution range estimates

To inspect the robustness of our conclusions, we compared our range estimates with two other sets of maps. To account for the varying geographical precision of the records, we developed a new set of maps following the SDM method detailed above, but this time using only records with spatial resolution of 1 km or better (13,898 records; 135 species with more than 5 unique records; hereafter referred to as the GPS maps). Moreover, we applied a strict radius of 50 km around each species' localities to crop its predictive range. The strictness of this approach produced narrow ranges that tightly encompassed the precise locality data. Second, we compared our maps with previously published ones. We extracted species occurring in Arabia from the maps by Roll et al. (2017) (189 squamates). It must be noted that Roll et al.'s and our datasets differed considerably in the species composition. This was most notably due to many taxonomic changes having been done since 2017, the fact that we include candidate species that have not yet been described, and less strict criteria applied by Roll et al. to derive species ranges that resulted in species never recorded from Arabia being shown as present (typically, the presence of extralimital species at the northern border of the peninsula).

2.4 | Phylogenetic data and analyses

2.4.1 | Sequence data and DNA sequencing

We compiled DNA sequence data for as many of the 188 species as possible. We gleaned the literature and used Geneious 11.1 (Kearse et al., 2012) to search GenBank for published sequences. We targeted loci customarily used in squamate phylogenetic studies.

Sequence data were available for 170 of the 188 species, for which we downloaded a total of 928 sequences of 16 genetic markers, seven mitochondrial (12S, 16S, CYTB, COI, ND1, ND2 and ND4) and nine nuclear (ACM4, BDNF, CMOS, MC1R, NT3, PDC, PRLR and RAG1, RAG2). Each species was represented by one specimen in the phylogenetic analyses. Whenever possible, we downloaded sequences of the same specimen in order not to create chimeric samples. Species for which there were no data available on GenBank were sequenced *de novo*, targeting markers that had been sequenced before for other species of their respective families. Primers used for the amplification are given in Table S2. We produced 83 new DNA sequences of 12 genetic markers for 25 species (GenBank accessions MW198193–MW198209 and MW204503–MW204568; Tables S3 and S4). Particularly noteworthy are the species that have been sequenced for the first time for this study: *Eirenis coronella*, *Platyceps thomasi* (Colubridae), *Walterinnesia morgani* (Elapidae), *Tropicolotes wolfgangboehmei* (Gekkonidae) and *Pristurus ornithocephalus* (Sphaerodactylidae). The final genetic dataset contained sequences of 177 species (94% taxon sampling), ranging from one to twelve sequences per species with the mean of 5.8 sequences. All Arabian squamate families were represented, of the 56 genera only *Philochortus* (Lacertidae) and *Agamodon* (Trogonophidae) were missing.

2.4.2 | Phylogenetic analyses

We aligned all genes independently using MAFFT 7 (Katoch & Standley, 2013) using the default settings. We trimmed long ragged ends manually to reduce incomplete data. Mitochondrial tRNAs and flanking regions were removed. We checked all newly produced mitochondrial sequences of protein-coding genes for stop codons to detect potential amplification of nuclear pseudogenes. None were detected. Alignments of all markers were concatenated for the analyses, producing an alignment of 16,706 bp in length. Each marker was treated as a separate partition.

We inferred the phylogenetic relationships using maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian inference (BI) approaches. For the ML analysis we used RAXML 7.3 (Stamatakis, 2006) with a heuristic search of 10 random addition replicates and 100 bootstrap pseudoreplicates and the GTRGAMMA substitution model applied to all partitions. For the BI analysis we used BEAST 2.5.2 (Bouckaert et al., 2014) with the following parameterization: ambiguous nucleotide positions indicating heterozygotes in the nuclear markers were included; nucleotide substitution models were estimated by the reversible-jump-based method (RB model; Bouckaert et al., 2013) with four gamma-distributed rate categories; relaxed lognormal clock model; Yule process tree prior with a uniformly distributed prior on the birth rate (lower: 0, upper = 10); clock parameters with lognormal distributions for the mitochondrial markers (mean = 0.1, SD = 1.25) and exponential distribution for the nuclear ones (mean = 0.5); among-lineage rate heterogeneity parameters with gamma distributions ($\alpha = 0.5396$, $\beta = 0.3819$); five independent runs each of 2×10^8 generations

with logs and trees sampled every 2×10^4 generations. Preliminary analyses had problems to reconstruct the geckos (Gekkota) as a monophyletic group so we enforced monophyly of the group containing the three gecko families (Gekkonidae, Phyllodactylidae and Sphaerodactylidae). Stationarity, convergence of the five runs and effective sample size of all parameters was assessed using Tracer 1.5 (Rambaut et al., 2014) and output tree files were combined in LogCombiner after discarding 10% of the posterior trees of each as burnin. Maximum clade credibility tree was generated using TreeAnnotator (both programs are part of the BEAST package). All phylogenetic analyses were run through CIPRES (Miller et al., 2010).

2.5 | Spatial analyses

2.5.1 | Diversity and phylodiversity metrics

A map of species richness (SR) was produced by overlaying maps of all species. Phylogenetic diversity (PD; Faith, 1992) of each grid cell was calculated using the *picante* package of R (Kembel et al., 2010). Following recommendations of Rodrigues and Gaston (2002), the root of the tree was included in the PD calculation. Phylogenetic endemism (PE; Rosauer et al., 2009) was calculated with the *PDcalc* R package (Faith, 2013). All diversity metrics were calculated for two sets of species, one containing all species (188 species) and one of Arabian endemics only (120 species; Table S1). To explore the relationships between the diversity metrics (PD ~ SR, PE ~ PD), we used local regression with nonparametric smoothing implemented in the *loess* function in R (smoothing parameter $\alpha = 0.75$).

2.5.2 | Ecoregion classification

Ecoregions of Arabia were obtained from the map of terrestrial ecoregions of the world (Dinerstein et al., 2017; Olson et al., 2001). Some of the ecoregions were very marginal to Arabia. Those were merged with larger ones based on their distribution and ecological relevance. This way we produced a map of 10 dominant ecoregions of Arabia: The Hajar Mountains; Central Arabian Desert; Arabian sand Desert; Arabian-Persian Gulf Desert; The Sharqiya Sands; North Arabian Desert; Red Sea Desert Shrublands; South Arabian Plains and Plateau Desert; SW Arabian Escarpment and Highlands; The Tihama Desert.

Species were assigned to ecoregions based on the degree of overlap between their ranges with each ecoregion. A species was considered to be present in an ecoregion when at least 10% of its range was found within that ecoregion, or when at least 10% of the ecoregion area was occupied by that species. Ecoregion turnover was visualized using functions from the R packages *geosphere* and *rgdal* (Bivand et al., 2014; Hijmans et al., 2016). PD and PE was calculated for each ecoregion using the methods described above for the grid-level analysis. Each metric was again

inferred for two sets of species: one of all species and one of Arabian endemics. To incorporate phylogenetic uncertainty, the ecoregion PD and PE calculations were run 1000 times with 1000 posterior trees drawn randomly from the BI results. Additionally, to account for the effect of ecoregion area (larger ecoregions may acquire higher diversity only as a function of their area), we divided the PD and PE metrics of each ecoregion by its area (square root transformed).

2.6 | Identifying possible determinants of squamate species richness

A number of studies have indicated that species richness has a strong association with climate (Field et al., 2005; Jetz & Rahbek, 2002; Kreft & Jetz, 2007; among others). We tested three potential predictors that capture the multidimensionality of climatic space to explain squamate species richness in Arabia: elevation, topographic heterogeneity and mean annual temperature. The comparisons were conducted at the 10-arcmin grid scale. The elevation and temperature (BIO1) variables were upscaled from their original resolution (2.5-arcmin) by averaging the finer-scale raster values contained in each 10-arcmin grid cell. Topographic heterogeneity was calculated as the standard deviation of the elevation values contained in each 10-arcmin grid cell. Although the elevation range is commonly used as a measure of topographic heterogeneity (e.g. Lewin et al., 2016), the standard deviation of the elevation is less prone to be biased by the presence of extreme values of a few narrow areas within the grid cell and should better describe the dominant pattern of heterogeneity. Species richness was regressed against each of the three determinant variables using the *loess* regression ($\alpha = 0.75$). Each comparison was done twice, for all species and for endemics only. We used Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) to assess the dependence of species richness on each of the variables.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Phylogenetic reconstructions

Topologies of the ML and BI trees were largely congruent (Figures S2 and S3; Appendix S4). All genera were recovered monophyletic with strong support with one exception, which was *Eryx* (ML bootstrap = 62, BI posterior probability = 0.92), most likely owing to the limited overlap of markers available for the two species included in the analyses. All squamate families were recovered as monophyletic with the exception of Lamprophiidae (Figure 1), which has not been convincingly supported as monophyletic in previous studies either (Pyron et al., 2013; Zheng & Wiens, 2016). All downstream spatial analyses produced similar results regardless of the input tree (not shown) and we report only results obtained using the BI tree.

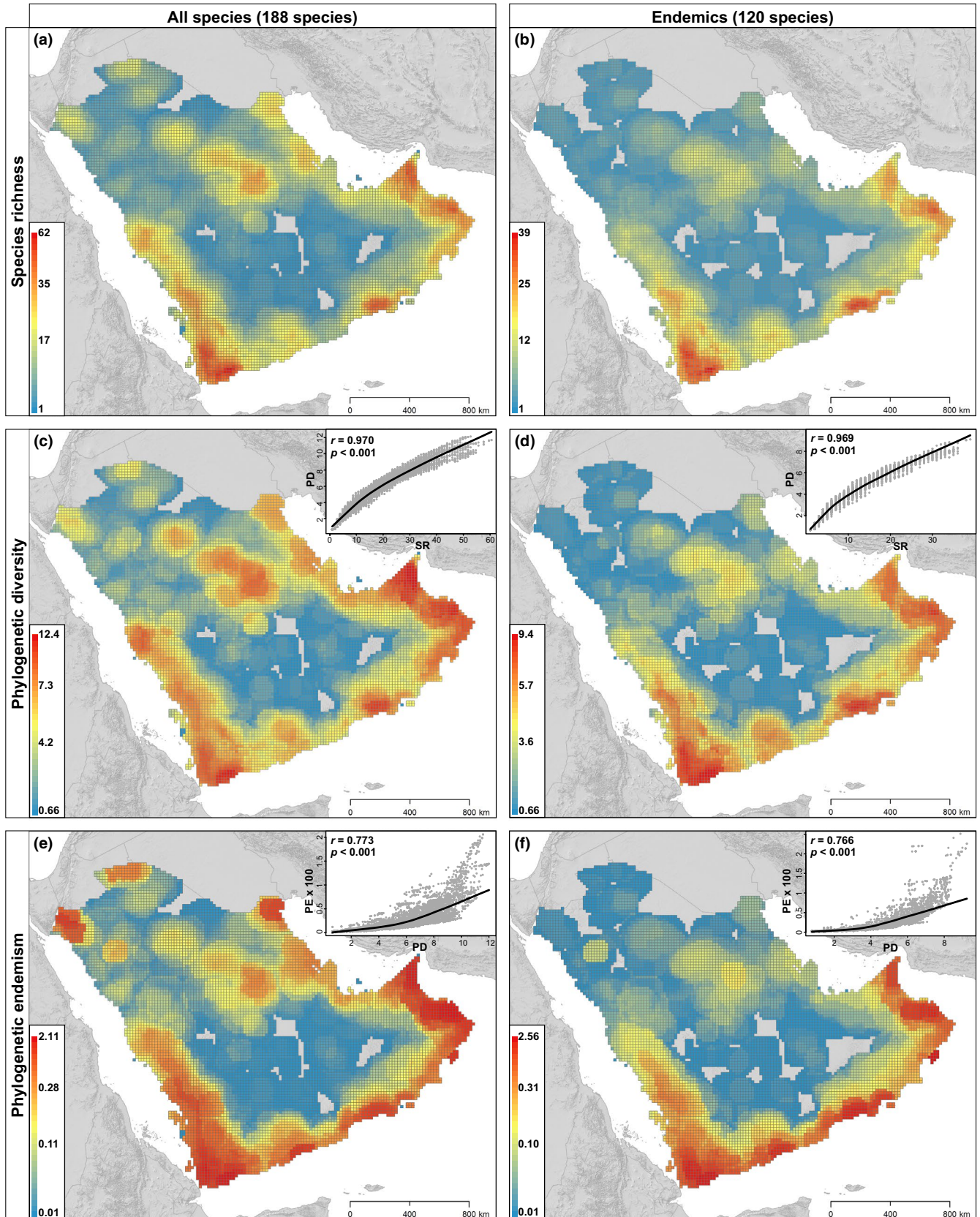


FIGURE 2 Maps of species richness (SR), phylogenetic diversity (PD) and phylogenetic endemism (PE) of squamates of the Arabian Peninsula. Maps in the left column are based on analyses of all species (188 species), right column shows maps for Arabian endemics (120 species). Plots in the insets of (c) and (d) show the relationship between PD (y axis) and SR (x axis), those in (e) and (f) show the relationship between PE (y axis) and PD (x axis), with the loess regression lines in black. Correlation of the metrics (Pearson's r), as well as its statistical significance, is in the upper left corner of each plot. Confidence intervals are given in the Results.



Analyses of the GPS maps (135 species in total) produced similar spatial patterns for all the metrics to those described above (Figure S4). Albeit many parts of Arabia lacked any predicted squamates due to the absence of precise occurrence data and the strict criteria applied to estimate the GPS maps, the mountains along the south-western, southern and eastern margins of the peninsula had the highest SR, PD and PE regardless of whether all species or only endemics were analysed. In accord with our results were also those based on the Roll et al. (2017) maps (189 species in total) that resulted in mostly corresponding diversity patterns (Figure S5). All metrics highlighted the peripheral mountains as diversity hotspots, both for all species and for endemics only. The highlands of central to north-western Saudi Arabia were also identified as a SR and PD hotspot, which also confirmed our findings. On the other hand, the Roll et al. (2017) maps predicted intermediate diversity of species in most of Arabia's interior (ca. 15–25 species) even in regions void of any squamate records (e.g. the Rub' al Khali Desert; Figure S1).

At the ecoregion scale, the highest species richness was found in the South Arabian plains and plateau desert, the South-western Arabian escarpment and highlands, and the Tihama Desert, with 69, 68 and 64 species respectively. The species-poorest ecoregions were the North Arabian Desert and the Sharqiya Sands with 23 and 39 species respectively (Figure 3a). The North Arabian Desert is isolated from the rest of the peninsula with a low degree of diversity overlap with the other ecoregions (16 species shared with the Central Arabian Desert [29% of diversity] and 10 with each of the Red Sea Desert Shrubland [20% of diversity] and the Arabian-Persian Gulf [20% of diversity]). The rest of the peninsula, on the contrary, shows a relatively high species overlap, especially between adjoining ecoregions (mean proportion of shared species $55 \pm 15\%$ SD, min-max: 26–87%; Figure 3b).

In contrast to their low SR, the Sharqiya Sands were consistently found as the highest PD and PE ecoregion relative to its

area, followed by the Tihama Desert, the Hajar Mountains and the Arabian-Persian Gulf Desert (Figure 4). In fact, the Sharqiya Sands' PE values were nearly twice as high as those of the Tihama Desert, the second ecoregion in rank. When the effect of ecoregion area was not accounted for, the ecoregions mostly overlapped in their PD values, with the exception of the North Arabian Desert (Figure S6). In the PE comparisons, the Sharqiya Sands stood out again as the highest PE ecoregion for all species and together with the South Arabian plains and plateau desert, the Tihama Desert and the Arabian-Persian Gulf Desert, as PE hotspots for endemics. The North Arabian Desert ecoregion was extremely depauperate in terms of both PD and PE for all species and for endemics as well.

3.3 | Species richness determinants

Species richness showed a slight positive correlation with elevation, but the *loess* regression was convex shaped. Correlation between species richness and topographic heterogeneity was stronger. On the contrary, mean annual temperature was not found to determine the number of species (Figure 5; details in Table 1). The relationships between the three determinant variables showed that topographic heterogeneity and elevation were positively correlated, while mean annual temperature declined with both topographic heterogeneity and elevation (Figure S7).

4 | DISCUSSION

In this study we provide the first insights into the patterns and processes shaping the distribution of squamate diversity and evolutionary history in the environmentally extreme conditions of the Arabian

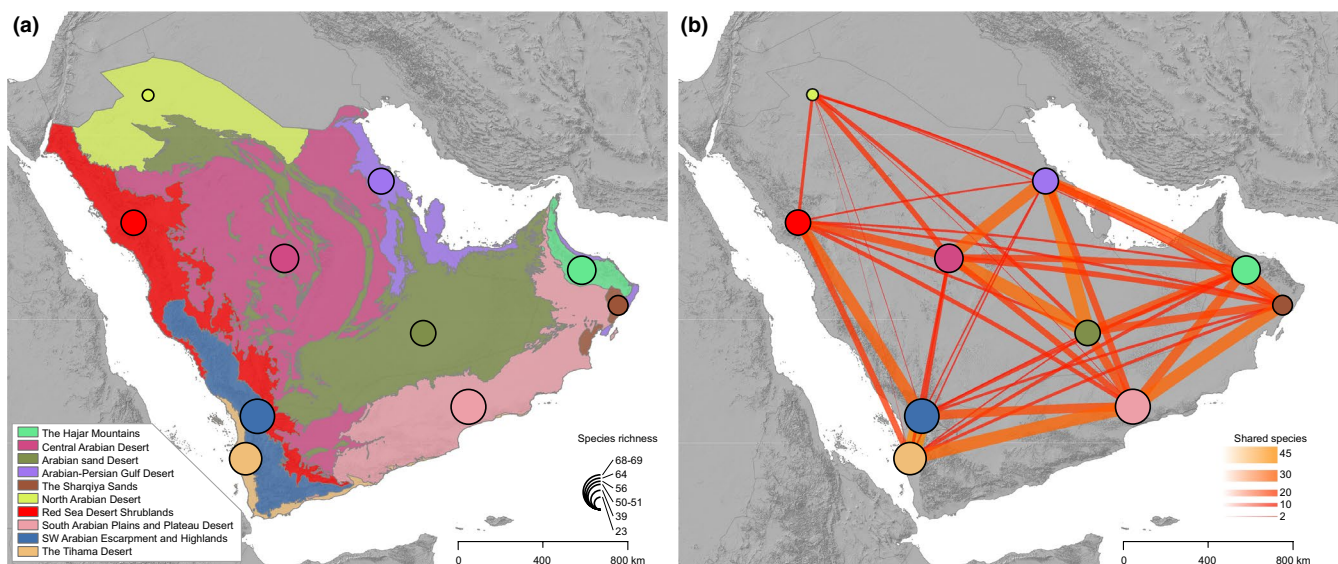


FIGURE 3 Diversity of squamates and their turnover among Arabian ecoregions. (a) Ecoregion diversity. Circles are placed in ecoregion centroids and their radii correspond to the respective species richness of each ecoregion. (b) Ecoregion turnover. Lines show the number of species common to two ecoregions; thicker, brighter lines indicate more shared species.

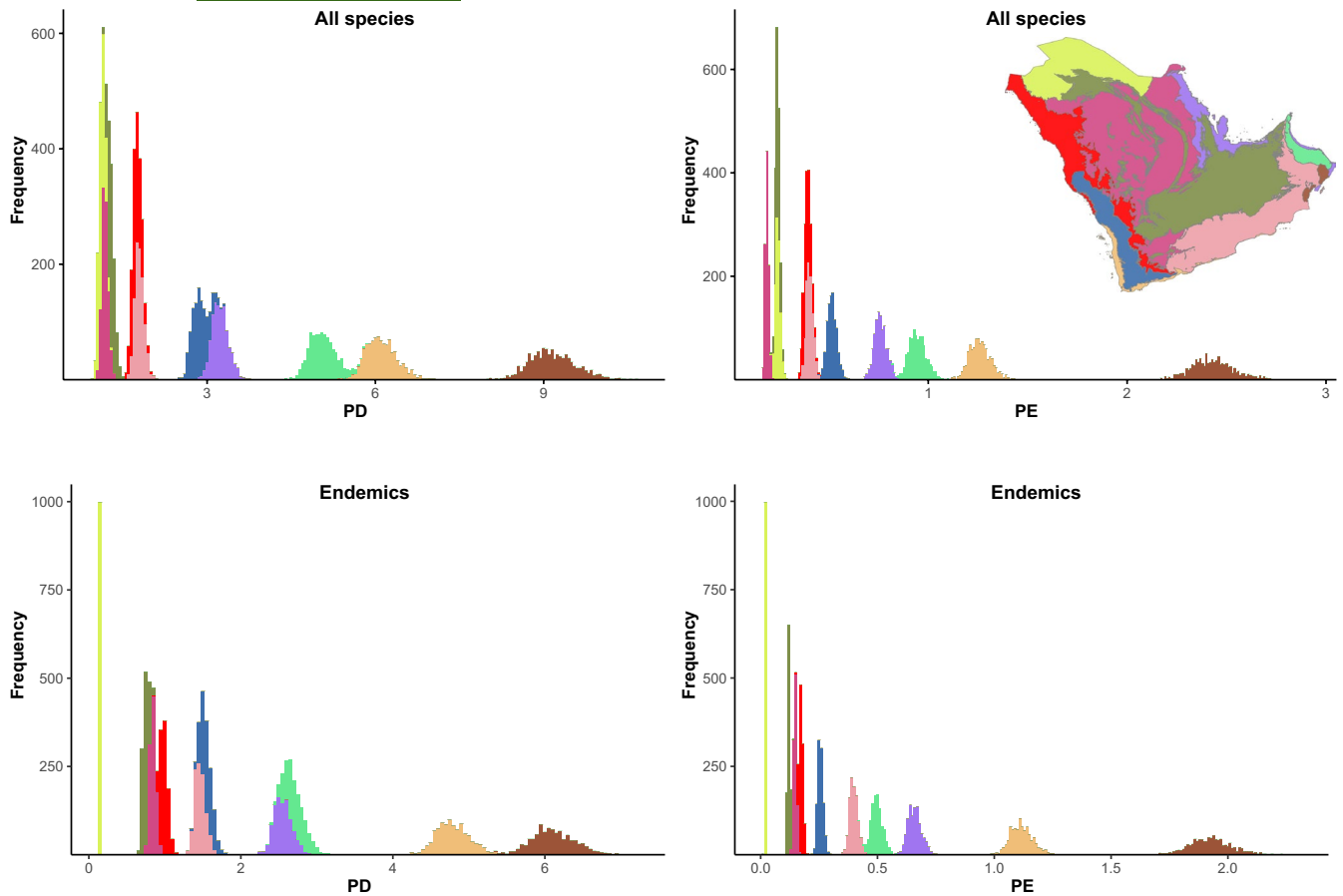


FIGURE 4 Frequency histograms of phylogenetic diversity (PD) and phylogenetic endemism (PE) of Arabian squamates in ecoregions generated with 1000 randomly sampled trees from the posterior of the Bayesian phylogenetic analysis and accounting for the ecoregion area. Plots in the upper panes are based on analyses of all species, lower panes show plots for Arabian endemics only. Histogram colours correspond to the different ecoregions plotted in the upper right corner. For ecoregion names see Figure 3.

Peninsula. The species distributions and genetic datasets compiled in this study are the most comprehensive to date and allow in-depth examination of the spatial distribution patterns of Arabian squamates. Additionally, the results also pinpoint areas where more field work is required or can be used as a foundation for improving local conservation planning and management.

4.1 | Patterns of Arabian squamate distribution

The distributions of SR and PD show that most squamate diversity and evolutionary history is concentrated in the mountains along the south-western, southern and eastern edges of the peninsula, and along the Arabian Gulf coast and central Saudi Arabia. However, only the mountains emerge as diversity hotspots when endemics are analysed. Although this pattern is mirrored in other groups of vertebrates, such as amphibians (Fritz & Rahbek, 2012), birds (Jetz et al., 2012), mammals (Ceballos & Ehrlich, 2006) and turtles (Roll et al., 2017), none of them achieves richness levels comparable to those observed in squamates. This further stresses the uniqueness of squamate communities in arid environments and highlights the need

for their independent treatment in biodiversity and conservation assessments. The matching spatial patterns of SR and PD and the close correlation of the metrics indicate that, at the geographic scale of Arabia and phylogenetic scale of squamates, species richness can be considered a good surrogate for the community's evolutionary history. In general, species diversity has been shown to be an adequate surrogate for PD when the phylogenetic tree is not extremely unbalanced, i.e. all clades of the tree have more or less equivalent number of taxa, and old species occur in species-rich areas (Rodrigues et al., 2005), both of which conditions are met by Arabian squamates.

The Arabian mountains are not only species richness hotspots but they also show high levels of PE, especially for endemic species. In other words, the rich diversity and deep evolutionary history of the mountains are spatially restricted and confined to particular mountain ranges. Indeed, the mountain fauna is mostly composed of local radiations of closely related and narrow-ranging species (García-Porta et al., 2017; Simó-Riudalbas et al., 2018; Šmíd, Shobrak, et al., 2017), and although there are species whose distributions cover several mountain ranges, these are rarely high-elevation specialists. The mountains of south-western Arabia and the Hajar Mountains have already been recognized as areas of pronounced reptile endemism

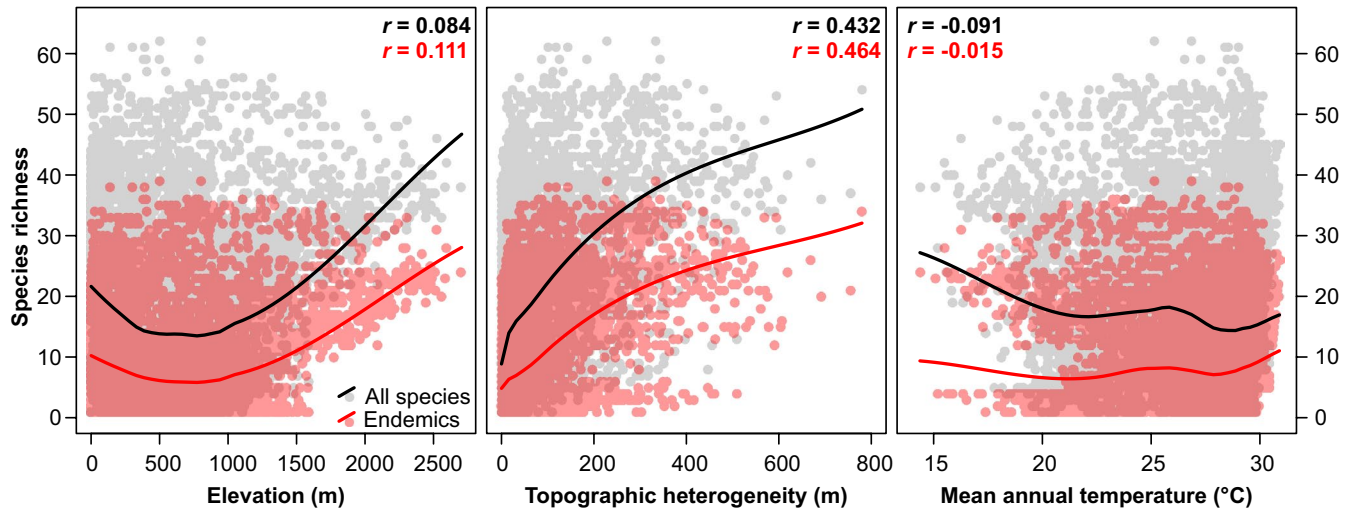


FIGURE 5 Relationships between three environmental predictors and species richness of Arabian squamates. Values for all species are shown as grey points, for endemics only as red points. Black and red lines indicate fit of the *loess* regression models for all species and endemics only, respectively. Variable correlations (Pearson's r) are in the upper corner of each plot; for all species in black, for endemics in red. Confidence intervals are given in the Results.

TABLE 1 Correlation of Arabian squamate species richness with three environmental predictors. Each correlation was calculated for richness of all species and of richness of endemics only. Pearson's correlation coefficients values are shown along with their confidence intervals and statistical significance.

	Pearson's r	Confidence interval	p
Elevation			
All species	0.084	0.063–0.104	<0.001
Endemics	0.111	0.090–0.132	<0.001
Topographic heterogeneity			
All species	0.432	0.415–0.449	<0.001
Endemics	0.464	0.447–0.480	<0.001
Mean annual temperature			
All species	-0.091	-0.112 to -0.070	<0.001
Endemics	-0.015	-0.036 to 0.006	0.165

(Ficetola et al., 2018). Moreover, south-western Arabia is known to present exceptional levels of diversity and endemism of both plants and animals and, hence, was recognized as part of two global biodiversity hotspots (Mittermeier et al., 2004). The fine-scale resolution of our analyses allowed more detailed delineation of these hotspots and identification of other areas of endemic diversity, as the Hajar Mountains and Masirah Island off the coast of central Oman.

Some areas of the interior of Arabia that were identified as poor in SR, PD and PE may be a result of insufficient sampling effort. This applies, for example, to the Rub' al Khali and An-Nafud sand deserts of southern and northern Arabia respectively. Guisan and Rahbek (2011) have shown that when species richness is estimated based on stacked SDMs, local diversity tends to be overestimated. However, given that the number of species predicted to occur in these deserts never exceeds five (and is actually zero in nearly 3% of the grid cells),

it is rather unlikely that we are dealing with diversity overestimates. Instead, the conservative approach applied here to estimate species distributions produced spatial ranges that are likely narrower than they in fact are, which in turn resulted in that the diversity in these areas is more prone to underestimation. We are aware of this limitation of the species range maps we produced and that they might underestimate the richness of squamates locally, but our intention was to map distributions that are supported by actual locality data with as little interpolation as possible. Nevertheless, the two alternative sets of maps confirm that the overall diversity patterns across the peninsula hold and are not distorted. In the case of the Rub' al Khali, which is the largest continuous sand desert in the world, the low predicted diversity is likely genuine and may be imposed by the harshness of the environment that is composed of vast stretches of barren sand dunes (Edgell, 2006). On the other hand, the relatively low predicted diversity of the mountains of north-western Saudi Arabia that are topographically and environmentally considerably more complex than the sand deserts (Vincent, 2008) may truly be a result of sampling bias. These regions have received little attention of herpetologists despite the potential they hold, and more discoveries are to be expected from there (Aloufi et al., 2020).

4.2 | Ecoregion richness and turnover

The ecoregions show a variance in SR, with the north of Arabia being the poorest and the ecoregions in the south of the peninsula the richest. Ecoregions with the highest PD and PE (relative to their area) are the Sharqiya Sands, the Tihama Desert, the Hajar Mountains and the Arabian-Persian Gulf Desert, which, to a certain degree, mirrors the results obtained in the analyses at the grid scale. The sand dunes of the Sharqiya Sands and the coastal Tihama Desert particularly achieve high PD and PE values even if the effect of area



is not accounted for. Their diversity and endemism levels are comparable (and even higher in case of PD) to those in much larger ecoregions like, for instance, the South Arabian plains and plateau desert, stressing their significance as important hotspots of diversity and endemism. Given their limited geographical extent in combination with their unique habitat they represent potential targets for future conservation efforts in Oman (the Sharqiya Sands) and Saudi Arabia and Yemen (the Tihama Desert).

An important biodiversity region is the Hajar Mountains of northern Oman and UAE that shows high levels of diversity and endemism within a geographically well-delineated area. The Hajars are not as high in terms of endemic SR as are the south-western mountains, but their PD and PE are among the highest. This suggests that for the same number of species, the Hajars achieve relatively longer evolutionary history and higher endemism, meaning that local communities are phylogenetically diverse and comprise species with smaller average ranges than those in the southwest. Albeit the Hajars are not among the globally recognized hotspots, their level of squamate endemism is comparable to other renowned biodiversity hotspots in the world, such as the Eastern Arc Mountains of Tanzania or the Ethiopian highlands (Burgess et al., 2007). Considering that only a fraction of the Hajars is covered by protected areas either in Oman or UAE (Burriel-Carranza et al., 2019; Carranza et al., 2018) and that they face massive transformations (Carranza et al., 2016) some measures should be taken to improve the protection of this unique biodiversity hotspot.

The North Arabian Desert stands out as the invariably poorest of the ecoregions in all metrics calculated and regardless of whether all species or only endemics were analysed. Also, the proportion of species shared between this and the other ecoregions is much lower in comparison with the rest of Arabia where, on average, 55% of species are shared between adjoining ecoregions. All this suggests that Arabia is very effectively isolated from mainland Asia by the deserts in the north of the peninsula, even though the north served as a colonization route for several squamate groups (Simó-Riudalbas et al., 2019; Tamar et al., 2016, 2018). The low rates of ecoregion isolation within the peninsula may seem to contradict the above-described pattern of mountains swarming with local radiations of narrow-ranging endemics. However, considering the squamate richness of the Arabian mountains where a community of 50 species is not uncommon, a diversity overlap of 55% between ecoregions still leaves over 22 species (on average) that are ecoregion specific and generate the high levels of endemism and phylogenetic endemism. In consequence, the mountain hotspots thus support balanced communities of both local endemics and broad-ranging species.

4.3 | Determinants of Arabian squamate richness

In light of the above-described findings that the Arabian mountains harbour the greatest diversity, one might expect that the key determinant of richness would be the elevation. However, elevation does not seem to be the main driver as its correlation with SR (both for

all species and endemics alone) is not exceptionally strong, and the regression lines do not show a constant growth. This suggests that our hypothesis of species richness being dependent on elevation is not supported.

Instead, SR scales better with topographic heterogeneity. Although heterogeneity is linearly related to the elevation (Figure S7), for Arabian squamates it is a more substantial determinant of species richness than elevation. This is in line with the many studies that have documented greater diversity in heterogeneous, topographically complex habitats, both at global and regional scales (Badgley et al., 2017; Cowling & Lombard, 2002; Kreft & Jetz, 2007; Szabo et al., 2009), including studies on squamates from multiple continents (Lewin et al., 2016; Nogueira et al., 2009; Powney et al., 2010; Whiting & Fox, 2020). Heterogeneous environments provide a large number of available habitat types and thus numerous opportunities for niche partitioning, population isolation and allopatric speciation. Tilman (1982) hypothesized that selection in these environments should favour narrow-ranging specialists over generalists, which should translate into these regions being dominated by endemics. Our results of the PE distribution comply with this hypothesis and, together with previous studies (García-Porta et al., 2017; Šmíd, Shobrak, et al., 2017), support the key role of topographic complexity as one of the main drivers of Arabian squamate richness and endemism.

Given that thermoregulation for squamates is largely dependent on ambient temperature, warm climates are expected to harbour more species than cold climates. Although previous studies support the supposition that richness is higher where temperatures are higher (Powney et al., 2010; Schall & Pianka, 1978; Whiting & Fox, 2020), this pattern is not supported by our results. We find no correlation between SR and mean annual temperature, indicating that temperature does not determine squamate richness in Arabia, which suggests that the supposed pattern of high diversity in warm regions does not apply to all parts of the globe. For example, richness of African lizards cannot be explained by temperature-related variables (Lewin et al., 2016). It thus appears that the dependence of richness on temperature is more clade or region specific, whereas the dependence on topographic complexity could be a largely global phenomenon.

4.4 | Limitations and potential caveats

A word of caution is needed when interpreting spatial and phylogenetic results from broad and historically neglected regions, such as those presented here. Despite applying very strict criteria to generate species ranges, one must bear in mind that the range maps are still only estimates based on the data available and the methods incorporated. Ideally, range maps should be based on verified point localities without the need of using predictive modelling to fill in the intervening gaps, which always introduces some degree of error (Peterson, 2011a). Unfortunately, such detailed data are rarely available even for the best surveyed regions of the world, not to mention climatically extreme, barren and difficult-to-access deserts.



However, by comparing our results with those based on the two alternative sets of maps (GPS and maps from Roll et al., 2017) we confirm that the squamate diversity patterns across the peninsula hold regardless of the input range maps, which lends credence to our conclusions.

Another caveat is that the PD and PE values may be affected by the phylogenetic tree used to estimate them (Rodrigues et al., 2005). Although we have inferred the tree using two independent methods that yielded mostly similar topologies with most relevant nodes supported, we acknowledge that we did not account for phylogenetic uncertainty in the grid-scale analysis. This could have been done, for example, by using a set of trees as we did in the ecoregion-scale analysis. This would allow measuring local variance in PD and PE, thus pointing out grid cells where these metrics vary with the tree topology, and which could be translated into a stability measure. This should, however, be addressed in a stand-alone study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Field work carried out for this project in Saudi Arabia was supported by Saudi Wildlife Authority (SWA). We are especially grateful to Dr. Hany Tatwany, the vice president of SWA, for his support and encouragement. We thank the SWA field researchers, namely Ali Al Faqih, Saad Alsubaie, AbdulKarim Alanazi, Raed AlGethami and Abdelaziz Al Gethami, for their support and participation in the field work. We are thankful to Taif University, Saudi Arabia, for support under Researcher Supporting project number TURSP-2020/06. In Oman, we would like to thank all the past and present members of the Ministry of Environment and Climate Affairs, MECA and especially to Ali Al Kiyumi, Suleiman Nasser Al Akhzami, Thuraya Al Sariri, Ahmed Said Al Shukaili, Saleh Al Saadi, Ali Alghafri and Salim Bait Bilal. In the UAE, we wish to thank His Highness Sheikh Dr. Sultan bin Mohammed Al Qasimi, Supreme Council Member and Ruler of Sharjah, H. E. Ms. Hana Saif al Suwaidi (Chairperson of the Environment and Protected Areas Authority, Sharjah), Paul Vercammen and Kevin Budd (Breeding Centre for Endangered Arabian Wildlife), Pritpal Soorae (Environment Agency, Abu Dhabi), Andrew Gardner (School of Molecular Sciences, University of Western Australia) and Gary Feulner (Dubai Natural History Group) for their continuous support. The work of JŠ was supported by the Czech Science Foundation (GACR, project number 18-15286Y) and the Ministry of Culture of the Czech Republic (DKRVO 2019-2023/6.VII.c, 00023272); SC was supported by grant PGC2018-098290-B-I00 (MCIU/AEI/FEDER, UE); BB-C was funded by FPU grant FPU18/04742 (MICIU, Spain); HT-C and MS-R were funded by FPI grants (MINECO, Spain; BES-2016-078341 and BES-2013-064248, respectively), PT was supported by FCT (DL57/2016/CP1440/CT0008).

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Appended to this article is a list of museum catalogues, online and published sources that were used to assemble the distribution records (Appendix S1), distribution maps for Arabian squamates available as figures (Appendix S2) and shapefiles (Appendix S3) at the

resolution of 10-arcmin grid cells, and the phylogenetic trees resulting from both ML and BI analyses (Appendix S4). Permits to carry out field work and to collect tissue samples in Oman were issued by the Nature Conservation Department of the Ministry of Environment and Climate Affairs (Refs 08/2005; 16/2008; 38/2010; 12/2011; 13/2013; 21/2013; 37/2014; 31/2016), in Saudi Arabia by Saudi Wildlife Authority (Ref: 04/2019), and in Yemen by Environment Protection Agency (Ref 10/2007).

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**BIOSKETCH**

Jiří Šmíd is a herpetologist, whose main research aim is to understand the phylogenetics, systematics and the dynamics in the evolutionary and diversification history of the unique fauna of squamate reptiles of the arid regions of Arabia, the Middle East and Africa.

Author contributions: JŠ and SC designed the project; JŠ, RS, MS, SB, MS-R, PG, P-AC, JE and SC conducted field work to collect distribution data and samples for genetic analysis; RS collected, computerized and georeferenced data from the literature; KT, TA, MS-R and BB-C did laboratory work and DNA sequence analysis; JŠ conducted phylogenetic analyses; JŠ, PT, BB-C and HT-C analysed the spatial data; JŠ led the writing with contributions from all authors.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section.

How to cite this article: Šmíd J, Sindaco R, Shobrak M, et al. Diversity patterns and evolutionary history of Arabian squamates. *J Biogeogr.* 2021;00:1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.14070>

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Diversity patterns and evolutionary history of Arabian squamates

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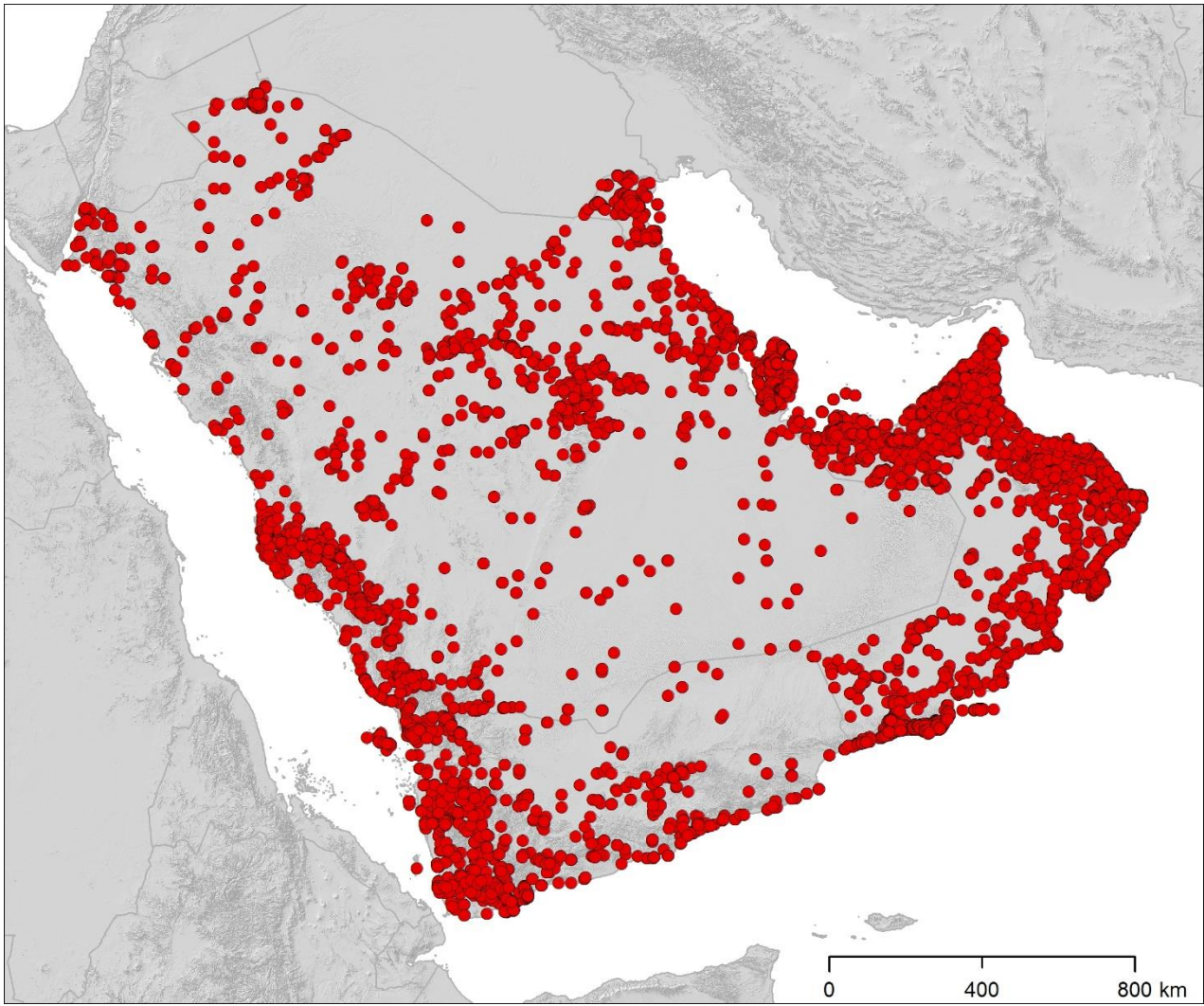


Figure S1. Map of squamate records for the Arabian Peninsula assembled for this study (18,053 records in total).

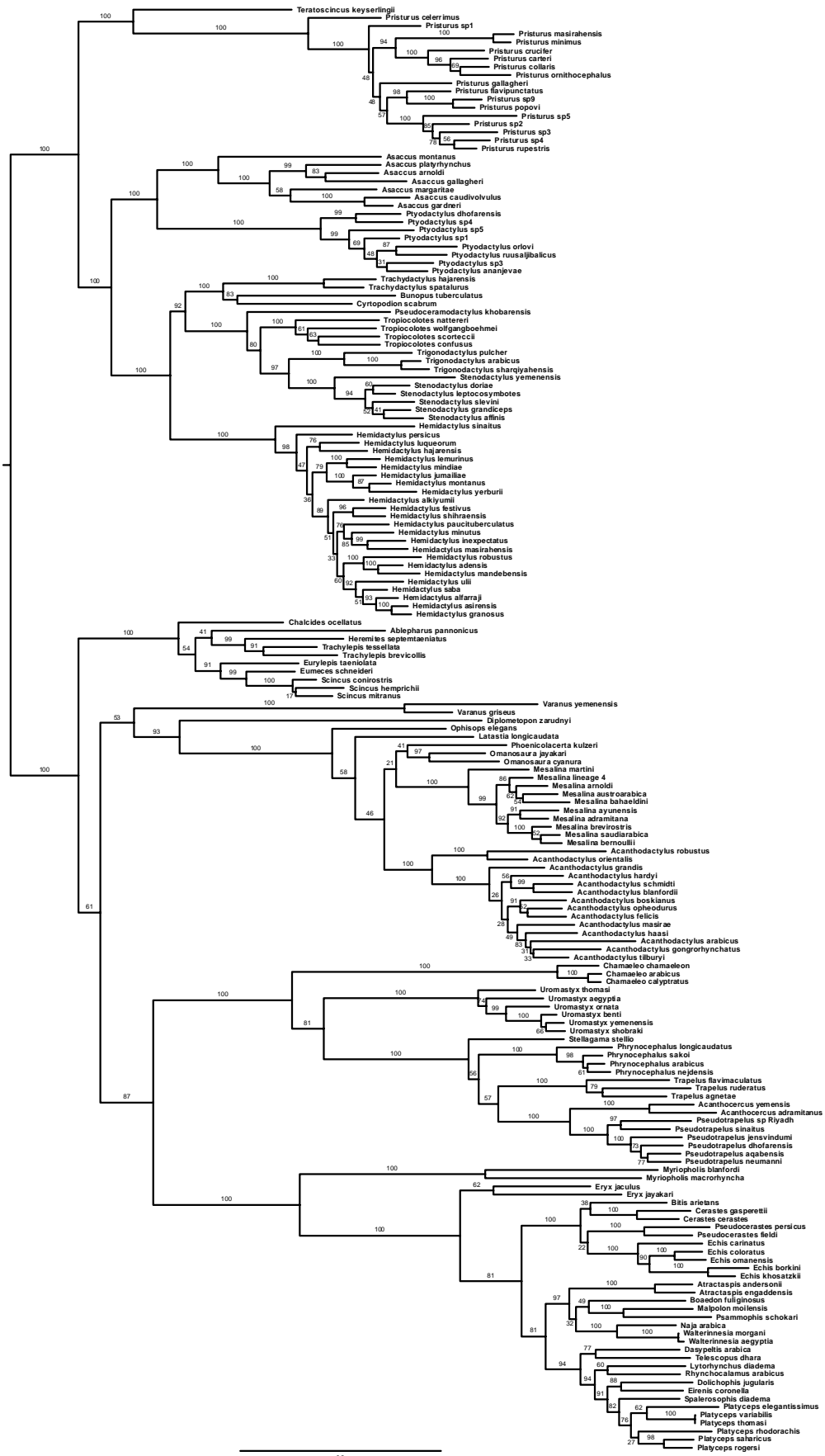


Figure S2. Phylogenetic tree of Arabian squamates resulting from the ML analysis. Numbers by branches indicate bootstrap support.

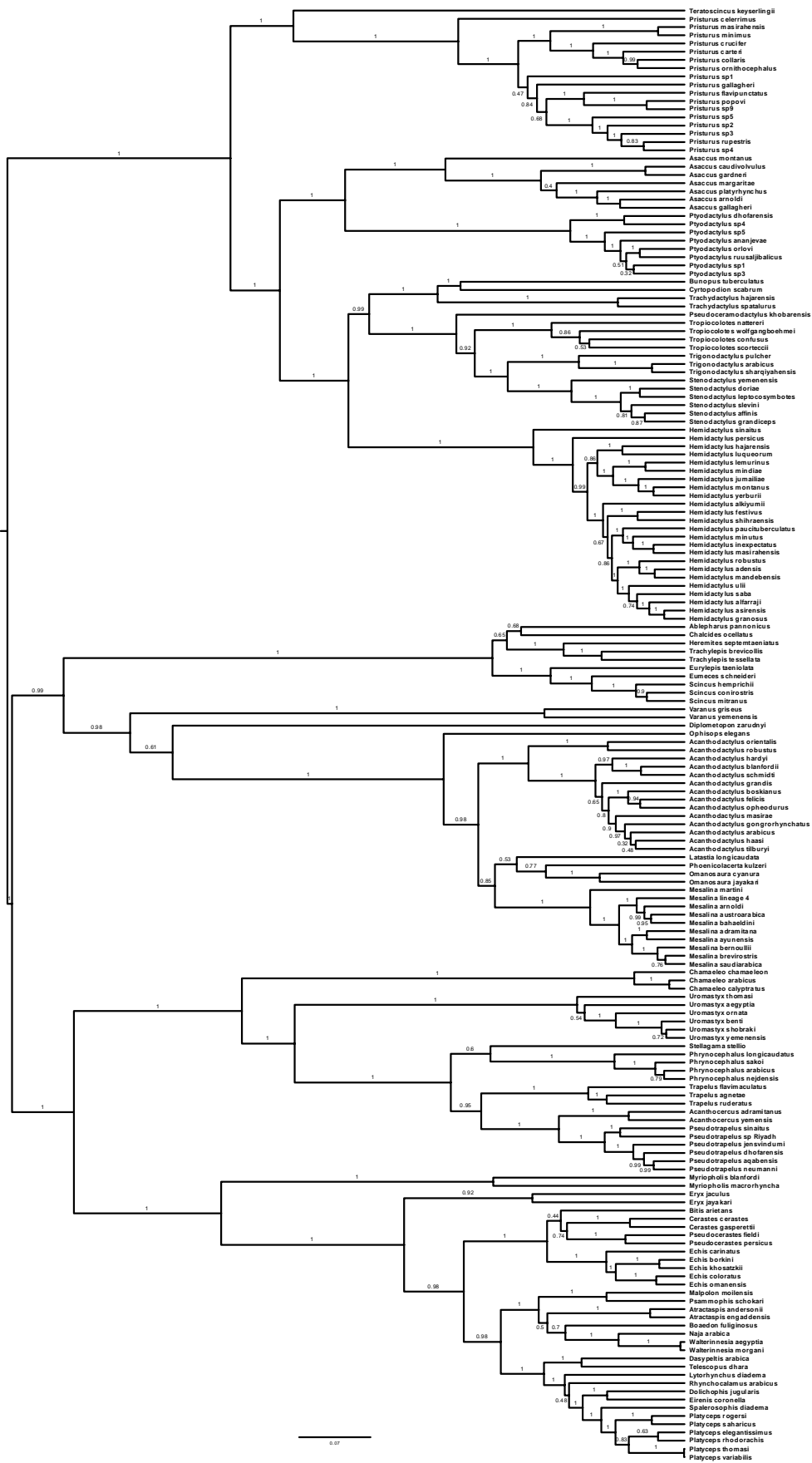


Figure S3. Maximum clade credibility tree of Arabian squamates resulting from the Bayesian analysis. Numbers by branches indicate posterior probabilities.

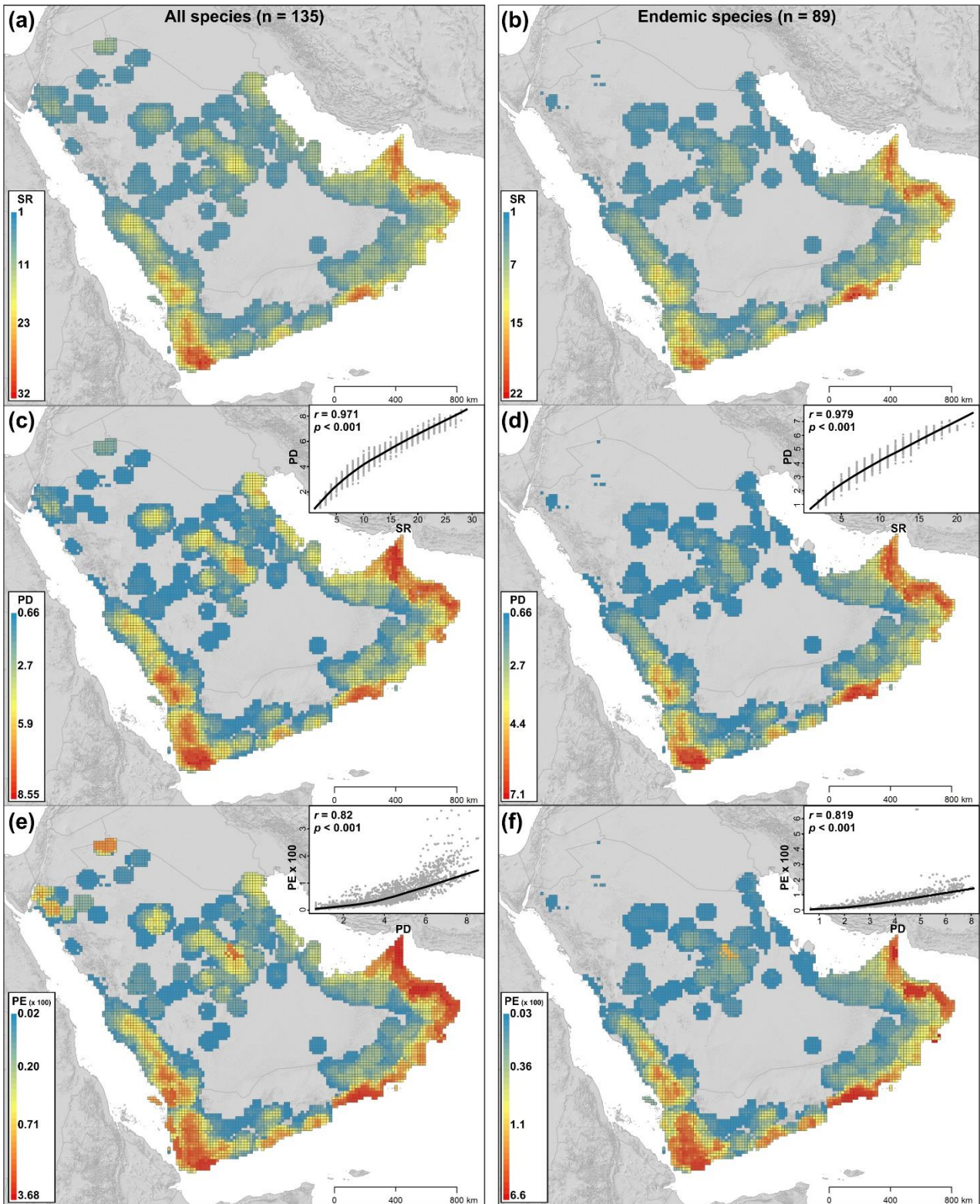


Figure S4. Arabian squamate species richness (SR), phylogenetic diversity (PD), and phylogenetic endemism (PE) based on the GPS maps (distribution records with precision ~ 1 km or better; 13,898 records). Maps in the left column (a, c, e) are based on analyses of all species, right column (b, d, f) shows maps for Arabian endemics. Plots in the insets of (c) and (d) show the relationship between PD (y axis) and SR (x axis), those in (e) and (f) show the relationship between PE (y axis) and PD (x axis), with the *loess* regression lines in black. Correlation of the metrics (Pearson's r), as well as its statistical significance, is in the upper left corner of each plot.

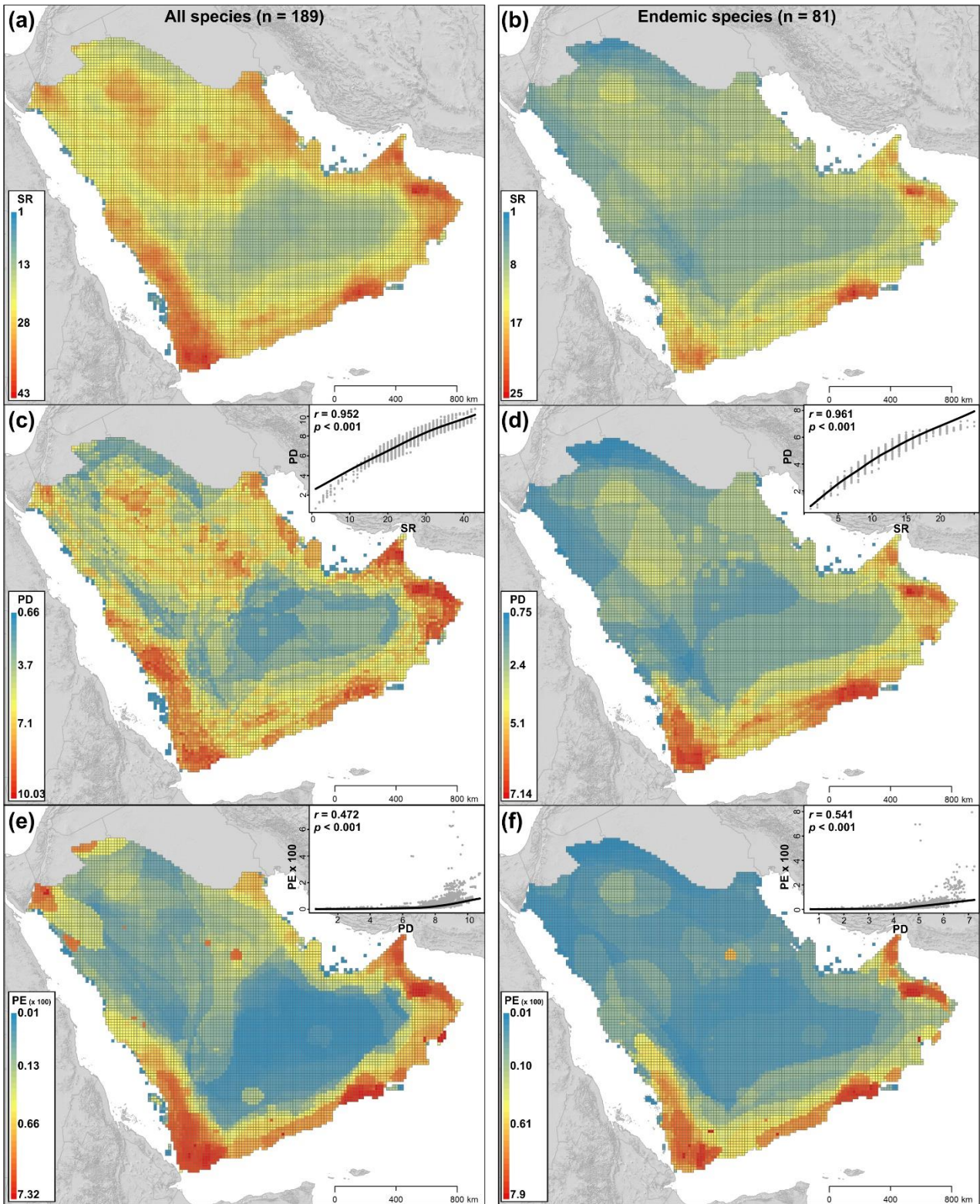


Figure S5. Arabian squamate species richness (SR), phylogenetic diversity (PD), and phylogenetic endemism (PE) based on distribution maps published by Roll et al. (2017). Maps in the left column (a, c, e) are based on analyses of all species, right column (b, d, f) shows maps for Arabian endemics. Plots in the insets of (c) and (d) show the relationship between PD (y axis) and SR (x axis), those in (e) and (f) show the relationship between PE (y axis) and PD (x axis), with the *loess* regression lines in black. Correlation of the metrics (Pearson's r), as well as its statistical significance, is in the upper left corner of each plot.

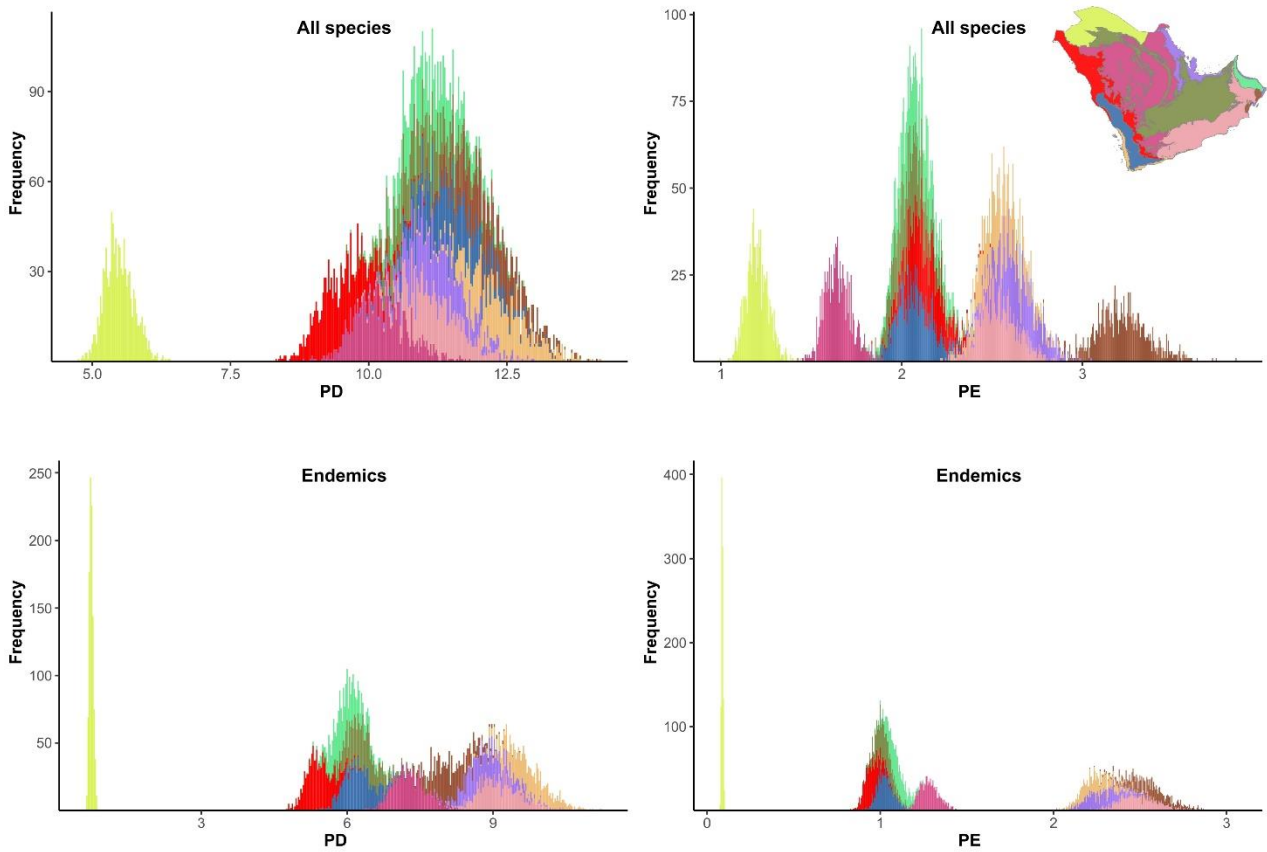


Figure S6. Frequency histograms of phylogenetic diversity (PD; units = sum of the branch lengths in the phylogeny that connect all species present in a ecoregion) and phylogenetic endemism (PE; units = sum of the branch lengths divided by clade ranges) of Arabian ecoregions generated with 1,000 randomly sampled trees from the posterior of the BI phylogenetic analysis without accounting for the ecoregion area. Plots in the upper panes are based on analyses of all species, lower panes show plots for Arabian endemics. Histogram colors correspond to the different ecoregions plotted in the upper right corner. For ecoregion names see Fig. 2 in the main text.

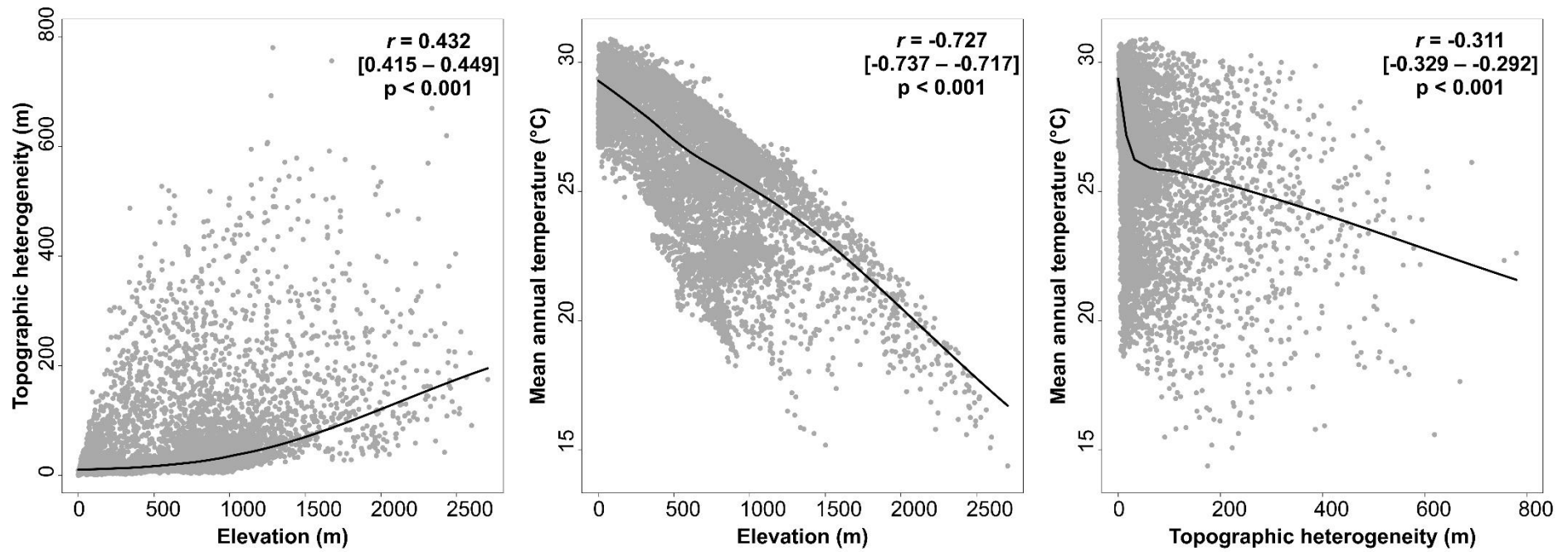


Figure S7. Relationships between elevation, topographic heterogeneity and mean annual temperature in the Arabian Peninsula. Solid black lines indicate fit of the *loess* regression models. Variable correlations (Pearson's r) are in the upper right corners, followed by confidence intervals in brackets and statistical significance.

Table S1. List of native terrestrial squamate species of Arabia. Together with described taxa the list includes also candidate, but yet undescribed species for which original reference is given in the *Reference* column. The column *Unique records* shows the number of unique locality points available for each species. The *Mean AUC* column shows the area under the curve of the receiver operating characteristics curve plot indicating the overall fit of the model and model accuracy. The *Mean TSS* columns shows true skill statistic values, another model evaluation metric that is immune to prevalence. Species with five and less unique records or species endemic to islands were not modelled. Ranges of species that were not modelled or whose predictions were unrealistic were estimated using environmentally informed buffers (see Materials and Methods). Specific environmental buffers were applied to each species depending on the species' habitat requirements and ecology (column *Range inference method*).

Family	Species	Reference	Endemic to Arabia	Unique records	Mean AUC	Mean TSS	Range inference method	Notes; model performance classes follow Araújo et al. (2005)
Agamidae	<i>Acanthocercus adramitanus</i>		YES	139	0.952	0.799	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Acanthocercus yemensis</i>		YES	53	0.983	0.824	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Phrynocephalus arabicus</i>		YES	242	0.766	0.531	50km buffer + slope + soil cropped	
Agamidae	<i>Phrynocephalus longicaudatus</i>		NO	69	0.82	0.491	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Phrynocephalus nejdensis</i>		YES	7	0.773	0.455	SDM	Model performance 'fair', but model realistic
Agamidae	<i>Phrynocephalus sakoi</i>		YES	29	0.994	0.792	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus aqabensis</i>		NO	25	0.902	0.609	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus dhofarensis</i>		YES	104	0.949	0.758	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus jensvindumi</i>		YES	161	0.965	0.841	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus neumanni</i>		YES	77	0.938	0.721	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus sinaitus</i>		NO	8	0.881	0.445	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus</i> sp. Riyadh	Tamar et al. (2019)	YES	14	0.968	0.858	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Stellagama stellio</i>		NO	13	0.935	0.755	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus agnetae</i>		NO	51	0.801	0.527	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus flavimaculatus</i>		YES	163	0.693	0.322	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus ruderatus</i>		NO	62	0.878	0.592	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Uromastyx aegyptia</i>		NO	494	0.7	0.333	50km buffer + slope cropped	
Agamidae	<i>Uromastyx benti</i>		YES	20	0.924	0.715	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Uromastyx ornata</i>		NO	33	0.884	0.677	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Uromastyx shobraki</i>		YES	9	0.85	0.811	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Uromastyx thomasi</i>		YES	19	0.958	0.778	SDM	
Agamidae	<i>Uromastyx yemenensis</i>		YES	9	0.955	0.75	SDM	
Boidae	<i>Eryx jaculus</i>		NO	5	0.856	0.37	SDM	
Boidae	<i>Eryx jayakari</i>		YES	233	0.691	0.258	SDM	Model performance 'poor', but model realistic
Chamaeleonidae	<i>Chamaeleo arabicus</i>		YES	69	0.958	0.738	SDM	
Chamaeleonidae	<i>Chamaeleo calypttratus</i>		YES	63	0.958	0.81	SDM	
Chamaeleonidae	<i>Chamaeleo chamaeleon</i>		NO	72	0.919	0.682	SDM	
Colubridae	<i>Dasypletis arabica</i>		YES	11	0.948	0.728	SDM	
Colubridae	<i>Dolichophis jugularis</i>		NO	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Colubridae	<i>Eirenis coronella</i>		NO	20	0.808	0.511	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	Model performance 'good', but model unrealistic
Colubridae	<i>Lytorhynchus diadema</i>		NO	142	0.673	0.285	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Colubridae	<i>Lytorhynchus gasperetti</i>		YES	9	0.953	0.664	SDM	
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps elegantissimus</i>		YES	38	0.786	0.397	SDM	Model performance 'fair', but model realistic
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps insulanus</i>		YES	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps rhodorachis</i>		NO	310	0.881	0.602	SDM	
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps rogersi</i>		NO	49	0.946	0.724	SDM	
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps saharicus</i>		NO	3	na	na	50km buffer + alt cropped	
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps thomasi</i>		YES	15	0.933	0.589	SDM	
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps variabilis</i>		YES	20	0.953	0.766	SDM	
Colubridae	<i>Rhynchocalamus arabicus</i>		YES	4	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	

Family	Species	Reference	Endemic to Arabia	Unique records	Mean AUC	Mean TSS	Range inference method	Notes; model performance classes follow Araújo et al. (2005)
Colubridae	<i>Spalerosophis diadema</i>		NO	153	0.687	0.289	SDM	Model performance 'poor', but model realistic
Colubridae	<i>Telescopus dhara</i>		NO	157	0.849	0.538	SDM	
Elapidae	<i>Naja arabica</i>		YES	109	0.893	0.648	SDM	
Elapidae	<i>Waltherinnesia aegyptia</i>		NO	10	0.878	0.531	SDM	
Elapidae	<i>Waltherinnesia morgani</i>		NO	33	0.805	0.467	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Bunopus tuberculatus</i>		NO	565	0.624	0.285	50km buffer + slope cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Cyrtopodion scabrum</i>		NO	141	0.812	0.453	50km buffer + slope cropped	Model performance 'good', but model unrealistic
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus adensis</i>		YES	4	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus alfarraji</i>		YES	3	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus alkiyumii</i>		YES	75	0.985	0.828	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus asirensis</i>		YES	18	0.99	0.875	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus endophis</i>		YES	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus festivus</i>		YES	43	0.882	0.545	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus granosus</i>		NO	18	0.786	0.406	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus hajarensis</i>		YES	50	0.967	0.783	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus inexpectatus</i>		YES	15	0.993	0.929	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus jumailiae</i>		YES	21	0.969	0.773	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus lemuringus</i>		YES	28	0.956	0.78	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus luqueorum</i>		YES	31	0.994	0.885	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus mandebensis</i>		YES	2	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus masirahensis</i>		YES	7	0.999	0.499	confined to Masirah Island	Endemic to Masirah Island
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus mindiae</i>		NO	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus minutus</i>		YES	65	0.972	0.777	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus montanus</i>		YES	37	0.987	0.839	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus paucituberculatus</i>		YES	34	0.989	0.857	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus persicus</i>		NO	22	0.875	0.658	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus robustus</i>		NO	228	0.857	0.622	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus saba</i>		YES	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus shihraensis</i>		YES	5	na	na	50km buffer + alt cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus sinaitus</i>		NO	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus ulii</i>		YES	12	0.878	0.516	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	Model performance 'good', but model unrealistic
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus yerburii</i>		YES	36	0.981	0.888	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Pseudoceramodactylus khobarensis</i>		NO	59	0.919	0.564	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Stenodactylus affinis</i>		NO	5	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Stenodactylus doriae</i>		NO	260	0.668	0.264	50km buffer + slope + soil cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Stenodactylus grandiceps</i>		NO	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Stenodactylus leptocymbotes</i>		YES	163	0.905	0.744	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Stenodactylus slevini</i>		YES	129	0.704	0.266	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Stenodactylus yemenensis</i>		YES	32	0.988	0.733	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Trachydactylus hajarensis</i>		YES	122	0.963	0.834	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Trachydactylus spatularis</i>		YES	23	0.829	0.459	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Trigonodactylus arabicus</i>		YES	157	0.803	0.506	50km buffer + slope + soil cropped	
Gekkonidae	<i>Trigonodactylus pulcher</i>		YES	9	0.986	0.597	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Trigonodactylus sharqiyahensis</i>		YES	42	0.983	0.855	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Tropicolotes confusus</i>		YES	11	0.901	0.553	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Tropicolotes nattereri</i>		NO	5	0.864	0.278	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Tropicolotes scortecii</i>		YES	36	0.861	0.577	SDM	
Gekkonidae	<i>Tropicolotes wolfgangboehmei</i>		YES	3	na	na	50km buffer + alt cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus arabicus</i>		YES	25	0.965	0.767	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus blanfordii</i>		NO	26	0.979	0.853	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus boskianus</i>		NO	224	0.592	0.162	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus felicis</i>		YES	41	0.944	0.622	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus gongrorhynchatus</i>		YES	74	0.909	0.661	50km buffer + slope + soil cropped	

Family	Species	Reference	Endemic to Arabia	Unique records	Mean AUC	Mean TSS	Range inference method	Notes; model performance classes follow Araújo et al. (2005)
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus grandis</i>		NO	9	0.963	0.66	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus haasi</i>		YES	25	0.783	0.369	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus hardyi</i>		NO	41	0.865	0.635	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus masirae</i>		YES	30	0.966	0.842	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus opheodurus</i>		YES	164	0.603	0.162	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus orientalis</i>		NO	8	0.984	0.854	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus robustus</i>		NO	9	0.982	0.813	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus schmidti</i>		YES	460	0.717	0.365	50km buffer + slope + soil cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Acanthodactylus tilburyi</i>		YES	10	0.791	0.318	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Latastia longicaudata</i>		NO	9	0.94	0.573	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina adramitana</i>		YES	178	0.84	0.593	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina arnoldi</i>		YES	38	0.967	0.799	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina austroarabica</i>		YES	28	0.917	0.637	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina ayunensis</i>		YES	7	0.864	0.671	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	Model performance 'good', but model unrealistic
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina bahaeldini</i>		NO	4	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina bernoullii</i>		NO	38	0.901	0.591	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina brevirostris</i>		NO	78	0.991	0.939	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina lineage 4</i>	Sindaco et al. (2018)	YES	39	0.935	0.744	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina martini</i>		NO	4	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Mesalina saudi-arabica</i>		YES	11	0.815	0.56	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Omanosaura cyanura</i>		YES	61	0.987	0.882	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Omanosaura jayakari</i>		YES	151	0.975	0.883	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Ophisops elbaensis</i>		YES	11	0.948	0.624	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Ophisops elegans</i>		NO	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Lacertidae	<i>Philochortus neumanni</i>		YES	15	0.959	0.777	SDM	
Lacertidae	<i>Phoenicolacerta kulzeri</i>		NO	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Lamprophiidae	<i>Atractaspis andersonii</i>		YES	64	0.709	0.315	SDM	Model performance 'fair', but model realistic
Lamprophiidae	<i>Atractaspis engaddensis</i>		NO	2	na	na	50km buffer + alt cropped	
Lamprophiidae	<i>Boaedon fuliginosus</i>		NO	17	0.958	0.787	SDM	
Lamprophiidae	<i>Malpolon moilensis</i>		NO	244	0.581	0.118	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Lamprophiidae	<i>Psammophis schokari</i>		NO	386	0.626	0.178	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Leptotyphlopidae	<i>Myriopholis blanfordi</i>		YES	2	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Leptotyphlopidae	<i>Myriopholis burii</i>		YES	2	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Leptotyphlopidae	<i>Myriopholis macrorhyncha</i>		NO	44	0.717	0.367	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Leptotyphlopidae	<i>Myriopholis nursii</i>		YES	43	0.9	0.648	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Asaccus arnoldi</i>		YES	14	0.978	0.855	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Asaccus caudivolvulus</i>		YES	4	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Asaccus gallagheri</i>		YES	66	0.984	0.852	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Asaccus gardneri</i>		YES	27	0.996	0.881	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Asaccus margaritae</i>		YES	9	0.998	0.711	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Asaccus montanus</i>		YES	29	0.992	0.929	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Asaccus platyrhynchus</i>		YES	40	0.98	0.784	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Ptyodactylus ananjevae</i>		YES	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Ptyodactylus dhofarensis</i>		YES	96	0.947	0.755	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Ptyodactylus orlovi</i>		YES	203	0.952	0.768	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Ptyodactylus rusaljibalicus</i>		YES	29	0.996	0.942	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Ptyodactylus sp1</i>	Metallinou et al. (2015)	YES	19	0.838	0.441	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Ptyodactylus sp3</i>	Metallinou et al. (2015)	YES	30	0.873	0.578	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Ptyodactylus sp4</i>	Metallinou et al. (2015)	YES	37	0.962	0.817	SDM	
Phyllodactylidae	<i>Ptyodactylus sp5</i>	Metallinou et al. (2015)	YES	10	0.906	0.538	SDM	
Scincidae	<i>Ablepharus pannonicus</i>		NO	37	0.867	0.725	SDM	
Scincidae	<i>Chalcides levitoni</i>		YES	3	na	na	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Scincidae	<i>Chalcides ocellatus</i>		NO	114	0.797	0.427	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	

Family	Species	Reference	Endemic to Arabia	Unique records	Mean AUC	Mean TSS	Range inference method	Notes; model performance classes follow Araújo et al. (2005)
Scincidae	<i>Eumeces schneideri</i>		NO	7	0.543	0.018	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Scincidae	<i>Eurylepis taeniolata</i>		NO	21	0.826	0.435	SDM	
Scincidae	<i>Heremites septemtaeniatus</i>		NO	22	0.985	0.868	SDM	
Scincidae	<i>Scincus conirostris</i>		NO	60	0.56	0.135	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Scincidae	<i>Scincus hemprichii</i>		YES	36	0.992	0.88	SDM	
Scincidae	<i>Scincus mitranus</i>		YES	342	0.717	0.353	50km buffer + slope + soil cropped	
Scincidae	<i>Trachylepis brevicollis</i>		NO	159	0.845	0.565	SDM	
Scincidae	<i>Trachylepis tessellata</i>		YES	93	0.931	0.735	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus carteri</i>		YES	260	0.93	0.757	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus celerrimus</i>		YES	195	0.985	0.872	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus collaris</i>		YES	29	0.982	0.864	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus crucifer</i>		YES	20	0.937	0.773	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus flavipunctatus</i>		NO	83	0.936	0.758	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus gallagheri</i>		YES	44	0.989	0.795	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus masirahensis</i>		YES	7	na	na	confined to Masirah Island	Endemic to Masirah Island
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus minimus</i>		YES	142	0.94	0.857	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus ornithocephalus</i>		YES	16	0.97	0.787	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus popovi</i>		YES	24	0.991	0.888	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus rupestris</i>		NO	187	0.976	0.873	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus saada</i>		YES	6	0.981	0.8	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus schneideri</i>		YES	1	na	na	confined to Hanish Islands	Endemic to Hanish Islands
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i> sp1	Badiane et al. (2014)	YES	384	0.868	0.6	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i> sp2	Garcia-Porta et al. (2017)	YES	29	0.999	0.899	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i> sp3	Garcia-Porta et al. (2017)	YES	197	0.96	0.786	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i> sp4	Garcia-Porta et al. (2017)	YES	2	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i> sp5	Garcia-Porta et al. (2017)	YES	72	0.931	0.672	SDM	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i> sp9	Ongoing <i>Pristurus</i> project	YES	1	na	na	50km buffer + alt (±250m) cropped	
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Teratoscincus keyserlingii</i>		NO	63	0.998	0.945	SDM	
Trogonophidae	<i>Agamodon arabicus</i>		YES	8	0.994	0.792	SDM	
Trogonophidae	<i>Diplometopon zarudnyi</i>		NO	110	0.88	0.624	SDM	
Varanidae	<i>Varanus griseus</i>		NO	201	0.608	0.207	50km buffer + alt + slope cropped	
Varanidae	<i>Varanus yemenensis</i>		YES	37	0.959	0.813	SDM	
Viperidae	<i>Bitis arietans</i>		NO	62	0.923	0.711	SDM	
Viperidae	<i>Cerastes cerastes</i>		NO	28	0.987	0.82	SDM	
Viperidae	<i>Cerastes gasperettii</i>		YES	270	0.503	0.052	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Viperidae	<i>Echis borkini</i>		YES	46	0.961	0.827	SDM	
Viperidae	<i>Echis carinatus</i>		NO	78	0.973	0.85	SDM	
Viperidae	<i>Echis coloratus</i>		NO	163	0.666	0.257	50km buffer + alt + slope + soil cropped	
Viperidae	<i>Echis khosatzkii</i>		YES	37	0.924	0.623	SDM	
Viperidae	<i>Echis omanensis</i>		YES	97	0.97	0.813	SDM	
Viperidae	<i>Pseudocerastes fieldi</i>		NO	6	0.952	0.546	SDM	
Viperidae	<i>Pseudocerastes persicus</i>		NO	31	0.985	0.824	SDM	

Table S2. Primers used to amplify and sequence the genetic markers targeted in this study. The table shows information on the genome type, gene and primer name, primer orientation (forward [F] or reverse [R]), primer nucleotide sequence (5' to 3'), length of the fragment amplified, annealing temperature used for the amplification, and original reference.

Genome	Gene	Primer	Orientation	Sequence	Amplicon length	Annealing Temp	Primer source	
mtDNA	12S	12S268	F	GTGCCAGCGACCGCGTTACACG	ca. 620bp	65°C	Schätti and Utiger (2001)	
		12S916	R	GTACGCTTACCATGTTACGACTTGCCTG				
	12S	12Sa	F	AAACTGGGATTAGATACCCCACTAT	ca. 400bp	48°C	Kocher et al. (1989)	
		12Sb	R	GAGGGTGACGGGCGGTGTGT				
	16S	16Sa	F	CGCCTGTTTAAACAAAAACAT	ca. 500bp	48°C	Palumbi et al. (1991)	
		16Sb	R	CCGGTCTGAACTCAGATCACGT				
	cytb	L14910	F	GACCTGTGATMTGAAAACCAYCGTTGT	ca. 1100bp	46°C	Burbrink et al. (2000)	
		H16064	R	CTTTGGTTTACAAGAACAATGCCTTA				
		cytb1	F	CCATCCAACATCTCAGCATGATGAAA	307bp	46°C	Kocher et al. (1989)	
		cytb2	R	CCCTCAGAATGATATTGTCTCA				
		COIb	COIb	F	TAAATAATATAAGCTTCTGACTGCTACCACC	642bp	65°C	Schätti and Utiger (2001)
			COIbdeg	R	ATTATTGTTGCGYCTGTRAARTAGGCTCG			
	RepCOI	RepCOI_F	F	TNTTMTCAACNAACCACAAAAGA	664bp	48.5°C	Nagy et al. (2012)	
		RepCOI_R	R	ACTTCTGGRTGKCCAAARAATCA				
ND2	L4437	F	AAGCTTTCGGGCCCATACC	983bp	50°C	Macey et al. (1997)		
	H5540	R	TTTAGGGCTTTGAAGGC					
ND4	ND4_F	F	CACCTATGACTACCAAAAGCTCATGTAGAAGC	696bp + 167bp flanking tRNAs	48°C	Arèvalo et al. (1994)		
	Leu_R	R	CATTACTTTTACTTGGATTGACCA					
acm4	Int-F	F	TTYCTGAAGAGCCCTCTGGTC	364 bp	55°C	Gamble, Simons, et al. (2008)		
	Int-R	R	CAAATTTCTGGCAACATTRGC					
cmos	FUF	F	TTTGGTTCKGTCTACAAGGCTAC	ca. 400bp	53°C	Gamble, Bauer, et al. (2008)		
	FUR	R	AGGGAACATCCAAGTCTCCAAT					
	S77	F	CATGGACTGGGATCAGTTATG	567bp	53°C	Lawson et al. (2005)		
	S78	R	CCTTGGGTGTGATTTTCTCACCT					
mc1r	MC1RF	F	AGGCNGCCATYGTCAAGAACCGGAACC	ca. 670bp	56°C	Pinho et al. (2010)		
	MC1RR	R	CTCCGRAAGGCRATAATGATGGGGTCCAC					
NT3	F3	F	ATATTTCTGGCTTTTCTCTGTGGC	ca. 480bp	50°C	Noonan and Chippindale (2006)		
	R4	R	GCGTTTCATAAAAATATTGTTGACCGG					
rag1	R13	F	TCTGAATGGAAATCAAGCTGTT	ca. 1000bp	58°C	Groth and Barrowclough (1999)		
	R18	R	GATGCTGCCTCGGTCCGGCACCTTT					
rag2	PY1F	F	CCCTGAGTTTGGATGCTGTACTT	410bp	53°C	Gamble, Bauer, et al. (2008)		
	PY1R	R	AACTGCCTRTTGTCCCTGGTAT					

Table S3. Specimens newly sequenced for this study, with their sample and collection codes and locality details. Museum acronyms are as follows: IBES – Institute of Evolutionary Biology, Barcelona, Spain; NMP – National Museum in Prague, Czech Republic; SMNH - Steinhardt Museum of Natural History, Tel Aviv, Israel.

Family	Genus	Species	Sample code	Collection number	Country	GPS	Markers sequenced <i>de novo</i>
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus</i>	<i>agnetae</i>	BEV10192	-	Israel	31.0413N, 34.7376E	16S, CYTB, ND4, ACM4, CMOS, MC1R
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus</i>	<i>flavimaculatus</i>	CN8128	IBE CN8128	Oman	21.48861N, 58.25798E	16S, ND4, ACM4, CMOS, MC1R
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus</i>	<i>runderatus</i>	BEV10064	-	Kuwait	28.7467N, 48.3366E	16S, CYTB, ND4, ACM4, CMOS, MC1R
Boidae	<i>Eryx</i>	<i>jayakari</i>	CN5907	-	Oman	22.16556N, 58.58795E	12S, 16S, CYTB
Colubridae	<i>Eirenis</i>	<i>coronella</i>	R17839	SMNH R17839	Israel	31.27N, 35.218E	12S, 16S, CYTB, ND2, ND4, CMOS, NT3
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>thomasi</i>	OM137	NMP 74279	Oman	16.8859N, 53.7775E	12S, CYTB
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>variabilis</i>	OM60	-	Oman	16.8859N, 53.7775E	12S, CYTB
Elapidae	<i>Walterinnesia</i>	<i>morgani</i>	CN12091	-	Saudi Arabia	-	12S, 16S, CYTB, ND2, ND4, CMOS, RAG1
Gekkonidae	<i>Bunopus</i>	<i>tuberculatus</i>	CN819	-	UAE	24.99638N, 55.66103E	12S, COI
Gekkonidae	<i>Tropicolotes</i>	<i>wolfgangboehmei</i>	CN15783	NMP 76035	Saudi Arabia	25.45933N, 46.56276E	16S, CMOS, MC1R
Lamprophiidae	<i>Atractaspis</i>	<i>andersonii</i>	JIR22	-	Oman	17.172866N, 54.091813E	CYTB
Lamprophiidae	<i>Atractaspis</i>	<i>andersonii</i>	CN5950	-	Oman	17.10531N, 54.454563E	12S, 16S, ND4, CMOS
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	<i>carteri</i>	S7195	-	Oman	17.04136N, 54.32605E	MC1R
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	<i>celerrimus</i>	AO72	-	Oman	23.17333N, 57.43194E	CMOS
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	<i>collaris</i>	JEM593	-	Yemen	14.38N, 49.2E	CMOS, MC1R
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	<i>flavipunctatus</i>	JEM228	-	Yemen	13.31N, 43.57E	ACM4, MC1R
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	<i>gallagheri</i>	AO19	-	Oman	22.78667N, 57.59389E	MC1R
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	<i>ornithocephalus</i>	JEM646	-	Yemen	14N, 48.19E	12S, ACM4, MC1R, RAG1, RAG2
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	<i>popovi</i>	S10506	IBES10506	Saudi Arabia	18.26042N, 42.37877E	ACM4, CMOS, MC1R
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	<i>rupestris</i>	S7553	IBES7553	Oman	23.13167N, 58.61889E	ACM4
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	sp1	JEM305	-	Yemen	16.39N, 53.05E	CMOS, MC1R
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	sp2	S7264	-	Oman	22.84549N, 59.13829E	ACM4, CMOS, MC1R, RAG1, RAG2
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	sp3	S7475	IBES7475	Oman	23.13968N, 57.8442E	ACM4, CMOS, MC1R, RAG1, RAG2
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	sp4	S7257	IBES7257	Oman	23.13167N, 58.61889E	ACM4
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	sp5	S7552	IBES7552	Oman	22.76253N, 58.85312E	ACM4
Sphaerodactylidae	<i>Pristurus</i>	sp9	JEM248	-	Yemen	13.52N, 45.48E	12S, ACM4, MC1R, RAG1, RAG2

Table S4. List of Arabian squamates used in this study along with information on whether each species was included in the phylogenetic analysis (column ‘In tree’) and GenBank accession numbers of the DNA sequences. Locality data and collection numbers of the newly sequenced specimens are detailed in Table S3. GenBank accessions of sequences newly generated for this study are in the ranges MW198193–MW198209 and MW204503–MW204568.

Family	Genus	Species	In tree	12S	16S	CYTB	COI	ND1	ND2	ND4	ACM4	BDNF	CMOS	MC1R	NT3	PDC	PRLR	RAG1	RAG2
Agamidae	<i>Acanthocercus</i>	<i>adramitanus</i>	YES		KU097507					KU169222			KU097582	KU097645					
Agamidae	<i>Acanthocercus</i>	<i>yemenensis</i>	YES		KU097509					KU169224			KU097581	KU097646					
Agamidae	<i>Phrynocephalus</i>	<i>arabicus</i>	YES				KT182055		KF691651	KF691675		KJ363434						KJ363507	
Agamidae	<i>Phrynocephalus</i>	<i>longicaudatus</i>	YES			KF691623	KF691707		KF691650	KF691674		KJ363433							
Agamidae	<i>Phrynocephalus</i>	<i>neidensis</i>	YES				KT182061												
Agamidae	<i>Phrynocephalus</i>	<i>sakoi</i>	YES				KT182047		KJ195909										KJ195950
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus</i>	<i>aqabensis</i>	YES		KU097464		KP994947			KU169191			KU097554	KU097630					KP994934
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus</i>	<i>dhofanensis</i>	YES		KU097450		KP979759			KU169176			KU097574	KU097590					KP994932
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus</i>	<i>jensvindingi</i>	YES		KU097476		KP979760			KU169202			KU097533	KU097607					KP994936
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus</i>	<i>neumanni</i>	YES		KU097474					KU169200			KU097556	KU097638					
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus</i>	<i>sinalus</i>	YES		KU097434		KP994943			KU169157			KU097526	KU097643	JX839249				KP994929
Agamidae	<i>Pseudotrapelus</i>	sp. Riyadh	YES							MK176910			MK176912	MK176914					
Agamidae	<i>Stellagama</i>	<i>stellio</i>	YES		GU128464					GU128500			JX838986		JX839247				
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus</i>	<i>agnetae</i>	YES		MW198205	MW204509				MW204517	MW204529		MW204542	MW204556					
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus</i>	<i>flavimaculatus</i>	YES		MW198206					MW204519	MW204530		MW204544	MW204558					
Agamidae	<i>Trapelus</i>	<i>ruderatus</i>	YES		MW198207	MW204510				MW204518	MW204531		MW204543	MW204557					
Agamidae	<i>Uromastix</i>	<i>aegyptia</i>	YES	FJ639658	FJ639620	MF960631				MF993250	MF960319			MF960419	MF960515				
Agamidae	<i>Uromastix</i>	<i>benti</i>	YES		EF081056	MF960603				MF993220	MF960288			MF960393	MF960496				
Agamidae	<i>Uromastix</i>	<i>ornata</i>	YES	AB641361	EF081046	MF960626			AB641376	MF993245	MF960313			MF960413	MF960510				
Agamidae	<i>Uromastix</i>	<i>shobraki</i>	YES		EF081068	MF960599				MF993215	MF960286			MF960392	MF960494				
Agamidae	<i>Uromastix</i>	<i>thomasi</i>	YES		MF980217	MF960591				MF993210	MF960280			MF960388	MF960490				
Agamidae	<i>Uromastix</i>	<i>yemenensis</i>	YES	AB114447	AB114447	AB114447	AB114447	AB114447	AB114447	AB114447	MF960295			MF960396	MF960499				
Boidae	<i>Eryx</i>	<i>jayakari</i>	YES	MW198196	MW198204	MW204508							DQ465566	DQ465565					
Boidae	<i>Eryx</i>	<i>jaculus</i>	YES			KJ841055	KU986317												
Colubridae	<i>Daspeltis</i>	<i>arabica</i>	YES		AY611854	AY612036								AY611945					
Colubridae	<i>Dolichophis</i>	<i>igularis</i>	YES			AY486917		AY486968	AY487007	AY487046				AY486941					
Colubridae	<i>Eirenis</i>	<i>coronella</i>	YES	MW198195	MW198203	MW204505			MW204512	MW204515					MW204534			MW204559	
Colubridae	<i>Lytrochilus</i>	<i>diadema</i>	YES	KX909259	KX909293	KX909324								KX909363					
Colubridae	<i>Lytrochilus</i>	<i>gasperetti</i>	NO																
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>elegantissimus</i>	YES	AY039147			AY039185												
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>insulatus</i>	NO																
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>rhodorachis</i>	YES			AY486921		AY486973	AY487012	AY487051			AY486945						
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>rogersi</i>	YES		AY188082			AY486974	AY487013	AY487052			AY188002						
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>saharicus</i>	YES		MF767311	MF767373	MF767350												
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>variabilis</i>	YES		MW198200														
Colubridae	<i>Platyceps</i>	<i>thomasi</i>	YES		MW198199	MW204507													
Colubridae	<i>Rhynchocalamus</i>	<i>arabicus</i>	YES		KT878842	KT878854								KT878851					
Colubridae	<i>Spalerosophis</i>	<i>diadema</i>	YES	KX694605	KX694668	KX694865						KX694764		KX694820		KX695051			
Colubridae	<i>Telescopus</i>	<i>dhara</i>	YES	MK372073	MK372111	MK373062			MK373097	MK373132				MK373171		MK373243			MK373211
Elapidae	<i>Naja</i>	<i>arabica</i>	YES	GQ359663	GQ359749	GQ359500				GQ359582									
Elapidae	<i>Walterinnesia</i>	<i>aegyptia</i>	YES	U96807		AF217838		AY058963	AY059001	AY058988				AY058943					
Elapidae	<i>Walterinnesia</i>	<i>morgani</i>	YES	MW198201	MW198209	MW204504				MW204513	MW204516			MW204533					MW204564
Gekkonidae	<i>Bunopus</i>	<i>tuberculatus</i>	YES	MW198194			MW204511		JX041317		JQ945641		JQ945535		JQ945355				JQ945427
Gekkonidae	<i>Cyrtopodion</i>	<i>scabrum</i>	YES	AB661665	AB661665	AB661665	AB661665	AB661665	AB661665	AB661665	HQ426355			HQ426352		HQ426275		HQ426448	
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>adensis</i>	YES	KC818735		KC818886								KC818791	KC818944			KC819063	KC819038
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>alfurajii</i>	YES	KX263482		KX263646								KX263624	KX263587			KX263546	KX263522
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>alkiyumi</i>	YES	JQ957038		JQ957168				JQ957121	JQ957236			JQ957236		KU749870		KU749908	JQ957401
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>asirensis</i>	YES	KX263492		KX263656								KX263628	KX263598			KX263556	KX263526
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>endophis</i>	NO																
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>festivus</i>	YES			JQ957179				JQ957322	KU749839		JQ957125	JQ957249		KU749874		KU749912	JQ957408
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>granosus</i>	YES	KF647568		KF647584							KF647576	KF647588				KF647609	KF647609
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>hujarensis</i>	YES	JQ957053		JQ957188				JQ957336	KU749848		JQ957128		KU749878			KU749916	KU749934
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>inexpectatus</i>	YES	JQ957066		JQ957206				JQ957364	KU749843		JQ957141	JQ957274		KU749880		KU749918	JQ957427
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>jumailiae</i>	YES	KC818882		KC818837				KC818770	KC818918			KC818975	KC818918			KC818975	KC819038
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>lemurinus</i>	YES	JQ957061		JQ957199				JQ957351	KU749842		JQ957137	JQ957267		KU749882		KU749920	JQ957423
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>luqueorum</i>	YES	JQ957069		JQ957213				JQ957145	JQ957281		JQ957145	JQ957281		KU749883		KU749921	JQ957430
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>mandebensis</i>	YES	KC818732		KC818883							KC818790	KP238244				KP238241	JQ957409
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>masirahensis</i>	YES	JQ957063		JQ957202				JQ957357	KU749844		JQ957139			KU749884		KU749922	JQ957425
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>mindiae</i>	YES	KC818866		HQ833747							JQ957128					KC818980	JQ957423
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>minutus</i>	YES	KJ189804		KJ189773				KJ189864	KJ189841		KJ189864	KJ189902				KJ189923	KU749936
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>montanus</i>	YES	KX263476		KX263677							KX263640	KX263617				KX263579	KX263542
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>paucituberculatus</i>	YES	JQ957072		JQ957217				JQ957376	KU749840		JQ957151	JQ957285		KU749886		KU749925	JQ957425
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus</i>	<i>persicus</i>	YES	JQ957075		JQ957223					KU749849		JQ957152			KU749887		KU749926	KU749938

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Appendix I.

List of museum catalogues, online sources, and published literature that were used to glean distribution records of Arabian squamates.

Museum catalogues and citizen science websites.

Acronym	Collection/ Website
CAS	California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco, USA
GBIF	Global Biodiversity Information Facility (https://www.gbif.org/)
IBES	Institute of Evolutionary Biology Collection, Barcelona, Spain
iNaturalist	https://www.inaturalist.org/
LACM	Natural History Museum of Los Angeles County, Los Angeles, USA
LSUMZ	Louisiana Museum of Natural History, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, USA
MCCI	Museo Civico di Storia Naturale, Carmagnola, Italy
MCZ	Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA
MVZ	University of California, Museum of Vertebrate Zoology, Berkeley, USA
MZUT	Museo di Zoologia, University of Turin, Torino, Italy
Naturgucker	https://www.naturgucker.de/
NHMUK	Natural History Museum, London, UK
NMP	National Museum Prague, Czech Republic
RBINS	Institut Royal des Sciences Naturelles de Belgique, Brussels, Belgium
SMF	Senckenberg Forschungsinstitut und Naturmuseum, Frankfurt, Germany
TAU	Tel Aviv University, National Museum of Natural History, Tel Aviv, Israel
USNM	National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution, Department of Vertebrate Zoology, Washington D.C., USA
ZFMK	Zoologisches Forschung Institut und Museum Alexander Koenig Bonn, Germany
ZMA	Zoological Museum Amsterdam, Amsterdam, the Netherlands
ZMB	Museum für Naturkunde, Leibniz-Institut für Evolutions- und Biodiversitätsforschung an der Humboldt-Universität, Berlin, Germany

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