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29 **Abstract:** Although Albania has a rich reptile fauna, efforts to reveal its diversity have 30 so far been limited. To fill this gap, we collected available published and unpublished 31 (museum collections, online sources) records of reptile occurrences and conducted 32 several expeditions to search for reptiles in areas with few or no previous records. Our 33 georeferenced database contains 3731 records of 40 species from between 1918 and 34 2015. Based on this comprehensive dataset, we prepared distribution maps for each 35 reptile species of the country. Applying spatial statistics, we revealed that overall 36 sampling effort was clustered, with hotspots associated with easily accessible areas and 37 natural heritage sites. The maximum number of species per cell was 26 with an average 38 of seven. Cells harbouring large reptile diversity were located along the Adriatic and 39 Ionian coasts, on the western slopes of south Albanian mountains, i.e. in areas generally 40 considered as Balkans biodiversity hotspots or potential historical refugia. We found 41 that species presence and diversity is strongly influenced by landscape features. 42 Diversity of land cover, altitudinal variation, temperature and precipitation variation 43 explained the observed pattern in our models. Our study presents the largest database of 44 reptile occurrences to date and is the first to analyse reptile diversity patterns in Albania. 45 The database and the diversity patterns can provide a basis for future macroecological 46 studies and conservation planning.

47

48 Keywords: Balkan Peninsula, range, species richness, biogeography, BIOCLIM,
49 GLMM

50 Introduction

51

The accelerating loss of biodiversity in the 20th century caused major environmental 52 53 concern and is often referred to as the biodiversity crisis (Soulé, 1985). The decline of 54 reptile populations has been reported worldwide and most often linked to habitat loss 55 and degradation, unsustainable trade, expansion of invasive species, pollution, disease, 56 and climatic processes (Gibbons et al., 2000; Cox and Temple, 2009; Sinervo et al., 57 2010; Todd, Willson and Gibbons, 2010). Extinction risk affects 20% of the reptile 58 species globally (Böhm et al., 2013), thus knowledge on their distribution is essential 59 for understanding biogeographic patterns and ecological processes that are fundamental 60 to effective conservation (Zachos and Habel, 2011; Harnik, Simpson and Payne, 2012).

61 Mapping the distribution of reptiles and amphibians has a long history in 62 Europe. After the emergence of national and regional atlases, the first European atlas of 63 amphibians and reptiles was published in 1997 (Gasc et al., 1997). The subsequent 64 increase in the number of records and further or more refined national atlas projects 65 warranted a more recent, updated publication of the atlas (Sillero et al., 2014a). 66 Unfortunately, the recent increase in information is spatially biased, and despite good 67 knowledge of the distribution of most of the European reptile species, there are still 68 regions or countries where data are missing, outdated or of poor quality. Although the 69 Balkan Peninsula was traditionally among these regions, several comprehensive 70 accounts of the distribution and diversity of reptiles have been published recently from 71 this region. Updated distribution maps and patterns of reptile species richness were 72 published in Bulgaria (Stojanov, Tzankov and Naumov, 2011), Greece (Valakos et al., 73 2008), Romania (Cogălniceanu et al., 2013), Republic of Macedonia (Sterijovski,

Tomovič and Ajtič, 2014; Uhrin et al., 2016), Serbia (Tomovič et al., 2014), and a
partial zoogeographical analysis of the herpetofauna was presented also for Bosnia and
Herzegovina (Jablonski, Jandzík and Gvoždík, 2012).

77 One exception is Albania, which is an integral part of the globally important 78 Mediterranean basin biodiversity hotspot (Myers et al., 2000). The exploration of the 79 Albanian herpetofauna started in the early 20th century, when scientists from different 80 countries visited Albania (e.g. Kopstein and Wettstein, 1920; Bolkay, 1921) but was 81 mostly halted in the second half of the century due to the political, cultural and 82 scientific isolation of Albania. Only a few works with reptile records were published 83 from Albania from this period (e.g. Frommhold, 1962; see Haxhiu, 1998 and references 84 therein). The last major updates provided a species list (Dhora, 2010) and coarse-scale 85 distributional data (Bruno, 1989; Haxhiu, 1998) for the country. More recently, several 86 short notes on the systematics, distribution and ecology of particular species or 87 restricted regions provided more information (e.g. Farkas and Buzás, 1997; Haxhiu and 88 Vrenozi, 2009; Oruçi, 2010; Jablonski, 2011). Despite the importance of Albania for 89 understanding the biogeography of Mediterranean reptiles, none of these publications 90 studied the reptile diversity of Albania in detail, resulting in this country being the 91 herpetologically least explored country not only within the Balkans but probably in the 92 whole of Europe (see Sillero et al., 2014a).

The few literature sources above suggest that Albania has a disproportionately large diversity of reptiles and habitats relative to its area. Forty-two terrestrial species and four species of sea turtles are known from the country (Bruno, 1989; Haxhiu, 1998; Jablonski, 2011). Albania has a high diversity of habitats which can host several species. This is related to the geological complexity and highly varied topography of the

country (e.g. 70% of the terrain is mountainous) and the relative stability of a 98 99 Mediterranean climate resulting from little influence of Pleistocene glaciations. There 100 are indications that some of the Miocene-Pliocene speciation centre or Pleistocene 101 glacial refugia of reptiles were located inside or in close vicinity of the territory of 102 today's Albania (Médail and Diadema 2009). For instance, the Hellenides range, where 103 most of the Albanian mountains belong to, is probably one of the most important 104 barriers in Europe that played a role in the allopatric speciation of many terrestrial 105 reptiles (see Gvoždík et al., 2010; Psonis et al. 2017). The number of species endemic to 106 this range (Anguis graeca, Podarcis ionicus, Vipera graeca) and recently detected 107 patterns of hidden genetic diversity (e.g. for Vipera ammodytes, Natrix tessellata, 108 Lacerta viridis complex, Ursenbacher et al. 2008; Guicking, Joger and Wink, 2009; 109 Marzahn et al., 2016) also support the view that this country is highly important for 110 understanding the historical biogeography, explaining the current diversity and 111 designing the conservation of reptiles of the western Balkan region.

For the above reasons, a synthesis and an update of the knowledge on the distribution, species richness and biogeography of reptiles in Albania is highly warranted and timely. The aims of this study were to (i) present a complete and annotated checklist and updated distribution maps of reptile species in Albania, and (ii) analyse patterns in reptile diversity in relation to local environmental factors.

117

118 Materials and Methods

119 Study area

Our study area was the terrestrial part of Albania including freshwaters but excluding marine areas (Fig.
1). The area of the country is 28 748 km², and it has 362 km coastline. It has a large geomorphological
complexity with 71 mountain peaks above 2000 m and 25 above 2500 m elevation. Mountains in the

North and East belong to the Dinarides (e.g. Korab, Prokletije), while the others in the central and southern parts belong to the Hellenides (Pindos; e.g. Tomorr, Ostrovicë, Nemërçkë). West Albania is mostly lowland with many lagoons on the seaside. Albania's territory partially covers the three largest lakes in the Balkan Peninsula, Shkodër, Ohrid and Prespa. As many mountains function as dividing ranges, there are 10 major rivers (e.g. Drin, Shkumbin, Vjosë) with 150 smaller ones. Climate is mostly warm Mediterranean and oceanic in lower altitudes while cold Alpine in higher altitudes. Vegetation is mostly macchia with karst forests and birch forests.

130

131 Collection and georeferencing distributional data

132 We used five sources of information to build a database on Albanian reptiles: published literature, 133 personal communication with other researchers, museums and several online resources, and our own 134 collection of data on reptile occurrences. First, we carefully searched the available primary scientific and 135 grey literature for distributional data. If coordinates were available in these sources, we used the 136 georeferenced coordinates as given (Petrov, 2006; Jablonski, 2011; Jablonski, Vági and Kardos, 2015; 137 Mizsei et al., 2016a; 2016b). If maps were available, we georeferenced them using the GDAL plugin of 138 QuantumGIS 1.8 (Bruno, 1989; Haxhiu, 1998). If geographical coordinates were missing or if we were 139 unable to georeference maps from the literature sources (Chabanaud, 1919; Kopstein and Wettstein, 1920; 140 Werner, 1920; Cabela and Grillitsch, 1989; Farkas and Buzás, 1997; Haxhiu, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c, 141 2000d; Korsós, Barina and Pifkó, 2008; Ursenbacher et al., 2008; Haxhiu and Vrenozi, 2009; Oruçi, 142 2010; Podnar, Mađarič and Mayer, 2014; Saçdanaku and Haxhiu, 2015), we attempted to identify 143 localities using a combination of Google Maps (http://www.maps.google.com), the GeoNames database 144 (http://www.geonames.org) and other websites and blogs. Second, we collected records from the database 145 of the Hungarian Natural History Museum and the following online databases: Global Biodiversity 146 Information Facility (GBIF, http://www.gbif.org, which also contained museum records), Fieldherping.eu 147 (http://www.fieldherping.eu), iNaturalist (http://www.inaturalist.org), TrekNature and 148 (http://www.treknature.com). Finally, we conducted 20 expeditions to Albania between 2009 and 2015, to 149 collect data on the occurrences of herpetofauna. These trips were specifically targeted (i) to survey areas 150 of the country from where no records were previously available from the literature or from the other 151 sources, and (ii) to detect rare species that had less than 10 records in other data sources. We visited all

but two such areas at least twice to reduce the chances of missing species that are secretive, and whose activity depends on season and weather. We documented every field record by photographs of both specimens and habitats. We entered all records with reliable spatial reference into a GIS database. We stored the records from each of the three information sources in a point shape file. We also added the time period of the collection of the records, both for published and unpublished data sources, respectively.

157

158 Taxonomic considerations

159 We identified species based on Arnold & Ovenden (2002) and followed the taxonomy and nomenclature 160 of Sillero et al. (2014a) with the consideration of the recent taxonomic change in Xerotyphlops 161 vermicularis (from Typhlops, Hedges et al., 2014). In addition, we made four decisions based on more 162 recent information. First, although Anguis graeca is the dominant species of slow worm in Albania 163 (Gvoždik et al., 2010), A. fragilis also occurs in the northern part of the country (Jablonski et al., 2016). 164 As the identification of these two species is difficult due to little differences in their morphology and the 165 recent elevation of A. graeca, we merged these taxa as Anguis fragilis/graeca as area borders and 166 overlaps are still unclear. Second, for similar reasons we did not differentiate between Podarcis tauricus 167 and ionicus, we merged them as Podarcis tauricus/ionicus (Psonis et al., 2017). Third, we treated Vipera 168 ursinii graeca as a separate species from V. ursinii as V. graeca, because recent phylogenetic studies 169 supported its species status (Ferchaud et al., 2012; Mizsei et al., 2017). Finally, four sea turtles, Caretta 170 caretta, Dermochelys coriacea, Chelonia mydas and Erethmochelys imbricata, which are known to occur 171 in Albania, were excluded from our analyses because of their coastal and temporary appearance in the 172 country (Casale and Margaritoulis, 2010).

173

174 Spatial analyses

For spatial analyses, we aggregated point records into 10×10 km cells of the grid system of the European Environmental Agency (http:/eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/eea-reference-grids) in ETRS89 Lamberth Azimuthal Equal Area projection (EPSG: 3035). The altitudinal range of the species was calculated using Shuttle Radar Topographic Mission (SRTM) 90 m Digital Elevation Database v4.1 (Jarvis et al., 2008) to uniformly identify elevations for all occurrence points. We calculated the Extent of Occurrence (EOO) of the species by fitting Minimum Convex Polygons to their point records and then

181 intersected it with the territory of Albania using QuantumGIS 2.12. To evaluate whether sampling effort 182 was spatially biased, we tested the pattern of records per cell for spatial autocorrelation using the global 183 Moran's I spatial statistic, considering the null hypothesis that occurrence records are randomly 184 distributed. We used the Moran's I Z-score to visualise and test deviations from the null hypothesis to 185 evaluate if records are significantly (P < 0.05) spatially clustered (Z > 0) or dispersed (Z < 0) relative to 186 the null hypothesis of random distribution. To assess the local patterns in sampling bias within Albania, 187 we used the Getis Ord Gi* spatial statistic (Ord and Getis, 1995) which estimates whether sampling effort 188 was significantly lower (GiZ score < -1.96 indicates coldspot of sampling) or higher (GiZ score > 1.96 189 shows hotspot of sampling) than expected by chance. We used ESRI ArcGIS 10 in this analysis. Finally, 190 we assessed reptile diversity by calculating Shannon's diversity index for each cell using the vegan 191 package in the R statistical environment (R Development Core Team, 2015).

192

193 Environmental data and linear modelling

194 We selected several environmental variables which were expected to explain biodiversity patterns: 195 climate, distance to sea, land cover diversity, altitude and altitudinal diversity. Climate data (all 19 196 variables available) were obtained from the WorldClim database (Hijmans et al., 2005). We reduced the 197 Bioclim variables in a principal component analysis to four components, which explained 98.9% of the 198 total variance (Table 1.). For each cell, we measured the distances of their centroids from the Adriatic or 199 the Ionian Sea shores with the NNJoin 1.2.2 Quantum GIS plugin. We calculated the Shannon-diversity 200 of CORINE Land Cover categories (250 m resolution; European Environmental Agency) in all cells using 201 the LecoS 1.9.8 plugin in Quantum GIS (Jung, 2012). We calculated mean and standard deviation (SD) of 202 altitude in 10×10 km cells based on grid values of the SRTM in 90-m Digital Elevation Database v4.1 203 (Jarvis et al., 2008), using ZonalStatistics in Quantum GIS 2.12.

To evaluate the degree of association between either reptile presence/absence or reptile diversity and environmental predictors, we fitted Generalized Linear Mixed Models (GLMM) for all possible combinations of independent variables (Pinheiro and Bates, 2000). For presence/absence, we assumed binomial error distribution, whereas for reptile diversity, we assumed Poisson error distribution. To control for spatial autocorrelation, we included site as a random factor, whereas to control for sampling bias we included GiZ scores as a random factor. To minimize the effect of phylogenetic relatedness among species, we included species ID nested in order as an additional random factor. Because our dataset contained historical occurrence records from the period 1918-1950 and the climatic variables were from the period 1950-2000, it was possible that the differences in climatic conditions between the two periods could influence the results of the GLMM. To evaluate this potential bias, we ran the GLMMs both with all occurrence records included and with historical (pre-1950) records excluded. The two analyses provided qualitatively identical results, therefore, we decided to present analyses based on the entire dataset.

217 After fitting GLMs, the relative importance of environmental predictors was calculated using a 218 model-comparison technique in an information-theoretic framework (Burnham and Anderson, 2002). In 219 the first step, we calculated Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc) which 220 is a metric of the trade-off between the goodness of fit of the model and its complexity, thus functioning 221 as a measure of information entropy. Next, we assessed the corresponding Akaike weight of each model 222 (ω) which represents the relative likelihood of a model later used to estimate model-averaged parameter 223 values. In the third step, we selected models with substantial support: Akaike differences in the range 0-2 224 indicate substantial level of empirical support of a given model ($\Delta i = AICi - AICmin < 2.0$) (Burnham and 225 Anderson, 2002). We calculated model-averaged parameter estimates (θ) and unconditional standard 226 errors that controlled for model uncertainty (SEu; Burnham and Anderson, 2002) of each variable by the 227 sums of their Akaike weights across all models with substantial support containing the given predictor. 228 For all analyses, we used the R statistical computing environment (R Development Core Team, 2015). 229 Model fitting and consequent model selection were performed by applying the MuMIn package (Bartón, 230 2011).

231

232 Results

233

234 Distributional evaluation

Our list of reptiles in Albania includes 40 species: 5 chelonians, 18 lizards and 17 snakes (Table 2) and we present distribution maps for each species in Supplementary Material (Figs. S1-S40). We collected N = 3731 records from Albania. The earliest

238 records were from 1918 and the latest from 2015 (Fig. 2). The number of records started 239 to increase in the 1990s, after the collapse of isolationist political system in the country 240 (Fig. 2). Of the N = 3731 records, 2706 (72.5%) were collected from the literature, 97 241 (2.6%) through personal communication with other researchers, 33 (0.9%) from internet 242 sources, and 10 (0.3%) from museum collections. We collected N = 885 (23.7%) 243 original observations (Table 2, Fig. 3a). Unpublished records (our own data, personal 244 communications, internet sources and museum collections; N = 1025) made up 27.5% 245 of the dataset. The number of records per species ranged from N = 1 (Tarentola 246 mauritanica) to N = 379 (Testudo hermanni). Minimum cell occupancy was 1 (T. 247 mauritanica), while the maximum was 191 (Vipera ammodytes). The most widely 248 distributed species were T. hermanni, Lacerta trilineata, Lacerta viridis complex, 249 Podarcis muralis, Anguis fragilis/graeca, Natrix natrix, N. tessellata, Dolichophis caspius, Zamenis longissimus and V. ammodytes. Species with restricted distribution (< 250 251 10% of the cells) were Testudo graeca (no recent records), Testudo marginata, T. 252 mauritanica (no recent records), Dalmatolacerta oxycephala, Dinarolacerta 253 montenegrina, Lacerta agilis, Podarcis melisellensis, P. siculus, Zootoca vivipara, Eryx 254 jaculus, Vipera berus, V. graeca and V. ursinii. Seven species showed fragmented ranges (Mediodactylus kotschyi, Algyroides nigropunctatus, Ablepharus kitaibelii, 255 256 Xerotyphlops vermicularis, E. jaculus, Coronella austriaca and Platyceps najadum) and 257 14 occurred at the margins of their overall range (T. graeca, T. marginata, T. 258 mauritanica, D. oxycephala, L. agilis, P. melisellensis, P. siculus, Z. vivipara, X. 259 vermicularis, E. jaculus, V. berus, V. ursinii). The number of unpublished records 260 exceeded that of published records for all species, except for L. trilineata and V. graeca. 261 It is likely that some species had been introduced in Albania outside of their native

range by various human activities. One example is *Hemidactylus turcicus*, which occurs
in towns far from its regular range in the Adriatic coast (e.g. Berat) or *T. mauritanica*(Mačát et al., 2014) and *P. siculus* (Podnar, Mayer and Tvrtkovič, 2005; Mizsei et al.
2016a). Based on previous zoogeographical literature, we classified the reptiles of
Albania into 10 distribution types (Table 2). The most frequent distribution type was
Eastern-Mediterranean (20 species), followed by Southern-European (6 species) and
Turano-Mediterranean (5 species).

269

270 Reptile diversity patterns

271 In our dataset, 303 out of 349 10×10 km cells contained at least one reptile species (Fig. 272 3c). The maximum number of species per cell was 26 and 20 or more species were 273 recorded in 12 cells, mostly in coastal and southern Albania (Fig. 3c). In contrast, zero 274 or few (<5) species were recorded in many of squares in central Eastern Albania and 275 border areas. The average number of species per cell was 7.0 ± 5.79 (mean \pm SD). Most 276 of the cells with high reptile diversity were close to the Adriatic and Ionian coast in 277 West Albania, while the Middle-East of Albania showed lower diversity levels (Fig. 278 2c). However, lower diversity in Eastern Albania might also be a consequence of lower 279 sampling intensity (Fig. 3b). Global Moran's I values showed that overall sampling effort within Albania was spatially clustered (Z = 6.6974, P < 0.0001) (Fig. 4b). The 280 281 Getis Ord Gi* metric identified no sampling coldspots in our dataset. In contrast, 282 several sampling hotspots were identified (Fig. 3b). Sampling hotspots were in the 283 northern Prokletije Mountains, the Adriatic and Ionian coast, and the southern Albanian 284 mountains (northern Pindos range) (Fig. 3b).

285 Most species were recorded between 0 and 1000 m a.s.l., whereas mountain 286 species were usually recorded at 1500 m and above (Fig. 4). The most important 287 predictor for reptile presence and diversity were altitudinal variation (ALT SD), land 288 cover diversity (CORINE DIV), temperature (BIO PC1) and the precipitation variation 289 (BIO PC4) principal components (Table 3). Each of these variables were part of the five 290 best models for both presence and diversity (Table 4). Model-averaged parameter 291 estimates suggested that ALT SD, CORINE DIV, BIO PC1 and BIO PC4 significantly 292 influenced reptile presence, whereas reptile diversity was influenced only by ALT SD 293 and CORINE DIV (Table 5). The effects of ALT SD, CORINE DIV and BIO PC4 were 294 positive, whereas that of BIO PC1 was negative (Table 5, Fig. 5).

295

296 **Discussion**

297

Our study presents the largest database of reptile occurrences in Albania to date and involves all species currently known to occur in the country. In addition, our study is the first analysis of patterns in reptile diversity in Albania. Our database contains data from a large part of the country, i.e., 87% of the 10×10 km grid cells contained at least one occurrence point. In addition, our database now clarifies taxonomic allocations that were ambiguous in the few previous sources of available (see literature records at *L*. *trilineata*, *L*. *viridis* complex, *P*. *erhardii* or *P*. *melissellensis*).

We detected notable longitudinal differences between the western and the eastern parts of the country, with higher diversity in the West than in the East (Fig. 3c). This finding evokes two mutually non-exclusive explanations. First, a large number species is found almost exclusively in the western part of the country along the Adriatic 309 Sea, including Mauremys rivulata, Elaphe quatuorlineata or H. turcicus, for which the 310 geographic range is well documented. In contrast, few species with large ranges occupy 311 the eastern areas almost exclusively, such as P. erhardii. In addition, some of the 312 species distributed in the East exhibit narrower distribution, such as T. graeca (although 313 it is possible that this species was historically misidentified with T. hermanni as 314 continual areal of T. graeca is more eastward), and many species have restricted ranges, 315 i.e. are found only in mountain habitats, such as V. ursinii and Z. vivipara. Second, our 316 database also shows that sampling effort was higher in the western than in the eastern 317 part of the country (Fig. 3b). The western part is more densely populated than the 318 eastern part (CIA, 1990), resulting in a higher level of urbanisation and road density, 319 increasing the chances of encountering reptiles, which may lead to a bias in sampling 320 effort (Kadmon, Farber and Danik, 2004; Beck et al., 2010). Biases probably involve 321 the region of Ohrid and Prespa Lakes and Prokletije Mountains, as these scenic 322 landscapes are often visited by tourists and herpetologists. Another known sampling 323 bias is in the Pindos Mountains in the south, a hotspot of sampling effort, which we 324 visited frequently to conduct field studies on V. graeca (Mizsei et al., 2012, 2016b).

325 The specific behaviour and habitat requirement of reptiles can also lead to 326 sampling biases. Species with the largest number of records are not just well distributed 327 throughout the country, but they are often easily observable during their daytime 328 activity. It is not surprising that T. hermanni has the largest number of records in the 329 dataset (Table 2), as this species has a wide range, is active during the day, and it is easy 330 to observe. A subset of species occupy a wide range of habitats and altitudes, such as 331 Dolicophis caspius, N. natrix and V. ammodytes (Fig. 4), while others colonize urban 332 areas, such as the Lacerta viridis complex or Podarcis muralis (Arnold and Ovenden,

333 2004). Species with special habitat or climatic requirements are represented in our 334 database by fewer records, and include D. montenegrina, V. berus, V. ursinii and Z. 335 vivipara, which inhabit hardly accessible high-altitude montane habitats (Fig. 4). Other 336 species are difficult to record as a result of their secretive behaviour. For example, E. 337 jaculus and Telescopus fallax are mostly nocturnal, while X. vermicularis has a fossorial 338 lifestyle (Arnold and Ovenden, 2004). Some of these secretive species have a large 339 extent of occurrence (EOO, Table 2) but the occurrence records are very scarce and 340 dispersed, as in the case of A. kitaibelii or C. austriaca. In addition, a number of reptiles 341 reach the edge of their range and are only marginally present in Albania, such as D. 342 oxycephala, P. melisellensis, T. graeca (dubious, see above) and T. marginata. Two 343 species, P. siculus, known from a few localities in northern Albania, and T. 344 mauritanica, present only in Sazan Island, are possibly of introduced origin. Both 345 species are highly capable of establishing new populations and are known to be picked 346 up accidentally e.g. by merchant ships both in ancient and recent times (Podnar, Mayer 347 and Tvrtkovič, 2005; Mačát et al., 2014).

348 The importance of mountains has been detected through screening the altitudinal 349 distribution of the species presented here. The majority of reptile species in a 350 Mediterranean landscape inhabit lower elevations, and only a few cold-tolerant species 351 occur up at alpine meadows. That pattern was explained by the analyses of 352 environmental factors affecting species presence and diversity, which identified the 353 "temperature variation" principal component (BIO PC1) as a key climatic explanatory 354 variable, because these ectotherms cannot reproduce on cold temperatures, except the 355 viviparous species (e.g., Zootoca vivipara, Coronella austriaca, Vipera spp.). Elevation 356 diversity on mountains is strongly correlated with temperature, but these altitudinal

357 gradients usually increase the availability of niches on smaller spatial scales (Schall and 358 Pianka, 1978). This effect was mediated by the "precipitation variation" principal 359 component (BIO PC4), which was an important variable in our modelling, in 360 accordance with other studies (Rodríguez, Belmontes and Hawkins, 2005; McCain, 361 2010). In addition to elevational and climate factors, diversity of land cover (CORINE 362 DIV) has strong explanatory power on diversity as expected (Keil et al., 2012), where 363 the presence of remnants of natural habitats can be explained by the variation of altitude 364 (ALT SD).

365 According to recent molecular biogeographical analyses the number of reptile 366 species in Albania will likely increase in the future. Several studies showed hidden 367 diversity of evolutionary distinct lineages in the Balkan Peninsula which facilitates new 368 description of species. In the recent past the Anguis fragilis complex was divided into 369 five distinct species whereby A. fragilis and A. graeca lives in Albania (Gvoždík et al., 370 2010; Jablonski et al., 2016). The Dinaric endemic Dinarolacerta was also divided with 371 D. montenegrina in the Prokletije Mountain and D. mosorensis in the Montenegrin, 372 Croatian and Bosnian karst range (Ljubisavljević et al., 2007; Podnar, Mađarič and 373 Mayer, 2014). There are probably distinct lineages within *Natrix tessellata* (Guicking, 374 Joger and Wink, 2009) and *Lacerta viridis* complex (Marzahn et al., 2016) which are 375 not taxonomically evaluated. The Podarcis tauricus complex was yet divided to two 376 species, P. tauricus and P. ionicus, both present in Albania, but the latter are also a 377 composition of five disctinct lineages where new species descriptions are possible 378 (Psonis et al., 2017). The territory of Albania is located on two main mountain systems 379 of the Balkans, on the Dinarides in the north and on the Hellenides in the south. These mountains can serve as a barrier for migration and thus they can facilitate speciation
(Joger et al., 2007; Jablonski et al., 2016).

382 It seems that range size has the strongest effect on extinction risk beyond other 383 factors with a smaller chance of survival in less widespread species (Harnik, Simpson 384 and Payne, 2012). Thus, our dataset could serve as an important basis for conservation 385 interventions in Albania and this knowledge can also be applied to other countries or 386 regions (Ribeiro et al., 2016). Further, it might also be feasible to create gap-analysis 387 with existing protected areas either with or without the involvement of species 388 distribution modelling (Carvalho et al., 2010; de Pous et al., 2011; de Novaes e Silva et 389 al., 2014). The database could be also integrated into larger areas such as the European 390 continent and thus will fill an important gap for macroecological studies (Sillero et al., 391 2014a, 2014b; Estrada et al., 2015).

392

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417

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Predictor	Description	Data source
BIO PC1	"Temperature" principal component BIO1 = Annual Mean Temperature BIO6 = Min Temperature of Coldest Month BIO11 = Mean Temperature of Coldest Quarter	Hijmans et al., 2005
BIO PC2	"Precipitation" principal component BIO12 = Annual Precipitation BIO16 = Precipitation of Wettest Quarter BIO19 = Precipitation of Coldest Quarter	Hijmans et al., 2005
BIO PC3	"Temperature variation" principal component BIO2 = Mean Diurnal Range (Mean of monthly (max temp - min temp)) BIO4 = Temperature Seasonality (standard deviation *100) BIO7 = Temperature Annual Range (BIO5-BIO6))	Hijmans et al., 2005
BIO PC4	"Precipitation variation" principal component BIO9 = Mean Temperature of Driest Quarter BIO10 = Mean Temperature of Warmest Quarter BIO15 = Precipitation Seasonality (Coefficient of Variation)	Hijmans et al., 2005
CORINE DIV	Shannon diversity of CORINE Land cover in 10×10 km cells	European Environm ent Agency
ALT MEAN	Mean of altitude values in 10×10 km cells, calculated from the SRTM near 90 m data	CGIA-CSI
ALT SD	Standard deviation of altitude values in 10×10 km cells, calculated from the SRTM near 90 m data	CGIA-CSI
SEA DIST	Min distance of 10×10 km cells centroids from the Adriatic sea coast	present study

640 Table 1. Environmental variables used in the study.

	Species	Total records	Published records	Unpublished records	N of presence in 10×10 km cells	EOO (km ²)	Distribution type
1	Ablepharus kitaibelii	24	18	6	22	17106	Eastern-Mediterranean
2	Algyroides nigropunctatus	105	80	25	81	24713	Eastern-Mediterranean
3/4	Anguis fragilis/graeca	196	176	20	147	25879	European/Eastern-Mediterranean
5	Coronella austriaca	39	30	9	33	22170	European
6	Dalmatolacerta oxycephala	2	2	0	2	*	Eastern-Mediterranean
7	Dinarolacerta montenegrina	7	2	5	3	24	Eastern-Mediterranean
8	Dolichophis caspius	182	158	24	136	26107	Eastern-Mediterranean
9	Elaphe quatuorlineata	98	87	11	75	21633	Eastern-Mediterranean
10	Emys orbicularis	164	139	25	101	23892	Turano-Europeo-Mediterranean
11	Eryx jaculus	8	4	4	5	982	Turano-Mediterranean
12	Hemidactylus turcicus	47	39	8	32	11307	Mediterranean
13	Hierophis gemonensis	78	50	28	65	23582	Eastern-Mediterranean
14	Lacerta agilis	10	7	3	7	1647	Euro-Siberian
15	Lacerta trilineata	106	45	61	135	23112	Eastern-Mediterranean
16	Lacerta viridis complex	182	134	48	70	25737	Southern-European
17	Malpolon insignitus	132	101	31	97	21709	Eastern-Mediterranean
18	Mauremys rivulata	68	54	14	44	10253	Eastern-Mediterranean
19	Mediodactylus kotschyi	19	15	4	17	6112	Eastern-Mediterranean
20	Natrix natrix	241	192	49	173	25986	Centralasiatic-Europeo-Mediterranean
21	Natrix tessellata	157	129	28	118	24339	Turano-European
22	Platyceps najadum	49	35	14	44	22422	Turano-European
23	Podarcis erhardii	46	11	35	24	12885	Eastern-Mediterranean
24	Podarcis melisellensis	10	7	3	8	1978	Eastern-Mediterranean
25	Podarcis muralis	298	218	80	186	26273	Southern-European
26	Podarcis siculus	3	1	2	2	14	Southern-European

Table 2. List of reptile species in Albania with their number of records, Extent of Occurrence (EOO) and global distribution type.

27/28	Podarcis tauricus/ionicus	150	105	45	95	24571	Eastern-Mediterranean/Eastern-Mediterranean
29	Pseudopus apodus	101	81	20	75	17237	Turano-Mediterranean
30	Tarentola mauritanica	1	1	0	1	*	Mediterranean
31	Telescopus fallax	78	73	5	63	16620	Turano-Mediterranean
32	Testudo graeca	2	2	0	2	*	Turano-Mediterranean
33	Testudo hermanni	379	238	141	186	25583	Southern-European
34	Testudo marginata	22	15	7	8	1263	Eastern-Mediterranean
35	Xerotyphlops vermicularis	27	19	8	19	8037	Turano-Mediterranean
36	Vipera ammodytes	274	244	30	191	26211	Eastern-Mediterranean
37	Vipera berus	19	13	6	13	2706	Euro-Siberian
38	Vipera graeca	208	1	205	11	2010	Eastern-Mediterranean
39	Vipera ursinii	18	14	4	14	3094	Southern-European
40	Zamenis longissimus	118	110	8	104	25224	Southern-European
41	Zamenis situla	55	51	4	47	17847	Eastern-Mediterranean
42	Zootoca vivipara	8	5	3	5	1155	Euro-Siberian
Total		3731	2706	1025	303		
*N	of records is insufficient to ca	loulate Extent o	f Occurrence				

*N of records is insufficient to calculate Extent of Occurrence.

ence	Shannon diversity				
Importance	Predictor	Importance			
1.000	ALT SD	1.000			
1.000	CORINE DIV	1.000			
1.000	BIO PC1	1.000			
1.000	BIO PC4	1.000			
0.838	BIO PC3	0.577			
0.198	BIO PC2	0.241			
0.153	SEA DIST	0.203			
0.140	ALT MEAN	0.000			
	Importance 1.000 1.000 1.000 1.000 0.00 0.838 0.198 0.153 0.140	Importance Shannon 1.000 ALT SD 1.000 CORINE DIV 1.000 BIO PC1 1.000 BIO PC4 0.838 BIO PC3 0.198 BIO PC2 0.153 SEA DIST 0.140 ALT MEAN			

Table 3. Predictor importance in the two GLMM models.

Variable	Model	ALT SD	CORINE DIV	BIO PC1	BIO PC4	BIO PC3	BIO PC2	SEA DIST	ALT MEAN	Df	AICc	ΔAICc
Presence	1	0.00262	1.62607	-0.16322	0.23513	-0.09439	NA	NA	NA	10	8576.176	0.000
	2	0.00280	1.61176	-0.19995	0.24055	-0.12939	NA	0.00000	NA	11	8577.307	1.131
	3	0.00274	1.54686	-0.16413	0.24503	NA	NA	NA	NA	9	8577.708	1.531
	4	0.00267	1.62798	-0.16368	0.23726	-0.09342	-0.02202	NA	NA	11	8577.825	1.648
	5	0.00262	1.61655	-0.13999	0.20791	-0.09623	NA	NA	-0.00019	11	8578.002	1.826
Diversity	1	0.00121	0.69738	-0.08256	0.11718	NA	NA	NA	NA	7	1934.522	0.000
	2	0.00116	0.72704	-0.08166	0.11181	-0.03502	NA	NA	NA	8	1934.729	0.207
	3	0.00127	0.71770	-0.10660	0.11451	-0.05868	0.00000	0.00000	NA	9	1935.256	0.734
	4	0.00123	0.69929	-0.08282	0.11774	NA	-0.01274	NA	NA	8	1936.145	1.623
	5	0.00118	0.72806	-0.08189	0.11243	-0.03413	-0.01134	NA	NA	9	1936.464	1.942

Table 4. Parameter estimates and AIC values of the best ($\Delta AICc < 2$) GLMM models fitted on the presence and diversity of reptiles in Albania.

Response	Main effect	Estimate	S.E.	z value	Р
Presence	(Intercept)	-6.228	0.674	9.232	0.000
	ALT SD	0.007	0.000	3.542	0.000
	CORINE DIV	1.609	0.203	7.926	0.000
	BIO PC1	-0.167	0.043	3.921	0.000
	BIO PC3	-0.102	0.054	1.885	0.059
	BIO PC4	0.234	0.074	3.150	0.001
	SEA DIST	0.000	0.000	0.994	0.320
	BIO PC2	-0.022	0.037	0.599	0.549
	ALT MEAN	-0.000	0.000	0.424	0.671
Diversity	(Intercept)	-1.320	0.807	-1.635	0.102
	ALT SD	0.002	0.000	2.226	0.026
	CORINE DIV	0.689	0.213	3.227	0.001
	BIO PC1	-0.074	0.085	-0.867	0.385
	BIO PC4	0.094	0.105	0.898	0.368
	BIO PC3	-0.049	0.080	-0.616	0.537
	BIO PC2	-0.011	0.057	-0.201	0.840
	SEA DIST	0.000	0.000	0.366	0.713
	ALT MEAN	-0.000	0.000	-0.350	0.726

Table 5. Model-averaged parameter estimates of GLMMs fitted on reptile presence and diversity. Parameter estimates with significant z-values are indicated in bold.

Figure 1. Geographic map of the study area indicating toponymics mentioned in the text.



Figure 2. Number of records by year of publication (published sources) or year of data collection (unpublished sources). Vertical line indicates the year when the former isolationist political system ended in Albania (1991).



Figure 3. Sources of occurrence records of reptile species used in the present study (A), sampling hotspots (GiZ score > 1.0) and coldspots (GiZ score < -1.0), with significantly clustered or dispersed records based on Moran's I values (dots) (B), and reptile species richness (numbers) with Shannon diversity (shading) (C) in Albania on a 10×10 km grid.



Figure 4. Altitudinal distribution of reptile species and frequency of occurrence records by altitude in Albania. Box-and-whiskers plots show the median (horizontal line), the 25th and 75th percentile (bottom and top of box, respectively), minimum and maximum values (lower and upper whiskers, respectively) and outliers (circles). Grey line (red in the online colour version) is the frequency distribution of altitudinal values in Albania.



Figure 5. Species presence and Shannon diversity as a function of the most important predictors identified by GLMM model selection (for abbreviations, see Table 1.).

