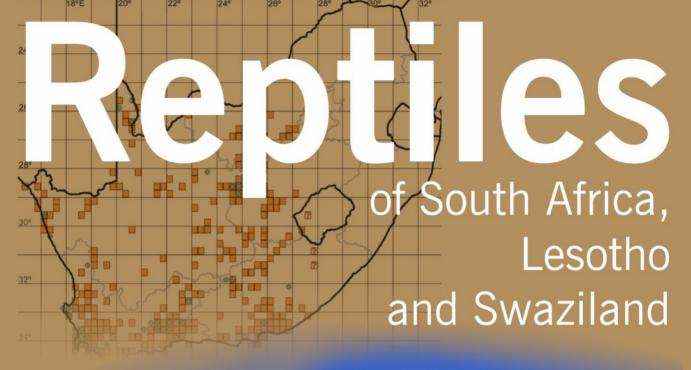
Atlas and Red List of the





Edited by Michael F. Bates, William R. Branch, Aaron M. Bauer, Marius Burger, Johan Marais, Graham J. Alexander & Marienne S. de Villiers

SURICATA 1





































































SURICATA 1

Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland

Edited by

Michael F. Bates, William R. Branch, Aaron M. Bauer, Marius Burger, Johan Marais, Graham J. Alexander & Marienne S. de Villiers



Pretoria

2014

SURICATA

Suricata is the genus name of the suricate (*meerkat*), which is near-endemic to the arid western parts of southern Africa (occurring in Namibia, South Africa and Botswana; and just entering into a very small area in the extreme south of Angola). Behaviourally, suricates are socially inclusive and innately inquisitive, symbolising the commitment of South African National Biodiversity Insitute (SANBI) to include all biodiversity and serve all of Africa, and the scientific curiosity that precedes and drives research and publication of research results. Sister journal to SANBI's *Strelitizia*, *Suricata* is a peer-reviewed journal and publishes original and applied research such as monographs, revisions, checklists, Red Lists, Atlases, and Faunas of any taxa belonging to Regnum Animalia (the Animal Kingdom).

Edited by

Michael F. Bates, William R. Branch, Aaron M. Bauer, Marius Burger, Johan Marais, Graham J. Alexander & Marienne S. de Villiers

TECHNICAL EDITOR: DESIGN & LAYOUT: COVER DESIGN: FRONT COVER PHOTOGRAPH: BACK COVER PHOTOGRAPHS (top to bottom): Alicia Grobler Elizma Fouché Sandra Turck Bryan Maritz W.R. Branch (first two photographs), J. Marais, W.R. Branch, M. Burger, S. Parusnath

Recommended citations:

Reference to book:

BATES, M.F., BRANCH, W.R., BAUER, A.M., BURGER, M., MARAIS, J., ALEXANDER, G.J. & DE VILLIERS, M.S. (eds). 2014. (CD set). Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. *Suricata* 1. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.

References to chapters, including family accounts:

BRANCH, W.R. & BAUER, A.M. 2014. (CD set). Systematics and Phylogeny. In M.F. Bates, W.R. Branch, A.M. Bauer, M. Burger, J. Marais, G.J. Alexander & M.S. de Villiers (eds), Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. *Suricata* 1. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.

References to species and subspecies accounts:

BOYCOTT, R.C. 2014. (CD set). *Pelomedusa subrufa* (Bonnaterre, 1789). In M.F. Bates, W.R. Branch, A.M. Bauer, M. Burger, J. Marais, G.J. Alexander & M.S. de Villiers (eds), Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. *Suricata* 1. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.

ISBN: 978-1-919976-96-9

Obtainable from:SANBI Bookshop, Private Bag X101, Pretoria, 0001 South Africa.Tel.:+27 12 843 5000E-mail:bookshop@sanbi.org.zaWebsite:www.sanbi.org

Copyright © 2014 by South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI)

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced in any form without written permission of the copyright owners.

The views and opinions expressed do not necessarily reflect those of SANBI. The authors and publisher have made their best efforts to prepare this book, and make no representation or warranties of any kind with regard to the completeness or accuracy of the contents herein. All images in this book have been reproduced with the knowledge and prior consent of the artists concerned and no responsibility is accepted by the publisher or printer for any infringement of copyright or otherwise arising from the contents of this publication. Every effort has been made to ensure that the credits accurately comply with the information supplied by the authors.

Contents

| Acknowledgements viii Credits xiv Foreword xv Message from SANBI xvi Preface xvii SECTION 1. INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS xvii SECTION 1. INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS 1 1. Background 1 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2. Initial buy-in 2 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2. Initial buy-in 2 2. Compact governances 2 2. A Project governances 2 2. Compact governances 2 3. Data referencing 3 3. J. Data sources 3 3. J. Data referencing 3 3. A Databaser management 6 | Author address list | vii |
|--|--|----------------------------|
| Foreword xv Message from SANBI xvi Preface xvi SECTION 1. INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS xvii CHAPTER 1: Introduction 1 1. Background 1 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2.1 Initial buy-in 2 2.2 Fore funding 2 2.3 Protect tearn 2 2.4 Project governance 2 2.5 Authors and editors 2 2.5 Outhors and editors 2 2.5 Consciencing 3 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.2 Species inventory 3 3.3.3 Lifted surveys 3 3.3.2 Virtual Museum 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 7 3.6 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data pregraphical coverage 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Chechonaleonidae 14 4.2 Conservation asses | Acknowledgements | viii |
| Message from SANBI xvi Preface xviii SECTION 1. INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS CAPAFTER 1: Introduction 1 1. Background 1 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2. 1 Initial buy-in 2 2. 2 Core funding 2 2. 3 Project team 2 2. 4 Project governance 2 2. 5 Authors and celtors 2 2. 6 Members of the public 2 3. 1 Data referencing 3 3. 2 Species inventory 3 3. 3. 1 Field surveys 3 3. 3. 2. Virtual Museum 6 3. 4. Data base management 6 3. 4. 2 Conservation assessment database 7 3. 5 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3. 6. 1 Sequeration assessment database 7 3. 5 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3. 6. 2 Species coverage 11 1 Chelonia | Credits | xiv |
| Message from SANBI xvi Preface xviii SECTION 1. INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS CAPAFTER 1: Introduction 1 1. Background 1 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2. 1 Initial buy-in 2 2. 2 Core funding 2 2. 3 Project team 2 2. 4 Project governance 2 2. 5 Authors and celtors 2 2. 6 Members of the public 2 3. 1 Data referencing 3 3. 2 Species inventory 3 3. 3. 1 Field surveys 3 3. 3. 2. Virtual Museum 6 3. 4. Data base management 6 3. 4. 2 Conservation assessment database 7 3. 5 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3. 6. 1 Sequeration assessment database 7 3. 5 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3. 6. 2 Species coverage 11 1 Chelonia | Foreword | xv |
| Preface xvii SECTION 1. INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS 1 CHAPTER 1: Introduction 1 1. Background 1 2. Organization of SNRCA 2 2.1. Initial buy-in 2 2.2. Core funding 2 2.3. Drata 2 2.4. Project germance 2 2.5. Muthors and editors 2 2.5. Authors and editors 2 2.5. Authors and editors 2 2.5. Authors and editors 3 3.1. Data referencing 3 3.3. Data sources 3 3.3. J. Field surveys 3 3.3. J. Vittual Museum 6 3.4. 2. Conservation assessment database 6 3.4. 1. Distribution database 7 3.5. Data presentation 7 3.6. Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6. 1. Geographical coverage 9 3.6. 3. Other limitations 9 3.6. 3. Other limitations 9 3.6. 3. Other limitations 9 3.6. 3. Greentida 11 < | | |
| SECTION 1. INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS CHAPTER 1: Introduction 1 1. Background 1 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2.1 Initial buy-in 2 2.2 Core funding 2 2.3 Project team 2 2.4 Project governance 2 2.5 Authors and editors 2 2.6 Members of the public 2 3. Data 3 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.3.1 Field surveys 3 3.3.2 Virtual Museum 6 3.4 Data base management 6 3.4 2 Conservation assessment database 7 3.5 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Gographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6. | - | |
| CHAPTER 1: Introduction 1 1. Background 1 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2. 1 Initial buy-in 2 2. 2 Core funding 2 2. 3 Project team 2 2. 4 Project governance 2 2. 5 Authors and editors 2 2. 6 Members of the public 2 3. Data 3 3. 1 Data referencing 3 3. 2 Species inventory 3 3. 3. Data sources 3 3. 3. 2 Species inventory 3 3. 3. 2 Survitual Museum 6 3. 4 Database management 6 3. 4. Database management 6 3. 4. Data presentation 7 3. 5 Data presentation 7 3. 6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3. 6. 2 Species coverage 10 1. Chelonia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. 3 Cardylidae 12 4. 4 Gakenoldae 13 | | 2011 |
| 1. Background 1 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2. Core funding 2 2. A Project tam 2 2. A Muthors and editors 2 3. Data 3 3. Data referencing 3 3. J Data referencing 3 3. J Pata sources 3 3. J. Field surveys 3 3. J. Stata sources 3 3. J. Data sources 3 3. A Data sources 3 3. A Data sources 7 3. A Data strengths and weaknesses 7 3. Gata strengths and weaknesses 9 3. A. I Distribution database 7 3. Gata strengths and weaknesses 9 3. A. I Descies coverage 9 3. C. Species coverage 9 3. C. Species coverage 9 3. C. Species coverage 11 | | |
| 2. Organization of SARCA 2 2. 1 Initial buy-in 2 2. 2 Core funding 2 2. 3 Project team 2 2. 4 Project governance 2 2. 5 Authors and editors 2 2. 6 Members of the public 2 3. 1 Data referencing 3 3. 2 Species inventory 3 3. 3. 2 A Teld surveys 3 3. 3. 2 Virtual Museum 6 3. 4. 1 Distribution database 6 3. 4. 1 Distribution database 7 3. 5 Data presentation 7 3. 6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.4 Conservation assessment 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.4 Species coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.4 Species coverage 9 3.6.5 Other limitations <td></td> <td></td> | | |
| 2.1 Initial buy-in 2 2.2 Core funding 2 2.3 Project governance 2 2.4 Project governance 2 2.5 Authors and editors 2 2.6 Members of the public 2 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.2 Species inventory 3 3.3 Teid surveys 3 3.3 Teid surveys 3 3.3.2 Virtual Museum 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 1.1 Crocodylia 11 2. Crocodylia 12 4 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Champelonidae 14 4.3 Gordyliae 14 | | 2 |
| 2.3 Project gammance 2 2.4 Arbitect 2 2.5 Authors and editors 2 2.6 Members of the public 2 3.0 Data 2 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.3 Jeate sources 3 3.4 Distribution database 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 7 3.5 Data strengths and weaknesses 7 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chocodylia 11 2. Conservatical 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chardelonidae 12 4.2 Chardelonidae 14 4.3 Condy | 2.1 Initial buy-in | 2 |
| 2.4 Project governance 2 2.5 Authors and editors 2 2.6 Members of the public 2 3. Data 2 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.2 Species inventory 3 3.3 Data sources 3 3.3.1 Field surveys 3 3.3.2 Virtual Museum 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.4 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 11 2. Corcodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Agamidae 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 14 4.4 Eerkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 15 < | | 2 |
| 2.5 Authors and editors 2 2.6 Members of the public 2 3. Data 3 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.3.1 Field surveys 3 3.3.2 Dispecies inventory 3 3.3.3 Tield surveys 3 3.3.1 Field surveys 3 3.3.2 Virtual Museum 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 2. Crocodylia 11 2. Squamata 11 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Contraveration 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gerkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 15 4.7 Lacertidae 16 5.8 Scincidae 16 5.1 Typhiopidae 16 | | 2 |
| 3. Data 3 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.2 Species inventory 3 3.3 Data sources 3 3.3 Data base management 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 7 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.4 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.4 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.4 Geordylia 11 1. Chelonia 11 2. Croadylia 11 3. Squamata 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Canseleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gernhosauridae 15 | 2.5 Authors and editors | 2 |
| 3.1 Data referencing 3 3.2 Species inventory 3 3.3.1 Field sources 3 3.3.2 Virtual Museum 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations. 9 3.6.4 Secouverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations. 9 3.6.4 Secouverage 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 15 4.7 Lacertidae 16 5.8 Setincidae 17 5.6 Lamprophilidae 17 5.6.3 Paynonophilinae 20 | | 2 |
| 3.2 Species inventory 3 3.3 Data sources 3 3.3.1 Field surveys 3 3.3.2 Vitual Museum 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 L Geographical coverage 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.4 Species coverage 9 3.6.2 Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordyliaa 14 4.4 Gerkonidae 14 4.5 Gernhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 16 5.9 Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 17 <td< td=""><td></td><td>3</td></td<> | | 3 |
| 3.3.1 Field surveys 3 3.3.2 Vitual Museum 6 3.4 Database management 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 12 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gernbosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 15 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphilopidae 16 5.3 Veperites 16 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidinae 20 5. | 3.2 Species inventory | 3 |
| 3.3.2 Virtual Museum 6 3.4 Database management 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3.4 Sauria 11 3.5 Other limitations 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 12 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Geakkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 15 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5. I. Typhlopidae 17 5. 6. 1. Atractaspidinae 20 5. 6. 2. Lapotophinodae 17 5. 6. 1. Atractaspidinae 20 | | |
| 3.4 Database management 6 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 1. Chelonia 10 2. Crocodylia 11 3.5 Quamata 11 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 12 4.3 Cordylidae 13 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.8 Scincidae 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphiopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.4 Vyberidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophinae 20 5.6.4 Psaudoxythophinae 20 5.6.4 Psaud | | |
| 3.4.1 Distribution database 6 3.4.2 Conservation assessment database 7 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.6 Altractaspidinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 | | |
| 3.5 Data presentation 7 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gerkonidae 14 4.5 Cerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 17 5.6 Lamprophiliae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophinae 20 5.7 Lapidae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiliae 20 5.7 Lapidae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiniae 20 5.7 Lapidae 20 | 3.4.1 Distribution database | |
| 3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses 9 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psamophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Attricidae and Colubridae <td></td> <td></td> | | |
| 3.6.1 Geographical coverage 9 3.6.2 Species coverage 9 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gerknoidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pyrthonidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophinae 20 5.7 Reprehitae 20 5.7 Reprohitae 20 5.6.3 Psammophinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophinae 20 5.7 Reprohitae 20 5.7 Relapidae 20 | | |
| 3.6.3 Other limitations 9 CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 15 5. Serpentes 16 5. Serpentes 16 5. J Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 17 5.6 Clubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophilidae 20 5.6.3 Psaumophilinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophilinae 20 5.7 Lapidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae <td></td> <td>9</td> | | 9 |
| CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny 10 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.6 Lamprophinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophinae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.7 Lapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.7 Lapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 | | |
| 1. Chelonia 11 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 12 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.8 Scincidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.6 Lamprophiinae 17 5.6 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 1.1 NIXROUUCTION 22 1.1 NixROUUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 <th></th> <th></th> | | |
| 2. Crocodylia 11 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.6 Clubroidea 17 5.6.1 Attractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophilinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophilinae 20 5.6.4 Resudoxyrhophilinae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 1.1 NTRODUCTION <td< td=""><td>CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny</td><td></td></td<> | CHAPTER 2: Systematics and Phylogeny | |
| 3. Squamata 11 4. Sauria 12 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Cerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.8 Scincidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophilae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophilae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophilae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophilae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 1.1 NCODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 <td></td> <td></td> | | |
| 4.1 Agamidae 12 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophiliae 17 5.6.1 Attractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophilinae 20 5.6.3 Psaumophilinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 1.1 NRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | 3. Squamata | |
| 4.2 Chamaeleonidae 13 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophilae 20 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophilinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophilinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophilinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophilinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophilinae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1.1 NCRODUCTION 2 | | |
| 4.3 Cordylidae 14 4.4 Gekkonidae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.7 Varanidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophiidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psaumophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and | | |
| 4.5 Gerrhosauridae 14 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophiidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | |
| 4.6 Amphisbaenidae 14 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 16 5.4 Viperidae 16 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophilidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophilinae 20 5.6.3 Psaumophilinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | |
| 4.7 Lacertidae 15 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 16 5.4 Viperidae 16 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophiidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.7 Telapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1.1 NTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | |
| 4.8 Scincidae 15 4.9 Varanidae 16 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophiidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1.1 NTRODUCTION 22 | | |
| 5. Serpentes 16 5.1 Typhlopidae 16 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophiidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1.1 NTRODUCTION 22 | | 15 |
| 5.1 Typhlopidae165.2 Leptotyphlopidae165.3 Pythonidae175.4 Viperidae175.5 Colubroidea175.6 Lamprophiidae175.6.1 Atractaspidiinae205.6.2 Lamprophiinae205.6.3 Psammophiinae205.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae205.7 Elapidae205.8 Natricidae and Colubridae20Concluding remarks21CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats221.1 Scope22 | | |
| 5.2 Leptotyphlopidae 16 5.3 Pythonidae 17 5.4 Viperidae 17 5.5 Colubroidea 17 5.6 Lamprophiidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1.1 INTRODUCTION 22 2.1 Scope 22 | | |
| 5.4 Viperidae175.5 Colubroidea175.6 Lamprophiidae175.6.1 Atractaspidiinae205.6.2 Lamprophiinae205.6.3 Psammophiinae205.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae205.7 Elapidae205.8 Natricidae and Colubridae20Concluding remarks21CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats221.1 NTRODUCTION222.1 Scope22 | | |
| 5.5 Colubroidea175.6 Lamprophiidae175.6.1 Atractaspidiinae205.6.2 Lamprophiinae205.6.3 Psammophiinae205.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae205.7 Elapidae205.8 Natricidae and Colubridae20Concluding remarks21CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats1.1 NTRODUCTION221.1 Scope22 | | |
| 5.6 Lamprophiidae 17 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 1.1 NTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | |
| 5.6.1 Atractaspidiinae 20 5.6.2 Lamprophiinae 20 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | |
| 5.6.3 Psammophiinae 20 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | 20 |
| 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 20 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | |
| 5.7 Elapidae 20 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | |
| 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae 20 Concluding remarks 21 CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | | |
| CHAPTER 3: Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats 22 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae | 20 |
| 1. INTRODUCTION 22 1.1 Scope 22 | 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 5.7 Elapidae 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae | 20 20 20 |
| 1.1 Scope | 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae 5.7 Elapidae 5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae Concluding remarks | 20 20 20 |
| | 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae | 20 20 20 21 22 |
| | 5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae | 20 20 21 22 22 |

| 2. DIVERSITY AND ENDEMISM | 24 |
|---|--|
| 2.1 Diversity | 24 |
| | 26 |
| 3. CONSERVATION ASSESSMENT | 27 27 |
| 3.1 Coverage | 27 |
| 3.3 Changes from previous assessments | 31 |
| 3.4 Most threatened taxonomic groups | 35 |
| 4. THREATS | 37 |
| 4.1 Habitat loss, fragmentation and degradation | 37 |
| 4.2 Pollution | 39 |
| 4.3 Human disturbance (tourism/recreation) | 39 |
| 4.4 Harvesting 4.5 Accidental mortality | 40 40 |
| 4.6 Climate change | 40 |
| 4.7 Invasive aliens | 40 |
| 5. HOT SPOTS | 42 |
| 5.1 Distribution of reptile diversity and endemism | 43 |
| 5.1.1 Total reptile diversity | 43 |
| 5.1.2 Endemic reptile diversity | 43 |
| 5.1.3 Chelonian diversity | 44 |
| 5.1.4 Lizard diversity | 45 45 |
| 5.2 Distribution of reptiles of conservation concern | 45 |
| 5.2.1 Chelonians | 47 |
| 5.2.2 Lizards | 47 |
| 5.2.3 Snakes | 48 |
| 6. CONCLUSIONS | 48 |
| 6.1 Recommended conservation actions | 48 |
| 6.2 Conservation planning | 49 |
| 6.3 Future conservation assessments | 49 50 |
| | |
| SECTION 2. FAMILY, SUBFAMILY, GENUS, SPECIES AND SUBSPECIES ACCOUNTS | 51 |
| | 51 |
| Family accounts | 51 51 |
| Subfamily accounts | |
| | |
| Genus accounts | 51 |
| Genus accounts | 51 51 |
| Genus accounts | 51 51 53 |
| Genus accounts | 51 51 53 54 |
| Genus accounts | 51 51 53 54 55 |
| Genus accounts | 51 51 53 54 55 55 |
| Genus accounts | 51 51 53 54 55 58 58 59 |
| Genus accounts | 51 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1843—hawksbill turtles | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 |
| Genus accounts | 51 51 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 |
| Genus accounts | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 65 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE . Genus <i>Pelomedusa</i> Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins . Genus <i>Pelusios</i> Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins . CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE . Genus <i>Caretta</i> Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles . Genus <i>Chelonia</i> Brongniart, 1800—green turtles . Genus <i>Eretmochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles . Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles . CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE . Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles . | 51 51 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chelonide Chelonide | 51 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises | 51 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Homopus Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus (padlopers) | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Homopus Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus <i>Pelomedusa</i> Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus <i>Pelusios</i> Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins . CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus <i>Caretta</i> Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles . Genus <i>Chelonia</i> Brongniart, 1800—green turtles . Genus <i>Eretmochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles . Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles . Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles . CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE . Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles . CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE . Genus <i>Chersina</i> Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises . Genus <i>Homopus</i> Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) . Genus <i>Kinixys</i> Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises . Genus <i>Psammobates</i> Fitzinger, 1835—tent and geometric tortoises . | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Eretmochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Homopus Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus Psammobates Fitzinger, 1835—tent and geometric tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins . CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles . Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles . Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles . Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles . Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles . Genus Dermochelys Biainville, 1816—leatherback turtles . CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE . Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles . Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises . Genus Homopus Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) . Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises . Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE . | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Eretmochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Homopus Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus Psammobates Fitzinger, 1835—tent and geometric tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE . Genus <i>Pelomedusa</i> Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins . Genus <i>Pelusios</i> Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins . CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE . Genus <i>Caretta</i> Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles . Genus <i>Chelonia</i> Brongniart, 1800—green turtles . Genus <i>Chelonia</i> Brongniart, 1800—green turtles . Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles . Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles . Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Bitinger, 1843—ridley turtles . CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE . Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles . CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE . Genus <i>Chersina</i> Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises . Genus <i>Homopus</i> Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) . Genus <i>Kinixys</i> Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises . Genus <i>Stigmochelys</i> Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE . Genus <i>Stigmochelys</i> Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 9: FAMILY GEKKONIDAE . | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 87 89 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—nawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises (padlopers) Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1943—true crocodiles CHAPTER 9: FAMILY GEKKONIDAE Genus Afroedura Loveridge, 1944—African flat geckos | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 87 89 90 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelousios Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins . CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Homopus Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus Crocodylus Laurenti, 1768—true crocodiles CHAPTER 9: FAMILY GEKKONIDAE Genus Afrogecko Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—African leaf-toed geckos | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 87 89 90 100 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus <i>Pelomedusa</i> Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus <i>Pelosios</i> Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus <i>Caretta</i> Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus <i>Chelonia</i> Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus <i>Chelonia</i> Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus <i>Chersina</i> Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus <i>Homopus</i> Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus <i>Kinixys</i> Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus <i>Stigmochelys</i> Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus <i>Stigmochelys</i> Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 9: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus <i>Afroedura</i> Loveridge, 1944—African flat geckos Genus <i>Afrogecko</i> Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—African leaf-toed geckos Genus <i>Afrogecko</i> Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—African leaf-toed geckos | 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 87 89 90 100 102 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Dermochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Homopus Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus Crocodylus Laurenti, 1768—true crocodiles CHAPTER 9: FAMILY GEKKONIDAE Genus Afroedura Loveridge, 1944—African flat geckos Genus Afrogecko Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—African leaf-toed geckos Genus Chondrodactylus Peters, 1870—giant geckos Genus Chondrodactylus Peters, 1869—ground geckos | 51 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 87 89 90 100 102 105 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelosios Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises (padlopers) Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises Genus Crocody/us Laurenti, 1768—true crocodiles CHAPTER 9: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus Afrogecko Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—African leaf-toed geckos Genus Chondrodactylus Peters, 1870—giant geckos Genus Chondrodactylus Peters, 1870—giant geckos Genus Chondrodactylus Peters, 1870—giant geckos Genus Cryptactites Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—salt marsh geckos | 51 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 87 89 90 100 102 105 107 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus <i>Pelomedusa</i> Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus <i>Pelusios</i> Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins . CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIDAE Genus <i>Caretta</i> Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus <i>Caretta</i> Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus <i>Chelonia</i> Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles . CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus <i>Chersina</i> Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus <i>Homopus</i> Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus <i>Kinixys</i> Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus <i>Stigmochelys</i> Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus <i>Afroedrys</i> Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 9: FAMILY GEKKONIDAE Genus <i>Afroedura</i> Loveridge, 1944—African flat geckos Genus <i>Afroedura</i> Loveridge, 1944—African flat geckos Genus <i>Chondrodactylus</i> Peters, 1870—giant geckos Genus <i>Colopus</i> Peters, 1869—ground geckos Genus <i>Colopus</i> Peters, 1869—ground geckos Genus <i>Colopus</i> Peters, 1869—ground geckos Genus <i>Goggia</i> Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—salt marsh geckos Genus <i>Goggia</i> Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—spirt and marsh geckos | 51 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 87 89 90 100 102 105 107 108 |
| Genus accounts Species/subspecies accounts CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIIDAE Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Cretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus Cretta Rafinesque, 1843—nidley turtles Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus Chersina Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1835—tent and geometric tortoises Genus Crocodylus Laurenti, 1768—true crocodiles CHAPTER 9: FAMILY GECODYLIDAE Genus Afrogecko Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—African flat geckos Genus Afrogecko Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—salt marsh geckos Genus Colopus Peters, 1869—ground geckos Genus Colopus Odd & Branch, 1997—salt marsh geckos Genus Crophactites Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—salt marsh geckos Genus Afrogecko Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—put geckos Genus Chondrodactylus Oken, 1817—tropical house geckos Genus Crophactites | 51 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 86 87 89 90 100 102 105 107 |
| Genus accounts . Species/subspecies accounts . CHAPTER 4: FAMILY PELOMEDUSIDAE Genus <i>Pelomedusa</i> Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins Genus <i>Pelusios</i> Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins . CHAPTER 5: FAMILY CHELONIDAE Genus <i>Caretta</i> Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus <i>Caretta</i> Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles Genus <i>Chelonia</i> Brongniart, 1800—green turtles Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus <i>Lepidochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles . CHAPTER 6: FAMILY DERMOCHELYIDAE Genus <i>Dermochelys</i> Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles CHAPTER 7: FAMILY TESTUDINIDAE Genus <i>Chersina</i> Gray, 1831—angulate tortoises Genus <i>Homopus</i> Duméril & Bibron, 1835—dwarf tortoises (padlopers) Genus <i>Kinixys</i> Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises Genus <i>Stigmochelys</i> Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 8: FAMILY CROCODYLIDAE Genus <i>Afroedrys</i> Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises . CHAPTER 9: FAMILY GEKKONIDAE Genus <i>Afroedura</i> Loveridge, 1944—African flat geckos Genus <i>Afroedura</i> Loveridge, 1944—African flat geckos Genus <i>Chondrodactylus</i> Peters, 1870—giant geckos Genus <i>Colopus</i> Peters, 1869—ground geckos Genus <i>Colopus</i> Peters, 1869—ground geckos Genus <i>Colopus</i> Peters, 1869—ground geckos Genus <i>Goggia</i> Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—salt marsh geckos Genus <i>Goggia</i> Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—spirt and marsh geckos | 51 51 53 54 55 58 59 61 63 65 67 68 70 71 72 76 80 84 80 84 86 87 89 90 100 102 105 107 108 114 |

| | 145 146 |
|--|--|
| Genus Chirindia Boulenger, 1907—pink round-headed worm lizards Genus Dalophia Gray, 1865—blunt-tailed worm lizards Genus Monopeltis A. Smith, 1848—African shovel-snouted worm lizards | 148 149 151 152 156 |
| Genus Australolacerta Arnold, 1989—Southern rock lizards | 158 159 160 161 162 166 173 177 |
| Subfamily Cordylinae Genus Chamaesaura Schneider, 1801—grass lizards Genus Cordylus Laurenti, 1768—girdled lizards Genus Cordylus Laurenti, 1768—girdled lizards Genus Hemicordylus Smith, 1838—cliff lizards Genus Karusasaurus Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—karusa lizards Genus Namazonurus Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—nama lizards Genus Ninurta Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—nama lizards Genus Ninurta Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—blue-spotted lizards Genus Ouroborus Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—armadillo lizards Genus Pseudocordylus A. Smith, 1838—crag lizards Genus Smaug Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—dragon lizards | 182 183 186 194 196 197 199 200 201 208 |
| | 213 213 |
| Genus Broadleysaurus Bates & Tolley, 2013—rough-scaled plated lizards | 224 225 226 227 230 231 |
| Subfamily Acontinae 2 Genus Acontias Cuvier, 1816 [1817]—legless skinks 2 | 237 238 238 253 |
| Genus Afroablepharus Greer, 1974—snake-eyed skinks 2 Genus Cryptoblepharus Wiegmann, 1834—coral rag skinks 2 Genus Mochlus Günther, 1864—writhing skinks 2 | 256 256 258 259 260 |
| Genus Scelotes Fitzinger, 1826—dwarf burrowing skinks | 269 269 |
| | 282 283 |
| Genus Bradypodion Fitzinger, 1843—dwarf chameleons | 285 286 300 |
| Genus Agama Daudin, 1802—agamas 3 | 302 303 308 |
| Genus <i>Afrotyphlops</i> Broadley & Wallach, 2009—African blind snakes | 310 311 313 315 315 316 |
| Genus <i>Leptotyphlops</i> Fitzinger, 1843—typical thread snakes | 318 319 324 325 |

| CHAPTER 20: FAMILY PYTHONIDAE | 327 328 |
|---|---|
| CHAPTER 21: FAMILY VIPERIDAE | 329 330 340 |
| CHAPTER 22: FAMILY LAMPROPHIIDAE Subfamily Atractaspidiinae Genus Amblyodipsas Peters, 1857—purple-glossed snakes Genus Aparallactus Smith, 1849—centipede-eaters Genus Atractaspis Smith, 1849—stiletto snakes Genus Homoroselaps Jan, 1858—harlequin snakes Genus Macrelaps Boulenger, 1896—KwaZulu-Natal black snakes Genus Xenocalamus Günther, 1868—quill-snouted snakes | 342 343 343 347 349 351 353 354 |
| Subfamily LamprophiinaeGenus Boaedon Duméril, Bibron & Duméril, 1854—house snakesGenus Gonionotophis Boulenger, 1893—file snakesGenus Inyoka Branch & Kelly, 2010—Swazi rock snakesGenus Lamprophis Fitzinger, 1843—dwarf house snakesGenus Lycodonomorphus Fitzinger, 1843—water and ground snakesGenus Lycophidion Fitzinger, 1843—wolf snakes | 358 358 360 362 363 366 369 |
| Subfamily Psammophiinae Genus <i>Dipsina</i> Jan, 1863—dwarf beaked snakes Genus <i>Hemirhagerrhis</i> Boettger, 1896—bark snakes Genus <i>Psammophis</i> Boie, 1825—sand and grass snakes . Genus <i>Psammophylax</i> Fitzinger, 1843—African grass snakes . Genus <i>Rhamphiophis</i> Peters, 1854—beaked snakes | 372 372 373 374 381 383 |
| Subfamily Pseudoxyrhophiinae Genus Amplorhinus A. Smith, 1847—many-spotted snakes Genus Duberria Fitzinger, 1826—slug-eaters Genus Montaspis Bourquin, 1991—cream-spotted mountain snakes | 384 384 385 387 |
| Subfamily Lamprophiidae: <i>Incertae sedis</i> | 388 388 392 |
| CHAPTER 23: FAMILY ELAPIDAE Subfamily Elapinae Genus Aspidelaps A. Smith, 1849—shield cobras Genus Dendroaspis Schlegel, 1848—mambas Genus Elapsoidea Bocage, 1866—garter snakes Genus Hemachatus Fleming, 1822—Rinkhals Genus Naja Laurenti, 1768—cobras | 393 394 394 397 399 402 403 |
| Subfamily Hydrophiinae | 407 407 |
| CHAPTER 24: FAMILY COLUBRIDAE Genus Crotaphopeltis Fitzinger, 1843—herald snakes Genus Dasypeltis Wagler, 1830—egg-eaters Genus Dipsadoboa Günther, 1858—cat-eyed tree snakes Genus Dipsholidus Duvernoy, 1832—Boomslang Genus Meizodon Fischer, 1856—African smooth snakes Genus Philothamnus Smith, 1840—green snakes Genus Telescopus Wagler, 1830—tiger snakes Genus Thelotornis A. Smith, 1849—twig snakes | 408 409 410 413 414 415 416 420 423 |
| CHAPTER 25: FAMILY NATRICIDAE | 424 425 |
| REFERENCE LIST | 427 |
| ABBREVIATIONS AND GLOSSARY | 452 |
| APPENDIX 1: IUCN Red List definitions and Categories and Criteria | 456 |
| APPENDIX 2: Current and past conservation status of select reptile taxa assessed, including all taxa of con- cervation concern | 462 |
| APPENDIX 3: Endemic and near-endemic reptile taxa in the Atlas region | 468 |
| APPENDIX 4: Alien reptiles recorded in the wild in the Atlas region | 473 |
| Index to scientific names | 478 |
| Index to common names | 482 |

Author address list

- Graham J. Alexander, School of Animal, Plant and Environmental Sciences, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg graham.alexander@wits.ac.za
- Ernst H.W. Baard, Scientific Services, CapeNature, Stellenbosch
- ebaard@capenature.co.za
- Michael F. Bates, Department of Herpetology, National Museum, Bloemfontein herp@nasmus.co.za
- Aaron M. Bauer, Department of Biology, Villanova University, Villanova, United States aaron.bauer@villanova.edu
- Richard C. Boycott, Science Department, Waterford Kamhlaba College, Mbabane, Swaziland richjude@realnet.co.sz
- William R. Branch, Port Elizabeth Museum (Bayworld) & Department of Zoology, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth wrbranch@bayworld.co.za
- Marius Burger, Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town
- sungazer@iafrica.com
- Michael J. Cunningham, Department of Zoology, University of the Free State, Qwaqwa cunninghammj@qwa.uovs.ac.za
- Atherton L. de Villiers, Scientific Services, CapeNature, Stellenbosch
- adevilliers@capenature.co.za
 Marienne S. de Villiers, Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town mad.ventures@yahoo.co.uk
- Barend Erasmus, School of Animal, Plant and Environmental Science, University of the Witwatersrand barend.erasmus@wits.ac.za
- James A. Harrison, JAH Environmental Consultancy, Cape Town
- hare@worldonline.co.za
- James Harvey, Private Ecological Researcher, Scottsville, Pietermaritzburg
- james_harvey@telkomsa.net
 Margaretha D. Hofmeyr, Biodiversity and Conservation Biology, University of the Western Cape, Bellville mdhofmeyr@uwc.ac.za

- George A.R.W. Hughes, retired (formerly Natal Parks Board/Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife) george.hughes@iuncapped.co.za
- Neils H.G. Jacobsen, P.O. Box 671, Wilderness, 6560 neilsj@lantic.net
- Johan Marais, School of Animal, Plant and Environmental Sciences, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg jmsnakes@gmail.com
- Bryan Maritz, School of Animal, Plant and Environmental Sciences, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg
- maritz@gecko.wits.ac.za
- Gavin Masterson, Gauteng Department of Agriculture, Conservation and Environment, Johannesburg gavin.masterson@gauteng.gov.za
- G. John Measey, Applied Biodiversity Research Division, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Cape Town & Zoology Department, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth john@measey.com
- P. le Fras N. Mouton, Department of Botany and Zoology, Stellenbosch University pnm@sun.ac.za
- René A. Navarro, Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town
- rene.navarro@uct.ac.za
 Petronella Nel, Biology Department, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth ronel.nel@nmmu.ac.za
- Krystal A. Tolley, Applied Biodiversity Research Division, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Cape Town & Department of Botany and Zoology, University of Stellenbosch K.Tolley@sanbi.org.za
- Andrew A. Turner, Scientific Services, CapeNature, Stellenbosch
 - aaturner@capenature.co.za
- Martin J. Whiting, Department of Brain, Behaviour and Evolution, Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia (previously School of Animal, Plant and Environmental Sciences, University of the Witwatersrand) mwhiting@science.mq.edu.au

Acknowledgements

The Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (SARCA) project, a collaboration between the Animal Demography Unit (University of Cape Town) and the South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI), would not have been possible without the collaboration and co-operation of the many people who were involved. We thank all of these people, including any that were involved and have inadvertently been omitted here.

Sponsors

The total budget of the Southern African Reptile Conservation Atlas (SARCA) was almost R3 million—significant sums of money were required to pay staff salaries, running and travel expenses (including the costs of field trips, training workshops and conference attendance). Fortunately, there are individuals and organisations who appreciate the need to monitor and conserve biodiversity in its entirety, including under-appreciated faunal groups such as reptiles. SARCA was fortunate to find such sponsors and the project would not have succeeded without their input.

- American Museum of Natural History
- Cape Reptile Club

- Department of Environmental Affairs
- Eco Challenge and Toyota Enviro Outreach
- Fascination Books (now South African Snakebite Institute)
- JRS Biodiversity Foundation
- National Research Foundation
- Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs
 - SA Reptiles
 - South African Biodiversity Information Facility





Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town

The Animal Demography Unit (ADU; http://adu.org.za) believes that the best way to achieve biodiversity conservation is through enabling conservation decisions to be based on solid quantitative evidence. We achieve this in three ways: we gather enormous volumes of data through our expanding citizen science programmes; we lead Africa in the emerging discipline of statistical ecology, and use its approaches to understand the dynamics of animal populations; we multiply our effectiveness by training postgraduate students to apply this paradigm.

The ADU is based in the Department of Biological Sciences at the University of Cape Town. We curate, analyse and disseminate information about biodiversity. Citizen scientists are our eyes and ears and their participation in our projects is key to our success. The data submitted by citizen scientists is analysed in such a way that it ultimately influences conservation policy. The Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (SARCA) project is the ADU's most recently completed atlas project.

Previous ADU projects include SABCA (Southern African Butterfly Conservation Assessment), SAFAP (Southern African Frog Atlas Project) and SABAP1 (Southern African Bird Atlas Project). Ongoing ADU projects include SABAP2 (Second Southern African Bird Atlas Project), SAFRING (South African Bird Ringing), CAR (Coordinated Avifaunal Roadcounts), CWAC (Coordinated Waterbird Counts), MammalMAP (African Mammal Atlas Project) and a series of Virtual Museums.

Les G. Underhill Director, Animal Demography Unit



South African National Biodiversity Institute

The South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI; www.sanbi.org) was responsible for implementing the Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (SAR-CA) project, in partnership with the Animal Demography Unit (ADU). SANBI provided core funding for the project. SANBI has a mandate to monitor and report on the status of South Africa's species from the Biodiversity Act (Act 10 of 2004). This project was one of a host of projects on atlasing and Red Listing of South Africa's species that SANBI's Threatened Species Programme co-ordinates. The project was implemented by the Animal Demography Unit and benefitted significantly in scientific content contributed by local and international herpetological experts. The data generated as part of this project will be highly valuable for conservation planning and biodiversity monitoring work in South Africa.

Domitilla Raimondo

Threatened Species Programme Manager, South African National Biodiversity Institute



environmental affairs

Department: Environmental Affairs REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Department of Environmental Affairs

The vision of South Africa's Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA) is to have a prosperous and equitable society living in harmony with the country's natural resources. In line with its vision, DEA's key strategic priorities aim to protect, conserve and enhance environmental assets, natural and heritage resources, ensuring a sustainable healthy environment and contributing to sustainable economic growth, livelihoods and economic growth. Furthermore, DEA strives towards a better Africa and a better world by advancing national environmental interests through a global sustainable development agenda.

Effective protection of species is only possible when comprehensive information on their distribution and status and on the threats to their survival is readily available. The *Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland* is a major source of such information. Through support of the Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment project, DEA confirms its commitment and sustainable use of South Africa's biological diversity.

Fundisile Mketeni Deputy Director General, Biodiversity and Conservation



Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs

The Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, via the Department of Environmental Affairs, provided the funding for the Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (SARCA) project. The South African National Biodiversity Institute's work on threatened species, between 2006 and 2011, formed part of a co-operation between Norway and South Africa in the environmental sector. Work on species atlasing and assessment was the main component of Norway's support to biodiversity and conservation work in South Africa. This investment has resulted in excellent-quality foundational biodiversity data, which is being used in South Africa for conservation and land-use planning. Thus, South Africa is able to fulfill its commitments to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) to monitor and report on the status of its biodiversity. The generous funding provided to the SARCA project allowed it to be comprehensive in its inclusion of all possible datasets from natural history museums, private collections and field research. This means that this conservation assessment is of a very high standard and will form a solid baseline for future monitoring of South Africa's reptiles. It also serves as an excellent example to other countries that are signatories to the CBD convention and want to fulfill their responsibilities for monitoring biodiversity. Norway was proud to be able to facilitate this important conservation initiative.

Tor Gjerde Councillor, Royal Norwegian Embassy



JRS Biodiversity Foundation

The JRS Biodiversity Foundation (www.jrsbiodiversity.org) provides grants to enhance knowledge and promote understanding of biological diversity for the benefit and sustainability of life on Earth. Our grant-making focuses particularly upon projects such as the South Africa Rep-

tile Conservation Assessment, which improve biodiversity data and knowledge and which can be linked to conservation outcomes and to building capacity for biodiversity informatics in Africa.

Don S. Doering Executive Director, JRS Biodiversity Foundation



Participating institutions

SARCA was supported by herpetologists based at a number of institutions. This support was vital to the success of the project. These institutions made a valuable indirect financial contribution to SARCA by allowing their employees to spend a significant amount of time on the project. A key component of SARCA was the collation of all available reptile distribution data. Sixteen institutions generously contributed data to the project.

- American Museum of Natural History, New York
- Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town, Cape Town
- Bayworld (Port Elizabeth Museum), Port Elizabeth
- California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco
- CapeNature, Jonkershoek
- Ditsong National Museum of Natural History (formerly Transvaal Museum), Pretoria
- Durban Natural Science Museum, Durban
- Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife
- Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago
- Gauteng Department of Agriculture, Conservation and Environment
- Iziko South African Museum, Cape Town
- John Ellerman Museum, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch
- KwaZulu-Natal Museum, Pietermaritzburg
- McGregor Museum, Kimberley
- Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University, Cambridge
- National Museum, Bloemfontein
- National University of Lesotho, Roma
- Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth
- South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI)
- South African National Parks
- University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch
- University of the Orange Free State (Qwa Qwa campus), Phuthaditjhaba
- University of the Western Cape, Cape Town
- University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg
- Villanova University, Villanova

Participating organisations

SARCA also benefited through the support of several other organisations and their members.

- Cape Reptile Club
- Endangered Wildlife Trust
- Herpetological Association of Africa
- SA Reptiles
- Transvaal Herpetological Association

SteerCo

SARCA Steering Committee members freely gave of their time to advise on data collection strategies, time frames,

finances and other relevant matters. All people who served on the committee at some time are listed.

Graham Alexander, Michael Bates, William Branch, Marius Burger (ex officio), Marienne de Villiers (ex officio), Wendy Foden, Yolan Friedmann, James Harrison (ex officio), Sue Kuyper (ex officio), Rene le Roux, Johan Marais (Chairperson), Kristal Maze, Frank Mazibuko, Le Fras Mouton, Solomon Nkoana, Krystal Tolley, Andrew Turner, and Les Underhill.

Virtual Museum panel

Members of the Virtual Museum panel offered up their time and expertise to identify almost 6 000 photographic records of reptiles.

Graham Alexander, Michael Bates, Aaron Bauer, William Branch, Marius Burger, Wulf Haacke, James Harrison, Johan Marais, Bryan Maritz, Gavin Masterson, John Measey, Le Fras Mouton, Krystal Tolley, Andrew Turner and Martin Whiting.

Field trip volunteers

A total of 24 SARCA field surveys were conducted, each with the assistance of volunteers as listed below.

SARCA 1-Elsie Campher, Thea Felmore and Sakwa Makokho; SARCA 2-Peter Braat and Asher Hill; SARCA 3-Henning Janse van Vuuren, Candice Lyons and Sean Ward; SARCA 4-Donovan du Toit and Robert James; SARCA 5—P.G. Groenewald, Samantha Stoffberg and Krystal Tolley; SARCA 6-Daniela Haarmeyer and Devon Massyn; SARCA 7-Morné Carstens, Kareemah Jacobs and Adelé Pretorius; SARCA 8—Marlei Martins, Themba Mathebula and Sarah Whitelaw; SARCA 9-Ferdie Endeman and Tessa Oliver; SARCA 10- Ross Hawkins and Stiv Samuel; SARCA 11-Gerda Kriel, Marianna Lot, Alex Rebelo and Tony Rebelo; SARCA 12—Graham Alexander, Pierre Joubert and Marcel Witberg; SARCA 13-Sakwa Makokho and Devon Massyn; SARCA 14-Nelmarie Eloff, David Maguire and Marelise Spreeth; SARCA 15—Billy Chamberlain, Ross Hawkins and David Maguire; SARCA 16-Martin Buitendag, Fran Siebrits and Martin Steyn; SARCA 17-Michael Fabricius, Candice Lakay and René Navarro; SARCA 18-Michael Fabricius, Kareemah Jacobs and Adelé Pretorius; SARCA 19-Michael Fabricius and Philine Werner; SARCA 20-Michael Fabricius and Rajka Kleine; SARCA 21-Michael Fabricius, Alex Rebelo and Tony Rebelo; SARCA 22-Sara Greene and James Harvey; SARCA 23-Keshni Gopal, Sara Greene, Ross Hawkins, David Maguire, Karen Molenaar, Goran Šafarek and Inge Wiekenkamp; SARCA 24—Graham Alexander, Andrew Beck, Lucas Chauke, Amanda Coetzee, Augusti Constantinides, Clayton Cook, Pricilla Crause, Cliff Dorse, Suretha Dorse, Keshny Gopal, Rajka Kleine, Bryan Maritz and Paul Swanepoel.

A special acknowledgement goes to Gerhard, Elmarie and P.G. Groenewald of Klipbokkop who, under the auspices of Eco Challenge and Toyota Enviro Outreach, arranged for several 4×4 bakkies that were used in conducting the SARCA field surveys. In excess of 100 000 km were travelled with their sponsored vehicles. Numerous landowners provided access to their properties and free or cheap accommodation during the field trips. Their friendly support was essential to the success of these surveys, and for that, they are heartily thanked.

Project participants

Many more people contributed records to SARCA indirectly, through data provided by museums, other collections and the published literature. It is not practical to list all of these individuals here, but we nevertheless acknowledge them.

Sight records

We specifically acknowledge the following people who provided reptile sight records to SARCA.

Ambrose D, Bates MF, Combrink X, Cunningham MJ, Dean R, Dyer BM, Hardy P, Henderson K, Hofmeyr MD, Kirchhof S, Lambiris AJL, Marais J, Maritz B, McConnachie S, Milton S, Monadjem A, Oatley T, Pietersen D, Pietersen E, Schmidt W, Smith DS, Stanley E, Tolley KA, Turner AA, Verburgt L, Visser JD.

Virtual museum

Large-scale data collection is costly and time-consuming. Conservation and research agencies, challenged for resources, can benefit enormously through the involvement of 'citizen scientists'—interested members of the public who voluntarily assist with the collection of information. The following people—some professional herpetologists but the majority amateurs—contributed to SARCA through the submission of photographic records of reptiles to the project's Virtual Museum (<u>underlined</u>: 20–49 records; **bold**: 50–99 records; **bold** and underlined: 100+ records).

Abram K, Acton V, Adam S, Adams M, Aguilar G, Aiston G, Alberts AJ, Allcock AE, Altwegg L, Altwegg P, Altwegg R, Anderson MD, Anderson TA, Andri C, Archer AM, Archer T, Armstrong AJ, Armstrong Q, Aucamp J, Badenhorst W, Badenhorst WJ, Bakkes E, Bardo R, Barnard P, Becker R, Becker RW, Bezuidenhout M, Bezuidenhout R, Birch W, Bleeker M, Bosman K, Botha M, Botha P, Botha T, Botha W, Bowker MB, Braat P, Breet E, Brodman R, Brook C, Brooks G, Brouard JP, Brown R, Bruinzeel LW, Budge R, Budworth C, Burger F, Butler B, Buys E, Calitz M, Campbell L, Carey KI, Carstens M, Cauldwell A, Claassen C, Clanahan CRH, Cleaver G, Cleminson CM, Coetser W, Coetzee F, Coetzee M, Coetzer A, Colahan BD, Cole W, Coleman J, Combrink HJ, Compion E, Conrad R, Conradie W, Cook G, Cooke D & Cooke I, Cordiero B, Cordiero C, Cordiero K, Costandius E, Coverdale B, Craigie JD, Crocombe J, Culbert C, De Beer C, De Beer CL, De Coriolis BL, De Klerk B, De Kock C, De Kock M, De Ridder J, De Swardt D, De Villiers S, Deacon AR, Deal J, Delport M, Dempere J, Deuchar A, Diedericks G, Dippenaar SM, Dobson R, Dobson RA, Dorse C & van Rooyen S, Douglas M, Douque R, Drummond-Hay K, du Plessis A, Du Plessis CF, Du Plessis D, Du Plessis J, Du Plessis JB, Du Plessis R, Du Toit DA, During J, Durrheim G, Dyer B, East Rand Herpetological Association, Eberle D, Els J, Els JC, Engelbrecht M, Erasmus SJ, Erni B, Erni G, Esterhuizen W, Evans SW, Ewart-Smith J, Felmore T, Fillery K, Fisher JT, Fleming C, Foreman D, Forest F, Fouché T, Fourie A, Freislich J, Garth A, Gavhi MP, Gaynor D, Geddes D, Gelderblom R, Gerber B, Gerber L, Geyser RF, Gibbons B, Gilfillan C, Gilfillan CS, Giliomee J, Goemas W, Goodman PS, Grant C, Gray NK, Griffiths RMH, Groenewald G, Groenewald J, Grove F, Grundlingh F, Gsollpointner C, Gwynne-Evans D, Haacke KO, Haacke WD, Haas F, Hammon D, Hankey A, Hardaker T & Hardaker M, Hardy P, Harebottle D, Harvey J, Havemann P, Havenga M, Havengaar D, Hawkins R, Helme N, Helme NA, Henderson L, Henke A, Henrici I, Heydenrych M, Heymans JA, Hibbitts T, Highbury G, Hobkirk C, Hodgson A & McBurnie H, Hoffman JD, Holder D, Holter T, Honiball D, Honiball DE & Honiball L, Hopkins K, Howard D, Howard-Ginsberg L, Hugo DP, Huisamen J, Hull K & Raess J, Hurter J, Incledon P, Jaar G, Jackson A, Jacobs E, James JD, James P, James WJ, Janse van Rensburg JP, Janse van Vuuren H, Jansen S, Jeggle R, Jesnitz R, Jessnitz R, Job E, Jones A, Jones R, Jordaan B, Jordaan L, Jordaan Z, Jorens B, Joubert P, Joubert PR, Kainz M, Kamler J, Keene L, Keswick T, Khan A, Kies W, Kilday P & Pepper M, Kipling M, Kirby J, Kirchhof S, Kirkman SP, Klein H, Knoetze D, Koen D, Koeslag A, Kok A, Kotze PJ, Kotze S, Kotze W, Kraai FM, Kraai S, Kruger A, Lötter JSS, Labuschagne L, Ladanoski R, Laidler G, Lamienie P, Laminie P, Landsdiens, Le Feuvre A, Le Mahieu M, Le Roux BA, Le Roux DL, Le Roux ER, Le Roux ER & Le Roux BA, Leslie RW, Linström A, Lockwood G, Logie C, Lotter J, Lotter MC, Lötter R, Lottering A, Lottering ADJ, Loubser J, Lourance F, Lourens B, Lourens F, Lourense F, Louw A, Louw D, Louw J, Lurner W, Lyons C, Lyons CL, Maartens R, Maartens S, Maguire D, Malan K, Maliehe T, Malloch-Brown, Manning J, Manson A, Manson AD, Manson L, Maphisa D, Marais A, Marais H, Marais J, Marais K, Marais L, Marais R, Maree D, Maree M, Maritz B, Massyn D, Masterson G, Maya K, Mc Intyre P, McCartney S, McCleland W, McGonagle A, McKenzie DR, McMaster C, McMaster JC, McQuillan M, Measey GJ, Meats R, Mecenero S, Meyer E, Meyer P, Mildenhall TA, Mileham I, Miya S, Mlambo MC, Mlatsheni T, Mol T, Moller A, Montague-Fryer G, Morom J, Mostert C, Moussalli A, Moyen JF, Mtshitshi M, Mulholland G, Murdock R, Natural Scientific Services, Naude A, Nel J, Nel K, Nel M, Neumann J, Ngwenya, Niehaus RW, Nienaber JH, Niewenhuizen D, Nixon A, Norman J, Nurcombe-Thorne HJ, Oliver G, Oliver TA, Olivier L, Opperman GJ, Oransie J, Oschadleus HD, Otto L, Palmer PA, Parker L, Pasqualetto V, Peacock F, Pearmain F, Pepper M, Pereira SJ, Pettersen J, Pfeifer H, Phelps T, Pietersen A, Pietersen E, Pollhammer A, Potgieter M, Pretorius A, Pretorius B, Pretorius JF, Pretorius JW, Price W, Prinsloo D, Prozesky A, Purves A, Raess J, Rautenbach IL, RBPS Landsdiens, Rebelo A, Rebelo T, Redman AD, Reissig J, Richter W, Ridder D, Roberts B, Roberts VG, Robinson E, Roche C, Roderigues EPS, Rose B, Rowley JJL, SA Reptiles, SAHRR, Saunt RV, Scammell I, Schaerer E, Scheepers K & Herbst M, Schmidt A, Schmidt J, Schmidt WR, Schmidt WR & Schmidt A, Schroeder I, Schumann M, Serfontein E, Shaikh Z, Sharp IC & Sharp A, Sheasby CQ, Shufran K, Simmons JCB, Simmons R, Simmons RE, Slabbert M, Smit K, Smit M, Smit R, Snyman C, Snyman TM, Solomon W, Soroczynski M, Stander MJ, Stanley E, Staude HS, Steenkamp C, Steenkamp L, Steiner S, Steyn C, Stilwell D, Storm S, Strydom D, Stuart-Fox D, Sutton M, Swanepoel D, Swanepoel S, Swanepoel V, Symes CT, Tanner A, The Steyns, Theron J, Theron N, Theron S, Thomas SG, Tiedemann C, Titus M, Tolley K, Tolley KA, Tomsett G, Trichardt J, Turner A (CN/HNCO), Underhill L, Uys J, Van As J, Van As L, Van Aswegen D, Van der Meijden A, Van der Spuy A, Van der Walt B, Van der Westhuizen C, Van Der Westhuizen E, Van der Westhuizen L, Van der Westhuizen LJ, Van Dyk G, Van Jaarsveld E, Van Kleunen M, Van Niekerk E, Van Reenen P, Van Rooyen J, Van Rooyen JP, Van Rooyen S, Van Stormbroek T, Van Wijk W, Van Wyk A, Van Wyk AC, Van Wyk AJ, Van Wyk SS, Van Zyl AJ, Van Zyl G, Venter D, Venter J, Venter JD, Venter P, Verburgt L, Vermeulen I,

Visser B, Vivier W, Vlok M, Voigt W, von Staden R, Vos P, Wagenaar W, Wallace C, Ward V, Warncke P, Warner JK, Webb P, <u>Webster K</u>, Webster M, Welz A, Wessels N, Westhuyzen H, <u>Willis CK</u>, <u>Wilson BY</u>, Wilson D, Wimberger K, Witberg G, Witberg GE, Witberg H, Witberg K, <u>Witberg M &</u> <u>Albertyn R</u>, **Witberg M & Van Zyl R**, <u>Witberg M (CN/HNCO)</u>, Witberg MC, Wolfaardt A, Wolfaardt L, Wolfnaardt L, Wollenberg K, Woodhall SE, Woods D, Yetman CA & Lötter JSS, Zack R, Zambatis G.

Photographers

The following individuals provided photographs of the various species and their habitats in the *Atlas* region. These were used to illustrate the species accounts and other sections of the book.

Graham Alexander, Randy Babb, Michael Bates, Aaron Bauer, J. Boone, Richard Boycott, William Branch, Marius Burger, Andrew Cauldwell (and team at Natural Scientific Services), P. Coates Palgrave, Werner Conradie, Atherton de Villiers, Cliff and Suretha Dorse, Vincent Egan, Tania Fouché, Wulf Haacke, James Harvey, George Hughes,

Others

Krystal Tolley, Gus van Dyk, John Visser, Martin Whiting

and Beryl Wilson.

Many other people assisted SARCA in various ways. For example, Prof. Les Underhill, Director of the Animal Demography Unit, enthusiastically supported the establishment of a second herpetological project (the first being the *Southern African Frog Atlas Project*) in his unit. Conservation agencies provided the necessary permits for SAR-CA field surveys and the collection of samples. Lemmy Mashinini and Lauretta Mahlangu (Ditsong National Museum of Natural History) and Denise Hamerton (Iziko South African Museum) facilitated photography of specimens in their care. Domitilla Raimondo (SANBI) provided useful comments on Chapters 1 and 3. Werner Conradie kindly checked and updated some of the SARCA *Acontias* maps.

Credits

The following people were professionally involved in the production of this book. Note that editors, authors and photographers are not listed because they are credited elsewhere. All those listed below are/were employees of the Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town.

- Project management: James Harrison (March 2005–December 2007), Marienne de Villiers (June 2007–March 2009).
- Database curation: Marius Burger and René Navarro
- Field work: Marius Burger
- Computer programming: René Navarro
- Data processing: René Navarro
- Map design: René Navarro
- Fundraising: James Harrison, Marienne de Villiers, Marius Burger
- Financial administration: Sue Kuyper, Linda Tsipa
- Data capture: Linda Tsipa, Candice Lackay

Reviewers

The following individuals kindly acted as reviewers of a draft version of the *Atlas*. Their valuable insights and suggestions greatly contributed towards the quality of this publication:

- Don Broadley: Chapters 10–17
- Wulf Haacke: Chapters 3, 9
- · Craig Hilton-Taylor: entire book, with emphasis on Chapter 1 and IUCN listings
- Niels Jacobsen: Chapter 3
- Christopher Kelly: Chapters 2, 18–20, 22, 24, 25
- Paul Moler: Chapter 8
- Peter Pritchard: Chapters 1, 4–7
- Wolfgang Wüster: Chapters 2, 21, 23

In addition, Domitilla Raimondo provided input on the conservation section (Chapter 2), Tony Phelps commented on the *Bitis* accounts, and Philipp Wagner commented on the agamid family and genus accounts.

It should be noted that although the *Atlas* accounts presented here were reviewed by an IUCN representative (Craig Hilton-Taylor), the full conservation assessments will still be subjected to the IUCN review process and the final listings—as they will eventually appear on the IUCN website—may differ from those in this publication.

Recommended citations

Reference to book:

BATES, M.F., BRANCH, W.R., BAUER, A.M., BURGER, M., MARAIS, J., ALEXANDER, G.J. & DE VILLIERS, M.S. (eds). 2014. Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. *Suricata* 1. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.

References to chapters, including family accounts:

BRANCH, W.R. & BAUER, A.M. 2014. Systematics and Phylogeny. In M.F. Bates, W.R. Branch, A.M. Bauer, M. Burger, J. Marais, G.J. Alexander & M.S. de Villiers (eds), Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. *Suricata* 1. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.

References to species and subspecies accounts:

BOYCOTT, R.C. 2014. *Pelomedusa subrufa* (Bonnaterre, 1789). In M.F. Bates, W.R. Branch, A.M. Bauer, M. Burger, J. Marais, G.J. Alexander & M.S. de Villiers (eds), Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. *Suricata* 1. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.

Foreword

Nearly half of the 421 species and subspecies of indigenous reptiles found in South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland occur nowhere else. As a signatory to the Conservation for Biological Diversity, South Africa has a responsibility to monitor and conserve its impressive reptile fauna. However, effective conservation planning and management is impossible without a thorough understanding of the evolutionary relationships between different types of reptiles, of their geographical distribution, and of the threats they experience.

The last Red Data Book of reptiles of South Africa was published in 1988—25 years ago. Since then there have been considerable changes in our understanding of the taxonomy, biology, distribution, diversity and conservation status of the reptiles of the region. Over a four-year period, the Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (SARCA) collated all available reptile distribution data from various sources into a single database. The outcome of this is the series of detailed maps produced in this volume, by far the most comprehensive ever for this region. This has allowed for a modern-day revision of the conservation status of all of the region's reptile species according to the latest International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List Categories and Criteria (version 3.1)—for most taxa, the first such assessment ever. Additionally, a team of scientific experts has provided a valuable summary of the latest taxonomic research and a revised list of reptile common names. This publication boasts some of the top names in herpetology in the region and has the added distinction of having been reviewed by international herpetological experts, including the Manager of IUCN's Red List Unit.

The Atlas and Red List of Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland will serve as a vital resource for researchers, conservationists and amateur naturalists alike, and has the full endorsement of the IUCN.

Valli

Valli Moosa (Past President, IUCN)

Message from SANBI

The South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI) has since 2004 been mandated by South Africa's Biodiversity Act (National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act 10 of 2004) to monitor and report on the status of the country's biodiversity. The Threatened Species Programme (TSP) housed at SANBI, has the primary role of fulfilling SANBI's mandate to monitor and report on the conservation status of South Africa's indigenous plant and animal species. The TSP co-ordinates the collection of information on species, particularly those that have historically received little research and conservation attention, such as reptiles, amphibians, spiders and marine fishes, through projects involving volunteers from the public, and scientists, taxonomists and conservationists from partner institutions across the country. The data collected through these projects are used to assess species' status against the internationally accredited Red List Categories and Criteria developed by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

The Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (SARCA) started in 2005 represents SANBI's first undertaking to set up a managed network partnership project to monitor animals. SARCA consisted of a partnership between SANBI and the Animal Demography Unit and also included a range of other academic and conservation agencies. It involved citizen scientist volunteers from the public throughout the project both in SARCA fieldtrips as well as via a web-based virtual museum of digital photographs. Virtual museum records provide valuable additional records for species distribution and SARCA was the first project to pilot virtual museums as a means to collect data for conservation assessments from the public in South Africa. Following on from SARCA, SANBI has successfully repeated the model of working with a range of conservation partners and volunteer citizen scientists from the public on conservation assessment projects. The South African Butterfly Conservation Assessment, also led by the Animal Demography Unit, and the South African Survey of Arachnids led by the Agricultural Research Council, are two important projects that have followed on from SARCA. Being the pilot project, many valuable lessons have been learnt from SARCA that have helped SANBI refine how conservation assessments can be done in partnerships.

This publication represents the first conservation assessment of South Africa's reptiles that is based not only on expert knowledge of taxa but also on a solid baseline of distribution data assembled for each species from a wide range of museum records and field sightings. This distribution data will be used by SANBI not only to report on the current status of reptiles in state of biodiversity reports but will feed into various national and regional biodiversity plans and protected area expansion strategies. Having a comprehensive data set on the distribution of South Africa's reptiles, as well as IUCN endorsed Red List conservation assessments, means that we can move forward to promote the conservation of reptiles from a sound scientific base.

Domitilla Raimondo Threatened Species Programme Manager, South African National Biodiversity Institute

Preface

SARCA, the Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment, was the first major non-botanical project undertaken by SANBI after its transition from being the National Botanical Institute to becoming the South African National Biodiversity Institute. The Animal Demography Unit, in the Department of Zoology at the University of Cape Town, is honoured to have been entrusted by SANBI with this crucial project and enormous responsibility.

One of the most intriguing by-products of SARCA was the Virtual Museum, the 'public participation' component of the project. At the time when SARCA was initiated, the digital camera and the GPS unit had just started to become commonplace items. With hindsight, the idea of collecting georeferenced images seems an obvious one, but at the time the concept was a neat piece of lateral thinking. Approximately 7 000 images were received, and made a substantive contribution to the overall database—these are 21st century records of the distribution of the region's reptiles. These records supplement museum specimens, many of which date back decades, and some to the 19th century.

This book falls short of being 'the Reptile Atlas'—for the Animal Demography Unit's understanding of what constitutes an 'Atlas', there needs to be time and money to comprehensively search each and every grid cell for animals. But all the same, this publication represents a huge advance in knowledge. The overwhelming majority of all georeferenced specimens of reptiles in the region are now in a single database. This is a vital stepping stone, but the task is not yet finished. There is a major need for a follow-on project, which establishes the actual distribution of reptiles in South Africa at the start of the 21st century. Many people were involved in this project in many roles. The prime mover, however, was James Harrison, and this is an appropriate point to celebrate his vision for biodiversity mapping. He was involved in the first bird atlas project, from beginning to end. By the mid-1980s, when the Southern African Bird Atlas Project started, the basic concepts of how to achieve a bird atlas were well established and there was a proliferation of protocols to choose from. With the frog atlas and this reptile atlas project to follow, there were no models to work from, either locally or internationally. James's skill was to take a cold hard look at the lessons learnt from the bird atlas project, to keep those which were transferable, and to invent work-arounds for those which were not.

The hardest part of a project is closure. Marienne de Villiers and Mike Bates, assisted especially by Bill Branch and René Navarro, have achieved this. Everyone who reads these pages owes this team a huge debt of gratitude.

This book, by itself, achieves nothing for reptile conservation. However, it forms a vital link in the chain of activities. The threats it highlights and the priorities it assesses must be studied and absorbed, and the conservation community needs to be galvanised into action on the ground. The words which follow should be a tipping point for change.

Les Underhill Director, Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town

SECTION 1

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Marienne S. de Villiers, Marius Burger, James A. Harrison, Bryan Maritz, René A. Navarro & Barend Erasmus

1. Background

South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland comprise a region of exceptional biodiversity, including three of the 34 global biodiversity hotspots identified by Conservation International (www.biodiversityhotspots.org). This region (hereafter referred to as the *Atlas* region) is well-known for its rich mammal and bird fauna. As impressive, but receiving far less attention, is its exceptional reptile diversity. Levels of endemism in the region are high—45% of the 421 indigenous reptile taxa (species and subspecies) occur nowhere else in the world.

South Africa has a legal obligation to monitor biodiversity under the Convention on Biological Diversity (www. biodiv.org) and the National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act (No. 10 of 2004). Monitoring—recording changes in distribution patterns and population trends—is essential for effective conservation, yet reptiles have largely been ignored in conservation plans. There are a number of reasons for this:

- Existing distribution information was not collated and integrated into a single database and was largely inaccessible.
- Distribution data were patchy, with many areas in the region having no data or inadequate data.
- There were various taxonomic uncertainties regarding the reptiles of the region. The previous Red Data Book (Branch 1988a) is now over 20 years old and the list of recognised reptile taxa has increased by almost 25% since its publication.
- There was a lack of clear conservation priorities with regard to reptiles. Only about 13% of the known taxa were previously evaluated according to the Inter-

national Union for Conservation of Nature's (IUCN) Red List Categories and Criteria.

 Reptiles have a poor public image. Reptiles in general, and snakes in particular, tend to be feared and disliked by the general public.

These concerns led to the establishment of SARCA, the Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (De Villiers *et al.* 2010). SARCA's aims were to:

- Compile a comprehensive and integrated database of distribution records of the reptiles of the *Atlas* region, and use this information to map the distributions of all these taxa.
- Conduct field surveys to fill in gaps in ranges and to test survey methods.
- Collect and bank voucher specimens and tissue samples to serve as a tool for researchers addressing taxonomic issues. Produce summaries of the latest taxonomic information regarding reptiles of the region.
- Produce an updated Red List that includes conservation assessments of all described reptile taxa in the region, using the latest criteria of the IUCN.
- Raise public awareness and appreciation of reptiles and their conservation needs.

This product of SARCA, the *Atlas and Red List of Reptiles* of *South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland*, is aimed at conservation planners and managers, researchers, professional and amateur herpetologists, legislators, environmental consultants, and interested members of the public.

2. Organization of SARCA

2.1 Initial buy-in

Early and comprehensive buy-in by stakeholders was a key factor in the success of SARCA. A project outline and discussion document was developed in 2003 by James Harrison of the Animal Demography Unit (ADU), University of Cape Town (UCT) and Graham Alexander of the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits). Discussions were held with professional herpetologists during that year and the next. A one-day workshop at Wits in August 2004 garnered support for the project from the herpetological community-in particular, from leading members of the Herpetological Association of Africa (HAA). The workshop was attended by 39 delegates from a wide range of institutions. An interim steering committee was established. A contract between the South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI) and UCT came into effect in March 2005. SARCA, a fouryear project, was launched publicly in May 2005. Executive and Steering Committees were established.

2.2 Core funding

A funding application was submitted to SANBI and core funding for SARCA was secured from that institute at the end of 2004, through its partnership with the Norwegian Ministry of the Environment. In 2007, further core funding was provided by the JRS Biodiversity Institution. For part of the project period, the employment of a data technician was funded by the South African Biodiversity Information Facility (SABIF). The total budget of the project was just under R3 million.

2.3 Project team

SARCA was co-ordinated and administered from the ADU (see Credits and Acknowledgements). Core staff included a project co-ordinator (initially employed half-time but later full-time), a project herpetologist (initially 80% but later full-time), an information technology manager (30%), a data technician (full-time) and general administration officer (30%).

The project co-ordinator had overall responsibility for the co-ordination of project activities and the management of project personnel, liaised with SANBI and other funders, organised permits and licences for field surveys, managed the conservation assessment process, and compiled reports. The project herpetologist liaised with data owners, organised and led the field surveys and was responsible for the management of the distribution database and the final processing and quality control of this data. The coordinator and herpetologist together promoted the project, encouraged public participation and were responsible for feedback to project participants. The information technology manager designed and managed the SARCA databases (distribution and assessment), website and virtual museum, produced online distribution maps and designed online hotspot analyses.

2.4 Project governance

SARCA was governed by the project team based at the ADU, and a Steering and Executive Committee. The Steering Committee comprised up to 11 members (three *ex officio*) at any one time. Its membership was drawn from SANBI, ADU, museums, conservation agencies and academic institutions. The committee met annually to set policy, monitor progress, review finances, make decisions regarding data collection strategies, set time frames, and discuss finances and other relevant matters. During the last 18 months of the project, the committee was also provided with written monthly progress reports. The Executive Committee was composed of a representative from SANBI and ADU, as well as the chair of the Steering Committee. It provided short-term decision support to the project team in-between Steering Committee meetings.

2.5 Authors and editors

The 26 authors of this volume, who generously gave of their time and expertise are, for the most part, affiliated with academic institutions, museums and nature conservation agencies (see author address list). The scientific editors (first six listed) were drawn from the pool of authors. Authors were responsible for conducting IUCN conservation assessments and for writing the species accounts contained here. In August 2006, SANBI hosted a training workshop, facilitated by the IUCN Red List Unit, on the application of the IUCN Red List Criteria. A number of SARCA contributors attended the workshop. Three subsequent authors' workshops were held to provide training in IUCN assessment procedures and in the use of the assessment database. Authors also provided valuable assistance in identifying incorrect or questionable records in the distribution database, advising on the direction of fieldwork, identifying potential sources of distribution data, and considering the directions that a second phase of SARCA might take. Each species/subspecies account was reviewed by two editors and consistency in editing was assured by means of an editors' workshop held in the final year of the project.

2.6 Members of the public

SARCA was widely publicised on radio and television and in the print media. The SARCA project herpetologist and project co-ordinator presented public lectures, exhibitions and training courses. Members of the Cape Reptile Club assisted with local events. The public was invited to participate in the project by submitting photographic records of reptiles to the SARCA Virtual Museum and by assisting with field surveys. Approximately 350 people enthusiastically submitted photographic records, and 61 volunteers participated in field surveys. Quarterly newsletters were e-mailed to a list server of approximately 800 addresses. Newsletters (1–9), field trip reports (1–13) and other items of interest were posted on the SARCA website, http://sarca.adu.org.za.

3. Data

3.1 Data referencing

The *Atlas* region consists of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. The region can be divided into 2008 quarterdegree grid cells (QDGCs), each cell measuring 15 minutes of latitude by 15 minutes of longitude. Because lines of latitude converge towards the poles, the grid cells in the north of the *Atlas* region are larger than those in the south, but the average QDGC area is 676 km².

All data was referenced to at least the QDGC level of accuracy, but higher resolution data were included where possible. Global Positioning System (GPS) data was referenced to the nearest second.

3.2 Species inventory

Over the past two decades there has been an astonishing increase in knowledge on reptile diversity in southern Africa. Since 1988, there has been a 25% increase in the number of recognised species, with an average of six species per year being newly described, elevated from subspecies to species, and/or resurrected from synonymy (Branch *et al.* 2006). For a synthesis of the taxonomy of reptiles of the *At/as* region as it is currently understood, refer to Chapter 2. For names of currently recognised reptile taxa, refer to the index. This list also contains the preferred common names of taxa selected by consensus of the *Atlas* editors, as well as other often-used names. Note that introduced reptile taxa were not assessed for this *At/as*.

3.3 Data sources

Data were accessed from approximately 400 people and 14 organisations (Table 1.1). The bulk of the data came from museums and nature conservation agencies. Other

data were obtained from private collections, academic institutions, published literature, SARCA field surveys, and members of the general public via an online Virtual Museum.

3.3.1 Field surveys

Several major surveys and regional assessments of reptile communities have been conducted within the Atlas region over the past few decades, the most notable being those in the Free State (De Waal 1978), Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng and the eastern part of North West Province (Jacobsen 1989), Swaziland (Boycott 1992a,b) and KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004). A number of localised surveys conducted in protected areas or in regions of special herpetological interest have also contributed to our knowledge of reptile distributions. Examples include those for the Kruger National Park (Pienaar 1966, 1978), Addo Elephant National Park (Branch & Braack 1987), Tsitsikamma National Park (Branch & Hanekom 1987), Durban Metropolitan Area (Alexander 1990), Anysberg Nature Reserve (Burger 1993), Little Karoo (Branch & Bauer 1995), Free State nature reserves (Bates 1997) and Richtersveld National Park (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). Additionally, a spate of new geographical distribution notes (many published by the Herpetological Association of Africa) and major taxonomic revisions (especially those of D.G. Broadley) published in the same period, have all contributed towards the mapping of reptile assemblages of this region. In spite of these efforts, the reptile fauna was still inadequately known in many areas, and SARCA therefore included a field survey component to address some of these shortfalls.

Twenty-four field surveys were undertaken in priority areas within the *Atlas* region. These were conducted over three

| Source | | Number of records |
|----------------------|--|-------------------|
| Museums—South Africa | Bayworld, Port Elizabeth Museum | 10 920 |
| | Ditsong National Museum of Natural History (formerly Transvaal Museum), Pretoria | 35 758 |
| | Durban Natural Science Museum | 1 438 |
| | Iziko Museums of South Africa, Cape Town | 5 361 |
| | John Ellerman Museum, Stellenbosch University | 3 441 |
| | Natal Museum, Pietermaritzburg | 481 |
| | National Museum, Bloemfontein | 7 643 |
| Museums—USA | American Museum of Natural History, New York | 287 |
| | California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco | 1 999 |
| | Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago | 994 |
| | Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University, Cambridge | 1 282 |
| Nature Conservation | CapeNature, Stellenbosch | 17 926 |
| | Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, Pietermaritzburg | 1 433 |
| | Gauteng Department of Agriculture, Conservation and Environment, Johannesburg | 1 067 |
| Sight records | | 9 230 |
| Literature | | 25 323 |
| SARCA surveys | | 4 220 |
| Virtual Museum | | 6 709 |
| TOTAL | | 135 512 |

Table 1.1.—Sources of distribution data

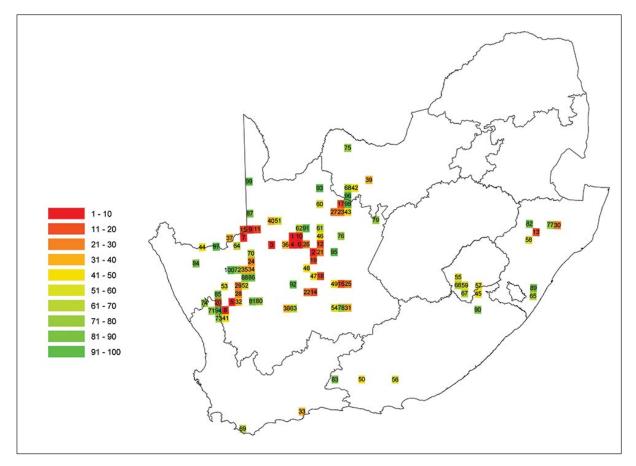


Figure 1.1.—Top 100 priority QDGCs indicated by the gap analysis for the first SARCA field season.

summer seasons from 2005 to 2008 and comprised approximately 270 days of sampling effort. Each survey had a public participation component, where volunteers accompanied the SARCA project herpetologist (Marius Burger) to conduct field work in priority areas. The 22 surveys of the first two seasons were each 10–11 days in duration, whereas the last two surveys covered 40 days in total. Sixty-one volunteer field workers provided assistance.

Prior to each surveying season, a gap analysis was conducted to choose priority QDGCs, based on a comparison of recorded species richness (number of species actually collected) in each QDGC with predicted species richness (number of species predicted to occur) in each QDGC. The gap analyses were conducted by Barend Erasmus and Bryan Maritz (both at the University of the Witwatersrand) who assessed each QDGC within the Atlas region in terms of expected species richness, based on the cumulative overlays of digitised generalised distribution maps from the Field Guide to the Snakes and other Reptiles of Southern Africa (Branch 1988b). These values were compared to a collection of databases that were obtained from several major South African museums, and which served as a starter dataset to evaluate potentially species-rich QDGCs in relation to known records from such grid cells. In addition to the mean of the percentage under-sampled, the ranking of priority QDGCs was further influenced by restricted range richness, environmental heterogeneity, percentage natural land cover, and number of neighbouring no-data QDGCs.

Although the initial starter dataset for the 2005/2006 season was relatively incomplete, it was nevertheless used

to determine priority grid cells for the first 12 SARCA field surveys. The initial analysis indicated that most of the *Atlas* region was drastically under-surveyed. The top 100 priority QDGCs are shown in Figure 1.1. Priority was given to grid cells that showed a significant discrepancy between recorded and predicted species richness, and that were geographically distant from well-surveyed grid cells. Survey efforts were focused in these areas in order to maximise the number of novel records per survey.

The gap analysis for the second season (2006/2007) incorporated a substantially larger dataset and the weighting of some of the ranking criteria was adjusted (Figure 1.2). Additionally, the choices of the 12 survey sites for this season were partially guided by the results of *A Plan for Phylogenetic Studies of Southern African Reptiles* (Branch *et al.* 2006) that highlighted the areas where field surveys would benefit taxonomic investigations of cryptic taxa.

The third season (2007/2008) consisted of two prolonged surveys that spanned several regions. These surveys focused on priority species rather than priority regions and targeted taxa that were of special conservation or taxonomic significance. For example, a concerted effort was made to search for Eastwood's Long-tailed Seps (*Tetradactylus eastwoodae*) which appears to have become extinct.

Field surveys employed a variety of methods to obtain reptile records at a specific site, including trapping, active searching of suitable habitat, road cruising and interviews with local residents. Active searching generally involved

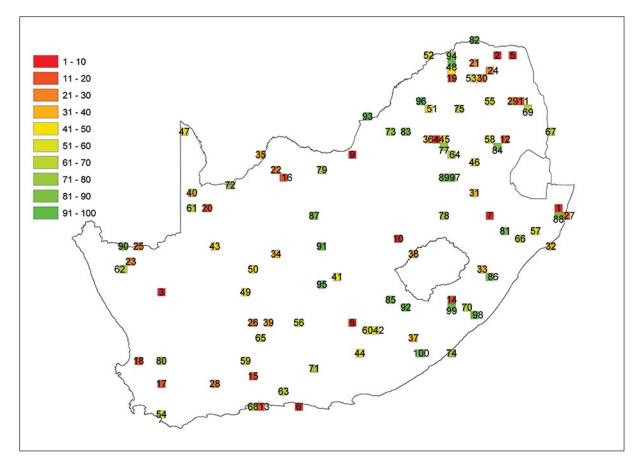


Figure 1.2.—Top 100 priority QDGCs indicated by the gap analysis for the second SARCA field season.

searching under rocks and logs, through leaf litter, and often under anthropogenic debris such as bricks, corrugated iron or asbestos sheets. Additionally, active searches for sleeping chameleons took the form of night-time spotlight surveys through vegetation. During a typical road cruise, a suitable stretch of road would be driven slowly at night to search for reptiles. This method provided an effective means of collecting nocturnal reptiles, especially geckos and snakes.

Trap arrays have been used extensively in other parts of the world to survey reptile populations (see references in Douglas 1992a). Recently, trap arrays were used in South Africa to answer questions related to the estimation of species richness (Masterson 2008), the influence of habitat structure on reptile communities (Maritz & Alexander 2007; Masterson et al. 2008), and the role of land use on reptile communities (Masterson et al. 2009). Trap arrays used during SARCA surveys were similar to those described by Maritz et al. (2007). Each array consisted of 3×10 m drift fences arranged in a Y-shape. Pitfall traps, i.e. 4×5 -litre buckets buried flush with the ground, were installed at the centre of the array and at the end of each fence. Each trap array also included a set of six doubleended funnel traps, installed as pairs halfway along each drift fence (Figure 1.3). Each survey aimed to install eight arrays to sample a variety of habitat types, but on occasion, fewer arrays were employed owing to logistical difficulties. Traps were checked daily for the duration of each survey.

Collection permits were obtained from the relevant authorities. Collected specimens were euthanased and tagged with a unique identification number. Specimens were in-

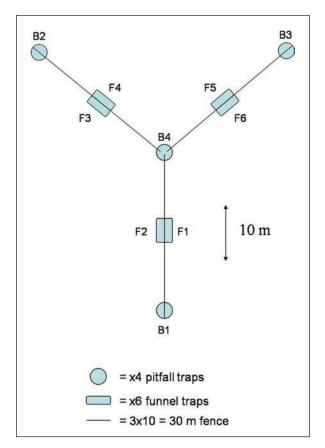


Figure 1.3.—Illustration of the layout of trap arrays used during SARCA field surveys.

jected with and set in 10% formalin for a few days, then rinsed with water and preserved in 70% ethanol. Specimens were deposited in the collections of the National Museum, Bloemfontein; Port Elizabeth Museum, Bayworld; and Ditsong National Museum of Natural History (formerly Transvaal Museum), Pretoria.

3.3.2 Virtual Museum

The SARCA Virtual Museum (VM) was developed as a novel online tool to encourage public participation in the project (De Villiers *et al.* 2008). Photographic records obtained from the public were organised in a manner analogous to a museum collection of voucher specimens, and this 'collection' was made accessible online. The availability of multiple photographic 'specimens' for each species makes the VM a powerful aid to the identification of reptiles by members of the public, with the added advantage that most of the photographic specimens are of living animals in the wild and therefore have a lifelike appearance in comparison to voucher specimens in museum collections.

Open source software was used; mySQL provided the database back end and the front end was written entirely in the general purpose scripting language PHP. Photographs of reptiles were submitted by members of the public via e-mail, along with basic information using the following fields: observer name; co-ordinates latitude; co-ordinates longitude; locality; province; country; date; number of photos; notes.

Submissions were processed, locality information verified, and photos edited, before uploading onto the online VM (http://vmus.adu.org.za/). Each record was identified to species level by a panel of experts, using an online procedure which automatically updated the VM database. Distribution maps for each species, generated in real time from the VM database, were also made available online.

Results of a questionnaire at the end of the third year of SARCA indicated that wildlife enthusiasts submitted the most records, and amateur naturalists were most often responsible for promoting the VM to other people. Over half of the respondents indicated a moderate to considerable increase in knowledge and appreciation of reptiles as a result of the VM. Submissions included new distribution records, significant species' range extensions, records of seldom-seen fossorial species, records of rare and threat-ened species, records of unusual colour morphs (Mecenero & De Villiers 2007), and the first record for the Atlas region of *Gerrhosaurus auritus*.

The successful application of the VM concept by SARCA has since lead to the initiation of similar VM collections for other biodiversity projects, namely the Southern African Butterfly Conservation Assessment (http://sabca.adu. org.za) and the South African National Survey of Arachnida (www.arc.agric.za/home.asp?pid=3272). The VM was extremely popular, and towards the end of the SAR-CA project, members of the Herpetological Association of Africa overwhelmingly indicated that they would like to see the reptile VM extend beyond the end of the SARCA contract. The ADU has since launched a new, automated version of the VM with an online submission procedure, which has been expanded to include records of amphibians, mammals and other taxonomic groups (http://vmus.adu.org.za/).

3.4 Database management

3.4.1 Distribution database

The distribution database was compiled at the ADU using MySQL. This open source database is used worldwide by web developers and industry leaders such as Yahoo!, Google and Nokia. MySQL is open-source software and runs on more than 20 platforms, including Linux, Windows, OS/X and Netware, and is therefore fully portable to most other modern databases. Data from published species distribution maps were captured using ArcView v. 9.2 (Esri).

Each data record contained:

- A unique record number.
- A scientific name.
 - A date.
 - A QDGC code.

Where available, the following were also included:

- A set of co-ordinates (12 digits) for the locality.
- A locality description.
- An observer name.
- An institution name and code.
- A museum catalogue number.

All computerised data (particularly geo-referencing) were checked for accuracy of data entry.

Some data received by SARCA had not been updated to reflect recent taxonomic changes and it was sometimes impossible to be sure of species identities without physically examining the specimen in question. This was generally beyond the scope of the project and such records were usually flagged as 'questionable' and excluded from subsequent analyses (data were seldom deleted from the database), although the identities of a few questionable specimens were checked by museum curators.

Errors arising from incorrect identifications or taxonomic changes were mainly detected through inspection of distribution maps. Where possible, dubious outliers were tracked back to their source and queried. These errors were mostly corrected, but if a queried record could not be verified, the record was flagged and excluded from analyses. Where the limits of species distributions were not well-defined, the editors and authors used their discretion with regard to outliers. Some errors that were not obvious from the maps may not have been detected, but these are not expected to seriously compromise the integrity of the database.

All VM species identifications were confirmed by a panel of expert herpetologists according to pre-determined criteria. In the case of species that were difficult to separate on morphological characters, known distribution ranges were taken into account when making identifications. Identifications were accepted only once there was agreement between at least two members of the panel. If a third panel member provided a conflicting identification, then a fourth opinion was sought and the identification was based on agreement between three of the four panel members.

Some records were obtained from more than one source, leading to replication of records in the database. However, this did not affect the SARCA maps, which merely reflect the presence or absence of a taxon in a given QDGC.

All processed data were uploaded into a comprehensive database. Prior to upload into the database, each data record was assigned a unique SARCA record number. During the upload process, each record was assigned a locus (i.e. QDGC). The database will relocate to SANBI, to be made publicly accessible via SANBI's online data portal (SIBIS: SABIF data portal; http://sibis.sanbi.org/).

3.4.2 Conservation assessment database

An online conservation assessment database was developed at the ADU. Open-source software was used; MySQL provided the database back end and the front end was written in PHP.

The database was designed according to the requirements for IUCN species assessments, and incorporated IUCN Species Information Service forms and fields. The database was used by authors to enter information for species assessments, and online editorial changes were made. Selected parts of the database were exported to text files for inclusion in this publication. The entire database will be transferred to the IUCN for incorporation into the Species Information Service and for publication on the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species (www.iucnredlist.org).

Taxa were assessed according to the IUCN Red Listing procedure (IUCN 2001; IUCN 2010a): Least Concern

(LC), Near Threatened (NT), threatened (including the categories Vulnerable [VU], Endangered [EN] and Critically Endangered [CR]), Extinct (EX) or Data Deficient (DD) (see Appendix 1 for details on the categories and criteria used).

Distribution data were extracted from the SARCA database and linked to a vegetation map of the *Atlas* region (Mucina & Rutherford 2006) and shape files of protected areas from the National Spatial Biodiversity Assessment (Driver *et al.* 2005). This allowed the calculation of lists of vegetation types and protected areas for each reptile taxon, to assist authors in the completion of their accounts. This information is in the online assessment database but is not presented in this publication.

Please refer to Section 2, *Introduction to accounts*, for more detail on the data included in the conservation assessment database.

3.5 Data presentation

Species distribution maps for the *Atlas* region, with national and provincial boundaries and a one- or two-degree grid, were compiled using plain geographic co-ordinates (i.e. no geographic projection used) (Figure 1.4).

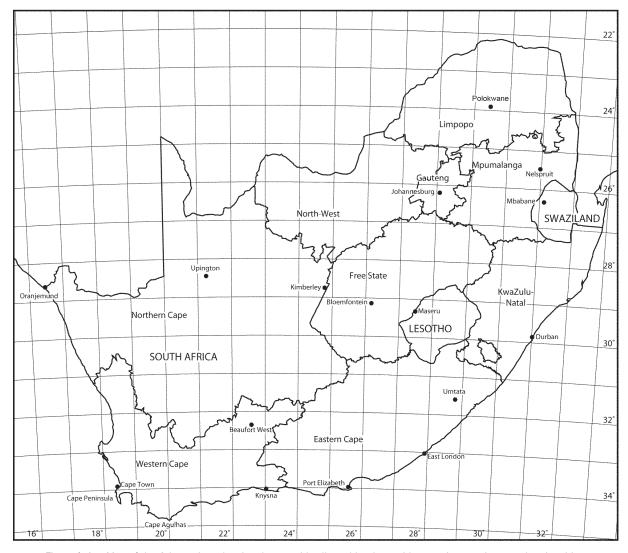


Figure 1.4.—Map of the Atlas region, showing degree grid cells and borders, with countries, provinces and major cities.

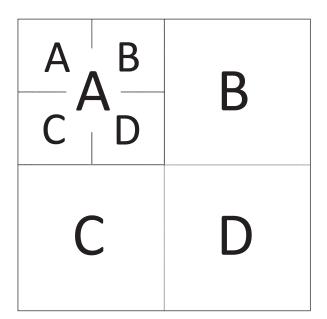


Figure 1.5.—Diagram illustrating the notation used for quarter-degree grid cells.

The maps were compiled at the quarter-degree grid cell (QDGC) scale (Figure 1.5). A QDGC is a 15' \times 15' block (thus each degree grid cell has 16 QDGCs). The *Atlas* region is divided into 2008 QDGCs. The area of the average QDGC is 676 km²—lines of longitude converge towards the poles thus the grid cells in the north of the *Atlas* region are larger than those in the south.

The maps present data contained in the database—only presence of a taxon per QDGC is indicated—and do not involve any extrapolations or interpolations.

In cases of taxonomic uncertainty regarding subspecies within a genus-species binomial, records for the species and its subspecies were combined in a single map.

Established subspecies that are easily diagnosable (e.g. *Lygodactylus ocellatus*) were accorded separate accounts, but in cases where the status of subspecies was considered unresolved (e.g. *Leptotyphlops scutifrons-conjunctus* complex and *Psammobates tentorius*) they were combined in a single species account.

For further details of species distribution maps, refer to Section 2, *Introduction to accounts*.

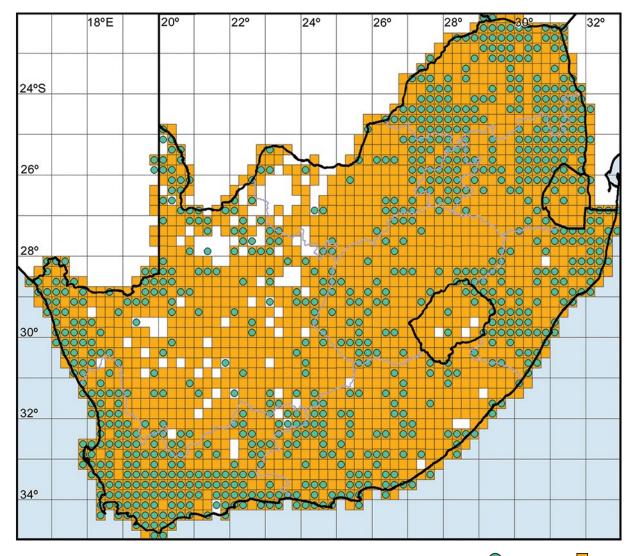


Figure 1.6.—Map showing coverage of *Atlas* region by SARCA records. Virtual Museum records: O Other records:

9

3.6 Data strengths and weaknesses

3.6.1 Geographical coverage

The geographical region covered by this *Atlas* is South Africa (including its offshore islands), Lesotho and Swaziland. The distribution maps are the result of a first comprehensive collation of records from many sources. Many of the species maps are thus more comprehensive than those previously published. This has allowed a more accurate assessment of conservation status. For example, when *Gerrhosaurus typicus* was assessed by McLachlan (1988a), it was known from only 12 QDGCs and was assessed as Lower Risk: Near Threatened (Baillie & Groombridge 1996). However, the SARCA map shows that the species has now been recorded in 28 QDGCs and, as a result of a more comprehensive understanding of its distribution, this species has been downgraded to Least Concern.

Geographical coverage at the degree level was excellent, with records obtained from all degree grid units and 94% of QDGCs in the region (Figure 1.6). However, many records were centered in urban areas, or areas within easy reach of major roads. The areas with the greatest gaps in coverage were in the Northern Cape and North-West provinces (northwestern part of the Savanna Biome and northern part of Nama-Karoo Biome). Because of difficulty of access, mountainous areas tended to be relatively poorly surveyed. However, the Cape Fold Mountains were an exception owing to a dedicated survey of the ranges led by Michael Cunningham (compared to large parts of the Northern Cape that remain unsurveyed), and records are therefore geographically biased.

Despite the good coverage, QDGC-scale data are too course for fine-scale conservation planning. Large numbers of records were supplied without geographical coordinates. Because of this lack of fine-scale distribution data, the IUCN Guidelines (IUCN 2003) for estimating area of occupancy (using 2×2 km grids) could not be used. Although areas of unsuitable habitat were excluded in the SARCA estimations of area of occupancy, these were likely overestimates. For taxa with restricted distributions and a paucity of data, this may have resulted in the underestimation of extinction risk.

Distribution records mainly reflect the presence of taxa within QDGCs and not their absence. It is important to

note that presence of a taxon in a QDGC does not mean it occurs throughout the QDGC, so care should be taken when making inferences about distribution at a finer scale.

Thirty-percent of species assessments were done at the regional rather than the global scale, due to paucity of information regarding their distribution, habits and threats outside the *Atlas* region. The IUCN Regional Guidelines (IUCN 2003) were used to decide if regional assessments should be up- or down-listed.

3.6.2 Species coverage

Records tended to be biased towards common, easily observed or interest-group taxa, thus there was taxonomic bias in the database.

The number of records collected for each species was influenced by rarity (e.g. Lamprophis fiskii) but also by species characteristics which affected ease of observation. Some fossorial species (e.g. Scelotes montispectus) are often missed in field surveys and therefore few records exist for these. Likewise, localised high-altitude species (e.g. Montaspis gilvomaculata) are also seldom encountered. Data on some species that are restricted to highaltitude areas (e.g. Tropidosaura cottrelli) are sometimes lacking because of the difficulty of accessing mountainous areas. Positive identifications were sometimes impossible for cryptic taxa (e.g. some Leptotyphlops and Goggia species). In cases where there were recent taxonomic changes, such as the splitting of species, it was sometimes not possible to be sure of taxon identities and such records were excluded from analyses. Accounts were written for taxa with extremely marginal distributions in the Atlas region, but these taxa were not assessed. This is equivalent to the IUCN term 'Not Applicable' as defined in the IUCN Regional Guidelines (IUCN 2003).

3.6.3 Other limitations

Historically, the various efforts to collect herpetological data have not been co-ordinated, have not been standardised over time, and no record of observer effort has been kept. Using the existing data to interpret trends in reptile populations or changes in distributions over time is thus problematic. Standardised, regular and repeatable field surveys would add enormously to the conservation value of data.

CHAPTER 2

Systematics and Phylogeny

William R. Branch & Aaron M. Bauer

"Rigorous updated taxonomic lists should be the most important documents on which conservation policies and macroecology rely."

(Padial & De la Riva 2006)

A conservation assessment can only be meaningful if the units it treats correspond to real biological entities. The use of an outdated or incorrect taxonomy in an assessment can have serious negative consequences. For example, morphologically similar species, each with a small population size and limited geographical range, might be misinterpreted as being representatives of a single widespread species. This would result in one or more threatened taxa being assessed as Least Concern.

An integral part of SARCA involved an assessment of systematic priorities for the reptiles of the *Atlas* region. In a community effort, researchers identified taxa that were known or suspected to be problematic, i.e. consisted of cryptic species, with invalid names, or included undescribed species. To some extent, an up-to-date taxonomy is a moving target as additional data often results in changes. The majority of recent taxonomic changes have been associated with molecular phylogenetics.

Although explicitly phylogenetic studies are a phenomenon of the last 50 years, most classification schemes of the post-Darwinian era have attempted to reflect elements of evolutionary relationships. 'Modern' phylogenetics specifically attempts to discover monophyletic groups (clades) and the patterns of relationship among them. Such patterns, typically represented as tree diagrams or cladograms, constitute hypotheses of relationships that may subsequently be tested by the analysis of more or different data sets. Valid data for analysis can be any features intrinsic to the organism, from DNA to proteins to morphological features or behaviours. During much of the mid- to late 20th century, morphological characters typically provided the basis for phylogenetic studies. However, molecular data, chiefly in the form of mitochondrial and-more recentlynuclear DNA sequences, have become the most common source of phylogenetic information. While morphological data remain valuable in phylogenetic reconstruction, and certainly in the recognition and diagnosis of taxonomic units, molecular data do offer several advantages. The cost of data collection is lower and the speed of analysis greater than for morphological characters, which typically require a major time input by highly trained specialists. Furthermore, DNA sequence data provide researchers with the option of selecting from multiple models of molecular evolution in the course of their phylogenetic analyses. Currently three major types of analytical approaches are used in molecular phylogenetics: maximum parsimony, maximum likelihood, and Bayesian inference (the last two categorised as model-based methods).

A consideration of the positive and negative aspects of the analytical approaches is beyond the scope of this chapter, but suffice it to say that data sets with strong phylogenetic signals are largely robust to analytical approach, and the various approaches typically yield similar hypotheses of relationship. Moreover, the potential to provide a temporal calibration for the rate of neutral mutations in molecular phylogenies offers the opportunity to not only uncover Life's relationships, but also to date the nodes (cladogenic events) and to relate these to geographic, climatic or stochastic events that may have been instrumental in the evolution of clades (Hedges & Kumar 2009).

Recent studies on phylogenetic relationships in the different groups of reptiles in the region, and the consequent systematic modifications that have been made to accommodate these hypotheses of relationship, are summarised on the following pages. This summary does not claim to be complete and will certainly be outdated in many respects within the near future. Fuller details and the rationale for the changes can be found in the literature cited. As Agapow (2005) has noted, the application of the phylogenetic species concept has resulted in average species lists that contain about twice as many species as lists for the same groups based on the biological species concept.

For the purposes of providing a context for the taxonomy employed in the *Atlas* we outline on the following pages the major advances in the phylogeny and taxonomy of reptile groups occurring in the *Atlas* region since the last reptile assessment was published (Branch 1988a). We note that problems associated with the publication of new names in electronic media (Dubois *et al.* 2013), as well as ethical problems associated with some new names ('taxonomic vandalism', Kaiser *et al.* 2013), have recently affected herpetological nomenclature. The taxonomy adopted in the *Atlas* reflects the consensus view of the editors, and is the most up-to-date and recommended taxonomy for the region.

1. CHELONIA

A molecular phylogeny of tortoises (Le et al. 2006) demonstrated the polyphyly of Geochelone, with species distributed in four separate clades. The Spurred Tortoise, G. sulcata, that had been placed in the monotypic genus Centrochelys (Lapparent de Broin 2000), was found to be closely related to the Asian G. elegans (type species of Geochelone) and G. platynota and was therefore returned to that genus. However, the Leopard Tortoise, G. pardalis, was found to be the sister clade to Psammobates, and it was recommended that it be included in the latter genus. Earlier, Lapparent de Broin (2000) had revived Stigmochelys Gray for this species, and Fritz & Bininda-Emonds (2007), using an expanded data set, re-analysed the findings of Le et al. (2006) and concluded that recognition of Stigmochelys as a sister taxon to Psammobates was warranted. The validity of the subspecies Stigmochelys pardalis babcocki has been a contentious issue for some time. This situation was reviewed by Fritz et al. (2010a) and recognition of S. p. babcocki was abandoned.

A molecular phylogeny of African hinge-back tortoises (*Kinixys*) was presented by Kindler *et al.* (2012), with

implications for the phylogeography and taxonomy of species in the *Atlas* region. Savanna species were found to be paraphyletic with respect to the rainforest species *K. homeana* and *K. erosa*, and the latter clade appears to be derived from a savanna-living ancestor. The name *K. belliana* (Gray, 1830) was restricted to hinged-back tortoises ranging from Angola to Burundi, while those from the East African coastal region—extending into the northeastern parts of KwaZulu-Natal in the *Atlas* region—previously assigned to *K. b. belliana*, represent a distinct species, *K. zombensis*.

Up to nine deep genealogical lineages have been demonstrated in the widely distributed African Helmeted Terrapin (*Pelomedusa subrufa*), indicating numerous undescribed taxa that await resolution (Vargas-Ramírez *et al.* 2010). The level of genetic divergence in these *Pelomedusa* lineages is comparable to that between many well-differentiated hinged terrapin (*Pelusios*) species. Within the latter genus, cryptic species also appear evident in both *P. sinuatus* and *P. rhodesianus* (Fritz *et al.* 2011).

2. CROCODYLIA

Phylogenetic relationships among crocodilians have recently been re-evaluated (Brochu 2000, 2003; Schmitz *et al.* 2003; McAliley *et al.* 2006; Piras *et al.* 2010; Zhang *et al.* 2011). Recent authors (Janke *et al.* 2005; Roos *et al.* 2007; Meganathan *et al.* 2010; Zhang *et al.* 2011) have allocated the genera previously assigned to the Gavialidae (*Gavialis* and *Tomistoma*) to the Crocodylidae. A number of authors (e.g. Schmitz *et al.* 2003) have noted that Central African *Crocodylus*, and McAliley *et al.* (2006) revived *Mecistops* Gray 1844 to accommodate this species, which is considered to be the sole surviving member of an ancient lineage endemic to the African continent. Phylogenetic relationships within *Crocodylus* indicate that the genus is relatively young and has only recently colonised Africa (Brochu 2000). Schmitz *et al.* (2003) provided molecular evidence for species-level divergence in African Nile Crocodiles, and treated Central and West African crocodiles as a separate species, *C. suchus*. Further studies, using larger gene sequences and greater individual and taxon sampling (Hekkala *et al.* 2010; Meredith *et al.* 2011), have supported genetic divergence within Nile Crocodile populations and shown, perhaps surprisingly, that the New World radiation of crocodiles (*C. intermedius, C. rhombifer, C. acutus* and *C. moreletii*) are sister to East African *C. niloticus.* Further studies are underway to resolve the taxonomy in the light of these findings (see Meredith *et al.* 2011).

3. SQUAMATA

Camp (1923) presented one of the first detailed hypotheses of squamate relationships based on morphology. Estes *et al.* (1988) revisited squamate relationships in an explicitly cladistic framework and retrieved many of the same relationships as Camp. They recognised the Iguania (Iguanidae, Agamidae, Chamaeleonidae)—a group of diurnal, visually oriented, fully limbed, ambush predators—as the sister group of the Scleroglossa. The latter is a morphologically and ecologically diverse lineage of chemosensory specialists, including cryptic and/or nocturnal groups and mainly actively foraging predators. Within the Scleroglossa, the Gekkota (geckos and pygopods) were the sister to the remaining groups, constituting the Autarchoglossa, itself including the Scincomorpha and Anguimorpha. Under this phylogenetic hypothesis, the positions of snakes (Serpentes), amphisbaenians, and the enigmatic lizard family Dibamidae were unresolved, although there was strong support for the anguimorph origins of snakes. The framework of Estes *et al.* (1988) provided the basis for squamate classifications used by the most recent generation of herpetologists (Figure 2.1).

More recent analyses, including those of morphological data (Lee 1998, 2000; Conrad 2008) and molecular data (Saint *et al.* 1998; Harris *et al.* 2001; Townsend *et al.* 2004; Vidal & Hedges 2005, 2009; Wiens *et al.* 2012) have challenged this view of squamate genealogy. Vidal & Hedges (2009), for example, present a phylogeny that differs fundamentally from the 'orthodox' morphologically derived tree and that implies a very different resultant

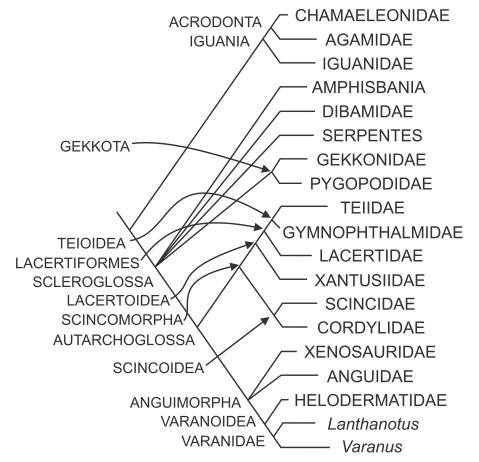


Figure 2.1.—Squamate inter-relationships based on morphology, as hypothesised by Estes *et al.* 1988 (adapted from Conrad 2008, and reproduced courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History).

classification scheme in which the Dibamidae is sister to the Bifurcata, including all remaining squamates. Within the latter group Gekkota is sister to the Unidentata (= Scinciformata + Episquamata). Scinciformata includes the Scincidae, Xantusiidae, Cordylidae and Gerrhosauridae. Within Episquamata the Laterata (Teiidae, Gymnophthalmidae, Lacertidae and all amphisbaenians) are sister to the Toxicofera (Anguimorpha and Iguania of Estes et al. [1988] + Serpentes). These relationships are supported chiefly by nuclear DNA sequence data, but they are consistent with other data sources, such as the presence of elements of a venom system in the toxicoferan groups (Fry et al. 2006, 2008). This new squamate classification (Figure 2.2) certainly upsets traditional views of higher order relationships, but it is nonetheless remarkably consistent with morphologically-derived hypotheses of relationships with regard to the recognition of major clusters of families (e.g. Gekkota, Anguimorpha and Iguania).

We accept the phylogeny of Vidal & Hedges (2009) as the best-supported current hypothesis of relationships among squamates, and in the checklist of taxa included in the Atlas we have, to a large extent, used their higher order groupings. However, the incorporation of snakes (Serpentes) within Toxicofera causes extreme nomenclatural upheaval, with hierarchical re-adjustment required for the numerous (nearly 20) snake families and other higher order categories currently recognised within the group. For this reason, the Atlas accounts are organised in more traditional groupings (lizards [including amphisbaenians] and snakes), largely to accommodate non-systematist users of the book who may not be familiar with recent advances in the field. That snakes are nested within lizards, however, is undoubted; but the nomenclatural consequences need further elaboration. Ultimately, classification schemes are dynamic because they are reflections of phylogenetic hypotheses that may be expected to change as more and better data become available for analysis.

4. SAURIA

4.1 Agamidae

Despite the small number of recognised taxa in the region, species boundaries among agamids remain a major area of uncertainty in southern African reptile systematics. A phylogenetic analysis of the family (Joger 1991) supported the recognition of *Acanthocercus* as a distinct genus separate from *Agama* (see also Leaché *et al.* 2009), with *Acanthocercus atricollis*, which includes a number of cryptic taxa, currently being investigated (Wagner & Bauer 2012; Wagner *et al.* 2012; P. Wagner pers. comm.). Although no new agamid species have been de-

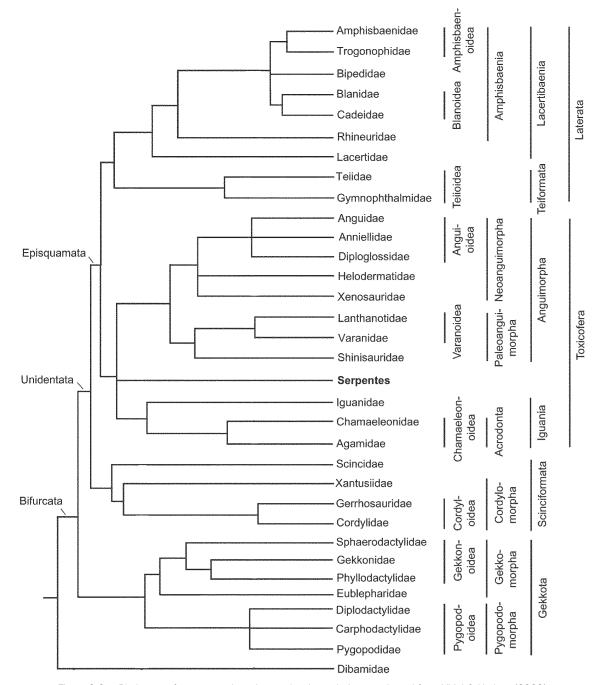


Figure 2.2.—Phylogeny of squamates based on molecular techniques, adapted from Vidal & Hedges (2009).

scribed from the *Atlas* region in the last 20 years, the status of the taxa *A. armata*, *A. aculeata distanti* and *A. (atra) knobeli* have been the focus of some research. Reproductive (Mouton & Herselman 1994) and genetic (Matthee & Flemming 2002) studies on *A. atra* have demonstrated significant geographic variation, with three identified populations (southern Namibia, western arid and southern mesic) that may merit taxonomic recognition. However, none of the agamids in the *Atlas* region are of conservation concern.

4.2 Chamaeleonidae

Although Frost & Etheridge (1989) treated chameleons as a subfamily within the Agamidae, this has not been accepted by most workers (e.g. Klaver & Böhme 1997). The

recognition of subfamilies within the Chamaeleonidae is also problematic. Klaver & Böhme (1986) recognised two subfamilies, the Brookesiinae containing Brookesia and Rhampholeon, with the remaining genera included in the Chamaeleoninae. The relationships and content of genera in both putative subfamilies have been subject to much debate (Townsend & Larson 2002; Matthee et al. 2004), and continued recognition of subfamilies is not supported by recent molecular phylogenies (Tilbury et al. 2006). The validation of Trioceros (Tilbury & Tolley 2009a) and Archaius (Townsend et al. 2011) as full genera means that the remaining chameleonine genus in the Atlas region, Chamaeleo, now has a greatly reduced content and morphological diversity. Townsend & Larson (2002) found that Chamaeleo namaquensis represented a separate lineage from other Chamaeleo. However, their study was preliminary. Additional molecular phylogenetic studies supported these relationships but generic assignment as *C. namaquensis* was maintained (Tolley *et al.* 2013).

The transfer of East African dwarf chameleons previously placed in Bradypodion (Klaver & Böhme 1986) to the genus Kinyongia (Tilbury et al. 2006) means that Bradypodion is now the sole southern African endemic genus in the family. Several new species have recently been described in this genus: B. atromontanum, B. caeruleogula and B. ngomeense (Branch et al. 2006b; Raw & Brothers 2008; Tilbury & Tolley 2009b). An additional taxon, B. nkandlae (from Nkandla Forest in KwaZulu-Natal), was described by Raw & Brothers (2008), but genetic data do not support the distinctiveness of this form (Tolley et al. 2006) and it has since been synonymised with B. nemorale Raw 1978 (Tilbury & Tolley 2009b), to which it had previously been referred. Unravelling species boundaries within *Bradypodion* is difficult (see discussion in Branch et al. 2006), and the description of new species based on restricted morphological analysis and limited specimens (e.g. Raw & Brothers 2008) will only confound scientific insight and inflate synonymies unnecessarily. Ongoing phylogenetic and phylogeographic research suggests that existing taxonomy still does not reflect real biodiversity within the genus (Tolley et al. 2006).

4.3 Cordylidae

In a preliminary molecular phylogenetic study, Frost et al. (2001) relegated Chamaesaura and Pseudocordvlus to the synonymy of Cordylus. This arrangement was not widely followed due to concerns about the study's low taxon sampling and nomenclatural complications arising from such a re-arrangement. A more taxon-complete phylogenetic study using a wider array of genetic markers has now been completed (Stanley et al. 2011), and necessitated numerous taxonomic re-adjustments. This study recognised a new subfamily, Platysaurinae, for Platysaurus, maintained generic recognition for the serpentine Chamaesaura and the typical Pseudocordylus, and also revived Hemicordylus for the gracile cliff lizards H. capensis and H. nebulosa previously included in *Pseudocordylus*. The greatest taxonomic disruption occurred in Cordylus, where five new genera were required in order to retain monophyletic groups (Stanley et al. 2011). These genera are: Smaug (S. giganteus, S. warreni warreni, S. warreni barbertonensis, S. warreni depressus, S. vandami, S. breyeri, S. mossambicus, S. regius), Ninurta (N. coeruleopunctatus), Ouroborus (O. cataphractus), Karusasaurus (K. polyzonus, K. jordani), and Namazonurus (N. pustulatus, N. namaquensis, N. peersi, N. campbelli, N. lawrenci). The remaining species were retained within a reduced Cordylus.

Within the *Atlas* region the most recently described taxa include *C. oelofseni* (Mouton & Van Wyk 1990), *C. im*kae, *C. cloetei*, *C. aridus* (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994), *Hemicordylus nebulosus* (Mouton & Van Wyk 1995), *Platysaurus lebomboensis*, *P. monotropis*, *P. intermedius inopinus* (Jacobsen 1994a) and *P. broadleyi* (Branch & Whiting 1997). Revisionary work in the *Smaug warreni* group is ongoing (E.L. Stanley & M.F. Bates in prep.) and suggests that an additional new taxon occurs in the *Atlas* region. Bates (2007a) has revised the *Pseudocordylus melanotus* complex, validating the specific status of *P. transvaalensis*.

4.4 Gekkonidae

Taxa formerly placed in the Gekkonidae have subsequently been allocated to six different families (Han et al. 2004;

Gamble et al. 2008a,b), but only the Gekkonidae sensu stricto occurs in southern Africa. At the generic level, Bauer et al. (1997) separated out the new African leaf-toed genera Cryptactites, Goggia and Afrogecko, as well as Haemodracon (Socotra) and Dixsonius (Southeast Asia) from the formerly cosmopolitan Phyllodactylus. New species of the leaf-toed geckos from the Atlas region include Goggia braacki (Good et al. 1996), G. gemmula (Bauer et al. 1996), G. hewitti and G. hexapora (Branch et al. 1995a), and Afrogecko swartbergensis (Haacke 1996), while others were resurrected from synonymy (G. essexi and G. rupicola [Branch et al. 1995a]). Bauer & Lamb (2005) sank Palmatogecko into the synonymy of Pachydactylus and transferred Pachydactylus bibronii and P. turneri to Chondrodactylus. Colopus was also no longer monotypic with the transfer of C. kochii from Pachydactylus. Elasmodactylus was revived for the basal East African species, E. tuberculosus and E. tetensis (Bauer & Lamb 2005). Finer scale phylogenetic analyses within various groups of Pachydactylus have resulted in the elevation of various subspecies to specific rank (P. barnardi, P. formosus, P. purcelli, P. montanus [Bauer & Lamb 2002; Bauer et al. 2006a]), the removal of *P. serval* from the South African faunal list, and the description of many new taxa (P. monicae, P. visseri, P. atorquatus, P. goodi, and P. carinatus) from the Northern Cape (Bauer et al. 2006a,b). In addition, Bauer et al. (2012) revised the four taxa in the P. mariguensis group, treating all as full species. All four species occur in the Atlas region and only P. latirostris is not endemic, extending into Namibia. Both P. amoenus Werner. 1910 and P. macrolepis FitzSimons, 1939 have restricted ranges in Little Namagualand, but neither are considered threatened. Within Lygodactylus, Jacobsen (1992a, 1994b) named L. graniticolus, L. n. nigropunctatus, L. n. montiscaeruli, L. n. incognitus, L. waterbergensis and L. ocellatus soutpansbergensis. Gecko groups currently receiving taxonomic attention include P. geitje, the P. maculatus group, Lygodactylus and Afroedura. This attention is particularly focused on Afroedura from Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces, where numerous undescribed species are known to occur, most of which are likely to be of conservation concern. The status of Hemidactylus mabouia in Africa and the western Indian Ocean remains problematic, and is currently under investigation (Vences et al. 2004; Carranza & Arnold 2006; Rocha et al. 2005, 2010).

4.5 Gerrhosauridae

A recent molecular phylogeny of Gerrhosaurinae by Bates *et al.* (2013) confirmed earlier indications (Lamb *et al.* 2003, Lamb & Bauer 2013) of five major clades. To maintain existing genera, particularly the serpentine *Tetradactylus*, they described two new genera (*Broadleysaurus* and *Matobosaurus*), and revalidated *Gerrhosaurus intermedius*.

4.6 Amphisbaenidae

The phylogeny of Townsend *et al.* (2004) indicated that amphisbaenians formed a sister taxon to the Lacertidae. In another molecular study, Macey *et al.* (2004) assessed phylogenetic relationships among amphisbaenians and found the Rhineuridae (restricted to Florida, USA) to be basal and the Bipedidae (New World) to be the sister taxon to the Amphisbaenidae + Trogonophidae. Mott & Vieites (2009) also demonstrated that the morphological characters previously used to diagnose South American amphisbaenid genera were homoplasic, and the taxonomy based upon them inappropriate. The greatest amphisbaenian diversity occurs in the Amphisbaenidae, the only family represented in the *Atlas* region. Broadley *et al.* (1976) discussed geographical variation in *Monopeltis* and recognised three forms (groups A–C) within *M. capensis*. These have all subsequently been treated as full species, with *M. decosteri* revived for Group C and *M. infuscata* described for Group B (Broadley 1997a). *Monopeltis mauricei* was treated as a subspecies of *M. sphenorhynchus* by Broadley *et al.* (1976), but re-elevated to specific status by Broadley (2001a) and treated as such by Gans (2005). Broadley & Broadley (1997) revived *Zygaspis*.

The updated checklist and bibliography of the Amphisbaenia of the world by Gans (2005) treats a number of taxa previously considered subspecies or synonyms of others, as full species. It is not obvious whether Gans (2005) considered these as nomenclatural adjustments or valid taxa within a phylogenetic species framework, or simply as potentially available names. Gans (2005) raised Chirindia langi occidentalis (Jacobsen 1984) to specific status without comment. This action seems reasonable given its close proximity (80 km) to typical C. langi and because there is no evidence of a clinal gradient in diagnostic morphology. However, supporting molecular data would be useful to resolve its status. In a similar manner, Gans (2005) raised Dalophia transvaalensis and numerous other taxa previously treated as synonyms of Dalophia pistillum to specific status, but these amendments have not been followed here and await further study.

4.7 Lacertidae

Recent molecular studies have indicated primary divisions within the family, although there has been debate as to whether these should be accorded subfamilial or tribal status. Harris et al. (1998) divided the family into three subfamilies: Gallotiinae, Eremiadinae and Lacertinae. However, Gallotiinae is sister to a clade containing Eremiadinae and Lacertinae, which thus cannot have the same rank. The latter two subfamilies have consequently been downgraded to tribes, as Eremiadini Szczerbak, 1975 and Lacertini Oppel, 1811 (Arnold et al. 2007). This also affirmed support for the generic level phylogenies of Arnold (1989) which recognised two Afrotropical groups: a South African one containing Tropidosaura, Pedioplanis, Meroles and Ichnotropis; and another made up of Nucras of south and east Africa plus a clade consisting of Latastia, Heliobolus and Philochortus, referred to as the Northeast African group. Arnold (1989) also erected Australolacerta for A. rupicola and A. australis, two South African endemics that were previously placed in the Palaearctic genus Lacerta. A molecular analysis by Engleder et al. (2013) confirmed the sister group relationship between a 'South African clade' (Tropidosaura, Pedioplanis, Meroles, Ichnotropis and Australolacerta) and an 'East African clade' (including Nucras and Heliobolus), and suggested that diversification in southern Africa was 'explosive' and associated with an incisive climatic event. Two recent independent molecular analyses showed that Ichnotropis squamulosa should be transferred to the genus Meroles (Edwards et al. 2012; Engleder et al. 2013). This was formally undertaken by Edwards et al. (2013a), who also demonstrated that Australolacerta rupicola was genetically well-defined from A. australis, and transferred it to a new genus, Vhembelacerta.

Although no new species have recently been described from the *Atlas* region, phylogenetic analyses of *Meroles* (Harris *et al.* 1998; Lamb & Bauer 2003) and *Pedioplanis* (Makokha *et al.* 2007; Conradie *et al.* 2012) confirm

morphologically-based suspicions that some widespread taxa are composed of several biological units. This applies particularly to *Meroles suborbitalis* and *Pedioplanis lineoocellata*, *P. namaquensis* and *P. inornata*. Within *Nucras taeniolata*, Broadley (1972) recognised a northern subspecies (*N. t. ornata*), but this was elevated to a full species by Jacobsen (1989), who also validated *N. taeniolata holubi* (subsequently shown to be a full species by Bates 1996a). Branch & Bauer (1995) elevated *N. livida* to full species status, and a new species of *Nucras* from the West Coast has been identified but remains undescribed. A molecular phylogeny of *Nucras* is underway (A.M. Bauer *et al.* in prep.).

4.8 Scincidae

Higher order studies of skink relationships (A.S. Whiting et al. 2003; Brandley et al. 2005) have indicated that neither the Scincinae nor Lygosominae are monophyletic. In the Acontinae, Daniels et al. (2002, 2005, 2006, 2009) demonstrated that existing generic and species boundaries did not reflect evolutionary groups and they recognised a new genus, Microacontias, for the small, slender-bodied western forms with moveable eyelids. However, a recent molecular study of acontines (Lamb et al. 2010) that included greater taxon sampling, particularly of typhlosaurs, synonymised Micracontias and Acontophiops with Acontias, to which they assigned all taxa with the exception of only five species now constituting a greatly reduced Typhlosaurus (T. braini, T. caecus, T. Iomiae, T. meyeri, T. vermis). Because of secondary homonymy, the species formerly known as Acontophiops lineatus and Typhlosaurus lineatus are now Acontias rieppeli and Acontias kgalagadi respectively. Lamb et al. (2010) also raised Typhlosaurus lineatus richardi to specific level as Acontias richardi. The Acontias meleagris group is particularly problematic (Daniels et al. 2006, 2009) and further taxonomic work is needed in order to reconcile morphology and nomenclature with phylogeny. Lamb et al. (2010) raised A. m. orientalis to a full species with A. percivali tasmani as a synonym. They further recognised A. lineacauda as a species level taxon but acknowledged that both A. meleagris and A. lineacauda remain non-monophyletic and require further evaluation.

Mausfeld *et al.* (2002) partitioned *Mabuya*, assigning all regional members of the group to *Euprepis*. Bauer (2003), however, demonstrated that the name *Trachylepis* was the appropriate name for this clade of skinks. No new members of this genus have recently been named from the *Atlas* region, but Broadley & Bauer (1999) and Broadley (2000) raised several species (*T. margaritifer*, *T. sparsa*, *T. depressa*, *T. punctulata*, *T. punctatissima*) from subspecific to specific status. For at least some populations within the *T. striata* complex, this may have been premature (Castiglia *et al.* 2006). Additional questions of species boundaries still exist in some species, particularly in *T. varia* (Jacobsen 1989).

There remains discussion over the content and distribution of lygosomine genera. Wagner *et al.* (2009) re-validated *Lepidothyris* for the red-sided skinks (previously referred to *Lygosoma*) and also returned writhing skinks, e.g. *Lygosoma sundevalli* and *L. afrum*, to *Mochlus* with both *Riopa* and *Lygosoma* being restricted to Asia. Among regional lygosomines, a single new species, *Panaspis maculicollis*, was described (Jacobsen & Broadley 2000) during the last 14 years. On morphological characters, Greer (1974) described a new genus, *Afroablepharus*, for African species with an ablepharine (non-blinking) eye, and contact between the frontal scale and one subocular scale on either side of the head. Broadley (1989a) rejected this arrangement and retained *Panaspis* for savanna species, including those with an ablepharine eye from the *Atlas* region. Subsequent molecular studies (Schmitz *et al.* 2005a; Jesus *et al.* 2007) have confirmed the generic distinction of *Afroablepharus*, which is now the appropriate genus for the two *Atlas* species. Among scincines, new species of *Scelotes* have been described from KwaZulu-Natal (S. *fitzsimonsi, S. bourquini, S. vestigifer*; Broadley 1994) and Western Cape (S. *montispectus*; Bauer *et al.* 2003). Phylogenetic studies of *Trachylepis* and *Scelotes* are underway (Portik 2009; Heideman *et al.* 2011; Portik *et al.* 2011; A.M. Bauer & T.R. Jackman in prep.).

4.9 Varanidae

Numerous recent studies have addressed taxonomic diversity and relationships within Australasian varanids (see

reviews in Böhme 2003 and Eidenmüller & Philippen 2008). However, there have been relatively few studies on the African radiation. Böhme et al. (1989) described V. yemenensis from Arabia, and later Böhme & Ziegler (1997) revived V. ornatus from the synonymy of V. niloticus. Various biogeographic scenarios have been proposed for the origin of varanids, including an African origin (supported by the presence of the earliest known varanid fossils from the upper Eocene and lower Oligocene of Egypt; Holmes et al. 2010), an Asian origin (supported by the distribution and diversity of anguimorph lizards) and vicariance associated with Gondwana following Jurassic and Early Cretaceous plate movements (Vidal et al. 2012). Molecular data support an Asian origin with dispersal into Africa about 41 (49-33) Ma (Vidal et al. 2012). Subsequent to this dispersal, V. yemenensis, which is sister to V. albigularis, invaded Arabia from Africa, either across a southern land bridge and/or by overwater dispersal (Portik & Papenfuss 2012).

5. SERPENTES

Phylogenetic relationships within snakes have been an active field in recent years, with numerous studies investigating different lineages. A good modern summary is that of Vidal et al. (2009), upon which much of the following discussion is based (see also Pyron et al. 2011). It is now evident that snakes have a Gondwanan origin, evolving on West Gondwana, the supercontinent comprising South America and Africa. Among extant lineages, the deepest divergences are found between what have been termed the Amerophidia and Afrophidia (Vidal et al. 2007), and occurred 106 (116-97) Ma, probably in association with continental breakup. Most (~85%) living snakes are afrophidians and are now globally distributed, having initially dispersed out of Africa through Laurasia or India. Most basal afrophidian families (Henophidia) diverged in the Cretaceous, 104-70 Ma, while most advanced afrophidian families (Caenophidia) diverged in the early Cenozoic, 63-33 Ma.

Living snakes display an evolutionary trend of increasing gape size, from fossorial scolecophidians (locally represented by the blind snakes, Typhlopidae, and thread snakes, Leptotyphlopidae), via various intermediate fossorial alethinophidians (e.g. Aniliidae, Uropeltidae)—none of which occur in Africa—to ecologically diverse 'largemouthed' macrostomatans capable of ingesting very large prey. Among macrostomatans, the Henophidia comprise a suite of relictual lineages scattered throughout the tropical and subtropical regions. The great majority of extant snakes (~2 550 spp.) belong to the Caenophidia, which includes all venomous species. There remains controversy about relationships and content within the numerous caenophidian families.

5.1 Typhlopidae

Of the two infraorders of snakes, the Scolecophidia is by far the most poorly known in terms of species diversity, ecology and evolutionary history. Their deep (Cretaceous) roots and largely Gondwanan distribution makes these snakes prime candidates for study. The content and generic allocation of African typhlopids has been the subject of detailed and extensive morphological research (Broadley & Wallach 2000, 2007b, 2009), although explicit phylogenetic relationships were not analysed. A recent phylogeny of scolecophidians, including typhlopids (Vidal et al. 2010), dates the divergence of the group to the separation of East and West Gondwana. Five main clades are recognised, and the very deep genetic divergences observed necessitated the recognition of a new scolecophidian family (Xenotyphlopidae) for two typhlopid species from Madagascar, and another family (Gerrhopilidae) for 15 species from the Philippines (Vidal et al. 2010). Within Africa Typhlops Oppel, 1811 is now restricted to only seven species scattered in western, northern and eastern Africa. The Atlas species fall into three genera, none of which are endemic. A new genus, Afrotyphlops, was proposed by Broadley & Wallach (2009) for 20 species, most recently placed in Rhinotyphlops or Typhlops. Only two species (A. bibronii and A. fornasinii) occur in the subcontinent. Megatyphlops was described (Broadley & Wallach 2009) for four large and robust species that possess an angular snout with a horizontal edge and an incompletely divided nasal shield. Only two (M. mucruso and M. schlegelii) occur on the subcontinent. Rhinotyphlops is now restricted to only four species, three occurring in the Atlas region and one in Somalia (Broadley & Wallach 2009).

5.2 Leptotyphlopidae

Although much recent work has dealt with detailed morphological analyses of leptotyphlopids from the eastern half of the continent (Broadley & Wallach 1997a, 2007a; Broadley & Broadley 1999), including the description of new species from the Atlas region (Leptotyphlops sylvicolus), higher taxonomic relationships were not addressed. The first family-level molecular study on leptotyphlopid relationships (Adalsteinsson et al. 2009) revealed deep genetic divergence between morphologically-conservative lineages. To reflect this, two subfamilies, Epictinae (New World and Africa) and Leptotyphlopinae (Africa, Arabia and southwest Asia), were recognised. The latter subfamily contains three tribes, two (Myriopholini and Leptotyphlopini) of which occur in the Atlas region. Species within the Atlas region are now placed in three genera, most remaining within a reduced Leptotyphlops. Taxa transferred to new genera include *Myriopholis longicaudus*, *Namibiana occidentalis* and *N. gracilior*. There remains significant non-monophyly among separate populations of currently recognised species, indicating that an unusually large number of undescribed species exist, particularly within the *Leptotyphlops scutifrons-conjunctus-incognitus* species complex (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009) which is currently being investigated in more detail (Branch & Vidal unpubl. data).

5.3 Pythonidae

Historically there has been great confusion concerning relationships among the numerous groups traditionally assigned to basal macrostomatans (i.e. all snakes excluding small-mouthed scolecophidians). The Henophidia, of which pythons form part, has recently been restricted in scope to all non-caenophidian Afrophidia (Vidal et al. 2009). Early morphological studies of the relationships of pythons and their presumed relatives (e.g. Kluge 1991, 1993a,b) placed them in the subfamily Pythoninae in the Boidae, sister to two subfamilies, Boinae (boas) and Erycinae (sand boas). Recent molecular studies (e.g. Noonan & Chippindale 2006; Rawlings et al. 2008), however, confirm that these lineages are best treated as separate families within the superfamily Pythonoidea, with the Pythonidae more closely related to two small families, the Loxocemidae (containing only the Mexican Burrowing Python) and the Xenopeltidae (containing the two Asian sunbeam snakes) rather than to boas and their relatives. Pythons are restricted to the Old World with about 40 species in nine genera (Uetz 2012), most within Australasia, with only four in Africa.

5.4 Viperidae

Various subfamilies have been proposed within the Viperidae, the best supported being the Viperinae, Crotalinae and Azemiopinae (Zaher et al. 2009). Previous recognition of the Causinae (e.g. Cadle 1988; Lenk et al. 2001) was based on the assumption that night adders (Causus) represented the most basal lineage within viperids due to presumed primitive conditions of scalation, presence of round pupils, morphology of the venom apparatus, oviparity, etc. However, genetic phylogenies show Azemiops to be a basal lineage within Viperidae and it is placed in a monotypic subfamily (Azemiopinae). The two remaining clades contain Old World vipers (Viperinae) and Asian and New World pitvipers (Crotalinae). African night adders (Causus) are nested within other viperines (Nagy et al. 2005) and a separate subfamily for them is no longer justified.

A number of recent studies have looked at Bitis and its constituent parts, and various molecular phylogenies have been proposed (Hermann & Joger 1997; Lenk et al. 1999). The latter authors erected the new subgenus Keniabitis for Bitis worthingtoni Parker, which occupies a basal position with regard to the remaining species. In addition, they revived Calechidna Tschudi as a subgenus for the 11 small southern African species, with B. atropos as the type species. Lenk et al. (1999) also proposed the revival of Macrocerastes Reuss as a subgenus for B. gabonica, B. rhinoceros (recognised as a full species), B. nasicornis and probably B. parviocula, leaving B. arietans in the monotypic nominal subgenus. Keniabitis and Calechnida have recent support from venomics (Calvete et al. 2007) and Wallach (1998) recognised the latter subgenus on the basis of the lack of a tracheal lung in the eight species that he examined. All of the above subgenera (Keniabitis, Calechidna and Macrocerastes) are supported by current phylogenetic analyses of the genus Bitis (A. Barlow et al. in prep.), and recognition of any of these as full genera would pre-suppose recognition of the others to avoid paraphyly. Wüster et al. (2008) noted that although the subgenera proposed by Lenk et al. (1999) reflect the phylogenetic structure within Bitis, they caution against treating them as full genera and disrupting the nomenclatural stability of a medically-important snake group. Barlow et al. (2010, 2013) investigated phylogeography in the Puff Adder (B. arietans) and noted multiple parapatric mitochondrial clades, including a widespread southern African clade subdivided into four separate subclades. A dynamic and complex history of refugial isolation and secondary expansion in the subcontinent was revealed.

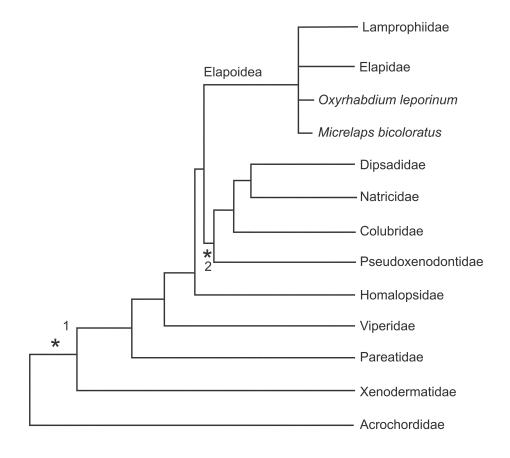
A modern revision of the four isolated populations of *B. atropos*, using molecular and morphological analyses, has demonstrated that all populations should be treated as separate species, and that genetic divergence of populations within the Cape Fold Mountains also indicates the presence of cryptic taxa (Branch & Kelly 2008; Kelly *et al.* 2009a). Previous understanding of the *B. cornuta* complex involved the recognition of central and eastern subspecies (Hewitt 1937a; FitzSimons 1946, 1962; Underwood 1968). The last revision of the complex (Branch 1999a) recognised a suite of isolated species (*B. inornata*, *B. albanica*, *B. armata*), including the recently described *B. rubida* (Branch 1997), and left *B. cornuta* as a monotypic species. This arrangement is being re-assessed by means of a molecular analysis (W. Wüster *et al.* in prep.).

5.5 Colubroidea

Within the Atlas region most snakes occur within the Caenophidian radiation, i.e. the 'higher' snakes not included in 'primitive' groups such as the Scolecophidia (Leptotyphlopidae and Typhlopidae; see above) or Henophidia (represented in the Atlas region solely by the African python, but including a number of other early snakes from elsewhere in the world) radiations. The more advanced caenophidians include a suite of snake families that comprise the Colubroidea. There is debate over the content of this group, with Vidal et al. (2007, 2010) and Zaher et al. (2009) restricting it to a clade of snakes that is sister to the Elapoidea (Elapidae + Lamprophiidae; Figure 2.3). The Colubroidea as understood by these authors includes various families that were previously treated as subfamilies within a more inclusive Colubridae (e.g. Calamariidae, Colubridae, Dipsadidae, Natricidae, Pseudoxenodontidae). In effect, the Colubridae of these authors contains a greatly reduced group of snakes, and their concept of the Colubroidea is equivalent to previous usage of the Colubridae (see Pyron et al. [2011], for a fuller discussion and a conflicting treatment). A fundamental difference between these arrangements is that basal caenophidian lineages such as the Viperidae are included (with other diverse snakes) within the Colubroidea of Pyron et al. (2011), but not within the restricted usage of Vidal et al. (2007, 2010) or Zaher et al. (2009). The latter concept of the Colubroidea is adopted in the Atlas, with only the families Natricidae and Colubridae present in the region (see 5.8).

5.6 Lamprophiidae

Recent molecular studies have helped to clarify interfamilial relationships within advanced snakes (Vidal & Hedges



* 1 = Colubroidea senso Pyron *et al.* 2011
2 = Colubroidea senso Vidal *et al.* 2007, 2010

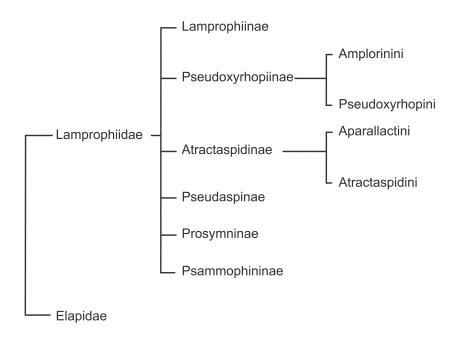


Figure 2.3.—Phylogeny of snakes, adapted from the proposal by Vidal *et al.* (2008a).

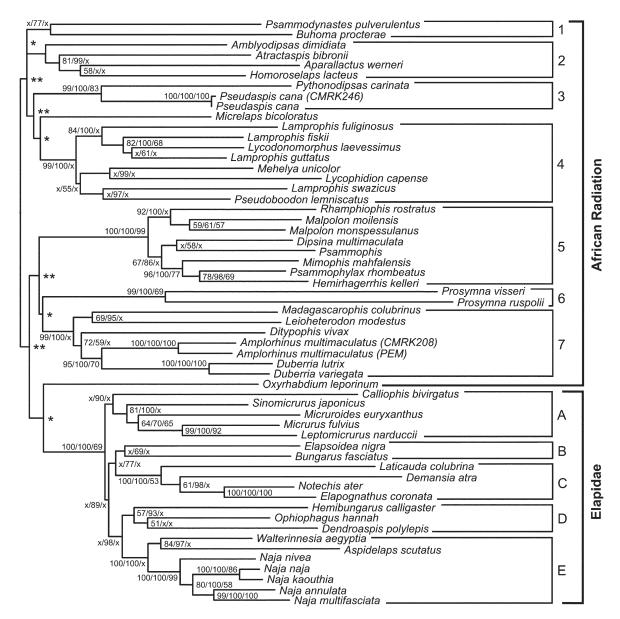


Figure 2.4.—Phylogeny of Elapoidea (African radiation plus Elapidae) as proposed by Kelly *et al.* (2009b) (reproduced courtesy of John Wiley & Sons Inc.).

Key to clades:

- 1: Genera Psammodynastes and Buhoma (Elapoidea incertae sedis)
- 2: Family Atractaspididae
- 3: Family Pseudaspididae (genera Pythonodipsas and Pseudaspis)
- 4: Family Lamprophiidae
- 5: Family Psammophiidae
- 6: Family Prosymnidae (genus Prosymna)
- 7: Family Pseudoxyrhophiidae
- A: Asian/American coral snakes
- B: Elapsoidea and Bungarus (very poorly supported grouping)
- C: Laticaudinae plus Hydrophiinae
- D: Hemibungarus, Ophiophagus and Dendroaspis
- E: Afro-Asian cobras and allies

2002; Kelly et al. 2003; Lawson et al. 2005; Vidal et al. 2007a), with the recognition of a clade named Elapoidea (Vidal et al. 2007a) that includes elapids (cobras, mambas, sea snakes etc.) and a large and mostly African (including Madagascar) radiation (Figure 2.4). The lat-

ter has been treated as the Lamprophiidae (Vidal *et al.* 2008a), including four subfamilies: the psammophiines (\sim 7 genera, 42 species), atractaspidines (\sim 12 genera, 70 species), lamprophiines (\sim 19 genera, 88 species) and pseudoxyrhophiines (\sim 20 genera, 80 species). Oth-

ers (e.g. Kelly et al. 2008) have accorded them familial status (Psammophiidae, Atractaspididae, Lamprophiidae and Pseudoxyrhophiidae), sometimes with the additional families Prosymnidae and Pseudaspididae (Kelly et al. 2009b). The Atlas has adopted the more conservative approach of Vidal et al. (2008a), while acknowledging that further study is required to resolve the relationships of the genera Prosymna and Pseudaspis. Pyron et al. (2011) considered the "most difficult aspect of higher-level colubroid taxonomy to be Lamprophiidae", and adopted the same approach as Vidal et al. (2008a)-as adopted in the Atlas-recognising a single family Lamprophiidae with a number of subfamilies. However, despite finding additional support for recognising the Pseudaspidinae and Prosymninae (proposed as new families by Kelly et al. 2009b), they surprisingly treated the Aparallactinae as a subfamily separate from the Atractaspidinae (Pyron et al. 2011). The latter proposal is not adopted in the Atlas. While the status of the Pseudaspidinae and Prosymninae is gaining support, we defer acceptance pending further analysis of the relationships of these genera, particularly the enigmatic genus Prosymna.

5.6.1 Atractaspidinae

A suite of genera have usually been assigned to the atractaspidinės (Amblyodipsas, Aparallactus, Atractaspis, Brachyophis, Chilorhinophis, Elapotinus, Homoroselaps, Hypoptophis, Macrelaps, Micrelaps, Poecilopholis, Polemon, Xenocalamus) (McDowell 1968; Underwood & Kochva 1993: Spawls & Branch 1995: Branch 1998) which are distributed broadly in Africa, with a limited occurrence in the Middle East. The monophyly of atractaspidines is supported both by morphological (McDowell 1968; Underwood & Kochva 1993; Zaher 1999) and molecular (Vidal & Hedges 2002; Nagy et al. 2005) data, although inclusion of the rarer genera (e.g. Brachyophis, Chilorhinophis, Elapotinus, Hypoptophis and Poecilopholis) has not been rigorously assessed. *Micrelaps* did not associate tightly with other atractaspidines, and although it clearly belongs in the Elapoidea, its affinities remain equivocal (Vidal et al. 2008a). The relationship of the two South African harlequin snakes (Homoroselaps) to other atractaspidines now appears to be resolved. Vidal & Hedges (2002) confirmed McDowell's (1968) transfer of Homoroselaps to the Atractaspidinae, and more recent studies (Nagy et al. 2005) confirm that within the Atractaspidiinae, the genus Homoroselaps is the sister group to the genus Atractaspis.

5.6.2 Lamprophiinae

This assemblage of African snakes (equivalent to the Lamprophiidae of Kelly et al. 2009b) includes a basic division between wolf snakes and their relatives (Lycophidion, Hormonotus, Mehelva, Gonionotophis etc.) and house snakes and their relatives (Boaedon, Lamprophis, Pseudoboodon, Bothrolycus, Bothrophthalmus, Lycodonomorphus). Generic and species boundaries are problematic and recent molecular studies have resulted in a number of generic re-arrangements (Kelly et al. 2011). These include the description of a new genus (Inyoka) to accommodate the Swazi Rock Snake, which was shown to form a sister clade (but with deep divergence) to the Forest Wolf Snake (Hormonotus modestus). Similarly, the Olive Ground Snake (previously Lamprophis inornatus) was found to be misplaced, nested within water snakes (Lycodonomorphus) and it was therefore transferred to that genus, necessitating a change in both its scientific and common names. The remaining house snakes formed two large clades, with the small southern African endemic species (*L. aurora*, *L. fuscus*, *L. fiskii* and *L. guttatus*) being retained within *Lamprophis* (now essentially endemic to the *Atlas* region, with only one species, *L. guttatus*, having a limited occurrence in southern Namibia). All other house snakes recently placed within *Lamprophis* are transferred to a revived *Boaedon*. In agreement with the results of Vidal *et al.* (2008a), the Dwarf File Snake, *Gonionotophis brussauxi*, was found by Kelly *et al.* (2011) to be nested within *Mehelya*. As the former has priority, all members of *Mehelya* are therefore transferred to *Gonionotophis* to maintain generic monophyly. The description of additional cryptic taxa within *Lamprophis* and *Boaedon* is likely (Kelly *et al.* 2008, 2011).

5.6.3 Psammophiinae

The psammophiine genera (*Dipsina*, *Hemirhagerrhis*, *Malpolon*, *Mimophis*, *Psammophis*, *Psammophylax*, *Rhamphiophis*) are distributed throughout Africa including Madagascar, the Middle East, south-central Asia, and southern Europe (Branch 1998; Kelly *et al.* 2008). Their monophyly is supported by morphological and molecular data (Cadle 1994; Brandstätter 1996; Zaher 1999; Vidal & Hedges 2002; Kelly *et al.* 2008). *Dromophis* was recently synonymised with *Psammophis* (Kelly *et al.* 2008).

5.6.4 Pseudoxyrhophiinae

The pseudoxyrhophiines include numerous Malagasy genera with a number of species also found in the Comoros Islands. Surprisingly, a number of genera from continental Africa (*Duberria, Amplorhinus* and possibly *Montaspis*) are closely related to these Malagasy snakes and are now also included in this subfamily (Lawson *et al.* 2005; Vidal *et al.* 2008a; Kelly *et al.* 2009b). The latter authors proposed that the continental African genera *Duberria*, *Amplorhinus* and possibly *Montaspis*, along with the Socotran endemic *Ditypophis*, be placed in a new subfamily, namely Amplorhininae, which reverts to the Amplorhinini (Meirte 1992) in the *Atlas*.

5.7 Elapidae

The taxonomy of African cobras continues to be refined, with the description of numerous new species (Broadley 1968a, 1995; Broadley & Wüster 2004; Wüster & Broadley 2003, 2007; Wallach et al. 2009). Molecular phylogenies have revealed that the Water Cobra, Boulengerina annulata, is the sister taxon to Naja melanoleuca (Nagy et al. 2005; Wüster et al. 2007) and it was therefore synonymised with Naja (Branch 2005). In a controversial and taxonomically unavailable work (Hoser 2009), Naja was divided into a number of new genera, but these names have no nomenclatural standing (see Wallach et al. 2009). The latter paper formally proposed a series of subgenera into which African Naja have been placed. Cobras within the Atlas region are assigned to all three African subgenera, namely Naja (Boulengerina) melanoleuca, N. (Uraeus) annulifera, N. (Uraeus) nivea, N. (Afronaja) mossambica and N. (Afronaja) nigricincta woodi.

5.8 Natricidae and Colubridae

Natricid water snakes are poorly represented in Africa, with only two species of *Natriciteres* occurring peripherally in the *Atlas* region. Phylogenetic relationships within and among the four African genera remain unstudied. The content and relationships of colubrid snakes assigned to this family remains problematic. While a number of Pal-

aearctic groups have been well-studied, there have been few African studies. Only a limited phylogeny (Nagy et al. 2003) of the African Colubridae sensu stricto (Vidal et al. 2007a; Zaher et al. 2009) has been presented and this suggests the recognition of several tribes. Whether these subclades are best treated as tribes or subfamilies within the reduced Colubridae requires further study. The Colubrini (sensu Nagy et al. 2005) includes diverse African (*Platyceps, Hemorrhois, Spalerosophis*), Socotran (*Hemerophis*) and Palaearctic (*Hierophis, Eirenis*) genera, as well as a number of species, e.g. 'Coluber' dorrii (West Africa) and 'Coluber' zebrina (Namibia) whose taxonomic assignment remains problematic (Schätti & Charvet 2003). The former species has been transferred to a new genus, *Bamanophis* (Schätti & Trape 2008), while the generic status of *C. zebrina* remains unresolved. Based on cranial features, Bourgeois (1968) recognised a subfamily Boiginae that included the genera *Boiga*, *Telescopus*, *Crotaphopeltis* and *Dipsadoboa*. This assemblage is, perhaps, best treated as a tribe (Boigini) within the Colubridae, and the molecular data of Gravlund (2001) and Kelly *et al.* (2003) support the inclusion of *Dasypeltis* within it. Bourgeois (1968) also erected two other subfamilies, Dispholidinae and Philothamninae, within the Colubridae, but the latter has not yet been supported by molecular data and its status, even as a tribe (Philothamnini), remains problematic. Broadley & Wallach (2002) recognised a tribe Dispholidini, including the genera *Thrasops*, *Rhamnophis*, *Dispholidus* and *Thelotornis*, to which they added a new genus (*Xyelodontophis*) from Tanzania.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The last two decades of systematic studies on southern African reptiles has resulted in the recognition of nearly 200 additional species, an increase of over 50% on previously recognised diversity (Branch 1988a). Many of these new taxa were previously considered subspecies that have subsequently been elevated to full species. Others are newly recognised cryptic taxa, often revealed by genetic analysis of polymorphic species, that either utilised old names revived from synonymy or required new names (e.g. *Pachydactylus monicae, P. goodi, P. atorquatus*). Some discoveries were of spectacular new species such as *Afroedura hawequensis, Montaspis gilvomaculata* and *Afrogecko swartbergensis*, all of which were obvious taxonomic novelties.

In addition to this surfeit of new species, molecular studies have also allowed increasing insight into the evolutionary relationships of taxa. This is reflected in the description of numerous new genera and higher taxonomic ranks, including new or revived genera and/or subgenera of gekkonids, cordylids, chamaeleonids, leptotyphlopids, lamprophiids and elapids, as well as the new subfamilies Platysaurinae and Leptotyphlopinae. It is unlikely that this upheaval will end soon as numerous families and genera require further analysis. As has been noted elsewhere (Branch 2010), these are exciting times for systematic studies in the *Atlas* region, and indeed in the whole of Africa.

Perhaps one of the most important consequences of recent taxonomic studies on reptiles from the Atlas region has been the awareness that increased species diversity is often reflected in small species' distributions. Many taxa, including some recently described species, have ultra-restricted ranges and are known from less than 1-5 QDGCse.g. Acontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus, A. poecilus, A. rieppeli, Scelotes limpopoensis albiventris, Bradypodion caffer, B. nemorale, B. ngomeense, Afroedura multiporis multiporis and Cryptactites peringueyi. As a consequence they are often of conservation concern as even relatively localised stochastic events may threaten the entire range of the species. It has been noted previously (e.g. Padial & De la Riva 2006), and supported here and in the following chapter, that good conservation is best supported on a secure bedrock of vigorous, ongoing taxonomic research.

CHAPTER 3

Conservation status, diversity, endemism, hotspots and threats

William R. Branch

"Producing National Red Lists is a critical first stage in identifying where species are threatened, why they are threatened and what needs to be done about it."

(Jonathan Baillie, Zoological Society of London, June 2009)

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Scope

While much attention has been paid to global declines in amphibian populations (Blaustein & Wake 1990a,b; Wake 1991; Houlahan *et al.* 2000; Blaustein & Kiesecker 2002; McCallum 2007; Allentoft & O'Brien 2010) there has been relatively little attention directed towards the global conservation status of reptiles. This may be due to a variety of factors, including their greater diversity, the practical difficulties in surveying many reptile groups, their lack of charisma, and the venomous nature of a small minority of them. For whatever reason, reptile conservation in South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland, and globally, has lagged behind that of all other terrestrial vertebrates.

Unlike fish and birds, reptiles are rarely of direct economic use and usually have limited appeal in ecotourism ventures. They cannot, therefore, play much of a part in tourist enterprises that stimulate employment to uplift disadvantaged communities. As a consequence, reptiles remain largely neglected in a fragile economic climate and a conservation paradigm that views wildlife not for its intrinsic value, but in terms of its use to people. Despite these caveats, however, reptiles are important components of both aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, playing a role both as predators and as prey, and thereby providing links in trophic transfers. Many reptiles are also among the smallest known vertebrates, and many have very restricted ranges.

Assessment of the conservation status of any taxon requires knowledge of its diversity, distribution, endemicity, biology and habitat requirements, as well as quantification of the environmental and anthropogenic threats that it faces. A primary requirement of such an assessment is a stable taxonomy, or at least an awareness of its limitations. With recent taxonomic summaries of the reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland (Branch 1998; Alexander & Marais 2007), and the detailed mapping of their distributions (this *Atlas*), it is now opportune to review their conservation status.

This chapter summarises the findings of the individual assessments of the reptiles of the *At/as* region (South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland), and reviews the previous and current conservation status of this fauna. It includes a summary of geographical hotspots for all reptiles, for the major subgroups of reptiles, e.g. chelonians, lizards and snakes, for endemic reptiles, and also for threatened and Near Threatened reptiles. Descriptions of the threats that they face are also discussed. The chapter concludes with pointers to pragmatic measures for the protection of threatened species, and the need to stimulate taxonomic competence and awareness in Africa to direct and optimise conservation measures. There is a need for fundamental changes in the way that reptiles are viewed if they are to be succesfully conserved in the region.

1.2 Background

The last review of threatened reptiles in South Africa, included in the Red Data Book (RDB) series of the South African National Scientific Programme, was published in 1988. It formed part of a multi-authored review of the threatened herpetofauna of South Africa (Branch 1988a). Although the status and threats to species were discussed in a general forum of local experts, the criteria for selection remained individual and subjective. Candidate species were submitted and selection was based mostly on restricted distribution and perceived threats to known taxa. Little empirical data was presented and knowledge of the basic biology of many species, their distributions, population estimates and documented threats were largely unknown, or at best anecdotal. The final selection, therefore, included a number of charismatic species whose threatened status was uncritically accepted but which has subsequently been shown to be undeserved (see below). However, the publication was, like many other South African RDBs of the time, explicitly provisional and based on the best available information.

Despite these limitations, the 1988 RDB was an improvement on its predecessor (McLachlan 1978a) and adopted a number of modifications, the most important being recognition of its parochial nature, and awareness of its predictive and prescriptive value. Collar (1986) noted that RDBs should play a part in national conservation-strategy development by listing not only threatened species



Afforestation in grasslands near Ixopo, KZN

M.F. Bates

but also providing "status notes on all species, however widespread and abundant, that are endemic to the country", a stance that has been emphasised recently (Baillie 2009). The recognition of national "ultimate responsibility" (Branch 1988a), i.e. that national authorities have global responsibility for the conservation of endemic species, led to the formal recognition of species within Restricted (endemic) and Peripheral categories in the 1988 RDB, and the inclusion of an appendix listing all endemic reptiles and amphibians occurring in South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. This approach was re-iterated by Gärdenfors *et al.* (2001), with the adoption of regional and global conservation assessments.

Since 1966, the IUCN has prepared RDBs (later Red Lists) to compile information on threatened species (Scott et al. 1987). The South African regional summaries, like the early IUCN reviews, were often subjective and driven by concern for a limited spectrum of charismatic species. As a consequence, there was a need to revise the categories of threat and to develop more rigorous criteria for the assignment of taxa (Fitter & Fitter 1987). Later, Mace & Lande (1991) initiated the use of quantitative criteria for assessing the conservation status of species, and these have been refined and upgraded on an ongoing basis. After discussion on various drafts by the international conservation community (Mace et al. 1992; Mace & Stuart 1994), standardised criteria were first globally adopted in 1994, first applied in the 1996 Red List, and updated in recent Red Lists (e.g. Hilton-Taylor 2000). For the SARCA assessment, the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria Version 3.1 (IUCN 2001) were used.

The IUCN Red List categories (Appendix 1) include a hierarchy within the broad category of 'threatened', ranging in severity from Critically Endangered (CR) to Endangered (EN) and Vulnerable (VU). Other species of conservation concern, considered in danger of becoming threatened if relevant threats continue unabated, are categorised as Near Threatened (NT) (Mace 2000). Species that are evaluated and found currently non-threatened are categorised Least Concern (LC). Species having insufficient information to assess their conservation status are placed in a Data Deficient (DD) category, and are not included in counts of threatened taxa. Definitions of these categories, and their requisite criteria, are detailed in Appendix 1. Gärdenfors et al. (2001) discussed the application of IUCN Red List categories at the regional level and noted that, for endemic species, the IUCN criteria can be used without modification. For regionally threatened taxa that have wider distributions outside the region of assessment, the IUCN categories can be used for regional assessments.

With developments in international conservation, a regional re-evaluation of the conservation status of South African reptiles was urgently needed, especially as it was over 20 years since the previous compilation. This was prompted by many factors, including an increasing awareness of the global plight of species (Baillie *et al.* 2010), and the out-dated taxonomy on which the 1988 RDB was based. In addition, the success of the Southern African Frog Atlas Project (SAFAP), initiated in 1995 (Harrison & Burger 1998) and completed in 2001 (Harrison *et al.* 2001), stimulated a desire to develop a similar vehicle for a modern re-appraisal of the conservation status of South African reptiles. Because of their situation within/on South Africa's borders, the reptiles of Lesotho and Swaziland were included in this appraisal.

2. DIVERSITY AND ENDEMISM

In the early phases of the Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (SARCA), the South African herpetological community held a number of workshops to compile an updated checklist of the species to be assessed. Recent and ongoing taxonomic studies on reptiles in the Atlas region abound and the increased use of molecular studies has supported the application of new species concepts. Phylogenies based on multiple gene analysis have also revealed surprising levels of cryptic divergence at the species level (e.g. Bauer et al. 2006b; Branch et al. 2006b; Tilbury & Tolley 2009b), genus level (e.g. Bauer & Lamb 2005; Adalsteinsson et al. 2009; Stanley et al. 2011) and higher levels (e.g. Vidal et al. 2008a; Kelly et al. 2009b, 2010). For a fuller discussion of these changes, see Chapter 2. After taxonomic consensus was reached within the SARCA community on the content of the checklist, data sheets were produced for each taxon and assessments were submitted for review to the IUCN before final publication. Note, however, that where no agreement could be reached between an account author/Atlas editors and the IUCN reviewer, the editors' opinion took precedence.

Subspecies in herpetology are now used sparingly, and no new subspecies have been described within the subcontinent during the last decade. This is in part due to a decline in the use in herpetology of the problematic Biological Species Concept, and the increasing adoption of evolutionary and phylogenetic species concepts (see Frost & Hillis 1990 for a reasoned discussion).

There are 384 reptile species (422 species and subspecies, i.e. taxa) in the *Atlas* region. This includes the Brahminy Blind Snake (*Rhamphotyphlops braminus*) that is an established alien species, first recorded in the Cape by A. Smith (1838). The conservation status of this species

was not assessed, nor was it considered in the following discussion of species diversity in the region.

2.1 Diversity

Among vertebrates, global reptile species diversity is lower only than that of fish and birds. New and powerful taxonomic techniques, as well as increasing access to poorlyknown regions, have resulted in continual discoveries of overlooked reptile species. The checklist of global reptiles is therefore increasing almost daily. In the first electronic online reptile database, Uetz (2000) listed 7 870 extant reptile species and by 2008, this had risen to 8 734 (Uetz 2010). This number continues to climb and by February 2012 there were 9 547 known reptile species (Uetz 2012), an increase of 1 677 species and nearly 17.6% in only 12 years (Table 3.1).

The diversity of reptiles in the Atlas region reflects, with only a few exceptions, the full spectrum of families occurring in sub-Saharan Africa. It comprises 23 chelonian species (25 taxa, i.e. species and subspecies), one crocodile, 244 lizards (270 taxa) and 116 snakes (126 taxa). Ten recognised subspecies of some terrestrial species that have large contiguous ranges, e.g. Aspidelaps scutatus, Zygaspis vandami and Psammobates tentorius, were not assessed separately. However, geographically-isolated subspecies of species with fragmented ranges (e.g. Lygodactylus ocellatus) were assessed separately. Maps and assessments were prepared for all other subspecies (24 lizards, five snakes) when it was considered that their conservation status may differ from that of conspecifics, particularly montane isolates, e.g. subspecies of the black-spotted day geckos (e.g. Lygodactylus nigropunctatus and L. ocellatus) and some flat lizards (e.g. Platysaurus intermedius and P. orientalis).



Albany Thicket Biome, EC, with alien Opuntia (paddle cactus) infestation

| Group | Atlas region 2014 | Global 2000 (Uetz 2000) | Global 2012 (Uetz 2012) | Atlas % global diversity |
|--------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Chelonians | 23 | 295 | 327 | 7.03 |
| Crocodilians | 1 | 23 | 25 | 4.0 |
| Squamates | | | | |
| Lizards | 244 | 4 470 | 5 815 | 4.19 |
| Snakes | 116 | 2 920 | 3 378 | 3.43 |
| Tuataras | 0 | 1 | 1 | NA |
| Total | 384 | 7 870 | 9 547 | 4.02 |

Table 3.1.—Comparison of the Atlas region and global reptile species diversity

South Africa has the richest national diversity of geckos, cordylids and amphisbaenids in Africa. Reptile diversity in the *Atlas* region is summarised by group in Table 3.2, including the total numbers of taxa (species and subspecies) and the number of endemic and near-endemic (at least 90% of range in *Atlas* region) taxa, in each major group.

the *Atlas* region. Both families, particularly varanids, display relatively low diversity in Africa relative to Australasia, but the oldest unambiguous fossils of *Varanus* date from late Eocene and early Oligocene deposits in Egypt, indicating that the genus arose in Africa before dispersing to Australia and Asia (Holmes *et al.* 2010).

The lizard fauna of the *Atlas* region (244 species) is dominated by geckos (70 species, 77 species and supspecies), but with high diversities of skinks (59, 61) and cordylids (39, 50). The lowest diversity occurs in agamids (6, 7) and varanids (2, 2), of which no endemic species occur in Although snake species diversity in the *Atlas* region (116 species, 126 taxa) is not as high as that in tropical Africa (Democratic Republic of Congo [DRC] 168 species, Tanzania 167 species, Cameroon 156 species [Uetz 2011]), it surpasses that of many other African countries of com-

| Family | Number of species (plus subspecies) | Number of endemic (near- endemic) species and subspecies | % endemicity of endemic and near-endemic species and subspecies |
|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| Chelonians | | • | • |
| Sea turtles | 5 (5) | 0 (0) | 0 |
| Pelomedusidae | 5 (5) | 0 (0) | 0 |
| Testudinidae | 13 (15) | 6 (4) | 40.0 |
| Subtotal | 23 (25) | 6 (4) | 40.0 |
| Crocodiles | | | |
| Crocodylidae | 1(1) | 0 (0) | 0 |
| Subtotal | 1 (1) | 0 (0) | 0.00 |
| Lizards | | | |
| Agamidae | 6 (7) | 1 (2) | 42.9 |
| Amphisbaenidae | 10 (12) | 2 (2) | 25.0 |
| Chamaeleonidae | 19 (19) | 16 (1) | 89.5 |
| Gekkonidae | 70 (77) | 42 (5) | 61.3 |
| Lacertidae | 26 (29) | 13 (2) | 51.7 |
| Scincidae | 59 (61) | 32 (4) | 59.0 |
| Cordylidae | 39 (50) | 42 (5) | 94.0 |
| Gerrhosauridae | 13 (13) | 7 (0) | 53.8 |
| Varanidae | 2 (2) | 0 (0) | 0.0 |
| Subtotal | 244 (270) | 155 (24) | 66.3 |
| Snakes | | | |
| Typhlopidae | 6 (6)* | 0(1) | 16.6 |
| Leptotyphlopidae | 10(11) | 4 (3) | 63.6 |
| Pythonidae | 1(1) | 0 (0) | 0.0 |
| Lamprophiidae | | | |
| Lamprophiinae | 15 (15) | 7 (1) | 53.3 |
| Atractaspidinae | 14 (16) | 6 (1) | 43.8 |
| Psammophiinae | 16 (16) | 1 (1) | 12.5 |
| Incertae sedis (<i>Prosymna</i> , <i>Pseudaspis</i>) | 7 (7) | 0(1) | 14.3 |
| Pseudoxyrhophiinae | 4 (4) | 2 (1) | 75.0 |
| Natricidae | 2 (2) | 0 (0) | 0.0 |
| Elapidae | 13 (18) | 3 (1) | 22.2 |
| Viperidae | 13 (13) | 4 (1) | 38.5 |
| Colubridae | 14 (16) | 2 (0) | 12.5 |
| Subtotal | 116 (126) | 29 (10) | 31.0 |
| TOTAL | 383 (421) | 190 (38) | 54.2 |

* excludes introduced Brahminy Blind Snake



Augrabies Falls National Park, NC; Bushmanland Bioregion

parable size, e.g. Ethiopia (107 species) and Nigeria (105 species) (Uetz 2012). The *Atlas* region is located in a temperate-subtropical transitional area and it is therefore surprising that its snake diversity is so much greater than that of many tropical African countries, and considerably higher than the 33 species recorded for Western Europe (Speybroek *et al.* 2010).

2.2 Endemicity

The Atlas region shows a high proportion of endemic (190) and near-endemic (38) taxa (228 of 421 indigenous taxa, 54.2%), but of these only one (the flat gecko Afroedura major) is endemic to Swaziland, and none are endemic to Lesotho (Appendix 3). Endemicity (endemic and nearendemic taxa) in lizards (179 of 270 taxa, 66.3%) is substantially higher than that of snakes (39 of 126 taxa, 31.0%), and is dominated by the cordylids (94.0%) and chameleons (89.5%). There is also high endemicity among geckos (61.3%), skinks (59.0%) and plated lizards (53.8%). Cordylid and gekkonid endemicity is associated with substrate specificity (Bauer 1990), particularly for rupicolous forms. Chameleon endemicity results from their more direct linkage with vegetation, with recent radiations of dwarf chameleons occupying open habitats, and older lineages persisting in relictual forested habitats that correspond to continental shifts in vegetation patterns since the Miocene Climatic Optimum (Tolley et al. 2006, 2008). The lower endemicity among lacertids and worm lizards (Amphisbaenidae) is a reflection of their adaptation to sandy habitats, with many having ranges that extend

M.F. Bates

Table 3.3.—Diversity and endemicity of taxa within the 11 most speciose reptile genera in the *Atlas* region

| Genus | Total species and subspecies | Endemic and Near-endemic species and subspecies in <i>Atlas</i> region |
|---------------|---------------------------------|--|
| Pachydactylus | 29 | 16 |
| Acontias | 21 | 14 |
| Scelotes | 19 | 18 |
| Bradypodion | 17 | 17 |
| Platysaurus | 15 | 13 |
| Afroedura | 14 | 13 |
| Trachylepis | 13 | 1 |
| Lygodactylus | 11 | 8 |
| Cordylus | 11 | 10 |
| Bitis | 11 | 5 |
| Psammophis | 11 | 2 |
| Total | 172 | 117 |

into neighbouring Botswana and Namibia. Many of these species, however, are endemic to southern Africa, if not strictly endemic to the *Atlas* region.

Within the *Atlas* region, significant reptile diversity is contained within just 11 speciose genera that each contain 11–29 taxa. These large genera are not artefacts of taxonomy and the individual monophyly of most has been confirmed by recent phylogenetic studies, in some cases necessitating significant generic re-adjustments, e.g. *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011), *Acontias* (Lamb *et al.* 2010), *Bradypodion* (Tolley *et al.* 2008), *Platysaurus* (Scott *et al.* 2004; Stanley *et al.* 2011), *Pachydactylus* (Bauer & Lamb 2005) and *Bitis* (Hermann & Joger 1997; Lenk *et al.* 1999). Together they contain a total of 172

taxa (40.9% of 421 taxa in the *Atlas* region) and 117 endemic or near-endemic taxa (51.3% of 228 endemic and near-endemic taxa; Table 3.3).

3. CONSERVATION ASSESSMENT

3.1 Coverage

This is the first time that an assessment of the conservation status of all reptiles within the Atlas region has been undertaken. Previous assessments were prepared for only a subset of reptiles in the region that were considered to be of conservation concern by either the editor (McLachlan 1978a), or by a select committee (Branch 1988a). Previous assessments (McLachlan 1978a; Branch 1988a), in part, were subject to individual preference and were therefore biased towards charismatic, well-known species. Moreover, it was impossible to decide whether species that were not included had been overlooked in previous assessments, or whether some species had become of conservation concern subsequent to previous assessments. To avoid such confusion this iteration has assessed all species naturally occurring in the Atlas region. The only exceptions are seven peripheral taxa (four lizards and three snakes) that all have much greater, contiguous ranges elsewhere, with >95% of their range outside the *Atlas* region, and have been recorded from two or less guarterdegree grid cells (QDGCs) within the Atlas region. These taxa were distinguished from species that had isolated populations within the Atlas region (e.g. Gaboon Adder, Bitis gabonica), and for which there was no evidence of migration into the regional populations.

One introduced species was also not assessed, although it is included in the *Atlas*. The Brahminy Blind Snake (*Ramphotyphlops braminus*) is an all-female parthenogenetic scolecophidian that was introduced into the Cape Town region as long ago as the early 19th century (A. Smith 1838). This is the only introduced species in South Africa known to have established breeding colonies (McLachlan 1978b; Alexander 1987). A number of other exotic species (Appendix 4) have either been accidentally translocated to South Africa or escaped from captivity but have not established breeding colonies, e.g. *Gekko monarchus* (Bauer & Branch 2004), *Agama agama* (A. Turner pers. comm.) and *Trachemys scripta* (Newbery 1984). Their conservation status is not assessed here and neither are they included in the *Atlas*.

The conservation status of 405 taxa (nearly 96%) of the reptiles occurring in the *Atlas* region was assessed. Only

five species (the amphisbaenid Monopeltis leonhardi, the lacertid Nucras caesicaudata, the plated lizard Gerrhosaurus auritus, the snakes Xenocalamus sabiensis and Natriciteres olivacea), and the peripheral gecko subspecies Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis, of the 421 indigenous taxa in the region, did not meet the criteria for assessment (i.e. <5% of range in Atlas region and known from two or less QDGCs in the region). Further taxa not assessed include the introduced Brahminy Blind Snake (Rhamphotyphlops braminus) and a number of poorlydefined subspecies, including: Psammobates tentorius trimeni, P. t. verroxii, Zygaspis vandami arenicola, Tropidosaura montana natalensis, T. m. rangeri, Elapsoidea sundevallii decosteri, E. s. fitzsimonsi, E. s. longicauda, E. s. media and Leptotyphlops scutifrons conjunctus. Therefore, 16 of the 421 indigenous taxa in the region were not assessed.

Global assessments were prepared for 283 taxa, including all endemic (190) and near endemic taxa (38), as well as for 54 additional taxa that are mainly endemic to southern Africa and for which an understanding of their biology, distribution and habitats was adequate to determine their global conservation status. The great majority of these additional assessments for taxa with ranges extended mainly extralimital to the *Atlas* region resulted in Least Concern status. An additional 122 regional assessments were prepared for species whose ranges extended mainly extralimitally, and/or the isolated local population was considered to merit a different conservation assessment to the documented or assumed global status, e.g. sea turtles for which the *Atlas* assessments were all regional.

3.2 Assessments

A summary of the assessments is given in Table 3.4. Seventy-seven percent (324 of 405) of taxa assessed were considered Least Concern. Six taxa were treated as Data Deficient because insufficient data was available for assessment. One of these was the Olive Ridley Turtle (*Lepidochelys olivacea*), for which there are very few records from the eastern coastal waters of the *Atlas* region and which has at best a marginal distribution in the region—it may even be considered a vagrant. Other taxa could not be assessed

Table 3.4.—Summary of assessment findings for 421 endemic reptile taxa in the Atlas region

| Category | Conservation Assessment of <i>Atlas</i> Region: number of species and subspecies (% of 405 taxa assessed) | IUCN 2010b |
|---|---|------------|
| Least Concern | 324 (80.0) | |
| Near Threatened | 37 (9.1) | 18 |
| Vulnerable | 21 (5.2) | 14 |
| Endangered | 10 (2.5) | 3 |
| Critically Endangered | 5 (1.2) | 3 |
| Extinct | 2 (0.5) | 1 |
| Data Deficient | 6 (1.5) | 2 |
| Not Assessed | 16 (4.0) | NA |
| Taxa of conservation concern (EX, CR, EN, VU, NT, DD) | 81 (20.0) | 39 |



Bokong Nature Reserve, Maloti Mountains, central Lesotho; Grassland Biome

M.F. Bates

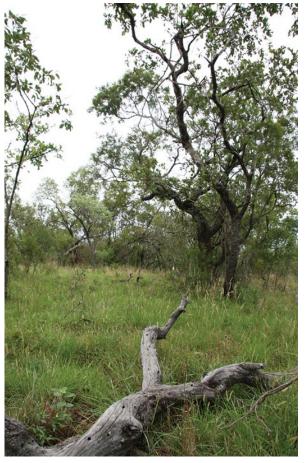


Black Rock, KZN; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt Biome J. Marais

due to taxonomic confusion concerning the status of the subspecies (*Acontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus*, *Lygodacty-lus nigropunctatus incognitus* and *Lygodactylus nigropunctatus montiscaeruli*). One species (*Leptotyphlops sylvicolus*, Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009) may contain a number of cryptic species. Finally, the enigmatic and very rare Cream-spotted Mountain Snake (*Montaspis gil-vomaculata*), known from only three specimens, is too poorly known to be assessed.

Extinct

This assessment confirms the Extinct status of Eastwood's Long-tailed Seps (*Tetradactylus eastwoodae*), which has not been re-discovered despite targeted searches in the 1980s (Jacobsen 1989) and during the *Atlas* period. It is now 100 years since the holotype was collected and



Bushveld at Nylsvley, LIMP; Savanna Biome

W.R. Schmidt



Cape Point, WC; Fynbos Biome

W.R. Schmidt

since then only one additional specimen was collected (in 1928, see species account). Most of this species' grassland habitat has been destroyed by afforestation. An additional species of fossorial skink (Scelotes guentheri) is now also considered Extinct. The latter species was overlooked in previous assessments due to taxonomic confusion (Broadley 1994). It is known from a single specimen collected over 120 years ago at 'Port Natal', i.e. the Durban area. Recent extensive searches in the greater Durban area (J. Marais pers. comm.) have not uncovered additional specimens and the species is considered to have gone extinct (see also Broadley 1994) as a result of urban development.

South Africa now has two extinct reptiles. This may seem insignificant, but the country has the dubious distinction of being the only one in Africa in which any modern reptiles have been declared extinct. South Africa is highlypopulated, and in some areas highly-developed, and both extinctions are believed to have resulted from anthropogenic habitat loss. However, the level of scientific study and documentation of the Atlas region's fauna is probably greater than that elsewhere in Africa, where it is likely that



Deforestation in Mozambique

W.R. Schmidt

other reptiles have become extinct before being recognised and described.

Critically Endangered

Four endemic species, the Geometric Tortoise (Psammobates geometricus), the Salt Marsh Gecko (Cryptactites peringueyi), a fossorial skink (Scelotes inornatus), and a small adder (Bitis albanica) are now considered globally Critically Endangered (CR). Another lizard, the Web-footed Gecko (Pachydactylus rangei), has a marginal extension into the Atlas region where it is threatened by alluvial diamond mining and is considered regionally Critically Endangered. It has an extensive range outside the Atlas region in the desolate dune seas of the Namib Desert where it is of Least Concern. Of the aforementioned species, only the Geometric Tortoise was previously listed under a threat category (previously considered Endangered). The Salt Marsh Gecko's status was previously Indeterminate (Data Deficient) and the Web-footed Gecko was considered Peripheral (Branch 1988a). The remaining two species were not previously assessed due to confusion with other species. The five Critically Endangered taxa constitute 14% of the 36 threatened (CR, EN, VU) taxa in the Atlas region.



Eastern Kalahari Bushveld Bioregion between Griekwastad and Kimberley, NC

M.F. Bates



Eastern Richtersveld, NC; Desert Biome

W.R. Schmidt



Free State Drakensberg; Grassland Biome

W.R. Schmidt

Endangered

Ten taxa are considered Endangered, including nine species and one isolated subspecies (*Lygodactylus nigropunctatus incognitus*). Only two of these taxa, the Leatherback Turtle (*Dermochelys coriacea*) and the Coastal Rag Skink (*Cryptoblepharus africanus*), were assessed regionally rather than globally. Almost all Endangered taxa are lizards (8), including three arboreal, three rupicolous and two fossorial species. All, with the exception of the isolated population of the Coastal Rag Skink, are endemic and have restricted distributions. The 10 Endangered taxa constitute 28% of the 36 threatened (CR, EN, VU) taxa in the *Atlas* region.

Vulnerable

Of the 21 Vulnerable taxa, only four were assessed regionally. These were two wide-ranging chelonians (*Pelu*- sios rhodesianus, Caretta caretta), a snake (Dendroaspis angusticeps) and the Nile Crocodile (Crocodylus niloticus), all of which have declining local populations. Globally Vulnerable species are dominated by lizards (14), but also include one tortoise (Homopus signatus) and two snakes (Psammophis leightoni and Bitis armata). All globally Vulnerable taxa are endemic. The 21 Vulnerable taxa constitute 58% of the 36 threatened (CR, EN, VU) taxa in the Atlas region.

Near Threatened

A large number (37) of taxa are not currently threatened, but are considered to be of conservation concern. Many of these Near Threatened taxa were overlooked in previous assessments (Branch 1988a; IUCN 2010b) or considered 'Restricted' (Branch 1988a), a category that was then used to signal local conservation concern, but which was not internationally recognised. Only three Near Threatened taxa were regionally assessed, including two wide-



Goegap Nature Reserve near Springbok, NC; Succulent Karoo Biome

ranging sea turtles (*Chelonia mydas* and *Eretmochelys imbricata*) and the Gaboon Adder (*Bitis gabonia*), all of which have wider ranges but relatively small distributions within the *Atlas* region. With the exception of three nearendemic species, the small gecko (*Goggia gemmula*) and two snakes (*Lycophidion pygmaeum* and *Leptotyphlops telloi*), all globally Near Threatened species are endemic.

3.3 Changes from previous assessments

The current and past status of taxa assessed in this Atlas is summarised in Appendix 2. The rationales for all changes in status are given in the individual species assessments (Section 2), and are discussed below.

A few species of conservation concern are taxonomic novelties that had not been discovered at the time of the previous assessment (Branch 1988a) and are therefore assessed here for the first time. They include the cordylids *Cordylus imkeae* (NT) (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994), *Hemicordylus nebulosus* (VU) (Mouton & Van Wyk 1995), *Platysaurus monotropis* (EN) (Jacobsen 1994a), and the geckos *Goggia braacki* (NT) (Good *et al.* 1996) and *G. gemmula* (NT) (Bauer *et al.* 1996). For other taxa, this first assessment results from recent recognition of their specific status, e.g. *Tetradactylus fitzsimonsi* (VU, previously considered a western isolated subspecies of *T. africanus*) and *Cordylus niger* (NT, previously considered a simple colour variety of *C. cordylus*).

A number of well known species seem to have either been simply overlooked in previous assessments (McLachlan 1978a; Branch 1988a), or their threatened status was only recognised later, e.g. *Bradypodion caffer* (EN), *B. kentanicum* (VU), *B. melanocephalum* (VU), *B. pumilum* (VU), *Cordylus macropholis* (NT) and *Dendroaspis angusticeps* (regionally VU).

Downgraded taxa

The status of several taxa has been significantly downgraded (i.e. their risk of extinction is considered to be lower) relative to previous assessments. For most, this change in status does not result from the implementation of successful conservation measures. Rather, it reflects the previous false promotion of many charismatic species that were subjectively considered to be of conservation importance, e.g. Southern African Python (Python natalensis, VU to LC), Gaboon Adder (Bitis gabonica, VU to regionally NT), Namaqua Dwarf Adder (B. schneideri, VU to LC), Setaro's Dwarf Chameleon (Bradypodion setaroi, EN to LC), and the girdled lizards Ouroborus cataphractus (previously Cordylus cataphractus) (VU to LC) and Cordylus mclachlani (VU to LC). In the current assessment the more objective IUCN criteria for inclusion in conservation categories have been implemented. The candidacy of charismatic species was also controlled by consensus amongst the reptile-expert community on individual assessments. Increased knowledge of species' biology and distribution (summarised in the individual species accounts) has also resulted in more informed assessments.

The dwarf chameleon *Bradypodion taeniabronchum* was initially treated as Endangered (Branch 1988a) but raised to the highest threatened status of Critically Endangered in IUCN Red Lists (2006 onwards). Here it has been downgraded back to Endangered as there have been new extensions of the species' range (Tolley & Burger 2007). Similarly, the fossorial lizard *Typhlosaurus Iomiae*



Indigenous forest at Woodbush, LIMP

K.A. Tolley



Indigenous forest at Woodbush, LIMP

K.A. Tolley



Below Sentinel Trail, FS; Drakensberg Grassland Bioregion M.F. Bates



Mountains near Cradock, EC, as seen from the top of Buffelskop; Karoo Biome

M.F. Bates



Protea grassland near Haenertsburg, LIMP

M.F. Bates



Renosterveld, WC; Geometric Tortoise habitat A.L. de Villiers

had been described only recently (Haacke 1986) at the time of the previous assessment (Branch 1988a), but improved knowledge of its distribution and threats (Bauer *et al.* 2000) have led to its status being downgraded (VU to NT).

Four of the five species of sea turtles found in the coastal waters of South Africa have been assessed only regionally. Due to their relatively good local protection (particularly at breeding sites in KwaZulu-Natal), their mainly peripheral occurrence, and non-exploitative use, all have a lower Regional rank than their IUCN Global conservation status. The Olive Ridley Turtle (*Lepidochelys olivacea*) is so poorly known locally that it is considered regionally Data Deficient.

Although a number of new specimens and localities have been discovered for the enigmatic snake *Lamprophis fiskii*, little is known of its biology, trophic niche or habitat preferences and this was reflected in its previous classification as Rare (Branch 1988a). The status of this species was upgraded to Vulnerable in previous IUCN Red Lists (e.g. 2002–2010) although Data Deficient may have been a true reflection of our knowledge of its conservation status. In this assessment it is considered of Least Concern as knowledge of its distribution has increased considerably (1988, <10 records from five QDGCs; 2011, 38 records from 15 QDGCs). However, little is known about its biology.

Numerous other species listed in previous assessments (Branch 1988a; IUCN Red Lists) are also here considered



Seweweekspoort, Cape Fold Mountains, WC

M.F. Bates



Soutpansberg, LIMP

M.F. Bates

Least Concern (see Appendix 2). A number of these were in categories (Branch 1988a) that do not easily translate into the current IUCN categories. Peripheral species (*sensu* Branch 1988a) that are now considered of Least Concern include the terrapin *Pelusios castanoides*, and the snakes *Rhinotyphlops schinzi*, *Namibiana occidentalis*, *Dasypeltis medici*, *Meizodon semiornatus*, *Philothamnus angolensis*, *Naja melanoleuca*, *Lycophidion variegatum*, *Natriciteres sylvatica*, *Prosymna frontalis*, *Prosymna janii*, *Psammophis jallae* and *Bitis xeropaga*. Rare and Restricted (*sensu* Branch 1988a) species that are now also classed as Least Concern include the lizards *Afroedura multiporis haackei* and *Australolacerta australis*, and the snake *Naja nigricincta woodi*.

Some species considered of Least Concern in the Atlas region are considered of higher conservation concern in other areas. In Swaziland, Python natalensis is considered regionally Vulnerable, while the tortoise Kinixys natalensis, lizards Chamaesaura aenea, C. anguina and Nucras lalandei, and the snakes Dasypeltis inornata and Meizodon semiornatus, are all treated as regionally Near Threatened (Monadjem et al. 2003). The IUCN Red List 2010 includes a number of species from Branch (1988a) in higher categories than Least Concern, including global assessments of Endangered (Bradypodion setaroi), Vulnerable (Cordylus mclachlani, Ouroborus [previously Cordylus] cataphractus, Bitis schneideri) and Near Threatened (Kinixys natalensis, Phelsuma ocellata, Gerrhosaurus typicus, Inyoka [previously Lamprophis] swazicus). With the exception of Chamaesaura aenea, here also classified as Near Threatened, none of these assessments are supported by the current review.

Upgraded taxa

As in the case of downgrading, the upgrading of conservation status of taxa, i.e. the transfer of taxa into categories of higher extinction risk, may result from a number of reasons not related to their protection, including new taxonomic insight and increased knowledge of biology and/ or threats.

A number of taxa were simply not previously recognised as separate species due to nomenclatural confusion with other wider-ranging species. These include the majority of taxa in higher threat categories, i.e. the snakes *Bitis albanica* (CR), *B. inornata* (EN) and *B. armata* (VU) which were all previously confused with *Bitis cornuta* (Branch 1999); the burrowing skinks *Scelotes guentheri* (EX), *S.* *inornatus* CR) and *S. bourquini* (VU) all previously confused with *S. mossambicus* (Broadley 1994); the chameleons *Bradypodion caeruleogula* (EN) and *B. ngomeensis* (NT) which were previously confused with members of the *B. nemorale-transvaalense* clade (Raw & Brothers 2008; Tilbury & Tolley 2009b); the flat lizard *Platysaurus intermedius* (Jacobsen 1994a); and the girdled lizard *Cordylus niger* (NT) previously confused with *P. intermedius* (Jacobsen 1994a); and the girdled lizard *Cordylus niger* (NT) previously confused with *C. cordylus* (Mouton 1987). The Near Threatened geckos *Lygodactylus graniticolus* and *L. ocellatus* soutpansbergensis were confused with *L. ocellatus* (Jacobsen 1992a, 1994b).

One Critically Endangered gecko, *Cryptactites peringueyi* (previously *Phyllodactylus*), was known only from type material for over 80 years until re-discovered in 1992 (Branch *et al.* 1992). Previously treated as Indeterminate (Branch 1988a; Data Deficient IUCN 2010b), it is now known to be restricted to salt marshes and adjacent habitats, usually within 100 m of the coast line in areas of urban development (Branch & Bauer 1994), or further inland in association with dune swales (G. Darling pers. comm.).

The Geometric Tortoise (*Psammobates geometricus*) has long been the iconic image of South African reptile conservation, due to it attractive appearance, chelonian charisma, and the conflict between its existence and its biggest threat, the burgeoning human population in its restricted habitat (Baard 1997; Hofmeyr *et al.* 2006). That part of its habitat loss is associated with the production of luxury wines only adds to the poignancy of its likely extinction. Although there is a well-developed conservation strategy for its protection, the tortoise's dwindling Area of Occupancy, associated with habitat deterioration exacerbated by predicted climate change (Midgley *et al.* 2005), justifies its categorisation as Critically Endangered.

The status of a small number of species with restricted ranges has been changed from Near Threatened to Vulnerable, in some cases due to further habitat deterioration (e.g. the tortoise *Homopus signatus*, the gecko *Homopholis muelleri*, and the dwarf chameleon *Bradypodion thamnobates*). The regional population of the Nile Crocodile (*Crocodylus niloticus*) remains Vulnerable, as in the earlier local assessment (Branch 1988a), due to recent regional die-offs (Jacobsen 1989; Dixon *et al.* 2010), although globally the species is considered only Near Threatened (IUCN 2010b).



Springbok, NC; Succulent Karoo Biome

Global context

An online summary of the global figures for the 2010 Red List (IUCN 2010b) records that of 55 926 species assessed (plants and animals), 24 080 (43%) were of Least Concern, 8 358 (15%) Data Deficient and 4 014 (7%) were Near Threatened. Threatened taxa comprised 35% of the total. However, this does not reflect the true proportion of threatened taxa as many early assessments did not consider common, non-threatened species. Hoffmann et al. (2010) have reviewed the impact of conservation activities on the threatened status of the world's vertebrates. They note that one-fifth of all vertebrates are classified as threatened (ranging from 13% of birds to 41% of amphibians) and that this number is increasing.

A random assessment of 1 496 reptile taxa was used to assess the conservation status of the world's reptiles (Baillie et al. 2010). Subsequent expansion of the dataset to 1 500 taxa, with analysis and refinement, was presented by Böhm et al. (2013), who noted that nearly one in five reptilian taxa were currently threatened with extinction, while knowledge of another one in five taxa was Data Deficient. Although there is general agreement in the percentage assignments into categories between the Atlas and recent IUCN (Bohm et al. 2013) assessments, there are some significant differences. More than three-quarters of reptilian species (324 of 405 taxa, 80.0%) in the SARCA assessment were classified as Least Concern, but the proportion of LC taxa in the IUCN assessment was much lower (881 taxa, 58.7%). Similarly, there were 37 Near Threatened taxa (9.1%) in the Atlas region, compared to 78 NT taxa (5.2%) in the IUCN assess-

ment; and 36 (9.4%) threatened Atlas taxa (CR, EN, VU), but 223 (14.9%) threatened taxa in the IUCN assessment. When only threatened taxa are compared, percentages for the various categories for all assessed taxa is similar for Critically Endangered taxa (Atlas 13.3% versus IUCN 11.7%), but slightly different for Endangered taxa (Atlas 26.3% versus IUCN 41.3%) and Vulnerable taxa (Atlas 55.3% versus IUCN 47.1%). There is a considerable difference in the number of Data Deficient taxa between the two assessments: Atlas 1.7% of all taxa assessed versus IUCN 21.2%. A comparison of the percentage of taxa in IUCN categories for all taxa assessed in the Atlas region versus the IUCN Assessment (Böhm et al. 2013) is shown in Figure 3.1.

Differences between the IUCN assessment (Bohm et al. 2013) and that of the Atlas region may be explained, in part, by the greater general familiarity of the Atlas assessors with a regional reptile fauna. Despite the plethora of authors (Bohm et al. 2013) for the global reptile assessment, familiarity with all species may have been lower. This is perhaps reflected in the large difference between the two assessments for Data Deficient taxa (Atlas 1.7% versus IUCN 21.2%). Greater knowledge of the reptile fauna also resulted from specific surveys during the Atlas period that were targeted to address such data deficiencies. In addition, assessment consistency was a rigorous component of the Atlas assessment, with authors of all species accounts having to defend their assignments in group discussion. This control would have been more difficult in a global assessment. When comparing only percentages within threatened taxa, there are a greater

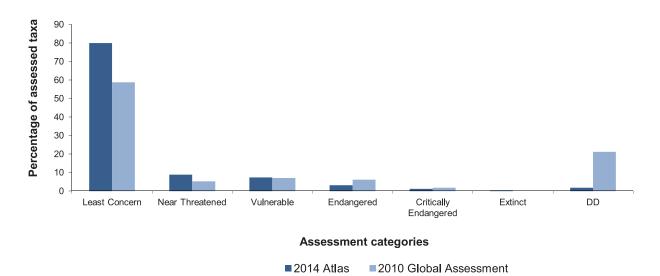


Figure 3.1—Comparison of percentage of taxa in IUCN categories according to Atlas assessment and the IUCN 2010 Global Assessment (Böhm et al. 2013).

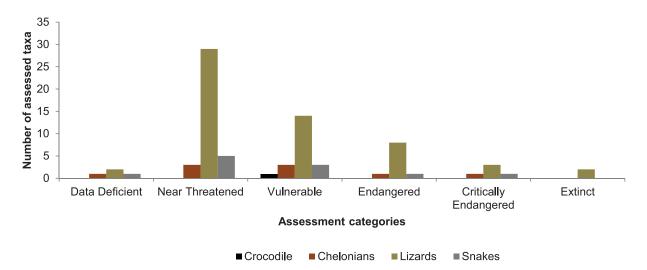
proportion of Vulnerable *Atlas* taxa (55.3%) rather than Endangered taxa (26.3%), compared with those in the IUCN assessment (47.1% and 41.3%, respectively). This may suggest that the *Atlas* assessments were more conservative than those of the IUCN. However, many of the threatened taxa in the *Atlas* region are rupicolous, often inhabiting rocky, mountainous habitats currently subject to few obvious anthropogenic threats. Due to existing poor documentation of climate change impacts on *Atlas* reptiles, this threat was not specifically addressed during the current assessment. This limitation should be noted, however, as Sinervo *et al.* (2010) have documented lizard declines due to the effects of warming climate on thermal niches, particularly for rupicolous species.

Potential global declines in reptiles mirror those of amphibians (Gibbons *et al.* 2000), and there have been extinctions and declines of many snake populations (Reading *et al.* 2010). Despite these disturbing observations, many countries have never assessed the conservation status of their reptile faunas. The Global Reptile Assessment, launched in 2004, is still in progress. There have been few regional conservation assessments of African reptiles, and South Africa and Swaziland are amongst the few Af-

rican countries to have published Red Lists on the group. Moreover, with the exception of an unpublished and less detailed report for Namibian reptiles (Griffin 2003), the *Atlas* region is the first in Africa to formally assess its entire reptile fauna.

3.4 Most threatened taxonomic groups

In all, 75 of the 405 (17.8%) reptile taxa assessed for the *Atlas* region are of conservation concern. As noted earlier, reptile taxonomic diversity within the *Atlas* area is skewed towards lizards, particularly geckos, skinks and cordylids. However, this overall diversity is only partially reflected in the spectrum of species of conservation concern (Figure 3.2). Chelonians (23 taxa) are disproportionately represented, with four sea turtles, three tortoises and a terrapin threatened or Near Threatened (34.7%). Lizards are also disproportionately threatened, with 59 of 263 (22.4%) taxa of conservation concern. Snakes are the least threatened reptiles, with only 11 of 118 (9.3%) threatened taxa.



To highlight the groups of greatest conservation concern, families were assigned a threat score based on the sum of scores of all species in each of the following IUCN cat-

Figure 3.2—The number of Conservation Concern taxa by threatened category for the different reptile groups within the At/as region.

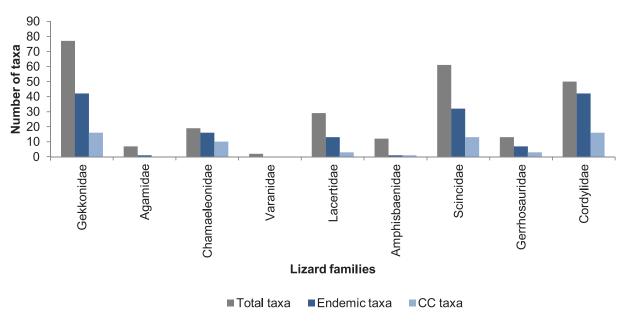


Figure 3.3—Lizard family diversity (total number of taxa), number of endemics and number of CC taxa for the Atlas region.

egories: Extinct (score 4), Critically Endangered (4), Endangered (3), Vulnerable (2) and Near Threatened (1). Data Deficient species were also included and assigned an intermediate value (2.5). The summed total weighted score for each group was then divided by the number of Conservation Concern (CC) taxa to give a mean weighting per CC taxon for each group. The order (lowest to highest) for the four groups (lizards 1.89, crocodiles 2.00, snakes 2.19 and chelonians 2.31) revealed that although having by far the highest number of CC taxa, lizards had the lowest weighted CC taxon score and were the least threatened group. Chelonians were the most threatened group, due to both threatened tortoises and sea turtles.

Among lizards, two families with relatively low species diversity, i.e. chameleons (Chamaeleonidae) and plated lizards (Gerrhosauridae), had relatively high numbers of CC taxa (Figure 3.3), unlike the Lacertidae and Amphisbaenidae, which despite having moderate taxon diversity, contained few CC taxa. The proportion of CC taxa within the most speciose lizard families, i.e. the Gekkonidae, Scincidae and Cordylidae, was generally proportional to their respective taxon diversity.

Snakes in the *At/as* region have relatively few CC taxa. However, the radiation of small adders (*Bitis*) in the Cape region included a disproportionate number of CC taxa relative to the species diversity within the genus (Figure 3.4). Primitive scolecophidian (Typhlopidae and Leptotyphlopidae) and haenophidian (Pythonidae) snake families had limited diversity, both globally and within the *At/as* region (but see species accounts for comments about the likelihood of numerous cryptic species of leptotyphlopids), and only the poorly-known and range-restricted Tello's Thread Snake (*Leptotyphlops telloi*) is considered Near Threatened. The Colubridae, Elapidae and Psammophiinae between them contain the majority of medium- and largesized diurnal snakes in the region and could therefore be expected to suffer declining populations due to increased mortality from, for example, human contact and road mortalities. Surprisingly, these well-represented snake families contain relatively few CC taxa. Although it is likely that their population numbers are decreasing due to habitat loss, reduced prey availability and climate change (Reading *et al.* 2010), most populations have not yet reached threatened status. Globally, the majority of snakes with declining populations have small home ranges, sedentary habits and ambush foraging strategies (Reading *et al.* 2010), and these are attributes characteristic of small adders, which form the most threatened group of snakes in the *Atlas* region.

In an overview of the 2010 IUCN Red List. Baillie et al. (2010) noted that of 1 496 reptile species assessed, nearly 22% were threatened, and crocodilians and chelonians were the most threatened groups. In the 2010 IUCN Red List, 129 chelonian species representing 39.2% of all extant species were regarded as globally threatened. A more comprehensive assessment was performed by the Turtle Taxonomy Working Group (Turtle Taxonomy Working Group 2010), which assessed all 328 species of modern (since 1500 AD) chelonians and incorporated the (then) unpublished results of this SARCA assessment. They found that 156 (48%) of taxa were threatened, with 90 species (27%) Critically Endangered or Endangered. When Near Threatened and Extinct species are included, and adjusting for Data Deficient species, half of modern chelonians are either already extinct or threatened with extinction. They are therefore the world's most endangered group of vertebrates. The Atlas region includes the richest diversity of chelonians in Africa, and with Malaysia, has the 15th highest chelonian diversity in the world. It is commendable that a relatively low proportion (30%) of its chelonians is threatened, particularly when the globally threatened sea turtles are excluded (three threatened tortoises, 16% of 19 taxa).

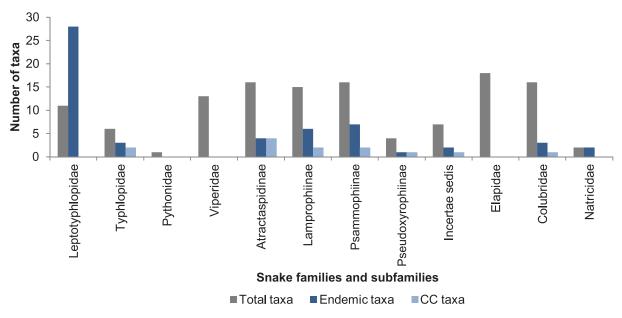


Figure 3.4—Snake higher taxon (family/subfamily) diversity, number of endemics and number of Conservation Concern taxa.

4. THREATS

During the SARCA assessment process, present and future threats to *Atlas* region reptiles were detailed in the individual species accounts. The commonest threats are discussed in more detail below (see also Figure 3.5). It should be stressed, however, that the greatest impact on conservation efforts occurs where diverse environmental threats (e.g. afforestation, pollution, urban and agricultural development) overlap with centres of endemism or regions with high reptile diversity.

4.1 Habitat loss, fragmentation and degradation

Previous assessments of major threats affecting Red Listed species (e.g. Hilton-Taylor 2000; Brooks *et al.* 2002; Butchart *et al.* 2010) considered habitat loss the most pervasive threat to mammals, birds and plants. Agricultural activities (including afforestation), extraction activities (mining, timber logging, fisheries, etc.) and development (activities associated with human development, e.g. industry and agriculture) all have significant impacts. About 3% of global forest cover has been lost in just the last five years (Hansen *et al.* 2010), and at the end of the 20th century, nearly 10% of South Africa's land surface had been invaded by more than 180 species of exotic plants (Richardson & Van Wilgen 2004).

As with amphibians (Harrison et al. 2001; Branch & Harrison 2004), habitat loss/degradation in all its forms, was cited as the commonest threat facing threatened reptiles (Figure 3.5). Fragmentation resulting from piecemeal habitat loss also threatens many species. The commonest form of habitat loss results from agricultural development (including afforestation), but localised urban developments and associated infrastructure threaten a number of species (Figure 3.6), particularly those with restricted ranges in coastal areas (e.g. *Cryptactites peringueyi*, *Cordylus niger*, *C. macropholis*, *Bitis armata*). Baillie *et al.* (2010) re-affirmed that "habitat loss is by far the greatest threat to reptiles, principally in the form of agricultural expansion, logging and urban development." Fragmentation may interact synergistically with other anthropogenic threats such as logging, hunting and especially fire, to create greater impacts.

Afforestation was considered to be a significant threat to many reptiles, including chameleons (*Bradypodion kentanicum*, *B. thamnobates*), snake lizards (*Tetradactylus breyeri*), dwarf geckos (*Lygodactylus methueni*), and even burrowing reptiles (*Chirindia langi occidentalis* and *Acontias rieppeli*). Not only is habitat directly lost to exotic plantations and alien vegetation, but indirect effects on hydrodynamics and fire frequency are often significant. The encroachment of invasive alien vegetation reduces groundwater levels and increases the risk of wildfires. When wildfires occur, the increased burden of woody material causes them to be especially hot and damaging.

Fire can be both a natural disaster and lead to habitat degradation. It affects by far the greatest number of reptiles in the *Atlas* region, with the severity of this threat predicted to increase in the future. Few detailed observations on the effects of fire on reptile populations in the *Atlas* region have been documented. Branch (2008, via E. Baard pers. comm.) gives details of tortoise mortalities resulting from a fire near the West Coast National Park in which over 100 000 tortoises (mainly *Chersina angulata*) died. Although fire in many ecosystems, especially in the Grassland and Fynbos biomes, is a natural phenomenon, increased fire frequency can result from anthropogenic influences (Van Wilgen *et al.* 1992). In forest habitats it is naturally infrequent (Geldenhuys 1994). However, chang-

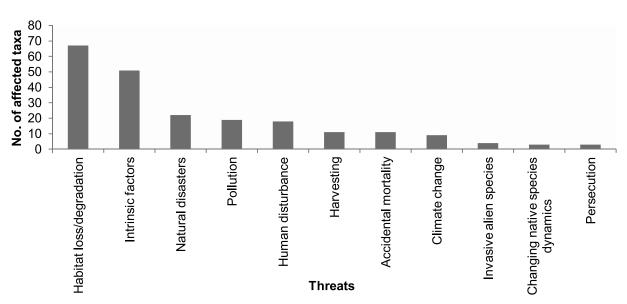
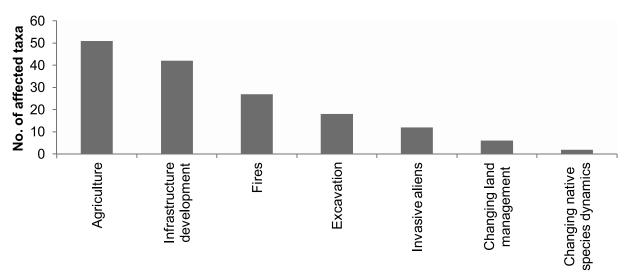


Figure 3.5—Number of Conservation Concern taxa affected by all major threats in the past, present and future.



Cause of habitat loss/degradation and fragmentation

Figure 3.6—Number of Conservation Concern taxa affected by specific habitat loss/degradation and fragmentation.

es in water-flow dynamics following road construction or afforestation may lower the water table, drying vegetation to unnatural levels and making it more susceptible to fire. Fire was indicated as a threat for many threatened and Near Threatened species, particularly grassland lizards such as *Smaug giganteus*, *Hemicordylus nebulosus*, *Chamaesaura aenea*, *C. macrolepis*, *Tetradactylus fitzsimonsi*, *Bradypodion taeniabronchum* and *B. atromontanum*. Midgley *et al.* (2001, 2002) predicted an increase in the frequency and severity of fires in the Cape Fold Mountain region due to global climate change.

Management of mosaics, including those of natural grasslands and indigenous forests and plantations, requires an integrated approach that not only determines the viability of plant communities and plantations, but also assesses the requirements of the diverse vertebrate fauna (Castley 1997). Afforestation in South Africa has been noted to have a marked impact on biodiversity and has resulted in some plant and animal species, including one reptile (*Tetradactylus eastwoodae*), becoming extinct or threatened (Armstrong *et al.* 1998). Environmental criteria and indicators for sustainable plantation management in South Africa have been developed by Lawes *et al.* (1999).

Habitat loss and fragmentation can lead to genetic depletion in isolated populations (Garner & Pearman 2001), and in amphibians this may be reflected by lowered larval fitness (Hitchings & Beebee 1997; Rowe et al. 1999). Loss of amphibian diversity is related to habitat size in forest patches (Vallan 2002) and isolated wetlands (Semlitsch 2000). Allentoft & O'Brien (2010) have argued that a decrease in genetic variation can lead to reduced fitness and lack of adaptability to changing environments. They elaborate on the extent of recent fragmentation of amphibian gene pools and proposed the term 'dissociated populations' to describe residual amphibian population structure. These authors reviewed 34 studies on amphibians that explored linkages between genetic variation and various fitness traits, and showed that there were clear genetic-fitness-correlations in the majority of the published investigations. They argued that the ongoing loss of genetic variation may be an important underlying factor in global amphibian declines, and that this is exacerbated by the negative effects of various

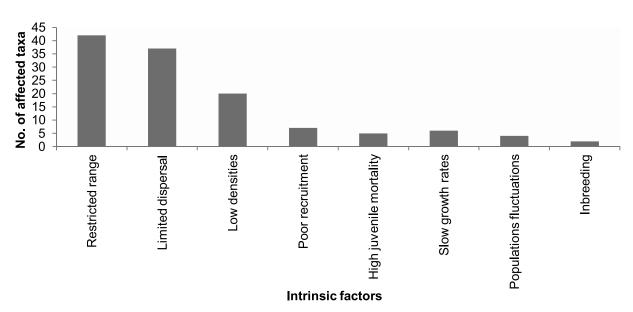


Figure 3.7—Number of Conservation Concern taxa affected by intrinsic factors.

environmental impacts (pollutants, pathogens, increased UV-B radiation). Unfortunately, no comparable studies on reptiles have been published although the fragmentation of reptile populations (Reading *et al.* 2010) can be expected to generate such problems, and this can be exacerbated by characteristics that are intrinsic to taxa. In the SARCA assessment, intrinsic factors were listed as the threat which affected the second-highest number of taxa (Figure 3.5). Restricted range and limited dispersal capabilities were the two intrinsic factors that affected most reptiles (Figure 3.7).

The relationship between habitat degradation, through over-grazing and wood collection, and reptile communities in South Africa was assessed by Smart *et al.* (2005). Unexpectedly they found no evidence that any species of lizard was negatively affected by habitat disturbance. However, although some terrestrial lizards were more common in communal lands, presumably due to their preference for open, sparsely grassed areas, the lizard community structure was different and this may influence ecosystem integrity and function.

4.2 Pollution

Pollution can take various forms, of which the commonest include chemical, light and noise pollution. The latter threaten species by disrupting their behaviour. Chemical pollution is as difficult to define as it is to define what constitutes a pollutant. Thousands of chemicals are discharged into the environment and their lingering presence may threaten biodiversity, affecting individual species or degrading entire ecosystems. Some, such as lead or PCBs, may be directly or indirectly toxic, while others, such as fertiliser runoff, are non-toxic but disrupt the normal functioning of ecosystems.

There are few studies on the effect of noise pollution on reptiles and negative impacts have been difficult to untangle from associated impacts, e.g. road mortalities and highway noise (see review in Kaseloo & Tyson 2004). The ecotoxicology of pesticides in reptiles has been reviewed by Pauli *et al.* (2010). A number of studies have implicated chemical pollution in reptile population declines. Botha *et al.* (2011) noted that the decline in crocodile populations in Loskop Dam corresponded with the deterioration

of water quality in the Olifants River resulting from industrial, mining and agricultural activities in the region. They consider that dermal exposure is not the likely route of contaminant intake, but that toxins are probably accumulated through a diet of contaminated fish and other vertebrates. Phelps et al. (1986) demonstrated high levels of chlorinated hydrocarbons and heavy metals in crocodile eggs in Zimbabwe. In one of the few field tests of insecticide toxicity on reptiles in South Africa, Alexander et al. (2002) measured the effects of deltamethrin, a pyrethroid insecticide, on individuals of two lacertid lizard species (Meroles suborbitalis and Pedioplanis namaquensis), in enclosures and under field conditions. Lizards in the enclosure experiments suffered high mortality, with most lizards dying within two months of treatment. Over a fivemonth period, field studies also revealed significant reductions in the abundance of *M. suborbitalis* (reduced by 52%) and *P. namaquensis* (reduced by 72%), one and four weeks after spraying with deltamethrin.

Few studies of the consequences of artificial lighting on amphibians and reptiles have been conducted to date (see review by Perry et al. 2008). An exception is the information available on the negative impacts of artificial lights on the orientation of hatchling sea turtles (reviewed in Witherington & Martin 1996). Most anecdotal information about the effects of night lighting on reptiles relates to lizards, particularly geckos, where complex predator-prey interactions may occur between snakes and geckos feeding on insects attracted to artificial lights (Perry & Fisher 2006). These authors also reviewed the probable negative predator-prey interactions, such as the apparent decline of heteromyid rodents around artificial lights due to increased exposure to snake predators. They noted also that snakes usually elicit a negative response when seen by the general public, placing them at a special disadvantage in urban areas.

4.3 Human disturbance (tourism/recreation)

Human activities that alter, destroy and disturb habitats and species, and are associated with non-consumptive uses of biological resources may threaten species. This differs from other human activities, such as deforestation, by relating specifically to recreational activities of people spending time in nature or travelling in vehicles outside of established transport corridors. Conflicts arising from the recreational use of protected areas have been well documented (e.g. Cole 1993), albeit with few local studies. Even quiet, non-consumptive recreation has been shown to reduce protected area effectiveness (Reed & Merenlender 2008). Construction of roads both within and to wilderness areas has negative impacts on reptiles. The passage of vehicle traffic on access roads negatively influences snake movement and activity, while residual heat on tarmac surfaces may attract snakes in the early evening and result in greater mortalities (Andrews & Gibbons 2005).

Ecotourism is an important component of financing protected areas, and also of uplifting local communities. However, it is not without impact and Kiss (2004) has noted that ecotourism is a compromise land use that has greater impacts on biodiversity conservation than pure protection of habitats. Banks & Bryant (2007) noted that normal human activity in conserved areas, e.g. walking, caused significant declines in diversity and abundance of birds. However, the presence of dogs, even restrained onleash, resulted in an even greater displacement of birds and they noted that, "local wildlife does not become habituated to continued disturbance by dogs." Declines in reptile populations may also result from indirect effects, and in a 20-year study, Garber & Burger (1995) demonstrated a decrease in populations of Wood Turtles (Glyptemys insculpta) caused by an increase in raccoons caused by increased recreational use of protected turtle habitat. Baboons (Papio ursinus) in the Atlas region are also known to become problem animals in association with human recreational use in protected areas (Van Doorn 2009; Hoffman & O'Riain 2011). The possible localised impact of increased baboon numbers on small terrestrial reptiles, particularly those that shelter in logs or under rocks, has not been assessed.

4.4 Harvesting

Over-exploitation (hunting, trapping and unsustainable harvesting) is a particular threat to some reptile groups, with sea turtles used for food, crocodilians for their skin, and terrestrial tortoises for the pet trade and for 'muti' (traditional medicine). This threat is expected to affect an even greater number of taxa in the Atlas region in future (Figure 3.5). There is increasing evidence of commercial trade in South African reptiles (Van Wilgen et al. 2008), and concerns about illegal collecting for the pet trade are expressed in a number of SARCA species accounts (e.g. the tortoises *Psammobates* geometricus and *Homopus* signatus, the lizards Smaug giganteus and Ouroborus cataphractus, and small adders, e.g. Bitis albanica). However, the levels of illegal exploitation of wild reptile populations for the pet trade are unknown, and it is currently impossible to assess the significance of this threat.

Whiting *et al.* (2011) have assessed the impact on South African vertebrates used in traditional medicine for both the healing of ailments and for symbolic purposes such as improving relationships and attaining good fortune. At one urban market (Faraday Market, Johannesburg) they identified 147 vertebrate species in trade, of which 17 species were of conservation concern, including the Nile Crocodile (*Crocodylus niloticus*, regionally VU). Non-threatened reptiles commonly offered included Rock Monitors (*Varanus albigularis*) and Water Monitors (*V. niloticus*), Southern African Pythons (*Python natalensis*) and Puff Adders (*Bitis arietans*). Similar findings were noted in rural communi-

ties, where the predominant users of reptiles were traditional healers who indicated that the reptiles most commonly used in traditional medicine, i.e. Leopard Tortoise (*Stigmochelys pardalis*), Puff Adder, Southern African Python and Rock Monitor, appeared to be declining in numbers (Smart *et al.* 2005). There are also indications that crocodiles are being increasingly poached, and in the last two years, no less than 15 crocodiles have either been found dead in snares or with snares attached at Ndumo Game Reserve, KwaZulu-Natal (J. Warner pers. comm. August 2011).

4.5 Accidental mortality

Many reptiles are killed or injured while crossing roads. Awareness of this problem is not new (Stoner 1925; Dreyer 1935; Dickerson 1939) and mortalities on roads, particularly in pristine areas, may impact significantly on long-lived, wide-ranging species (e.g. tortoises) (Nicholson 1978). Populations can easily be decimated by road mortalities, and this can lead to local extinctions. Rudolph et al. (1999) reported a reduction of up to 50% in large snake species up to a distance of 850 m from a road, and attributed the reduction to increased road mortality. Langen et al. (2007) reviewed various methodologies for surveying herpetofauna mortality on rural highways, and solutions to reduce excessive road mortalities have been proposed (Langton 1989; Woltz et al. 2008). These include specially constructed tunnels and temporary restrictions (7-10 days) on traffic movements at night along sensitive sections of roads. Large under-road culverts for storm water control may also serve as safe transit corridors in areas of high impact. However, road underpasses only work in association with costly barriers that prevent access onto roads, and are only feasible in certain situations. Moreover, experience at Suikerbosrand Nature Reserve in Gauteng suggests that the enforcement of measures to reduce speed on roads, such as posting reduced speed limits to minimise vehicle-wildlife collisions, is impractical (G. Masterson pers. comm.).

Significant mortality of sea turtles in KwaZulu-Natal has occurred in the past due to inshore shark nets (Dudley & Cliff 1993), but has declined since their use was reduced in 2002. Sea turtle mortalities also occur as a bycatch to fisheries, particularly the inshore shrimp fishery along the Mozambique coast where the application of turtle exclusion devices and monitoring of their use is poor (Bourjea *et al.* 2007; FAO 2009). Crocodile mortalities also arise from the increasing use of gill nets in inland water systems (Thomas 2006; Aust *et al.* 2009), and there is an ongoing threat to the regional crocodile population in KwaZulu-Natal from the use of these nets (Pooley 1982; Kyle 1999, 2008).

4.6 Climate change

Globally, predictions about the impact of climate change have received tremendous circulation, but little meaningful, integrated international or regional response. Disagreement about the accuracy of the predicted speed and local impact of climate-induced habitat change (be it anthropogenic or natural) has made it difficult to assess the future impact of climate change scenarios. In part for these reasons, Hoffmann *et al.* (2010) noted that climate change as a growing extinction threat has not been adequately captured by IUCN Red Lists, even though it is increasingly implicated in the continuing decline of many vertebrates (Laurance & Useche 2009; Sinervo *et al.* 2010).

In assessments of climate change in South Africa (Midgley et al. 2001, 2002, 2005), it was predicted that the whole of South Africa would experience higher temperatures, that summer rainfall would decrease by between 5% (north) and 25% (south), and that within 50-100 years, Fynbos, Succulent Karoo, Grassland and Forest biomes may be reduced to 35-55% of their present extent. These scenarios have stimulated a number of scientific studies that have predicted reptile distributions based on various climate models. Using genetic structure of lizard populations within the Cape Fold Mountains, Tolley et al. (2009) noted that climatically-suitable areas for chameleons (Bradypodion) and the lacertid Pedioplanis burchelli will decline, resulting in highly fragmented distributions and reduced genetic connectivity. In a global context, Sinervo et al. (2010) showed that seasonal air temperature changes affect the thermal habitats of Mexican Sceloporus lizards such that they must retreat to the shade more often in order to avoid overheating. As a result the lizards lose foraging time, particularly during the spring breeding season. By incorporating physiological characteristics into climate models, Sinervo et al. (2010) established a strong link between rising temperatures and the degree of local lizard extinctions. The incorporation of rupicolous cordylid distributional data into these models showed that these lizards would be more greatly imperilled by temperature increases than terrestrial or arboreal lizards. The model also predicted that rising air temperatures will be twice as likely to cause the extinction of viviparous lizards as oviparous lizards, probably due to the effects of temperature on embryonic development. Montane populations of cordylids in the Atlas region are therefore prime candidates for negative climate change impacts. Although the risk of cordylid extinctions now and over the next 40 years is not considered high, it will become increasingly severe thereafter. In other groups, e.g. crocodilians and chelonians, where many lineages demonstrate temperature-dependent sex determination, the effects of changing global temperatures on population dynamics may become significant.

4.7 Invasive aliens

The increasing number of Invasive Alien Species (IAS), i.e. non-indigenous animals becoming established after intentional or accidental introduction, is of increasing global concern, and it is increasingly evident that large, perhaps primary, conduits for introductions are the pet and ornamental plant trades (see Perry & Farmer 2011 for discussion). IAS have also been noted as the most significant drivers of amphibian declines, mainly mediated through introduced alien pathogens such as chytrid fungus (Stuart et al. 2004). Langton et al. (2011) estimated that in 2010, around 80 000 London households held about 150 000 captive reptiles and amphibians. This was lower than in the USA where in 1998 an estimated 3.9 million USA households (4% of total) held an estimated nine million reptiles and amphibians (Franke & Telecky 2001). In parallel with the increase in captive reptiles is an increase in the numbers of invasive alien species. Meshaka (2011) noted that the diversity of invasive alien reptiles and amphibians in Florida has doubled since 1980. Langton et al. (2011) discussed the 51 taxa of non-native herpetofauna recorded living wild in the London area, noting that of the 21 amphibian taxa, 14 had bred successfully, while of the 30 reptile taxa, only two had bred. The latter included the Aesculapian Snake (Zamenis longissimus), with breeding populations recorded from Colwyn Bay, North Wales (several hundred specimens), and Camden in north London (30 snakes). The latter is believed to have resulted from the deliberate release of adult snakes. Pimentel *et al.* (2005) estimated annual economic damages caused by invasive species in the United States to exceed US\$ 100 billion, although estimates for Europe were lower, about EUR 12 billion (Kettunen *et al.* 2009). Langton *et al.* (2011) noted that costs to remove introduced American bullfrogs at one location in the London area exceeded £100 000, and the cost of the impacts of non-native species collectively cost the economy of the United Kingdom an estimated £1.7 billion per year (Nonnative Species Secretariat Website 2011—www.nonnativespecies.org).

Perry & Farmer (2011) have proposed, in part, to alleviate the cost to society of the impacts of IAS by raising funds (e.g. levies) from the main importers of IAS. However, Langton & Herbert (2011: 168) noted that this proposal appears "naïve for the kind of world that has developed", and proposed "allowing trade only in species judged highly suitable for captivity" and to "enforce heavily on unlawful activities". In a review concerned with ethical issues relating to poor survival and ill treatment by the public of feral exotic species, and issues about re-homing and re-wilding, Langton & Herbert (2011) noted that the bulk of irresponsible trading in reptiles and amphibians to the uninformed public was based upon highly exploitative large-volume sales with very low survival rates. They also claimed (p. 159) that "After twenty-five years CITES (the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora, also known as the Washington Convention) has not induced the form of sensible and caring yet tightly managed regulation that could in theory enable a low-impact exploitative trade to exist." They placed heavy emphasis on public education concerning the negative impacts resulting from the release of non-native species. This would not, however, solve the problems of the accidental escape of specimens of such species from pet owners or pet traders.

Van Rensburg et al. (2011) recently reviewed invasive alien vertebrates in South Africa, and Van Wilgen et al. (2008) noted that invasive alien herpetofauna have the potential to cause a number of negative effects, ranging from negative impacts on native biota to effects on the day-to-day course of society. However, although they discussed and reviewed in detail experiences with introduced alien reptiles and amphibians in many parts of the world, and reviewed potential problems that may arise in South Africa, they did not discuss any local examples. Only one introduced reptile, the all-female, parthenogenetic Brahminy Blind Snake (Ramphotyphlops braminus) is known to have become established in the Atlas region (Smith 1838; McLachlan 1978b; Alexander 1987). The Red-eared Slider (Trachemys scripta elegans) has been the most popular terrapin in the global pet trade, with more than 52 million individuals exported from the United States to foreign markets between 1989 and 1997. Feral individuals have been recorded from 79 countries (Turtle Taxonomy Working Group 2010), and breeding colonies have become established in numerous countries, leading to the slider's inclusion on the Top 100 of the World's Worst Invasive Alien Species (Global Invasive Species Database 2010). In the Atlas region, feral specimens have been recorded from Durban, Johannesburg, and Silverton in Pretoria (Newbery 1984), but no breeding populations are known to have become established. Although translocations of this terrapin were of global concern at the end of the last century, the banning of the importation of this species into many countries has reduced the problem.

There is a burgeoning use of reptiles for the pet trade (Kraus 2009), with increasing concern for the potential for their release and the development of breeding colonies of alien reptiles in South Africa (Van Wilgen et al. 2008, 2010). A list of alien reptiles that have been discovered in the wild in the Atlas region is provided as Appendix 4, and is informative in the light of the situation in Florida where numerous alien species have become established, including many with the potential for significant human and faunal impacts, e.g. Python molurus (Snow et al. 2007). Between 1976 and 2007, 275 reptile species in 30 families were imported into South Africa (Van Wilgen et al. 2010). While reptile trade in South Africa is very small by world standards (Auliya 2003), the numbers of imports are increasing each year, having more-or-less doubled every four years between 1976 and 2005 (Van Wilgen et al. 2010). The increasing number of captiveheld alien reptiles in South Africa results from this ongoing importation and from the successful local captive breeding of alien species. The desire and need to keep herpetofauna in captivity is a contentious subject, involving on the one hand philosophical issues of civil liberties, and human and animal rights, and on the other hand national and international legislation relating to health and the control of disease and alien introductions. Although Arena et al. (2012) have recommended very strict control and numerous prohibitions to regulate the pet trade in reptiles and amphibians in the European Union, their prohibitive stance may reflect, at least in part, that of the report's source (it was commissioned, funded and circulated by various animal rights organisations). It should be read with caution and in conjunction with counter views, i.e. those documented in Joswig & Izaber (2012).

Directly linked to the growing pool of alien captives in South Africa is the increasing number of reports of escaped alien reptiles. There has been both an increasing expansion of indigenous commensal geckos such as Hemidactylus mabouia and Lygodactylus capensis (e.g. Branch 1998; Bates 2005b), and an increasing number of escaped exotics, particularly variant colour morphs of popular pet American colubrids such as the Corn Snake (Pantherophis guttatus), Yellow Rat Snake (P. obsoletus) and various king snakes (Lampropeltis spp.) (see Appendix 4). There are at least three records of large exotic pythons (2-3 m) having escaped in KwaZulu-Natal, with two being subsequently re-released in protected areas after capture due to confusion with indigenous pythons. A python from Verulam in Durban was reported to have been in the region for three years before capture. African and Burmese Pythons are closely related and are known to hybridise (Branch & Erasmus 1984), increasing the risk of genetic pollution following the escape of the latter species into the wild.

The discovery of feral American king snakes (Lampropeltis spp.) at various locations in South Africa (Appendix 4) is of particular concern in light of their recent introduction to Gran Canaria (Cabrera-Pérez et al. 2012). In 2007, its naturalisation on the island was confirmed, and attributed to the accidental or deliberate release of individual king snakes bred in captivity. During the next five years 1 064 king snakes were captured. Trapping these snakes has not been successful, and control has required labour-intensive visual searches and hand capture. This snake has a wide dietary niche, and the majority of its prey items on the island have included indigenous reptiles (69%), particularly the endemic Gran Canaria Giant Lizard (Gallotia stehlini). Up to the year 2011 there were still no regulations against the importation and sale of the California King Snake in the Canary Islands. As in South Africa, this species was very popular among hobbyists, and frequently offered for sale in local pet shops. The ownership, transport and sale of living or dead individuals of all species of Colubridae is now forbidden in the Canary Islands (Cabrera-Pérez et al. 2012).

Exacerbating this situation is the recent discovery of novel reproductive modes, including various forms of 'virgin' birth, in common captive species, e.g. Rainbow Boa, *Epicrates maurus* (Booth *et al.* 2011a); Boa Constrictor, *Boa constrictor* (Booth *et al.* 2011b); and Checkered Garter Snake, *Thamnophis marcianus* (Reynolds *et al.* 2012), as well as in wild populations of two pitviper species, the Copperhead (*Agkistrodon contortrix*) and Cottonmouth (*A. piscivorus*) (see review in Booth *et al.* 2012). Conservation and permitting authorities should be aware of the implications of this reproductive flexibility and the increased caution it merits, as populations may potentially become established from even single escapees or from a deliberately released specimen.

Although the small and localised breeding populations of the Brahminy Blind Snake in South Africa remains an exception, and no other alien reptiles are known to have become established in the *Atlas* region, the growing movement of exotic species around the globe and increasingly in South Africa necessitates active monitoring. More serious than the threat of venomous and/or dangerous reptiles becoming established is the conduit that alien imports provide for alien pathogens and parasites.

5. HOT SPOTS

The objective of identifying hotspots is to focus attention on areas that have the highest priority for conservation action for the group in question. This can be undertaken at the level of general reptilian diversity, and for species of recognised conservation concern. As for amphibians (Branch & Harrison 2004), a conservation 'hotspot' is here defined as a grid cell or cluster of grid cells containing a relatively large number of threatened and Near Threatened species and subspecies (taxa). The QDGCs containing these species can also be weighted to highlight spots where species in the categories of higher threat (e.g. Critically Endangered, Endangered) may clump. Only validated, non-introduced locality records were plotted. The same weighting used in the assessment of taxa of conservation concern (see above) was used in the hotspot analysis. There are multiple reasons for identifying such hotspots:

- To provide an indication of the area of greatest conservation concern.
- To alert planners to the opportunities to conserve several Red Listed taxa at a single or relatively few protected localities.

 To identify areas that contain sensitive localities and that need careful study prior to embarking on changes in land use.

5.1 Distribution of reptile diversity and endemism

5.1.1 Total reptile diversity

For this analysis, the number of taxa (species and subspecies) was categorised into quantiles and the number of levels was chosen to best illustrate the geographical spread of diversity.

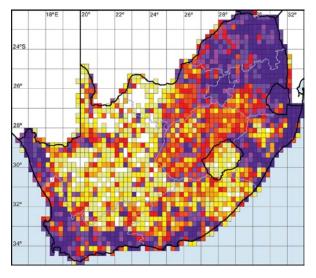
This analysis revealed 125 039 reptile records from 1 888 QDGCs (93.2% of total) in the Atlas region. Distribution of reptiles in the region is not uniform. Diversity ranges from 0-80 taxa per QDGC, with 197 QDGCs (9.7%) having 38–80 taxa (the highest quantile used in the analysis). The distribution of total reptile diversity in the Atlas region is shown in Figure 3.8. Most grids with very low diversity, e.g. 1-2 taxa (256 QDGCs, 12.3% of total) are probably simply under-sampled; even on the high-altitude plateau of Lesotho at least 3-4 reptile species can be expected from most localities. Areas of high reptile diversity are associated with the main winter rainfall area of the western and southern Cape coastal regions, and with the summer rainfall area of the eastern regions, i.e. Mpumalanga, Limpopo and Kwa-Zulu-Natal provinces. The central arid regions (Great Karoo and southern Kalahari) have low reptile diversity, as do the highlands of Lesotho and adjacent Transkei. Similar reduced chelonian diversity in the Transkei has previously been noted

(Branch *et al.* 1995b), but this appears to be the case for all reptiles in that area. It is unclear whether this low diversity is a reflection of poor collecting or an effect of the long history of subsistence farming in the Transkei.

Measures of high reptile diversity are clustered around major human centres, particularly major cities with museums, e.g. Pretoria (2528CA), Durban (2931CC), Pietermaritzburg (2930CB), Bloemfontein (2926AA), Kimberley (2824DB), Cape Town (3118CD), East London (3327BB) and Port Elizabeth (3325DC). These clusters reflect the high levels of collecting in these areas. The high altitude grasslands of the Free State are known to have relatively reduced reptile diversity (De Waal 1978; Bates 1992), and yet the region displays slightly higher diversity than its surroundings. This again reflects the efficacy of detailed herpetological surveys in the region (De Waal 1978), as does the uniformly high reptile diversity shown throughout the former Transvaal Province, which Jacobsen (1989) surveyed from 1978 to 1985.

5.1.2 Endemic reptile diversity

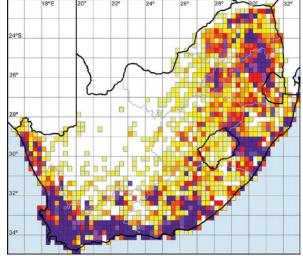
A list of all endemic and near-endemic reptiles in the *Atlas* region is provided in Appendix 3. There are 34 188 records of endemic reptiles from 1 304 QDGCs (64.4% of total), with 125 QDGCs (6.4%) having the highest number (12–24) of endemic taxa (Figure 3.9). QDGCs with very low diversity (1 taxon) comprise 16.8% of all QDGCs. For much of the region, patterns of reptile endemism match those of overall reptile diversity (Figure 3.8). The exception is the Kalahari region of the Northern Cape and



Number of records: 125 039 Number of grid cells: 1 888 (93.2%)

| Number of taxa | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1–2 | | 256 | 12.64 |
| 3–5 | | 236 | 11.65 |
| 6–8 | | 173 | 8.54 |
| 9–11 | | 221 | 10.91 |
| 12–14 | | 207 | 10.22 |
| 15–18 | | 174 | 8.59 |
| 19–24 | | 204 | 10.07 |
| 25–37 | | 220 | 10.86 |
| 38–80 | | 197 | 9.73 |

Figure 3.8—Distribution of reptiles in the Atlas region.



Number of records: 34 188 Number of grid cells: 1 304 (64.4%)

| Number of taxa | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | | 340 | 16.79 |
| 2 | | 220 | 10.86 |
| 3 | | 160 | 7.9 |
| 4 | | 126 | 6.22 |
| 5 | | 94 | 4.64 |
| 6 | | 62 | 3.06 |
| 7 | | 43 | 2.12 |
| 8–11 | | 134 | 6.62 |
| 12–24 | | 125 | 6.17 |

Figure 3.9—Distribution of endemic reptiles in the Atlas region.

Maputaland, KwaZulu-Natal, which both have very few endemic taxa but relatively high overall reptile diversity. The generally uniform habitats in the Kalahari region are associated with low levels of endemism, with most species that occur in the central Northern Cape having ranges that extend widely into Botswana and adjoining Namibia. Similarly, high reptile diversity in northern KwaZulu-Natal is associated with an Indian Ocean coastal zone herpetofauna that extends through Mozambique to Tanzania, and in some cases north to southern Kenya, and south to the Albany region. The southern part forms the Maputaland-Pondoland-Albany (MPA) biodiversity hotspot, which was initially recognised on the basis of high plant endemism (Steenkamp et al. 2004). This region was also highlighted as a centre of vertebrate endemicity (Perera et al. 2011), albeit that the MPA was increased to incorporate sections of the Great Escarpment from the Amatola-Winterberg-Sneeuberg Mountains through the Drakensberg to the Soutpansberg. This re-definition was justified to give rise to a Greater Maputaland-Pondoland-Albany region of vertebrate endemism, and it incorporates (with the exception of the southern and western Cape regions) many of the reptile hotspots noted above.

5.1.3 Chelonian diversity

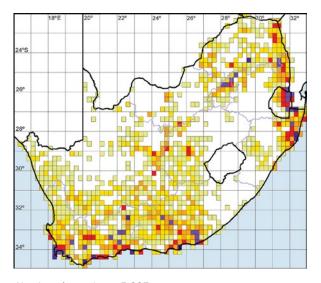
There are 5 237 chelonian records in 958 QDGCs (47.3% of total). Diversity ranges from 0–8 taxa per QDGC, with less than 2% of QDGCs having five or more taxa. More than one-third of recorded QDGCs have very low diversity (1–2 taxa), and these are spread over most of the *Atlas* region (Figure 3.10). There are, however, large areas where chelonians are absent, including most of the Transkei and Lesotho, northeastern Free State and adjacent Mpuma-langa and KwaZulu-Natal. The relative absence of tortoise shells in archaeological excavations in the Transkei area

indicates that the absence of chelonians there, at least, is a natural phenomenon (Branch *et al.* 1995).

Chelonian hotspots in the southwestern Cape and Algoa Bay area result from *Atlas*-endemic tortoises and a number of sea turtle strandings associated with cold water upwelling. High diversity in the southern Cape and the adjacent inland escarpment results from the relatively high number of tortoise taxa and a single pelomedusid. Conversely, chelonian diversity in coastal Maputaland is dominated by pelomedusids and sea turtles.

Endemic chelonian diversity

There are no endemic freshwater terrapins in southern Africa, although the taxonomic status of the isolated population of the Variable Hinged Terrapin (P. rhodesianus) in KwaZulu-Natal requires further investigation. Chelonian endemicity (Figure 3.11) is restricted to tortoises, with endemic tortoises recorded in 871 QDGCs (13.0%). Diversity ranges from 0-3 taxa per QDGC, with only one QDGC (3225BA) having three endemic taxa. QDGCs with two endemic chelonians cluster along the Cape escarpment and valleys of the southwestern Cape. Chelonian endemism in the Atlas region is restricted to the tortoise genera Chersina, Homopus and Psammobates, which characterise the Cape region and which confer on this region the distinction of having the highest tortoise (Testudinidae) diversity and endemism in the world. Although four species of hinged tortoise (Kinixys) occur in the northern parts of the Atlas region, they are mainly allopatric and all inhabit savanna. This contrasts with the four Cape Homopus species which inhabit, for the most part, different biomes-e.g. Homopus areolatus in Fynbos, H. signatus in Succulent Karoo, H. boulengeri in Nama-Karoo, and H. femoralis in Grassland and grassland patches in Nama-Karoo.



Number of records: 5 237 Number of grid cells: 958 (47.3%)

| Number of taxa | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | | 470 | 23.21 |
| 2 | | 267 | 13.19 |
| 3 | | 130 | 6.42 |
| 4 | | 51 | 2.52 |
| 5 | | 30 | 1.48 |
| 6–8 | | 10 | 0.49 |

Figure 3.10—Distribution of chelonians in the Atlas region.

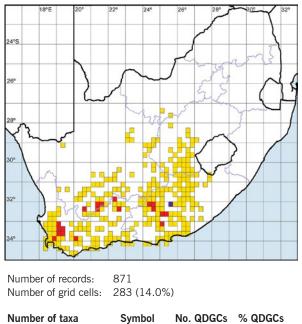


Figure 3.11—Distribution of endemic chelonians in the At/as region.

1 2

3

263

19

1

12.99

0.94

0.05

5.1.4 Lizard diversity

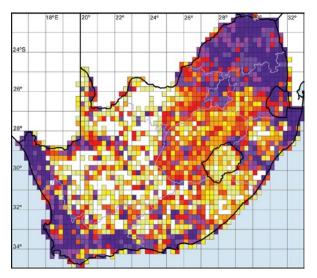
There are 79 769 lizard records in 1 741 QDGCs (86.0% of total). Diversity ranges from 0 to 41 taxa per QDGC, with 8.9% of QDGCs having 20 or more taxa. QDGCs with very low diversity, i.e. 1–2 taxa (294 cells, 14.5%), cluster within the central Karoo and adjacent Northern Cape (Figure 3.12). This reflects, in part, poor collecting in those areas. In the northeast, lizard diversity is heavily clumped in Maputaland, the eastern escarpment of Mpumalanga and Limpopo Province, and the Soutpansberg. In the south, high lizard diversity is associated with the Cape Fold Mountains (particularly the Little Karoo) and the West Coast (particularly Namaqualand), but there is also a cluster of high-scoring QDGCs around the Karoo National Park near Beaufort West. These peaks of diversity result from good collecting as these regions have been the focus of directed herpetological surveys during the last 20 years (Karoo National Park, Branch & Braack 1989; Little Karoo, Branch & Bauer 1995; Richtersveld National Park, Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Endemic lizard diversity

There are 28 533 records of endemic lizards in 1 173 QDGCs (57.9% of total), but only 5.7% of these cells contain most (9-20) endemics (Figure 3.13). Centres of lizard endemism are evident, with the major hotspot situated in the Cape Fold Mountains, and other smaller centres occurring in Namaqualand, the Maloti-Drakensberg region of KwaZulu-Natal, Lesotho and adjacent Free State, the Mpumalanga and Limpopo escarpment, and the Soutpansberg Range. Lizard families displaying the highest levels of endemism within the Atlas region are girdled lizards (Cordylidae, 94.0%), chameleons (Chamaeleonidae, 89.5%), geckos (Gekkonidae, 61.3%) and skinks (Scincidae, 59.0%), and these contribute significantly to the regional hotspots of lizard endemism. Rupicolous cordylids are a dominant component of the lizard fauna of the rugged Cape Fold Mountain region (Mouton & Van Wyk 1995, 1997) and the Lesotho and KwaZulu-Natal Drakensberg (Broadley 1964; Bates 2005a). Small generic radiations also occur in Namaqualand (Namazonurus, Stanley et al. 2011) and in association with the eastern escarpment and other mountain ranges of Mpumalanga and Limpopo provinces (Smaug, Stanley et al. 2011). A suite of dwarf chameleons (Bradypodion, Tolley & Burger 2004a, 2007a; Tolley et al. 2004, 2006; Branch et al. 2006b) is also associated with mesic habitats along the southern coast, while fossorial skinks (Scelotes, Acontias, Typhlosaurus, Bates et al. 1998; Lamb et al. 2010) have radiated in the sandy habitats of Namagualand.

5.1.5 Snake diversity

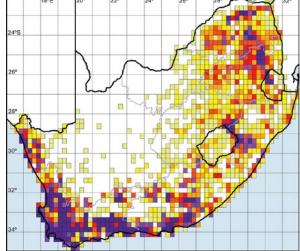
There are 39 647 snake records in 1 578 QDGCs (77.9% of total). Diversity ranges from 0 to 44 taxa per QDGC, with 8.2% of QDGCs having 20 or more taxa. QDGCs with very low diversity (1 taxon) comprise 232 (11.5%) of QDGCs (Figure 3.14). Snake hotspots are similar to those of lizards, but with more pronounced gaps in the highlands of Lesotho, the central Karoo, and the Kalahari region of the Northern Cape. Although these regions probably have relatively low snake diversity, particularly the



Number of records. 79 769 Number of grid cells: 1 741 (86.0%)

| Number of taxa | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1–2 | | 294 | 14.52 |
| 3 | | 118 | 5.83 |
| 4–5 | | 225 | 11.11 |
| 6–7 | | 205 | 10.12 |
| 8–9 | | 185 | 9.14 |
| 10-11 | | 171 | 8.44 |
| 12–14 | | 178 | 8.79 |
| 15–19 | | 185 | 9.14 |
| 20–41 | | 180 | 8.89 |

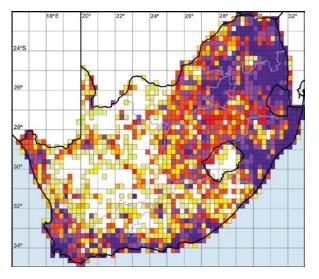
Figure 3.12—Distribution of lizards in the Atlas region.



Number of records: 28 533 Number of grid cells: 1 173 (57.9%)

| Number of taxa | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | | 365 | 18.02 |
| 2 | | 227 | 11.21 |
| 3 | | 152 | 7.51 |
| 4 | | 117 | 5.78 |
| 5 | | 69 | 3.41 |
| 6 | | 50 | 2.47 |
| 7 | | 44 | 2.17 |
| 8 | | 34 | 1.68 |
| 9–20 | | 115 | 5.68 |

Figure 3.13—Distribution of endemic lizards in the Atlas region.



Number of records: 39 647 Number of grid cells: 1 578 (77.9%)

| Number of taxa | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | | 232 | 11.46 |
| 2 | | 176 | 8.69 |
| 3 | | 158 | 7.8 |
| 4–5 | | 243 | 12 |
| 6 | | 104 | 5.14 |
| 7–9 | | 200 | 9.88 |
| 10–12 | | 138 | 6.81 |
| 13–19 | | 161 | 7.95 |
| 20–44 | | 166 | 8.2 |

Figure 3.14—Distribution of snakes in the Atlas region.

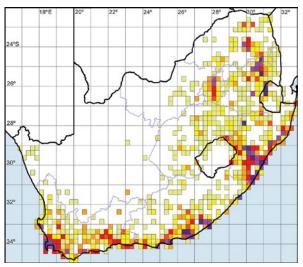
highlands of Lesotho, much of the apparent absence is due to poor collecting in these regions.

Endemic snake diversity

There are 4 784 records of endemic snakes from 646 QDGCs (32.0% of total), but only seven QDGCs (0.35%) contain the highest number (nine) of endemics (Figure 3.15). Centres of snake endemism are evident in the southwestern Cape, Algoa Bay area in the Eastern Cape, the KwaZulu-Natal Midlands, Waterberg Range, and escarpment region of Mpumalanga and Limpopo provinces. Unlike lizards, snake endemism is low in Namaqualand and the Soutpansberg.

5.2 Distribution of reptiles of conservation concern

Reptiles of Conservation Concern (CC) are those in Near Threatened, Vulnerable, Endangered, Critically Endangered and Extinct categories. As a precautionary principle, Data Deficient species are also included in this analysis. There are 6 252 records of CC reptiles in 573 QDGCs (28.3% of total; Figure 3.16). Several QDGCs (24, 1.2%) contain the highest weighted scores for reptiles of conservation concern. For much of the *Atlas* region, patterns of CC reptile endemism match those of overall reptile diversity (Figure 3.8), with the main hotspots of CC reptiles including the southwestern Cape, Algoa Bay, KwaZulu-Natal and the western Soutpansberg in Limpopo Province. The Richtersveld region is a minor hotspot of CC reptiles. When only CC taxa are plotted, the hotspots are similar to



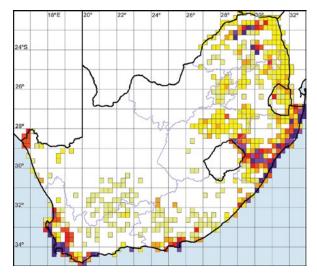
Number of records: 4 784 Number of grid cells: 646 (31.9%)

| Number of taxa | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | | 317 | 15.65 |
| 2 | | 123 | 6.07 |
| 3 | | 81 | 4.00 |
| 4 | | 31 | 1.53 |
| 5 | | 43 | 2.12 |
| 6 | | 23 | 1.14 |
| 7 | | 15 | 0.74 |
| 8 | | 6 | 0.30 |
| 9 | | 7 | 0.35 |

Figure 3.15—Distribution of endemic snakes in the Atlas region.

those when Near Threatened taxa are excluded, although there is less emphasis on the western Soutpansberg and northern Drakensberg escarpment region.

KwaZulu-Natal resolves into two basically contiguous hotspots. The coastal region, particularly in Maputaland, is home to a number of threatened sea turtles, i.e. Leatherback Turtle (Dermochelys coriacea, EN), Loggerhead Turtle (Caretta caretta, VU), Green Turtle (Chelonia mydas, NT), Hawksbill Turtle (Eretmochelys imbricata, NT), and Olive Ridlev Turtle (Lepidochelvs olivacea, DD), as well as the African Coral Rag Skink (Cryptoblepharus africanus, EN). The now fragmented coastal forests also include Green Mamba (Dendroaspis angusticeps, VU), Gaboon Adder (Bitis gabonica, NT), KwaZulu-Natal Black Snake (Macrelaps microlepidotus, NT) and Pygmy Wolf Snake (Lycophidion pygmaeum, NT), which also contribute to the KwaZulu-Natal coastal hotspot. A lesser hotspot occurs in the greater Kwa-Zulu-Natal Midlands, with threatened taxa including the KwaZulu Dwarf Chameleon (Bradypodion melanocephalum, VU), Midlands Dwarf Chameleon (Bradypodion thamnobates, VU), Günther's Dwarf Burrowing Skink (Scelotes guentheri, EX), Durban Dwarf Burrowing Skink (Scelotes inornatus, CR), Bourquin's Dwarf Burrowing Skink (Scelotes bourquini, VU), and others. The Algoa Bay hotspot is restricted to the western region, centred on the Elandsberg and Port Elizabeth, with threatened taxa including Smith's Dwarf Chameleon (Bradypodion taeniabronchum, EN), Albany Adder (Bitis albanica, CR) and Salt Marsh Gecko (Cryptactites peringueyi, CR). This is the only hotspot that contains two Critically Endangered reptiles. The coastal region of the southwestern Cape is emphasised due to va-



6 2 5 2 Number of records: Number of grid cells: 573 (28.3%)

| Weighted score | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | | 178 | 8.79 |
| 2 | | 196 | 9.68 |
| 3 | | 64 | 3.16 |
| 4 | | 39 | 1.93 |
| 5 | | 19 | 0.94 |
| 6 | | 10 | 0.49 |
| 7 | | 12 | 0.59 |
| 8 | | 10 | 0.49 |
| 9–16 | | 24 | 1.19 |

Figure 3.16—Distribution of all reptiles of Conservation Concern in the Atlas region (quantiles are based on weighted scores).

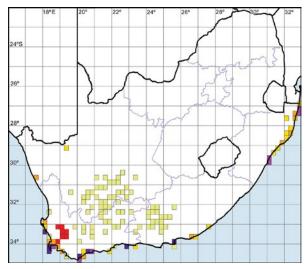
grant sea turtles recorded from coastal waters; exclusion of these records would put greater emphasis on coastal lowland regions, including threatened taxa such as the Geometric Tortoise (Psammobates geometricus, CR), Cape Dwarf Chameleon (Bradypodion pumilum, VU), Cape Sand Snake (Psammophis leightoni, VU) and Southern Adder (Bitis armata, VU).

5.2.1 Chelonians

There are 439 records of chelonians of conservation concern in 124 QDGCs (6.1% of total; Figure 3.17). Three coastal QDGCs (3325DC, 3418AD and 3422BB) obtained the highest weighted score due to the presence of threatened sea turtles. High scores for the south and central Karoo result from the presence of the Near Threatened Boulenger's Padloper (Homopus boulengeri). The hotspot in the southwestern Cape is dominated by the Critically Endangered Geometric Tortoise (Psammobates geometricus).

5.2.2 Lizards

There are 4 583 records of lizards of conservation concern in 328 QDGCs (16.2% of total; Figure 3.18). There is a cluster of QDGCs in northern Limpopo Province, centred on the isolated mountains of the Blouberg and Soutpansberg in the north, and Wolkberg region on the Limpopo escarpment. Among them three QDGCs (0.05%) obtained the highest weighted scores due to the presence of CC lizards there. Two cells are located in the Soutpansberg region, i.e. 2229DC—Stripe-bellied Blind Legless Skink (Ac-



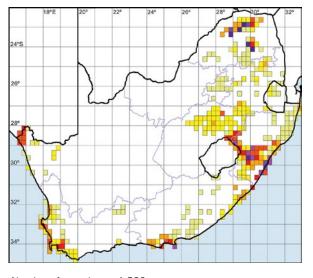
439 Number of records: Number of grid cells: 124 (6.1%)

| Weighted score | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | | 77 | 3.80 |
| 2 | | 14 | 0.69 |
| 3 | | 12 | 0.59 |
| 4 | | 7 | 0.35 |
| 5 | | 6 | 0.30 |
| 6 | | 3 | 0.15 |
| 7–9 | | 3 | 0.15 |

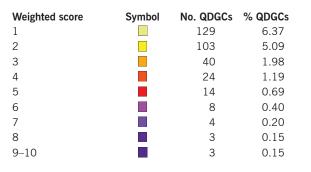
Figure 3.17—Distribution of all chelonians of Conservation Con-cern in the *At/as* region (quantiles are based on weighted scores).

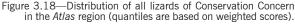
ontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus, DD), Soutpansberg Rock Lizard (Vhembelacerta rupicola, NT), Coppery Grass Lizard (Chamaesaura aenea, NT), Soutpansberg Worm Lizard (Chirindia langi occidentalis, VU), Cryptic Dwarf Gecko (Lygodactylus nigropunctatus incognitus, DD), and Soutpansberg Dwarf Gecko (Lygodactylus ocellatus soutpansbergensis, NT), and 2329AB-it lacks the Coppery Grass Lizard and Soutpansberg Worm Lizard, but includes Muller's Velvet Gecko (Homopholis mulleri, VU). The remaining QDGC occurs in the Woodbush region on the Limpopo escarpment, i.e. 2430AA-Woodbush Legless Skink (Acontias rieppeli, EN), Woodbush Flat Gecko (Afroedura multiporis multiporis, VU), Coppery Grass Lizard (Chamaesaura aenea, NT), Methuen's Dwarf Gecko (Lygodactylus methueni, VU), and the Northern Crag Lizard (Pseudocordylus transvaalensis, NT).

Other minor hotspots occur in the western Algoa Bay area due to the presence of a number of lizards with restricted distributions-e.g. Salt Marsh Gecko (Cryptactites peringueyi, CR), Smith's Dwarf Chameleon (Bradypodion taeniabronchum, EN), FitzSimons' Long-tailed Seps (Tetradactylus fitzsimonsi, VU) and Albany Sandveld Lizard (Nucras taeniolata, NT). Additional hotspots occur in the Lesotho, KwaZulu-Natal and Free State areas, centred on the Drakensberg escarpment and foothills, and extending into the southern KwaZulu-Natal coastal region due to the presence of a number of fossorial and relict forest species there. Another lizard hotspot in the southwestern Cape is more diffuse with a concentration of threatened or Near Threatened rupicolous cordylids, e.g. Black Girdled Lizard



Number of records: 4 583 Number of grid cells: 328 (16.2%)

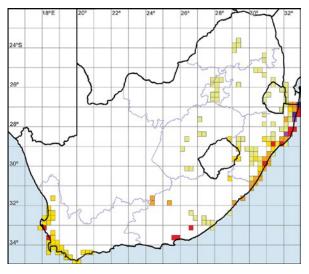




(*Cordylus niger*, NT) and Dwarf Crag Lizard (*Hemicordy-lus nebulosus*, VU), as well as fossorial skinks, e.g. the dwarf burrowing skinks *Scelotes gronovii* (NT), *S. kasneri* (NT) and *S. montispectus* (NT). The Richtersveld region is an obvious lizard hotspot, but this is due to the presence of a suite of restricted Near Threatened species (e.g. *Goggia gemmula*, NT and *Typhlosaurus lomiae*, NT) rather than species in higher threat categories.

5.2.3 Snakes

There are 844 records of Near Threatened and threatened snakes in 153 QDGCs (7.6% of total; Figure 3.19). Only three QDGCs obtained the highest weighted scores. Due to their generally widespread distributions, few snakes qualify as threatened on the basis of restricted ranges (Criteria



Number of records: 844 Number of grid cells: 153 (7.6%)

| Weighted score | Symbol | No. QDGCs | % QDGCs |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | | 72 | 3.56 |
| 2 | | 42 | 2.07 |
| 3 | | 22 | 1.09 |
| 4 | | 13 | 0.64 |
| 5 | | 2 | 0.10 |
| 6 | | 1 | 0.05 |
| 7–8 | | 1 | 0.05 |

Figure 3.19—Distribution of all snake taxa of Conservation Concern in the *Atlas* region (quantiles are based on weighted scores).

B. AOO). There are concentrations of threatened snakes in only two obvious hotspots: in the southwestern Cape, where the sand snake, Psammophis leightoni (VU) and the small adder, Bitis armata (VU), live in coastal regions subject to urban development; and the northern KwaZulu-Natal coast, particularly in the Maputaland region (QDGC 2632DD) where a number of regionally threatened snakes are concentrated, e.g. Gaboon Adder (Bitis gabonica, regionally NT), Green Mamba (Dendroaspis angusticeps, regionally VU), KwaZulu-Natal Black Snake (Macrelaps microlepidotus, NT) and Pygmy Wolf Snake (Lycophidion pygmaeum, NT). Some hotspots for lizards of conservation concern, e.g. Richtersveld and Soutpansberg regions, do not have significant numbers of threatened snakes. There are minor hotspots for threatened dwarf adders Bitis inornata (EN) and B. albanica (CE) in the central Karoo and Algoa Bay regions, respectively.

6. CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Recommended conservation actions

The accounts for each of the threatened, Near Threatened and Data Deficient species in this publication conclude with a section on 'Recommended conservation actions'. 'More research' was the most common recommendation (Figure 3.20). The main research components required were surveys to both identify potential additional populations and to assess population densities and trends in surviving populations, surveys to determine the status of habitats, and basic biology studies to redress knowledge gaps relating to life history parameters and habitat dependence (Figure 3.21). A better understanding of threats was also considered important.

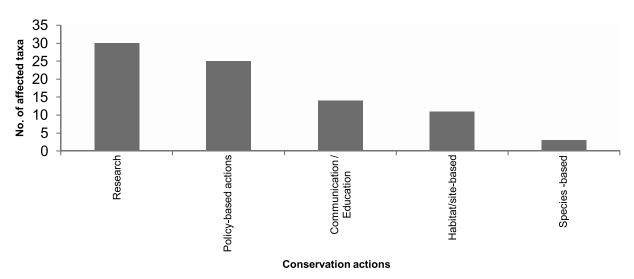


Figure 3.20—Conservation actions recommended for Conservation Concern taxa.

The importance of policy-based actions was also emphasised (Figure 3.20). Biodiversity Management Plans for Species were recommended for 38 taxa, to direct and prioritise conservation programs. Although existing protective legislation was believed to benefit 24 taxa, it was felt that there was room for improvement in terms of both development and implementation. The results of this Red List have been used to update South Africa's Threatened and Protected Species list for reptiles as part of South Africa's Biodiversity Act; the list was published by the Minister of the Department of Environment in 2012.

Improved education and communication, particularly improved public awareness, was believed to be important for effective conservation of reptiles. The need for site/habitatbased actions was also highlighted. Increasing protected areas would benefit 21 taxa, either through extensions to the existing national or provisional protected area networks or by encouraging various forms of public-private conservatories or partnerships.

6.2 Conservation planning

In the *Atlas* region the detailed distribution data generated for neglected groups such as amphibians (Minter *et al.* 2004), reptiles (this volume), butterflies (Mecenero *et al.* 2013), scorpions (www.arc.agric.za/home.asp?pid=3272), and dragonflies and damselflies (http://vmus.adu.org.za/) has important consequences for future conservation modelling in the region. It will allow better planning and development of protected area networks, as well as a more holistic education of environmental awareness for the public. The data from this *Atlas* was also used to inform South Africa's National Biodiversity Assessment and a number of regional conservation plans.

6.3 Future conservation assessments

This is the third national assessment of the conservation status of the reptile fauna of the *Atlas* region, following two earlier reviews (McLachlan 1978a; Branch 1988a). The assessment of threatened taxa at such lengthy (10–15 year) intervals is obviously undesirable. There is an urgent need for an ongoing assessment of threatened species so that their plight can be drawn to the attention of conservation authorities sooner rather than later. The plea for early notification to conservation authorities of the threatened status of taxa has been made on numerous previous occasions (Gärdenfors *et al.* 2001; Harrison *et al.* 2001; Branch 2002; Mills 2002; Branch & Harrison 2004). This need could be met by the formation of a permanent local Red List Committee to assess nominated taxa as submitted.

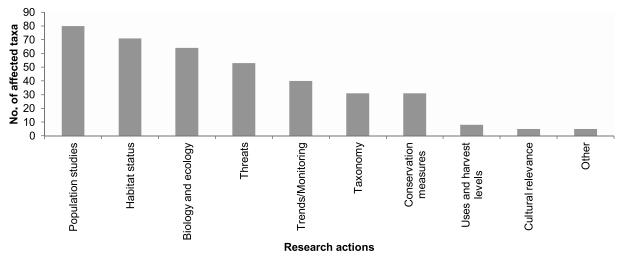


Figure 3.21—Research actions recommended for Conservation Concern taxa.

The nomination of Red List species would follow standardised international protocols, coupled with an objective assessment and quantification of threats. Awareness of this need is reflected in many new species descriptions which include preliminary conservation assessments (e.g. Bauer *et al.* 2006b; Branch 2007; Branch & Tolley 2010; Tilbury & Tolley 2009b). A vehicle for the immediate submission of these candidate species of conservation concern is essential. We therefore recommend that an IUCN Red List Authority be established for reptiles of this region. Branch & Harrison (2004) noted the need for ongoing proactive research and monitoring of threatened and Near Threatened amphibians, and a strategy for South African amphibian conservation research was recently proposed (Measey 2011). The summary information presented in this volume should empower similar reptile conservation plans.

7. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter started with a quotation from Jonathan Baillie (2009) on the importance of National Red Lists. It is repeated here with emphasis: "*Producing National Red Lists is a critical first stage* in identifying where species are threatened, why they are threatened and **what needs** to be done about it."

The previous iteration of this Red List was prepared 25 years ago (Branch 1988a) and made numerous recommendations for the conservation of the region's herpeto-fauna. Many of these recommendations were re-iterated in the summary chapter on conservation in the Atlas and Red List for the region's amphibians (Branch & Harrison 2004). Many have been repeated again here. Baillie's comment is pertinent because it emphasises that Red Lists are a means to an end and not an end in themselves. Too often, however, it seems that conservation measures for non-charismatic groups, such as reptiles, amphibians and butterflies are limited to little more than Red Lists.

This Atlas is the best compilation to date of what is known about our reptiles, and it highlights many of the knowledge gaps that can be targeted to resolve outstanding problems. Its value, however, will stand or fall by its ability to stimulate and direct the efforts and finances of national and provincial conservation authorities, and by its ability to engage the enthusiasm and support of non-governmental organisations. Conservation in the subcontinent, and in much of Africa, has entered a new paradigm whereby it is viewed as a significant vehicle for sustainable utilisation that targets the social upliftment of neighbouring communities. In such a climate, what value is given to the small, cryptic and neglected lizards and snakes that do not attract ecotourism, that have no direct value in terms of sustainable resources, and which may even be venomous? Reptiles test our commitment to conservation, and also our awareness that biodiversity and ecological services depend on integrated ecosystems in which the value of the whole is exactly the sum of the parts. This Atlas must achieve these goals better than its predecessors (McLachlan 1978a, Branch 1988a) if the region is to withstand further reptile declines and extinctions.

SECTION 2

FAMILY, SUBFAMILY, GENUS, SPECIES AND SUBSPECIES ACCOUNTS

Introduction to accounts

Family accounts

Each of the remaining chapters deals with one of the 22 families in the Class Reptilia. The ordering of families reflects, as far as possible, evolutionary relationships as they are currently understood (see Chapter 2). Family accounts summarise information on any relevant taxonomic issues, the global and regional distribution of the family, global and regional richness of genera and species within the family, and the regional habitat diversity of the family. A brief biological summary is provided, as is a summary of the regional conservation status of species or subspecies within the family and their threats.

Subfamily accounts

Subfamily accounts are provided when there is good evidence for their usage. They are ordered alphabetically under the respective families. The exception is Subfamily Lamprophiinae, which is listed last under Family Lamprophiidae, because its relationships within elapoid snakes are unresolved.

Genus accounts

Genera are arranged in alphabetical order within each family. The same type of information provided in family accounts is provided for each genus.

Species/subspecies accounts

This *Atlas* is the official reference for the Red List status of species in the *Atlas* region, superceding all previous Red Data books. Species and subspecies accounts are arranged in alphabetical order within each genus, except that the account for the nominate subspecies is always presented first.

The accounts follow a standardised format. Each account begins with a heading containing the scientific name and common name(s) of the taxon under consideration. The first common name, in bold, is the name preferred by the SARCA editors. This is followed by other common names that are currently in use. The author(s) of the account is listed. The scope of the assessment (global or regional) is stated. Regional assessments were done for taxa with ranges extending outside of the *Atlas* region but for which there was insufficient information to allow for a global assessment; the status of such taxa was assessed for the region South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. This is followed by the Red List category assigned to the species

and, for threatened or Near Threatened taxa, the IUCN criteria codes used to obtain the category (see Appendix 2 for the conservation status of select taxa, as assessed in this volume and compared with previous assessments). An explanation of IUCN categories and criteria is provided in Appendix 1. Taxa with extremely limited distributions in the Atlas region (regional extent of occurrence [EOO] <5% of global range and occurs in two or less QDGCs) were not assessed (see 'Not Applicable') but a species account was prepared. Ramphotyphlops braminus, an introduced species with established populations in the Atlas region, was also not assessed but a species account was prepared. The account heading indicates endemics (entire range within Atlas region) or near-endemics (90% of range contained within the region)-a list of these taxa is provided in Appendix 3, and taxa alien to the Atlas region are listed in Appendix 4. Each account is illustrated with one or more images. Current South African provinces referred to in the captions: Limpopo (LIMP), North-West (NWP), Gauteng (GP), Mpumalanga (MPM), Free State (FS), KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), Northern Cape (NC), Western Cape (WC) and Eastern Cape (EC). Other abbreviations used in captions: Nature Reserve (NR), National Park (NP) and Game Reserve (GR).

The account text begins with a section on *Taxonomy*, where any relevant taxonomic issues are outlined. This is followed by a description of *Distribution*, with particular emphasis on the *At/as* region (South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland). References to specific localities are sometimes accompanied by QDGC codes in brackets, corresponding to those used in the 1:50 000 South Africa Series of maps produced by the Chief Directorate of Geospatial Information. Altitute is indicated as metres (m) above sea level. For threatened or Near Threatened taxa, the text on *Distribution* concludes with estimates of the *extent of occurrence (EOO)* and *area of occupancy (AOO)* of each species (see below, and Appendix 1, for definitions of these parameters, and explanations of their methods of estimation).

Extent of occurrence (EOO)

Extent of occurrence (EOO) is defined as the area contained within the shortest continuous imaginary boundary that can be drawn to encompass all the known, inferred or projected sites of present occurrence of a taxon, excluding cases of vagrancy (IUCN 2001). EOO estimates are not presented for Least Concern taxa. EOO values in this book are approximations, based on the available data and the authors' expert knowledge. The accuracy of these estimates is influenced by the quantity and quality of the

SYMBOL

data, and authors' confidence in estimates is indicated in accounts as high, medium or low.

Within the *Atlas* region, EOO for most species was estimated as the area of the minimum convex polygon around distribution records. Co-ordinates were projected (Lambert's equal area) to get real ground co-ordinates (in metres). For records where only a QDGC was available, the centerpoint co-ordinates of the QDGC were used. The projected co-ordinates were loaded into the software programme R (2.10.0, Windows version; R Development Core Team 2009). For each species or subspecies account, the convex hull was calculated using the function *chull()* and, with the points that were thus identified, the area of the polygon was calculated using a standard analytical geometry algorithm for the area of an *n*-point polygon.

For global assessments of taxa that are not endemic to the *Atlas* region, the EOO as calculated above was increased by the area outside the *Atlas* region in which the taxon is known to occur. The latter area was usually estimated by the authors of species accounts using published maps.

Area of occupancy (AOO)

Area of occupancy (AOO) is defined as the area within EOO that is occupied by a taxon, excluding cases of vagrancy but including new, established populations. AOO reflects the fact that a taxon will not usually occur throughout the area of its EOO, which may contain unsuitable or unoccupied habitats (IUCN 2001).

AOO estimates are not presented for Least Concern taxa. For species with wide distributions, AOO was estimated as the sum of the areas of occupied QDGCs minus the proportion of that area thought to contain habitat unsuitable for the taxon. The adjustment for unsuitable habitat was based on the account author's expert knowledge of the species. For taxa with very restricted distributions (limited to one or only a few adjoining QDGCs), and if the data allowed, AOO was estimated as the area of the minimum convex polygon around point localities. Note that due to the general lack of fine-scale distribution data, the IUCN Guidelines (IUCN 2008) for estimating AOO (making use of 2 \times 2 km grids) could not be employed. Even where unsuitable habitat is excluded, the SARCA method likely over-estimates AOO. For wide-ranging taxa this may not be a serious issue but for more restricted taxa, extinction risk may be underestimated. As for EOO, authors' confidence in AOO estimates is indicated as high, medium or low.

Distribution maps

The distribution maps show national and provincial boundaries and grid lines at one-degree intervals. Distribution records are indicated on a quarter-degree grid cell (QDGC) scale in which a cell represents an area of 15×15 minutes. Only records collected within the SARCA region are plotted on maps (Table), which therefore represent global distributions only for taxa that are endemic to the region. On average for the region, each QDGC represents an area of approximately 676 km². Only presence/absence is in-

| Introduced | | |
|--------------|----------------|---|
| | VM records | |
| Questionable | Non-VM records | ? |
| | VM records | |
| Historical | Non-VM records | X |

Table: Key to map symbols

TYPE OF RECORD

Non-VM records

Non-VM records

VM records

SPECIMEN STATUS

Accepted

Introduced

dicated on maps; the number of records per QDGC is not represented in any way.

Non-VM and VM records are indicated by orange squares and cyan circles, respectively. Records that are considered questionable (e.g. records that are isolated from the bulk of distribution records, or records that may represent mistaken identifications) are coloured red. For taxa with restricted ranges, historical records (that have not been confirmed by recent sightings nearby) are represented by a cross (e.g. *Bradypodion taeniabronchum*). Pink cells on maps represent suspected human-assisted introductions/ translocations (e.g. *Hemidactylus mabouia*). Records that are questionable, historical or represent introductions/ translocations were excluded from estimates of EOO and AOO.

A short *Habitat* description is provided. This is followed by a habitat list which, for all taxa except the marine turtles and sea snakes, is according to the vegetation classifications of Mucina & Rutherford (2006) and is presented at one of three levels: biome or bioregion for wide-ranging species, or vegetation type for species with restricted distributions. For marine turtles and sea snakes, the IUCN Habitats Classification Scheme (www.iucnredlist.org/technical-documents/classification-schemes/habitats-classification-scheme-ver3) is used instead.

This is followed by the Assessment rationale which provides a justification for the given IUCN listing. For threatened taxa, it also provides the IUCN codes based on a strict set of defined criteria. The IUCN Regional Guidelines (IUCN 2003) were used in deciding whether or not to uplist or downlist regional assessments (see Appendix 1.5).

Accounts conclude with a description of *Threats* (not provided for Least Concern taxa) and recommended *Conservation measures* (provided for all taxa).

CHAPTER 4

Family Pelomedusidae

Richard C. Boycott

Freshwater side-necked terrapins of the family Pelomedusidae are mostly restricted to the southern hemisphere. The family is widely distributed in Africa, including Madagascar and the Seychelles, and comprises 19 species (Branch 2008; including *P. seychellensis* which may be extinct) in two genera. Both *Pelomedusa* and *Pelusios* are represented in southern Africa (Loveridge 1941; Boycott & Bourquin 2000). There are six species in southern Africa and five in the *Atlas* region. *Pelomedusa subrufa* is widely distributed, whereas the other species (all *Pelusios*) are restricted to subtropical regions in the north and east. Terrapins are found in a wide variety of natural and anthropogenic aquatic habitats. These range from permanent coastal lakes, swamps, rivers and dams to seasonal pans and flooded borrow pits and quarries.

Southern African terrapins are semi-aquatic, with somewhat depressed shells and flattened, paddle-like feet (adaptations for swimming), pointed snouts, flattened heads and feet with five claws. Members of the family are immediately recognisable by the manner in which the head and neck are withdrawn sideways into the shell. A distinctive feature of all side-necked terrapins is the presence of an intergular shield, located between the paired gular shields on the plastron. *Pelomedusa* lacks a flexible plastron, while *Pelusios* possesses a hinged plastron.

Terrapins are well-equipped for defence. Apart from withdrawing the head and neck into the shell, they have strong jaws and sharp claws, and will bite or scratch to defend themselves. They are also capable of exuding a foul-smelling fluid from glands located near the base of their forelimbs and hindlimbs and the stench can persist for days (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). Terrapins are primarily carnivorous but will also feed on the stems, leaves and flowers of aquatic plants. Their diet consists mainly of aquatic invertebrates and vertebrates, including insects, snails, worms, tadpoles, frogs, fish and birds. They are also opportunistic scavengers, taking carrion lying in the water or at the water's edge (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). Females lay 8-50 soft-shelled eggs in a nest hole excavated in the vicinity of a water body, usually on level ground. Incubation in southern African species ranges from 50 to 100 days (Boycott & Bourquin 2000).

Within the *Atlas* region, three species (*P. rhodesianus* [Vulnerable], *P. castanoides*, *P. subniger*) have restricted distributions and face a number of threats to their continued survival. Threats include loss of habitat, a decline in the quality of habitat, and persecution by humans.



Genus Pelomedusa Wagler, 1830—marsh terrapins

This monotypic genus contains the most common and widespread terrapin species in the *Atlas* region, namely *Pelomedusa subrufa*, found widely in sub-Saharan Africa. A recent study indicates that up to nine species may be subsumed under this name (Vargas-Ramírez *et al.* 2010). Unlike the other freshwater terrapins of the region which have hinged plastra, *P. subrufa* has an immovable plastron; the paired pectoral shields and the paired abdominal shields meet on the bridge that joins the carapace to the plastron. This is one of the hardiest and most successful terrapins in the region, occupying an ecological niche where competition with hinged terrapins is reduced or absent (Boycott & Bourquin 2008). This versatile terrapin survives in some of the more arid parts of the subcontinent, such as the Great Karoo and along the southern

fringes of the Kalahari Desert, where it is able to colonise farm dams and other artificial wetlands. It has been found in areas far from water, indicating an ability to move over land to new habitats. In southern Africa females lay their eggs in autumn in the winter rainfall region of the southwestern Cape or in spring in the summer rainfall region, and clutches contain 10–30 eggs (Boycott & Bourquin 2008). The incubation period varies from three months in the summer rainfall region to six months in the winter rainfall region. Proliferation of farm dams has allowed these terrapins to expand their distribution. The species is under no immediate threat because suitable natural and man-made habitats inside and outside of protected areas are abundantly available throughout much of its continental range (Boycott & Bourquin 2008).

Pelomedusa subrufa (Bonnaterre, 1789) MARSH TERRAPIN; HELMETED TERRAPIN

Richard C. Boycott

Regional: Least Concern

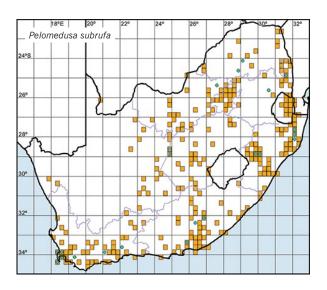
Taxonomy: The type description was previously assigned to Lacépède (1788), but Savage (2003) suggested that Lacépède's (1788) name appeared in a non-binominal work (Histoire Naturelle des Quadrupèdes Ovipares) and applied to have the work suppressed (Case 3226; Bull. Zool. Nom. 60 [2]). This application was successful (ICZN 2005) and the first available usage is thus that of Bonnaterre (1789). Various subspecies have been described, such as *P. s. olivacea* (olive in colour, pectoral scutes widely separated), but these are not generally recognised. However, a recent study identified nine strongly divergent mitochondrial clades within *P. subrufa*, indicating the possible existence of as many as nine species (Vargas-Ramírez et al. 2010).

Distribution: Has a widespread distribution in Africa from the Cape Peninsula to Sudan (Iverson 1992; Boycott & Bourquin 2000). Also occurs on Madagascar and the Mascarene Islands but is absent from the Seychelles (Boycott & Bourquin 2008). In South Africa the range extends from the southwestern Cape eastwards through the Eastern Cape and northwards to northern and eastern South Africa and Swaziland. In the western half of South Africa this species is assumed to have expanded its range into semi-desert regions due to the prevalence of farm dams (Boycott & Bourquin 2008).

Habitat: Occurs in fresh or stagnant water bodies, including seasonal pans, flooded quarries and farm dams; avoids mountainous terrain, forests and desert regions (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). Survives droughts by burrowing into moist soil, sometimes far from its usual aquatic habitat, and emerges after rains (Branch 2008).

Biome: Savanna; Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Albany Thicket; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common throughout Africa south of the Sahara. A resilient terrapin that can adapt to harsh environmental conditions. The possibility of as many as nine species (Vargas-Ramírez *et al.* 2010)





Pelomedusa subrufa-Germiston, GP

W.R. Schmidt

being subsumed under the name *P. subrufa* indicates that the conservation status of some populations might have to be re-assessed, although it is unlikely that the status of populations within the *Atlas* region will change.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Genus Pelusios Wagler, 1830—hinged terrapins

Hinged terrapins are widely distributed in sub-Saharan Africa, Madagascar and the Indian Ocean Islands. Eighteen species are recognised, but P. seychellensis may be extinct (Branch 2008). In southern Africa the genus is represented by five species (Boycott & Bourquin 2000), four of which enter the Atlas region where they are largely restricted to the tropical and subtropical regions of eastern South Africa (Bourguin 2004) and Swaziland (Boycott 2001). These terrapins are characterised by the presence of a hinged plastron (weakly hinged in P. broadleyi), with the hinge located along the seam between the pectoral and abdominal shields (Branch 2008). Paired pectoral shields are excluded from the bridge that joins the carapace to the plastron. The articulation of the plastron provides additional protection once the head and neck have been withdrawn into the shell. Pelusios prefer perennial water bodies such as coastal freshwater lakes and large east-flowing rivers, although they are occasionally found in temporary water bodies such as seasonal pans, borrow pits and flooded quarries (Boycott 2001). Unlike Pelomedusa, hinged terrapins are less likely to travel long distances over land to colonise anthropogenic water bodies. Consequently, representatives of the two genera seldom occur in the same habitat, although there are some records of them occurring in the same seasonal pan (Boycott 2001). Females lay 8-25 eggs per clutch in spring and summer (Boycott & Bourguin 2000). The incubation period for eggs of one species, Pelusios sinuatus, is about 48 days under artificial conditions (Branch 2008). Three of the four hinged terrapins in the Atlas region have restricted ranges. In the context of their continental distribution these southern peripheral populations are under varying degrees of threat at the regional level, but the species are not threatened globally. Threats include habitat loss, a decline in the quality of habitat, and persecution by humans. In the Atlas region P. rhodesianus is classified as Vulnerable. Pelusios castanoides was previously classified as 'Peripheral' in the RDB, but it is no longer considered of conservation concern.

Pelusios castanoides Hewitt, 1931 YELLOW-BELLIED HINGED TERRAPIN

Richard C. Boycott

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Preliminary genetic results (Silva *et al.* 2010; Fritz *et al.* 2011) indicate that the Seychelles population is of very recent origin, possibly resulting from humanrelated colonisation, and recognition of a separate subspecies (*P. c. intergularis*) on the island is probably not valid.

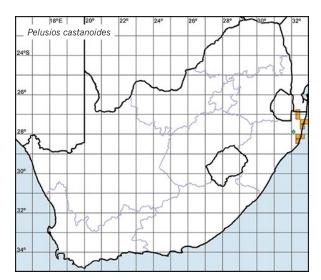
Distribution: Occurs in tropical eastern and southeastern Africa (Boycott & Bourquin 2000) with isolated, probably introduced, populations on Madagascar and the Seychelles. The distribution enters South Africa in the east along the Mozambique coastal plain, extending as far south as St Lucia and the Mfolozi River (D.G. Broadley & R.C. Boycott in prep.).

Habitat: Occurs in temporary pans and permanent well-vegetated water bodies in warm coastal regions (Bourquin 2004).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Within the region the species has a restricted EOO (<20 000 km² [B1]) and restricted AOO (<500 km² [B2]). However, there is no continuing decline or fluctuation in habitat quality or quantity. This species breeds in the *Atlas* region, there is significant immigration of reproductive individuals, and immigration is not expected to cease because the species is widespread, common and unthreatened outside the *Atlas* region in tropical eastern and southeastern Africa (Boycott & Bourquin 2000; Spawls *et al.* 2002). These terrapins are eaten by locals throughout Madagascar (P. Pritchard pers. comm.).

Conservation measures: Conserve its wetland habitats and conduct research into biology, population numbers and habitat status. It is listed in CITES Appendix II.





Pelusios castanoides-Tofo, Mozambique

W.R. Branch

Pelusios rhodesianus Hewitt, 1927 VARIABLE HINGED TERRAPIN: MASHONA

HINGED TERRAPIN; VARIABLE MUD TURTLE

Richard C. Boycott

Regional: Vulnerable B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii)

Taxonomy: A molecular assessment of the isolated South African population is recommended as preliminary genetic results (Fritz *et al.* 2011) indicate that a number of cryptic taxa may be subsumed within this species.

Distribution: Occurs in tropical central and southern Africa (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). The population in South Africa is isolated and consists of three disjunct subpopulations in KwaZulu-Natal, i.e. Durban, Umlalazi and St Lucia. The southern population (2930DD) in Bluff Nature Reserve (Durban) is now considered to be extirpated (Bourquin 2004; Broadley & Boycott 2008).

EOO: 9 165 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 466 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Occurs in temporary pans and semi-permanent, well-vegetated water bodies in sandy coastal regions (Bourquin 2004).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted EOO (<20000 km²) and AOO (<500 km², Endangered threshold), a severely fragmented distribution [B1a+2a], and is experiencing a continuing decline in area, extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)] as a result of wetland destruction and pollution. Qualifies as Vulnerable. Although the species is widespread in tropical eastern and southeastern Africa (Boycott & Bourquin 2000), there does not appear to be any immigration into the *Atlas* region, therefore this regional assessment is not downgraded.

Threats: In KwaZulu-Natal the species may experience a decline in extent and quality of habitat as a result of the filling in of wetlands and, at some localities, pollution of the habitat (Broadley & Boycott 2008). Further fragmentation of habitat has probably occurred due to the expansion of agriculture (sugar cane fields) and silviculture (timber plantations). In some areas the roots of bluegum trees absorb large quantities of water, thereby lowering the water table and affecting wetlands. Mining of coastal

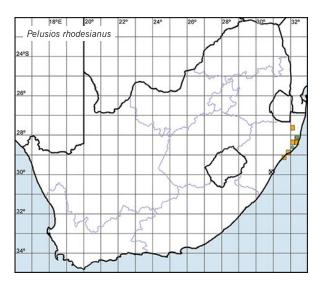
Pelusios sinuatus (A. Smith, 1838) SERRATED HINGED TERRAPIN

Richard C. Boycott

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Although it is generally considered that there are no notable taxonomic issues, preliminary genetic results (Fritz *et al.* 2011) indicate deep divergence in individuals from Phinda (KwaZulu-Natal) and Mashatu (northeastern Botswana), suggesting that a number of cryptic taxa may be subsumed within this species.

Distribution: Widespread in tropical eastern and southeastern Africa (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). In the *Atlas* region it is the most widespread of the hinged terrapins with a range extending from the northern parts of South Africa eastwards to the subtropical lowveld, and south through Swaziland to northern KwaZulu-Natal.

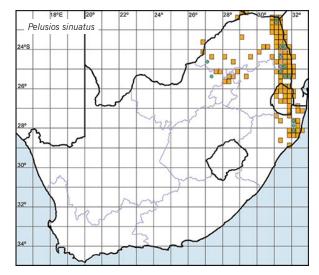




Pelusios rhodesianus—E of Kwambonambi, KZN A. Shuttleworth

dunes north and south of Mtunzini may also be detrimental to the continued existence of the Umlalazi subpopulation of these terrapins (R.C. Boycott pers. obs.). A lesser threat is the wanton killing of terrapins by locals in coastal pans south of Mtunzini (Broadley & Boycott 2008; O. Bourquin pers. comm.).

Conservation measures: Listed under CITES Appendix II. Conserve its wetland habitats and conduct research into biology, population numbers and habitat status.



Habitat: Occurs in inland lakes and the larger perennial rivers of upland savanna, lowveld and the coastal belt. Found in fresh or stagnant water bodies including seasonal pans, flooded quarries and farm dams, but prefers medium to large perennial rivers (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). Often found basking on logs or rocks during the day (Branch 2008).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mopane; Central Bushveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread in eastern and southeastern Africa (Boycott & Bourquin 2000), inhabiting all the river systems of eastern Africa (Broadley 1981a). Very mobile, crossing land to take up residence in farm dams and temporary water bodies.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pelusios subniger (Bonnaterre, 1789) PAN HINGED TERRAPIN

Richard C. Boycott

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Preliminary genetic results (Silva *et al.* 2010) indicate that the Seychelles population is of very recent, possibly human-related, colonisation. Recognition of a separate subspecies (*P. s. parietalis*) on the island is probably invalid.

Distribution: Widespread in eastern and southern Africa (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). Its range is peripheral in the northeastern parts of the *Atlas* region, where it occurs in Nyandu Sandveld (2231CB) (Pienaar *et al.* 1983) and at Lower Sabie (2531BB) (Hoffman & Van der Bank 2001) in the Kruger National Park, and in Tembe Elephant Park in northern KwaZulu-Natal (2632DC, 2732AB) (J. Harvey, L. du Preez, L. Meyer & O. Verneau in prep.). The latter is its southernmost locality. Has also been observed at a temporary stream near Salamanga on the boundary of the Maputo Special Reserve in southern Mozambique (J. Culverwell pers. comm.). Also found in northern Madagascar and the Seychelles. Introduced to Gloriosa and Mauritius islands—where it has been extirpated—and Diego Garcia in the Chagos Archipelago (Branch 2008).

Habitat: Occurs primarily in temporary pans in subtropical lowveld habitats (Boycott & Bourquin 2000), and elsewhere along small seasonal rivers and streams (Branch 2008).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mopane.

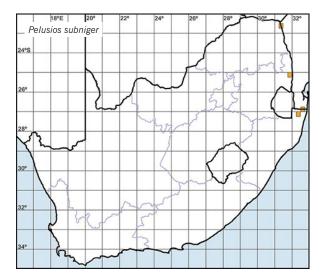
Assessment rationale: Although known from only a few localities on the borders of South Africa (regional EOO 18 900 km², AOO 236 km²), this species has a wide-spread distribution elsewhere. Within the *At/as* region it occurs entirely within protected areas. It appears to be common in the wetlands of Tembe Elephant Park in Kwa-Zulu-Natal, where 35 specimens were found in 10 out of 15 pans surveyed over two nights (J. Harvey, L. du Preez, L. Meyer & O. Verneau in prep.).

Conservation measures: None recommended as the species' range in the *Atlas* region is situated within protected areas.



Pelusios sinuatus-Cleveland NR, Phalaborwa, MPM

M. Burger





Pelusios subniger—Tembe Elephant Park, KZN

J. Harvey

CHAPTER 5

Family Cheloniidae

George Hughes & Ronel Nel

The family Cheloniidae is represented by five distinct genera comprising six species, four of which are circumglobal in distribution. Species in the Atlas region include the Green Turtle (Chelonia mydas) which was once divided into two species (Pritchard 1979) but is now regarded as a single circumglobal species (Hirth 1997; Limpus 2009), Loggerhead Turtle (Caretta caretta) (Hughes 1974a; Baldwin et al. 2003), Hawksbill Turtle (Eretmochelys imbricata) (Witzell 1983) and Olive Ridley Turtle (Lepidochelys olivacea) (Carr 1952; Reichart 1993). Two species have restricted distributions. Kemp's Ridley Turtle (Lepidochelys kempii) nests only on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, although post-nesting movements take it into the North Atlantic Ocean (Carr 1952; Marquez-M. 1994). The Flatback Turtle (Natator depressus) nests only in northern Australia, with limited post-nesting feeding in the Gulf of Papua and the coastal waters of Papua in Indonesia. It is more or less endemic to the Australian continental shelf (Limpus 2009).

These large turtles are adapted to aquatic life and seldom visit dry land except to lay eggs. Their limbs are paddle-like and the carapace is covered with horny laminae, but weight is more or less reduced by the retention to varying degrees of the embryonic spaces between the ribs, and the connection between the upper and lower shells is not rigid. The neck is short, thick and incompletely- or non-retractile. The temporal region of the skull is completely roofed over both dorsally and laterally (Carr 1952). Excess salt is excreted via the salt glands located in the orbit of each eye (Schmidt-Nielsen & Fange 1958).

Cheloniids use beaches for egg laying. Hatchlings are widely distributed by ocean currents (e.g. Hughes 1978). As they mature, they establish feeding territories that are often widely dispersed and up to thousands of kilometres from natal beaches. They usually return to natal beaches to nest as adults after periods of up to 50 years (e.g. Limpus 2009). Many species return to nest after absences of up to 16 years and some species have extended reproductive lifespans. The recent recovery of a marked Flatback Turtle in Australia indicated a nesting lifespan of 35 years (C. Limpus pers. comm.). Most turtles have the potential to lay thousands of eggs during their reproductive lifetimes. Females of all species lay large numbers

of fertile eggs from which only a few hatchlings (perhaps one or two) will survive to reproductive adulthood. Of the four species frequenting local waters, only *Caretta caretta* nests regularly on the South African coast, but rare cases of nesting have been recorded for *Lepidochelys olivacea* (e.g. Branch 1998). *Eretmochelys imbricata* and *Chelonia mydas* are common feeding residents in the region's waters (Hughes 1974a,b).

Over the last 500 years there has been widespread exploitation of chelonian populations around the globe, leading to severe declines in, and even extirpation of, some nesting populations. A few determined conservation projects were started in the 1950s and a South African programme was initiated in 1963. During this period there has been dramatic growth in both research and conservation effort and this has greatly improved our understanding of turtle biology and the long-term survival probabilities of all species. During the last 50 years there have been marked recoveries in turtle rookeries that have received formal protection. Outstanding results have been achieved in Réunion, Comores, Seychelles and South Africa. The establishment of the Indian Ocean and South East Asia Memorandum of Understanding (IOSEA MoU) of the Convention on Migratory Species has provided a dynamic vehicle to further improve the survival of the cheloniids of this region (Anonymous 2001).

IUCN Red List status of cheloniids ranges from Critically Endangered to Vulnerable. It has been suggested that the flaw in this system of classification lies in the IUCN mandate to categorise sea turtles on a global scale (Mrosovsky 2003). For example in the southern African region there are six or seven discrete populations of Green Turtles, most of which comprise thousands or even hundreds of thousands of individuals in various stages of development. Despite the threats to the species, it is difficult to categorise such populations as threatened according to IUCN criteria. All four cheloniid species in the Atlas region were assessed on a regional scale and at least three are of conservation concern. Caretta caretta is considered Vulnerable, and Chelonia mydas and Eretmochelys imbricata are Near Threatened. Lepidochelys olivacea is considered Data Deficient.

Genus Caretta Rafinesque, 1814—loggerhead turtles

Caretta apparently originated in the Pliocene and is now restricted to a single species, C. caretta, that occurs in every major ocean basin around the globe. This is the only turtle species that prefers temperate or subtropical mainland areas for nesting and is seldom found in the tropics. Large nesting assemblies occur on the east coast of the United States, Japan, east and west Australia, Oman and South Africa. This is the most common species of sea turtle nesting in South Africa, with extensions of the main nesting area into Mozambique and an outlier nesting population in southern Madagascar. The local metapopulation structure is important because about 1 000 females nest in the Atlas region every season (Nel 2009). Individuals are known to undertake extensive inter-nesting migrations as far afield as Somalia and Seychelles, and are known to enter the Atlantic Ocean (Hughes 2010). The local population has genetic links with populations around Oman and in the Mediterranean Sea (Bowen et al. 1994). Loggerheads nest in summer between October and February, with the densest nesting taking place in Maputaland, South Africa. Hatchlings emerge in late summer and are

Caretta caretta (Linnaeus, 1758) LOGGERHEAD TURTLE

Ronel Nel & George Hughes

Regional: Vulnerable D1

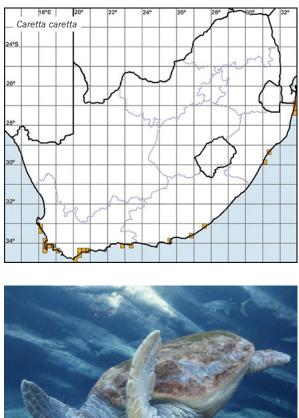
Taxonomy: A poorly defined subspecies, C. caretta gigas (Indo-Pacific), is not generally recognised (Branch 2008).

Distribution: Globally distributed and migratory but with strong nest fidelity (Muller 1997; Dutton et al. 1999; Nordmoe et al. 2004). Nests in subtropical and temperate regions and frequents oceans from the tropics to higher latitudes, including the Mediterranean. Western Indian Ocean (WIO) Loggerhead Turtles nest in the northeastern part of South Africa, southern Mozambique and southern Madagascar (Hughes 1974c). They have been seen off Aldabra, the St Brandon Islands, Réunion Island and southern Madagascar (Hughes 1974c). Loggerhead rookeries have been identified between Richards Bay, South Africa and Bazaruto, Mozambique, along the east African mainland and around southern Madagascar on the beaches of Tulear and Fort Dauphin (Hughes 1974c; Louro et al. 2006). Tag returns indicate that there is probably genetic interchange at feeding grounds between animals from South Africa, Mozambique and southern Madagascar. The species is thus assessed according to this region, which forms a logical management unit. Adult females from the Tongaland rookery (Zululand, South Africa) appear to migrate north, south and east after the nesting season. Generally, large numbers of hatchlings passively follow the Agulhas current southwards and may become stranded along the south coast. Animals from Tongaland have been recorded off Namibia (Petersen 2008) and Madagascar, as far north as southern Somalia and as far east as Sri Lanka (Luschi et al. 2003a), but more typically feed off the east coast of Africa, especially Mozambique and Tanzania.

EOO: Not applicable; AOO: Not applicable.

Habitat: In summer it nests on beaches comprising medium- to coarse-grain intertidal silica sands backed by fine, wind-blown back beaches, forming a combination of stabilised, parabolic or mobile dunes. Preferred coastline

distributed widely by the Agulhas Current. Many enter Indian Ocean surface currents (gyres) and others are carried around the Cape into the Atlantic (Hughes 1974a,b). Subadults return to coastal waters after 5-10 years at sea, during which time they change feeding regimes and search for permanent feeding areas. Hatchlings feed on macroplankton and adults are omnivorous and feed opportunistically on benthic crustaceans and molluscs. On average they are sexually mature at 21–22 years. Females return to natal beaches to lay approximately 400 eggs per season, in batches of about 100 eggs. Intervals between clutches vary from 21 days at the cooler beginning of the season to 13 days during the height of summer. Up to 50% of each nesting cohort returns in subsequent seasons, with widely varying inter-seasonal intervals of 1-16 years (Nel 2009). The most common re-migration intervals are two or three years but many females do not seem to nest more than once. Although there are no widespread or focused exploitation programmes—killing of adults be-ing normally accidental or fortuitous—the Loggerhead Turtle is regarded as Vulnerable in the Atlas region.





Caretta caretta-in captivity: Ushaka Marine World, Durban, KZN J. Marais

is wave-exposed and dynamic, with storm tides exposing rocky sandstone platforms on the low shore or eroding foredunes on the high shore (R. Nel pers. obs.). Such coastline is backed by high (up to 100 m), steep dunes covered in Scaevola (Hughes 1974c; Louro et al. 2006) and Ipomoea, and subtropical lowland forest (McAllister et al. 1965). Females apparently prefer nesting against or in primary dune vegetation (Hughes 1974c). Nesting may be concentrated around lakes, particularly the Kosi Lake system, South Africa, which may provide a seepage point and possibly a strong chemical cue (Hughes 1989). Approximately 8 km of beach on the border between South Africa and Mozambique supports a very concentrated rookery, housing 40-60% of the western Indian Ocean Loggerhead nests. The niche occupied differs at different life history phases (Hughes 1989). Little is known about diet of hatchlings and post-hatchling phases, although these are assumed to be pelagic drifters that feed on gelatinous macroplankton such as ctenophores and cnidarians (Houghton et al. 2006) until they change from their neritic to benthic phase. Stomach content analysis of Loggerhead Turtles caught in shark nets indicate a wide variety of food items including crabs, starfish, and whelks that are associated with reef and sand substrate (R. Nel pers. obs.).

Biome: Marine oceanic—epipelagic (0–200 m); Marine intertidal—sandy shoreline/beaches, sandbars and spits; Marine Coastal/supratidal—coastal sand dunes.

Assessment rationale: The annual number of nesting females in South Africa ranges between 300 and 600 (Baldwin *et al.* 2003; Nel 2008). It is estimated that fewer than 100 individuals nest per annum in Mozambique (Lombard 2006) and an even smaller and declining population exists in Madagascar. The total number of adult females per annum is thus estimated to be less than 1 000 [D1].

Threats: Across the entire management area (i.e. southern Africa and adjacent waters), major threats are the harvesting of eggs (in Mozambique) and incidental capture in artisanal fisheries and longlining (from the South African fleet and from those vessels fishing under bilateral agreements). The three major fisheries in the western Indian Ocean are longlining, gill netting and shallow water shrimp trawling (FAO 2006). Longlining may be the

greatest threat, but little information is available (Petersen 2008). Petersen (2008) estimated that about 100 Loggerhead Turtles are caught per annum in the South African longline industry. This is the turtle species that is most often taken in bather protection nets operated by Natal Sharks Board (NSB unpubl. data). On average, 30 turtles per annum are trapped and only half are released alive (Nel 2008). In South Africa, Loggerhead strandings are dominated by hatchlings that often strand alive and in good health (R. Nel pers. obs.). Intrinsic threats are slow growth and late maturation.

Conservation measures: Sea turtles are listed on the Appendices of CITES (South Africa is a signatory) and the Convention of Migratory Species (CMS). CMS has two additional, independent memoranda of understanding among countries in the Indian Ocean South East Asia region (IOSEA MoU) and the western seaboard of Africa (Atlantic MoU). All the Western Indian Ocean countries are signatories of the IOSEA agreement, with Mozambique being one of the most recent signatories (December 2008). In South Africa, they are also protected under the Marine Living Resources Act (1998). In South Africa, 170 km of nesting beaches and adjacent coastal waters (up to three nautical miles) are Ramsar sites and are in coastal and marine protected areas (Hughes 1996) with World Heritage status. Enforcement in South Africa is good, with beach patrols providing effective protection against nest raiding. In Mozambique, turtles are protected by general wildlife and hunting legislation and decrees relating to harvesting. In 2002, further protective measures were introduced through fisheries legislation (FAO 2006; Fennesy & Isaksen 2007). Protective legislation exists in Madagascar and although turtle meat is still consumed (Kimakwa & Ngusaru 2008), turtle excluder devices have been successfully implemented since 2004 (Kimakwa & Ngusaru 2008). Madagascar has yet to establish longterm monitoring programmes at rookeries, but such monitoring exists in South Africa and Mozambique (Kimakwa & Ngusaru 2008). A Biological Management Plan for Species is required. Taxonomic studies would be useful for investigating the relationships between animals from South Africa, Mozambique and Madagascar, and to determine whether or not there is genetic exchange between this and other subpopulations.

Genus Chelonia Brongniart, 1800-green turtles

This is an ancient genus now restricted to only one species, Chelonia mydas, which has a pantropical distribution (Carr 1952). Large and well-protected populations occur off the coasts of Australia (Limpus 2009), Oman, Yemen, Saudi Arabia, Republic of the Comores (Frazier 1985) Seychelles (Mortimer 1984), British Indian Ocean Territories, Mayotte and the scattered French-controlled islands, and from La Réunion. Costa Rica. Brazil and Surinam to the United States, including the Hawaiian Islands. Extensive but more vulnerable populations occur off the coasts of Mozambique, Turkey, Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand, Sri Lanka, India and Pakistan. The most important local metapopulation is found on Mayotte, Moheli (Comores) (Bruton et al. 1989), Europa (Le Gall 1988), and Tromelin, Les Glorieuses and Aldabra (Mortimer 1984). In this metapopulation approximately 30 000-35 000 females nest per annum and 2 000-5 000 females probably also nest on smaller, infrequently monitored beaches. Green Turtles undertake extensive migrations (Hughes 1974b). There are many examples of feeding grounds shared by metapopulations, especially in western Madagascar where there are extensive seagrass beds. The Europa population

Chelonia mydas (Linnaeus, 1758) GREEN TURTLE

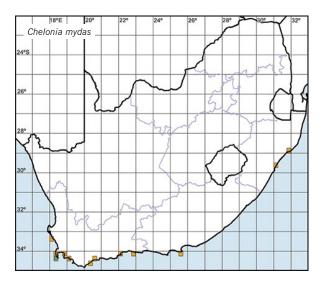
Ronel Nel & George Hughes

Regional: Near Threatened

Taxonomy: Although studies have demonstrated some genetic diversity between and within ocean basins (e.g. Roberts *et al.* 2004; Bourjea *et al.* 2007a), they do not support recognition of any subspecies. Turtles in the Eastern Pacific are sometimes considered a subspecies of *C. mydas*, or even a full species (*C. agassizi*), but these are best treated as a melanistic population (Branch 2008).

Distribution: Globally distributed, occurring in all of the large ocean basins (Seminoff 2004). In the Indian Ocean it is the most widely distributed of all the sea turtles, with nesting taking place outside of South Africa. Nesting has been reported at 64 localities, 25 of which are rated as important (www.IOSEATURTLES.org). Records of nesting in Mozambique are under-represented because no national report is submitted by this country. There are index beaches with long-term monitoring at only four localities: Europa Island, Juan du Nova, Tromelin and the Seychelles Islands of Aldabra and Assumption (Seminoff 2004; Lauret-Stepler et al. 2007). In-water distribution is throughout the Western Indian Ocean and Green Turtles are frequently observed by divers (pers. obs.) or encountered in artisanal or industrial fisheries (Hirth 1969; Hirth & Carr 1970; Frazier 1975; Hughes 1976; Frazier 1980; Hughes 1989; FAO 2006; Petersen 2008). This species is mainly restricted to eastern coastal waters of the Atlas region, but with records from along much of the Namibian coast. A large population (200+ individuals) feeds in the Cunene River estuary. There is one transoceanic basin record of a female tagged on Europa Island found at Wlotzkas Baken, Namibia (Griffin 2003). No breeding colonies occur in the Atlas region.

has genetic links with populations in the Atlantic Ocean (Broderick 2001; Bourjea et al. 2007a). Some nesting occurs throughout the year on islands off the coast of Mozambique and peaks in summer. Hatchlings lead a pelagic life for a year and then return to coastal estuaries and lagoons where they take shelter and change their diet from macroplankton to marine algae and sea grasses. Green Turtles do not nest in South Africa, but thousands feed along the coast on algae and Cymodocea where available. Turtles return to natal beaches to lay 400-800 eggs per season, with an average of just over 100 eggs per clutch. Some females return to nest in subsequent seasons after intervals of 3-4 years. Although categorised as Endangered by IUCN, this does not apply to the Atlas region as there are 10 fully-protected nesting areas off the coast of Mozambique, many of which receive increasing numbers of nesting females every year. The total number of Green Turtles of all sizes in the southwest Indian Ocean is estimated to be in the millions (G. Hughes, unpubl. data). However, Green Turtles are still hunted extensively in Madagascar and the recommended category for the Atlas region is therefore Near Threatened.





Chelonia mydas-in captivity: Ushaka Marine World, Durban, KZN J. Marais

EOO: Not applicable; AOO: Not applicable

Habitat: Adult females nest on sandy beaches on clear sand or in vegetation (R. Nel pers. obs.), while hatchlings and post-hatchlings are oceanic pelagic drifters (Seminoff 2004). Subadults and adults feed in neritic waters (Lutz & Musick 1996). Few reports are available on the diets of *C. mydas* in the western Indian Ocean (Björndal 1996), but elsewhere, during the post-hatchling phase when animals have depleted yolk, they have a pelagic drifting life (Seminoff 2004) that lasts until they reach a length of about 300 mm (Björndal 1996; Musick & Limpus 1996). They are fairly opportunistic and will feed on whatever is available, most often ctenophores and pelagic snails (*Janthina*). When they settle into this lifestyle they adopt a more herbivorous diet, feeding predominantly on seagrass and algae. This is unique among sea turtles (Björndal 1996).

Biome: Marine oceanic—epipelagic (0–200 m); Marine intertidal—sandy shoreline/beaches, sandbars and spits; Marine Coastal/supratidal—coastal sand dunes.

Assessment rationale: Data from French islands in the western Indian Ocean suggest that *C. mydas* is doing extremely well where it is protected adequately in the subregion and that it cannot be regarded as threatened (Bourjea *et al.* 2007b). However, since the species is not receiving equal protection everywhere, nor are population numbers likely to be as high as they were three generations ago, a

Near Threatened categorisation is suggested. The number of nesting females is estimated to be >1000 per annum, and growing at most of the monitored rookeries (Lauret-Stepler *et al.* 2007).

Threats: Threats include harvesting of eggs/animals, incidental capture through fisheries, and habitat destruction (Troëng & Drews 2004).

Conservation measures: In South Africa, this species is protected under the Marine Living Resources Act (1998), CITES and the Convention for Migratory Species (CMS). South Africa is also a signatory to two CMS memoranda of understanding among countries in the Indian Ocean South East Asia region (IOSEA MoU) and the western seaboard of Africa (Atlantic MoU). Nesting beaches and adjacent coastal waters (up to three nautical miles) are Ramsar sites, and are in coastal and marine protected areas (Hughes 1996) with World Heritage status (Baldwin et al. 2003). A BMP-S is needed. Sea turtles are also legally protected in the 10 other countries of the western Indian Ocean. Protection ranges from turtle-specific legislations to decrees protecting turtles in fisheries activities or development practices (Hamann et al. 2006). Enforcement varies from country to country. All these countries are also signatories to CITES. Where this species is protected, e.g. on index beaches, its numbers are increasing (Lauret-Stepler et al. 2007).

Genus Eretmochelys Fitzinger, 1843—hawksbill turtles

Eretmochelys imbricata is the sole member of the genus and has a pantropical distribution. It is the source of 'tortoiseshell' in many cultures and has been heavily exploited throughout its range for centuries. Although numbers have declined dramatically, the species' range has not contracted. Important populations still exist off the coasts of Yemen, Oman, Australia, Malaysia, Cuba and the Seychelles, with some populations showing signs of recovery (Witzell 1983; Hitchins *et al.* 2004). This turtle is most common around Madagascar where it is still exploited for its shell (Rakotonirina & Cooke 1994). No nests have been recorded in South Africa, but *E. imbricata* is a frequent visitor to the region's coastal and offshore reefs (Hughes 1974a), where it feeds primarily on sponges (Meylan 1988). The key to the survival of Hawksbill Turtles is that they seldom breed in dense aggregations, preferring to nest singly or in very small groups on sheltered and isolated beaches. In many areas they nest throughout the year, with some increase in frequency during summer. Females lay 100-180or more eggs per clutch. Some females make multiple visits to nesting beaches at varying intervals. These turtles are still hunted extensively throughout much of their range and are generally regarded as Critically Endangered. In the *Atlas* region, however, they are classified as Near Threatened as a number of monitored beaches in the Seychelles are showing an encouraging increase in nesting numbers following the excellent controls imposed by the Seychelles government.

Eretmochelys imbricata (Linnaeus, 1766) HAWKSBILL TURTLE

Ronel Nel & George Hughes

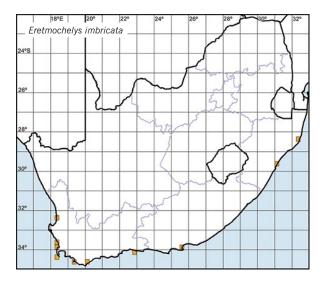
Regional: Near Threatened

Taxonomy: No information is available on the genetics of the population structure of Hawksbill Turtles in the western Indian Ocean. There are, however, no taxonomic disputes regarding the species (Bowen *et al.* 1993).

Distribution: Nest on beaches around the tropics in all major ocean basins across 70 countries (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008). Feeding grounds have been identified at 108 countries across the tropics of the globe (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008). Genetic studies indicate that there are mixed stocks on feeding grounds but separate, identifiable stocks on nesting grounds (Bowen et al. 2007). These nesting/ feeding populations therefore form separate management units. The western Indian Ocean population has a relatively restricted distribution (based on nesting) and is thus expected to comprise a single stock. Nesting has been reported at a minimum of 47 sites throughout the southwestern Indian Ocean (IOSEA 2009), including Comoros, the French-ruled islands of Mayotte, Glorious Islands and Juan de Nova, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Seychelles, British Indian Ocean Territories (Chagos Archipelago) and Tanzania. Louro et al. (2006) also reported nesting in the extreme north of Mozambigue. There is no information available for Somalia, and no nesting of Hawksbills in South Africa has been recorded. However, strandings are reported annually and include turtles caught in bather protection nets in KwaZulu-Natal (Nel 2008).

EOO: Not applicable; AOO: Not applicable

Habitat: This species does not nest in South Africa. Elsewhere adult females use sandy beaches that are often associated with vegetation during the breeding season (Diamond 1976). Hatchlings and post-hatchlings are oceanic pelagic drifters. Subadults and adults are bottom feeders in neritic waters (Lutz & Musick 1996) associated with coral reefs, sea grass, algal beds or intertidal mangroves (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008). They are predominantly sponge feeders but eat a variety of food items depending on the habitat and the availability of prey. Thus, they range from being strictly spongivores to soft coral feeders to omnivores (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008). They may act





Eretmochelys imbricata—Angoche, Mozambique

G.R. Hughes

as ecosystem agents by enhancing coral growth through reducing competitors of corals for space.

Biome: Marine oceanic—epipelagic (0–200 m); Marine intertidal—sandy shoreline/beaches, sandbars and spits; Marine Coastal/supratidal—coastal sand dunes.

Assessment rationale: The global population is listed as Critically Endangered on the basis of an observed population reduction and threats due to levels of exploitation [A2b,d] (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008). Mortimer & Donnelly (2008) reported a >90% decline in the number of Hawksbills in the region. However, using the same approach employed for the other sea turtles, *E. imbricata* is here regarded as Near Threatened on the basis of >2 000 nesting females per annum (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008).

Threats: There are three main threats to sea turtles: direct harvesting of eggs/animals, incidental capture through fisheries, and habitat destruction (Troëng & Drews 2004). These all apply to Hawksbill Turtles, although for this species there are some special considerations. The meat of Hawksbills is not popular because it is known to accumulate toxins that can be lethal when ingested. However, when the species is caught in coastal fisheries the meat is kept, tested for edibility and then consumed. The shell is extremely valuable and has been globally traded, especially on the Asian markets (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008). CITES legislation seems to be effective in protecting this

species and conservation programmes work well in places where the habitat is well-protected.

Conservation measures: Develop a BMP-S and conduct a Population and Habitat Viability Assessment (PHVA). In South Africa, this species is protected under the Marine Living Resources Act (1998), CITES and the Convention for Migratory Species (CMS). South Africa is also a signatory to two CMS memoranda of understanding among counties in the Indian Ocean South East Asia region (IOSEA MoU) and the western seaboard of Africa (Atlantic MoU). Nesting beaches and adjacent coastal waters (up to three nautical miles) are Ramsar sites and are in coastal and marine protected areas (Hughes 1996) with World Heritage status. Sea turtles off the coast of Mozambique are theoretically fully protected. Mozambican national legislation protecting turtles includes Forestry and Wildlife Regulation Decree No. 12/2002 Article 43, Sport and Recreational Fishing Decree No. 51/99 Article 14, and Maritime Fishery General Regulation Decree No. 43/2003 Article 110. The latter insists on the obligatory use of Turtle Excluder Devices (TEDs) in the trawling and motor fisheries (Louro et al. 2006). Mozambique is also a signatory to CITES, CMS and now the IOSEA MoU. This is one of the smallest sea turtle species and has suffered greatly under the shell trade. Two decades ago, the industry was responsible for large mortalities. Although it no longer seems to be as much of a threat, the shell trade should be strictly monitored.

Genus Lepidochelys Fitzinger, 1843—ridley turtles

The genus *Lepidochelys* is closely related to *Caretta*. There are two species of *Lepidochelys*: the Olive Ridley (*L. olivacea*), which is circumglobal in distribution, and Kemp's Ridley (*L. kempi*), which has a nesting distribution restricted to shores of the Gulf of Mexico, but an overall distribution throughout the North Atlantic (Marquez-M 1994). Major nesting concentrations of Olive Ridley Turtles occur in Orissa, India, the Pacific Coast of Central America (Costa Rica and Mexico) and French Guiana. Nesting has also been recorded in central and west Africa from Angola northwards. Scattered nesting occurs in East Africa, Australia, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Indonesia (Limpus 2009). Occasional massive coordinated nesting emergences (*arribada*) occur, when hundreds of thousands of females emerge in synchrony

Lepidochelys olivacea (Eschscholtz, 1829) OLIVE RIDLEY TURTLE

Ronel Nel & George Hughes

Regional: Data Deficient

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: No information is available for the southeastern Atlantic (Abreu-Grobois & Plotkin 2008), except for a small number of nesting events in Angola. The number of individuals recorded in the southwestern Indian Ocean is negligible relative to elsewhere (Hughes 1974c; Hughes 1980). Sightings at islands in this area were first reported in 2007 (Hughes 1974c; Remie & Mortimer 2007). Small rookeries in Kenya (Zanre 2005) and incidental nesting in Tanzania (Pharaoh et al. 2003) have been recorded. There are historic (Hughes 1972) but not recent (Louro et al. 2006) records of nesting in Mozambique and Madagascar. Feeding takes place throughout the tropics and the species rarely migrates into the subtropical/ temperate regions. It is therefore considered a vagrant in South African waters, where the average number of sightings per annum is <1 (Natal Sharks Board unpubl. data). A single vagrant nesting event has been reported for South Africa, at Warner Beach (Hughes 1971).

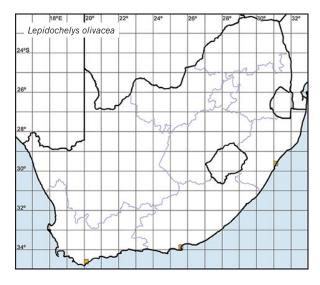
EOO: Not applicable; AOO: Not applicable

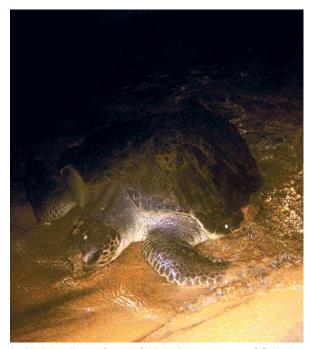


Lepidochelys olivacea—Port Elizabeth, EC

W.R. Branch

(Carr 1952). Lepidochelys olivacea is a very rare visitor to South Africa with only one nesting record (Warner Beach) (Hughes 1974a). Nesting takes place during the summer months. In the *Atlas* region these turtles grow to a carapace length of 730 mm. They feed primarily on crustaceans and are often encountered in prawn fisheries. Because the main population of *L. olivacea* in the Indian Ocean experiences mortalities due to accidental drowning in trawl nets, and because the main nesting beaches are not well-protected, the population in the *Atlas* region may be of conservation concern. However, because no quantitative information is available on population nesting trends or catch rates, and as it is uncertain whether all rookeries have been identified, *L. olivacea* is considered Data Deficient.





Lepidochelys olivacea, female-Cabinda, Angola

G.R. Hughes

Habitat: Little is known about its diet but, on the basis of its close relationship with *Caretta caretta*, it is expected to be carnivorous (but with weaker jaws than the latter), feeding predominantly on shrimps, crabs, pelagic tunicates and jellyfish (Hughes 1974c; Mortimer 1995). Two reproductive strategies exist, i.e. unsynchronised nesting and synchronised mass nesting (Jensen *et al.* 2006). The latter strategy may flood natural predators with eggs/ hatchlings, resulting in an improved overall reproductive output for a rookery.

Biome: Marine oceanic—epipelagic (0–200 m); Marine intertidal—sandy shoreline/beaches, sandbars and spits; Marine Coastal/supratidal—coastal sand dunes.

Assessment rationale: No quantitative information is available on population nesting trends or catch rates. It is uncertain whether all rookeries have been identified.

Threats: Expected to experience the same threats as other species of turtles in the Western Indian Ocean, i.e. direct

harvesting of eggs and animals, incidental capture through fisheries, and habitat destruction (Troëng & Drews 2004). The best quantitative data for South Africa is from entanglements in bather protection nets (Natal Sharks Board unpubl. data) and longline catch estimates (Petersen 2008), but these are minor threats that do not result in more than one or two fatalities per year. The number of strandings per decade in South Africa is likely to be less than one. Walker *et al.* (2004) reported a single Olive Ridley Turtle traded in Madagascar. The lack of trade probably reflects low availability, since prohibitions on harvesting and trade are generally ignored (Walker *et al.* 2004).

Conservation measures: Carry out a PHVA and develop a BMP-S. Improve protective legislation. Focus on education and public awareness. Monitor population numbers and habitat, and investigate the biology and ecology of the species. Proclaim protected areas that encompass beaches used for nesting.

CHAPTER 6

Family Dermochelyidae

George Hughes & Ronel Nel

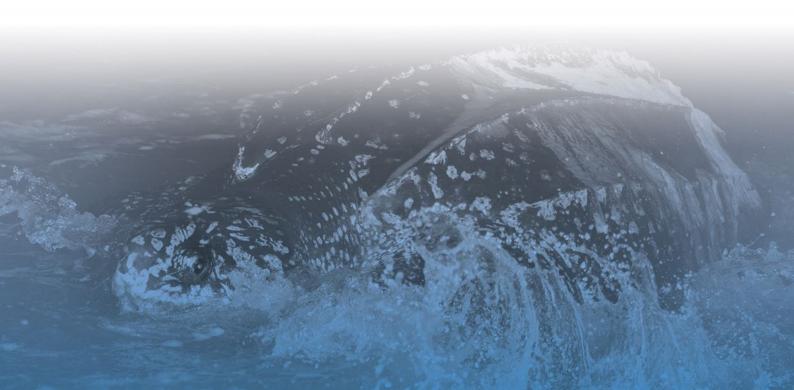
This family is represented by a single, mainly pantropical genus, *Dermochelys*, comprising one species, *D. coriacea*. Leatherback Turtles represent a distinct lineage that probably diverged from the main chelonian stem in the early Cretaceous (Gaffney 1991). Recent genetic studies have demonstrated that there are discrete differences between the South African population and those in other ocean basins, peninsular Malaysia and northern New Guinea (Dutton *et al.* 1999).

Dermochelys coriacea is the largest of all sea turtles. Adults average 1.5 to 2 m in carapace length, with the largest recorded size 2.91 m (916 kg) for a stranded specimen found in northern Wales (Branch 2008). The Leatherback Turtle has an elongated, streamlined carapace with seven prominent longitudinal ridges covered by a thin layer of skin. Occasionally totally black, Leatherbacks are normally heavily spotted and streaked with pale blue on the upper surface with pink and white mottling on the underside. They are characterised by having a large pink pineal blotch on top of the head. The skin is soft to the touch. This is a pelagic, far-ranging animal capable of travelling long distances, even penetrating into Arctic and sub-Antarctic waters, and diving to depths of a kilometre or more to feed (Sale et al. 2006). The diet consists mostly of jellyfish. Satellite-tagged animals in the South African region are known to have travelled 20 000 km in 10 months. After nesting, they move far to the north, south and east, and commonly swim round the Cape and into the Atlantic Ocean, reaching as far north as the waters off Angola (Hughes et al. 1998; Luschi et al. 2003b; Lambardi et al. 2006).

Major nesting grounds are the northern coasts of New Guinea, the Pacific coast of Mexico, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands (India), South Africa, Trinidad, Virgin Islands, Surinam, French Guiana and Gabon. Several nesting areas (e.g. Sri Lanka, and Terengganu in Malaysia) have been nearly or completely eradicated; some show catastrophic declines (e.g. east and west Pacific rookeries), while others, such as sites in Florida and the Atlantic coast of Costa Rica, are recovering well (Hamann *et al.* 2006). The South African population is the largest in the southern Indian Ocean and the most southerly rookery in the world. It averages 80–90 females per year and appears to be stable after rapid population size increases in the 1970s (R. Nel unpubl. data).

Leatherbacks nest in summer from October to March, with hatchlings entering the sea from January. Hatchlings are distributed by the Agulhas Current with some entering the Indian Ocean gyres and others reaching the Atlantic around the Cape. Leatherbacks lay about 100 eggs per clutch and up to ten clutches per season. Hatching success is variable as nests are frequently situated low down on the beach and are prone to being washed over by tides. Females have been shown to return at intervals of 2–7 years (Hughes 1974b).

The small South African population represents the most southerly extent of the species' breeding range. It is threatened by various fishing activities and is thus classified as Endangered.



Genus Dermochelys Blainville, 1816—leatherback turtles

Dermochelys is a monotypic genus with a pantropical distribution. *Dermochelys coriacea* is the largest living species of sea turtle, reaching a carapace length of over 2 m and a mass of nearly a ton (Carr 1952). This pelagic, farranging species feeds mainly on jellyfish (Hamann *et al.* 2006). The South African population is the largest in the southern Indian Ocean and the most southerly rookery in the world (80–90 females per year) (Nel 2009). Leath-

Dermochelys coriacea (Vandelli, 1761) LEATHERBACK TURTLE

Ronel Nel & George Hughes

Regional: Endangered D

Taxonomy: It is unknown whether individuals from the southwestern Indian Ocean and southeastern Atlantic Ocean are genetically distinct from those in other regions. Tagging of nesting females in the region has not revealed emigration or immigration from/to rookeries outside the region (Hughes 1996). However, satellite-tagged females undergo extensive migrations off the east and west coasts of southern Africa, and flipper-tagged females have been recovered as far as the Seychelles (Luschi *et al.* 2006). The only published genetic study addressing the distinctness of individuals from the region assessed here is inconclusive (Dutton *et al.* 1999). More recent evidence in the grey literature suggests that this is indeed a discrete population (Dutton 2006), but further research is required to confirm this.

Distribution: Globally distributed, occurring in all of the large ocean basins. Although nesting takes place in many tropical rookeries (biggest is on beaches of southern Gabon), Leatherbacks can venture into temperate regions and very low latitudes (Southwood et al. 1999; Branch 2008) and migrate long distances at sea. Climate change may lead to further range expansions (McMahon & Hays 2006), with only the extreme polar waters remaining uninhabitable. Dutton et al. (1999) indicated that, despite the migratory lifestyle of this species, there is significant subdivision of populations due to high nest site fidelity and consequent reproductive isolation. Nevertheless, proximal/adjacent rookeries are genetically indistinguishable (Dutton et al. 1999). This assessment thus considers the southwestern Indian Ocean and southeastern Atlantic Ocean as a unified region and within this region, focuses on the South African/Mozambican rookery. This rookery, at 28°23'S, 32°26'E, is one of the most southerly for the species, and its occupation is facilitated by the warm Agulhas Current flowing southwards along the southeastern seaboard (Hughes 1974a,b; Lambardi et al. 2008). At the end of the breeding season, hatchlings and adults leave the natal beach and drift, usually southwards, with the Agulhas Current. Near Cape Agulhas the current turns eastward, with small circulation cells migrating up the west coast. This relatively warm water (especially up the west coast) presumably contains high concentrations of food. Individuals from northern KwaZulu-Natal have been recorded off the coasts of Mozambique and Namibia (Sale et al. 2006) and below 40°S in the southern oceans (Hughes et al. 1998; Lambardi et al. 2008).

EOO: Not applicable; AOO: Not applicable

 Iter
 20°
 22°
 24°
 26°
 28°

 24°S
 0
 0
 0
 0
 0

 28°
 0
 0
 0
 0
 0

 30°
 0
 0
 0
 0
 0

 32°
 0
 0
 0
 0
 0

 34°
 0
 0
 0
 0
 0

erbacks nest in summer (October–March) with females laying an average of 104 eggs per clutch and up to ten

clutches per season; hatchlings enter the sea from Janu-

ary (Hughes 1974a). Many hatchlings are swept south-

wards by the Agulhas Current with strandings recorded

from Cape Agulhas (Hughes 1978). The South African

population is small and threatened by various fishing ac-

tivities, and therefore regarded as Endangered.



Dermochelys coriacea—Sodwana Bay, KZN

W.R. Schmidt

Habitat: Nesting and hatching take place from October to March. Beaches in South Africa and southern Mozambique where nesting takes place comprise medium- to coarse-grain intertidal sands backed by fine, wind-blown back beaches forming a combination of stabilised or mobile dunes. The coastline is wave-exposed and extremely dynamic, with storm tides exposing rocky sandstone platforms on the low shore or eroding foredunes on the high shore (R. Nel pers. obs.). The entire coastline is backed by high (up to 100 m), steep dunes covered in Scaevola (Hughes 1996) and Ipomoea as primary colonisers to coastal dune forest, and subtropical lowland forest (McAllister et al. 1965). It tends to nest where it can approach the beach unobstructed, i.e. in deep water without coral reefs or jagged rocks (Hughes & Mentis 1967), and nests are located in clear bare sand rather than in vegetation, as is the case for other turtle species. These turtles are permanent pelagic drifters, feeding on gelatinous macroplankton such as ctenophores and cnidarians (Leslie *et al.* 1996). Movements are largely influenced by currents, either through the physical force these exert or through their dissipation or concentration of food (Lambardi *et al.* 2008). Diving depth is generally <200 m, but changes with temperature and food availability (Sale *et al.* 2006). Leatherbacks generally occur in coastal waters above the continental shelf when near nesting areas, but disperse off the shelf away from nesting beaches (Lambardi *et al.* 2008). While feeding, they tend to spend most time between oceanographic eddies or areas of convergence or upwelling (including seamounts), where food is concentrated (Lambardi *et al.* 2008).

Biome: Marine Oceanic—Epipelagic (0–200 m); Marine Intertidal—Sandy Shoreline and/or Beaches, Sand Bars, Spits etc.; Marine Coastal/Supratidal—Coastal Sand Dunes.

Assessment rationale: The appropriate index used to measure turtle population trends is the number of nesting females per annum. Combining the data for all the rookeries clearly indicates that the number of Leatherback females nesting per annum in the western Indian Ocean is much fewer than 250 individuals but more than 50, and on this basis the species qualifies as Endangered [D].

Threats: The major threat in Mozambique is probably the stealing of eggs from nests. Longlining, from the South African fleet and vessels of other nations fishing under bilateral agreements (or no agreements at all), is a major threat throughout the region (Petersen 2008), although data on fisheries-related impacts are limited. The estimated annual unnatural mortality is approximately 60 individuals of all sizes for South Africa, and 6-10 for Mozambique (based on the estimate that the Mozambican population is 15% of the South African one). There is also a suspected threat off Namibia, the centre of the Benguela fishery operations. Stranding is a relatively minor threat, with less than three strandings per year in South Africa and approximately 10 strandings per year along the west coast of Africa, particularly the Namibian Skeleton Coast. Some strandings may be related to injuries caused by ship or ski-boat propellers (R. Nel unpubl. data). The mortality rates described above are high relative to the number of nesting females (on average, fewer than 100 per season in the region). Human modification of the coastal habitats upon which these animals depend is intense. However, most of the rookery occurs within a World Heritage Site and coastal protection is very good. The impact of tourists in South Africa is limited through restrictions placed on tour operators. The feeding ground is assumed to be modified because it overlaps with major pelagic fisheries. Potential effect of climate change on turtles is speculative but they have survived previous climatic perturbations. The effect of climate change on sea turtles in the southwestern Indian Ocean is expected to be minor because it should favour the production of females. Nesting beaches (in KwaZulu-Natal) are currently pristine enough to respond to moderate changes in sea level rise. The Leatherback, like other turtles, is also intrinsically vulnerable because it takes about a decade to mature (e.g. Zug & Parham 1996). However, it is the fastest growing of all turtle species (Jones *et al.* 2011).

Conservation measures: Develop a BMP-S. In South Africa, this species is protected under the Marine Living Resources Act (1998), CITES and the Convention for Migratory Species (CMS). South Africa is also a signatory to two CMS memoranda of understanding among countries in the Indian Ocean South East Asia region (IOSEA MoU) and the western seaboard of Africa (Atlantic MoU). Nesting beaches and adjacent coastal waters (up to three nautical miles) are Ramsar sites, and are in coastal and marine protected areas (Hughes 1996) with World Heritage status. In Mozambique the Leatherback is theoretically fully protected. Mozambican national legislation protecting turtles includes Forestry and Wildlife Regulation Decree No. 12/2002 Article 43, Sport and Recreational Fishing Decree No. 51/99 Article 14, and Maritime Fishery General Regulation Decree No. 43/2003 Article 110. The latter insists on the obligatory use of Turtle Excluder Devices (TEDs) in the trawling and motor fisheries (Louro et al. 2006). Mozambique is also a signatory to CITES, CMS and now the IOSEA MoU. In South Africa beach patrols have been established where nesting occurs (since 1963), to physically protect, tag and monitor nesting females (McAlister et al. 1965; Hughes 1996; Baldwin et al. 2003). A similar programme has been ongoing in southern Mozambique since 1994 (Lombard 2006). Turtles are still periodically slaughtered (including harvesting for consumption) in Mozambique despite growing conservation awareness. Conservation efforts, including monitoring programmes and education and awareness in Mozambique, should be expanded. Research in South Africa is currently geared to answer population-related questions such as age at maturity, genetics (including paternity/maturity testing), sex ratios and hatching success. These studies should be expanded to Mozambique. Little is known about fisheries impacts on any sea turtle species throughout the western Indian Ocean and southeastern Atlantic. South Africa has an onboard observer programme on longline vessels (Petersen 2008), which has identified longlining as the single biggest offshore threat. Fisheries impacts have not been quantified for the rest of the region (except for Réunion Island). Anecdotal evidence suggests that fisheries-related mortality is high on both the eastern and western seaboard and should be managed actively. This will require active intervention and participation from the regional fisheries management bodies such as the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC), as Leatherback Turtles are not restricted to exclusive economic zones and are caught on the high seas.

CHAPTER 7

Family Testudinidae

Margaretha D. Hofmeyr, Richard C. Boycott & Ernst H.W. Baard

Tortoises occur worldwide in many temperate and tropical regions, but excluding Australia (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). The CITES Nomenclature Committee recognises 15 extant tortoise genera and 42 extant tortoise species (Fritz & Havaš 2007), but the number of known species increased to 43 after Branch (2007) described Homopus solus from Namibia. The Atlas region supports five genera (33% of world total) and 13 species (30% of world total) of tortoises. Eleven species are endemic to southern Africa and five species (Homopus areolatus, H. femoralis, H. signatus, H. boulengeri and Psammobates geometricus) are endemic to the Atlas region. Preliminary results of genetic studies indicate that the tortoise fauna of southern Africa may be more diverse than is reflected by the current taxonomy (Daniels et al. 2007; M.D. Hofmeyr & S.R. Daniels unpubl. data).

Linnaeus (1758) assigned all chelonian species (tortoises, terrapins and turtles) known at that time to the genus Testudo, but this genus was later limited to a single family of land-living chelonians. In subsequent years, several new genera were named for species groups in different zoogeographic regions, and only Palaearctic tortoises are still assigned to Testudo (Fritz & Bininda-Emonds 2007). In their revision of African cryptodires, Loveridge & Williams (1957) recognised Chersina and the strictly southern African genera Homopus, Kinixys and Psammobates, but placed Leopard Tortoises with other large-bodied tortoises in the genus Geochelone. The latter species was subsequently transferred to the monotypic genus Stigmochelys (see genus account and taxonomic notes under S. pardalis).

Tortoises have a bony shell (dorsal carapace and ventral plastron, joined by lateral bridges) consisting of dermal bony plates covered by horny scutes. Taxonomists use the arrangement of scutes and bony elements to distinguish different taxa. For example, Kinixys (hinged tortoises) is the only genus with submarginal scutes and a carapacial hinge that allows closure of the posterior shell opening (Loveridge & Williams 1957). Most tortoises have a domed carapace and the dorsal scutes of Psammobates species are often pyramidal in shape. The dwarf tortoises (Homopus) have a flat shell which facilitates access to narrow crevices in rock-dwelling taxa. Tortoises have stout limbs to support their heavy bodies, and each foot has four or five claws. The enlarged scales of the front limbs provide protection when tortoises withdraw into their shells. The pattern of front limb scales and head shields, as well as the presence or absence of buttock tubercles, have been used in tortoise taxonomy.

The endemic tortoise genera of southern Africa inhabit nearly all terrestrial biomes in the Atlas region. Diversity is particularly high in fynbos (four genera), where several species may be sympatric or even syntopic. Within the Savanna Biome, in the north and east of the Atlas region, four species of hinged tortoises occur. Tortoises are ectothermic herbivores and food specialisations and physiological tolerances are major determinants of their distribution. Many species live in regions of low rainfall, and recent research has highlighted the adverse effects of protracted drought on the body condition, growth and reproduction of the small endemic tortoise Homopus signatus (Loehr et al. 2007a,b; Loehr 2008). Most southern African tortoises have low fecundity and females of several species lay only one egg per clutch (Hofmeyr 2004; Loehr et al. 2004; Hofmeyr et al. 2005; Leuteritz & Hofmeyr 2007). Egg production often coincides with the rainy season, so that species in winter rainfall regions nest from winter to spring (e.g. Homopus signatus [Loehr et al. 2004; Loehr 2008], P. geometricus [Hofmeyr et al. 2006]) and species in summer rainfall regions nest in summer (e.g. Psammobates oculifer [M.D. Hofmeyr & T. Keswick, unpublished data]). However, some species produce eggs over many months (e.g. Psammobates tentorius tentorius [Leuteritz & Hofmeyr 2007]) or throughout most of the year (e.g. Chersina angulata [Hofmeyr 2004]).

Southern African tortoises appear to favour herbaceous plants with low fibre content when these are available (S. pardalis [Milton 1992], P. oculifer [Rall & Fairall 1993], P. geometricus [Balsamo et al. 2004; Henen et al. 2005], H. signatus [Loehr 2006]), but become less selective in the dry season (e.g. Leopard Tortoises switch from herbs and grasses to succulents). Although predominantly herbivorous, an important part of the natural diet of Kinixys consists of invertebrates such as millipedes, beetles, alate termites and snails (Boycott & Bourguin 2000). The diet of C. angulata includes flowering plants, mosses, mushrooms and animal products (Hofmeyr 2009; Joshua et al. 2010), similar to the diet of K. spekii (Hailey et al. 1998). On Dassen Island off the coast of the southwestern Cape, rabbit faeces comprised more than 27% of Angulate Tortoises' dry season diet (Joshua et al. 2010).

This assessment classifies *Psammobates* geometricus as Critically Endangered, Homopus signatus as Vulnerable and *H. boulengeri* as Near Threatened, with habitat degradation being the major threat. Indications are that H. boulengeri may become Vulnerable in the near future, and that deterioration in habitats of Kinixys lobatsiana, K. natalensis and Psammobates tentorius trimeni may require that these taxa be considered threatened. Most southern African tortoises are small, and their concomitant low dispersal potential may affect their ability to survive in the future, particularly in fragmented habitats.

Genus Chersina Gray, 1831-angulate tortoises

This monotypic genus is restricted to South Africa and southwestern Namibia. *Chersina angulata* is medium-sized (maximum carapace length 300 mm) and distinguishable by its large, undivided gular scute. Its carapace is domed and the

Chersina angulata (Schweigger, 1812) ANGULATE TORTOISE

Margaretha D. Hofmeyr & Ernst H.W. Baard

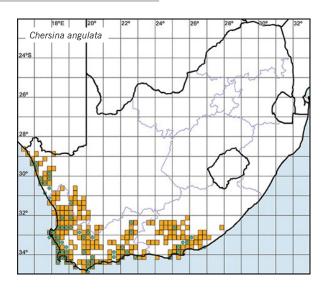
Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Although this tortoise's scientific name has been used in error (Bour 2008), Bour & Ohler (2008) argued for the retention of *Chersina*, distinct from *Chersine*, to maintain nomenclatural stability. *Chersina angulata* has no subspecies, but mitochondrial DNA markers indicate the presence of two genetically distinct clades associated with the western and southern regions of South Africa (Daniels *et al.* 2007). The taxonomic status of these clades has not been determined. In the past, fossil material from the Miocene (Arrisdrift) and early Pliocene (Langebaanweg) was assigned to *Chersina* (Meylan & Auffenberg 1986), but Lapparent de Broin (2003) showed that the Miocene material is referable to *Mesochersus*.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found mainly within South Africa (about 90% of the range) but distribution extends marginally into southwestern Namibia. In South Africa it occurs from Komga in the Eastern Cape, westwards through most of the Western Cape, into the western region of the Northern Cape. Its range extends across the Orange River into Namibia, where the species is found in the Sperrgebiet and surroundings, as far north as Lüderitz and Aus; introduced populations have become established further north at Swakopmund and Walvis Bay (Griffin 2003). Also occurs on several offshore islands, reaching high densities on Dassen Island off the southwestern coast of South Africa.

Habitat: Occurs from the coastal plains all along the escarpment to altitudes of 1 200 m on the plateau. Habitat in fynbos consists of open to dense fire-prone shrubland covered with ericoid and asteraceous shrubs, restios and grasses. In the east, the range extends into Albany Thicket, which comprises dense semi-succulent and thorny vegetation, including large and small shrubs, geophytes, annuals and grasses (Hoare et al. 2006). Excluded from dense thicket, but high population densities can occur in partially cleared areas (Branch 1989). A large portion of the habitat falls in the Succulent Karoo which is dominated by dwarf succulent shrubs, with annuals, grasses and geophytes. Also found in the dwarf, open shrubland of the Nama-Karoo. These tortoises prefer a sandy substratum in which they partially bury themselves when taking refuge under vegetation. Nevertheless, they also occur in dorsal scutes are straw-coloured with dark centres and edges. Adult males are larger than adult females, which produce one egg at a time throughout most of the year (Hofmeyr 2004). This genus is not presently of conservation concern.





Chersina angulata—Koingnaas, Namaqualand, NC

J. Marais

rocky areas where they take refuge under large boulders or among rocks.

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Albany Thicket; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: Strongly discourage translocations between genetically distinct populations in the western and southern parts of the range.

Genus *Homopus* Duméril & Bibron, 1835–dwarf tortoises (padlopers)

Homopus areolatus shares with *H. femoralis* the unusual feature of four claws on the front feet. The other three species, *H. signatus*, *H. boulengeri* and *H. solus*, have five claws on their front feet. Hewitt (1931) created a new genus, *Pseudomopus*, for the latter group but later realised that the name *Chersobius* Fitzinger, 1835 was available (Hewitt 1937b). Although Loveridge & Williams (1957) acknowledged the differences between the two groups, they retained all species within *Homopus*. Mitochondrial DNA markers indicate substantial differences among the species, and the genus *Chersobius* might be re-instated (M.D.

Hofmeyr & S.R. Daniels, unpubl. data). *Homopus solus* is endemic to a small area in southwestern Namibia, whereas the other four species are restricted to the *Atlas* region. *Homopus* are small, dorso-ventrally flattened tortoises, and all but *H. areolatus* live among rocks. Females of the 'Chersobius' group produce single egg clutches whereas the others lay 1–3 eggs at a time (Hofmeyr *et al.* 2005). *Homopus signatus* (Vulnerable) and *H. boulengeri* (Near Threatened) are of conservation concern. The main threats to these two species are habitat destruction (e.g. cultivated fields, overgrazing by livestock) and the pet trade.

Homopus areolatus (Thunberg, 1787) PARROT-BEAKED DWARF TORTOISE; COMMON PADLOPER

Margaretha D. Hofmeyr & Ernst H.W. Baard

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Preliminary results of a molecular study indicate significant genetic differentiation within the species (M.D. Hofmeyr & S.R. Daniels unpubl. data).

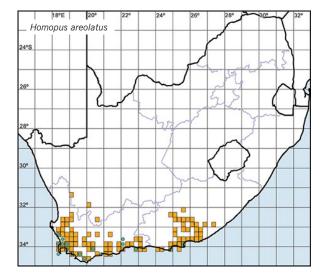
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring along the south coast from Eendekuil and Fish Hoek in the Western Cape to Cradock and King William's Town in the Eastern Cape. Relict populations are known from the southwestern interior of the Roggeveld-Bokkeveld region in the Northern Cape.

Habitat: Mainly associated with fynbos and renosterveld vegetation, but occurs in Albany Thicket in the east. Relict populations in the southwestern interior are associated with fynbos or renosterveld inclusions in the Succulent Karoo. It occurs from sea level to elevations of 1 300 m in the interior. Prefers low but dense vegetation cover that provides protection against temperature extremes and predation.

Biome: Fynbos; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in some areas.

Conservation measures: A re-assessment of this taxon may be required once its genetic structure has been revealed.





Homopus areolatus—6 km SE of Herbertsdale, WC

M. Burger

Homopus boulengeri Duerden, 1906

KAROO DWARF TORTOISE; KAROO PADLOPER; BOULENGER'S PADLOPER; RED PADLOPER

Margaretha D. Hofmeyr & Ernst H.W. Baard

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: There appears to be little regional variation in morphology and colour pattern. Mertens (1955) referred specimens from Aus in southern Namibia to *H. boulengeri*. This record was questioned by Greig & Burdett (1976) and the dispute was finally resolved when Branch (2007) included this material in his description of the Namibian species *H. solus*.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring from Pearston in the Eastern Cape to Touwsrivier in the Western Cape. The range in the Northern Cape extends to Calvinia in the northwest and beyond Carnarvon in the northeast.

EOO: 168 313 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 4 708 km² (confidence: medium)

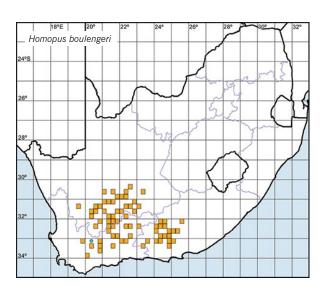
Habitat: Associated with dolerite ridges and rocky outcrops of the southern Succulent Karoo and Nama-Karoo biomes, and Albany Thicket in the southeast, at altitudes of approximately 800 m to 1 500 m. Occurs in dwarf shrubland that often contains succulent and grassy elements. Usually takes shelter under rocks in vegetated areas or in rock crevices (Boycott & Bourquin 2000).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Extensive surveys by Greig & Burdett (1976) extended the range substantially and suggested that the species is not rare-as was previously believed-but that specimens were seldom encountered because they were so well-camouflaged. Recent efforts to study the species were not successful because no viable populations were found, even though surveys were conducted at sites where the species occurred previously (V.J.T. Loehr pers. comm.; M.D. Hofmeyr pers. obs.). It is not clear whether these populations have been extirpated or if the species was and is simply scarce. The species may be considered to be of Least Concern, based on its relatively wide distribution, but specimens are seldom found in the wild and there are indications that the species may be in decline. Considerable search effort at locations where H. boulengeri was recorded previously (Greig & Burdett 1976) produced only three live tortoises at one site and a few shells at two other sites. The search effort of nearly 600 person-hours covered about 20 localities in the districts of Williston, Carnarvon, Loxton, Victoria West and Beaufort West. During each field trip, farmers and labourers indicated that they seldom, or no longer, encountered these tortoises or that they had never seen them on their farms or even in their region. This indicates that populations from these areas are declining or may have been extirpated. The data is not good enough to list the species as Vulnerable (based on a past decline of 30% or more, i.e. A2), but a listing of Near Threatened seems appropriate.

Threats: Overgrazing by livestock can degrade habitat, but the extent of this threat is not known.

Conservation measures: Alert conservation officers in the Northern, Western and Eastern Cape provinces to concerns about the species' status. Thereafter, involve local communities in determining the status of populations and





Homopus boulengeri-vicinity of Loxton, NC

A.L. de Villiers



Homopus boulengeri—Komsberg, Sutherland distr., NC W.R. Branch

the extent of population declines over the range of the species. These efforts may help to identify suitable populations for scientific study, which should focus on population dynamics, resource requirements and reproduction. An attempt should be made to determine: i) whether the range has decreased over the past few decades, ii) whether the conservation status of populations has been compromised by threatening processes in the landscape, iii) whether there are sufficient reproducing populations within the current range, and iv) whether these tortoises spend long periods hidden deep in rocky crevices, which may explain their apparent scarcity.

Homopus femoralis Boulenger, 1888 GREATER DWARF TORTOISE; GREATER PADLOPER

Margaretha D. Hofmeyr & Ernst H.W. Baard

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

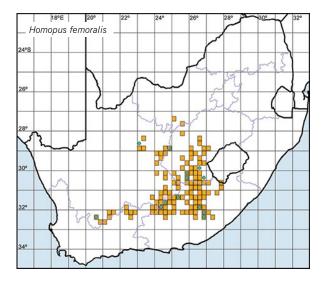
Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Occurs in the southern Free State and the northwestern part of the Eastern Cape. From the Koueveldberge in the east, the distribution extends along the Onder-Sneeuberg Mountains and Nuweveldberg Mountains of the escarpment to Sutherland in the west. The northern range extends westwards to Postmasburg in the Northern Cape. The species also has a marginal presence in the North-West Province.

Habitat: Found at altitudes of 900–1 900 m. The habitats fall mainly in regions with sweet veld such as the Dry Highveld Grassland, the eastern Nama-Karoo and the southern Savanna. The species has a marginal presence in grasslands with sour veld. These tortoises prefer rocky areas with relatively dense vegetation, where they take shelter among rocks or under plants.

Biome: Grassland; Nama-Karoo; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and relatively common in some areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Homopus femoralis-S of Jamestown, EC

A.L. de Villiers

Homopus signatus (Gmelin, 1789) SPECKLED DWARF TORTOISE; SPECKLED PADLOPER

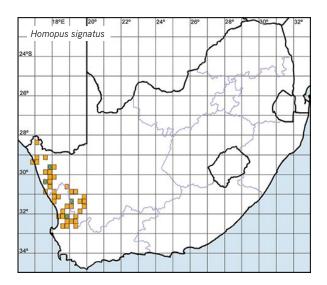
Ernst H.W. Baard & Margaretha D. Hofmeyr

Global: Vulnerable A2acde

Endemic

Taxonomy: Two subspecies have been recognised, namely *H. signatus signatus* and *H. s. cafer*, with a zone of intergradation in the eastern part of the range in the western Great Karoo (Boycott 1986, 1989; Bour 1988; Iverson 1992; Branch 1998; Boycott & Bourquin 2000; Loehr 2008). However, a range-wide study by Daniels *et al.* (2010) evaluated the genetic distinctiveness of the two putative subspecies as well as intergrades and found limited differentiation within the species. It was concluded that *H. s. cafer* is not a valid taxon, rendering *H. signatus* monotypic. However, the status of a population from the Pofadder area (2919AB) requires further investigation (Daniels *et al.* 2010). Colour patterns previously used to distinguish the two subspecies appear to be related to crypsis on different substrates.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring mainly along the West Coast region of the Western Cape and Northern Cape, from Piketberg and around Citrusdal in the south, northwards across the Olifants River into the Namaqualand Hardeveld to the Springbok-Steinkopf area. Eastwards, the distribution reaches as far inland as the



Klipwerf-Loeriesfontein-Calvinia area of the Roggeveld-Bokkeveld region in the Northern Cape. The most northerly records are from the Richtersveld (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]) and from just north of Pofadder (Branch *et al.* 2007). Griffin (2003) did not substantiate any *H. signatus* records from Namibia, including a record from the Fish River Canyon Park (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). Earlier records of this species from Namibia (Mertens 1955, 1971) are referable to *H. solus* (Branch 2007).



Homopus signatus-Onseepkans, NC

W.R. Branch

EOO: 97 213 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 2 730 km² (confidence: medium)

Habitat: Occurs predominantly in the winter rainfall region of the northwestern Succulent Karoo and Fynbos biomes along the West Coast and adjacent inland of South Africa. Found from a few metres above sea level on the West Coast to elevations of around 1 000 m in the interior at Loeriesfontein-Calvinia and the Cederberg Range (Boycott 1989). Shows a particular preference for rocky terrain, which includes typical Namaqualand and Hardeveld granite koppies in the north, and typical Sandveld and Cederberg sandstone koppies and rocky ridges in the south. Occurs in low to medium-high Namaqualand succulent blomveld and heuweltjieveld, and fynbos and strandveld shrub vegetation, both in the Succulent Karoo and Fynbos biomes. Prefers to shelter in rock crevices or under medium to large boulders and rock slabs, a behaviour that provides protection against temperature extremes and predation.

Bioregion: Karoo Renosterveld; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Trans-Escarpment Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Inferred population reduction of over 30% in the past three generations (75 years) due to anthropogenic land transformation, where the causes of destruction may not have ceased, based on direct observation [A2a], a decline in AOO, EOO and habitat quality [A2c], actual levels of exploitation [A2d] and the effects of introduced taxa [A2e]. These declines are considered likely to continue into the future.

Threats: Listed as Restricted by Boycott (1988) and as Lower Risk/near threatened in the 1996 IUCN global listing (IUCN 1996). Currently considered Vulnerable, mainly due to human-induced habitat degradation and destruction and the international reptile pet trade. Observations and focused research throughout the known range indicate that this species is intolerant of habitat modification. There appears to be a strong correlation between population status and habitat quality. Severe habitat fragmenta-



Homopus signatus—Springbok area, Namaqualand, NC A.L. de Villiers



Homopus signatus—Citrusdal/Clanwilliam area, WC

A.L. de Villiers

tion has resulted from extensive agricultural development throughout the range and especially in the Sandveld region. This includes the irreversible alteration of the interkoppie (small hill) habitat—a zone that probably plays an important role in inter-population gene flow. Overgrazing by domestic stock, especially goats, further degrades and threatens remaining natural koppie habitats. There is illegal collection for export to the international pet trade, although this is infrequent. Midgley *et al.* (2005) recorded the imminent threat and potential impact of global climate change on the western parts of South Africa. Loehr (2008) clearly demonstrated that the expected changes in rainfall pattern and temperature across the range is likely to severely impact growth rates and fecundity of individuals, and consequently the survival of the species.

Conservation measures: Continue research into the life history of the species. Develop a BMP-S. Cultivate conservation stewardship arrangements that include more natural habitat (throughout the range) in formal conservation arrangements. Be vigilant for illegal collection of specimens for the pet trade.

Genus Kinixys Bell, 1827—hinged-back tortoises

The genus Kinixys consists of eight species that are widely distributed in west, central and southern Africa. It also occurs in Madagascar where it was probably introduced (Branch 2008). This diverse genus was traditionally considered to contain two ecological species groups, one occurring in rainforest habitats (K. homeana and K. erosa) in western and central Africa, and the other in savanna habitats (Loveridge & Williams 1957). However, recent phylogenetic studies have revealed that the rainforest species may be derived from a savanna-living ancestor (Kindler et al. 2012). Four savanna species, K. zombensis (as K. belliana), K. spekii, K. lobatsiana and K. natalensis extend into southern Africa, including the Atlas region (Broadley 1993; Boycott & Bourguin 2000; Branch 2008). Although some of these forms have been known since the 1860s, all the southern African species were for some time treated as a single species, K. belliana (Loveridge & Williams 1957). However, with reference to K. belliana in southern Africa, Pritchard (1979) suggested that a more detailed investigation might confirm the validity of some of the forms described earlier, e.g. K. spekii Gray, 1863; K. darlingi Boulenger, 1902; K. lobatsiana Power, 1927; K. zombensis Hewitt, 1931; K. australis Hewitt, 1931; and K. natalensis Hewitt, 1935. The latter was revived as a full species and K. belliana spekii as a subspecies by Broadley (1981b), who later treated K. spekii as a full species and also revived K. lobatsiana (Broadley 1993). A recent study of phylogeography, phylogeny and taxonomy of hinged-back tortoises (Kindler et al. 2012) found that the previously recognised savanna species K. belliana comprises a conglomerate of three deeply divergent clades that are now treated as distinct species. Kinixys belliana (Gray, 1830) ranges from Angola to Burundi, and does not extend into the Atlas region. It may also occur in Cameroon (the type locality of the species is "West Africa"see Iverson 1992) and extend as far northeast as Ethiopia (Broadley 2012). Kinixys nogueyi, previously recognised

as a West African subspecies of *K. belliana*, characterised by having only four-clawed feet, is treated as a full species, but includes five-clawed tortoises from the northernmost part of the formerly recognised range of *K. belliana*. These two species are allied to *K. spekii*, whereas southeast African and Malagasy hinged-back tortoises formerly lumped together with *K. belliana* represent the distinct species *K. zombensis*, which is sister to *K. lobatsiana*. The latter two species together constitute the sister group of the rainforest species *K. homeana* and *K. erosa* (Kindler *et al.* 2012).

The genus name, derived from Greek, means 'movable back' and refers to the posterior, hinging part of the carapace, a unique feature that distinguishes these tortoises from other testudinids. The hinge is located between some of the individual bones of the shell and is visible externally between marginal shields seven and eight and costal shields three and four. The hinge develops with maturity, so a more reliable identification guide to the genus is the fact that the lower margin of the third costal shield is narrower than the lower margins of the second and fourth costal shields. Hinged tortoises are omnivorous, feeding on vegetation as well as many types of invertebrates such as millipedes and snails. In southern Africa females lay their eggs during summer, but sometimes as late as April. Females of some species produce more than one clutch in a season. Clutch size varies (2-10 eggs) and depending on the species, eggs hatch after 3-12 months (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). Kinixys natalensis was classified as Near Threatened in Swaziland and also by the IUCN (IUCN 1996) due to habitat loss and a decline in the quality of its habitat. It has been suggested that the species' status in Swaziland, Mozambique and South Africa should be monitored (Boycott & Broadley in prep.). In this assessment all four species of Kinixys in the Atlas region are considered Least Concern.

Kinixys lobatsiana Power, 1927 LOBATSE HINGED-BACK TORTOISE

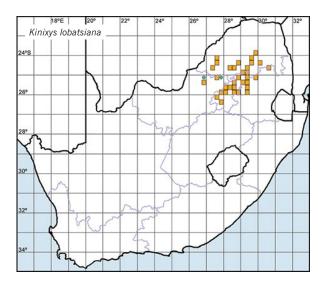
Richard C. Boycott

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: All southern African *Kinixys* were referred to *K. belliana belliana* by Loveridge & Williams (1957). *Kinixys lobatsiana* was re-instated as a full species by Broadley (1993).

Distribution: Occurs from Lobatse in southeastern Botswana, eastwards into South Africa (D.G. Broadley & R.C. Boycott in prep.). Near-endemic to the *Atlas* region, extending from the northeastern parts of the North-West Province, eastwards through northern Gauteng and adjacent parts of Mpumalanga and northwards into Limpopo south of the Soutpansberg. An easternmost record for the species from Manyeleti Game Reserve (2431CB) in the subtropical lowveld is believed to represent a translocation from the bushveld (Broadley 1993) and is not shown on the map. Similarly, a single record from Waterpoort (2229DC) on the northern side of the Soutpansberg is excluded. This specimen was considered by Broad-



ley (1993) to have been washed through the gorge during a flood, but it could have been transported by human agency.

Habitat: Occurs in savanna, bushveld and thornveld habitats, and is absent from highveld grassland and subtropical lowveld. Vegetation ranges from dense, short bushveld to open tree savanna. Prefers rocky hillsides and rocky ridges (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). The type locality, near Lobatse in Botswana, was described as "kloofs among the hills" by Power (1931). Similar habitat is represented along the Magaliesberg in South Africa. Based on the distribution data it does not appear as if there is any fragmentation of the population. Within the Central Bushveld Bioregion there is minimal variation in the general structure of the vegetation, with some areas comprising dense, short bushveld and others composed of open tree savanna. No preference for either is indicated and the species probably occurs in both areas where there is rocky terrain.

Bioregion: Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Common and widespread, occurring in a number of nature reserves.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Kinixys lobatsiana-Roodepoort, GP

W.R. Branch

Kinixys natalensis Hewitt, 1935 KWAZULU-NATAL HINGED-BACK TORTOISE

Richard C. Boycott

Global: Least Concern

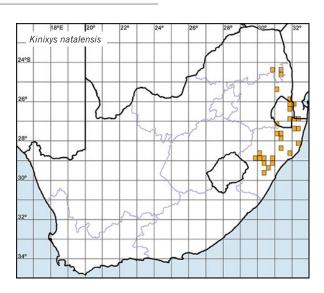
Near-endemic

Taxonomy: All southern African *Kinixys* were referred to *Kinixys belliana belliana* by Loveridge & Williams (1957). *Kinixys natalensis* was re-instated as a full species by Broadley (1981b).

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring in South Africa, Swaziland and southwestern Mozambique (Boycott & Bourquin 2000). The range extends from Weenen Nature Reserve in the KwaZulu-Natal Midlands, northeastwards and northwards through the mountainous inland regions and along the Lebombo Range through Swaziland, southern Mozambique and the eastern parts of South Africa, to Manyeleti Game Reserve and Hoedspruit. In this assessment, six sub-populations are recognised: Bushman's River basin (Weenen Nature Reserve); Tugela River basin (type locality and surrounding populations); south Pongolo River basin (Itala and Magdalena Game Reserve); north Pongolo River basin (Bergplaats); Lebombo (mountain range and adjacent lowveld); and central and northern lowveld (Manyeleti, Sabi-Sand, western Kruger National Park and Hoedspruit). A few new localities have been recorded in protected areas since 1988 (Broadley 1993; Boycott & Bourquin 2000; Boycott 2001).



Kinixys natalensis-Manyiseni region, Lebombo Mtns, KZN M. Burger



Habitat: Occurs in rocky grasslands, rocky wooded grasslands, dry thickets and valley bushveld; avoids forests and deep sand areas (Bourquin 2004).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: More widespread and common than previously believed and not globally threatened.

Conservation measures: Proclaim additional protected areas within the species' range.



Kinixys natalensis—near Empangeni, KZN

A.L. de Villiers

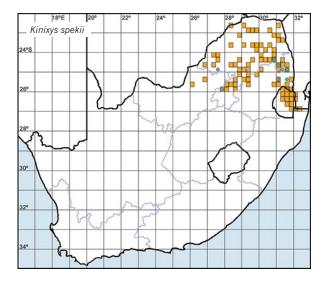
Kinixys spekii Gray, 1863 SPEKE'S HINGED-BACK TORTOISE

Richard C. Boycott

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: All southern African *Kinixys* were referred to *K. belliana belliana* by Loveridge & Williams (1957). Broadley (1981b) considered *K. spekii* to be a subspecies of *K. belliana* but later recognised it as a distinct species (Broadley 1993).

Distribution: Widespread and common in tropical central, eastern and southern Africa (Boycott & Bourguin 2000). In the Atlas region the range extends from the northern parts of Limpopo Province southwards to the northeastern parts of North-West Province and northern Gauteng, and eastwards into the subtropical lowveld regions of Mpumalanga, Swaziland and extreme northern KwaZulu-Natal. It occurs sympatrically with K. natalensis on the Lebombo Mountains and its foothills in Swaziland (Boycott 2001). There appear to be two subpopulations. One is a fairly remote population in the upper Limpopo basin in western Limpopo. The other is a contiguous population extending from the bushveld regions of northern Limpopo into the subtropical lowveld of Mpumalanga, east of the Mpumalanga escarpment, and southwards through Swaziland into the extreme northern part of KwaZulu-Natal. The only major geographical barrier between the two is in the central and southern part of the mountain range, where the Mpumalanga escarpment separates the lowveld populations of K. spekii from the inland populations of K. lobatsiana. It is possible that the Great Usutu River, at the southern limit of the range, has served as a geographical barrier to the species because only a few specimens have been found on the southern side (Bourguin 2004; R.C. Boycott pers. obs.). Some of these are believed to have been translocated (Bourquin 2004).



Habitat: Occurs in subtropical savanna, mixed bushveld and thornveld habitats (Boycott & Bourquin 2000), and avoids pure highveld grassland. There is some evidence of seasonal movement into thicker woodland in the winter months (Lambiris *et al.* 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Mopane; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, occurring in a number of protected areas. No serious threats are known although there is some harvesting for food and the muti (traditional medicine) trade. Fire could be a threat in Swaziland where bush clearing on the Lebombo Mountains has transformed the habitat to grassland.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Kinixys spekii-E of Plumtree, Zimbabwe





Kinixys spekii—near Lydenburg, MPM

G.J. Alexander



Kinixys spekii, adult female—Dinedo Farm near Mafutseni, Swaziland R.C. Boycott



Kinixys spekii—Usuthu Gorge Community Conservation Area, KZN M. Burger

Kinixys zombensis Hewitt, 1931 EASTERN HINGED-BACK TORTOISE

Richard C. Boycott

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: In the *Atlas* region this taxon was previously known by the name *Kinixys belliana belliana*. *Kinixys belliana zombensis* was recognised as a valid subspecies by Broadley (1989b) and McCord *et al.* (2005), but later considered a junior synonym of *K. b. belliana* (Broadley 1993). It was elevated to species status by Kindler *et al.* (2012). A population in Madagascar, previously referred to *K. belliana domerguei* (e.g. McCord *et al.* 2005), is only weakly differentiated from South African *K. zombensis*, but further sampling is needed to determine whether there is support for its status as a subspecies of the latter (Kindler *et al.* 2012). It has not been generally recognised because it appears to be based on an introduced population (Branch 2008).

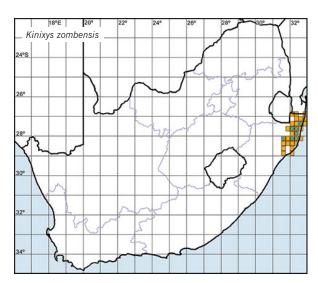
Distribution: Widespread in southeastern Africa, from northeastern Tanzania southwards to northeastern Kwa-Zulu-Natal in South Africa, and also in Madagascar where it was probably introduced (Broadley 1989b; Boycott & Bourquin 2000; Kindler *et al.* 2012). In the *Atlas* region it occurs from around Kwambonambi (D. Kewley pers. comm.) northwards to the Mozambique border, including areas east of the Lebombo Mountains.

Habitat: Occurs in subtropical coastal bushveld and forest. Vegetation ranges from dense bushveld and coastal forest to scrub savanna. Prefers sandy areas and is absent from rocky hillsides and rocky ridges (Boycott & Bourquin 2000).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in southeastern Africa, and protected in many national parks and game reserves throughout its range, including areas within the *Atlas* region (Broadley 1989b; Boycott & Bourquin 2000).

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Kinixys zombensis, adult female

R.C. Boycott

Genus Psammobates Fitzinger, 1835-tent and geometric tortoises

Psammobates is endemic to southern Africa (South Africa, Namibia and Botswana) and consists of three species. The type species, *P. geometricus*, is restricted to South Africa's southwestern Cape. Alternating light and dark rays on the scutes give many members a characteristic geometric pattern. The carapace is domed and the dorsal scutes of some taxa show excessive pyramiding, hence

Psammobates geometricus (Linnaeus, 1758) **GEOMETRIC TORTOISE**

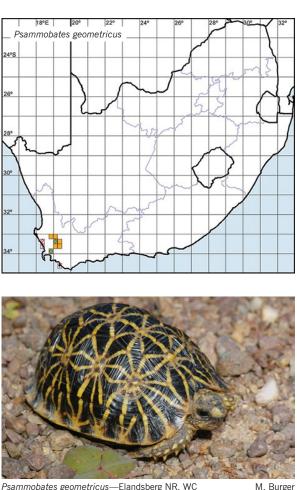
Ernst H.W. Baard & Margaretha D. Hofmeyr

Global: Critically Endangered A2acde

Endemic

Taxonomy: Wallin (1977) established that the Linnaean type specimen of Psammobates geometricus is in fact Geochelone elegans, hence the erroneous type locality of "Asia". Hoogmoed & Crumly (1984) assigned the animal depicted by Piso (1658) as syntypical to P. geometricus and designated it as lectotype (see Baard 1991). The type locality was restricted to "southwestern Cape Province, South Africa" by Baard (1991). No subspecies are currently recognised. Although earlier research showed no significant genetic distance between three seemingly isolated subpopulations (Cunningham et al. 2002), the phylogeographic relationships of these should be given further attention.

Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa. Historically, the species occurred from around Eendekuil and Piketberg in the north, southwards through the Swartland (Porterville, Hermon, Wellington, Paarl) to the Strand-Gordon's Bay area in the south, and eastwards in the Upper Breede River Valley, from Tulbagh in the north to just west of Worcester, as well as in the Ceres Valley in the northeast (Baard 1993a). Isolated populations can now be found in the Paarl district, north of Wellington towards Porterville, between Tulbagh, Wolseley and Worcester, and in the Ceres Valley. The only confirmed record outside this region is of an approximately 2 000 year old specimen from De Kelders (3419CB), Gans Bay (Rau 1971). Indications are that the indigenous Khoisan people of the region carried this shell there at the time. Surveys by Baard (1993b) could not confirm the suspected presence of this species in the Bot River and Villiersdorp area, or in the Darling area. The Darling (3318AD) record is based on two specimens in the Port Elizabeth Museum, collected from this area by B. Peers and an unknown collector, in March and April 1905, respectively. No further locality data are available. Darling lies within the historical distribution of Granite and Shale Renosterveld, and it is therefore likely that this species occurred here, on the western extreme of its range. The Koeberg Nature Reserve (3318CB) record is based on a specimen photographed by the reserve manager and identified by EHWB in the early 1990s. This reserve is situated near Melkbosstrand and lies within Dune Strandveld and Sand Fynbos (these two habitats are not occupied by this species), and small, isolated patches of Shale Renosterveld. Subsequent visits to both areas did not yield additional records and the



members of the genus are commonly known as tent tor-

toises. All species are small and males are smaller than fe-

males. Clutch size ranges from one egg (P. oculifer) to five eggs (P. geometricus) (Hofmeyr et al. 2005). One mem-

ber of the genus, P. geometricus, is classified as Critically

Endangered, mainly as a result of habitat destruction or

degradation (e.g. wheatlands and vineyards).

Psammobates geometricus-Elandsberg NR, WC

recent natural occurrence of this species there requires confirmation.

EOO: 4 034 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 22 km² (confidence: high)

Habitat: Occurs in the Mediterranean region (mean annual rainfall 350-600 mm) of the southwestern part of the Western Cape at altitudes of about 70-600 m (Baard 1995). This is within the Fynbos Biome and predominantly in the Renosterveld Bioregion, which comprises a number of Critically Endangered and Endangered vegetation types including Alluvium Fynbos, Sand Fynbos, Shale Fynbos, Shale Renosterveld, Granite Renosterveld and Silcrete Renosterveld (Rebelo et al. 2006). The general habitat comprises low-lying, undulating plains (seldom rocky terrain, but never koppies) with a dominant low to medium-high shrub layer, a strong restiod and ericoid presence and an essentially annual, herbaceous understorey with perennial grasses (Baard 1995). During unfavourable periods of the year, *P. geometricus* takes refuge in slightly damper microhabitats under dense vegetation (E.H.W. Baard unpubl. data). This tortoise does not dig its own burrows but occasionally makes use of the burrows of other animals.

Vegetation type: FFa 3 Swartland Alluvium Fynbos; FFa 2 Breede Alluvium Fynbos; FRs 9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld; FRs 4 Ceres Shale Renosterveld; FFa 4 Lourensford Alluvium Fynbos; FRg 2 Swartland Granite Renosterveld; FFs 5 Winterhoek Sandstone Fynbos; FFs 7 North Hex Sandstone Fynbos; FFg 2 Boland Granite Fynbos; FFd 6 Hangklip Sand Fynbos; FFd 4 Atlantis Sand Fynbos; FFh 4 Breede Shale Fynbos; FRc 1 Swartland Silcrete Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: Inferred population reduction of over 90% in the past three generations (90 years) due to anthropogenic land transformation, where the causes of destruction may not have ceased, based on direct observation [A2a], a decline in AOO, EOO and habitat quality [A2c], actual levels of exploitation [A2d], and the effects of introduced taxa [A2e]. These declines are considered likely to continue into the future. The plight of this tortoise recently worsened following a wildfire on 8–9 January 2012 that destroyed a large portion of Elandsberg Nature Reserve and surrounding habitat, including large tracts of Shale Renosterveld and Alluvium Fynbos. Intensive postfire surveys located 225 specimens of *P. geometricus* of which 136 were killed by the fire; a portion of the live tor-

Psammobates oculifer (Kuhl, 1820) SERRATED TENT TORTOISE; KALAHARI TENT TORTOISE

Margaretha D. Hofmeyr & Ernst H.W. Baard

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Hewitt (1933, 1937b) retained the name *oculifera* when he removed the 'geometricus' group from the genus *Testudo*. Subsequently, Loveridge & Williams (1957) pointed out that the gender of the name *Psammobates* is masculine and amended it to *P. oculifer*. In later years the specific names *oculifer* and *oculiferus* were used interchangeably, but the former is the correct form of the name (Fritz & Havaš 2007; Bickham *et al.* 2007).

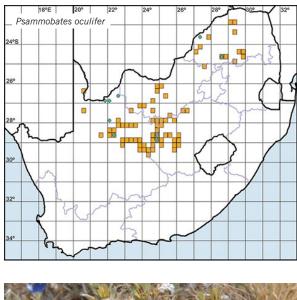
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa and found throughout the Kalahari region of South Africa, Botswana and Namibia. The northeastern range limit was recently extended to include Hwange National Park in Zimbabwe (Broadley *et al.* 2010). This species has not yet been recorded south of the Orange River (Boycott & Branch 1989). The distribution in South Africa falls mainly in the Northern Cape and adjacent regions of the Free State and North-West Province. There are no records from the eastern part of North-West Province or in Gauteng, but disjunct populations occur in Limpopo. This species does not occur in northeastern Botswana (Boycott & Branch 1989) or the southern and western parts of Namibia (Griffin 2003).

Habitat: Occurs in arid regions on the central plateau of southern Africa, at altitudes of 800–1 500 m. Mostly inhabits arid savannas but has a peripheral presence in Dry Highveld Grassland and Nama-Karoo. Habitat consists of undulating sandy plains with open tree cover and well-developed grass and shrub layers. During unfavourable

toises were placed in fire- and predator-proof pens, while the remainder were relocated to unburnt habitat on the reserve (M.D. Hofmeyr & E.H.W. Baard unpubl. data). It is now estimated that only 700–800 individuals of this species survive in the wild (Goode *et al.* 2012).

Threats: Human-induced habitat alteration, degradation and destruction, largely due to extensive agricultural development (vineyards and wheat farming), have led to the irreversible alteration of more than 90% of preferred habitat. Survival in remaining habitats is seriously threatened by human settlement, invasive alien species (both woody and herbaceous species), predators (including the invasive feral pig), overgrazing by domestic stock, droughts and wildfires (Baard 1997). Within its severely fragmented range, these threats are exacerbated in small, isolated populations which barely remain viable. Although infrequent, the illegal collection of specimens for the pet trade cannot be ruled out as a potential threat. The conservation status is dire and climate change, involving warmer and drier conditions (Midgley et al. 2005), is likely to seriously compromise the survival of remaining, fragmented populations (Hofmeyr et al. 2006).

Conservation measures: Continue research into aspects of conservation biology in order to inform conservation measures. Prioritise conservation stewardship of remaining lowland habitats by landowners. Include more of the remaining habitat in formal conservation arrangements. Develop a BMP-S.





Psammobates oculifer-35 km NE of Groblershoop, NC

M. Burger

periods *P. oculifer* shelters under dense vegetation or in animal burrows.

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Nama-Karoo.

Psammobates tentorius (Bell, 1828) TENT TORTOISE

Margaretha D. Hofmeyr & Ernst H.W. Baard

Global: Least Concern

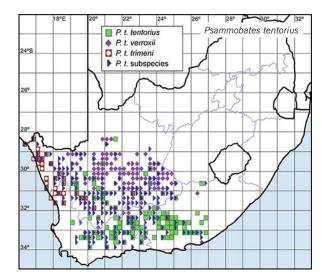
Taxonomy: Members of the Psammobates tentorius complex vary considerably with regard to colour pattern, pyramiding (raised or flat) of vertebral scutes and other morphological features. Hewitt (1933, 1934) described several species and subspecies within the P. tentorius complex. Loveridge & Williams (1957) recognised only three subspecies of P. tentorius: P. t. tentorius, P. t. trimeni and P. t. verroxii. These subspecies have been accepted by most subsequent authors (Greig & Burdett 1976; Branch et al. 1995; Branch 1998, 2008; Boycott & Bourquin 2000), but with general acknowledgement of the unresolved taxonomic complexities involved. Distribution maps based on museum and other records show substantial overlap in the ranges of the three subspecies. In many instances, this apparent overlap is due to misidentification of specimens. However, in some regions the overlap in distribution is real, indicating that some subspecies may deserve specific status. Furthermore, the large morphological variation within recognised subspecies, particularly within P. t. verroxii, may indicate that some synonymised taxa should be re-instated. A major revision based



Psammobates tentorius tentorius—24 km S of Jansenville, EC W.R. Branch

Assessment rationale: Although population densities are normally low, this species is widespread.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Psammobates tentorius verroxi-near Pofadder, Namaqualand, NC J. Marais



Psammobates tentorius trimeni— S of Bitterfontein, Namaqualand, WC A.L. de Villiers



Psammobates tentorius verroxii—Namaqualand, NC

W.R. Branch

on molecular and morphological data is in progress (M.D. Hofmeyr & S.R. Daniels unpubl. data).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Namibia. The ranges of the three subspecies overlap, and there is uncertainty about their exact limits. Of the three subspecies, P. t. tentorius occurs furthest south, but is most distinctive in the southeast. Its range extends from Fort Brown in the Eastern Cape to Matjiesfontein (or Touws River) in the Western Cape. Further north, the range extends to Victoria West and the Kamiesberg Mountains in the Northern Cape. The distribution of P. t. trimeni extends from Helmeringhausen in southwestern Namibia (Griffin 2003) across the Orange River into Namagualand in the western region of South Africa. Psammobates t. verroxii has the widest distribution of the three subspecies. It occurs throughout the Northern Cape, across the Orange River into Namibia, as far north as Mariental (Griffin 2003). In the west, P. t. verroxii extends into Namagualand and through the Ceres Karoo into the Western Cape. There may be considerable overlap between the distributions of P. t. verroxii and P. t. trimeni in South Africa and Namibia. The distributions of P. t. verroxii and P. t. tentorius overlap in the Karoo, but it is not certain if P. t. verroxii occurs below the southern escarpment. In the northeastern part of its range, this species does not occur north of the Orange River, which may be a barrier to movement.

Habitat: Occurs in arid regions under varying temperature regimes, from sea level to at least 1 500 m. *Psammobates t. tentorius* occurs in regions with summer or all-year rainfall, frequent frost, and dwarf shrubland with succulents, annuals, grasses and geophytes. *Psammobates t. trimeni* occurs in winter rainfall regions dominated by dwarf succulent shrubs and annuals. *Psammobates t. verroxii* occurs mainly on the inland plateau above 900 m in dwarf open shrubland, although its range extends below the escarpment in the west; rainfall is predominantly in summer and is generally unpredictable.

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, but normally found at low densities.

Conservation measures: Clarify the taxonomic status of the three subspecies.

Genus Stigmochelys Gray, 1873—leopard tortoises

This monotypic genus occurs throughout southern and eastern Africa as far north as Ethiopia. All large tortoises were previously grouped in the genus *Geochelone*, but because this genus was polyphyletic, some authors (e.g. Lapparent de Broin 2000; Gerlach 2001) placed *G. pardalis* in the monotypic genus *Stigmochelys*. A recent molecular study (Le *et al.* 2006) indicated a sister relationship between *G. pardalis* and *Psammobates* and the authors suggested that *G. pardalis* should be placed within the genus *Psammobates*. Because the two groups of tortoises are morphologically distinct, Fritz & Bininda-Emonds (2007) rejected this proposal and recommended that the name *S. pardalis* should be retained. In the Eastern Cape as well as Ethiopia and South Sudan, they may exceed 700 mm in carapace length and 40 kg in weight (Branch 2008). These large tortoises have a domed carapace and lack a nuchal scute. Females lay 3–6 clutches of 6–30 eggs per clutch at monthly intervals during summer (Branch 1998). *Stigmochelys pardalis* is common and widespread and not of conservation concern.

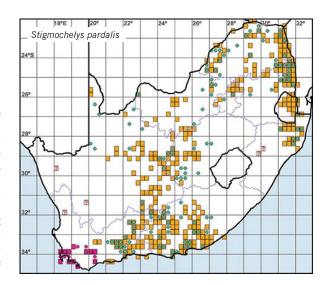
Stigmochelys pardalis (Bell, 1828) LEOPARD TORTOISE; MOUNTAIN TORTOISE

Margaretha D. Hofmeyr & Ernst H.W. Baard

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Loveridge & Williams (1957) recognised two subspecies: Geochelone (= Stigmochelys) pardalis pardalis and G. (= S.) p. babcocki. Many herpetologists reject this distinction because the application of diagnostic characters is weak and the ranges of the two subspecies overlap considerably (Greig & Burdett 1976). Recently, Le et al. (2006) found substantial genetic differences between two specimens assigned to the two subspecies, but their geographical origin was unknown. A subsequent Africa-wide phylogeographic study of S. pardalis identified seven mainly parapatric clades (five in southern Africa), resulting from restricted gene flow, but none of these were considered representative of cryptic taxa (Fritz et al. 2010). This study showed that the findings of Le et al. (2006) were incorrectly based on a pseudogene, and that there was no basis for the recognition of S. p. babcocki.

Distribution: Widespread in sub-Saharan Africa (Iverson 1992). This species occurs throughout most of southern Africa, from the Western Cape of South Africa in the south to southern Angola in the west, and Mozambique in the east. Its range extends northwards as far as Ethiopia and South Sudan. Loveridge & Williams (1957) and Greig & Burdett (1976) described the distribution of *S. p. par-dalis* as southwestern Namibia and western South Africa, but Broadley (1989c) included the Western and Eastern Cape and areas as far north as the southwestern Free State. The remainder of the range was assigned to *S. p.*





Stigmochelys pardalis—Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger



Stigmochelys pardalis, hatchling-Steytlerville, EC

W.R. Branch



Stigmochelys pardalis, old adult—Richmond district, NC M.F. Bates

babcocki. This is a popular pet species in South Africa and the release of unwanted tortoises in the wild (Greig & Burdett 1976) confounds interpretation of the species' natural distribution. Stigmochelys pardalis is mostly absent from large areas in the eastern and the western regions of South Africa. Greig & Burdett (1976) postulated that humans exterminated S. pardalis in the east and in the Cape coastal region. Branch et al. (1995b), however, argued that there is no conclusive evidence that S. pardalis ever occurred there because tortoise bones are rare at archaeological sites in the eastern region, and it is conspicuous in its absence from archaeological sites along the southwestern coast where the remains of Chersina angulata are common (Klein & Cruz-Uribe 2000; Halkett et al. 2003; Avery et al. 2004). Isolated records of S. pardalis in western South Africa are also problematic. Many herpetologists believe that these populations have been introduced, but S. pardalis has occurred in the western region for at least the past 200 years. The French naturalist, Pierre Delalande, collected specimens from the Olifants River between 1818 and 1820 (Loveridge & Williams 1957). Much of the southwestern Cape distribution is considered to be represented by introduced populations that have been established in the past two centuries. The exact natural southwestern limit is not known but it may be in the Breede River region. As such, all records to the west of the Breede, and also those to the east around Ashton and Montagu, are plotted as introduced on the SARCA map.

Habitat: Occurring from sea level to elevations greater than 1 500 m in the interior. The northern habitats fall mostly in savanna but those in the south overlap Nama-Karoo, Succulent Karoo, Fynbos, Albany Thicket and Dry Highveld Grassland. Most of the habitat in South Africa contains sweet, palatable grasses (Kruger *et al.* 2006). This may explain the limited occurrence or absence of the species in the eastern parts of South Africa, where sour grasses dominate.

Biome: Savanna; Nama-Karoo; Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Grassland; Succulent Karoo; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in some areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

CHAPTER 8

Family Crocodylidae

James Harvey & Johan Marais

The two crocodilian families Crocodylidae and Alligatoridae are widely distributed throughout the tropics and subtropics, occurring in South and Central America (two species extend into southern United States), northern Australia, southern Asia and its islands, Iran, most of mainland Africa and Madagascar (King & Burke 1997). The monotypic genus Tomistoma is considered by some recent authors to be referable to Gavialidae (Willis et al. 2007; Feng et al. 2010) but Janke et al. (2005) suggested that Tomistoma and Gavialis (at that time the sole member of Gavialidae) should be grouped together as a subfamily of Crocodylidae. The latter relationship was supported by the mitochondrial DNA analyses of Roos et al. (2007), Zhang et al. (2011) and others, although the morphological analysis of Piras et al. (2010) suggested that Tomistoma is more closely related to non-Gavialis crocodylids. Crocodylidae currently contains 17 species in five genera and is the only one of the two crocodilian families that is represented in Africa (Schmitz et al. 2003; Uetz 2011).

In Africa there are three genera: *Crocodylus* (two species), *Osteolaemus* (1–3 species) and *Mecistops* (one species). Taxonomy of African crocodiles is still unsettled, with *Mecistops cataphractus* recently removed from *Crocodylus* (McAliley *et al.* 2006), and molecular evidence suggesting that there are three, rather than one, species of African dwarf crocodiles in the genus *Osteolae*

mus (Eaton et al. 2009). The recent mitochondrial DNA analysis of Feng et al. (2010) indicated that *Mecistops* and *Osteolaemus* are sister taxa, distinct from *Crocody-lus*. *Crocodylus* niloticus is the only crocodilian species found within the Atlas region. It is widespread, occurring from South Africa northwards to Egypt. The remaining African crocodile species (except *C. suchus*, see below) are largely confined to the forested wetlands of central and western Africa.

Crocodiles are large, strongly armoured, aquatic reptiles adapted for swimming. The largest species is the Saltwater Crocodile (*C. porosus*) of Asia and Australia which may on occasion achieve a length of 7 m and weigh over a tonne, making it the world's largest reptile. Adults have limited numbers of enemies due to their large size and strength. They use their strong jaws and impressive sets of sharp teeth to capture a variety of prey, from invertebrates taken by juveniles to fish, frogs, reptiles and even large mammals that are usually seized at the water's edge. Females lay up to 80 eggs that are buried in sand near the water's edge (Branch 1998). Once the eggs hatch, the mother helps the hatchlings free themselves from the nest.

In the *Atlas* region, *C. niloticus* is threatened by loss and degradation of aquatic habitat, and direct persecution by humans, and is classified as Vulnerable.



Genus Crocodylus Laurenti, 1768-true crocodiles

The 13 species in the genus Crocodylus are found in Africa, the Caribbean, northern South America, Central America, tropical and subtropical regions of North America, southern Asia, the Phillippines, Indonesia, New Guinea, and northern Australia (Schmitz et al. 2003; Uetz 2011). A mitochondrial DNA analysis by Meredith et al. (2011) supported the monophyly of all Asian and Australian species of Crocodylus but found that C. niloticus was paraphyletic. They reported that eastern populations of C. niloticus grouped with a suite of New World Crocodylus to the exclusion of western populations of C. niloticus. Two species occur in Africa, with only the Nile Crocodile, C. niloticus, occurring in the Atlas region. The other African species is the recently revived C. suchus, a name used for West African crocodiles previously referred to C. niloticus. (Schmitz et al. 2003; Meredith et al. 2011). Hekkala et al. (2010) found that C. niloticus showed high levels of genetic structuring across its range, but they did not comment on the validity of C. suchus. In the Atlas region, C. niloticus is largely confined to well-watered, northeastern, subtropical areas (Branch 1998; Alexander & Marais 2007). This species occurs in large rivers, swamps, pans, estuaries and artificial dams, and is occasionally found at sea when it moves between

Crocodylus niloticus Laurenti, 1768 NILE CROCODILE

Johan Marais

Regional: Vulnerable A2ac

Taxonomy: The mitochondrial DNA studies of Hekkala *et al.* (2010) and Meredith *et al.* (2011) suggest that *C. niloticus* may contain cryptic species.

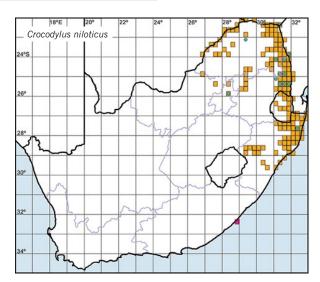
Distribution: Widespread throughout Africa, from Senegal in the west to Somalia in the east, and from Egypt in the north to South Africa in the south. In the *At/as* region it is distributed from the Zinkwazi River south of the Tugela River in KwaZulu-Natal (Combrink *et al.* 2011) north-wards into Swaziland, Mpumalanga, Limpopo, northern Gauteng and adjacent parts of North-West Province. Introductions, especially unintentional releases from commercial crocodile farms, are becoming quite common (J. Marais pers. obs.) and individuals have been observed in the Umgeni River near Durban. Introduced adults often survive and there is evidence of successful breeding following an intentional (and ill-advised) introduction to the Dwesa Nature Reserve in the Eastern Cape (Combrink *et al.* 2011).

EOO: 326 983 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 38 689 km² (confidence: medium)

Habitat: Inhabits swamps, lakes, rivers and river mouths; and coastal estuaries in KwaZulu-Natal (Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: This species was previously globally assessed as Lower Risk/least concern (IUCN 1996). However, Branch (1998) regarded it as Vulnerable. Nearly two decades ago the total South African population was estimated at about 9 500 individuals (Blake & Jacobsen 1992), but it is not known whether this figure included freshwater habitats (Leslie & Spotila 2000). Crocodiles are large, robust animals. In South Africa, adult C. niloticus average 3–3.5 m in length but can grow to a length of at least 4.5 m. Today, specimens over 5 m are rare. These large reptiles feed on a variety of animals and display an ontogenetic shift in diet: yearlings feed primarily on invertebrates; juveniles and subadults include amphibians and fish in their diets; and adults also take birds and large mammals (Wallace & Leslie 2008). At least nine species (e.g. C. niloticus, C. porosus) are known to attack humans, especially in areas where people come into contact with these animals during their daily activities. Attacks by C. niloticus are rare in the Atlas region but more common in some other parts of Africa. Crocodiles are oviparous and female C. niloticus lay 20-80 eggs per clutch in self-excavated nests from October to December. The nests are covered and protected by the mother until the eggs hatch 70-100 days later (Alexander & Marais 2007). Crocodiles are seldom found outside protected areas. The Nile Crocodile is threatened by loss and degradation of aquatic habitat (even in some protected areas) and direct persecution by humans, and is classified as Vulnerable in the Atlas region. Trade in C. niloticus products is regulated under CITES.





Crocodylus niloticus-in captivity, Kwena Gardens, Sun City J. Marais

both mature and immature individuals. Because some of the counts were done by helicopter, it can safely be assumed that the figure underestimated the number of mature adults. Recently, there were substantial numbers of adult deaths in the Kruger National Park as a result of water pollution-at least 200 deaths (Ferreira & Pienaar 2011) but possibly double that number (D. Pienaar pers. comm.). There were also large-scale adult deaths in Loskop Dam in 2005 and 2007 (Botha et al. 2011; R.F. Fergusson pers. comm.). Blake & Jacobsen (1992) estimated the Ndumo Game Reserve population at 1 250 individuals but a 2010 aerial count revealed that there are about 600 crocodiles over 1 m in length remaining in this reserve, a decrease of over 50% (Matthews 1994; P. Caverley pers. obs.). This was caused mainly by habitat transformation, destruction of the Pongola floodplain and persecution (P. Caverley pers. comm.). There have been severe population declines in unfenced areas such as Lake Sibaya, where the 1970 adult population was estimated at a maximum of 374 individuals and in June 2009 only three adults were counted (X. Combrink pers. comm.). The Kosi Bay population has experienced an estimated decline in adult crocodiles of 93% in 19 years (Combrink et al. 2011). There has also been increased poaching of crocodiles between Ndumo Game Reserve and Mozambique recently, following the removal of a large portion of the reserve's fence (X. Combrink pers. comm.). The St Lucia population, regarded as the second largest population in South Africa, has declined by 32% in seven years, largely as a result of hydrological changes to the lake affecting freshwater inflow, habitat transformation and destruction, as well as persecution (X. Combrink pers. comm.). There is little evidence that neighbouring populations are well protected. In fact, the Okavango population is now threatened (Bishop et al. 2009) and the population in the middle Zambezi region is declining (K.M. Wallace et al. in prep.). It is probable that C. niloticus in the Atlas region has experienced a population reduction of >30% over three generations (estimated at about 144

years), and the species is considered regionally Vulnerable on the basis of direct observations [A2a] and a decline in habitat quantity and quality [A2c]. Populations in many parts of Mozambique and Zimbabwe (the only adjacent potential source populations for immigration) are under threat from significant habitat degradation, poaching, and lack of conservation interest (Ferguson 2010; R. Ferguson pers. comm.; X. Combrink pers. comm.). There is currently some uncertainty as to whether viable populations of crocodiles exist within Mozambique's protected areas (Dunham *et al.* 2010). Immigration is likely to be minimal and will probably decrease in future. In the long run these adjacent populations will probably become sinks rather than sources. The regional classification of Vulnerable is therefore not downgraded.

Threats: The main threat is degradation of aquatic habitat. This includes degradation of lakes, wetlands, dams, rivers, and estuaries, construction of dams in rivers, water contamination, and removal of water for agricultural and industrial uses. Illegal sand mining and urbanisation also result in habitat destruction. Other threats include persecution by humans (killing of adult crocodiles and destruction of nests), negative effects of invasive vegetation, fire, over-fishing with gill nets, crop encroachment, harvesting for the medicine market, and accidental poisoning that may be associated with leaching of fertilisers into water sources.

Conservation measures: Improve effectiveness of the various management regimes and protective legislation that are already in place. Educate local communities about the species. Review its habitat status, population numbers and range. Recent deaths of adult animals in Loskop Dam, Kruger National Park (especially the Olifants River) and Ndumo Game Reserve have been observed and reported in the popular media, and require further investigation, as does the status of the drought-stricken population at St Lucia.

CHAPTER 9

Family Gekkonidae

Aaron M. Bauer, William R. Branch, Michael F. Bates & Richard C. Boycott

The Gekkonidae is one of seven gekkotan lizard families (Han et al. 2004; Gamble et al. 2008a,b) and the only one occurring in southern Africa. Gekkonids comprise approximately 933 species in 56 genera (Uetz 2012) and are widely distributed globally, from Mediterranean Europe through Central Asia to Japan and south throughout Africa, tropical Asia and Australia. In the New World, they are restricted to portions of tropical South America and the West Indies. These lizards also occur on most tropical and subtropical Indo-Pacific islands, and a small number of highly vagile species have been established anthropogenically in parts of both North and South America that are outside the natural range of the family (Lever 2003). In Africa, gekkonids are particularly diverse and species-rich in the Horn of Africa and in southwestern Africa (Namibia and the Northern Cape Province of South Africa) (FitzSimons 1943; Loveridge 1947; Bauer 1993). Within the Atlas region there are 70 recognised species (five with two subspecies each, one with three subspecies) of gekkonids in 12 genera. New taxa continue to be described and synonyms revived. In the Atlas region, three genera (Afrogecko, Cryptactites and Goggia) have been erected and 18 species described or revived from synonomy within the last 20-odd years. Over a dozen additional species are in the process of being described (e.g. A.M. Bauer et al. unpubl. data; M.F. Bates & W.R. Branch in prep.), and the content and generic assignment of species within Afrogecko is being re-appraised (A.M. Bauer et al. unpubl. data).

Geckos occupy the entire *Atlas* region but diversity is greatest in areas providing rocky substrates, where the species-rich and largely rupicolous genera *Pachydactylus* and *Afroedura* occur (Bauer 2000 [1999]). However, terrestrial gekkonids occur from coastal sands to sandveld and bushveld, to the dunes of the Namib and Kalahari, and even in seasonally flooded estuarine vegetation (*Cryptactites*). Some scansorial geckos occur on trees or anthropogenic structures such as buildings. In the *Atlas* region, as in most of their global range, most gekkonids are nocturnal. However, there are two diurnal lineages in the region, namely *Lygodactylus* and *Phelsuma*.

Most geckos feed chiefly on arthropods, but small vertebrate prey is occasionally taken by larger species (Pianka & Huey 1978). All species are oviparous and usually produce 2–3 clutches per year, each clutch consisting of two (rarely one) calcareous-shelled eggs (Werner 1972). Among the more distinctive biological features of gekkonids are their specialised adhesive toepads. Among South African taxa these are absent only in *Ptenopus* and some species of *Pachydactylus* and *Chondrodactylus*, which posses pedal modifications for burrowing (Russell 1972, 1976; Haacke 1976a; Lamb & Bauer 2006). Gekkonids are also the most vocal of southern African lizards, with *Ptenopus garrulus* having a particularly loud and distinctive call (Haacke 1969).

Although many regional gekkonids have quite restricted ranges and limited dispersal capabilities, most occur in areas that are not subject to intensive anthropogenic or natural threats. As a consequence, most species are classified as Least Concern. However, in the Atlas region one species, Cryptactites peringueyi, is considered globally Critically Endangered due to its restricted distribution and threats to its sensitive coastal strand habitat. Four taxa (Afroedura multiporis multiporis, Homopholis mulleri, Lygodactylus methueni, Pachydactylus goodi) are classed as Vulnerable and seven taxa (Afroedura hawequensis, A. major, Goggia braacki, G. gemmula, Lygodactylus graniticolus, L. ocellatus soutpansbergensis, L. waterbergensis) are considered Near Threatened. Major threats to these species include mining activities and urbanisation. Two subspecies of Lygodactylus nigropunctatus with small ranges are considered Data Deficient because of taxonomic uncertainty. Although of no conservation concern globally, Pachydactylus rangei is considered regionally Critically Endangered, mainly due to habitat destruction. Two species previously classified as Restricted in the 1988 Red Data Book (Branch 1988a), Phelsuma ocellata (considered Near Threatened by the IUCN 2009) and Afroedura multiporus haackei, are now considered Least Concern. Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis has a peripheral distribution in the Atlas region and was therefore not assessed.

Genus Afroedura Loveridge, 1944—African flat geckos

The genus *Afroedura* contains 15 recognised species (18 species and subspecies) distributed from southern Angola and Zimbabwe south to the Cape provinces of South Africa (Loveridge 1947; Branch 1998). Thirteen species (one with two subspecies) occur in the *Atlas* region, mostly in rocky montane habitats. Twelve species and subspecies are strictly endemic. *Afroedura* is particularly diverse in the Eastern Cape and eastern Free State, and in Mpumalanga and eastern Limpopo, where more than a dozen new

Afroedura africana namaquensis (FitzSimons, 1938) NAMAQUA FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The relationship between the three subspecies of *Afroedura africana* should be investigated using molecular techniques.

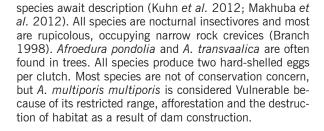
Distribution: Endemic to the western part of the Northern Cape, South Africa (Branch 1998). Actual distribution is probably much greater than existing records indicate.

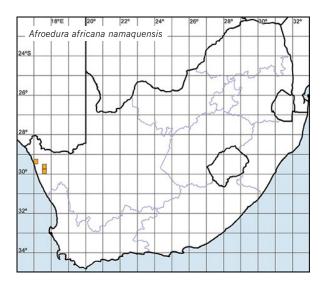
Habitat: Occurs in association with exfoliating granite boulders at elevations of about 200–900 m (Branch 1998).

Biome: Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Has restricted EOO and AOO, but no major extrinsic threats exist.

Conservation measures: None recommended.







Afroedura africana namaquensis-near Kommagas, NC

J. Visser

Afroedura amatolica (Hewitt, 1925) AMATOLA FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Synonymised with *Afroedura nivaria* by Loveridge (1947). Some earlier references to *A. amatolica* may be found under *A. nivaria* (e.g. Wermuth 1965). An examination of phylogenetic relationships among *Afroedura* species, and species boundaries within the genus, is in progress (A.M. Bauer, N.H.G. Jacobsen & T.R. Jackman in prep.).

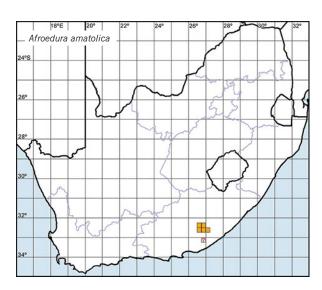
Distribution: Endemic to the Amatola Region of the Eastern Cape, South Africa. The relationship of the isolated southern record (Double Drift, 3326BB) to a probable new species from the eastern Cape Fold Mountains (e.g. Cunningham *et al.* 2003) is under investigation (W.R. Branch pers. comm.).

Habitat: Rupicolous, occurring in mesic rocky habitats in grassland and thicket (Branch 1998), from elevations of 1 400 to 1 830 m.

Bioregion: Drakensberg Grassland; Albany Thicket; Sub-Escarpment Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Has a relatively restricted distribution but is common where found and not subject to widespread threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Afroedura amatolica-Hogsback, EC

M.F. Bates

Afroedura halli (Hewitt, 1935) HALL'S FLAT GECKO

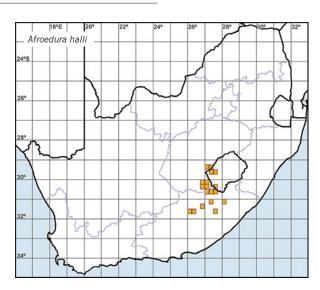
Michael F. Bates & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Afroedura halli was regarded as a subspecies of *A. karroica* (Loveridge 1947; Wermuth 1965), but later considered a valid species (Bates 1996b; Branch 1998). The *A. nivaria* species complex (including *A. halli*) is being revised on the basis of morphological data (M.F. Bates & W.R. Branch in prep.) and the taxonomic status of isolated populations in the eastern and southeastern Free State is also being investigated by means of a molecular analysis (B.G. Makhubo, K.A. Tolley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to western Lesotho and adjacent areas in the South African provinces of Free State and Eastern Cape, where it occurs at or near the tops of mountains, including inselbergs, and on parts of the southern Drakensberg (Bates 1989, 1996a,b; Branch 1998). Bourquin (2004) considered this species to occur in the Drakensberg of western KwaZulu-Natal, apparently based on FitzSimons' (1943) Giant's Castle record. However, this record is in reference to a specimen of *A. nivaria* with the rostral excluded from the nostrils (i.e. *A. halli*-like) (M.F. Bates & W.R. Branch in prep.).



Habitat: Found only on sandstone cliffs and boulders at or near the summits of mountains (1 750–2 200 m), where it shelters in very narrow crevices. These crevices may be horizontal spaces between thin, sheet-like flakes on the roofs of overhangs, spaces between large slabs set against cliff faces, or small exfoliating flakes at the base of cliffs or on boulders (Bates 1996b).

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Drakensberg Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland.

Assessment rationale: A fairly restricted species that occurs mainly as a series of isolated montane populations that are largely inaccessible, but within suitable habitat it may be quite common (Bates 1996b).

Conservation measures: Re-assess the conservation status of any isolated populations that may prove to be valid species.



Afroedura halli-Stormberg, 24 km W of Dordrecht, EC

M.F. Bates

Afroedura hawequensis Mouton & Mostert, 1985 HAWEQUA FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the Du Toitskloof and Limietberg mountains in the southwestern portion of the Western Cape, South Africa.

EOO: 2 010 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 1 307 km² (confidence: medium).

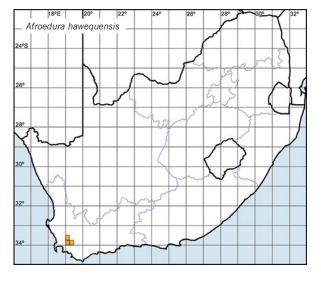
Habitat: Occurs in mesic habitats with sandstone boulders and outcrops in fynbos, at elevations of 1 100-1 400 m (Mouton & Mostert 1985).

Vegetation type: FFs 10 Hawequas Sandstone Fynbos; FFs 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Locally abundant within several protected areas (Mouton et al. 1987), but occurs in a fireprone habitat where regular fires may partially deplete its insect prey source. It meets some but not all threat catego-



Afroedura hawequensis-Limietberg near Bain's Kloof Pass, WC A.L. de Villiers





Afroedura hawequensis-Limietberg, WC

S. Nielsen

ry criteria (has a restricted range with EOO <5 000 km², AOO <2 000 km², and occurs at only five locations) and can therefore be considered Near Threatened. A review of the potential responses of terrestrial biodiversity in southern Africa to anthropogenic climate change (Midgley & Thuiller 2011), mediated in part by changes in fire regime and invasion (Chown 2010), projects significant biodiversity loss for the winter rainfall region of the *Atlas* area.

Afroedura karroica (Hewitt, 1925) KAROO FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Afroedura halli (South Africa and Lesotho) and *A. bogerti* (Angola and extreme northwestern Namibia) were previously regarded as subspecies of *A. karroica* (Loveridge 1944a, 1947; Wermuth 1965). An examination of phylogenetic relationships among *Afroedura* species, and species boundaries within the genus, is in progress (A.M. Bauer, N.H.G. Jacobsen & T.R. Jackman in prep.). The taxonomic status of *A. k. wilmoti* is being investigated (M.F. Bates & W.R. Branch in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring in the central-western Eastern Cape and adjacent regions of the southern Northern Cape and northeastern Western Cape.

Habitat: Occurs in rocky habitats, chiefly in grasslands (Branch 1998) from elevations of 1 300 to 2 200 m.

Biome: Grassland; Nama-Karoo.

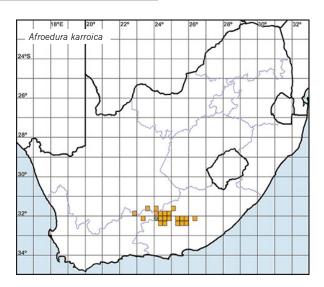
Assessment rationale: Relatively widespread, occurring in protected areas and not subject to any major extrinsic threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

These concerns support the Near Threatened classification.

Threats: Has a limited distribution and probably has limited dispersal capabilities. Afforestation and frequent veld fires might be localised threats (Mouton 1988a).

Conservation measures: Monitor the frequency and severity of fires.





Afroedura karroica—Asante Sana, Sneeuberg Mtns, EC

W. Conradie

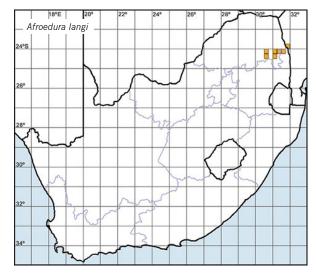
Afroedura langi (FitzSimons, 1930) LANG'S FLAT GECKO; LOWVELD FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Formerly considered a subspecies of *Afroedura pondolia* (e.g. Onderstall 1984) but returned to full species status by Jacobsen (1989). Jacobsen (1989, 1992) recognised and described, but did not formally name, eight new members of the *A. langi* group occurring in the former Transvaal Province of South Africa. These were given the manuscript names 'Soutpansberg', 'Waterberg', 'Lillie', 'Waterpoort', 'Tshipise', 'Shinokwen', 'Matlala' and 'Leolo', after their areas of occurrence. Formal description and molecular phylogenetic analysis of these species is in progress (A.M. Bauer, N.H.G. Jacob-



sen & T.R. Jackman in prep.) and their distributions are not shown on the map.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring in South Africa in southeastern Limpopo and northeastern Mpumalanga, and immediately adjacent in Mozambique (Visser 1984a; Jacobsen 1989).

Habitat: Occurs in Lowveld savanna in rock outcrops that provide crevices for retreat, at elevations of 250–300 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Vegetation type: SVI 3 Granite Lowveld; SVmp 7 Phalaborwa-Timbavati Mopaneveld; SVI 15 Northern Lebombo Bushveld; SVmp 4 Mopane Basalt Shrubland.

Assessment rationale: Has a relatively restricted distribution, but is not subject to any major threats and occurs in several protected areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Afroedura langi-Tsere River, Kruger NP, LIMP

W.D. Haacke

Afroedura major Onderstall, 1984

SWAZI FLAT GECKO; GIANT SWAZI FLAT GECKO Richard C. Boycott

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Described by Onderstall (1984) as a subspecies of *Afroedura pondolia*. The taxon's specific status was first recognised by Branch (1998) and this has been followed by subsequent authors (Monadjem *et al.* 2003; Boycott *et al.* 2007).

Distribution: Endemic to Swaziland, where it is restricted to the highveld and middleveld regions (Boycott 1992a). It occurs along the Nkomati, Malolotja, Black Mbuluzi and Little Usutu Rivers in western Swaziland.

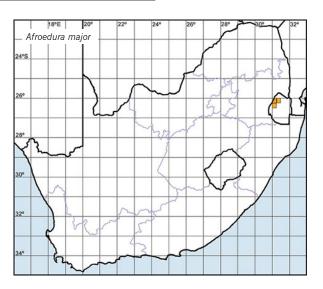
EOO: 697 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 693 km² (confidence: high).

Habitat: Found in mountainous terrain, favouring horizontal cracks and overhanging rock ledges along mediumsized and large rivers in woodland and grassland (Monadjem *et al.* 2003), and semi-dark caves in boulder outcrops away from rivers (pers. obs.).

Vegetation type: SVI 14 Swaziland Sour Bushveld; Gm 16 KaNgwane Montane Grassland (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted EOO and AOO (less than the Endangered and Vulnerable thresholds, respectively [B1+2]) but fragmentation is slight, there are no extreme fluctuations and the species is fairly abundant at some sites. However, there has been a presumed reduction in population size and extent of occurrence [B1b(i,iii,v)+2b(i,iii,v)] as a result of substantial loss of habitat in the Nkomati River valley due to inundation of the Maguga Dam. The species is thus regarded as Near Threatened and was also listed as such in the Swaziland Red Data Book (Monadjem *et al.* 2003).

Threats: Habitat fragmentation has occurred in one of the four locations, namely the Nkomati basin, as a consequence of inundation by the Maguga Dam. Approximately 16 km of suitable habitat along the Nkomati River was lost (Monadjem *et al.* 2003). Because there are no more





Afroedura major-Matenga Falls, Swaziland

W.D. Haacke

dams proposed for the basins in which the species occurs, future threats are unlikely.

Conservation measures: Monadjem *et al.* (2003) recommended that the Nkomati River valley population be monitored after inundation. Future research should be directed towards the species' biology and ecology.

Afroedura marleyi (FitzSimons, 1930) MARLEY'S FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Formerly considered a subspecies of *Afroedura pondolia* (e.g. Onderstall 1984), but since elevated to specific status (Branch 1998).

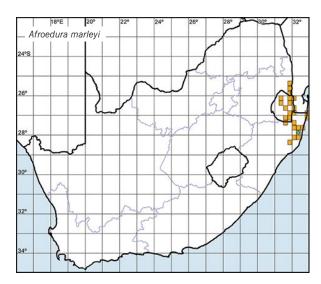
Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region, occurring in South Africa and Swaziland, but probably also southern Mozambique (Branch 1998). In South Africa it occurs in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal and the extreme eastern portion of Mpumalanga (Jacobsen 1989; Bourquin 2004).

Habitat: Arboreal or rupicolous, occurring in mesic habitats from coastal forests to savanna. Found at elevations of 0–700 m (Jacobsen 1989; Bourquin 2004).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.



Afroedura marleyi, adult-Manyiseni area, Lebombo Mtns, KZN M. Burger



Assessment rationale: Relatively widespread and common in the varied habitats occupied. Potential major threats are localised.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Afroedura marleyi, juvenile—Manyiseni area, Lebombo Mtns, KZN M. Burger

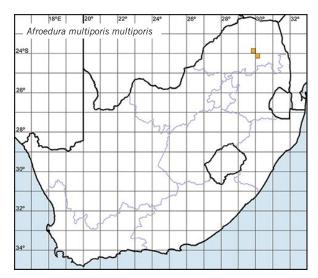
Afroedura multiporis multiporis (Hewitt, 1925) WOODBUSH FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Vulnerable A2c

Endemic

Taxonomy: Relationships among members of the *Afroedura pondolia* group require further investigation, as do species boundaries of the named species and subspecies, including *A. multiporis multiporis*. Jacobsen (1989) referred to this taxon as *A. haackei multiporis*, and later as *A. m. multiporus* (Jacobsen 1992b). Jacobsen (1989, 1992b) described, but did not formally name, two additional members of the *Afroedura multiporis* complex, i.e. *A. multiporis* 'Abel Erasmus' and *A. multiporis* 'Lebombo'. A molecular phylogenetic analysis of *Afroedura* and formal descriptions of these species are in progress (A.M. Bauer, N.H.G. Jacobsen & T.R. Jackman in prep.). The geographical ranges of these undescribed taxa are not shown on the map.



Distribution: Endemic to the central portion of Limpopo, South Africa.

EOO: 1 412 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 565 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found in areas of granite or quartzite cliffs and boulders, at elevations of 1 400–1 800 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Vegetation type: SVcb 24 Mamabolo Mountain Bushveld; Gm 25 Woodbush Granite Grassland; SVcb 25 Poung Dolomite Mountain Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Irreversible population reduction of >30% in the past, inferred from a reduction of at least one-third of the AOO in association with the construction of Ebenezer Dam [A2c]. Furthermore, this taxon has a highly restricted range (the estimated AOO is close to the Endangered threshold and might be an overestimate). It is thus regarded as Vulnerable.

Threats: Has relatively limited dispersal capabilities and a restricted range. May be locally affected by afforestation (Jacobsen 1988a). The construction of the Ebenezer Dam flooded an area containing a population of this taxon (Onderstall 1984).

Conservation measures: Conduct further taxonomic research. Investigate population size, range and habitat status. Expand protected areas.



Afroedura multiporis multiporis—Wolkberg, LIMP

J. Marais

Afroedura multiporis haackei Onderstall, 1984 HAACKE'S FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Relationships among members of the *Afroedura pondolia* group require further investigation. Taxon boundaries, including those of *A. multiporis haackei*, should also be investigated. Jacobsen (1989) referred to this taxon as *A. haackei haackei*, but it was referred to as *A. m. haackei* by Jacobsen (1992b).

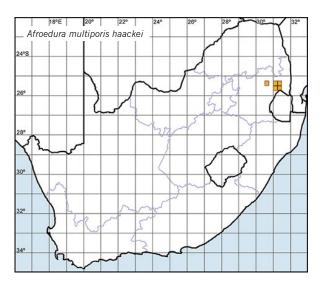
Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region, occurring in the Lowveld of Mpumalanga, South Africa.

Habitat: Found in areas with granite boulders in wellwooded Lowveld, and on buildings offering similar microhabitats. It occurs at elevations of 500–1 100 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted EOO (4 050 km²) but is locally abundant and occurs within protected areas. Relevant extrinsic threats are localised.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Afroedura multiporis haackei—about 28 km WNW of Nelspruit, MPM M. Burger

Afroedura nivaria (Boulenger, 1894) DRAKENSBERG FLAT GECKO; MOUNTAIN FLAT GECKO

Michael F. Bates & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Afroedura amatolica was synonymised with A. nivaria by Loveridge (1947), and some earlier references to A. nivaria may refer to this species. The A. nivaria species complex (including A. amatolica, A. halli, A. karroica and A. tembulica) is being revised on the basis of morphological data (M.F. Bates & W.R. Branch in prep.) and the taxonomic status of isolated populations in the eastern Free State and Eastern Cape is also being investigated by means of a molecular analysis (B.G. Makhubo, K.A. Tolley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to the South African provinces of KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004) and Free State (De Waal 1978; Bates 1996a) where it is restricted to the Drakensberg and its outliers. It may also occur in Lesotho.

Habitat: Found under rock flakes and in very narrow crevices on sandstone cliffs, outcrops and boulders, at elevations of 1 370–3 000 m (De Waal 1978; Bourquin 2004; M.F. Bates unpubl. data).

Bioregion: Drakensberg Grassland; Mesic Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Although the AOO is small (<2 000 km² [B2]) and there are at least a few isolated subpopulations (e.g. Silasberg 2828BC: Bates 1996a), this species is fairly widespread and locally abundant in a mountainous area where it is not generally threatened by anthropogenic activities.

Conservation measures: Re-assess the conservation status of any isolated populations that may prove to be valid species (M.F. Bates & W.R. Branch in prep.; B.G. Makhubo, K.A. Tolley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

Afroedura pondolia (Hewitt, 1925) PONDO FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

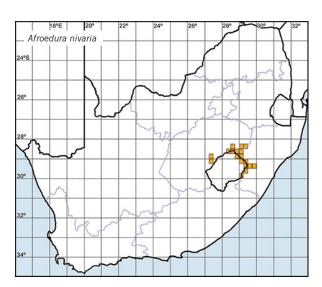
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Hewitt (1925) described *Afroedura multiporis* as a subspecies of *A. pondolia* and Loveridge (1947) subsequently considered *A. marleyi* as another subspecies of *A. pondolia*. Jacobsen (1989, 1992b) recognised and described, but did not formally name, two additional members of the *A. pondolia* complex, *A. p.* 'Godlwayo' and *A. p.* 'Maripi'. Formal description and molecular phylogenetic analysis of these species is in progress (A.M. Bauer, N.H.G. Jacobsen & T.R. Jackman in prep.); their distributions are not indicated on the map below.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring from the eastern parts of the Eastern Cape to central KwaZulu-Na-tal.

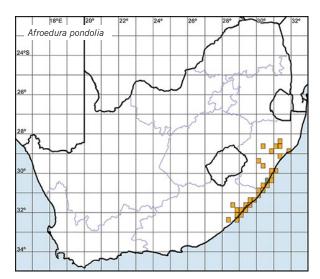
Habitat: Rupicolous, occurring on rock outcrops and cliffs in a variety of wooded habitats (Branch 1998; Bourquin 2004) at elevations of 0–900 m. Also found on trees in





Afroedura nivaria-Royal Natal NP, KZN

W.D. Haacke



and around Durban (Alexander 1990; J. Marais pers. comm.).

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a relatively wide range and is common in most areas. May be locally threatened by land conversion, but can occur commensally with humans. Reported to be displaced by *Hemidactylus mabouia* in coastal areas (Bourquin 1987; Alexander 1990; Branch 1998), but this threat is localised.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Afroedura pondolia—Durban, KZN

J. Marais

Afroedura tembulica (Hewitt, 1926) TEMBU FLAT GECKO; TEMBO FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: An examination of phylogenetic relationships among *Afroedura* species, and of species boundaries within the genus, is in progress (A.M. Bauer, N.H.G. Jacobsen & T.R. Jackman in prep.).

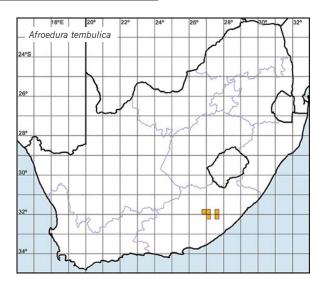
Distribution: Endemic to the Queenstown region of the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

Habitat: Rupicolous, occurring in mesic rocky habitats in grassland (Branch 1998) at elevations of 1 150–1 800 m.

Vegetation type: Gs 10 Drakensberg Foothill Moist Grassland; Gs 15 Tsomo Grassland; Gs 16 Queenstown Thornveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but appears to lack major extrinsic threats. Nevertheless, it should be noted that parts of the range are heavily overgrazed by livestock, especially goats (M.F. Bates pers. obs.), and this may impact on the abundance of insect prey.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Afroedura tembulica—Indwe, EC

W.R. Branch

Afroedura transvaalica (Hewitt, 1925) ZIMBABWE FLAT GECKO; TRANSVAAL FLAT GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of the various disjunct populations of this species should be investigated. *Afroe-dura loveridgei* was formerly considered as a subspecies of *A. transvaalica* (Onderstall 1984) but has since been elevated to specific status (Branch 1998).

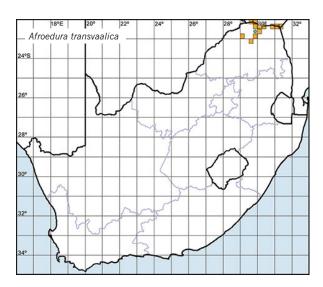
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Distributed in several disjunct populations across Zimbabwe (Onderstall 1984), the southernmost of which is contiguous with northern Limpopo Province, South Africa. There is at least one record from central Mozambique, adjacent to the Zimbabwean border (Onderstall 1984; Jacobsen 1989). It may occur in eastern Botswana (Auerbach 1987).

Habitat: Rupicolous, found in areas of granite and sandstone boulders and outcrops in mesic savanna (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). Occurs at elevations of about 500–1 300 m. Also found on trees.

Bioregion: Mopane; Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Afroedura transvaalica-Mapungubwe, LIMP

M. Burger

Genus Afrogecko Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—African leaf-toed geckos

gensis).

The genus *Afrogecko* currently contains four species of leaf-toed geckos, three of which were previously included in the genus *Phyllodactylus* (Bauer *et al.* 1997). It is endemic to southwestern Africa, with two species (*A. porphyreus, A. swartbergensis*) endemic to the *Atlas* region. The other two species (*A. ansorgii* and the spectacular and newly described *A. plumicaudatus*) are restricted to southwestern Angola (Haacke 2008). New research indicates that *Afrogecko* is non-monophyletic and *A. swart*-

Afrogecko porphyreus (Daudin, 1802) MARBLED LEAF-TOED GECKO; MARBLED AFRICAN LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Hewitt (1935, 1937c) described two isolated subspecies: *Phyllodactylus porphyreus cronwrighti* from Cape St Francis in the Eastern Cape, and *P. p. namaquensis* from Bitterfontein, Little Namaqualand. Loveridge (1947) dismissed *P. p. cronwrighti* but continued to recognise the northern subspecies, *P. p. namaquensis*. However, no additional Namaqualand material has become available. Neither subspecies is currently recognised (e.g. Branch 1998) but substantial genetic divergence within populations from the Cape Fold Mountains has been noted and this provisionally supports the recognition of *P. p. cronwrighti* and a possible new taxon on the Cape Peninsula (K. Whitaker unpubl. data).

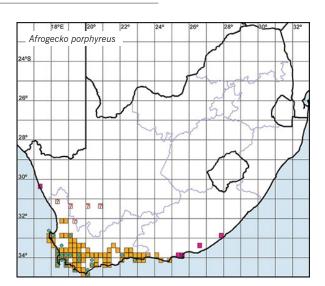
Distribution: Naturally endemic to the Cape Fold Mountain region of the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, but its commensal habits have resulted in numerous translocations (e.g. Port Elizabeth, Grahamstown, East London, and numerous offshore islands on the West Coast of South Africa and Namibia, as well as St Helena in the mid-Atlantic Ocean; Branch 1991). A number of unsupported records from inland areas of Namaqualand, including Bitterfontein (PEM), Nieuwoudtville (SAM), and QDGCs 3219AB, 3120AC and 3120BD (Visser 1984b) are plotted on the map as questionable. No recent collections or VM observations confirm these localities, which may represent translocations.

Habitat: Nocturnal, occupying moist habitats where it shelters under tree bark, exfoliating rock flakes and fissures in rock outcrops. Communal; groups may occupy the same shelters. Commensal with humans and common in urban areas (Branch 1998).

Biome: Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Common in the *Atlas* region and tolerant of transformed habitats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



bergensis is to be placed in a new monophyletic genus

(M. Heinicke, J.D. Daza, E. Greenbaum, T.R. Jackman &

A.M. Bauer in prep.). All species are nocturnal and rupi-

colous, with one commensal species (A. porphyreus) that

is readily translocated (Branch 1991, 1998). Both spe-

cies in the Atlas region are classified as Least Concern

as they are either widespread (A. porphyreus) or occur in

mountainous, relatively undisturbed habitat (A. swartber-



Afrogecko porphyreus-Cape Point, WC

W.R. Schmidt



Afrogecko porphyreus-Cape Town, WC

W.R. Branch

Afrogecko swartbergensis (Haacke, 1996) SWARTBERG LEAF-TOED GECKO;

SWARTBERG AFRICAN LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

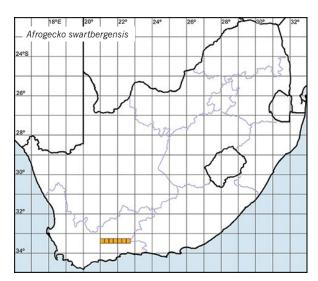
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and restricted to the summit of the Groot and Klein Swartberg ranges. Recent surveys (M.J. Cunningham, K. Henderson, A.A. Turner & M.F. Bates unpubl. data) have extended the range westwards along the Groot Swartberg to Towerkop in the Klein Swartberg. There are only two records to the east of Meiringspoort, although suitable habitat occurs further east along the Groot Swartberg summit.

Habitat: Found in rock cracks and under exfoliating flakes, usually on large, north-facing sandstone outcrops in montane fynbos. Occurs at altitudes of 1 300–2 100 m (Branch & Bauer 1996; M.J. Cunningham unpubl. data).

Bioregion: Western Fynbos-Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range with EOO (1 000 km²) and AOO (500 km²) above the Vulnerable thresholds, but with only minor decline in the quality of habitat. Most of the distribution is in protected areas, although the Swartberg summit area is a tourist region that is increasingly used for hiking and leisure activities, with a concomitant increase in fire risk and some habitat deterioration. Future climate change (increase in temperature) may affect populations.

Conservation measures: Collect data on specific habitat requirements and extent of available habitat, total range and population numbers within suitable habitat, and the effect of fire on habitat and population numbers.





Afroedura swartbergensis—Seweweekspoort Peak, WC

M.F. Bates

Genus Chondrodactylus Peters, 1870—giant geckos

ered threatened.

The genus *Chondrodactylus* was previously considered monotypic (i.e. containing only the species *C. angulifer*) but now contains three additional species (Bauer & Lamb 2005) previously placed in *Pachydactylus*. Preliminary molecular analysis indicates that two (*C. turneri*, *C. fitzsimonsi*) of the four species display substantial genetic divergence that suggests the presence of cryptic taxa

Chondrodactylus angulifer angulifer Peters, 1870

COMMON GIANT GECKO; GIANT GROUND GECKO William R. Branch

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A western subspecies, *Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis*, was described by Haacke (1976b). However, possible sympatry between it and *C. a. angulifer* has been noted in the Sperrgebeit (Branch 1994a) and the Richtersveld (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]), necessitating a modern taxonomic revision.

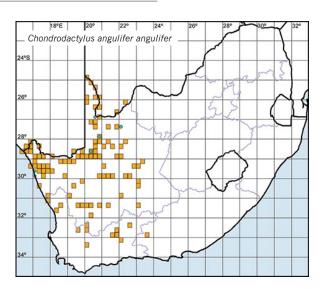
Distribution: Occurs in the western part of South Africa, southern Namibia and southwestern Botswana. In South Africa it is widespread throughout the sandy regions of the western and northwestern Kalahari, Great Namaqualand and Karoo.

Habitat: A large terrestrial gecko that burrows in loosely compacted sand in the sparsely vegetated, sandy valleys of the western arid region (Haacke 1976b).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Desert.

Assessment rationale: The species is widespread, common and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



(Heinz 2011). These are large nocturnal geckos of which

three species (*C. bibronii*, *C. turneri*, *C. fitzsimonsi*) are rupicolous and one species (*C. angulifer*) is terrestrial. Three species (*C. angulifer*, *C. bibronii*, *C. turneri*) are

found in the Atlas region (the other species is C. fitzsi-

monsi from Namibia and Angola) and none are consid-



Chondrodactylus angulifer angulifer, male (back) and female (front)— Augrabies, NC W.R. Branch

Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis Haacke, 1976 NAMIB GIANT GECKO

William R. Branch

Not Applicable

Taxonomy: Possible sympatry between this form and *C. a. angulifer* has been noted in the Sperrgebeit (Branch 1994a) and in the Richtersveld (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]), suggesting that *C. a. namibensis* may deserve specific recognition. Provisional molecular analysis indicates low levels of divergence between the two subspecies of *C. angulifer* (A.M. Bauer unpubl. data). A modern taxonomic revision of the species is recommended.

Distribution: Occurs in Namibia and South Africa (Haacke 1976b; Branch 1998). Found in gravel plains and interdune spaces of the Namib and pro-Namib, mainly north of the Kuiseb River to the vicinity of Orupembe in the western Kaokoveld, and apparently along a narrow coastal strip to Lüderitz. It enters the *Atlas* region only marginally in the northern Richtersveld, its southern range limit.

Habitat: A large terrestrial gecko of sandy habitats in the Namib Desert and Richtersveld.

Biome: Desert; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: This taxon has an extremely limited distribution in the Atlas region (known from only two records in the Richtersveld) and was therefore not assessed. It is widespread and common throughout its global range, with only local and limited threats from mining and agriculture. Within the Atlas region, however, suitable habitat is restricted to the lower Orange River where coastal habitats have been impacted by mining activities (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). Based on criteria D1 and D2, a regional assessment of this species would be Vulnerable, whereas application of criteria B and C could yield an Endangered assessment. However, the only known populations occur in a protected area (Richtersveld National Park) and there is almost certainly unimpeded immigration from Namibia, thus the regional listing would be downgraded.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Chondrodactylus bibronii (A. Smith, 1846)

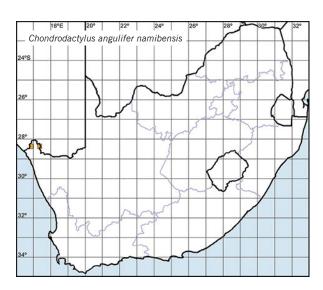
BIBRON'S GECKO; BIBRON'S TUBERCLED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

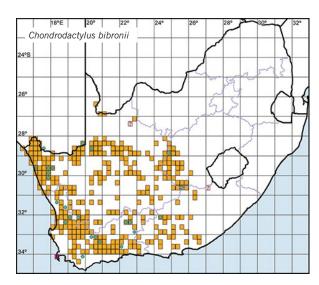
Taxonomy: Previously treated as *Pachydactylus bibronii* (FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998) but transferred to the genus *Chondrodactylus* by Bauer & Lamb (2005). Confusion with *C. turneri* (previously *Pachydactylus laevigatus*) was resolved by Benyr (1995).

Distribution: Occurs in southern Namibia, Botswana and South Africa. In the *Atlas* region it is found in the Northern and Western Cape provinces, extending into the western Free State and western half of the Eastern Cape. It is not known whether the introduced population in the Kommetjie region still persists.





Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis—Walvis Bay, Namibia J. Vissen



GEKKONIDAE

Habitat: A large nocturnal and rupicolous gecko that may form large colonies in rock outcrops throughout the Karoo region. Commensal in farm buildings and outhouses but rarely common in large urban areas (Branch 1998).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Savanna; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Chondrodactylus bibronii—Farm Donkiedam, NW of Loeriesfontein, NC M. Burger

Chondrodactylus turneri (Gray, 1864)

TURNER'S GECKO; TURNER'S TUBERCLED GECKO William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This taxon was previously referred to as *Pachy-dactylus laevigatus laevigatus* (FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998) but was assigned to *P. turneri* by Benyr (1995) and subsequently transferred to the genus *Chondrodactylus* by Bauer & Lamb (2005).

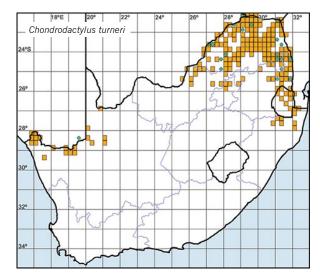
Distribution: A predominantly tropical species ranging from Little Namaqualand and the northwestern parts of the Northern Cape, northwards through Namibia and Botswana into southern Angola, eastwards to Tanzania (with scattered records in Kenya) and southwards to KwaZulu-Natal. It appears to be sympatric with *C. bibronii* in the Northern Cape.

Habitat: A large nocturnal and rupicolous gecko common in the western arid region and extending into savanna habitats in East Africa. It inhabits rock outcrops and old houses (Branch 1998), and hollow trees.

Biome: Savanna; Desert; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Chondrodactylus turneri—Venetia Limpopo NR, LIMP

M. Burger

Genus Colopus Peters, 1869—ground geckos

Colopus was previously considered monotypic (i.e. containing only *C. wahlbergii*), but it now contains an additional species, *C. kochii*, previously placed in *Pachydactylus* (Bauer & Lamb 2005). These are small, delicate,

Colopus wahlbergii wahlbergii Peters, 1869 KALAHARI GROUND GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Haacke (1976c) revised *Colopus wahlbergii* and described a western subspecies, *C. w. furcifer*.

Distribution: Found throughout much of the central Kalahari of Botswana and adjacent Northern Cape, with scattered records in northern Limpopo and southern Zimbabwe (Broadley & Rasmussen 1995; Broadley & Van Daele 2003).

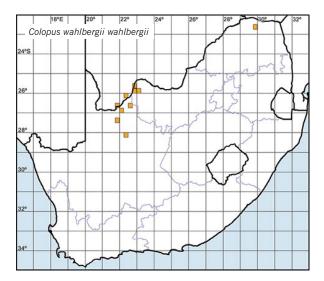
Habitat: A small terrestrial gecko of dune and savanna habitats in the central Kalahari and adjacent regions.

Bioregion: Eastern Kalahari Bushveld; Kalahari Duneveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Common and not threatened throughout its range, much of which falls in semi-arid areas with very low agricultural or urban impact.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

nocturnal and strictly terrestrial geckos with elongate bodies and reduced subdigital lamellae. *Colopus wahlbergii* is the only species that enters the *Atlas* region, where its two subspecies are not considered threatened.





Colopus wahlbergii wahlbergii-near Duvundu, Caprivi, Namibia J. Marais

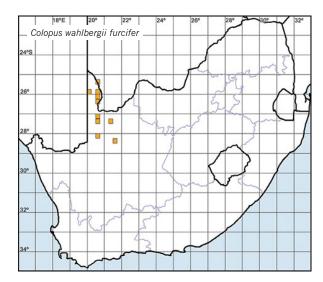
Colopus wahlbergii furcifer Haacke, 1976 STRIPED GROUND GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern



Colopus wahlbergii furcifer—Kameelsleep, Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park, NC W.D. Haacke



Taxonomy: Haacke (1976c) revised *Colopus wahlbergii* and described a western subspecies, *C. w. furcifer*.

Distribution: Occurs in the 'dune area' of the western and southwestern Kalahari of eastern Namibia, extending into the Northern Cape, South Africa.

Habitat: A small terrestrial gecko of dune habitats in the western Kalahari.

Bioregion: Kalahari Duneveld; Bushmanland.

Assessment rationale: Common and not threatened throughout its range. Much of its range within the *Atlas* region is in formally (e.g. Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park) and informally protected areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Genus Cryptactites Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—salt marsh geckos

Cryptactites is a monotypic genus endemic to South Africa. Its only member, *C. peringueyi*, was previously included in the genus *Phyllodactylus* (Bauer *et al.* 1997). These geckos are nocturnal and terrestrial, and are globally unique

Cryptactites peringueyi (Boulenger, 1910) SALT MARSH GECKO;

PÉRINGUEY'S COASTÁL LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Critically Endangered B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii) Endemic

Taxonomy: This taxon was separated from *Phyllodactylus* and placed in the monotypic genus *Cryptactites* by Bauer *et al.* (1997).

Distribution: Endemic to the Eastern Cape and known from only two small populations. The first occurs along 11 km of shoreline immediately west of Cape Recife, from Chelsea Point to Schoenmakerskop. The second population occurs approximately 40 km to the west and is restricted to salt marsh and adjacent strand at the mouth of the Kromme River, extending 10 km inland along the tidal reach of the river (Branch & Bauer 1994; subsequent records) and in habitats adjacent to the coast at Cape St Francis, 8 km south of the Kromme River Mouth (photograph of specimen examined by the author). All known habitats occur within 100 m of the high water mark, and below 30 m.

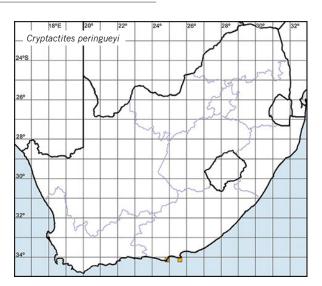
EOO: 40 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 4 km² (confidence: high).

Habitat: Restricted to coastal strand and salt marsh habitat, particularly in association with *Phragmites* reed clumps.

Vegetation type: AZd 3 Cape Seashore Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: This species has an exceptionally small range with EOO <100 km² [B1] and AOO <10 km² [B2]. It has been recorded from two subpopulations, with all records from within 100 m of the high water mark on the shore or along the river bank of the tidal reaches of the Kromme River. With the exception of single specimens from Schoenmakerskop and Cape St Francis (found 25-30 m above the beach), all other localities lie between 0-5 m. The two known subpopulations are far apart and searches in the intervening area (e.g. Kini Bay, Maitland River mouth, Van Stadens River mouth, Gamtoos River mouth, Seekoei River mouth) have all been negative (pers. obs.). The species is vulnerable to changes in coastal sea levels, both stochastic (e.g. tsunamis) and otherwise [one location, B1a+2a]. It has very specific habitat associations and its habitat is declining in extent and quality due to coastal development [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)].

amongst geckos in that they inhabit periodically inundated salt marsh habitat. They have a very restricted distribution, and are considered Critically Endangered due to coastal urban development and predicted sea level changes.





Cryptactites peringueyi—Kromme River Estuary, EC

W.D. Haacke

Threats: Occupies a very restricted range in a naturally fragmented, sensitive habitat (coastal strand) that is subject to numerous threats: coastal development pressures, increasing incidents of fire, potential oil pollution from sea spills, and increasing sea storm flooding associated with climatic changes. The area where it occurs is not protected.

Conservation measures: Perform detailed coastal surveys to re-evaluate the size of the species' range, and develop monitoring protocols that will allow the assessment of threats and of potential habitat loss or transformation. Draft a BMP-S and conduct a PHVA.

Genus Goggia Bauer, Good & Branch, 1997—pygmy geckos

The genus *Goggia* contains eight species of leaf-toed geckos previously included in the genus *Phyllodactylus* (Bauer *et al.* 1997). This genus is almost endemic to South Africa, with the ranges of two species (*G. gemmula*, *G. linea-ta*) extending marginally into adjacent southern Namibia. *Goggia* are mainly dwarf, nocturnal, rupicolous geckos,

with one mainly terrestrial species (*G. lineata*) and one medium-sized species (*G. microlepidota*) (Branch *et al.* 1995a; Bauer *et al.* 1996; Branch & Bauer 1996 [1997]; Branch 1998). Two species have restricted ranges and are of conservation concern: *G. gemmula* (Vulnerable) and *G. braacki* (Near Threatened).

Goggia braacki (Good, Bauer & Branch, 1996) BRAACK'S PYGMY GECKO; BRAACK'S DWARF LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Initially placed in the genus *Phyllodactylus* (Good *et al.* 1996) but transferred to *Goggia* by Bauer *et al.* (1997).

Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa. Restricted to a narrow belt of dolerite rocks and montane grassland on the summit ridge of the Nuweveldberg (Good *et al.* 1996; Branch 1998).

EOO: 125 km^2 (confidence: medium); AOO: 75 km^2 (confidence: medium).

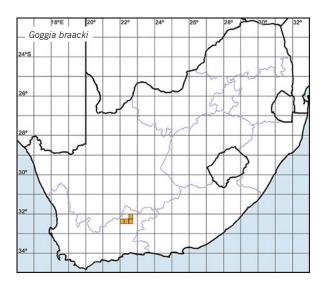
Habitat: Found in rock cracks and beneath exfoliating flakes on dolerite boulders and outcrops in montane grassland (Branch & Braack 1989; Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Upper Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Has a very restricted distribution with EOO and AOO below the Endangered thresholds (<5 000 km² and <500 km² respectively, [B1+2]) and is experiencing a continuing decline in habitat quality [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)] due to increased tourist activity in the Karoo National Park and livestock grazing of montane grassland along the escarpment outside of protected areas. However, there is no habitat fragmentation and number of locations >10. This species is therefore considered Near Threatened.

Threats: Occurs in a narrow habitat strip on the summit of Nuweveldberg that is subject to grazing (some of the habitat is not protected), increased anthropogenic fires and tourist developments.

Conservation measures: A significant part of the range occurs in Karoo National Park, a protected area. Protect critical habitat in the escarpment region from tourist developments and the danger of anthropogenic fires. Survey adjacent areas along the escarpment for the species, and investigate its biology and habitat requirements. Draft a BMP-S.





Goggia braacki—Beaufort West, WC

J. Marais

Goggia essexi (Hewitt, 1925) ESSEX'S PYGMY GECKO:

ESSEX'S DWARF LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Described in the genus *Phyllodactylus* and treated as an eastern subspecies of *P. lineatus* (FitzSimons 1938, 1943; Loveridge 1947), but revived as a full species by Branch *et al.* (1995a) and transferred to the new-ly-erected genus *Goggia* by Bauer *et al.* (1997).

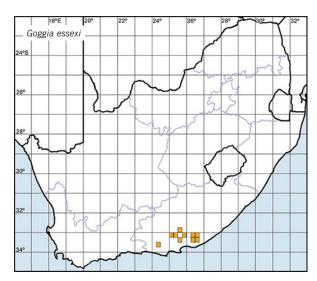
Distribution: Endemic to the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Occurs from near Steytlerville, eastwards along the Suurberg Range to Grahamstown and the Great Fish River, with a single record from Somerset East.

Habitat: Utilises small rock outcrops and exfoliating flakes on shale and sandstone with low vegetation cover (Branch *et al.* 1995).

Bioregion: Albany Thicket; Lower Karoo; Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO <20 000 km²) but is relatively common and found in a number of formally and privately conserved areas. It appears to be tolerant of relatively high grazing pressure in thicket habitat.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Goggia essexi-Steytlerville, EC

W.R. Branch

Goggia gemmula (Bauer, Branch & Good, 1996) RICHTERSVELD PYGMY GECKO:

RICHTERSVELD DWARF LEAF-TOED GECKO William R. Branch

Global: Near Threatened

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Initially placed in the genus *Phyllodactylus* (Bauer *et al.* 1996) but transferred to the newly-erected genus *Goggia* by Bauer *et al.* (1997).

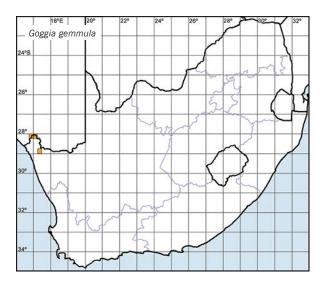
Distribution: Endemic to the Richtersveld, Northern Cape, South Africa and adjacent parts of southern Namibia.

EOO: 4 050 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 405 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found only under exfoliating flakes on small dolerite outcrops in valley bottoms (Bauer *et. al.* 1996; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Bioregion: Gariep Desert; Richtersveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a very restricted distribution (EOO $<5000 \text{ km}^2$, AOO $<500 \text{ km}^2$) with range estimates under the Endangered thresholds, and is experiencing some decline in the extent and quality of habitat



[B1b(iii)+2b(iii)] due to livestock grazing and tourism. However, these are not major threats and the species occurs mainly within the Richtersveld National Park where it is largely protected. Alluvial diamond mining occurs mainly along the Orange River and does not directly affect the habitat of this species. It is considered Near Threatened. **Threats:** Loss and deterioration of habitat has occurred due to overgrazing by livestock, tourism developments in the Richtersveld National Park, and alluvial diamond mining (which affects the general area).

Conservation measures: Initiate studies on the species' biology. Identify core habitat and protect this from mining and tourism developments. Develop a BMP-S.



Goggia gemmula—Richtersveld, NC

W.R. Branch

Goggia hewitti (Branch, Bauer & Good, 1995) HEWITT'S PYGMY GECKO; HEWITT'S DWARF LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Described in the genus *Phyllodactylus* (Branch *et al.* 1995a) but transferred to *Goggia* by Bauer *et al.* (1997).

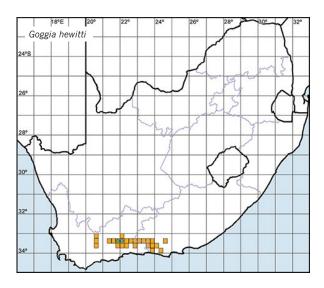
Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region in the central Cape Fold Mountains, from the Swartberg south through the Little Karoo to the Langeberg and Outeniekwaberg mountains.

Habitat: Inhabits small rock outcrops and exfoliating flakes on shale and sandstone outcrops with low vegetation cover (Branch 1990a; Branch & Bauer 1995).

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Has a relatively restricted range but remains fairly common even in areas subject to livestock grazing. Found in a number of formally and privately conserved areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Goggia hewitti—Humansdorp, EC

W.R. Branch

Goggia hexapora (Branch, Bauer & Good, 1995) CEDERBERG PYGMY GECKO;

CEDERBERG DWARF LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Initially described in the genus *Phyllodactylus* (Branch *et al.* 1995a) but transferred to *Goggia* by Bauer *et al.* (1997).

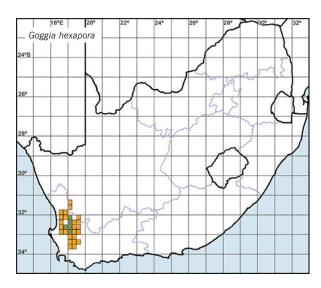
Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Largely restricted to the Western Cape, with a few records in the adjacent Northern Cape. Occurs from the Bokkeveldberg Mountains in the north through the Cederberg, Kouebokkeveldberg and Skurweberge to Ceres, and to Piketberg in the west.

Habitat: Inhabits small rock outcrops and exfoliating flakes on shale and sandstone with low vegetation cover (Branch *et al.* 1995a).

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Common, with a relatively wide distribution.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Goggia hexapora—Farm Traveller's Rest, Cederberg, WC

M. Burger

Goggia lineata (Gray, 1838) STRIPED PYGMY GECKO; STRIPED DWARF LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

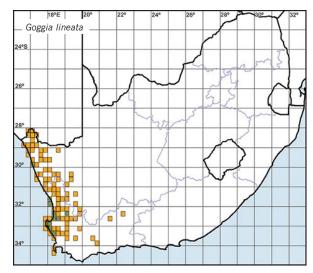
Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Described in the genus *Phyllodactylus* but later transferred to *Goggia* (Bauer *et al.* 1997). Many specimens previously referred to this species (e.g. FitzSimons 1943) have subsequently been transferred to other species (Branch *et al.* 1995a).



Goggia lineata-just N of Noup, NC

G.J. Alexander



Distribution: Largely restricted to South Africa, with isolated populations in the Sperrgebiet (Aurusberg) and Karasburg district of southern Namibia (Branch 1994a). In South Africa the distribution includes the western parts of the Northern and Western Cape provinces, where it extends into the western parts of the Little Karoo. Records from the foothills of the Nuweveldberg Mountain (Karoo National Park, Branch & Braack 1989) might represent an isolated population. It has also been recorded from offshore islands (Schaapen and Meeuw) near Saldanha (Branch 1991).

Habitat: Inhabits small rock outcrops and rock piles with low vegetation cover, and dead *Aloe* and *Crassula* stems (Branch *et al.* 1995a).

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, and relatively tolerant of low-level agricultural and urban development.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Goggia lineata-near Lambert's Bay, NC

J. Marais

Goggia microlepidota (FitzSimons, 1939) SMALL-SCALED GECKO:

SMALL-SCALED LEAF-TOED GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Initially placed in the genus *Phyllodactylus* (FitzSimons 1939, 1943) but transferred to *Goggia* by Bauer *et al.* (1997).

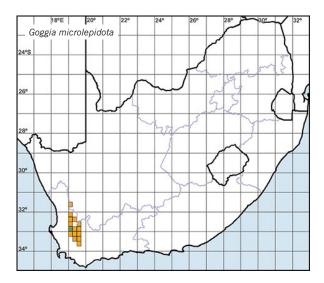
Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa, inhabiting the northern Cape Fold Mountains, from Kliphuis to Heuningvlei in the Cederberg in the north, and to Keeromsberg in the south. The northernmost record (3119CA, Visser 1984b) has not been confirmed by vouchers or recent records.

Habitat: Inhabits large rock cracks on extensive rock outcrops in fynbos and transitional vegetation (Branch & Bauer 1996).

Bioregion: Northwest Fynbos; Southern Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: The EOO (9 499 km²) is below the Vulnerable threshold, and the area where it occurs is extensively used for outdoor activities. Although included (as Restricted) in previous regional Red Data Books (McLachlan 1978; Branch 1988a) and considered to be rare, the species is now known to be fairly widely distributed in mostly undisturbed mountainous country. Because of their size and attractiveness, these geckos may be targeted by the pet trade—they prefer large exfoliating rock cracks which are easily destroyed by targeted collecting. However, there is no evidence of range contraction or of major threats that have caused population declines. For the current assessment this species is thus classified as Least Concern.

Conservation measures: Periodically monitor the species' known range, population densities and habitat to detect any declines and threats.





Goggia microlepidota-Witsenberg, WC

A.L. de Villiers

Goggia rupicola (FitzSimons, 1938) NAMAQUA PYGMY GECKO:

NAMAQUALAND DWARF LÉAF-TOED GECKO William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Initially described in the genus *Phyllodactylus* and treated as a northern subspecies of *P. lineatus* (FitzSimons 1938, 1943; Loveridge 1947), but revived as a full species by Branch *et al.* (1995a) and transferred to a new genus (*Goggia*) by Bauer *et al.* (1997).

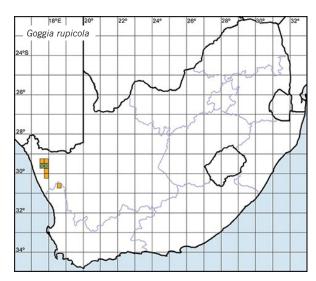
Distribution: Endemic to Namaqualand, South Africa where it occurs in the Kamiesberg and Komaggas Hills, reaching Steinkopf in the north. It is absent from the Richtersveld (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Habitat: Utilises small rock outcrops and exfoliating flakes on rock boulders and bedrock in Succulent Karoo vegetation.

Biome: Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Has a moderate distribution in an area of low agricultural and human impact. Some parts of its habitat have been transformed by livestock overgrazing, but this practice may also have generated some habitat by exposing bedrock.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Goggia rupicola, adult and juvenile-Kliprand, NC

M. Burger

Genus Hemidactylus Oken, 1817-tropical house geckos

Hemidactylus is a large genus distributed widely throughout the Pacific region, southern Europe, Asia, South America, Africa and the Arabian Peninsula. Some commensal species continue to spread through tropical and subtropical regions. The genus contains over 122 species (Uetz 2012), only one (*H. mabouia*) of which occurs in the *Atlas* region. These are medium-sized, nocturnal geckos that oc-

Hemidactylus mabouia (Moreau de Jonnès, 1818) COMMON TROPICAL HOUSE GECKO; MOREAU'S TROPICAL HOUSE GECKO

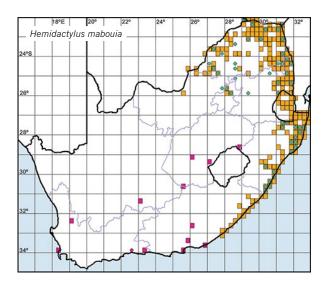
William R. Branch

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Problematic. There is little genetic divergence between specimens throughout most of the species' large range, particularly in the New World, indicating anthropogenic colonisation within the last 500 years (Carranza & Arnold 2006). However, the situation in east and southern Africa is confusing. Vences et al. (2004) noted deep genetic divergence in populations in the western Indian Ocean region and revived H. mercatorius for these populations. A single African specimen from Mozambique was also divergent and they noted that the status of populations in the Indian Ocean coastal region and the subcontinent required more detailed study. Rocha et al. (2005) noted that Hemidactylus from the Gulf of Guinea islands clustered with populations from Madagascar and the Comores, and they also used the name H. mercatorius for these populations (Rocha et al. 2010). They also noted for mainland African H. mabouia that "... multiple cryptic lineages exist within this 'species', and the current taxonomic arrangement is completely inadequate". Provisionally, H. mabouia is retained for populations in the Atlas region, although it should be cautioned that not all anthropogenic translocations within this region necessarily derive from the same source population.

Distribution: The natural distribution in Africa is along the Indian Ocean coastal area from southern Somalia to northern KwaZulu-Natal, and in West Africa from Angola to Liberia and Senegal. The species also occurs naturally along the east coast of South America and in the Antilles. Within the Atlas region the natural range was previously restricted to mesic areas of the northern provinces and Indian Ocean coastal strip south to Maputaland (FitzSimons 1943). Bourquin (1987) noted the expansion of populations along the whole KwaZulu-Natal coast. As it is commensal, its range within the Atlas area has increased due to translocations, mainly to urban areas (pink cells on map reflect further expansion since Bourguin 1987). FitzSimons (1943: 48) dismissed early records from Pretoria (Roux 1907) and Mortimer in the Western Cape (Cott 1934) as 'extremely doubtful' and 'quite unacceptable', respectively. However, both may have reflected very early translocations. This gecko has also been extensively translocated internationally (see review by Kraus 2009), but only in its natural range does it inhabit trees and rock outcrops in woodland.

cur in a wide range of habitats—the genus includes terrestrial, arboreal and rock-living species. Females usually lay a pair of hard-shelled eggs, and some all-female species (e.g. *H. garnotii*) reproduce parthenogenetically (Kluge & Eckhardt 1969). Several species, including *H. mabouia*, have become commensal and are so common that they are considered pests in some urban areas.





Hemidactylus mabouia—Malangane, S Mozambique

Habitat: Mainly found in the Indian Ocean Coastal region but extends into adjacent habitats. Scansorial and found in varied habitats, especially on trees where it shelters under bark (Branch 1998). Readily translocates to urban areas where it occupies buildings (Branch 1998).

J. Marais

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Genus Homopholis Boulenger, 1885-velvet geckos

Homopholis is a small genus consisting of three species of large-bodied African geckos, of which two (*H. mulleri*, *H. wahlbergii*) occur in the *Atlas* region. The third species, *H. fasciata*, occurs in East Africa with a northern subspecies (*H. f. erlangeri*) found in Somalia. Madagascan species previously included in *Homopholis* (e.g. *H. heterolepis*)

are now referred to *Blaesodactylus*, together with a few recently described species (see Greenbaum *et al.* 2007 for a discussion of the convoluted history of these genera). These are large, soft-skinned, nocturnal and mainly arboreal geckos. In the *Atlas* region the endemic *H. mulleri* has a restricted range and is considered Vulnerable.

Homopholis mulleri Visser, 1987 MULLER'S VELVET GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii)

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to Limpopo Province, South Africa, where it is restricted to Mopane Veld around the Soutpansberg.

EOO: 13 500 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 2 564 km² (confidence: medium).

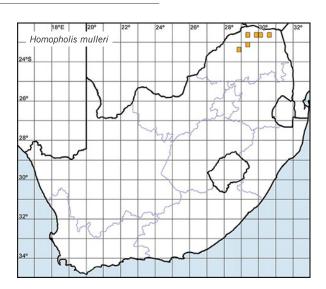
Habitat: Nocturnal, sheltering in holes in Marula (*Sclerocarya birrea* subsp. *caffra*) and Knob-thorn (*Acacia nigrescens*) trees in Mopane Veld (Visser 1987; Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Very poorly known with a restricted range (E00 <5 000 km², A00 <2 000 km²), number of locations <10 [B1a+2a]), and inhabiting specialised habitat subject to loss and degradation due to increasing land transformation for agriculture and urban development [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)].

Threats: Mopane habitat is subject to multiple threats including increased fire events, bush clearance for agricultural use, extraction of mature trees for firewood, wood carving and charcoal production, and open-cast coal mining.

Conservation measures: Obtain detailed habitat and distribution data, and basic biological data. Assess the species' possible dependence on mature Mopane Trees (*Colophospermum mopane*), because of the threats to Mopane habitat from fire, wood utilisation and land clearance for agricultural use. Develop a BMP-S.





Homopholis mulleri—Makgabeng area, W of Senwabawana (Bochum), LIMP M. Burger

Homopholis wahlbergii (A. Smith, 1849) WAHLBERG'S VELVET GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

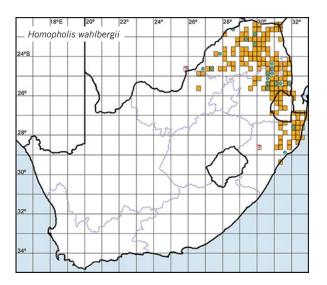
Taxonomy: Greenbaum et al. (2007) noted that Boulenger's (1885) amendment of the species name to 'wahlbergii', the name used predominately in subsequent literature, was unjustified. However, according to Ulber (1999), this is incorrect as Smith (1849) included a separate publisher's errata slip which indicated that 'walbergii' should be corrected to 'wahlbergii' wherever it appeared. Such an inserted slip, under Article 32.5.1.1 of the ICZN (1999), is clear evidence of an inadvertent error that must be corrected. The absence of the errata slip from some copies of Smith's work has contributed to confusion on this point. Greenbaum et al. (2007) found significant genetic divergence in a specimen from northern Limpopo and this should be investigated. Loveridge's (1944b) name Homopholis wahlbergii arnoldi (type locality: Mahalapsi River, Botswana), with paratypes from the Zimbabwean localities of Birchenough Bridge, Bulawayo and World's View, may be applicable to this specimen.

Distribution: Distributed from Mozambique (south of the Zambezi River) to KwaZulu-Natal in the east, extending westwards through central and southern Zimbabwe, and Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces in South Africa, and along the eastern border of Botswana to Gaborone. An old record of a specimen (TM 1534) collected in 1919 at Malahopye (plotted at 2526DA) is unsupported by modern records and may represent a translocation. Bourquin's



Homopholis wahlbergii-Schoemanskloof region, MPM

M. Burger



(2004) record (2830CA) in central KwaZulu-Natal is outside the species' expected range and requires confirmation.

Habitat: Mainly nocturnal but also active on overcast days. Shelters in shaded rock cracks in savanna habitats; also occasionally inhabits hollow trees and hides under loose bark (Branch 1998). May be found on farmhouses but is uncommon in dense urban areas.

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, and tolerant of low density urban developments.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Homopholis wahlbergii—41 km S of Lephalale, LIMP

M. Burger

Genus Lygodactylus Gray, 1864—dwarf day geckos

The genus *Lygodactylus* is distributed throughout sub-Saharan Africa and Madagascar, with two species—sometimes placed in the genus *Vanzoia*—found in South America. A number of Madagascan species have also been placed in separate genera/subgenera (e.g. *Domerguella*, *Millotisaurus*, *Microscalabotes*) but until their status has been satisfactorily resolved, they are best included in *Lygodactylus* (Puente *et al.* 2005). There are about 60 species (Uetz 2012) in the genus, with about 40 species on mainland Africa. Eight species (two with isolated subspecies, one poorly defined)—five endemic—occur in the *Atlas* region (Jacobsen 1992a; Branch 1998). A molecu-

Lygodactylus bradfieldi Hewitt, 1932 BRADFIELD'S DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Treated as a subspecies of *Lygodactylus capensis* by FitzSimons (1943), and as a synonym of the same species by Loveridge (1947), but revived as a full species by Pasteur (1965). Preliminary (and ongoing) genetic studies (Travers 2012) indicate that *L. bradfieldi* does occur in Limpopo Province as indicated by Jacobsen (2011).

Distribution: Occurs from the Northern Cape through Namibia to southern Angola, with an apparently isolated population in northwestern Limpopo Province, eastern Botswana and adjacent southwestern Zimbabwe (Branch 1998; Jacobsen 2011). The southernmost record (2429CA) in Limpopo Province is considered questionable as it may represent a translocation or an atypical *L. c. capensis* specimen (Jacobsen 2011).

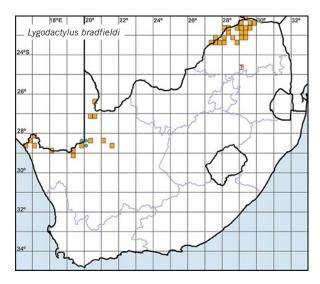
Habitat: Arboreal, living on tree trunks and sheltering under dead bark or in holes (Branch 1998). Favours stands of Acacia trees along river courses.

Biome: Savanna; Desert; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, with no major threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

lar phylogenetic analysis of the genus is underway (Scott *et al.* 2012). These dwarf diurnal geckos have a taste for ants. They may be arboreal or rupicolous, the latter species often having very restricted ranges. As a consequence, one species (*L. methueni*) in the *Atlas* region is considered Vulnerable and three taxa (*L. graniticolus, L. ocellatus soutpansbergensis, L. waterbergensis*) are considered Near Threatened. The chief threats are deterioration of habitat quality, afforestation and fire risk. *Lygodac-tylus nigropunctatus incognitus* and *L. n. montiscaeruli* have small ranges but are considered Data Deficient because of taxonomic uncertainty.





Lygodactylus bradfieldi-Venetia Limpopo NR, LIMP

M. Burger

Lygodactylus capensis capensis (A. Smith, 1849)

COMMON DWARF GECKO; CAPE DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A widespread species with a number of poorly defined subspecies. *Lygodactylus bradfieldi* was also previously considered a subspecies of *L. capensis*. A modern genetic analysis is required to resolve the taxonomy.

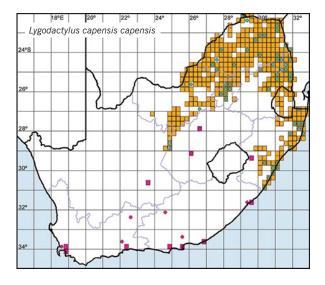
Distribution: Its natural range is from Tanzania southwards to Botswana, Northern Cape, northwestern Free State, Gauteng, Swaziland and KwaZulu-Natal, and westwards into southern Angola. Like the Tropical House Gecko (*Hemidactylus mabouia*), this species is commensal and is expanding its range. There are numerous introduced populations (pink cells on map), e.g. Port Elizabeth, Grahamstown (Branch 1998); Bloemfontein (Bates 2005b); near Stellenbosch and at Somerset West (De Villiers 2006), near Cape Town (Witberg & Van Zyl 2008), George (Jacobsen 2012), East London, and even in Addo Elephant National Park (W.R. Branch pers. obs.).

Habitat: Arboreal in savanna habitats but adapts readily to urban situations. Rapidly expanding its range in the *Atlas* region, but apparently not extending into natural vegetation.

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common with no major threats. It is also commensal and easily translocated.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Lygodactylus capensis—Port Elizabeth, EC

W.R. Branch

Lygodactylus graniticolus Jacobsen, 1992 GRANITE DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously confused with *Lygodactylus ocellatus* (FitzSimons 1943).

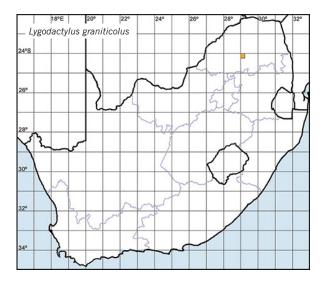
Distribution: An ultra-endemic restricted to granitic hills in Percy Fyfe Nature Reserve (Jacobsen 1992a) and the nearby Witvinger Nature Reserve (see photo) in Limpopo Province, South Africa.

EOO: 675 km^2 (confidence: high); AOO: 9 km^2 (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Inhabits crevices between boulders on rock outcrops at 1 500 m in bushveld habitat (Jacobsen 1992a).

Vegetation type: SVcb 23 Polokwane Plateau Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: An ultra-restricted endemic (EOO = 675 km^2 , AOO 9 km²) known from two adjacent populations at a single location [B1a + 2a] in Percy Fyfe and Witvinger nature reserves. Both are protected areas but public access is allowed, and at Percy Fyfe, firewood is removed (W.R. Branch pers. obs.) and there have been reports of cattle grazing within the reserve, so some loss of quality



and extent of habitat may occur. Some areas adjacent to the reserve with seemingly suitable habitat are used for cattle ranching, but there do not appear to be any threats to the species habitat there (A.M. Bauer pers. comm.). Considering its highly restricted range and the possibility of future threats, this species is classified as Near Threatened.

Threats: Although part of the population falls in a protected area, this area is small and adjacent regions are affected by agriculture and urbanisation. Tourist developments within the reserve can also be expected. Fire is the most likely threat affecting the location, but it is unlikely that this would seriously compromise the population, as the geckos would be protected by their rocky habitat.

Conservation measures: Carry out detailed surveys of the population and of suitable habitat in areas adjacent to Percy Fyfe Nature Reserve. Confirm the species' status by means of a molecular assessment.



Lygodactylus graniticolus-Witvinger NR, LIMP

W.D. Haacke

Lygodactylus methueni FitzSimons, 1937 METHUEN'S DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii)

Endemic

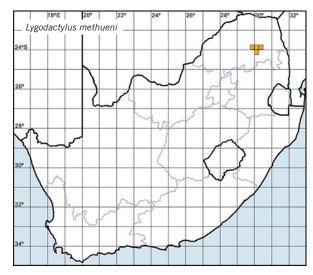
Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Limpopo Province, South Africa. Found only in Woodbush Forest Reserve and vicinity (Jacobsen 1988b, 1989) and Wolkberg Wilderness Area.

EOO: 1 620 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 495 km² (confidence: high).



Lygodactylus methueni—Wolkberg Wilderness Area, LIMP M. Burger



Habitat: Rupicolous, inhabiting rock cracks on isolated outcrops in montane grassland at elevations of about 1 700 m; may climb onto tree trunks adjacent to rock outcrops, but does not enter forests or plantations (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Vegetation type: Gm 25 Woodbush Granite Grassland; Gm 26 Wolkberg Dolomite Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Has a very small range (EOO <5 000 km² and AOO <500 km², both under the Endangered thresholds) with 6–10 locations (under the Vulnerable threshold) [B1a+2a]. This species has very specific habitat associations and much of the known range has experienced extensive afforestation that has contributed to fragmentation of its range. Other threats include the use of herbicides in forestry management and an increase in anthropogenic fire risk in montane grasslands, both of which result in a decline in the extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)].

Lygodactylus nigropunctatus nigropunctatus Jacobsen, 1992 BLACK-SPOTTED DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of the three subspecies has been assessed using molecular techniques, and all appear to represent distinct species (Travis 2012). The status of the isolated population in North-West Province, currently assigned to *Lygodactylus nigropunctatus nigropunctatus*, should be investigated.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it is fairly widespread in southern Limpopo, northern Mpumalanga and northern Gauteng, with an isolated population in North-West Province.

Habitat: Rupicolous, sheltering in cracks in rock outcrops in savanna at elevations of 700–800 m (Jacobsen 1992a).

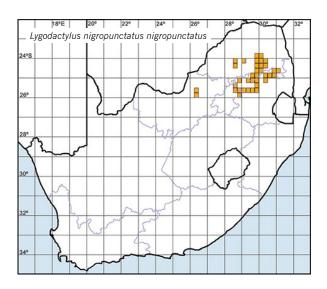
Biome: Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Threats: There is a decline in habitat quality due to shading by exotic plantations, increases in fires and possibly also the use of herbicides.

Conservation measures: Assess isolated populations (colonies) and manage connectivity between them. Estimate the threats from existing forestry practice and increased anthropogenic fire risk. Carry out a PHVA and develop a BMP-S.





Lygodactylus nigropunctatus nigropunctatus—13 km SW of Haenertsburg, LIMP J. Marais

Lygodactylus nigropunctatus incognitus Jacobsen, 1992 CRYPTIC DWARF GECKO

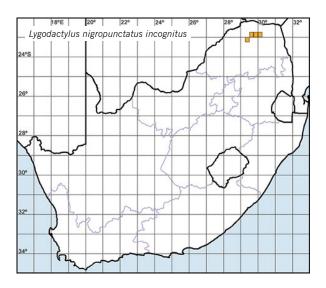
William R. Branch

Global: Data Deficient

Endemic

Taxonomy: A recent molecular study (Travers 2012) indicates that this subspecies is genetically well-defined and may represent a full species.

Distribution: An ultra-endemic, restricted to the summit of the Soutpansberg, Limpopo, South Africa (Jacobsen 1992a). A visual/photographic record (A.A. Turner & S.J. Davis pers. obs., SARCA 135011) from Lajuma Peak (2329AB, not plotted) in the Soutpansberg may be referrable to *Lygodactylus nigropunctatus incognitus*.



EOO: 2 700 km^2 (confidence: medium); AOO: 675 km^2 (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found on outcrops in grassland and woody patches at altitudes of 1 282–1 747 m (Jacobsen 1992a; Kirchhof *et al.* 2010). Has also been observed on the walls of houses (Kirchhof *et al.* 2010).

Vegetation type: SVcb 21 Soutpansberg Mountain Bushveld; Gm 28 Soutpansberg Summit Sourveld.

Assessment rationale: Poorly known. It has a restricted range (EOO $<5000 \text{ km}^2$), is known from less than 10 locations, and its habitat quality may be negatively affected by agriculture and ecotourism, indicating that it could be considered Vulnerable. However, it is classified as Data Deficient because its taxonomic status is unresolved.

Threats: This gecko's range is subject to increasing ecotourism developments where range management promotes large mammal grazing, possibly leading to an increase in frequency of anthropogenic fires. Habitat loss also occurs due to the development of lodges and infrastructure (e.g. the use of natural rock for the building of lodges or other walls).

Conservation measures: Investigate the taxonomic status of this subspecies. Carry out detailed surveys to assess range and habitat requirements, and the extent and nature of threats. Conduct a PHVA and draft a BMP-S.

Lygodactylus nigropunctatus montiscaeruli Jacobsen, 1992 MAKGABENG DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Data Deficient

Endemic

Taxonomy: This taxon is genetically well-defined and may represent a full species (Travers 2012).

Distribution: Endemic to the Makgabeng Hills and Blouberg, Limpopo, South Africa.

EOO: 2 025 km^2 (confidence: low); AOO: 600 km^2 (confidence: low).

Habitat: Occupies cracks and cliff faces on sandstone outcrops (Jacobsen 1992a).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld.

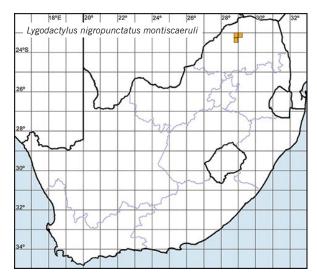
Assessment rationale: Restricted and known from two adjacent populations. EOO <5 000 km² and AOO <2 000 km², occurs at no more than five locations [B1a+2a], and experiencing loss of quality and extent of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)] outside protected areas, indicating that it could be considered Vulnerable. However, it is classified as Data Deficient because its taxonomic status is unresolved.

Threats: The range is subject to increasing ecotourism and game farming developments where range management promotes large mammal grazing, possibly leading to an increase in the frequency of anthropogenic fires. Habitat loss also occurs during development of lodges and infrastructure (e.g. the use of natural rock as building material).

Conservation measures: Assess the taxonomic status of this subspecies. Conduct detailed surveys of its range and habitat requirements, and assess existing threats. Conduct a PHVA and draft a BMP-S.



Lygodactylus nigropunctatus incognitus-Soutpansberg, LIMP A.M. Bauer





Lygodactylus nigropunctatus montiscaeruli-Blouberg, LIMP W.R. Branch

Lygodactylus ocellatus ocellatus Roux, 1907 SPOTTED DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: With the recognition of a northern subspecies, *L. ocellatus soutpansbergensis* (Jacobsen 1994b), the typical subspecies now has a reduced range. There is a need for molecular studies to determine the status of *L. o. soutpansbergensis*, the isolated populations of *L. o. ocellatus*, and specimens listed as *'Lygodactylus ocellatus* Complex' by Jacobsen (1989).

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. The species is widespread in Mpumalanga, extending into adjacent southeastern Limpopo, Gauteng, the northeastern parts of North-West Province and western Swaziland. A Virtual Museum record (2730DA) extends the known range southwards into northern KwaZulu-Natal. The record in the Lebombo Mountains (2531BD) adjacent to Mozambique requires confirmation, as does an isolated record at Farm Hangklip (2327DA, TM 64842). Several records from throughout the former Transvaal Province, mapped under the name '*Lygodactylus ocellatus* Complex' by Jacobsen (1989), were not plotted on the map here because their status requires investigation.

Habitat: Rupicolous on small rock outcrops in grassland and savanna (Branch 1998). It may occur in small groups in large outcrops, and takes refuge in crevices between and under boulders (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Lygodactylus ocellatus soutpansbergensis Jacobsen, 1994 SOUTPANSBERG DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: There is a need for a molecular study to evaluate the relationship between this isolated subspecies and *L. o. ocellatus*.

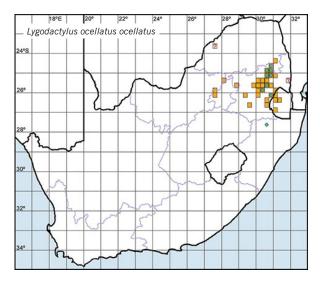
Distribution: Endemic to the summit region of the Soutpansberg, Limpopo, South Africa.

EOO: 4 050 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 1 250 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Rupicolous, living in small rock outcrops in montane grassland and savanna (850–1 500 m) (Jacobsen 1994b).

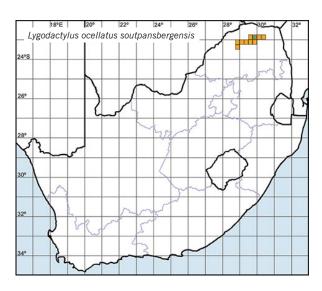
Vegetation type: SVcb 21 Soutpansberg Mountain Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO $<5000 \text{ km}^2$, AOO $<2000 \text{ km}^2$). Loss of quality and extent of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)] outside of protected areas





Lygodactylus ocellatus ocellatus—near Dullstroom, MPM J. Marais



is likely due to increased human activity in the region (ecotourism, hiking, agriculture), but a classification of Near Threatened is considered appropriate at this time.

Threats: Its range is subject to increasing ecotourism developments where range management promotes large

mammal grazing, possibly leading to an increase in frequency of anthropogenic fires. Habitat loss also occurs due to the development of lodges and infrastructure (e.g. the use of natural rock for lodge building or walls).

Conservation measures: Investigate the taxonomic status of this subspecies, the extent of its range and habitat requirements, and the threats present in the region. Compile a BMP-S.



Lygodactylus ocellatus soutpansbergensis—Soutpansberg, LIMP J. Marais

Lygodactylus stevensoni Hewitt, 1926 STEVENSON'S DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Although treated as a subspecies of *Lygodacty-lus capensis* by FitzSimons (1943), *L. stevensoni* was elevated to a full species by Pasteur (1965). There is a need for a more complete assessment, with molecular analysis, of the identity and taxonomic status of the 'relict' populations at Lillie Nature Reserve (Jacobsen 1989).

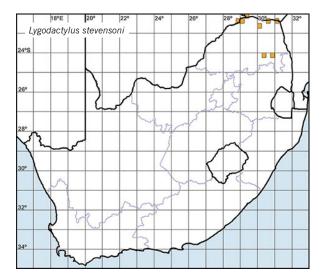
Distribution: Restricted to the Limpopo River valley, extending east into the extreme northern parts of the Kruger National Park and north to the Khami Ruins and Matopos Hills in southern Zimbabwe (Branch 1998). A possible relict population in the Lillie Nature Reserve (Jacobsen 1989) and vicinity in southeastern Limpopo has been plotted on the map, but its taxonomic status requires further assessment.

Habitat: Prefers shaded crevices in sandstone and granite outcrops in wooded savanna, but may also utilise dead trees and the walls of buildings (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Mopane; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Although this species has a relatively restricted and fragmented distribution in the *Atlas* region (EOO <20 000 km²), it is not known to be experiencing population declines or habitat loss and is tolerant of habitat transformation. Its range in the region constitutes <33% of its global range.

Conservation measures: Conduct further studies on the species' range in the *Atlas* region, concentrating on the conservation and taxonomic status of the relict population from Lillie Nature Reserve (Jacobsen 1989).





Lygodactylus stevensoni—Venetia Limpopo NR, LIMP

M. Burger

Lygodactylus waterbergensis Jacobsen, 1992 WATERBERG DWARF GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues, although genetic distance between the apparently isolated populations should be assessed.

Distribution: Endemic to the Waterberg region, including rocky outliers (e.g. 2427BC), in Limpopo Province, South Africa.

EOO: 2 025 km^2 (confidence: medium); AOO: 600 km^2 (confidence: medium).

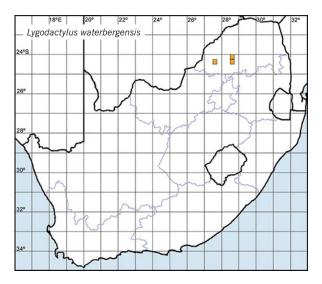
Habitat: Rupicolous, sheltering in sandstone outcrops in grassland or scrub at 1 500–2 000 m (Jacobsen 1992a).

Vegetation type: SVcb 17 Waterberg Mountain Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO <5 000 km², AOO <2 000 km²), is known from less than 10 locations [B1a+2a], and a loss of quality and extent of habitat outside of protected reserves is predicted. However, as the area is poorly surveyed and the range has recently been extended, the species is conservatively treated as Near Threatened.

Threats: Its range is subject to increasing ecotourism developments where range management promotes large mammal grazing, possibly leading to an increase in frequency of anthropogenic fires. Natural rock may be used for building lodges and walls, resulting in habitat loss.

Conservation measures: Determine the full extent of this species' range and population densities. Check the status of the isolated record from Farm Groothoek (2427BC). Develop a BMP-S.





Lygodactylus waterbergensis—Marakele NP, LIMP

M. Burger

Genus Pachydactylus Wiegmann, 1834-thick-toed geckos

The species-rich genus *Pachydactylus* was recently revised (Bauer & Lamb 2005), resulting in the synonymisation of *Palmatogecko* and the transfer of some species to the genera *Chondrodactylus*, *Colopus* and *Elasmodactylus*. This genus is endemic to Africa and only one species (*P. katanganus*, known from southern Democratic Republic of the Congo) occurs entirely outside southern Africa. Fifty-five species are distributed throughout southern Africa and a few extend as far north as the southern Democratic Republic of the Congo and northern Malawi (Loveridge 1947; Branch 1998; Uetz 2012). Twenty-nine species occur in the *Atlas* region, of which 11 are strictly endemic. Another seven occur mainly in this region but extend extralimitally into adjacent southern Namibia or Mozambique. Within the *Atlas* region, *Pachydactylus* is most

Pachydactylus affinis Boulenger, 1896 TRANSVAAL GECKO;

TRANSVAAL THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: *Pachydactylus affinis* was regarded as a subspecies of *P. capensis* by FitzSimons (1943) and Loveridge (1947). Its specific distinctness was recognised by McLachlan (in Branch 1981) and this was later accepted by Branch (1988a, 1998) and Jacobsen (1989). Jacobsen (1989) suggested that there might be taxonomically significant variation within *P. affinis* and this requires further investigation. Although *P. affinis* has been shown to be genetically distinct from *P. capensis* and *P. vansoni* (Bauer & Lamb 2002), these three species can be difficult to distinguish morphologically (e.g. Jacobsen 1989).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it occurs throughout most of Gauteng, eastern North-West Province and large parts of Mpumalanga and Limpopo, exclusive of most of the Lowveld and Limpopo Valley (Jacobsen 1989).

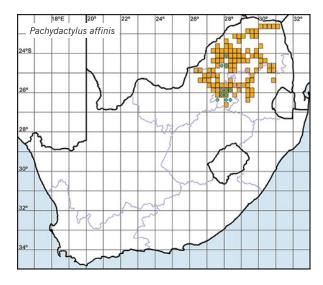
Habitat: Found in rock outcrops but occasionally also in moribund termitaria or on buildings, in grassland and savanna at elevations of 500–2 200 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Mopane; Dry Highveld Grassland; Lowveld (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Has a broad distribution that includes numerous protected areas. It prefers rocky habitats that are suboptimal for human use.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

diverse in arid western regions and along the lower Orange River, but all areas except the higher elevations of Lesotho and KwaZulu-Natal are occupied by one or more species. *Pachydactylus* are chiefly terrestrial or rupicolous, feed on arthropods and produce clutches of two hard-shelled eggs (Branch 1998; Alexander & Marais 2007). Most species occur in areas that are not subject to major extrinsic threats and most are therefore considered Least Concern. Only two species are considered to be threatened. The recently described *P. goodi* is categorised as Vulnerable because of its extremely restricted range and because of threats from mining activities. In the *Atlas* region, mining and agriculture have caused a recent, dramatic population decline of *P. rangei*, which is considered regionally Critically Endangered.





Pachydactylus affinis-Marakele NP, LIMP

M. Burger

Pachydactylus amoenus Werner, 1910 NAMAQUA BANDED GECKO

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: *Pachydactylus amoenus* was considered a valid species by FitzSimons (1943), Loveridge (1947) and Branch (1981), although the latter noted that its status was unresolved. Loveridge (1947), however, stated that it may be merely a subspecies of *P. mariquensis*. Branch *et al.* (1988) and Branch (1988b, 1998) did not mention it. Some authors continued to treat it as a full species (e.g. Kluge 2001), and Bauer *et al.* (2011) confirmed this status on the basis of molecular data and morphology.

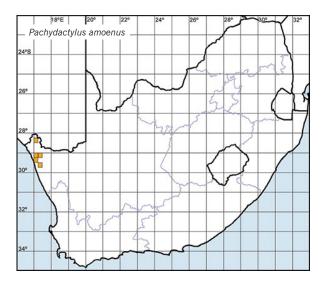
Distribution: Endemic to Little Namaqualand in the western Northern Cape, South Africa.

Habitat: Found in sandy arid areas, but no detailed information is available.

Bioregion: Namaqualand Sandveld; Namaqualand Hard-eveld; Richtersveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range, but there are no known threats, population declines or fluctuations (Bauer *et al.* 2011).

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pachydactylus amoenus—between Port Nolloth and Anenous Pass, NC J. Boone

Pachydactylus atorquatus Bauer, Barts & Hulbert, 2006 AUGRABIES GECKO

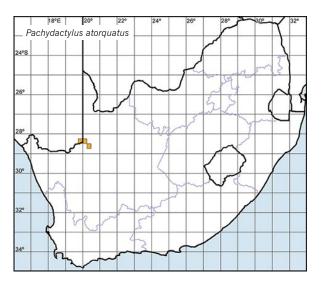
Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This species is part of the *Pachydactylus weberi* group (Bauer *et al.* 2006a). The taxonomic status of



Pachydactylus atorquatus—Farm Daberas, Orange River, NC W.R. Branch



a specimen of the *P. weberi* group from Farm Leerkrans (2821BC) remains uncertain but it is superficially similar to both *P. atorquatus* and the southern Namibian endemic *P. robertsi*.

Distribution: Found in the Northern Cape, South Africa, where it occurs along the Orange River at and immediately below Augrabies Falls. Recorded in Namibia at one local-

ity (Haib Mine) in the adjacent Karasburg district (Bauer et al. 2006b).

Habitat: Found in arid rocky habitats with little vegetation, at 500–800 m elevation (Bauer *et al.* 2006b).

Vegetation type: NKb 1 Lower Gariep Broken Veld.

Pachydactylus austeni Hewitt, 1923 AUSTEN'S GECKO; AUSTEN'S THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, extending through the coastal regions of the Western and Northern Cape, from slightly north of Cape Town northwards to the Holgat River in the southern Richtersveld (Haacke 1976d). There is an isolated record at Potjiespram (2816BB) on the lower Orange River in the northern Richtersveld, and scattered localities up to 95 km inland.

Habitat: Found in areas of loose sand, chiefly in sparsely vegetated coastal dunes (Branch 1998), but also in alluvial sands and in other sandy pockets in coastal and near-coastal habitats. Mainly present below 100 m, but may occur as high as 600 m.

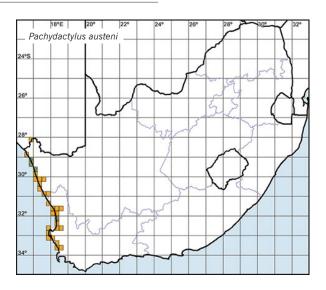
Bioregion: Namaqualand Sandveld; West Strandveld; Northwest Fynbos; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Seashore Vegetation; West Coast Renosterveld; Knersvlakte; Karoo Renosterveld; Alluvial Vegetation; Estuarine Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Has a large range and is abundant and not threatened, except in localised areas where mining or housing developments and recreational use of beaches may degrade habitat.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO and AOO below the Vulnerable thresholds) but is abundant (probably more than 10 000 individuals) and actual and potential threats are minimal.

Conservation measures: Evaluate range size and population numbers.





Pachydactylus austeni-Port Nolloth, NC

J. Marais

Pachydactylus barnardi FitzSimons, 1941 BARNARD'S ROUGH GECKO; BARNARD'S GECKO

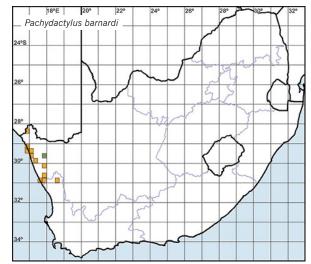
Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: First described as a subspecies of *Pachydactylus capensis* (FitzSimons 1941), elevated to species status by Broadley (1977a), but treated as a subspecies of *P. rugosus* by McLachlan (1979). The latter arrangement has been followed by most subsequent authors (e.g. Branch 1998). Lamb & Bauer (2000a) raised *P. barnardi* to full species status once again, based on a molecular analysis.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, where it occurs in the western parts of the Northern Cape and adjacent areas in the extreme northern parts of the Western Cape, from



the western Richtersveld in the north to the Knersvlakte and Groenriviermond in the south (Lamb & Bauer 2000a).

Habitat: Usually associated with mesic microhabitats. Terrestrial and found in rocky areas with succulent plants, but also in habitats fringing rivers or near the coast, from sea level to 1 200 m (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Bioregion: Namaqualand Hardeveld; Namaqualand Sandveld; Richtersveld.

Assessment rationale: Relatively widespread and common; occurs across a diversity of habitats and is not subjected to any significant threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pachydactylus capensis (A. Smith, 1845) CAPE GECKO; CAPE THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: FitzSimons (1943) and Loveridge (1947) regarded Pachydactylus capensis as a polytypic species with many subspecies. Subsequently, Broadley (1971c, 1977a), Branch (1988a, 1998) and Jacobsen (1989) elevated these subspecies, resulting in a monotypic P. capensis. Earlier records of this species from both the west coast and northeast of South Africa require individual confirmation, because specimens referable to P. labialis, P. affinis and P. vansoni were often identified as P. capensis. There is still confusion with respect to specific identity within the P. capensis group due to gross morphological similarities. This applies particularly to *P. capensis* and *P. affinis*, which occur in sympatry throughout much of the range of the latter (Jacobsen 1989). Some juvenile P. capensis have distinctive head markings that are similar to those of P. vansoni and this may also lead to misidentifications.

Distribution: Occurs throughout most of central and western southern Africa and extralimitally in southern Angola (see Jacobsen 1989). It is present in the eastern twothirds of Namibia (exclusive of the Caprivi Strip) (Visser 1984c), most of Botswana (Auerbach 1987), western Lesotho and parts of all South African provinces except KwaZulu-Natal. Within South Africa it occurs throughout the Free State except the far northeastern part of the province (Bates 1996a), in Gauteng, North-West Province and above the escarpment in Limpopo and Mpumalanga (Jacobsen 1989), and in inland portions of the Cape provinces at least as far southwest as the Tankwa Karoo.

Habitat: A terrestrial species occurring in a wide range of mostly open habitat types, wherever there are appropriate refugia (rocks, disused termitaria, logs, debris, building materials) (Loveridge 1947; De Waal 1978; Branch 1998). Generally absent in extremely mesic areas and in true desert. Altitudinal range 500–1 800 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo.



 IBPE
 I20°
 I22°
 I24°
 I26°
 I28°
 <th



Pachydactylus capensis—Suikerbosrand NR, GP

J. Marais

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in the *Atlas* region, and extralimitally in Botswana, Namibia and parts of southern Angola.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pachydactylus carinatus Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006 RICHTERSVELD GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This species is part of the *Pachydactylus serval* group (Bauer *et al.* 2006a). Older references to *P. serval* and *P. onscepensis* from the lower Orange River valley west of Goodhouse (e.g. McLachlan & Spence 1966) may be referable to *P. carinatus*. The identity of a population of geckos at Koboop (2819CD) near Onseepkans (not plotted on map), tentatively referred to *P. carinatus* by Bauer *et al.* (2006a), must be verified.

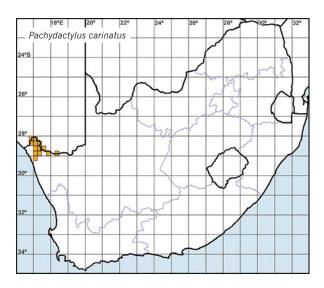
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring in the Richtersveld and lower Orange River valley of the Northern Cape, South Africa and the Karasburg and Lüderitz districts of Namibia. Occurs along the Orange River valley from Goodhouse in the east to Annisfontein in the west, and from Kuboes (Northern Cape) in the south to Namuskluft and Ai-Ais (Namibia) in the north (Bauer *et al.* 2006a).

Habitat: Found in relatively mesic habitats in river valleys or on rocky mountain slopes in otherwise arid areas, at altitudes of 40–720 m (Bauer *et al.* 2006a).

Bioregion: Richtersveld; Gariep Desert; Southern Namib Desert; Alluvial Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is abundant and not threatened. Most of the range is in protected areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pachydactylus carinatus—Richtersveld, NC

J. Marais

Pachydactylus formosus A. Smith, 1849 SOUTHERN ROUGH GECKO; KAROO GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

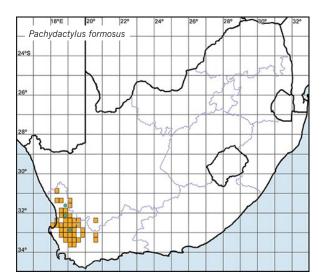
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species was relegated to the status of a subspecies of *Pachydactylus capensis* by Hewitt (1927). McLachlan (1979) transferred it from *P. capensis* to *P. rugosus*, regarding it as a subspecies of the latter. Lamb & Bauer (2000b) raised *P. formosus* to full species status.



Pachydactylus formosus—Engelsmanskloof, Cederberg, WC W.D. Haacke



Most pre-2000 citations are to *P. rugosus formosus* (e.g. Branch 1998).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it occurs in the western half of the Western Cape and adjacent portions of the Northern Cape, from the vicinity of the Slanghoekberg Mountains in the southwest to Matjiesfontein and Sutherland in the east, and as far north as Bitterfontein in Namagualand. **Habitat:** Usually associated with mesic habitats that provide rocky crevices for retreats. Especially common in montane habitats at elevations as high as 2 000 m, but also occurs near sea level where river gorges, rock cuttings and low hills provide suitable rocky habitat (Branch 1998; Lamb & Bauer 2000b).

Pachydactylus geitje (Sparrman, 1778) OCELLATED GECKO;

OCELLATED THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Following FitzSimons (1943), the junior synonym *Pachydactylus ocellatus* was widely used for this species. Although Loveridge (1947) clearly identified *Lacerta geitje* Sparrman, 1778 as the correct name for this taxon, the name *P. ocellatus* continued to be used for decades thereafter and some museum and literature records may still be found under this name. The status of *Pachydactylus monticolus* FitzSimons, 1943, sometimes used for inland forms from higher elevations, remains uncertain (McLachlan in Branch 1981; Branch *et al.* 1988; Branch & Bauer 1995). Molecular systematic research is currently in progress (A.M. Bauer, M. Heinicke & T.R. Jackman in prep.) to resolve the status of this name, here conservatively considered a synonym of *P. geitje*.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it is restricted to the Western Cape and adjacent parts of the Eastern and Northern Cape provinces. Present in coastal areas as well as the Cape Fold Mountains and along the inland escarpment (Visser 1984d; Branch 1998).

Habitat: A habitat generalist, typically found in cool, mesic areas from the high tide level to at least 2 000 m,

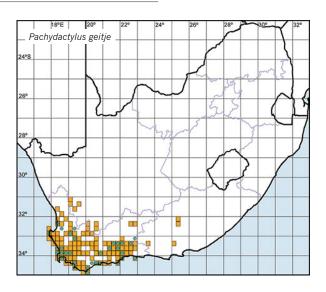


Pachydactylus geitje—Gondwana GR, E of Herbertsdale, WC M. Burger

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Occurs in several protected areas and there are no major identifiable threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



wherever suitable rock, vegetation or debris provide retreat sites (Branch & Bauer 1995; Branch 1998).

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Albany Thicket; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Found in several protected areas and not experiencing any major identifiable threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pachydactylus geitje—Lambert's Bay, WC

Pachydactylus goodi Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006 GOOD'S GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii)

Endemic

Taxonomy: Recently described as a member of the *Pachy-dactylus weberi* group (Bauer *et al.* 2006b). Older references to *P. weberi* from the Aggeneys area may be referable to *P. goodi*.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it is restricted to the northwestern margin of the Northern Cape between Vioolsdrif and Aggeneys (Bauer *et al.* 2006b). Despite the proximity of its range to the Orange River, it has not been found in adjacent southern Namibia.

EOO: 4 179 $\rm km^2$ (confidence: low); AOO: 1 349 $\rm km^2$ (confidence: low).

Habitat: Found in broken rocky habitats with little or no vegetation, at the base or on slopes of rocky hills adjacent to desert plains. Occurs on the slopes (chiefly south-facing) of inselbergs (Bauer *et al.* 2006b).

Vegetation type: Dg 7 Northern Nababiepsberge Mountain Desert; SKr 18 Bushmanland Inselberg Shrubland.

Assessment rationale: EOO <5 000 km², AOO <2 000 km² and number of locations <10 [B1a+2a]; and a continuing decline in the area, extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)] due to ongoing mining activity.

Threats: Potentially threatened by its inherently restricted dispersal capabilities and limitation to a restricted substrate type. An additional threat exists from ongoing copper, zinc, lead and silver mining activity that has degraded or destroyed suitable habitat around Aggeneys. This appears to be an ongoing threat only at this location.

Conservation measures: Develop a BMP-S. Collect data on the actual range of the species and on population numbers within suitable habitats, as well as the status of the habitat (extent of destruction or degradation due to mining activities). Identify any potential protected areas within the AOO, and establish new protected areas if necessary.

Pachydactylus haackei Branch, Bauer & Good, 1996

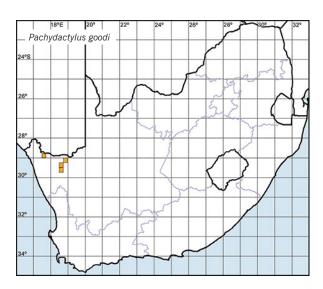
HAACKE'S GECKO; HAACKE'S THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

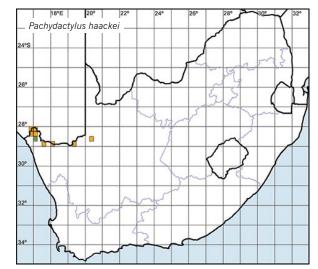
Taxonomy: This species was previously confused with *Pachydactylus namaquensis* (Branch *et al.* 1996; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). Most old records of *P. namaquensis* from Namibia and the Orange River valley are almost certainly referable to *P. haackei*.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa where it occurs from southern Namibia (Maltahöhe district) to the northern part of the Northern Cape, South Africa. In the *Atlas* region it occurs from the Richtersveld east to Augrabies (Branch *et al.* 1996; Barts *et al.* 2005).





Pachydactylus goodi-Aggeneys, NC



Habitat: Rupicolous, found in association with rock outcrops and rock faces with deep cracks, at altitudes of 100–1 100 m (Branch et al. 1996; Barts 2002).

Bioregion: Gariep Desert; Richtersveld; Bushmanland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, occurring chiefly in areas with little human impact.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pachydactylus haackei-Farm Daberas, Orange River, NC

W.R. Branch

Pachydactylus kladaroderma Branch, Bauer & Good, 1996 THIN-SKINNED GECKO;

THIN-SKINNED THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species was previously confused with Pachydactylus namaquensis (Branch et al. 1996). Old literature records of *P. namaguensis* from the Western Cape and southern Northern Cape are almost certainly referable to P. kladaroderma.

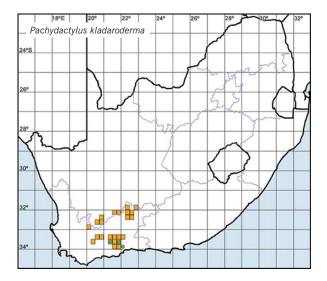
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it occurs in the eastern Cape Fold Mountains and southern escarpment mountains of the Western Cape and adjacent Northern Cape (Branch et al. 1996).

Habitat: Rupicolous, found in relatively mesic habitats with large rock outcrops and deep horizontal cracks, at altitudes of 750-1 682 m (Branch & Bauer 1995; Branch et al. 1996).

Bioregion: Western Fynbos-Renosterveld; Karoo Renosterveld; Upper Karoo; Lower Karoo; Rainshadow Valley Karoo; Trans-Escarpment Succulent Karoo; Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld; Southern Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Has a relatively broad range in largely inaccessible montane habitats that are not under any major threat.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pachydactylus kladaroderma—Sutherland, NC

Pachydactylus labialis FitzSimons, 1938 WESTERN CAPE GECKO;

WESTERN CAPE THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: FitzSimons (1943) and Loveridge (1947) regarded *Pachydactylus labialis* as a subspecies of *P. capensis*. Branch (1988a, 1998), reflecting the prevailing views of the herpetological community at that time, treated it as specifically distinct. It is now known that *P. labialis* is not particularly closely related to the *P. capensis* group (Bauer & Lamb 2002, 2005). Records of *P. capensis* from the West Coast of South Africa are generally referable to *P. labialis*. There is significant morphological variation within the species and further study is required to assess any possible taxonomically significant sub-structuring of populations.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa. Occurs in western portions of the Western and Northern Cape provinces, from Fonteinskop in the Ceres Karoo northwards to Gelykwerf in the Richtersveld National Park (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Habitat: Found in moderately mesic situations in a diversity of habitat types that provide suitable rocky or vegetative ground cover. Prefers coastal habitats and river valleys with sandy substrates. Occurs from sea level to at least 800 m (Branch 1998; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Bioregion: Namaqualand Sandveld; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Richtersveld; Knersvlakte; Northwest Fynbos; West Strandveld; Rainshadow Valley Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pachydactylus latirostris Hewitt, 1923 QUARTZ GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

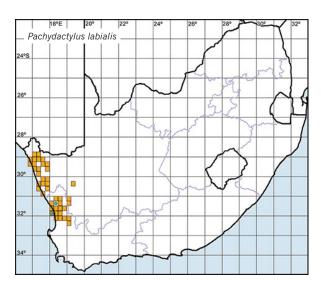
Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This species has often been considered as a subspecies of *Pachydactylus mariquensis* (e.g. Loveridge 1947; Branch 1998), but consistent morphological differences in cephalic scalation, as well as molecular differenc-



Pachydactylus latirostris-Kenhardt, NC

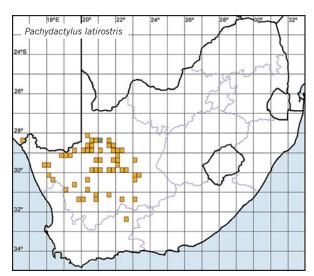
M. Burger





Pachydactylus labialis—Noup, NC

W.R. Branch



es, support its specific distinctness (Bauer *et al.* 2011). The identification of older specimens from areas of sympatry and near sympatry with *P. mariquensis* should be confirmed.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Namibia. In South Africa this species occurs throughout much of the Northern Cape, with one record in the northeastern portion of the

Western Cape. In Namibia it occurs chiefly in the south, adjacent to the South African population, but with scattered isolated populations extending about 800 km to the north (Bauer 1990; Branch 1998). The apparent distribution disjunction in Namibia is probably artefactual (Bauer 1990).

Habitat: Found in areas of sandy soils and sparse vegetation in several habitat types, such as sand plains and dry

Pachydactylus macrolepis FitzSimons, 1939 LARGE-SCALED BANDED GECKO

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: *Pachydactylus macrolepis* was originally described as a subspecies of *P. mariquensis*. This taxonomic arrangement was adopted by FitzSimons (1943), Loveridge (1947), Branch (1981) and Branch *et al.* (1988). However, Loveridge (1947) considered it a possible synonym of *'P. mariquensis amoenus'*, Branch (1981) noted that its status was uncertain, and Branch *et al.* (1988) regarded it as a possible synonym of *P. mariquensis mariquensis*. The latter arrangement was later adopted by Kluge (2001). Branch (1988b, 1998) did not mention this taxon. It was resurrected as a valid species by Bauer *et al.* (2011).

Distribution: Endemic to Little Namaqualand in the western Northern Cape, South Africa.

Habitat: Found in sandy, arid areas, but no detailed information is available.

Bioregion: Namaqualand Hardeveld; Richtersveld.

Assessment rationale: This species has a restricted range, but there are no known threats, population declines or fluctuations. It is protected within the Richtersveld National Park and may occur in Namaqua National Park and Goegap Nature Reserve (Bauer *et al.* 2011).

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pachydactylus maculatus Gray, 1845 SPOTTED GECKO; SPOTTED THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

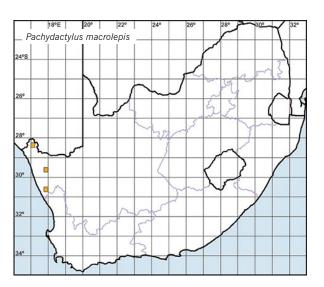
Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Pachydactylus maculatus is sometimes confused with *P. oculatus* Hewitt, 1927, which was removed from its synonymy and treated as a subspecies by De Waal (1978) and as a full species by Branch (1988a, 1998). The two forms are considered sister taxa (Bauer & Lamb 2005). Pachydactylus microlepis and *P. albomarginatus* were synonymised with *P. maculatus* by Loveridge (1947). Although *P. microlepis* has universally been accepted as a junior synonym of *P. maculatus*, De Waal (1978) regarded *P. albomarginatus* as a synonym of *P. oculatus* whereas other authors (e.g. Kluge 2001) have followed Loveridge's river beds (Branch 1998). Occurs from near sea level to at least 1 500 m elevation.

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Desert; Fynbos; Savanna.

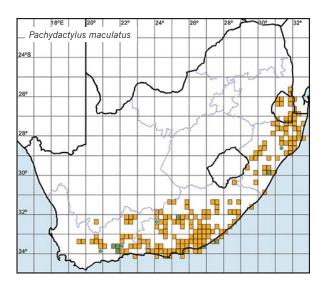
Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pachydactylus macrolepis—Springbok, NC



interpretation. The broad distribution of *P. maculatus* warrants a thorough revision to determine whether taxonomically significant sub-structuring exists.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring in the eastern and southern parts of South Africa, Swaziland and extreme southern Mozambique (Branch 1998). Within South Africa, it occurs in southeastern Mpumalanga, most of KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, parts of the Western Cape, and the southern margin of the Northern Cape. Also found on St Croix Island in Algoa Bay.

Habitat: Found in a broad range of habitat types, chiefly in relatively mesic areas, where it uses rocks, old termitaria, logs or debris as refuge sites (Branch & Braack 1987). Occurs from sea level to at least 1 600 m.

Biome: Savanna; Albany Thicket; Fynbos; Grassland; Nama-Karoo; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pachydactylus mariquensis A. Smith, 1849

COMMON BANDED GECKO; MARICO GECKO; MARICO THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The *Pachydactylus mariquensis* species complex consists of four distinct species, namely *P. mariquensis*, *P. amoenus*, *P. latirostris* and *P. macrolepis* (Bauer et al. 2011).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it occurs in the Free State, Northern Cape, Western Cape and western half of the Eastern Cape. Recently found as far south as Blaauwberg Conservation Area (3318CD) in Cape Town (http://www.hardaker.co.za/r-maricothicktoedgecko1.htm; not plotted on map).

Habitat: Found in sandy soils and sparse vegetation in several habitat types, such as sandy plains and dry river beds (Branch & Braack 1987, 1989; Branch & Bauer 1995; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). Occurs from near sea level to at least 1 500 m elevation.

Biome: Grassland; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Albany Thicket; Fynbos; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

 18*E
 20*
 22*
 24*
 26*
 28*
 30*
 32*

 24*S
 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*

 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*

 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*

Pachydactylus mariquensis—23 km along N10 from Britstown to Prieska, NC M. Burger



Pachydactylus maculatus—George, WC

W.R. Branch



Pachydactylus monicae Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006 MONICA'S GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This recently-described species is part of the *Pachydactylus weberi* group (Bauer *et al.* 2006a). Some old records of *P. weberi* from the Richtersveld and adjacent southern Namibia may be referable to *P. monicae* (e.g. Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa where it occurs in the northwestern part of the Northern Cape and in the Lüderitz and Karasburg districts of Namibia. All known localities are in the lower Orange River valley, lower Fish River valley and Holoog River valley, or in the plains and hills west of the Huib Hoch Plateau (Bauer *et al.* 2006a).

Habitat: Found in relatively mesic microhabitats close to major rivers and on adjacent boulder outcrops in arid habitats. Occurs mainly at elevations below 100 m but also on the lower slopes (below 900 m) of mountains (Bauer *et al.* 2006a).

Vegetation type: Dn 5 Western Gariep Hills Desert; AZa 3 Lower Gariep Alluvial Vegetation; SKr 1 Central Richtersveld Mountain Shrubland.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range globally but is abundant and not threatened. Most of the distribution is in protected areas or in non-mined buffer zones of the Diamond Area, where it also receives de facto protection. This species is also tolerant of disturbance and is found in and around human habitations at Sendelingsdrif (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]; Bauer *et al.* 2006a). Although there are less than five locations in the *Atlas* region, *P. monicae* is considered regionally Least Concern.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pachydactylus montanus Methuen & Hewitt, 1914 NAMAQUA MOUNTAIN GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

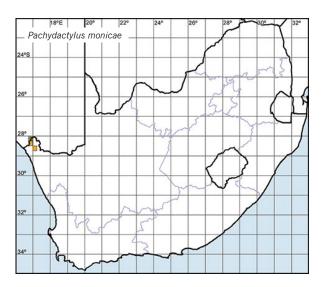
Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Until a recent revision (Bauer *et al.* 2006a), this species was generally cited as *P. serval onscepensis* following the work of McLachlan & Spence (1966). Many



Pachydactylus montanus—Augrabies, NC

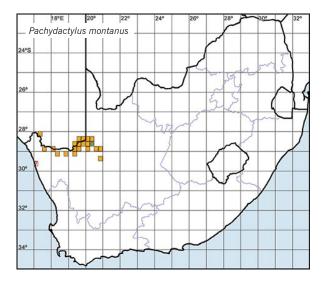
G.J. Alexander





Pachydactylus monicae—Potjiespram, Richtersveld, NC

J. Marais



records of *P. serval* from the Northern Cape and southern Namibia are therefore referable to *P. montanus*. Although there are no known diagnostic features that separate populations of *P. montanus* from the Onseepkans area from other populations, there is a large divergence in mitochondrial DNA (Bauer *et al.* 2006a) and further taxonomic

GEKKONIDAE

studies are warranted. Adult *P. montanus* are very similar in appearance to *P. serval* and also *P. purcelli*. Because *P. montanus* co-occurs with one or both of these congeners across most of its range, identifications of all specimens should be carefully checked. Further study of isolated populations in southern Namibia (30 km east of Aus; Farm Houmoed, Tirasberg Mountains) is warranted.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, from the northern parts of the Northern Cape (Kakamas to Vioolsdrif) to the Lüderitz, Bethanie, Karasburg and Keetmanshoop districts of Namibia. Namibian localities situated away from the Orange River valley are disjunct. A locality north of Wallekraal (2917CA) should be verified (Bauer *et al.* 2006a).

Habitat: Found in rocky habitats from mountain slopes to cliff faces to boulder piles, in semi-arid regions and arid zones, from near sea level to the top of the Great Karasberg Mountain in Namibia at 2 225 m (Methuen & Hewitt 1914).

Bioregion: Bushmanland; Gariep Desert; Alluvial Vegetation.

Pachydactylus namaquensis (Sclater, 1898) NAMAQUA GECKO:

NAMAQUA THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Two recently described species, *Pachydactylus kladaroderma* and *P. haackei* (Branch *et al.* 1996), were previously confused with *P. namaquensis*. Records of *P. namaquensis* from the Western Cape and southern Northern Cape are referable to *P. kladaroderma*, whereas most records from the Orange River valley and southern Namibia are referable to *P. haackei*. Sclater (1898) originally described this species in the genus *Elasmodactylus*, but this name is now restricted to a clade of the *Pachydactylus* group of geckos occurring from northern Zimbabwe and central Mozambique northwards (Bauer & Lamb 2005).

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa where it occurs chiefly in the western parts of the Northern Cape, from the Kamiesberg Mountains in the south to the Vandersterberg Mountains in the north. There is a single Namibian record from the Namuskluft Inselberg in the Lüderitz district (Branch *et al.* 1996; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Habitat: Rupicolous, inhabiting large rock outcrops with deep cracks in relatively mesic microhabitats. Elevational range approximately 500–1 500 m (Branch *et al.* 1996; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Bioregion: Namaqualand Hardeveld; Richtersveld; Namaqualand Cape Shrublands; Southern Namib Desert.

Assessment rationale: Has a moderately restricted EOO, slightly above the Vulnerable threshold. However, the range is not fragmented or declining in size and the species is abundant and not threatened. Large portions of its range are included in protected areas.

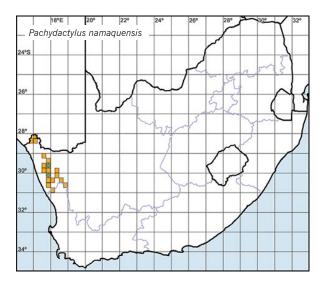
Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pachydactylus montanus—62 km S of Aus on road to Rosh Pinah, Namibia J. Marais

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common with only very localised threats of intensive mining activity in scattered areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pachydactylus namaquensis—Farm Kamas, E of Kliprand, NC M. Burger

Pachydactylus oculatus Hewitt, 1927 GOLDEN SPOTTED GECKO;

GOLDEN SPOTTED THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern Endemic

Taxonomy: *Pachydactylus oculatus* is sometimes confused with its sister species, *P. maculatus*, and records from their area of sympatry on the inland escarpment of the Eastern and Western Cape provinces require individual verification. This species was resurrected from the synonymy of *P. maculatus* by De Waal (1978) as *P. maculatus oculatus*, and subsequently elevated to full species status (Branch 1988b; Branch & Braack 1989).

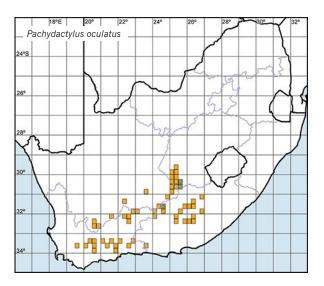
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it occurs from the southwestern Free State southwards along the inland escarpment and northern Cape Fold Mountains of the Eastern, Western and Northern Cape provinces.

Habitat: Found in rocky habitats in karroid vegetation and adjacent grasslands, at altitudes of 800–2 000 m (De Waal 1978; Branch & Braack 1989).

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Nama-Karoo.



Pachydactylus oculatus, adult—Farm Lemoenfontein, SE of Britstown, NC M. Burger



Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, occurring mainly in areas without major anthropogenic disturbances.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pachydactylus oculatus, juvenile—Farm Lemoenfontein, SE of Britstown, NC M. Burger

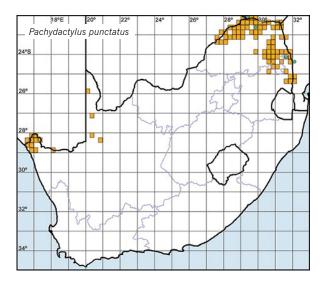
Pachydactylus punctatus Peters, 1854 SPECKLED GECKO; SPECKLED THICK-TOED GECKO

SPECKLED THICK-TUED GEC

Aaron M. Bauer

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Bauer & Branch (1995) elevated the northwestern Namibian subspecies *Pachydactylus punctatus scherzi* to specific status, and considered all other subspecies and synonyms of *P. punctatus* as being referable to *P. p. punctatus*. However, they indicated that there was extensive geographically-correlated colour pattern variation in the species and further study was required. *Pachydactylus amoenoides* has occasionally been considered as a valid species (Wermuth 1965) or subspecies of *P. punctatus* (Jacobsen 1989) from southwestern Namibia, but it was tentatively included in the synonymy of *P. punctatus* by Bauer & Branch (1995). A phylogeographic study of *P. punctatus* is being undertaken (A.M. Bauer, H. Heinz & T.R. Jackman in prep.).



Distribution: Endemic to southern and east-central Africa. Occurs in South Africa (Jacobsen 1989; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]), Namibia (Bauer & Branch 1995), Botswana (Auerbach 1987), Zimbabwe (Visser 1984d), Mozambique (Peters 1854; Visser 1984d), Malawi (Bauer 1993 [1992]), Zambia (Broadley 1971c), Angola (Laurent 1964) and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (De Witte 1953). Within South Africa it occurs in the Northern Cape, in the Richtersveld and adjacent lower Orange River valley, and in the Mier Kalahari. In the east, it is present in the northern and eastern portions of Limpopo and in northeastern Mpumalanga. Extralimitally its distribution is more-or-less continuous from western Namibia (exclu-



Pachydactylus punctatus, adult—Venetia Limpopo NR, LIMP M. Burger

sive of the Namib and pro-Namib), across Botswana and Zimbabwe to Mozambique (exclusive of coastal regions). Its distribution further north is poorly documented but extends to at least 8°S.

Habitat: Chiefly tropical, occupying a diversity of open habitats from grassy savanna to desert margins to dry river beds. Occurs from sea level to at least 1 800 m (100–1 500 m within South Africa) (Bauer & Branch 1995).

Biome: Savanna; Desert; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pachydactylus punctatus, juvenile— Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger

Pachydactylus purcelli Boulenger, 1910 PURCELL'S GECKO; PURCELL'S THICK-TOED GECKO

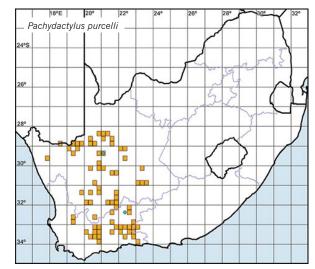
Aaron M. Bauer

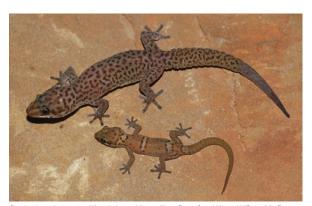
Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Until recently, this taxon was treated as a subspecies of *Pachydactylus serval* based on the work of McLachlan & Spence (1966). The *P. serval* species complex was recently revised and it was elevated to species status (Bauer *et al.* 2006a). Several literature references to *P. serval* in South Africa are actually based on *P. purcelli*. Adults are very similar to those of the closely-related *P. serval* and *P. montanus*, and the identity of specimens from areas of sympatry or near-sympatry (both sides of the Orange River between Goodhouse and Kakamas, and the Karasberg Mountains in Namibia) must be carefully checked.

Distribution: Endemic to western South Africa and southeastern Namibia. In the Western Cape it occurs in the Little Karoo, and north and east of the Cape Fold Mountains, just reaching the southwestern border of the Eastern Cape, and is widely distributed in the Northern Cape as far north as the Orange River valley between Goodhouse and Upington. In Namibia it occurs at scattered localities along the Orange River in the Karasburg district, and in and around the Karasberg Mountains of the Karasburg and Keetmanshoop districts. The record from Carolusberg (2917DB) should be confirmed (Bauer *et al.* 2006a).

Habitat: Found in rocky habitats, from cliff faces to boulder piles and road cuttings, throughout semi-arid regions and riverine corridors in arid zones, chiefly from 450 m to 1 800 m (Bauer *et al.* 2006a).





Pachydactylus purcelli, adult and juvenile-Beaufort West, WC M. Burger

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Savanna; Desert; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common; no known threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pachydactylus rangei (Andersson, 1908) NAMIB WEB-FOOTED GECKO; NAMIB DUNE GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Regional: Critically Endangered A2c

Taxonomy: This species was initially described as the type species (by monotypy) of the genus *Palmatogecko* Andersson, 1908. Immunological comparisons with other African geckos suggested, however, that the species was a highly derived *Pachydactylus* (Joger 1985). The close relationship to *Pachydactylus austeni* was confirmed by DNA-based phylogenetic analysis (Bauer & Lamb 2005; Lamb & Bauer 2006). The genus *Palmatogecko* was formally synonymised with *Pachydactylus* by Bauer & Lamb (2005).

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa and adjacent southwestern Angola. Occurs along the entire length of the Namib Desert in western Namibia and the extreme northwestern portion of the Northern Cape, South Africa, north of the Holgat River and along the lower Orange River to Sendelingsdrif in the Richtersveld National Park (Haacke 1976d; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

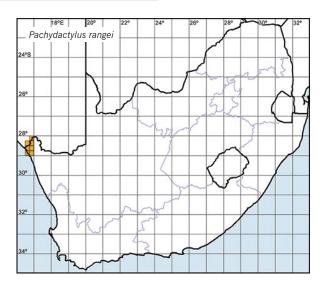
Regional EOO: 1 989 km² (confidence: high); regional AOO: 235 km² (confidence: high).

Habitat: Found in areas of dunes or loose sand or silt, including dry river beds, from coastal areas to at least 160 km inland (Koch 1962; Haacke 1976d). It occurs chiefly below 750 m elevation.

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common throughout its global range, with threats from mining and agriculture in limited areas. Within the Atlas region, however, the majority of suitable habitat along the lower Orange River has been converted for agricultural use and coastal habitats have been impacted by mining activities (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). Based on criteria D1 and D2 the regional assessment of this species would be Vulnerable, whereas application of criteria B and C would yield an assessment of Endangered. However, an apparent dramatic decline (>80%) in the regional population in the last 50 years, attributable to the above-mentioned ongoing human activities, justifies Critically Endangered status under criterion A2c. No individuals have been documented from the native South African range in several decades and the possibility of extirpation exists. However, most recent survey work has concentrated on the narrow and heavily impacted habitat corridor along the Orange River (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). The subpopulation in coastal habitat north of Gifkop is more likely to remain viable in the long term, as a greater area of potentially suitable habitat exists.

Threats: Threatened by agricultural development (Northern Cape: Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]), housing devel-





Pachydactylus rangei-Swakopmund, Namibia

J. Marais

opment (Namibia, chiefly near Swakopmund and Walvis Bay) and mining (mainly in the Sperrgebiet, Namibia and in unprotected parts of the western Richtersveld, Northern Cape). There is also some international pet trade, but most collecting is probably limited to certain areas in Namibia where the species is easily accessed. However, all threats are relatively limited in geographical extent and scope. Threats, especially from agriculture and mining, are most severe in the small South African portion of the range.

Conservation measures: Although this species is classified as Least Concern in its global range, South African populations are highly restricted (McLachlan 1988b) and are here considered Critically Endangered. It is recommended that the Richtersveld National Park be extended to include parts of the western Richtersveld that are inhabited by *P. rangei*, in order to protect this species in South Africa. Studies on the current range and population status of South African populations are required.

Pachydactylus rugosus A. Smith, 1849 COMMON ROUGH GECKO; ROUGH GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Prior to the elevation of *Pachydactylus barnardi* and *P. formosus* from subspecific status within *P. rugosus* (Lamb & Bauer 2000b), some references to *P. rugosus* from the western portions of the Western and Northern Cape actually referred to these other species.

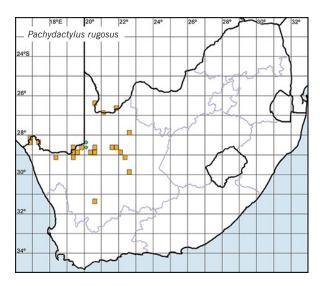
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Occurs in South Africa, southwestern Botswana (Auerbach 1987) and large parts of Namibia (Visser 1984e). Within South Africa it is limited to the Northern Cape, chiefly along the course of the Orange River, but with outlying localities as far south as the Williston area (3120BC).

Habitat: Mainly associated with river courses and most often found under bark on dead trees or in association with dry, dead, fallen or standing trees. However, also found under debris in areas of human activity (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). In the *Atlas* region, it occurs from near sea level to at least 1 200 m. Extralimitally, it occurs at altitudes as high as 1 500 m in parts of Namibia (A.M. Bauer pers. obs.).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Desert; Savanna; Succulent Karoo (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common; not subject to any major identifiable threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pachydactylus rugosus—Farm Good Hope, 30 km SW of Prieska, NC M. Burger

Pachydactylus tigrinus Van Dam, 1921 TIGER GECKO; TIGER THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

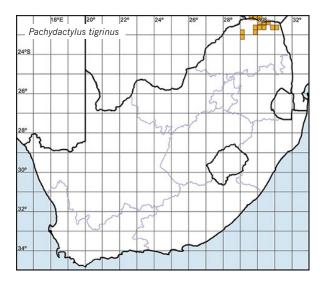
Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Broadley (1977a) elevated *Pachydactylus tigrinus* to full species status within the *P. capensis* group, and also established its synonymy with *P. rhodesianus*.

Distribution: Restricted to southern Africa where it occurs throughout Zimbabwe, in west-central Mozambique, east-



Pachydactylus tigrinus, adult—Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger



ern Botswana and in the northern part of Limpopo Province, South Africa (Broadley 1977a; Jacobsen 1989).

Habitat: Rupicolous, found in rocky habitats that provide narrow crevices, in savanna and savanna woodland (Barts 2005). Most common between elevations of 550 m and 1 500 m (chiefly below 1 000 m in South Africa).

Bioregion: Mopane; Central Bushveld; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in its range as a whole. In its relatively restricted range in South Africa it is abundant, not threatened and occurs in several protected areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pachydactylus tigrinus, juvenile-Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, IIMP M. Burger

Pachydactylus vansoni FitzSimons, 1933 VAN SON'S GECKO; VAN SON'S THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Pachydactylus vansoni was regarded as a subspecies of P. capensis by FitzSimons (1943), Loveridge (1947) and Broadley (1977a). Its specific distinctness was demonstrated by Jacobsen (1989), who found this taxon in strict sympatry with P. capensis (at least one locality). He also suggested that there might be taxonomically significant variation within P. vansoni, with distinctive Highveld versus Lowveld groups, and this requires further investigation.

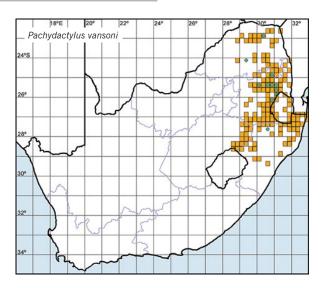
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa where it occurs in southeastern Zimbabwe, southern Mozambique, Swaziland and northeastern South Africa (Broadley 1977a). Within South Africa it is present in all but the southernmost portions of KwaZulu-Natal (Bourguin 2004), central and eastern Limpopo, and Mpumalanga (Jacobsen 1989) and the northeastern Free State (Bates 1996a).

Habitat: Chiefly terrestrial. The Highveld form is found in rocky outcrops in grasslands whereas the Lowveld form is most often found on soil under rocks or dead aloes: occurs from sea level to 2 300 m (Broadley 1977a; Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Mopane; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Drakensberg Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pachydactylus vansoni-Entabeni, Soutpansberg, LIMP

M.F. Bates

Pachydactylus visseri Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006 VISSER'S GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Part of the *Pachydactylus weberi* group (Bauer *et al.* 2006a). Some earlier references to, and photographs of, *P. weberi* from the lower Orange River and the Fish River Canyon are at least in part referable to this species (Branch 1988b, 1994b, 1998; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]; Bauer & Lamb 2005).

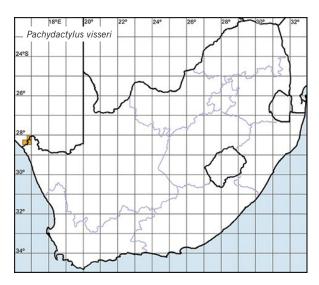
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa where it occurs at the margin of the northwestern Northern Cape and in the adjacent Lüderitz and Karasburg districts of Namibia. Most localities are in the lower Orange River valley and lower Fish River valley, but there are scattered localities from the Aurus Mountains to just south of Aus.

Habitat: Found in relatively mesic microhabitats in rocky arid areas, such as on boulders and cliffs along large river valleys and on rocky hills and mountains. Occurs from sea level to at least 500 m.

Vegetation type: AZa 3 Lower Gariep Alluvial Vegetation; Dn 5 Western Gariep Hills Desert.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is abundant and not threatened. Most of the distribution occurs in protected areas or in non-mined buffer areas of the Diamond Area, where it also receives de facto protection.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pachydactylus visseri-Fish River Canyon, Namibia

W.D. Haacke

Pachydactylus weberi Roux, 1907 WEBER'S GECKO; WEBER'S THICK-TOED GECKO

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

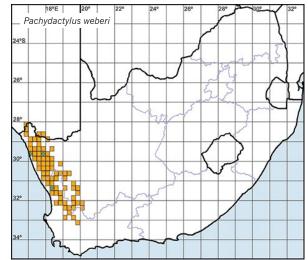
Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Until the recent revision by Bauer *et al.* (2006a), the name *Pachydactylus weberi* was employed for a diversity of closely related, chiefly rupicolus geckos distributed widely from the Cederberg and Bokkeveldberg to northern Namibia. Specimens now assigned to the following names would all previously have been assigned to *P. weberi: P.*



Pachydactylus weberi-near Calvinia, NC

J. Marais



werneri, Hewitt, 1935; *P. robertsi*, FitzSimons, 1938; *P. acuminatus* FitzSimons, 1941; *P. waterbergensis* Bauer & Lamb, 2003; *P. atorquatus* Bauer, Barts & Hulbert, 2006; *P. reconditus* Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006; *P. monicae* Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006; *P. mclachlani* Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006; *P. goodi* Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006; and *P. otaviensis* Bauer, Lamb & Branch, 2006. There has occasionally also been some confusion with the Namibian endemic *P. fas*-

ciatus Boulenger, 1888 (e.g. FitzSimons 1938; Loveridge 1947). Genetic comparisons reveal no appreciable differences between near-topotypical (Springbok area) *P. weberi* and specimens from Garies, the type locality of *P. capensis gariesensis* (Bauer *et al.* 2006a), thus confirming the synonymy of these names. Specimens from the Calvinia area are uniformly more robust than those from western Namaqualand, and their status should be re-assessed using genetic markers.

Distribution: Endemic to southwestern Africa, including western portions of the Western and Northern Cape Provinces of South Africa and a single locality (Skerpioenkop) in the Lüderitz district, Namibia. In South Africa it ranges from the Ceres district to the northern Richtersveld, with inland populations as far east as the Roggeveldberg and Hantamsberg mountains.

Habitat: Found in rocky habitats of many types, from large outcrops and cliff faces to boulder clusters and small rock piles, wherever narrow horizontal cracks or exfoliations exist. Occurs from sea level to at least 1 500 m (Bauer *et al.* 2006a).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Desert; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common; no widespread threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pachydactylus weberi-Groenriviersmond, Namaqualand, NC W.R. Branch

Genus Phelsuma Gray, 1825-day geckos

This is a large genus of at least 52 diurnal gecko species (many with subspecies) distributed throughout the islands and coastlines of the Indian Ocean, particularly Madagascar (Rocha *et al.* 2010; Uetz 2012). One isolated species, *Phelsuma ocellata*, is endemic to Namaqualand in the *Atlas* region and is not threatened. Its generic status has been the subject of much debate (Roux 1907; Schmidt 1933; Hewitt 1937c; Russell 1977; Russell &

Phelsuma ocellata (Boulenger, 1885) NAMAQUA DAY GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: The generic placement of this species has long been in question. It was originally placed in Rhoptropus by Boulenger (1885), but Roux (1907) subsequently recognised its affinities to Phelsuma, to which it was transferred by Schmidt (1933). Hewitt (1937c), however, considered ocellata to be intermediate between the two genera and erected the new genus Rhoptropella. Although this combination was extensively used for many years (e.g. FitzSimons 1943; Loveridge 1947), subsequent data on digit morphology (Russell 1977; Russell & Bauer 1990) and allozymes (Good & Bauer 1995) supported placement in Phelsuma. However, a number of phylogenetic studies on Indian Ocean Phelsuma (Röll 1999; Austin et al. 2004; Sound et al. 2006) have noted that ocellata does not group strongly with other Phelsuma. Sound et al. (2006), using the nomen Rhoptropella ocellata, noted that it may form a clade with Lygodactylus, which together is the sister group of Phelsuma. However, this result was not sufficiently supported in their study or in the analysis of Austin et al. (2004). Recent findings (A.M. Bauer pers. comm.) suggest that it is best treated as the most basal lineage within Phelsuma, rather than being included in a monotypic genus (Rhoptropella). This finding has been adopted here.

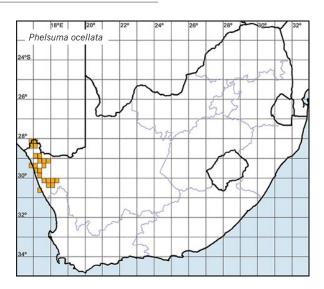
Distribution: Confined to Namaqualand, from the Spoeg River mouth northwards to the Orange River valley, with a possibly isolated population near Augrabies (2820AD, not plotted on map). An isolated record (Süd Witpütz, Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]), unsupported by recent collections, is the only record for southern Namibia.

Habitat: Rupicolous, favouring small rock outcrops in coastal regions, or summit ridges receiving moisture in the fog belt.

Biome: Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Has a wide range in Namaqualand, albeit in scattered pockets of suitable mesic habitat within

Bauer 1990; Good & Bauer 1995; Röll 1999) and it has been placed in a number of different genera, including the monotypic *Rhoptropella*. Recent findings (A.M. Bauer pers. comm.) suggest that it is best treated as the most basal lineage within *Phelsuma*, although Rocha *et al.* (2010) continue to recognise a monotypic *Rhoptropella*. *Phelsuma ocellata* is an agile, diurnal, rupicolous species that shelters in rock cracks and overhangs.





Phelsuma ocellata—near Port Nolloth, NC

J. Marais

the fog belt. Global climate change may affect the extent and frequency of fog in the region and this may negatively impact the species. Known from two localities within the Richtersveld National Park (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). There are few anthropogenic threats and none of major concern.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Genus Ptenopus Gray, 1865 [1866]—barking geckos

Ptenopus is a small genus consisting of three species of nocturnal geckos found in the western arid region of the subcontinent (Branch 1998). One species consists of two subspecies (*Ptenopus garrulus garrulus, P. g. maculatus*), both of which enter the *Atlas* region (Brain 1962; Haacke 1975e). Within the family Gekkonidae, *Ptenopus* appears to be a basal lineage only distantly related to other Afri-

Ptenopus garrulus garrulus (A. Smith, 1849) COMMON BARKING GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Trinomials have been used since FitzSimons (1935) treated *Ptenopus maculatus* Gray, 1865 as a subspecies of *P. garrulus* (Brain 1962, Haacke 1975e). A phylogeographic survey of this wide-ranging species may reveal greater intraspecific diversity.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found from the northern parts of the Northern Cape and adjacent areas in the southwestern Free State and western portions of North-West Province in South Africa through Botswana and adjacent eastern Namibia, and along the Limpopo River Valley to extreme southwestern Zimbabwe and Limpopo Province (Haacke 1975e; Branch 1998).

Habitat: A small, terrestrial gecko of dune and savanna habitats in the central Kalahari and adjacent regions. It digs complicated branched burrows in sandy soil. Dominant males call at the mouth of the burrow, mainly at sunset (Hibbitts *et al.* 2007).

Biome: Savanna, Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Common and not threatened throughout its range, much of which is in semi-arid areas with very low agricultural or urban impact.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

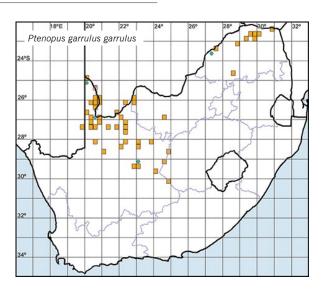
Ptenopus garrulus maculatus Gray, 1865 [1866] SPOTTED BARKING GECKO

William R. Branch

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: FitzSimons (1935) treated *Ptenopus maculatus* Gray, 1865 as a subspecies of *P. garrulus* and this was followed by Haacke (1975e). A phylogeographic survey of this wide-ranging species may reveal greater intra-specific diversity.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. It is found in southern and central Namibia—including the Namib Desert and pro-Namib region—extending into the western half of South Africa (Haacke 1975e; Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it is widely distributed in the Northern Cape, extending into the northern and eastern parts of the West-



can geckos. Barking geckos live in sandy habitats, dig-

ging complex, branched, underground burrow systems.

The dominant males vocalise at their burrow entrance

(Hibbitts et al. 2007). Their sunset choruses (tich, tich,

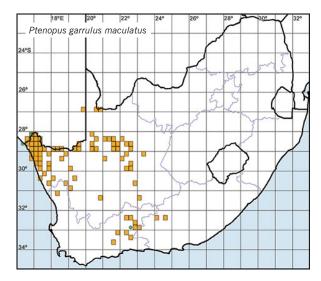
tich, tich...) are a common feature of summer nights in

western scrublands and deserts. Neither subspecies is

threatened in the Atlas region.



Ptenopus garrulus garrulus—Tswalu Kalahari Reserve near Kuruman, NC W. Conradie



ern Cape and western parts of the Eastern Cape. It occurs in the southern and western Karoo, with a single record in the Little Karoo.

Habitat: A small terrestrial gecko found mainly in dune habitats in the pro-Namib, and sandy areas in the Karoo. Its burrows and behaviour are similar to those of *P. g. gar-rulus* (see Haacke 1975).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Desert; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Common and unthreatened throughout its range, much of which is in semi-arid areas with very low agricultural or urban impact.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Ptenopus garrulus maculatus—Aus, Namibia

J. Marais

CHAPTER 10

Family Amphisbaenidae

G. John Measey

There are six families of amphisbaenians (Vidal et al. 2008b), a group of reptiles that have been traditionally treated separately from lizards and snakes, even though their relationships were controversial and poorly resolved. Recent molecular phylogenies have placed the Amphisbaenia unambiguously within the lizards (Sauria: Lacertilia) as the sister group of the Lacertidae (e.g. Townsend et al. 2004). Amphisbaenians are therefore considered to be a specialised group of limbless lizards. There are 183 species (Uetz 2012), distributed principally in sub-Saharan Africa (77 species) and South America (95 species), with small groups of species in the Caribbean, North America and Europe. The alpha-level taxonomy of the family has relied upon morphological characters (Gans 2005) but there appears to be much intraspecific morphological variation (e.g. Broadley et al. 1976) and results from molecular work have shown that the taxonomy used to diagnose genera of South American amphisbaenians was not appropriate (Mott & Vieites 2009). Of the seven genera previously recognised in South America, no less than five have been synonymised with Amphisbaena (Mott & Vieites 2009). The entire family would benefit from molecular phylogenetic investigation, and this is certainly true of species within the Atlas region (see Measey & Tolley 2013). African amphisbaenids include seven genera, with Baikia (one species) and Cynisca (18 species) restricted mainly to West and central Africa, and Loveridgea (two species) restricted to Tanzania. There are ten species in four genera within the Atlas region, distributed mainly in the north: Northern Cape, Free State, North-West Province, Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, and northern KwaZulu-Natal. Most species tend to inhabit loose soils, although some are capable of using their specialised heads to burrow into very hard substrates.

Amphisbaenians bear a superficial resemblance to earthworms, with rings of scales encircling the body. Closer examination reveals a prominent scaly head with toothed mouth and nostrils, and an eye-spot can often be distinguished. These animals display a variety of adaptations for burrowing. Convergent evolution has resulted in four head shapes adapted for burrowing and feeding on soil macro-invertebrates (Kearney & Stuart 2004). The *Atlas* region contains both round- and shovel-headed species, while keel-headed species exist elsewhere in Africa (Kearney 2003). Most species are oviparous but others give birth to young (e.g. Webb *et al.* 2000a). All species prey on soil macrofauna, mostly termites, but a wide range of other soil invertebrates are eaten by various species; prey is usually swallowed whole (Webb *et al.* 2000a).

The amphisbaenians have not previously been considered in conservation terms because they are infrequently encountered, many species are known only from type series and their ecology is poorly known. As a result, a large proportion are considered to be Data Deficient (Böhm et al. 2013). Broadley et al. (1976: 474) remarked that: "collecting amphisbaenians by hand is usually a back-breaking business with little reward". This appears to be due to their subterranean habits rather than because they are uncommon, since densities are very high at times (Pooley et al. 1973; Broadley et al. 1976; Measey et al. 2009). There is anecdotal evidence that land-use change may impact negatively on their populations. For example, approximately 50 animals were found per hectare in one area when virgin land was first ploughed, but after a few years of ploughing, no amphisbaenians were found (Broadley et al. 1976). Measey et al. (2009) found that even within a protected area, densities declined over a period of 35 years, perhaps due to increased stocking of ungulates and the negative effect of this on leaf litter. Little is known about the current distribution, ecology and taxonomy of amphisbaenians in the Atlas region, and this prohibits a comprehensive conservation assessment. The contents of this chapter therefore represent a 'best guess' for most species.

The only amphisbaenian considered threatened in the *Atlas* region is *Chirindia langi occidentalis*, classified as Vulnerable. Major threats to this taxon are agriculture, afforestation and changes in game stocking levels. In the *Atlas* region *Monopeltis leonhardi* is known from only two QDGCs and it was therefore not assessed. There is a need to increase our knowledge of this family in general and this should include both taxonomic and biological studies.

Genus Chirindia Boulenger, 1907—pink round-headed worm lizards

This genus contains 5–9 species (Gans 2005; Uetz 2012) that occur in eastern and southeastern Africa. Two subspecies are known within the *Atlas* region: *Chirindia langi langi* and *C. I. occidentalis* occur on either side of the Soutpansberg in Limpopo Province. Both species have restricted

Chirindia langi langi FitzSimons, 1939 LANG'S WORM LIZARD;

LANG'S ROUND-HEADED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of *Chirindia langi occidentalis* should be re-assessed, preferably using a combination of morphological and molecular techniques.

Distribution: Endemic to the northeastern corner of Limpopo, South Africa and a small portion of adjoining Mozambique (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). May also occur in southeastern Zimbabwe.

Habitat: Mostly fossorial, found under rocks on the soil surface, in burrows or in rotting logs, in sandy Kalahari soils and clayey Mopane woodland on both north- and south-facing slopes, at altitudes of 230–1 400 m (Jacobsen 1989).

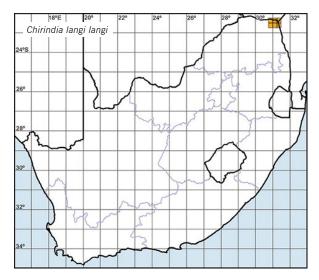
Bioregion: Alluvial Vegetation; Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Very little is known about the distribution of this taxon, e.g. how far it extends into Mozambique. Threats in Mozambique are unknown. In South Africa, AOO and habitat quality are probably influenced by human land-use changes, although some small-scale changes such as subsistence agriculture may favour the taxon. Its range in the *Atlas* region is largely protected



Chirindia langi langi—Saseladonga, Kruger NP, LIMP (TM 28869) W.R. Schmidt

ranges and are deserving of further taxonomic work. Like other amphisbaenians, little is known of their ecology or the threats that they face. *Chirindia I. occidentalis* is now classified as Vulnerable and is threatened by agriculture, afforestation and changes in game stocking levels.



within the Kruger National Park, and its global range is mainly within the boundaries of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Conservation measures: Perform taxonomic studies. Conduct distribution surveys, especially in Mozambique. Investigate the effects of land-use change, especially in Mozambique.



Chirindia langi langi—Mabyeni Hill, Kruger NP, LIMP (TM 59089) W.R. Schmidt

Chirindia langi occidentalis Jacobsen, 1984 SOUTPANSBERG WORM LIZARD;

WESTERN ROUND-HEADED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(iii)

Endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of this taxon should be re-assessed, preferably using a combination of morphological and molecular techniques.

Distribution: Endemic to the low-lying areas of the Soutpansberg in northern Limpopo, South Africa (Jacobsen 1989).

EOO: 6 030 km^2 (confidence: low); AOO: 2 670 km^2 (confidence: low).

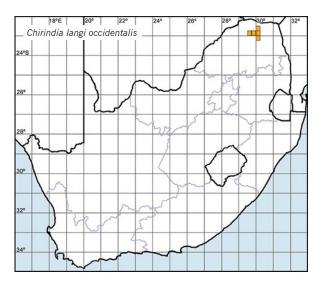
Habitat: Found singly under stones partially imbedded in sandy soils—mostly on the surface or in burrows with the stone as a roof—and occasionally under rotting logs, in mixed bushveld at elevations of 800–1 300 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Mopane, Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: EOO <20 000 km² [B1]; there are 6–10 locations [B1a], and there is a continuing decline in area, extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii)] due to afforestation, use of land for crops, and changes in game stocking levels.

Threats: Threatened by afforestation, agriculture and changes in game stocking levels (see Measey *et al.* 2009).

Conservation measures: Conduct surveys to collect data that will allow for more accurate estimates of EOO and AOO. Carry out taxonomic studies and investigate land use changes.





Chirindia langi occidentalis-Soutpansberg, LIMP

G.J. Alexander

Genus Dalophia Gray, 1865—blunt-tailed worm lizards

Dalophia is distributed in central and southern Africa. Members of this small genus of six (Uetz 2012) to 10 (Gans 2005) species are superficially similar to *Monopeltis* in that they are thick-bodied and have shovel-shaped heads. However, the tail is unusual because it is truncated and has a flattened terminal pad. These rarely-encountered lizards live within

Dalophia pistillum (Boettger, 1895) PESTLE-TAILED WORM LIZARD; BLUNT-TAILED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Distributed widely in southern Africa, occurring in Botswana, eastern Namibia, southern Zambia and northern Zimbabwe, and extending as far east as mid-Mozambique (Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it is known only from the Nylstroom-Vaalwater area of Limpopo, the Vryburg area of North-West Province, and east of Upington in the Northern Cape (Bates *et al.* 2010).

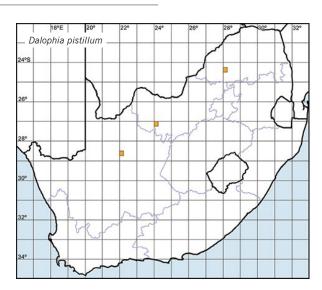
Habitat: Fossorial, usually found within 20 cm of the soil surface; known to take refuge in grass roots at depths of 10 cm (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Eastern Kalahari Bushveld; Kalahari Duneveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common outside the *Atlas* region. Although known from only three localities within the *Atlas* region (Bates *et al.* 2010), it is not considered to be under any specific threat here.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

the soil, prey on macro-invertebrates, and lay eggs (Branch 1998). A single species, *D. pistillum*, occurs within the *Atlas* region (Limpopo, North-West Province and Northern Cape). Although there are no known threats to this species, it may be susceptible to soil compaction and the other land-use changes that affect amphisbaenians (see family account).





Dalophia pistillum—Little Vumbura camp, Okavango Delta, Botswana T. Reumerman

Genus *Monopeltis* A. Smith, 1848—African shovel-snouted worm lizards

The genus *Monopeltis* consists of 21 species (Gans 2005; Uetz 2012) found in sub-Saharan Africa. Six species occur within the *Atlas* region but there are taxonomic uncertainties surrounding some of these (e.g. *M. infuscata*). All species are fossorial, with a characteristic shovel-shaped head, which is used to lift soil when burrowing (Gans 1974).

Monopeltis capensis A. Smith, 1848 CAPE WORM LIZARD:

CAPE SPADE-SNOUTED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Broadley *et al.* (1976) identified three allopatric forms of *Monopeltis c. capensis* that differed mainly in annulation, size and degree of pigmentation. Typical *M. capensis* is referable to Group A. Group B was later described as *M. infuscata*, while Group C is referable to *M. decosteri* (Broadley *et al.* 1976; Broadley 1997). Broadley (1997) also elevated *M. c. rhodesianus* to full species status, rendering *M. capensis* monotypic. A molecular and phylogenetic analysis of *Monopeltis* is required.

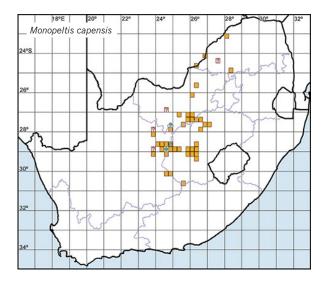
Distribution: Endemic to extreme southern Botswana and the central regions of South Africa (Broadley 1997). Within the *Atlas* region this species occurs in the western half of the Free State and adjacent areas in the Northern Cape, North-West Province and the western half of Limpopo. It has also been recorded from the southern bank of the Orange River in the Eastern Cape (Broadley 1997). Distribution appears to coincide largely with Highveld Grassland and Kalahari Bushveld, but the species also occurs along the Vaal River, and along the Limpopo River on the border with Botswana. A few records on the map are considered questionable because of possible confusion with *M. infuscata*.

Habitat: Fossorial, especially in red soils, and found as deep as 20 cm in the Odendaalsrus area of the northwestern Free State (Broadley *et al.* 1976). In the Free State it has also been found in damp soil and in sand on the banks of rivers, and one specimen was found when a Suricate (*Suricata suricatta*) colony was excavated (De Waal 1978). A specimen from the Northern Cape was found under a large stone (Conradie *et al.* 2011).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



These lizards spend all their time underground where they

feed on macro-invertebrate prey. Females give birth rather than laving eggs (Webb *et al.* 2000a). They are occasionally

encountered when stones are turned or soil is tilled. Threats

are poorly understood but might include mechanised agri-

culture and soil compaction (Broadley et al. 1976).



Monopeltis capensis-Rooipoort NR, NC

W. Conradie

Monopeltis decosteri Boulenger, 1910 DE COSTER'S WORM LIZARD;

DE COSTER'S SPADE-SNOUTED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Broadley *et al.* (1976) considered *Monopeltis decosteri* to be a synonym of *M. capensis*, referable to Group C. However, a subsequent revision by Broadley (1997) revived *M. decosteri* as a full species. The entire *M. capensis* group requires a taxonomic investigation using molecular methods because morphological traits appear to be very variable.

Distribution: Endemic to southeastern Africa. Found in southern Mozambique, southeastern Zimbabwe and along the eastern border of the Kruger National Park in Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces, South Africa (Broadley 1997).

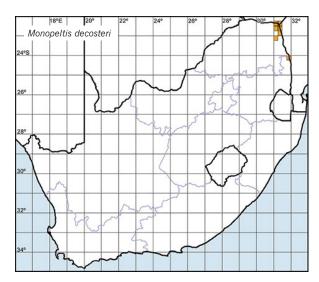
Habitat: Fossorial. Occurs in sandy soils in moist savanna (Branch 1998). Habitat and behaviour are probably similar to *M. capensis*.

Bioregion: Mopane; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Within the Atlas region it occurs mainly within the protected Kruger National Park. EOO



Monopeltis decosteri—Maputo Bay, Mozambique (holotype, SAM 650) M. Burger



(8 000 km²) is below the Vulnerable threshold but there are no known specific threats and no known barriers to immigration from surrounding regions.

Conservation measures: Collect more comprehensive distribution data from inside and outside the *Atlas* region.



Monopeltis decosteri—Maputo Bay, Mozambique (holotype, SAM 650) M. Burger

Monopeltis infuscata Broadley, 1997 DUSKY WORM LIZARD;

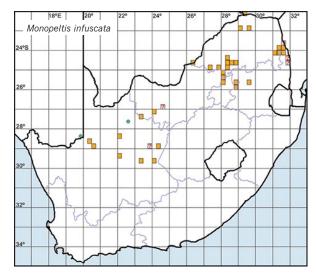
DUSKY SPADE-SNOUTED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Broadley (1997a) elevated *Monopeltis capensis capensis* Group B to species status as *M. infuscata*. The taxonomy of the entire group will be improved by a systematic revision using molecular methods.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Most of the range lies north of the *Atlas* region in southwestern Angola, Namibia and southern Botswana (Broadley 1997). In the *Atlas* region it is found in Limpopo, Gauteng, western Mpumalanga, North-West Province and Northern Cape (Broadley 1997). A few records on the map are con-



sidered questionable because of possible confusion with other species of Monopeltis.

Habitat: Fossorial. Habitat probably similar to that of M. capensis.

Biome: Savanna; Nama-Karoo; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread inside and outside the Atlas region.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Monopeltis infuscata-Umbabat Private NR, LIMP

D. Pietersen

Monopeltis leonhardi Werner, 1910 KALAHARI WORM LIZARD; KALAHARI SPADE-SNOUTED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Not Applicable

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Distributed in the Kalahari of Namibia and Botswana, western and southern Zimbabwe, and along the Limpopo River into extreme northeastern South Africa (Branch 1998). In the Atlas region it is known from two marginal records, one in the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (Northern Cape) and one in Kruger National Park (Limpopo).

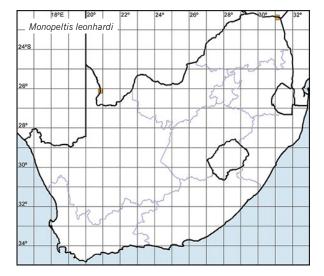
Habitat: Recorded from Kalahari sands. Found in shallow soil under logs and in gerbil burrows (Broadley et al. 1976).

Bioregion: Mopane; Kalahari Duneveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread outside South Africa. The range within the Atlas region (where it is known from only two QDGCs) is less than 5% of the global range and the species was therefore not assessed.



Monopeltis leonhardi-Farm Labota, Gobabis distr., Namibia , (TM 33229) W.R. Schmidt



Conservation measures: Carry out surveys to determine the distribution of this species within the Atlas region. Such information will be helpful for future assessments.



Monopeltis leonhardi-Farm Labota, Gobabis distr., Namibia (TM 33229) W.R. Schmidt

Monopeltis mauricei Parker, 1935 MAURICE'S WORM LIZARD;

MAURICE'S SPADE-SNOUTED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: *Monopeltis mauricei* was described from near Ghanzi, Botswana by Parker (1935) but later treated as a subspecies of *M. sphenorhynchus* by Broadley *et al.* (1976). Subsequently, when he recorded the first specimen of the typical form from Botswana, Broadley (2001a) elevated *M. s. mauricei* to specific status. This arrangement was followed by Gans (2005), but genetic support is needed.

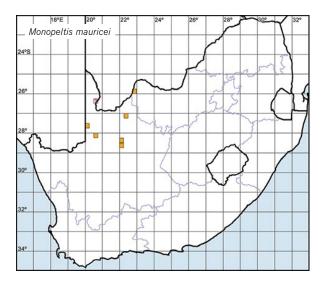
Distribution: Occurs in the Kalahari Desert, throughout much of Botswana and into adjacent Namibia and Angola in the west, Zambia and western Zimbabwe in the north (Broadley *et al.* 1976) and into the Northern Cape (north of the Orange River) and North-West provinces of South Africa (Bates *et al.* 2010). A specimen from Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park in the Northern Cape was tentatively referred to *M. sphenorhynchus* by Bates *et al.* (2010), but its status is uncertain and it is plotted here as a question mark.

Habitat: A fossorial species that digs deep burrows in sparsely-vegetated Kalahari sands.

Bioregion: Eastern Kalahari Bushveld; Kalahari Duneveld; Bushmanland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread in habitats that remain largely intact and not degraded by either human settlement or agriculture.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Monopeltis mauricei—Tswalu Kalahari Reserve, near Kuruman, NC G. van Dyk

Monopeltis sphenorhynchus Peters, 1879 SLENDER WORM LIZARD;

SLENDER SPADE-SNOUTED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

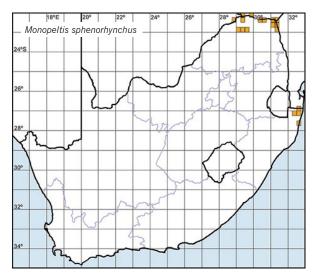
Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: *Monopeltis mauricei* was previously considered to be a subspecies of *M. sphenorhynchus* (Broadley *et al.* 1976) but was raised to specific status by Broadley (2001a). A specimen from Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park in the Northern Cape was tentatively referred to *M. sphenorhynchus* by Bates *et al.* (2010) but its identification is uncertain.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Two disjunct populations are known, one in northern KwaZulu-Natal and coastal southern Mozambique, and another in Limpopo (Branch



Monopeltis sphenorhynchus—Venetia Limpopo NR, LIMP M. Burger



1998) and southeastern Botswana (Broadley 2001a). These may be contiguous through the poorly-surveyed regions of southern Mozambique. The species may also occur in southern Zimbabwe.

Habitat: Fossorial. Usually found in deep sand from near sea level to at least 800 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Mopane; Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: Gain a better understanding of the distribution of this species; this will benefit future assessments.

Genus Zygaspis Cope, 1885—purple round-headed worm lizards

2009)

Zygaspis is a small genus of seven species distributed in central and southern Africa (Broadley & Broadley 1997). Two species occur in the northern and northeastern parts of the *Atlas* region, but neither is of immediate conservation concern. The two subspecies of *Z. vandami* were evaluated together as a single entity, but if *Z. v. arenicola* proves to be a valid species, the status of the two taxa

Zygaspis quadrifrons (Peters, 1862) KALAHARI DWARF WORM LIZARD; KALAHARI ROUND-HEADED WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

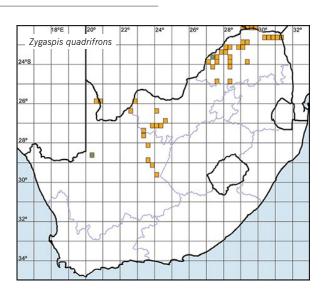
Distribution: This is the most widely distributed species of *Zygaspis*, occurring from northern South Africa through Namibia, Botswana, southern Angola, Zimbabwe, Zambia, southern Democratic Republic of the Congo, southern Malawi and Mozambique (Saiff 1970; Broadley & Broadley 1997). It is on the periphery of its range in the *Atlas* region where it occurs in Limpopo, the western parts of North-West Province, and the northern half of Northern Cape.

Habitat: In Limpopo it is found in deep Kalahari sands and in loamy as well as clayey soil; usually under stones or rotting logs, on or slightly below the soil surface, at altitudes of 250–1 200 m (Jacobsen 1989). Populations in Limpopo are found mainly in Mopane (*Colophospermum mopane*) woodland and bushveld on a granite substrate, extending into Waterberg sandstone; populations in North-West Province and the Northern Cape are found in Kalahari sands (Broadley & Broadley 1997). Individuals from the Northern Cape were found basking under neighbouring stones to those with *Monopeltis capensis* (Conradie *et al.* 2011).

Biome: Savanna; Nama-Karoo (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



should be re-assessed because their ranges are relative-

ly restricted. These small amphisbaenians live in sandy

soils where they feed on termites and other invertebrate

prey and lay small clutches of elongate eggs (Webb et al.

2000a). Threats are poorly understood, but may include

soil compaction and reduction in leaf litter (Measey et al.



Zygaspis quadrifrons-Caprivi, Namibia

W.R. Branch

Zygaspis vandami (FitzSimons, 1930) VAN DAM'S DWARF WORM LIZARD

G. John Measey

Global: Least Concern

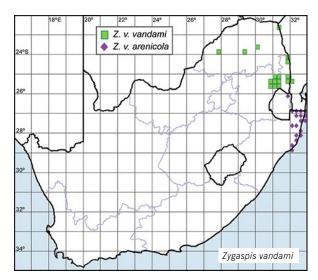
Taxonomy: Broadley & Broadley (1997) recognised two subspecies, namely *Zygaspis vandami vandami* and *Z. v. arenicola*, differing only with regard to the number of postoculars and the fusion of temporal head shields. Gans (2005) recognised these as separate species, although no taxonomic reasons were given. The taxonomic status of these taxa should be clarified, preferably through a combination of morphological and genetic techniques. Here they are treated together because their ranges appear to be contiguous.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. *Zygaspis v. vandami* is probably endemic to South Africa but may also occur in adjacent parts of Mozambique and Swaziland. It has been recorded from Limpopo and northeastern Mpumalanga (Jacobsen 1989, as *Z. violacea*; Broadley & Broadley 1997). *Zygaspis v. arenicola* occurs in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, northeastern Swaziland, southern Mozambique and southeastern Zimbabwe (Broadley & Broadley 1997; Litschka *et al.* 2008; Bates & Maguire 2009). Of particular interest are the isolated records in central and western Limpopo, which deserve closer attention. The most westerly locality (2327DD) is represented by a VM record and requires confirmation as it lies within the range of *Z. quadrifrons* (see Broadley & Broadley 1997).

Habitat: Fossorial. The two subspecies are found in different substrates and this may account for their morphological variation. *Zygaspis v. vandami* is found in shallow soils of minimum development, whereas *Z. v. arenicola* is found mostly in coastal sandy soils. They inhabit areas where leaf litter is densely aggregated, with commensurate high macro-invertebrate density (Measey *et al.* 2009). *Zygaspis v. vandami* is found under stones or logs on sandy or loamy humus-rich soils along the eastern escarpment (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley & Broadley 1997). This substrate is mostly granite, but rhyolite occurs in the Lebombo Range along the border with Mozambique. *Zygaspis v. arenicola* occurs in alluvial sands on the Mozambique plain (Broadley & Broadley 1997).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Despite a continuing decline in area, extent and quality of habitat, and a restricted number of locations (<10), this species has a large geographical range and is thus not regarded as threatened. However,



if *Z. v. arenicola* is found to be a valid species, then the two taxa will need to be re-assessed and both may qualify as Near Threatened or Vulnerable. *Zygaspis v. arenicola* would be at risk because of its small EOO and the ongoing change in human land use and management in the areas where it occurs (Measey *et al.* 2009).

Conservation measures: Little is known of normal population sizes and densities for this or any other amphisbaenian species. Such studies are urgently required, especially in KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga, where much land is under management for game or is being transformed for agriculture and forestry. A PHVA would be useful in this respect.



Zygaspis vandami vandami—Nelspruit, MPM

D. Pietersen



Zygaspis vandami vandami—Farm De Hoop, SE of Nelspruit, MPM (TM 59091) W.R. Schmidt



Zygaspis vandami arenicola—Kosi Bay, KZN

CHAPTER 11

Family Lacertidae

Andrew A. Turner, Marius Burger, Michael F. Bates, Michael J. Cunningham & James Harvey

The Lacertidae comprises the typical lizards, a large group currently represented by 42 genera and 309 species (Uetz 2012; Edwards et al. 2013a) found throughout Africa and Eurasia. Some relationships within the family are not resolved but the members of this family are universally considered to form a clade consisting of three well-resolved subfamilies, of which only the Eremiadinae occurs in southern Africa (e.g. Harris et al. 1998; Mayer & Pavlicev 2007; Pavlicev & Mayer 2009; Hipsley et al. 2011). In the Atlas region there are eight genera and 26 species (one with two subspecies, another with three subspecies) (Branch 1998; Edwards et al. 2013a), but a few additional species in South Africa have yet to be described (e.g. Makokha et al. 2007; M.J. Cunningham unpubl. data). Lacertids occupy a wide range of ecological niches, and occur in a wide variety of habitats, from deserts to tropical forests. These lizards are found throughout the Atlas region but are most diverse in the arid western parts.

All southern African lacertids are diurnal and oviparous, and most species actively forage for small insects (Branch

1998; Kirchoff *et al.* 2010; Van der Meer *et al.* 2010). At least one *Nucras* species, *N. tesellata*, is known to dig up and eat scorpions (Pianka *et al.* 1979). Most African species are small, with a snout–vent length seldom exceeding 100 mm, although their tails may be up to twice that length. Some species exhibit sexual dichromatism.

Most lacertids have large ranges and are often common. The majority of species are not unduly affected by agricultural practices, but are negatively impacted by urban and industrial development. Three species (*Vhembelacerta rupicola*, *Nucras taeniolata*, *Tropidosaura cottrelli*) in the *Atlas* region are classified as Near Threatened, mainly due to habitat transformation (e.g. croplands, stock farming, afforestation). The poorly known *Nucras caesicaudata* just enters the *Atlas* region in the northeast and was not assessed (IUCN category Not Applicable). *Australolacerta australis* was classified as Restricted in the last Red Data Book and *Nucras lalandii* was treated as regionally Near Threatened in the Swaziland Red Data Book, but both species are here classified as globally Least Concern.



Genus Australolacerta Arnold, 1989—Southern rock lizards

Australolacerta contains a single species, A. australis, endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa. Salvi et al. (2011) found that A. australis was part of the southern African branch of the tribe Eremiadini, which includes *Tropidosau*ra, *Meroles* and *Pedioplanis*. A recent analysis of mitochondrial and nuclear DNA sequences indicated that A. rupicola

Australolacerta australis (Hewitt, 1926) SOUTHERN ROCK LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

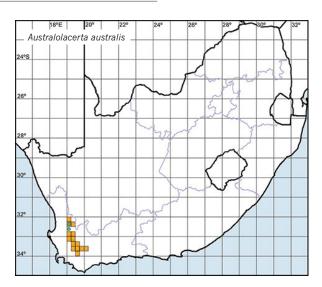
Distribution: This montane species is endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa, occurring from the northern Cederberg in the north to the Hex River Mountains in the south, and eastwards to Kwadouwsberg (Mouton 1988b; Branch 1998). The eastern limits on the Langeberg have not yet been determined.

Habitat: Found in fynbos on the rocky mountain slopes of the Cape Fold Mountains, often near moisture. Prefers large exposed rock such as cliff faces and rock slabs on sandstone outcrops (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Northwest Fynbos, Southern Fynbos, Western Fynbos-Renosterveld, Southwest Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Recent surveys in the Cape Fold Mountains indicate that this species is widespread and reasonably common (M.J. Cunningham pers. comm.). It occupies rugged, rocky areas that provide shelter from fire and minimise direct anthropogenic threats. Much of its range is protected.

Conservation measures: Given the extensive protection already afforded to this species, no conservation actions are recommended. is not closely related to *A. australis* (which is more closely related to *Tropidosaura*—see also Salvi *et al.* 2011) and it was placed in a separate genus, *Vhembelacerta* (Edwards *et al.* 2012, 2013a). Female *A. australis* lay clutches of up to seven eggs (Branch 1998). This species occurs in several protected areas and is considered to be of Least Concern.





Australolacerta australis—Heuningvlei, Cederberg Wilderness Area, WC P. le F.N. Mouton

Genus Heliobolus Fitzinger, 1843—bushveld lizards

The genus *Heliobolus* contains four species widely distributed in Africa (Uetz 2012). Together with *Nucras*, *Heliobolus* is the sister clade to *Pseuderemias* (Mayer & Pavlicev 2007). The only representative in the *Atlas* region is *Heliobolus lugubris*, which is widespread in central southern Africa. These lizards prefer open, sandy habitats. Females of this species lay clutches of 4–6

Heliobolus lugubris (A. Smith, 1838) BUSHVELD LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Very widely distributed, from southern Angola over the Kalahari sands through Namibia, Botswana, southwestern Zimbabwe, southern Mozambique and South Africa (Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it occurs in Limpopo, northern Mpumalanga, the western part of North-West Province and and the northern parts of Northern Cape.

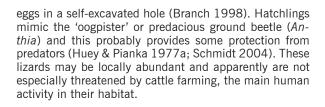
Habitat: Occupies hot, low-lying savanna, often overlying Kalahari sands.

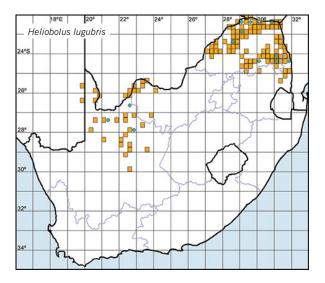
Biome: Savanna; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widely distributed and not known to be negatively impacted by the livestock grazing that commonly takes place in its habitat. Occurs in a number of large protected areas.



Heliobolus lugubris, adult—Farm Good Hope, 30 km SW of Prieska, NC M. Burger







Heliobolus lugubris, juvenile—Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger

Genus Ichnotropis Peters, 1854-rough-scaled sand lizards

Ichnotropis is a small genus of subtropical lizards occurring in mesic to arid savanna. The genus is endemic to Africa, but only one of its six species (Uetz 2012), namely *I. capensis*, occurs in the *Atlas* region. This species has a large range and may be locally abundant. *Ichnotropis* is the sister taxon to *Meroles* (Mayer & Pavlicev 2007). *Ichnotropis capensis* and *Meroles squamulosus* (until recently contained in the genus *Ichnotropis*—see Edwards *et al.* 2012, 2013a and Engleder *et al.* 2013) are sympatric in large parts of their ranges and their life cycles are staggered so that juveniles and adults of the two species are present at different times of the year (Broadley 1979). These two species are regarded as 'annuals' as they mature quickly (5–8 months), live for less than a year, and die soon after breeding (females lay one or two clutches of 3-12 eggs) (Branch 1998). *Ichnotropis capensis* is not known to be threatened, except by urbanisation, and is classified as Least Concern.

Ichnotropis capensis (A. Smith, 1838) ORNATE ROUGH-SCALED LIZARD; CAPE ROUGH-SCALED LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy:The status of the isolated population of this species in Maputaland and adjacent southern Mozambique should be assessed.

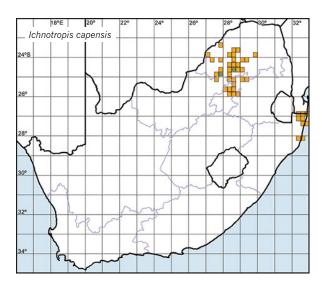
Distribution: Endemic to the southern half of Africa. Found from Angola and Zambia south and east across the Kalahari sands through Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Limpopo, northern Gauteng and adjacent western Mpumalanga. Also occurs in Maputaland, the KwaZulu-Natal coast and southern Mozambique (FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998).

Habitat: Inhabits hot sandy areas with open vegetation separated by patches of bare soil.

Biome: Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Has a wide distribution and occurs in several large protected areas. Apart from the negative effects on its habitat by urbanisation in a few areas, there are no serious known threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Ichnotropis capensis-Caprivi Strip, Namibia

W.R. Branch

Genus Meroles Gray, 1838—desert and savanna lizards

The genus *Meroles* contains eight species that occur mainly in extremely arid environments in the western parts of southern Africa (see Uetz 2012). The centre of diversity is Namibia, but the ranges of four species extend into the western part of the *Atlas* region, while *M. squamulosus* has a large range elsewhere in the southern and southeastern parts of Africa. These lizards have been the subject of recent phylogenetic research and the taxonomy of most species is well-resolved (Lamb & Bauer 2003; Edwards et al. 2012; Engleder et al. 2013). Ichnotropis squamulosa was recently transferred to this genus (Edwards et al. 2012, 2013a; Engleder et al. 2013). Clutch size in the Atlas region varies from two to eight eggs, but as many as 12 eggs may be laid by *M. squamulosus* (Branch 1998). There are no endemic species in the Atlas region. These lizards generally occupy very large ranges and occur in areas that are sparsely inhabited by humans, and therefore they are probably not threatened by anthropogenic activities.

Meroles ctenodactylus (A. Smith, 1838) GIANT DESERT LIZARD; SMITH'S DESERT LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

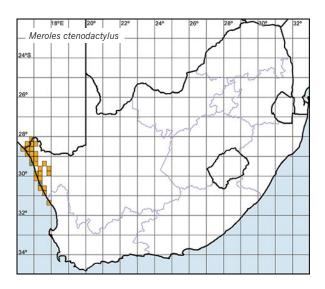
Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Distributed from Sossusvlei in southern Namibia, southwards along the West Coast of South Africa in the Northern Cape, to Brand se Baai in the upper Western Cape (Branch 1998; Branch 2013). In the *Atlas* region its range extends inland as far as Okiep.

Habitat: Inhabits sparsely vegetated areas with loose sand (Branch 1998). Recorded from well-vegetated dune slacks and dune hummocks at Sossusvlei (Branch 2013).

Bioregion: Namaqualand Sandveld; Richtersveld; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Northwest Fynbos; Southern Namib Desert; Inland Saline Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Occurs over a large area that is sparsely occupied by humans. No known threats.





Meroles ctenodactylus-N of Alexander Bay, Richtersveld, NC J. Marais

Meroles cuneirostris (Strauch, 1867) WEDGE-SNOUTED DESERT LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Occurs throughout most of the southern Namib Desert of Namibia south of Walvis Bay, just entering South Africa along the sandy southern banks of the Orange River (Branch 1998). A QDGC record at the eastern edge of the range is considered questionable as it is not located in typical sandy habitat.

Habitat: Found in sparsely vegetated desert and on coastal dunes, especially those with loose sand (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Southern Namib Desert; Namaqualand Sand-veld.

Assessment rationale: Occurs peripherally in South Africa, where its distribution is restricted and EOO (109 km²) and AOO (94 km²) are below the Endangered thresholds. Local populations are threatened by land-use changes (agricultural activities on the banks of the Orange River have negatively impacted much of the loose, sandy habitat that this species requires; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]) and there is a continuing decline in area and quality of habitat [B1+2b(iii)], indicating Near Threatened status. However, immigration from outside the *Atlas* region is almost certain and therefore this regional assessment is downgraded to Least Concern.

Conservation measures: Survey suitable habitat south of the Orange River to assess the status of South African populations.

Meroles knoxii (Milne-Edwards, 1829) KNOX'S DESERT LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

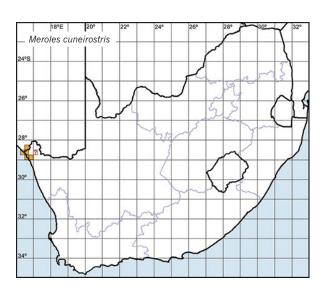
Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously, two subspecies were recognised, namely *Meroles knoxii knoxii* from south of the Orange River in the Northern Cape, and *M. k. pequensis* from north of the Orange River in Namibia. Although no longer regarded as valid, the status of *M. k. pequensis* should be re-assessed because of notable differences in body size and egg clutch size across the north–south extent of the





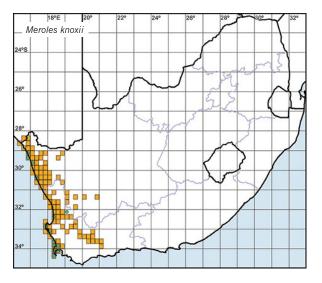
G.J. Alexander





Meroles cuneirostris, adult-Sossusvlei, Namibia

W.R. Branch



species' range (Branch 1998). A review of the taxonomic status of the latter subspecies is currently being conducted by A.M. Bauer & T. Jackman (in prep.). In addition, Little Karoo populations may have diverged from western populations (Branch *et al.* 2006a).

Distribution: Occurs from southwestern Namibia in the north, southwards along the West Coast of the Northern and Western Cape to the Cape Peninsula, and inland through the Cederberg Mountains and Tankwa Karoo to the western Little Karoo (Branch 1998).

Habitat: Found in dry areas with sparse vegetation, mostly on sandy soils (Branch 1998).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Nama-Karoo; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widely distributed and often very abundant, particularly near the coast. Tolerates grazing her-

Meroles squamulosus (Peters, 1854) SAVANNA LIZARD: COMMON ROUGH-SCALED LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A recent analysis using mitochondrial and nuclear sequence data showed that this species, long known by the name Ichnotropis squamulosa, should be transferred to the genus Meroles (Edwards et al. 2012, 2013a; Engleder et al. 2013).

Distribution: Endemic to the southern half of Africa. Found from Angola and Tanzania southwards through Zimbabwe, central Mozambique, Botswana, eastern Namibia, and the northern and northeastern parts of the Atlas region (Branch 1998; Spawls et al. 2002). In the Atlas region it is found in Limpopo, northern Gauteng, northern Mpumalanga, northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, North-West Province, northwestern Free State and the northeastern parts of the Northern Cape. A Virtual Museum record at 2824DB is the southernmost record for the species.

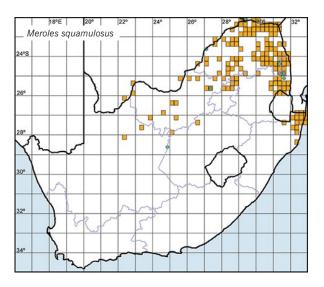
Habitat: Occurs on sandy soils in both mesic and arid savanna (Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Indean Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Occurs over a very large area and is abundant in places. No known threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

bivores and is not known to be threatened by human activities. The conservation assessment presented here is likely to be appropriate even if the species is separated into two or three taxa as mentioned above, because limited ranges, small populations and serious threats are unlikely to apply.





Meroles squamulosus-Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger



Meroles squamulosus-Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger

Meroles suborbitalis (Peters, 1869) SPOTTED DESERT LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

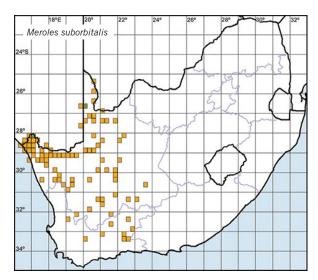
Taxonomy: A very variable, widely distributed species. The possibility of significant population structuring and the presence of cryptic species should be investigated, particularly in the vicinity of the lower Orange River (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]; Branch *et al.* 2006a).

Distribution: Widely distributed from north-central Namibia to the Tankwa Karoo in the south, and eastwards to the southeastern Great Karoo (Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it occurs in the Northern and Western Cape provinces.

Habitat: Occupies open, sparsely-vegetated areas in desert and semi-desert (Branch 1998).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Desert; Savanna; Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Widely distributed and fairly abundant in many parts. No known threats.





Meroles suborbitalis—Farm Eselkopvlakte, WNW of Loeriesfontein, NC M. Burger

Genus Nucras Gray, 1838—sandveld lizards

The genus *Nucras* contains 10 species primarily restricted to southern Africa but extending into central and eastern Africa (Branch 1998; Spawls *et al.* 2002). Eight species occur in the *Atlas* region and three of these (*N. lalandii*, *N. livida*, *N. taeniolata*) are endemic. Another potential undescribed species, also endemic to the *Atlas* region, is currently being investigated (A.M. Bauer in prep.). *Nucras* appears to be the sister taxon to *Heliobolus* (Makokha *et al.* 2007). Members of this genus are found in savanna and grassland where they are diurnal, terrestrial, active hunters that feed primarily on invertebrates (Van der Meer *et al.* 2010). Females lay 2–9 eggs in summer (Branch 1998). *Nucras caesicaudata* was previously listed as 'Peripheral' (Branch 1988a) but is here considered Not Applicable as there are too few records in the region to allow for a proper assessment. *Nucras taeniolata* is now classified as Near Threatened as a result of its restricted range in combination with habitat destruction and degradation.

Nucras caesicaudata Broadley, 1972 BLUE-TAILED SANDVELD LIZARD

Marius Burger

Not Applicable

Taxonomy: There are no alpha-level taxonomic issues, but the phylogenetic position of the species within *Nucras* requires investigation.

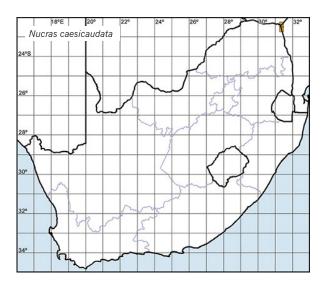
Distribution: This species occurs peripherally in South Africa, where it is confined to the extreme northeastern limits of the Kruger National Park in Limpopo Province. Elsewhere it occurs in the plains of southern Mozambique and in southeastern Zimbabwe (Broadley 1972; Jacobsen 1988d, 1989; Branch 1998). Recently recorded as far east as the San Sebastian Peninsula in southern Mozambique (Jacobsen *et al.* 2010). The global distribution suggests four disjunct populations, but this may be an artefact of under-sampling.

Habitat: A terrestrial species recorded amongst clumps of *Hyphaene* palms on the edge of pans where these merge into *Terminalia* savanna (Broadley 1972). Found below 100 m in Miombo woodland in the San Sebastian Peninsula (Jacobsen *et al.* 2010). Limited ecological information is currently available but the species appears to be associated with deep sands. The altitude of the South African records is around 300 m and the type locality in Zimbabwe is at 425 m (Broadley 1972; Pienaar *et al.* 1983; Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Mopane.

Assessment rationale: The range within the *Atlas* region (where it is known from only two QDGCs) is less than 5% of the global range, and therefore this species was not assessed.

Conservation measures: Conduct surveys of known localities and areas of potential occurrence in order to gain insight into basic ecology and population dynamics, and especially to assess the types and extent of threats. Determine the current status of the Kruger National Park population and assess the impacts of environmental management regimes there.





Nucras caesicaudata—Wambia Sandveld, Kruger NP, LIMP W.D. Haacke

Nucras holubi (Steindachner, 1882) HOLUB'S SANDVELD LIZARD

Marius Burger

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: In his assessment of the Nucras tessellata complex, Broadley (1972) treated Nucras (as Eremias) holubi as a junior synonym of N. taeniolata ornata and considered it a variety or morph of the latter. Jacobsen (1989) presented morphological characters to distinguish between the holubi and ornata morphs of N. taeniolata in the northern parts of South Africa. He treated N. t. holubi as a valid taxon and considered the ornata morph a full species. Bates (1996a) presented additional diagnostic morphological characters which, together with a pronounced geographical range separation between N. t. taeniolata in the Eastern Cape and N. t. holubi, he regarded as justification for full species status for the latter. A molecular phylogeny of Nucras confirmed the species status of N. holubi, which is most closely related to the sister species pairing of N. intertexta and N. ornata (Edwards et al. 2013b). The status of the seemingly disjunct Namibian population of N. holubi requires investigation.

Distribution: The exact limits of the distribution are uncertain but the species apparently occurs in two disjunct nodes. The first is comprised of the central and northeastern regions of South Africa, i.e. parts of the Northern and Eastern Cape, Free State, North-West Province, Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and northern KwaZulu-Natal, as well as Swaziland, Botswana, Zimbabwe, southern Malawi and possibly Mozambique, while the second node appears to be restricted to northeastern Namibia (De Waal 1978; Branch 1998; Jacobsen 1989; Bourquin 2004). Some records from Swaziland (e.g. 2631BA, BB, AD, CD) require confirmation (Boycott 1992a,b), and records east of 32°E in KwaZulu-Natal may be referable to *N. ornata*.

Habitat: A terrestrial species with a wide habitat tolerance, generally associated with broken rocky terrain in mesic savanna in the north and open sandy flats in the south. As is typical for most sandveld lizards, this species also shelters in burrows in the ground or under rocks. The altitudinal range in the *Atlas* region is 150–1 500 m (De Waal 1978;

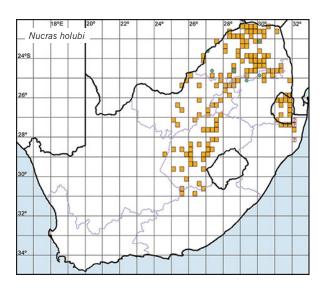
Nucras intertexta (A. Smith, 1838) SPOTTED SANDVELD LIZARD

Marius Burger

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previous assessments of the *Nucras tessellata* complex, which includes *N. intertexta*, presented various morphological characters to distinguish between the taxa (Broadley 1972; Jacobsen 1989; Bates 1996a). A molecular phylogeny of *Nucras* confirmed the species status of *N. intertexta*, which is the sister species of *N. ornata* (Edwards *et al.* 2013b).

Distribution: Due to the taxonomic confusion regarding the *N. tessellata* complex, our understanding of the distribution of *N. intertexta* is inadequate. The distribution map approximates the appraisal of Broadley (1972) but was amended according to the subsequent assessments of Jacobsen (1989), Bates (1996a) and Bourquin (2004), with the addition of new records. Globally, the species oc-



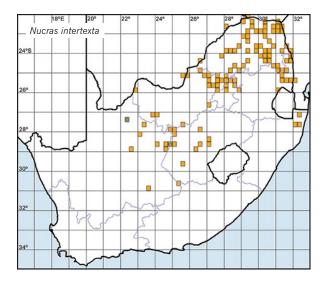


Nucras holubi-Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger

Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Bourquin 2004). Also found in open grassland in the Free State (Bates 1992).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Threats in its range are not considered to be significant.



curs in Namibia, Botswana, southern Zimbabwe, southern Mozambique and South Africa (Branch 1998). Within the *Atlas* region it is distributed in the central (Free State, Northern Cape, North-West Province) and northeastern (Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng) parts, with an isolated population in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal. It may also occur in Swaziland.

Habitat: A terrestrial species associated with sandy substrates, usually Kalahari sands, in relatively arid savanna



Nucras intertexta, adult—Farm Blackridge, NE of Groblershoop, NC M. Burger

Nucras Ialandii (Milne-Edwards, 1829) DELALANDE'S SANDVELD LIZARD

Marius Burger

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Nucrus Ialandi is most closely related to N. livida and N. tessellata + N. taeniolata (Edwards et al. 2013b). A molecular investigation covering the large range of this species may reveal the existence of cryptic taxa.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region where its range extends over the eastern and southern parts, from northern Limpopo southwards through Mpumalanga, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, and into the Western Cape along the southern Cape coast to Cape Town (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Bourquin 2004). A few records are also known from the Free State, Swaziland and Lesotho (De Waal 1978; Boycott 1992a; Bates 1996a; Ambrose 2006).

Habitat: A terrestrial species generally associated with montane and temperate grassland. Also utilises coastal fynbos habitat in the southern Cape. As is typical for most sandveld lizards, it shelters in burrows in the ground or under rocks. Usually frequents high altitudes, e.g. 1 550–2 300 m in Limpopo and Mpumalanga, but occurs at lower elevations in KwaZulu-Natal and near sea level along the southern Cape coast (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Albany Thicket; Fynbos; Nama-Karoo (marginal).

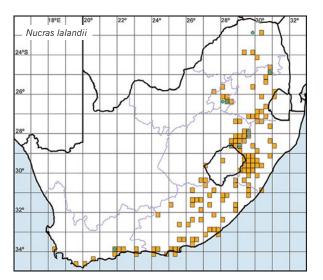
Assessment rationale: Widely distributed and relatively common throughout most of its range. None of the IUCN Red List Criteria for a threatened listing are met, but the extent of habitat loss, degradation and fragmentation due to afforestation, and increased burning in montane grassand open scrubland. The altitudinal range in the Atlas region is 300-1 400 m (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Bourquin 2004).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Common and widely distributed in the *Atlas* region, extending into several other countries to the north.



Nucras intertexta, juvenile—Skukuza, Kruger NP, MPM G.J. Alexander





Nucras Ialandii-Bushman's Nek, KZN

W.R. Schmidt

lands, are reasons for concern. These threats are continuing and may ultimately cause this species to become threatened in such areas.

Nucras livida (A. Smith, 1838) **KAROO SANDVELD LIZARD**

Marius Burger

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

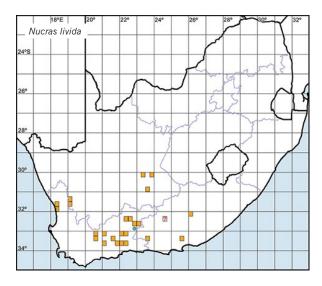
Taxonomy: Previously treated as a subspecies of Nucras tessellata (Broadley 1972) but elevated to species rank by Branch & Bauer (1995). A molecular phylogeny of Nucras confirmed the species status of N. livida, which is most closely related to the sister grouping of N. tessellata and N. taeniolata (Edwards et al. 2013b). Nevertheless, a detailed molecular phylogeny of this species is still needed. The photograph at the bottom right represents the first record of blue hindlimbs in a juvenile of this species.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it occurs primarily in karroid regions of the Western Cape, extending into the Eastern and Northern Cape provinces. The isolated records in the Nieuwoudtville and Vredendal areas (Du Toit & Alblas 2003), southeastern parts of the Northern Cape (Broadley 1972), Eastern Cape at Graaff-Reinet (3224BC, questionable as the specimen was not examined by Broadley 1972), Dunbrody (3325BC, Broadley 1972) and Commando Drift Nature Reserve (3226AA, Burger & Hahndiek 1993), should stimulate further investigation. An old record from Port Elizabeth (see Broadley 1972) is doubtful and was not plotted on the map, as this species has not been recorded from the area for over 50 years.



Nucras livida, adult-About 28 km SE of Britstown, NC

Conservation measures: Protect substantial units of montane grassland habitat where the species occurs. Through legislation, regulate burning at unprotected grassland sites.



Habitat: Mainly associated with well-vegetated karroid sandy flats (Branch 1998) but also recorded from sandy soils of the Bokkeveld Group with thorny shrubs and scattered succulents (Du Toit & Alblas 2003).

Bioregion: Rainshadow Valley Karoo; Lower Karoo; Karoo Renosterveld; West Strandveld.

Assessment rationale: Common, with a fairly wide distribution in South Africa and no known significant threats.



Nucras livida, juvenile-Farm Tierberg, NE of Prince Albert, WC M. Burger

Nucras ornata (Gray, 1864) ORNATE SANDVELD LIZARD

Marius Burger

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previous assessments of the *Nucras tessellata* complex, which includes *N. ornata*, presented various morphological characters to distinguish between the taxa (Broadley 1972; Jacobsen 1989; Bates 1996a). Jacobsen (1989) presented morphological characters to distinguish between the *holubi* and *ornata* morphs of *N. taeniolata* in the northern parts of South Africa. He revived *N. t. holubi* as a valid taxon (later raised to species rank by Bates 1996a) and considered the *ornata* morph a full species. A molecular phylogeny of the genus *Nucras* confirmed the species status of *N. ornata*, which is the sister species of *N. intertexta*, but is also closely related to *N. holubi* (Edwards *et al.* 2013b).

Distribution: Extends from southern Zambia and Malawi, south through Zimbabwe into South Africa and Swaziland, with a few records from Mozambique (Broadley 1972; Jacobsen 1989). Namibian records plotted by Broadley (1972) are isolated and require further investigation. The boundaries of this species' distribution in the Atlas region have not been clearly established because of uncertainty about specimen identifications. Its distribution here is in the northeastern regions, primarily Limpopo, Gauteng, northern Mpumalanga (Jacobsen 1989), Swaziland (Boycott 1992) and KwaZulu-Natal (Bourguin 2004). Based on the assessment of Bates (1996a), records of N. t. ornata from the Free State and Northern Cape plotted by Broadley (1972) and Visser (1984f) are not plotted here because they are probably referable to N. holubi or N. intertexta.

Habitat: A terrestrial species that frequents grass tussocks and leaf litter on rocky hillsides in montane grassland and in mesic savanna. It often occupies burrows in the ground, including those under rocks. The altitudinal range in the *Atlas* region is from about 300 m in KwaZulu-Natal to about 1 700 m in the northern part of the range (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Bourquin 2004).

Ise 20° 22° 24° 26° 28° 20° 32° 28°



Nucras ornata-Manyiseni region, Lebombo Mtns, KZN M. Burger

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Common, with a relatively wide distribution in the *Atlas* region. The range extends into several other countries to the north.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Nucras taeniolata (A. Smith, 1838) ALBANY SANDVELD LIZARD; STRIPED SANDVELD LIZARD

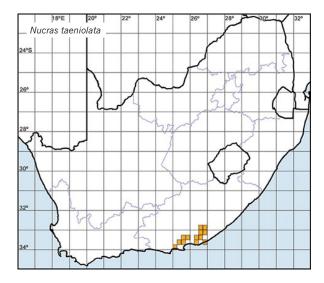
Marius Burger

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Taxonomy within the *Nucras tessellata* complex is unresolved. *Nucras taeniolata* is regarded as a monotypic species following the elevation of *N. ornata* and *N. holubi* to full species status (Jacobsen 1989; Bates 1996a). A molecular phylgeny of the genus *Nucras* confirmed the species status of *N. taeniolata*, which is the sister species of *N. tessellata* (Edwards *et al.* 2013b).

Distribution: An Eastern Cape endemic restricted to the Algoa Bay region. Distribution extends from the Double Drift Game Reserve in the north, southwards through the Albany district to just north of Port Elizabeth, and westwards through Addo Elephant National Park to Groendal



Wilderness Area (Branch & Burger 2009) and the Gamtoos Valley near Thornhill (Conradie 2012).

EOO: 9 602 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 3 987 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Very little is known about the ecology of this seemingly rare lizard, with only 40 specimens known from museum collections (Branch & Burger 2009; Conradie 2012). It is terrestrial and has been observed on soft and hard soils and shale in mesic to arid environments, where it may burrow in at the base of bushes or shelter under rock slabs (Branch & Braack 1987; Fabricius *et al.* 2002). Altitude ranges from about 50 m near Port Alfred and Bushmans River to about 500 m in the Groendal and Zuurberg regions.

Vegetation type: AT 8 Kowie Thicket; AT 6 Sundays Thicket; SVs 7 Bhisho Thornveld; AT 11 Great Fish Thicket; AT 10 Great Fish Noorsveld; AT 7 Coega Bontveld; AT 9 Albany Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Almost qualifies as Vulnerable based on EOO <20 000 km² [B1] and a continuing decline in AOO, extent/quality of habitat and number of mature individuals [B1b(ii,iii,v)]. The disconcerting current and predicted future extent of habitat transformation, degradation and fragmentation result primarily from agricultural, urban and industrial sprawl and may result in this species becoming more threatened. It is therefore of conservation concern and classified as Near Threatened.

Threats: Generally restricted to the Albany Thicket Biome, of which 7.3% is completely transformed and much of the remainder degraded. Only 11% of the untransformed area is still in pristine condition and 60% is severely degraded. The main causes of habitat transformation are bush clear-

Nucras tessellata (A. Smith, 1838) WESTERN SANDVELD LIZARD

Marius Burger

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The *Nucras tessellata* complex was last revised by Broadley (1972), who recognised three subspecies (*N. t. tessellata*, *N. t. livida* and an unnamed subspecies of *N. tessellata*). Apart from typical *N. t. tessellata*, Broadley (1972) also recognised two varieties (*N. t. tessellata* var. *elegans* and *N. t. tessellata* var. 'T'). Although *N. t. livida* was subsequently elevated to species level (Branch & Bauer





W.R. Branch

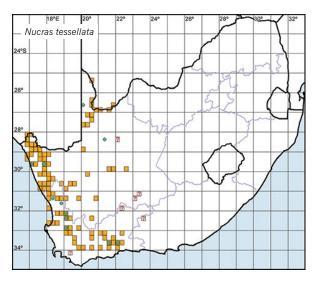


Nucras taeniolata—Amanzi, EC

W.R. Branch

ing for livestock and crop cultivation, herbivory by livestock, urban residential and industrial developments, afforestation and alien plant infestations. These threats are on the increase, particularly the extent of coastal urbanisation and industrial development in the Coega region (Lloyd *et al.* 2002).

Conservation measures: *Nucras taeniolata* is well represented in several existing protected areas and a number of mega-conservancy networks, and park expansions are earmarked for the region in which it occurs (Hoare *et al.* 2006). The species is thus likely to maintain a viable long-term presence in spite of habitat transformation, but it should nevertheless be considered in the Environmental Impact Assessments of forthcoming development projects in the area.



1995), the taxonomic status of the two varieties and the unnamed subspecies remain unresolved. Although a molecular phylogeny of *Nucras* confirmed the species status of *N. tessellata*, which is the sister species of *N. taeniolata* (Edwards *et al.* 2013b), a detailed molecular investigation of *N. tessellata* is still needed. For the purposes of the SARCA assessment, *N. tessellata* includes the two varieties but excludes the supposed Angolan subspecies which, considering its vast geographical separation from other conspecifics, probably represents a separate species. **Distribution:** Endemic to southern Africa. Found in the western regions, extending from central Namibia southwards through southwestern Botswana, and Northern and Western Cape provinces, South Africa. The true distribution limits are still unresolved, as explained above, but the map here includes all of Broadley's (1972) *N. t. tessellata* records as well as new records assignable to this species. A number of questionable records are also indicated.

Habitat: A terrestrial species generally associated with rocky terrain (Branch 1998), but it also frequents open karroid veld and dry river beds.

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Savanna; Nama-Karoo; Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Common with a wide distribution spanning three countries.

Genus Pedioplanis Fitzinger, 1843—sand lizards

Pedioplanis is a group of typical lacertid lizards endemic to Africa, with most of the 13 species (Uetz 2012) restricted to southern Africa and a few occuring in southern Angola (Branch 1998; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]; Conradie *et al.* 2012). Five species (one with two subspecies) are present in the *Atlas* region. Phylogeography of the genus in the subcontinent was recently investigated (Makokha

Pedioplanis burchelli (Duméril & Bibron, 1839) BURCHELL'S SAND LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species may be confused with its morphologically similar sister species *Pedioplanis laticeps* (but see phylogeny in Makokha *et al.* 2007).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Lesotho. Occurs in the eastern part of the *At/as* region, extending from southern Mpumalanga through the eastern Free State, western KwaZulu-Natal, Lesotho, southern parts of the Northern Cape, and throughout most of the Eastern and Western Cape provinces. The isolated northernmost record (Rietfontein 313IR; 2628BD) in western Mpumalanga was reported by Jacobsen (1989).

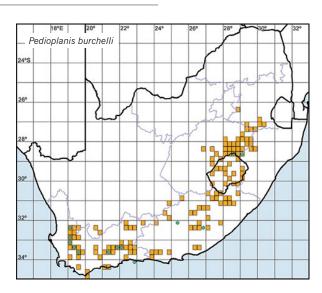
Habitat: Found in rocky areas, particularly those with exposed bedrock and sparse vegetation (Branch 1998). Often associated with large mountains.

Biome: Grassland; Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Very widespread and often abundant; no known threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

et al. 2007), revealing the existence of a few cryptic taxa that await formal taxonomic description. The majority of species live in very arid habitats. They are diurnal, active foragers capable of astonishing bursts of speed. Females in the *Atlas* region lay clutches of 2–8 eggs (Branch 1998). Most species have extensive distributions and are often locally abundant. None are regarded as threatened.





Pedioplanis burchelli, adult—Fever village, about 25 km SW of Cedarville, EC M. Burger



Pedioplanis burchelli, subadult—near Farm Hartbeesfontein, Nieu Bethesda area, EC W.R. Branch

Pedioplanis inornata (Roux, 1907) PLAIN SAND LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Pedioplanis inornata is paraphyletic with respect to P. gaerdesi, with a clade from northern Namibia and another from southern Namibia and the Northern Cape. These clades represent two different species (Makokha et al. 2007). This impending taxonomic change is unlikely to affect the Red List status of the South African taxon.

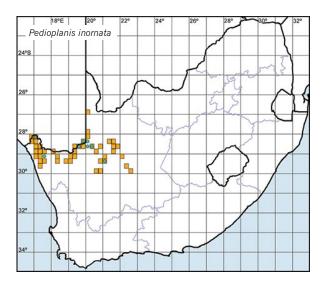
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found from Swakopmund in Namibia southwards through Namaqualand to Prieska in the Great Karoo. In reality, it comprises two taxa; one endemic to Namibia and another endemic to Namibia and South Africa (see Makokha et al. 2007).

Habitat: Inhabits exposed bedrock on the lower slopes of mountains (Branch 1998).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widely distributed in South Africa. Occurs in areas that are not heavily impacted by human activities. No known threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Pedioplanis inornata-near Potjiespram, Richtersveld, NC J. Marais

Pedioplanis laticeps (A. Smith, 1844) KAROO SAND LIZARD: CAPE SAND LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

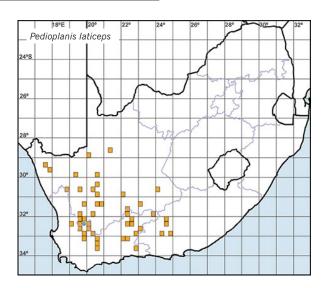
Taxonomy: This species may be confused with its morphologically similar sister species Pedioplanis burchelli, but the two taxa are genetically distinct (Makokha et al. 2007).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa. Occurs widely from the Orange River in the north to Anysberg in the south and Graaff-Reinet in the east. Branch (1990a) noted that old, unvouchered records of P. laticeps (as Eremias capensis) from localities on the western Cape coast (Papendorp,



Pedioplanis laticeps—Sutherland, NC

```
W. Conradie
```





Pedioplanis laticeps-Sutherland, NC

W. Conradie

Hondeklipbaai and Kleinsee; Burrage 1978) were probably due to mis-identification with *Meroles knoxii*. These old records are not plotted on the map here.

Habitat: Found on compacted, well-vegetated soils in Succulent Karoo and montane grassland (Branch 1998), often in open areas with stones.

Pedioplanis lineoocellata lineoocellata (Duméril & Bibron, 1839) SPOTTED SAND LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: There is some genetic structure within *P. lineoocellata*. Makokha *et al.* (2007) used molecular techniques to show that the currently recognised subspecies (*lineoocellata, pulchella*), as well as an undescribed form from Limpopo, may all represent distinct species (but see comments under *P. I. pulchella* below). Branch (1998) noted morphological differences between the three named subspecies, *lineoocellata, pulchella* and *inocellata*.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa where it is widely distributed. Found from the northern parts of Namibia and Botswana to Limpopo in the northeast and the Karoo in the south (Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it occurs in the South African provinces of Limpopo, Mpumalanga (northern half), Gauteng, North-West, Free State, Northern Cape, and the extreme northern parts of the Eastern Cape. The most westerly locality (2918BD) in the *Atlas* region is a VM record.

Habitat: Prefers dry, open vegetation.

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Very widespread and tolerant of many agricultural activities. Not considered threatened. It is unlikely that any of the taxa contained within *P. lineoocellata* (see *Taxonomy* above) would qualify for threatened status.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pedioplanis lineoocellata pulchella (Gray, 1845) COMMON SAND LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

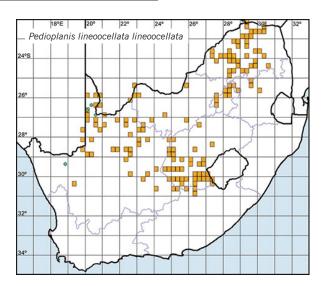
Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Previous studies had indicated that this taxon may represent a valid species, distinct from *Pedioplanis lineoocellata* and *P. inocellata* (see Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001], Makokha *et al.* 2007). However, a recent mitochondrial DNA analysis did not support the elevation of this taxon to species status (Edwards 2013). Nevertheless, the allopatric population in the Waterberg Range of Limpopo Province and adjacent areas is genetically distinct and may be described as a new species (Makokha *et al.* 2007; Edwards 2013).

Distribution: Occurs from southern Namibia southwards through Namaqualand and the eastern Great Karoo to

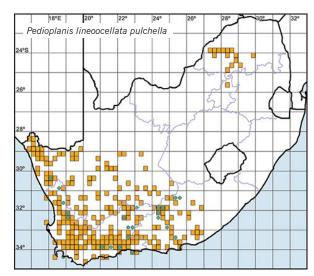
Biome: Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Grassland (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread with no significant threats.





Pedioplanis lineoocellata lineoocellata—Tswalu Kalahari Reserve, NC W. Conradie



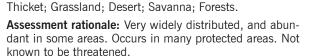
the Cape Peninsula, and eastwards to Barkly East in the Eastern Cape, with an apparently isolated population in the Waterberg region of Limpopo and adjacent areas (e.g. northern Gauteng) (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Habitat: Found in a large variety of habitats from the coast to mountain slopes. Generally associated with rocky areas.



Pedioplanis lineoocellata pulchella—Steytlerville, EC

W.R. Branch



Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Albany

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pedioplanis lineoocellata pulchella—Williston, NC

W.R. Branch

Pedioplanis namaquensis (Duméril & Bibron, 1839) NAMAQUA SAND LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

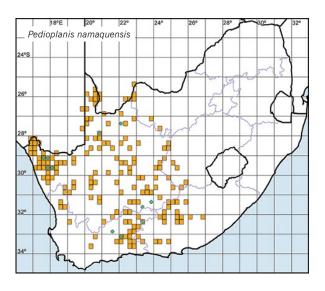
Taxonomy: A molecular analysis indicated that *P. nama-quensis* consists of two distinct taxa, one in Namibia and the other in South Africa (Makokha *et al.* 2007), but their exact distributions are unclear.

Distribution: Occupies a large part of the dry western half of southern Africa, from west of Algoa Bay in the Eastern Cape, northwards through the Karoo and Kalahari to southern Angola and eastern Botswana (Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it occurs in the Eastern, Western and Northern Cape provinces, southwestern Free State and western parts of North-West province.

Habitat: Inhabits open sandy areas in karroid veld, arid savanna and semi-desert. Digs its own burrows in sand at the base of bushes (Branch 1998).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Savanna; Grassland; Desert; Fynbos; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Abundant, widespread and not threatened.





Pedioplanis namaquensis—Farm Slangfontein, between Wolwefontein and Jansenville, EC W.R. Branch

Genus Tropidosaura Fitzinger, 1826-mountain lizards

Tropidosaura currently comprises four species endemic to South Africa and Lesotho. A recent molecular study by Engleder *et al.* (2013) confirmed that *T. cottrelli* and *T. essexi* are sister taxa, but showed that *T. gularis* was more closely related to *T. montana*. The phylogeography of the genus and relationships within it, especially the status of the three subspecies of *Tropidosaura montana*, is being reviewed (M.J. Cunningham unpubl. data). These lizards are associated with mountainous areas and generally oc-

Tropidosaura cottrelli (Hewitt, 1925) COTTRELL'S MOUNTAIN LIZARD

Michael J. Cunningham, Andrew A. Turner & Michael F. Bates

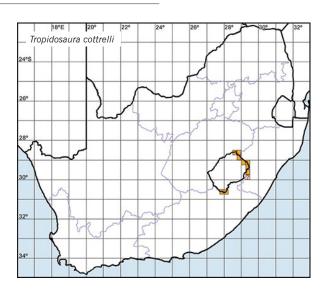
Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Basutosaura cottrelli Hewitt, 1925 was described as a new genus and species, distinguished from Tropidosaura (T. montana Duméril & Bibron, 1839 and T. burchelli Smith, 1849) by the presence of a single postnasal scale (versus two post-nasals), each nostril being pierced in a single scale (versus nostrils pierced between three scales), and by the keeled but not acuminate rhombic dorsal scales (versus keeled and spine-tipped elongate dorsal scales) (Hewitt 1925). The subsequent discovery and description of T. m. rangeri Hewitt, 1926, T. essexi Hewitt, 1927 and T. gularis Hewitt, 1927 bridged the geographical and morphological gap between these genera (Hewitt 1926, 1927). Consequently, Hewitt (1927) transferred this species to Tropidosaura, but assigned it, together with T. essexi and T. gularis, to the subgenus Basutosaura. A recent molecular study by Engleder et al. (2013) confirmed that T. cottrelli and T. essexi are sister taxa, but showed that T. gularis was more closely related to T. montana.

Distribution: Endemic to the Maloti-Drakensberg highlands of South Africa and Lesotho (Branch 1998; Bates 2013), from Ben McDhui in the south to Mont-aux-Sources and Namahali Pass in the north. It probably also occurs in the area between the known northern and southern localities. Its range includes areas on the periphery of the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Free State, along the Lesotho border, as well as areas on the higher ranges in eastern and northern Lesotho. Within this area, the species is sparsely distributed along the crests of mountain ridges and along the escarpment summit edge. This area is poorly surveyed and although T. cottrelli has been recorded from only nine out of 37 QDGCs with suitable bioclimates (M.J. Cunningham unpubl. data), it is likely that there are many additional populations of this species within this well-demarcated range. The type locality of 'Nemahedi Camp' (on the escarpment summit at Namahali Pass) is located within Free State Province, South Africa. A specimen (TM 41593) record from 'Black Mountain' (= ?Swartberg; 2929CD, question mark on map) in East Griqualand is probably incorrectly assigned to this locality because it would extend the geographical, habitat and climatic range beyond that generally known for this species. EOO: 12 815 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 52 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: Found on stony, heath- and grass-covered mountain tops near the escarpment edge of the Drakensberg and cur in moist, grassy habitats. Females produce clutches of 2–8 eggs (Branch 1998). Montane populations are barely affected directly by human activities but may be influenced by climate change. Most species are affected to some extent by changing fire regimes, and in grassland areas by changes in grazing intensity. The range of *T. cottrelli* is now known to be smaller than was previously thought and the species is listed here as Near Threatened. All other species are placed in the category Least Concern.





Tropidosaura cottrelli—Drakensberg

M.F. Bates



Tropidosaura cottrelli-above Chain Ladders, Drakensberg, FS M.F. Bates

along the interior high ridges of Lesotho, at altitudes of 2 467–3 278 m. The exposed, weather-beaten sites where this species occurs typically include similar proportions of cover by small boulders, low shrubs (particularly *Erica* and Asteraceae), short grass and bare patches of gravel or bedrock. It is known to shelter among rocks (Bates 2005c).

Vegetation type: Gd 10 Drakensberg Afroalpine Heathland; Gd 8 Lesotho Highland Basalt Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Has a limited high-altitude distribution (EOO <20 000 km² [B1], an AOO that is below the Endangered threshold—i.e. <500 km² [B2]), and is likely to be threatened by climate change (global warming). Frequent fires and overgrazing are relatively minor threats causing some decline in the quality of habitat. Specimens are seldom found and appear to occur in low densities, even in apparently suitable habitat (M.J. Cunningham unpubl. data). However, the population is not severely fragmented, nor does it appear to be fluctuating.

Tropidosaura essexi Hewitt, 1927 ESSEX'S MOUNTAIN LIZARD

Michael F. Bates, Michael J. Cunningham & Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

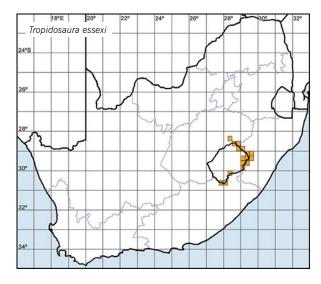
Taxonomy: Although *Tropidosaura* essexi and *T. montana natalensis* are morphologically very similar, these taxa are grouped in different clades (*T.* essexi with *T.* cottrelli, and *T. montana* with *T. gularis*) (Engleder et al. 2013; M.J. Cunningham unpubl. data). There is substantial geographical variation within *T.* essexi with regard to the number of femoral pores, colour pattern, and mitochondrial DNA sequences. This variation appears to be bimodal and further investigation is needed to determine whether or not this reflects the presence of cryptic taxa within *T.* essexi (M.J. Cunningham unpubl. data).

Distribution: Endemic to the *At/as* region and largely restricted to the Maloti-Drakensberg highlands of Lesotho and the South African provinces of Free State, KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape. It extends from near Clarens in the Free State (Bates 1996a) southwards to the vicinity of Rhodes in the Eastern Cape. Bourquin's (2004) record at 2730AD on the KwaZulu-Natal/Mpumalanga border, which refers to a specimen collected in 1971, is rejected because this locality is situated far from any other known records of the species (or any other *Tropidosaura*) and falls in a different bioregion (Mesic Highveld Grassland); the museum specimen may have been mislabeled. There appears to be altitudinal separation between *T. essexi* and the morphologically similar *T. montana natalensis*, which occurs at lower elevations.

Habitat: Terrestrial and diurnal, usually found in short basalt grasslands and afroalpine heathlands on the high escarpment slopes and summit plateau (2 392–3 337 m) of the Maloti-Drakensberg highlands in the Grassland Biome. Often found in thick vegetation at the edges of streams, around loose rock in wetlands or at the base of rock faces (M.J. Cunningham pers. obs.; Branch 1998).

Vegetation type: Gd 10 Drakensberg Afroalpine Heathland; Gd 8 Lesotho Highland Basalt Grassland; Gd 7 uKhahlamba Basalt Grassland; Gd6 Drakensberg-Amathole Afromontane Fynbos. **Threats:** Climate change (warming) may reduce available habitat and therefore constitutes a major threat to *T. cottrelli*, which has limited opportunity for compensatory migration. There are also indications of intensification of grazing by stock across the Lesotho highlands and in adjacent areas of South Africa above the escarpment, including areas inhabited by this species (Stewart 2001). It is intrinsically threatened by its restricted range and possibly by anthropogenic changes in fire regime in some areas. Despite these threats, there is little evidence that the species has declined, and there are many areas with suitable habitat that have not yet been surveyed but that may support these lizards.

Conservation measures: Conduct annual monitoring for the species at 2–3 sites of known occurrence spanning its distribution, such as Mont-aux-Sources and Ben McDhui. Conduct surveys of suitable areas where the species has not yet been collected, so as to obtain better information on the threats facing it.





Tropidosaura essexi—Top of Chain Ladder, Drakensberg, FS M.F. Bates

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread and common. There are indications of intensification of grazing by stock across the Lesotho highlands and in adjacent areas of South Africa above the escarpment, including areas inhabited by *T. essexi* (Stewart 2001). Climate change (warming) may reduce available habitat and therefore constitutes a threat to this species, which has limited opportunity for compensatory migration. Despite these threats, there is no evidence that *T. essexi* has declined. It is intrinsically threatened by its relatively restricted range and the occurrence of frequent anthropogenic fires in some areas. Occurs in the same general area as *T. cottrelli* but is more widespread and common.

Tropidosaura gularis Hewitt, 1927 CAPE MOUNTAIN LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, South Africa. Occurs throughout most of the Cape Fold Mountains from the Cape Peninsula to Port Elizabeth. Its absence from the Cederberg region may reflect competitive exclusion by *Australolacerta australis*.

Habitat: Found in very rocky areas on high fynbos mountain slopes comprising scree and other loose boulders.

Biome: Fynbos.

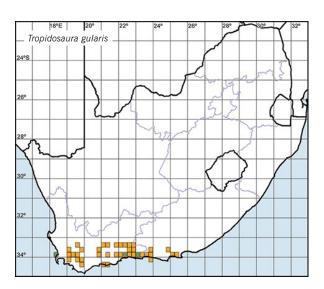
Assessment rationale: Occurs over a wide area where there is little human disturbance. Found in a number of protected areas. No known threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Tropidosaura gularis—Knysna, WC

W.R. Schmidt





Tropidosaura gularis-Klein Swartberg Range, WC

M.F. Bates

Tropidosaura montana (Gray, 1831) COMMON MOUNTAIN LIZARD

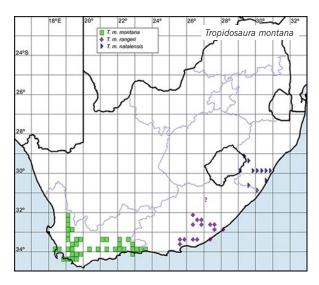
Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: There are three subspecies: *Tropidosaura montana montana*, *T. m. rangeri* and *T. m. natalensis*. The first two forms are morphologically poorly separated, based on slight differences in the development of the collar and the numbers of femoral pores in males (Branch 1998). *Tropidosaura montana natalensis* is separated from the other two subspecies by several differences in scalation (FitzSimons 1947) and is also geographically disjunct. Mitochondrial DNA sequence data support the continued recognition of the three subspecies as minor variants within *T. montana*, the sister species of *T. gularis* (M.J. Cunningham unpubl. data). This status was confirmed for *T. m. montana* and *T. m. natalensis*, which were included in the analysis of Engleder *et al.* (2013).

Distribution: *Tropidosaura m. montana* occurs in the Cape Fold Mountains from the Cederberg in the north to the Cape Peninsula and eastwards to Prince Alfred's Pass near



Knysna and the Kammanasieberg. *Tropidosaura m. rangeri* occurs along the Suurberg Range and extends along the coast to the East London area, with scattered inland populations associated with grassland and forest edge in the central part of the Eastern Cape. The northernmost record for *T. m. rangeri* is somewhat out of range and considered questionable. The eastern subspecies, *T. m. natalensis*, is found in coastal and montane grasslands of southern KwaZulu-Natal.

Habitat: In the Western Cape it inhabits densely covered fynbos slopes, often in short restio veld and rocky areas. In the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal it occurs on dense grassy slopes, particularly around seepage areas with tall tufted grasses such as *Merxmuellera* (M.J. Cunningham pers. comm.). Specimens have been observed basking in long, dense grass at Umtamvuna Nature Reserve on the KwaZulu-Natal South Coast (A.J. Armstrong pers. comm.).

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Savanna; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Has a large range and occurs in many protected areas. Often abundant and not considered threatened. The habitat of *T. m. montana* is seldom significantly disturbed because this subspecies occurs primarily on rugged mountain slopes, but some parts of the ranges of the other two subspecies are severely overgrazed (with shrub encroachment in parts), resulting in some fragmentation of populations (M.J. Cunningham pers. comm.). Because the subspecies *T. m. rangeri* is poorly defined from typical *T. m. montana*, and since the relationship of *T. m. natalensis* to *T. essexi* must still be fully resolved, the three subspecies have not been separately assessed. The conservation status of the two eastern subspecies may need to be re-evaluated if they prove to be valid species.



Tropidosaura montana montana—WC

W.D. Haacke



Tropidosaura montana rangeri—Asante Sana GR, EC

W. Conradie



Tropidosaura montana natalensis—Highmoor, Drakensberg, KZN M.F. Bates

Genus Vhembelacerta Edwards, Herrel, Vanhooydonck, Measey, Tolley & Branch—Soutpansberg rock lizards

Vhembelacerta contains a single species, *V. rupicola*, restricted to the Soutpansberg range in Limpopo Province, South Africa. A recent analysis of mitochondrial and nuclear DNA sequences indicated that this species, until recently classified in the genus *Australolacerta*, is not closely related to *A. australis* (which is more closely related to *Tropidosaura*—see also Salvi *et al.* 2011) and

it should be placed in a separate genus (Edwards *et al.* 2012, 2013a). Female *A. rupicola* lay clutches of 3–4 eggs (Kirschoff & Richter 2009). The habitat of *A. rupicola* is inadequately protected and subject to large-scale timber planting, but it is for the most part not inhabited by people and this species is therefore categorised as Near Threatened.

Vhembelacerta rupicola (FitzSimons, 1933) SOUTPANSBERG ROCK LIZARD

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Near Threatened Endemic

Taxonomy: An analysis of mitochondrial and nuclear DNA sequence data indicated that *A. rupicola* should be placed in a separate genus (S. Edwards *et al.* 2012).

Distribution: Endemic to Limpopo, South Africa. Occurs widely throughout the Soutpansberg Range (Jacobsen 1988c; Branch 1998).

EOO: 2 570 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 1 216 km² (confidence: medium).

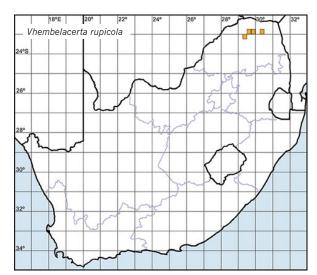
Habitat: Occurs on rocky outcrops, scree slopes and bedrock (Jacobsen 1988c) in wooded savanna and forest fringes on mountain slopes. Found mainly at the edge of Soutpansberg Mountain Bushveld or mistbelt forest with rocky outcrops on southern and southeastern slopes at altitudes of 800–1 600 m (Kirchhof & Richter 2009). Forages in leaf litter and seeks refuge in rock cracks at night (Kirchhof *et al.* 2010).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld, Mesic Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Both EOO and AOO are below the Vulnerable threshold and a decline in the quantity and quality of suitable habitat due to future land-use changes is predicted [B1b(ii,iii)+2b(ii,iii)]. However, it is not known to what extent existing populations are fragmented or how many locations exist. The species is therefore considered Near Threatened.

Threats: Large-scale timber plantations. However, this lizard is able to survive in areas that are too arid for plantations and this reduces the severity of the threat. The increasing demand for indigenous trees as a fuel source may reduce the amount and quality of habitat.

Conservation measures: Perform a detailed survey of the Soutpansberg range to accurately assess EOO. Not known to occur in any formally protected areas, but does occur at Lajuma where it receives some protection. Therefore, establish secure protected areas that include the range of the species.





Vhembelacerta rupicola—Soutpansberg, LIMP

J. Marais

CHAPTER 12

Family Cordylidae

P. le Fras N. Mouton, Michael F. Bates & Martin J. Whiting

Recent changes in squamate taxonomy place the Cordylidae in the Scinciformata, which also includes the families Scincidae, Xantusiidae and Gerrhosauridae (Vidal & Hedges 2009). Cordylids and gerrhosaurids form the Cordyliformes, a subclade of Scinciformata (Lang 1991), but there has been disagreement as to whether they should be treated as separate families or subfamilies (e.g. Frost *et al.* 2001; Lamb *et al.* 2003). The Cordylidae is the only lizard family endemic to mainland Africa. It comprises at least 63 species (80 species and subspecies) previously partitioned into four genera: *Platysaurus, Cordylus, Chamaesaura* and *Pseudocordylus* (FitzSimons 1943; Loveridge 1944c; Lang 1991; Adolphs 2006; Greenbaum *et al.* 2012; Uetz 2012).

The recent taxonomic re-assessment of Stanley *et al.* (2011) divided the family into two subfamilies, Cordylinae with nine genera: *Cordylus, Smaug, Ninurta, Chamaesaura, Pseudocordylus, Ouroborus, Karusasaurus, Namazonurus, Hemicordylus,* and Platysaurinae with a single genus, *Platysaurus*. Nine new species have been described in the last 23 years (Mouton & Van Wyk 1990, 1994, 1995; Broadley & Mouton 2000; Broadley & Branch 2002; Greenbaum *et al.* 2012) and several others await validation (e.g. Bates 2007a; M.F. Bates & E.L. Stanley in prep.). The majority of species and subspecies occur in southern Africa south of the Zambezi River, and as many as 42 of the 50 taxa in the *Atlas* region are endemic.

Although the majority of cordylids are rupicolous, all *Chamaesaura* taxa, two species of *Cordylus* (*C. macropholis* and *C. ukingensis*) and *Smaug giganteus* are terrestrial, while two *Cordylus* species (*C. jonesi* and *C. tropidosternum*) are arboreal. Cordylids are diurnal and most are insectivorous. All species are essentially sit-andwait foragers and many display high levels of territoriality. The shifts from active to sit-and-wait foraging mode, and from a terrestrial to a rupicolous lifestyle in the immediate ancestor of the Cordylidae are considered indications that the family had a cold climate origin (Mouton & Van Wyk 1997). The possession by cordylids of a

unique type of generation gland is apparently the result of increased territoriality that accompanied these shifts (Mouton & Van Wyk 1997; Mouton et al. 2010). At least three species in the family are group-living (Mouton et al. 1999; Mouton et al. 2000a; Fell 2005). All Platysaurus species and a few Pseudocordvlus species are sexually dichromatic, but sexual dichromatism is absent in most other cordylids (except Smaug mossambicus and S. regius) including Chamaesaura (FitzSimons 1943; Mouton & Van Wyk 1993; Bates 2007a). Platysaurus is oviparous but all other species in the family are viviparous. The genera Karusasaurus, Namazonurus, Hemicordylus and Cordylus contain melanistic species/populations and all of these are restricted to southwestern South Africa where they occur mostly in association with a high incidence of fog and cloud cover (Janse van Rensburg 2009). Molecular analyses and associated dating techniques suggest a mid-Miocene origin for melanism in at least one of the four clades, possibly in response to climatic changes associated with the development of the cold Benguela sea current (Daniels et al. 2004).

Because they are restricted to rocky environments, the habitat of most cordylids is fairly undisturbed and secure. As a consequence, most species are classified as Least Concern. However, a number of rupicolous species have extremely restricted distributions and this, in combination with one or more other threats, renders some of them highly threatened (e.g. Platysaurus intermedius inopinus and P. monotropis, both listed as Endangered). The collecting of cordylids for the pet trade is a problem, as indicated by regular newspaper reports about specimens being confiscated by CapeNature in the Western Cape. The snake-like Chamaesaura species are heavily impacted by fire in their grass and restio habitats and their aseasonal reproduction and high fecundity are apparently adaptations that allow rapid recruitment after fire (Du Toit et al. 2003). Of the 50 species and subspecies of cordylids evaluated here, two (Platysaurus intermedius inopinus and P. monotropis) are listed as Endangered, two (Smaug giganteus and Hemicordylus nebulosus) as Vulnerable, 10 as Near Threatened and the rest as Least Concern.

SUBFAMILY CORDYLINAE

The recent taxonomic re-assessment of Stanley et al. (2011) divided the family Cordylidae into two subfamilies, Cordylinae and Platysaurinae. Cordylinae contains 48 species (a few with subspecies, 53 taxa in total) in nine genera: Cordylus, Smaug, Ninurta, Ouroborus, Karusasaurus, Namazonurus, Pseudocordylus, Hemicordylus and Chamaesaura (Adolphs 2006; Stanley et al. 2011; Greenbaum et al. 2012). All of these genera are represented in the Atlas region, where 30 species (two with three subspecies, one with two subspecies) occur.

Genus Chamaesaura Schneider, 1801-grass lizards

The genus Chamaesaura contains five species (one with two subspecies), occurring as disjunct populations in the grasslands of southern and eastern Africa from South Africa to Angola, Democratic Republic of the Congo and Tanzania (Stanley et al. 2011). Three species occur in the Atlas region, with C. aenea endemic to South Africa and Swaziland. Grass lizards are all diurnal, insectivorous and found mainly in grasslands on mountain slopes and plateaus, although C. anguina extends into fynbos regions. Females give birth to 5-17 young and reproduction is aseasonal in at least one species, namely C. anguina (Branch 1998; Du Toit et al. 2003). The elongated snake-like bodies, long tails and minute limbs (forelimbs absent in C. macrolepis) of these lizards allow for rapid movement in long grass; the minute limbs may provide support when at rest (Branch 1998). Chamaesaura aenea and *C. macrolepis* are considered Near Threatened, mainly because of the destruction of grasslands for cultivation and the frequent occurrence of anthropogenic fires.

Chamaesaura aenea (Fitzinger, 1843) COPPERY GRASS LIZARD: TRANSVAAL GRASS LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

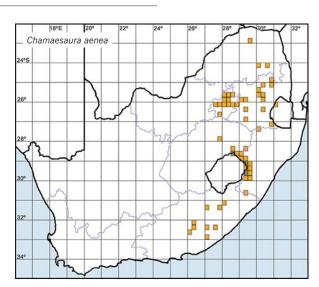
Taxonomy: The relationship of isolated populations (e.g. Soutpansberg) to the main population should be investigated using molecular markers.

Distribution: Endemic to the Atlas region, occurring in western Swaziland and the South African provinces of Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal (associated with the Drakenberg), northeastern Free State and Eastern Cape. The northernmost record is of an isolated population in the grasslands of the Soutpansberg Range. An apparently isolated relict population also occurs on the Amatole Mountains in the Eastern Cape (Branch 1985). The species occurs even further south (3227CC) in the vicinity of King William's Town. Although recorded from only two areas in the eastern Free State, namely Lindley and Golden Gate (Bates 1996a), these lizards are expected to have a wider distribution in this area. Several records that appear to be located on the South Africa-Lesotho border were, in fact, collected on the lower slopes of the Drakensberg and the species is therefore not expected to occur in the highlands of Lesotho.

EOO: 621 352 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 19 126 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Restricted to the Grassland Biome. Found on the grassy slopes and plateau of the eastern escarpment and Highveld (Jacobsen 1989; Bates 1996a; Branch 1998; Bourguin 2004). Occurs at elevations of 1 400-2 100 m in KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004) and as high as 2 218 m in Mpumalanga and 2 228 m in Free State (M.F. Bates, unpubl. data). Probably shelters in the base of grass tussocks, as do other Chamaesaura species.

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Drakensberg Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Dry Highveld Grassland.





Chamaesaura aenea-Kamberg NR, Drakensberg, KZN

Assessment rationale: A population reduction of over 20% in the last 18 years (three generations) is inferred from the transformation of large parts of the Grassland Biome, as is an associated decline in the taxon's AOO, EOO and habitat quality [A2c]. This decline is expected to continue into the future. Intensive surveys throughout Gauteng over the period 2000–2008 recorded only two specimens from Rietvlei Nature Reserve (Whittington-Jones *et al.* 2008), indicating a dramatic reduction in abundance in this province. The species is close to being classified as Vulnerable.

Threats: Threatened by transformation of land for crop farming and plantations, overgrazing by livestock, infrastructural development (including extreme urbanisation in Gauteng), frequent anthropogenic fires and the use of pesticides. About 35% of the Grassland Biome, in which this species' range

Chamaesaura anguina anguina (Linnaeus, 1758) CAPE GRASS LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Two subspecies are currently recognised since Stanley *et al.* (2011) found that *C. a. tenuior* (Rwanda, Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, eastern Democratic Republic of Congo) is a valid species. *Chamaesaura a. anguina* occurs in South Africa and Swaziland while *C. a. oligopholis* occurs as isolated relict populations in Angola and in upland grasslands (900–2 500 m) in eastern Democratic Republic of Congo (Branch 1998; Spawls *et al.* 2002). The relationship between *C. a. anguina* and *C. a. oligopholis* remains problematic and a molecular assessment is required to determine the extent of divergence between the two subspecies.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Widespread in the Fynbos and Grassland biomes, occurring in Swaziland and the South African provinces of Limpopo, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Western Cape, with an isolated population in Highveld grassland near Pretoria, Gauteng (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). The northernmost records are of an isolated population in the grasslands of the Soutpansberg, where three *Chamaesaura* species co-occur.

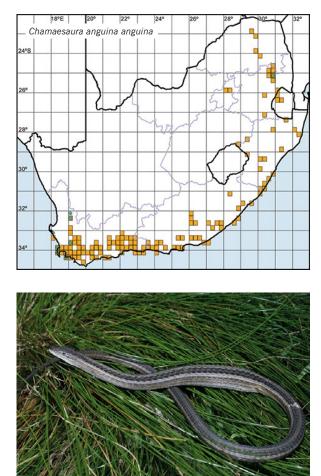
Habitat: Found mostly on mountain slopes in fynbos and grassland (Branch 1998; Du Toit *et al.* 2003). Essentially an arboreal species, resting on and 'swimming' over the tops of low-growing vegetation such as restios and grasses. Takes shelter at the base of restio or grass tufts, not even sheltering in rock crevices or rodent burrows during fires (Du Preez 2007). In KwaZulu-Natal, the habitat is grassland and wooded grassland at 0–1 500 m (Bourquin 2004). Jacobsen (1989) recorded specimens from the northern part of the range basking on flat rocks and grass tussocks, and noted that they are usually found on rocky hillsides at altitudes of 1 400–1 550 m.

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: A population reduction of nearly 20% in the last 18 years (three generations) is inferred from the transformation of large parts of the Grassland and Fynbos biomes (as much as 35% and 17%, respectively; Le Roux 2002), as is an associated decline in the taxon's AOO, EOO and habitat quality. Threats include crop farming and plantations, overgrazing by livestock, in-

is located, has been degraded or converted into cropland, forestry plantations or urban settlements (Le Roux 2002).

Conservation measures: Conservation organisations and legislating bodies should treat this species as Near Threatened and afford it the necessary protection. Develop and implement a BMP-S. Communicate with farmers and other locals and educate them about this species. Determine population numbers and exact ranges, as well as the status of available habitat. Monitor population trends, taking special note of the number of mortalities as a result of fires. Identify more potential protected areas and establish these where possible.



Chamaesaura anguina anguina-Montagu Pass, George, WC D. Maguire

frastructural development, frequent anthropogenic fires, and use of pesticides. Intensive surveys throughout Gauteng over the period 2000–2008 did not detect this species (Whittington-Jones *et al.* 2008), indicating a dramatic reduction in abundance in this province. The population decline is expected to continue into the future and the species may soon be listed as Near Threatened.

Conservation measures: Communicate with farmers and other locals and educate them about this species. Determine population numbers and exact ranges, and the status of available habitat. Monitor population trends, paying special attention to the number of fire-related mortalities. Identify more potential protected areas and establish these where possible. These lizards are particularly

susceptible to fires, as they do not seek shelter in anything but grass tussocks or certain kinds of fynbos vegetation such as restios (Jacobsen 1989; Boycott 1990; Du Preez 2007). They may therefore become extirpated in certain areas, and population monitoring, even of re-introductions, may be necessary. However, they are adapted to survival in fire-prone habitats and it is expected that at

Chamaesaura macrolepis (Cope, 1862) LARGE-SCALED GRASS LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Near Threatened

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Until recently, *Chamaesaura miopropus* was treated as a northern subspecies of *C. macrolepis* (Broadley 1966a, 1971c; Broadley & Howell 1991; Branch 1998; Spawls *et al.* 2002). However, *C. miopropus* is geographically isolated (Angola, Zambia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Tanzania) and distinguished by the presence of vestigial forelimbs, which are absent in *C. macrolepis* (Loveridge 1944c; Broadley & Howell 1991; Haagner *et al.* 2000; Spawls *et al.* 2002; Broadley & Cotterill 2004). It should therefore be considered a valid species, such that *C. macrolepis* reverts to binomial status. A molecular analysis would be helpful in assessing the taxonomic status of isolated populations of *C. macrolepis* such as the one in the Chimanimani Mountains of Zimbabwe.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa (KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and Limpopo), Swaziland and Zimbabwe. There are two isolated records in the north of Limpopo, one in the grasslands of the Soutpansberg Range (2229DD; Jacobsen 1989) and the other in grassland/scrub at the edge of the Pietersburg Plateau (2329DB Jacobsen 1995). A specimen (TM 39892) from Clewer (2529CC) in western Mpumalanga represents an isolated population that was not recorded or plotted by Jacobsen (1989). The isolated relict population in Zimbabwe is restricted to the Chimanimani Mountains on the border with Mozambique (Broadley 1966a). It is probably also found in southern Mozambique.

EOO: 245 220 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 15 648 km² (confidence: medium).

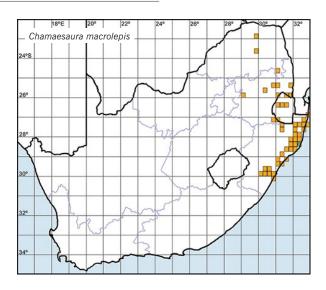
Habitat: Occurs in the Savanna, Indian Ocean Coastal Belt and Grassland biomes. Found in grassland, especially rocky, grassy hillsides (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). According to Bruton & Haacke (1980) it occurs in dry, open, sandy grasslands near the coast and on the Lebombo Mountains. Found from sea level to 900 m in KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004). The only specimen collected during Jacobsen's (1989) survey was found in a hollow in the soil under a rock.

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Lowveld; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Mesic Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: A population reduction of over 20% in the last 18 years (three generations) is inferred from the transformation of large parts of the Grassland, Savanna and Indian Ocean Coastal Belt biomes, as is an associated decline in the taxon's AOO, EOO and habitat quality [A2c]. This decline is expected to continue into the future. The species is close to being classified as Vulnerable.

Threats: Threatened by transformation of land for crop farming and plantations, overgrazing by livestock, infra-

least some areas will be re-populated over time, especially if frequent anthropogenic fires are avoided. In the northern part of their range, much of the original habitat has been afforested and annual anthropogenic fires are likely to be detrimental to remaining populations (Jacobsen 1989). Overgrazing is also a concern, especially outside protected areas (Boycott 1992a).





Chamaesaura macrolepis—Cape Vidal, KZN G.J. Alexander

structural development, frequent anthropogenic fires and use of pesticides. About 33% of the Savanna Biome, in which most of its range is located, has been degraded or converted into cropland or forestry plantations (Le Roux 2002). Large parts of its habitat have been afforested and much of the remaining area is burnt once or twice a year (Jacobsen 1989). Fires make it difficult for populations to re-establish and are probably the reason why specimens are most often found on protected rocky hillsides (Jacobsen 1989). Jacobsen (1989: 563) was of the opinion that this species may be 'endangered', at least in Mpumalanga and Limpopo.

Conservation measures: Conservation organisations and legislating bodies should treat this species as Near Threatened and afford it the necessary protection. Draw up a BMP-S. Communicate with farmers and other locals and educate them about conservation. Determine population numbers and exact ranges, and the status of available habitat. Monitor population trends and take note of the extent of mortalities due to fire. Identify potential protected areas and establish these where possible.

Genus Cordylus Laurenti, 1768—girdled lizards

Cordylus is the second largest genus in the family Cordylidae, comprising 21 species (Stanley *et al.* 2011; Greenbaum *et al.* 2012). *Cordylus tasmani* is considered doubtfully distinct from *C. cordylus* and is here treated as a synonym of the latter. However, further analyses are needed (Stanley *et al.* 2011) and samples from the type locality of *C. tasmani* should be included. The genus is endemic to sub-Saharan Africa and 11 species occur in the *Atlas* region. All are small to medium-sized heliothermic baskers. They are viviparous (1–6 young) and have a prenuptial reproductive cycle. All species are strict sit-

Cordylus aridus Mouton & Van Wyk, 1994 EASTERN DWARF GIRDLED LIZARD; DWARF KAROO GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

186

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of species in the *Cordylus minor* complex (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994), which includes *C. aridus*, should be re-evaluated using molecular techniques.

Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape where it occurs in the southern Karoo, immediately north of Klaarstroom. Since its description in 1994 it has been recorded from two additional, adjacent QDGCs.

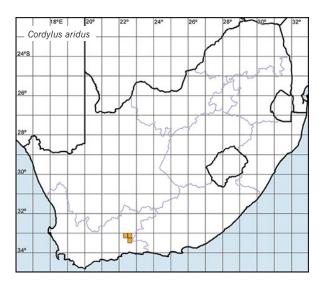
Habitat: A rupicolous, heliothermic, ambush-foraging species that prefers low ridges and outcrops of Dwyka tillite (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994; Branch 1998).

Vegetation type: NKI 1 Gamka Karoo; SKv 11 Eastern Little Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Has a very restricted range (EOO 2 357 km² [B1], AOO <970 km² [B2]) in a lowland area but there are no major threats. Because of its small range, over-exploitation by the pet trade could easily become a major concern.

Conservation measures: Conservation authorities should exercise strict control and issue collecting permits only under exceptional circumstances. Perform field surveys to gain knowledge about range and population size, and to improve understanding of the biology of the species. Gather information on habitat status and threats.

and-wait foragers displaying limited sexual size dimorphism and no sexual dichromatism (Branch 1998). Two species, *C. niger* and *C. oelofseni*, are melanistic. Several of the most recently described rupicolous species have restricted ranges and some are considered to be of conservation concern. The terrestrial species *C. macropholis* is now considered Near Threatened due to extensive habitat destruction along the West Coast as a result of urban development and mining. Three other species are listed as Near Threatened (*C. imkeae*, *C. niger*, *C. oelofseni*) and seven as Least Concern.





Cordylus aridus—Farm Botterkraal, Prince Albert distr., WC P. le F.N. Mouton

Cordylus cloetei Mouton & Van Wyk, 1994 CLOETE'S GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of forms in the *Cordylus minor* species complex (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994), to which *C. cloetei* belongs, should be re-evaluated using molecular techniques.

Distribution: Endemic to the Nuweveldberg Mountains in the Western Cape. Since its discovery in 1994 in the Steenkampsvlakte area, there appears to have been only one additional record for this species, at Molteno Pass (3222BA). However, this refers to a sight record and the possibility of confusion with *C. cordy/us*, which also occurs in the area (Branch & Braack 1989), cannot be ruled out.

Habitat: Prefers horizontal crevices in large fluvial sandstone rocks from the Teekloof Formation (Beaufort Group), where it can be found singly or in groups of up to three individuals (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994).

Vegetation type: NKu 2 Upper Karoo Hardeveld; NKu 4 Eastern Upper Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Based on the only verifiable locality, this species has a small range (EOO: 675 km², AOO: 338 km²) and appears to be uncommon. However, as there are no serious immediate or future threats, and suitable protected habitat is available in the Karoo National Park, it is considered Least Concern. Because of its small range, over-exploitation by the pet trade could easily become a major concern and would be exacerbated by the species' inherently slow reproductive rate.

Conservation measures: Conservation authorities should exercise strict permit control and issue collecting permits only under exceptional circumstances. Carry out field sur-

Cordylus cordylus (Linnaeus, 1758) CAPE GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

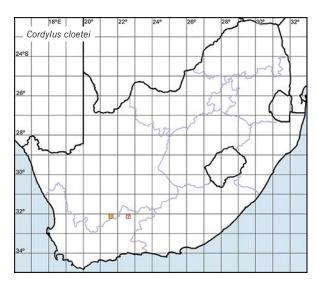
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: A molecular analysis by Stanley *et al.* (2011) revealed that specimens assigned to *Cordylus tasmani* showed little genetic divergence from *C. cordylus. Cordylus tasmani* is therefore treated as a synonym of *C. cordylus.*

Distribution: Endemic to the southern parts of southern Africa, from the Cederberg and Saldanha in the west (Western and Eastern Cape) (Branch 1998) to the southeastern Free State (De Waal 1978), southwestern Lesotho (Bates 2007b) and southern KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004). Also found on St Croix Island off the coast of Port Elizabeth (as *Cordylus tasmani*, Branch 1998).

Habitat: Rupicolous, occurring in diverse habitats from coastal rock to mountain top. Often abundant on mountain plateaus in fynbos, or on shale bands in mesic thickets (Branch 1998). In populations previously referred to

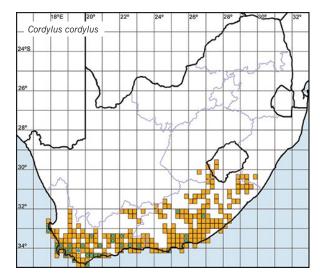




Cordylus cloetei-De Hoek, Nuweveldberg, WC

W.R. Branch

veys to determine the true range and population numbers, and gather data on the biology of the species. Perform taxonomic studies to confirm its status.



C. tasmani, individuals are often found under the apron of dead leaves on tall aloes, under the bark of trees, on dead aloe stems and in piles of rotting Spekboom (*Portulacaria afra*) trunks, but they also occupy cracks in limestone and sandstone outcrops (Branch 1998).

Cordylus cordylus—Oyster Bay, EC

W.R. Branch

Biome: Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Grassland; Savanna; Nama-Karoo; Forests; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Cordylus cordylus-Indwe, EC

W.R. Branch

Cordylus imkeae Mouton & Van Wyk, 1994 ROOIBERG GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of forms in the *Cordylus minor* species complex (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994), to which *C. imkeae* belongs, should be re-evaluated using molecular techniques.

Distribution: Endemic to the Rooiberg in the Kamiesberg range near Garies in Namaqualand, Northern Cape, South Africa (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994).

EOO: 675 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 333 km² (confidence: medium).

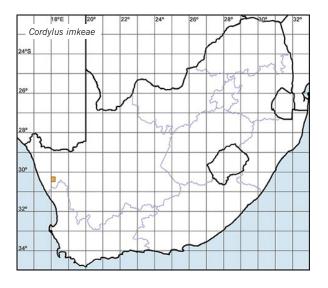
Habitat: Rock-dwelling, sheltering in crevices in granite rocks on high fynbos-covered mountain slopes (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994; Loehr 2010).

Vegetation type: FFg 1 Kamiesberg Granite Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Although this taxon has a very restricted distribution (EOO and AOO below the Endangered thresholds) and is known from only a single locality, it is not currently experiencing any major threats, and its habitat is not undergoing a continuous decline. The main potential threat is over-exploitation by collectors. It also appears to be a mesic-adapted relict species whose microhabitat might well be one of the first to be threatened by predicted aridification.

Threats: There is no information available on population size, but its restricted distribution and limited dispersal ability makes this species particularly prone to the effects of alien plant infestations, poor fire management and overexploitation by collectors. The area it occupies is becoming a popular tourist destination.

Conservation measures: Collecting permits should be issued only under exceptional circumstances. Conduct field surveys to determine the true range, population size and





Cordylus imkeae-Rooiberg near Garies, NC

E.L. Stanley

biology of this species. Control alien plant infestations and manage fires effectively. Compile a BMP-S. Monitor the potentially threatened status of the species.

Cordylus jonesii (Boulenger, 1891) JONES' GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Jacobsen (1989) was of the opinion that this taxon is conspecific with *Cordylus tropidosternum*. However, a recent molecular analysis (Stanley *et al.* 2011) indicated that the two species are not closely related.

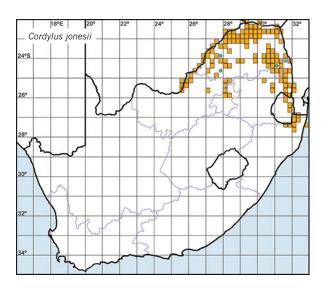
Distribution: Endemic to the east African lowlands including southern Zimbabwe, eastern Botswana, the northeastern provinces of South Africa (eastern North-West Province, Limpopo, northern Gauteng, northeastern Mpumalanga, northeastern KwaZulu-Natal), eastern Swaziland and southern Mozambique (Branch 1998).

Habitat: Largely restricted to dry Lowveld, particularly Mopane savanna (Branch 1998), where it shelters in holes in trees, under loose bark and especially in rotting logs, but occasionally also found in rock crevices (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Cordylus jonesii—Umbabat Private NR, MPM

D. & E. Pietersen

Cordylus macropholis (Boulenger, 1910) LARGE-SCALED GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Near Threatened

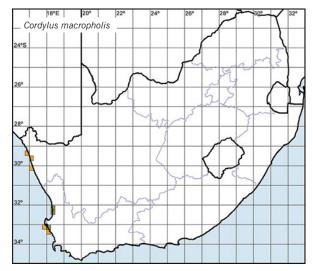
Endemic

Taxonomy: A phylogenetic study of the apparently isolated populations (see below) is needed.



Cordylus macropholis-Noup, NC

W.R. Branch



Distribution: Endemic to the West Coast of South Africa, in the Northern and Western Cape provinces. Occurs in three subpopulations along the West Coast, from Port Nolloth in the north to Yzerfontein in the south. The distributional gap between northern and southern populations appears to be real.

EOO: 20 528 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 2 700 km² (confidence: high).

Habitat: A terrestrial cordylid, preferring the succulent plant *Euphorbia caput-medusae* and related species as shelter (Mouton *et al.* 2000b). It may also shelter beneath calcrete rocks and in the stick nests of vlei rats (*Otomys* species) (pers. obs.).

Vegetation type: FS 1 Lambert's Bay Strandveld; FS 3 Saldanha Flats Strandveld; AZe 2 Cape Estuarine Salt Marshes; FFd 2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos; FS 5 Langebaan Dune Strandveld; SKs 8 Namaqualand Coastal Duneveld.

Cordylus mclachlani Mouton, 1986 MCLACHLAN'S GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the greater Cederberg area in the Western and Northern Cape provinces of South Africa, from the Koue Bokkeveld in the south, along the eastern fringes of the Cederberg to the Bokkeveld Mountains in the north (Nieuwoudtville district) (Mouton *et al.* 1992). Since its description in 1986, numerous new locality records have been obtained and the species has been found to be common within its range (Mouton *et al.* 1992).

Habitat: A rupicolous form found in narrow cracks in rocks of the Witteberg and Table Mountain Sandstone formations, in karroid habitat. Appears to prefer low rock formations, being absent in areas of large, piled rock typical of the Skurweberg and Cederberg mountains (Mouton 1986; Mouton *et al.* 1992).

Bioregion: Northwest Fynbos; Rainshadow Valley Karoo; Karoo Renosterveld; Trans-Escarpment Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is abundant and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Cordylus minor FitzSimons, 1943 WESTERN DWARF GIRDLED LIZARD; DWARF GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Originally described as a subspecies of *Cordylus cordylus* by FitzSimons (1943), this taxon was elevated to full species status by Mouton & Van Wyk (1989). The taxonomy of the *C. minor* complex (Mouton & Van Wyk 1994) should be re-evaluated using molecular techniques.

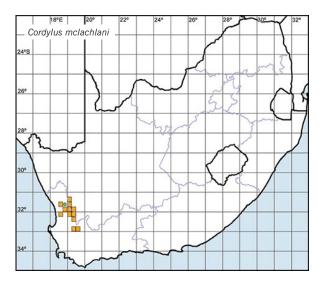
Distribution: Endemic to the western Karoo in the Western and Northern Cape provinces, South Africa, from the Komsberg Range in the north to Matjiesfontein in the south (Branch 1998).



Assessment rationale: EOO and AOO are close to the Vulnerable thresholds and there is continuing decline in area, extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii), B2b(iii)] due to coastal developments and mining activities. The species is thus considered Near Threatened.

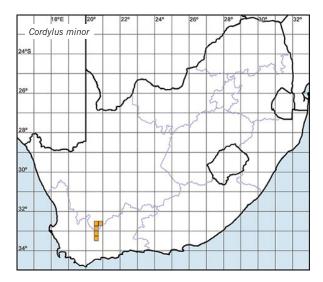
Threats: Coastal developments, including mining, pose a major threat.

Conservation measures: Draw up a BMP-S. Provide increased habitat protection, e.g. do not allow coastal developments to impact on any populations. Conduct basic research on the biology and ecology of the species.





Cordylus mclachlani-Matjiesrivier NR, Cederberg, WC P. le F.N. Mouton



Habitat: Shelters in small, vertical cracks in rock outcrops in lowland areas as well as on mountain slopes (Branch 1998).

Vegetation type: SKv 6 Koedoesberge-Moordenaars Karoo; FRs 5 Central Mountain Shale Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: EOO <5 000 km² (below the Endangered threshold); AOO <2 000 km² (below the Vulnerable threshold); not common anywhere. Future threats may include climate change and over-collecting, exacerbated by the species' limited dispersal ability. However, *C. minor* is here considered Least Concern as there are currently no significant threats, severe habitat fragmentation or declines in habitat quality.

Conservation measures: Conservation authorities should exercise strict permit control and issue collecting permits only under exceptional circumstances. Carry out field surveys to determine true range and population size, and conduct studies on biology and ecology.



Cordylus minor-Matjiesfontein, WC

W.D. Haacke

Cordylus niger Cuvier, 1829 BLACK GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the extreme southwestern coastal region of the Western Cape, South Africa, occurring as five isolated subpopulations: two at Saldanha, one each on the Langebaan Peninsula and Jutten Island, and the main subpopulation on the Cape Peninsula (Cordes & Mouton 1996).

EOO: 3 000 $\rm km^2$ (confidence: medium); AOO: 415 $\rm km^2$ (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Occurs in dense colonies in rocky areas from sea level to mountain tops (Cordes & Mouton 1996).

Vegetation type: FFs 9 Peninsula Sandstone Fynbos; FS 2 Saldanha Granite Strandveld; FFd 6 Hangklip Sand Fynbos; FFg 3 Peninsula Granite Fynbos; FS 5 Langebaan Dune Strandveld.

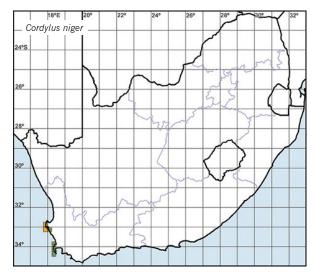
Assessment rationale: EOO (<5 000 km²) and AOO (<500 km²) are below the Endangered thresholds and there is a continuing decline in the quality of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)], particularly in the Saldanha area. However, the range does not appear to be severely fragmented, the number of locations exceeds 10, and the species appears to be adaptable to human developments that maintain a semblance of natural habitats, e.g. dry rock walls. The Cape Peninsula population is largely protected within the Table Mountain National Park. This species is thus considered Near Threatened.

Threats: Coastal developments, especially in the case of subpopulations in the Saldanha-Langebaan region (Cordes & Mouton 1996). Being melanistic, *C. niger* is likely to be especially vulnerable to climate change. The high prevalence of domestic cats in suburban areas adjoining suitable mountainous habitat takes a high toll on these lizards (M. Burger pers. comm.).



Cordylus niger-Table Mountain, Cape Town, WC

G.J. Alexander



Conservation measures: Draw up a BMP-S. Do not allow further coastal developments, especially in the Saldanha region, to impact on populations of this species. Monitor population trends in the Saldanha-Langebaan area.

Cordylus oelofseni Mouton & Van Wyk, 1990 **OELOFSEN'S GIRDLED LIZARD**

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: The populations occurring at Dasklip Pass, Landdroskop and Piketberg all display genetic differences comparable to those seen between distinct species elsewhere in the family (Daniels et al. 2004; Stanley et al. 2011). The latter two populations await formal description as valid species.

Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa, occurring at isolated localities along the western Cape Fold Mountains, from Piketberg and Piekenierskloof Pass in the north to the Hottentots Holland Mountains in the south. Since its description in 1990, C. oelofseni has been recorded from one additional QDGC (3319CC).

EOO: 7 666 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 1 119 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: A rock-dwelling species sheltering in narrow cracks along road cuttings or in small sandstone outcrops at higher elevations above 300 m (Mouton & Van Wyk 1990; Janse van Rensburg et al. 2009). Occurs in dense colonies on fynbos mountain plateaux (pers. obs.).

Vegetation type: FFs 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos; FFs 5 Winterhoek Sandstone Fynbos; FFs 3 Olifants Sandstone Fynbos; FFs 6 Piketberg Sandstone Fynbos; FFs 10 Hawequas Sandstone Fynbos; FFs 4 Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted distribution (EOO and AOO are both below the Vulnerable thresholds) in montane areas where there are distinct threats of alien plant infestation and poor fire management. All populations occur at high altitude, suggesting extensive fragmentation, but there is no data to confirm this.

Threats: This high-elevation melanistic species is likely to be especially vulnerable to climate change (Janse van Rensburg et al. 2009). Other threats include alien infestation and poor fire management.

Cordylus vittifer (Reichenow, 1887) COMMON GIRDLED LIZARD; TRANSVAAL GIRDLED LIZARD

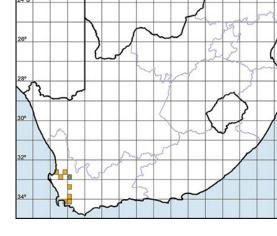
P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: De Waal (1978) recognised three varieties of Cordylus vittifer vittifer. Branch (1998) elevated C. v. machadoi to full species status, rendering C. vittifer a monotypic species. This status was confirmed in a molecular analysis by Stanley et al. (2011). The taxonomy of C. vittifer is currently being evaluated using molecular and morphological approaches (M.F. Bates & M.J. Cunningham in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to the northeastern parts of South Africa, Swaziland and southeastern Botswana, with a single locality in southern Mozambique (Auerbach 1987;



18°E

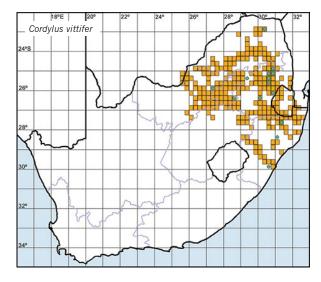
20 Cordylus oelofseni



Cordylus oelofseni-Landdroskop, WC

P. le F.N. Mouton

Conservation measures: Control alien plant infestations and implement effective fire management strategies. Undertake taxonomic studies to assess the status of the isolated subpopulations. A change in taxonomic status of some of these will necessitate a re-assessment of the conservation status of all taxa in the complex.



Boycott 1992a; Branch 1998; Bates & Broadley 2012). Found in the South African provinces of Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, (eastern) North-West, (northern and northeastern) Free State and KwaZulu-Natal (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989; Bourquin 2004).

Habitat: Occurs in rock outcrops in grassland and savanna habitat (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989).



Cordylus vittifer-Wolkberg, LIMP

J. Marais

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Dry Highveld Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Mopane (marginally).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Cordylus vittifer—De Berg Pass, MPM

W.R. Branch

Genus Hemicordylus Smith, 1838-cliff lizards

The genus *Hemicordylus*—originally used as a subgenus—was resurrected to contain the gracile forms previously assigned to *Pseudocordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). This genus comprises two melanistic species, *H. capensis* and *H. nebulosus*, both endemic to the Cape Fold Mountains of southwestern South Africa. These lizards have relatively long limbs and tails allowing them to scale vertical rock surfaces, hence their preference for cliff and boulder habitats (Janse van Rensburg 2009). In both species, the occipital and caudal scales lack spines and only the south-

Hemicordylus capensis (A. Smith, 1838) CAPE CLIFF LIZARD; GRACEFUL CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

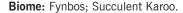
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

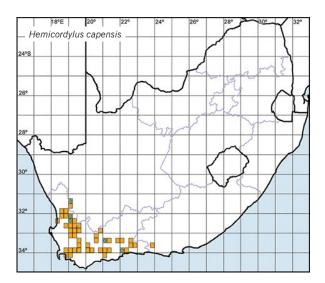
Taxonomy: This species was previously contained within Pseudocordylus (Stanley et al. 2011). Loveridge (1944) recognised two species, Pseudocordylus capensis and P. robertsi (Van Dam 1921), but these were treated as subspecies of *P. capensis* by Branch (1981). The complex was later analysed by Herselman et al. (1992) who found that two morphotypes were identifiable in the northern (robertsi) and southwestern (capensis) parts of the range, but that these were connected by a continuum of variation. These authors therefore referred P. robertsi to the synonomy of P. capensis. A mitochondrial DNA analysis of Hemicordylus by Mabe (2009) revealed the existence of six genetically distinct lineages, which are for the most part geographically separated, and suggested a recent radiation in the genus. Three of these lineages are referable to described species, namely H. capensis (southwestern Cape), P. robertsi (Bokkeveld and Cederberg) and H. nebulosus (Landdroskop), while the others may represent undescribed species. Formal recognition of H. robertsi as a valid species and description of new taxa await further analysis of samples (Mabe 2009; M.J. Cunningham pers. comm.). In another multi-gene study, Stanley et al. (2011) also noted deep levels of divergence within H. capensis, indicating low levels of gene flow between populations, and suggested that cryptic species may be present.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and largely restricted to the Western Cape, occurring in a series of isolated montane populations from the Cederberg in the north to Landdroskop in the south, then eastwards through the Cape Fold Mountains from the Hottentots Holland Mountains to the Kammanassieberg. There are only a few marginal records in the Northern Cape (e.g. 3119AC) and Eastern Cape (easternmost locality is Kouga Mountains, 3323DB). The most inland locality is the Witteberg (3220BC, 1 052 m) near Matjiesfontein, and the species also occurs in the Piketberg and Skurweberg in the west (Herselman 1991).

Habitat: Found in small, diffuse colonies on high mountain tops and slopes where wary individuals run around on smooth, often vertical slopes, sheltering in rock cracks and crevices (FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998). Occurs on Table Mountain Sandstone near Clanwilliam and Van Rhynsdorp (Loveridge 1944c). Found at altitudes as low as 360–455 m on the West Coast (Herselman 1991).



ern populations of *H. capensis* have body osteoderms (Janse van Rensburg 2009). Both species have a prenuptial reproductive cycle and females give birth to 1–3 young in autumn. Compared to other cordylids, these are less strictly sit-and-wait foragers (Janse van Rensburg 2009). *Hemicordylus nebulosus* has an extremely restricted mountain top range in an area where alien plant infestation and poor fire management pose distinct threats, and the species is accordingly classified as Vulnerable. *Hemicordylus capensis* is listed as Least Concern.





Hemicordylus capensis—Swartberg Range, WC

M.F. Bates



Hemicordylus capensis-Swellendam, WC

S. Nielsen

Assessment rationale: Although populations tend to occur as montane isolates (Herselman *et al.* 1992; Branch 1985), the species is widespread and common.

Hemicordylus nebulosus (Mouton & Van Wyk, 1995)

DWARF CLIFF LIZARD; DWARF CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Vulnerable D1+2

Endemic

Taxonomy: The recent transfer of *Pseudocordylus nebulosus* to the genus *Cordylus* by Frost *et al.* (2001) was problematic because the new name *C. nebulosus* was preoccupied by *Cordylus nebulosus* A. Smith, 1838, a junior synonym of *Cordylus cataphractus* Boie, 1828. However, the resurrection of *Hemicordylus* (for *P. nebulosus* and *P. capensis*) by Stanley *et al.* (2011) removed the secondary homonymy. Its status as a separate species from *P. capensis* was confirmed by the molecular analyses of Mabe (2009) and Stanley *et al.* (2011).

Distribution: Endemic to the Hottentots Holland Mountain Range of the Western Cape, South Africa. Known only from the Landdroskop area.

EOO: 1 350 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 7 km² (confidence: medium).

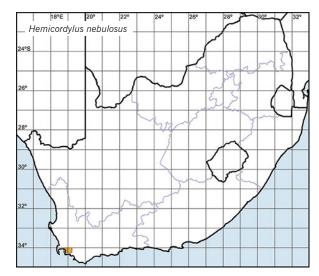
Habitat: Rupicolous and found on vertical rock faces, piles of medium-sized boulders, or on the mountain summit, usually within 10 m of a stream or seepage (Costandius *et al.* 2006). Occurs at altitudes of 1 200–1 500 m in the mistbelt of the Western Cape in the Fynbos Biome (Costandius *et al.* 2006).

Vegetation type: FFa 4 Lourensford Alluvium Fynbos; FFs 11 Kogelberg Sandstone Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Costandius *et al.* (2006) counted a total of only 131 individuals at 26 sites in the vicinity of the type locality (Landdroskop area), thus it is estimated that the population consists of fewer than 1 000 mature individuals [D1]. Furthermore, the AOO is less than 20 km² [D2]. This species is therefore considered Vulnerable.

Threats: *Hemicordylus nebulosus* may be restricted to a cold montane refugium, with nowhere to move if temperatures increase. In addition, warm-adapted species lower down the mountain may be able to expand into areas occupied by *H. nebulosus* and compete for shelter and food resources (Costandius *et al.* 2006). Changes in global temperatures will result in longer and more extreme droughts and cold spells, and might necessitate rapid adaptation to habitat changes. Inappropriate fire management is a threat because fires that are too infrequent result in overgrowth of vegetation with a resultant reduction in basking sites, whereas fires that are too frequent or too intense may reduce populations to levels from which they cannot recover (Costandius *et al.* 2006). Alien plant infestation is not currently a problem but should be monitored, because some

Conservation measures: The possible description and/or re-validation of cryptic species may require re-assessment of the conservation status of all (or some) populations.





Hemicordylus nebulosus-Hottentots Holland Mtns, WC P. le F.N. Mouton

alien plants burn at higher temperatures than natural vegetation. The species is also potentially threatened by its limited dispersal capabilities and very restricted range. A popular hiking trail passes through the only known population of this species, allowing easy access for illegal pet trade collecting (Costandius *et al.* 2006).

Conservation measures: Develop a BMP-S. Conduct research into population numbers and range, and biology and ecology. Also, monitor the population, control alien plants, maintain effective fire management, and manage human traffic and disturbance on hiking routes (perhaps by restricting the number of hikers per day).

Genus Karusasaurus Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—karusa lizards

The genus *Karusasaurus* comprises two species, *K. polyzonus* and *K. jordani*, both widely distributed in the semi-arid regions of South Africa (*polyzonus*) and southern Namibia (*jordani*). These two species were previously contained in the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The genus name is derived from the Khoisan word 'karusa', which means dry, barren, thirstland (Stanley *et al.* 2011). 'Karoo' is also derived from 'karusa'. The validity of *K. jordani* as a full species has been questioned, but a recent molecular study confirmed its

Karusasaurus polyzonus (A. Smith, 1838) SOUTHERN KARUSA LIZARD; KAROO GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained in the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The melanistic population in the Saldanha-Langebaan area was previously suspected to be a separate species (Mouton *et al.* 2002), but recent molecular analyses (Engelbrecht *et al.* 2011; Stanley *et al.* 2011) do not support this possibility.

Distribution: Endemic to the western and central areas of South Africa and southern Namibia (Branch 1998). In the east, the distribution extends almost to the Lesotho border. Earlier records in Lesotho and along the KwaZulu-Natal border have not been confirmed. These lizards are absent from the southern coastal regions.

Habitat: This rock-dwelling species occurs over a wide range of habitats in arid western and central karroid areas. It inhabits rocky outcrops in lowland areas and on lower mountain slopes (pers. obs.). In the Free State it is common on dolerite rock outcrops on small koppies, occupying the lower slopes (De Waal 1978; M.F. Bates unpubl. obs.).

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Savanna; Desert; Grassland; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

 Ise
 Ize
 Ize</th

status (Stanley et al. 2011). These medium-sized cordylids

are rupicolous and heliothermic baskers. Females lack both

femoral and generation glands. Both species display well de-

veloped cranial kinesis and limited sexual size dimorphism,

but no sexual dichromatism. Karusasaurus polyzonus also

displays extensive geographical colour variation, including melanistic populations along the West Coast of South Africa.

Only K. polyzonus occurs in the Atlas region and because of

its extensive range, it is classified as Least Concern.



Karusasaurus polyzonus-Steytlerville, EC

W.R. Branch

Genus *Namazonurus* Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—nama lizards

The genus *Namazonurus* comprises five species. Two of these are endemic to Namaqualand in South Africa, while the other three are restricted to southern and central Namibia. All five species were previously contained in the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The name *Namazonurus* is derived from Nama, referring to Namaqualand, which is occupied by Nama-speaking people, and *Zonurus* (the earlier name for *Cordylus* sensu lato) meaning

Namazonurus lawrenci (FitzSimons, 1939) LAWRENCE'S NAMA LIZARD;

LAWRENCE'S GIRDLED LIZARD P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordy- lus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011).

Distribution: Endemic to the Richtersveld of the Northern Cape, South Africa (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

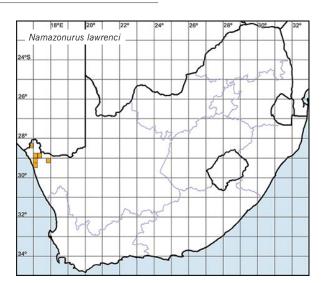
Habitat: A rock-dwelling form that occurs in mesic habitats on the highest slopes and summits of mountains in the Richtersveld, although it is found at lower elevations (250 m) at Gemsbokvlei (Branch 1998; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Vegetation type: SKr 12 Kosiesberg Succulent Shrubland; SKr 1 Central Richtersveld Mountain Shrubland; SKr 14 Southern Richtersveld Inselberg Shrubland; SKr 4 Lekkersing Succulent Shrubland; SKr 5 Vyftienmyl se Berge Succulent Shrubland.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted distribution with range estimates below the Vulnerable thresholds (EOO = 5628 km^2 [B1], AOO = 1950 km^2 [B2]). However, there are no clear indications of current threats causing population reductions. Nevertheless, overgrazing, and over-collection of specimens at known localities, in combination with poor recruitment, may become a threat. This species prefers mesic microhabitats associated with fog belt and therefore may be affected by future climate change.

Conservation measures: Conservation authorities should exercise strict control and issue collecting permits only under exceptional circumstances. Perform field surveys to determine the true range and population size, and improve understanding of the biology, of the species.

girdle-tailed (Stanley *et al.* 2011). These small to medium-sized viviparous cordylids are rupicolous. They display limited sexual dimorphism in body size, but no sexual dichromatism. *Namazonurus peersi* is a melanistic species often found in small groups. All species display a prenuptial reproductive cycle and litter size varies from two to four (Branch 1998). Only two species occur in the *Atlas* region and both are considered to be Least Concern.





Namazonurus lawrenci-Farm Oograbies, Namaqualand, NC W.D. Haacke

Namazonurus peersi (Hewitt, 1932) PEERS' NAMA LIZARD; PEERS' GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained in the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011).

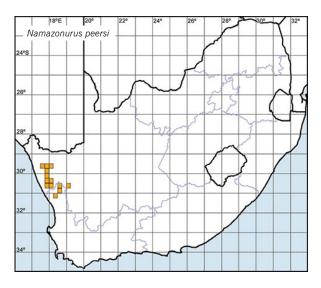
Distribution: Endemic to Namaqualand in the Northern and Western Cape provinces, South Africa, from Springbok in the north to Bitterfontein in the south (Branch 1998).

Habitat: A rock-dwelling species that often shelters in small groups beneath thin flakes on the huge granite boulders typical of Namaqualand (Branch 1998; Fell 2005). Restricted to the higher slopes of hills and mountains (P le F.N. Mouton pers. obs.). Occurs in Succulent Karoo as well as fynbos habitat.

Vegetation type: SKn 1 Namaqualand Klipkoppe Shrubland; FFg 1 Kamiesberg Granite Fynbos; FRg 1 Namaqualand Granite Renosterveld; SKn 2 Namaqualand Shale Shrubland; SKn 3 Namaqualand Blomveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is abundant and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Namazonurus peersi-Springbok, NC

W.R. Branch

Genus *Ninurta* Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011 blue-spotted lizards

The genus name is derived from Ninurta, the god of rain and the south wind, in Summerian and Akkadian mythology (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The single species in the genus, *Ninurta coeruleopunctatus*, was previously considered to be closely related to *Hemicordylus capensis* and *H. nebulosus* (Branch 1981; Herselman 1991; Frost *et al.* 2001), and together with them was contained in the genus *Cordylus* (Frost *et al.* 2001). The phylogenetic analysis by Stanley *et al.* (2011) recovered *Ninurta* as sister to

Ninurta coeruleopunctatus (Hewitt & Methuen, 1913) BLUE-SPOTTED LIZARD:

BLUE-SPOTTED GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordy-lus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The taxonomic status of the Langeberg population should be investigated because there are distinct morphological differences between specimens from this area and the main population in the east (pers. obs.).

Distribution: Endemic to the southern Cape Fold Mountains of the Western and Eastern Cape, South Africa, from the Langeberg Mountains in the west to Witelsbos in the east (Branch 1998).

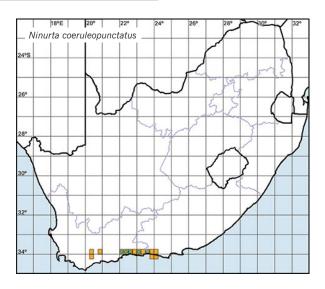
Habitat: Rupicolous; common in suitable moist habitat in fynbos and forest fringes; occurs on coastal cliffs and mountain tops (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld; Southern Fynbos; East Coast Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is abundant and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Chamaesaura, although this relationship was not strongly supported. *Ninurta coeruleopunctatus* is a rupicolous lizard endemic to the southern Cape Fold Mountains of South Africa. Like the two *Hemicordylus* species, it lacks occipital and caudal spines and has only weakly-developed body osteoderms, and like juvenile *H. capensis*, it has a colourful gular patch. It occurs in dense populations from mountain tops to the coast and is not considered threatened.





Ninurta coeruleopunctatus—Storms River Mouth, Tsitsikamma NP, EC W.R. Branch

Genus *Ouroborus* Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011—armadillo lizards

This genus comprises a single species, *Ouroborus cata-phractus*, which occurs in the semi-arid western regions of the Western Cape and Northern Cape provinces of South Africa. It was previously contained in the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The ouroborus is a symbol of a dragon biting or swallowing its own tail to form a circle. This heavily-armoured lizard displays the unusual defensive behaviour of grasping its spiny tail in its mouth and rolling into a tight ball when threatened, hence the common name 'armadillo lizard'. These are rupicolous, group-

Ouroborus cataphractus (Boie, 1828) ARMADILLO LIZARD; ARMADILLO GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordy- lus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011).

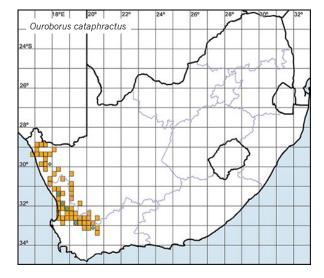
Distribution: Endemic to the Succulent Karoo Biome in the winter rainfall zone of the Northern and Western Cape provinces, South Africa. Occurs from the southern Richtersveld to the Piketberg Mountains and inland as far as the southern Tankwa Karoo and Matjiesfontein (Shuttleworth 2006).

Habitat: Group-living and found in rock crevices, especially sandstone. Particularly abundant on rock outcrops on the western coastal lowlands, but also on lower mountain slopes (Hayward & Mouton 2007; Shuttleworth *et al.* 2008). Preys mainly on the Southern Harvester Termite *Microhodotermes viator* (Mouton *et al.* 2000a).

Bioregion: Northwest Fynbos; Rainshadow Valley Karoo; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Richtersveld; Namaqualand Cape Shrublands; Knersvlakte; Namaqualand Sandveld; Trans-Escarpment Succulent Karoo; West Strandveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Although previously thought to suffer from over-exploitation by the pet trade (Mouton 1988c), this threat is no longer considered significant.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



living lizards and termitophagy-the Southern Harvester

Termite Microhodotermes viator is the most important

prey—is believed to be the indirect cause of group-living in

this species (Shuttleworth et al. 2008). Individuals have

a very low resting metabolic rate (Mouton et al. 2000a)

and females normally produce only one offspring per year

(Flemming & Mouton 2002). The impact of the pet trade

on O. cataphractus has been over-emphasized and, al-

though previously categorised as Vulnerable by the IUCN

(1996), it is here considered as Least Concern.



Ouroborus cataphractus-near Calvinia, WC

J. Marais

Genus Pseudocordylus A. Smith, 1838—crag lizards

The genus *Pseudocordylus* is endemic to the *Atlas* region where it is restricted to the eastern and southern parts. There are five described species (eight taxa). The *P. melanotus* (Bates 2007a) and *P. microlepidotus* (Cunningham 2004; Makhubo 2009) species complexes are undergoing revision. Crag lizards are diurnal, rupicolous, high-altitude lizards that are seldom found far from the narrow crevices in which they hide. Females give birth to 1–7 young (Branch 1998) and at least some species display a postnuptial reproductive cycle (Flemming 1993a,b). Several individuals of some species (e.g. *P. m. subviridis*) are regularly found in close association and of-

Pseudocordylus langi Loveridge, 1944 LANG'S CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates & Michael J. Cunningham

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: The status of *Pseudocordylus langi* as a separate species was confirmed by Broadley (1964) and Bates (2007a). Molecular studies indicate that it is the basal species in the genus (Bates 2007a; Stanley *et al.* 2011) and not the most derived species as suggested by Broadley (1964). The phylogeography of *P. langi* was studied by Goedbloed & Cunningham (2006), who found that the species comprises a single historical lineage. Morphological variation and aspects of the ecology of this species are being investigated (M.F. Bates & M.J. Cunningham in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to the Drakensberg range of KwaZulu-Natal, Free State and Lesotho. The majority of the range is between Giant's Castle and The Sentinel in KwaZulu-Natal, with a northwesterly extension into the Qwaqwa Drakensberg of the Free State, and a single record from Mechachaneng Peak in adjacent northern Lesotho.

EOO: 8 100 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 135 km² (confidence: high).

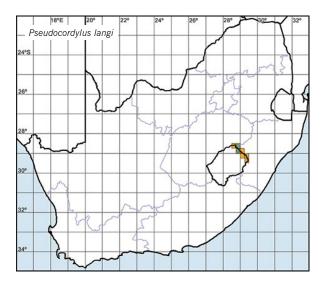
Habitat: Restricted to cliffs and crevices at the escarpment edge, on nearby rocky buttresses and on the adjacent summit, at extreme altitudes of 2 700–3 100 m. Occurs only in the Grassland Biome.

Vegetation type: Gd 7 uKhahlamba Basalt Grassland; Gd 8 Lesotho Highland Basalt Grassland; Gd 10 Drakensberg Afroalpine Heathland.

Assessment rationale: Despite an EOO <20 000 km² (below the Vulnerable threshold) and an AOO <500 km² (below the Endangered threshold), and although there are only six known subpopulations at a single location (climate change, in this case an increase in temperature, will affect all populations) [B1a+2a], there are no known habitat or population declines or fluctuations.

Threats: Although largely protected by its inhospitable rocky habitat, this species is potentially threatened by its limited dispersal capabilities due to restriction to a zone of about 400 m on the upper escarpment. This also means that global climate change (in this case warming) may be a serious threat. Hikers may cause disturbance to habitat in some limited areas around frequently visited sites.

ten in the same crevices, but others (e.g. *P. transvaalensis*) are usually found singly in crevices and at lower densities on rocky outcrops (Bates 2007a). *Pseudocordylus langi, P. spinosus, P. transvaalensis* and *P. microlepidotus namaquensis* have restricted ranges and all but the latter are considered Near Threatened. Both *P. spinosus* and *P. langi* were classified as Restricted in the South African Red Data Book (Branch 1988a) and as Near Threatened by the IUCN (1996). *Pseudocordylus langi* is restricted to very high altitudes and may be adversely affected by increasing temperatures. Eastern populations of *P. transvaalensis* may be negatively affected by afforestation.





Pseudocordylus langi—Chain Ladder, Drakensberg, FS M.F. Bates

Conservation measures: Ensure that legislating bodies treat this species as Near Threatened and afford it the necessary protection. Develop a BMP-S. Communicate with farmers and other locals and educate them about this species. Undertake research into population numbers and exact ranges, the status of available habitat, and biology and ecology of the species. Monitor populations in areas of high human traffic—this species may be affected by over-collecting and disturbance at some hiking trail passes up the Drakensberg escarpment. It may also be susceptible to climate change and potentially to catastrophic disease.

Pseudocordylus melanotus melanotus (A. Smith, 1838) COMMON CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Genetic and morphological data suggests that northern populations of *Pseudocordylus melanotus melanotus* (northern Mpumalanga and Swaziland), southern populations of *P. m. melanotus*, and *P. m. subviridis* are all sufficiently differentiated to be considered separate species (Bates 2007a). However, further analyses are being conducted (M.F. Bates *et al.* in prep.) in order to fully resolve the taxonomy of the *P. melanotus* species complex.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. In South Africa, it occurs in Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Free State and KwaZulu-Natal, with a single isolated record in Limpopo (2430AB). Also found in northwestern Swaziland. The southern Gauteng population (1 500–1 860 m) is isolated, as are populations in Nkandhla district in KwaZulu-Natal (1 100–1 500 m) and in the northeastern and southeastern Free State (Bates 2005a). This species was recently recorded from the Magaliesberg Range in western Gauteng (Bates & Whittington-Jones 2009), representing yet another isolated population. A locality at 2531DD in northeastern Swaziland (Bates 2005a) is questionable as it is situated well within the Lowveld—an unlikely area for this species—and it has therefore not been mapped here.

Habitat: Apart from a single record marginally within the Lowveld (2431CC), this species occurs only in the Grassland Biome of South Africa and Swaziland. It is largely restricted to Mesic Highveld Grassland and Sub-Escarpment Grassland, with only a couple of peripheral records in Dry Highveld Grassland (northeastern Free State), at altitudes of 1 100–2 300 m (Bates 2005a). Found on rock outcrops in montane and Highveld grassland (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989). Occurs on the northern extension of the Drakensberg plateau and on the eastern escarpment of Mpumalanga, but not restricted to such areas, e.g. it also occurs at Suikerbosrand in Gauteng (Bates 2005a). Shelters in narrow crevices between rocks.

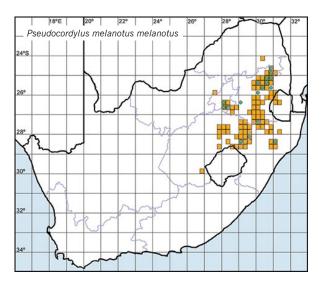
Pseudocordylus melanotus subviridis (A. Smith, 1838) DRAKENSBERG CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Genetic and morphological evidence suggests that *P. melanotus subviridis* is sufficiently differentiated from northern and southern populations of *P. m. melanotus* (both may represent separate species) to be considered a separate species (Bates 2007a). In their multi-gene study, Stanley *et al.* (2011) found that *P. m. melanotus* and *P. transvaalensis* were closely related and constituted the sister clade of *P. m. subviridis*, and they therefore suggested that the latter be treated as a full species. However, their only *P. m. melanotus* sample was from the



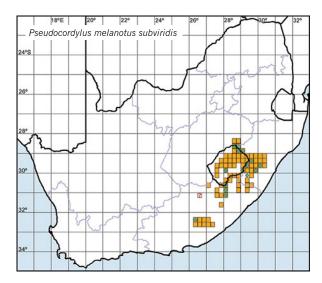


Pseudocordylus melanotus melanotus—W of Dullstroom, MPM M. Burger

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Dry Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Because it is rupicolous, its habitat is generally unlikely to be destroyed by farming activities.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



same geographical area as *P. m. melanotus*-like populations that Bates (2007a) considered representative of an undescribed species. Bates (2007a) also found considerable sub-structuring within *P. m. subviridis*. An expanded phylogeographical analysis is currently being conducted in order to resolve the taxonomy of the *P. melanotus* species complex (M.F. Bates *et al.* in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to Lesotho and South Africa. Occurs in at least two geographically isolated populations, one in the Maloti-Drakensberg Range (1 400–3 200 m) in Lesotho, northeastern Free State, southwestern KwaZulu-Natal and the northeastern part of the Eastern Cape, and the other in the Amatole and Great Winterberg mountains (1 400–1 600 m) in the Eastern Cape (Bates 2005a). The record at QDGC 3126BA is slightly out of range and



Pseudocordylus melanotus subviridis, male—about 20 km SW of Cedarville, EC M. Burger

requires confirmation as the specimens may be referable to *P. microlepidotus fasciatus*.

Habitat: Restricted to the Grassland Biome. Found in colonies among rocks and on steep cliffs in mountainous areas, where it shelters in narrow crevices. In some very high altitude areas, e.g. the top of Organ Pipes Pass, it is subject to considerable periods of misty, overcast weather.

Bioregion: Drakensberg Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Found mostly in high-elevation areas where the primary farming activity, grazing of cattle or goats, does not impact significantly on its habitat.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pseudocordylus melanotus subviridis, female—20 km SW of Cedarville, EC M. Burger

Pseudocordylus microlepidotus microlepidotus (Cuvier, 1829) CAPE CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

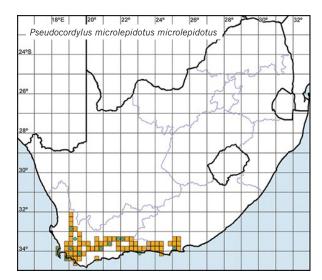
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Although there are some morphological features that distinguish this subspecies from *P. microlepidotus fasciatus* and *P. m. namaquensis* (FitzSimons 1943; Bates 2005a), the taxonomic status of the latter two subspecies should be re-evaluated. A molecular analysis indicated that despite its fragmentary distribution in the Cape



Pseudocordylus microlepidotus microlepidotus—Heuningvlei, Cederberg, WC P. le F.N. Mouton



Fold Mountains, there is little indication of phylogenetic or geographical structuring in *P. m. microlepidotus* and no evidence of cryptic taxa, suggesting that this taxon is highly vagile with a historically large and stable population size (Makhubo 2009).

Distribution: Endemic to the Western and Eastern Cape, South Africa (Bates 2005a). Found in all the main elements of the Cape Fold Mountains, including the Cederberg, Dutoitskloofberg, Riviersonderendberg, Hexrivierberg, Langeberg, Anysberg, Kammanassieberg, Rooiberg, Swartberg, Outeniqua, Tsitsikamma, Langkloof, Baviaanskloofberg, Kouga, Elandsberg, Great Winterhoekberg and Suurberg mountains (Bates 2005a).

Habitat: Found in montane regions (20–1 920 m) on rock outcrops and cliffs, usually in fynbos or on grassy slopes, sheltering in crevices or under rocks; known to use large

Pseudocordylus microlepidotus fasciatus A. Smith, 1838

KAROO CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Although there are some morphological features that distinguish this subspecies from Pseudocordylus microlepidotus microlepidotus and P. m. namaguensis (FitzSimons 1943; Bates 2005a), its taxonomic status should be re-evaluated. Individuals from the Transkei region (3127DD, 3227BB, 3228AC) of the Eastern Cape have narrow dorsal bands on the back and may represent a separate species or subspecies (Hewitt 1927; Branch 1998), but because there are no other distinct morphological differences, this can only be clarified by molecular analysis. A mitochondrial DNA analysis (Makhubo 2009) indicated that P. m. fasciatus is probably a junior synonym of P. m. microlepidotus, but further studies, using more representative samples of the former taxon, are needed to resolve its taxonomic status. In the same study, a sample from the Transkei population was found to be nested within P. m. microlepidotus. Stanley et al. (2011) found that a sample from the Transkei was divergent from P. m. microlepidotus but they did not include samples of P. m. fasciatus or P. m. namaquensis in their analysis.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa. Found in the inland mountains of the Eastern Cape, with peripheral records in the Northern and Western Cape. Recorded from the Sneeuberg, Stormberg, Bamboesberg and Winterberg, as well as the Mount Arthur Range (Bates 2005a). Unlike P. m. microlepidotus, it is excluded from the Cape Fold Mountains, but occurs near the eastern end of the latter range in the Olifantskop Pass (3325BD) and Grahamstown areas, these being the most southerly records (Bates 2005a). The most northerly localities are near Colesberg (3025CC) and at Deelfontein near Richmond (3023DD). Bates (2005a) questioned the latter locality because Boulenger (1903) had described this area as barren and flat, but on a recent visit to the area (M.F. Bates pers. obs.), it was noted that small koppies with numerous rock crevices were present in the immediate vicinity of Deelfontein. This subspecies occurs as far west as the Kamdebooberg (3223BD) near Aberdeen, and as far east as Butterworth (3228AC), the latter being part of the range of the unusually marked Transkei population (Bates 2005a). Pseudocordylus m. fasciatus has been collected parapatrically with P. m. subviridis at a few localities, namely the farm Finella Falls (3226AD) in the Great Wincrevices that are partly filled with soil, in which it may excavate a chamber (Branch 1998; Bates 2005a).

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and abundant.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

 18*E
 20*
 22*
 24*
 26*
 28*
 302
 32*

 24*S
 32*
 32*
 32*
 32*
 32*
 </



Pseudocordylus microlepidotus fasciatus—Asante Sana GR, EC

W. Conradie

terberg Range, near the adjacent Amatole Range, and in the Stormberg near Dordrecht (Bates 2005a).

Habitat: Occurs mainly in the Grassland and Nama-Karoo biomes. Inhabits rock outcrops, sheltering in crevices. In the inland mountains of the Eastern Cape, it is found at elevations of 440–1 900 m (Bates 2005a).

Bioregion: Drakensberg Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Dry Highveld Grassland; Upper Karoo; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread and locally abundant.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Pseudocordylus microlepidotus namaquensis Hewitt, 1927 NUWEVELDBERG CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Although Bates (2005a) indicated that there are small morphological differences between the three subspecies of *Pseudocordylus microlepidotus*, their taxonomic status remains unresolved. The phylogeography of *P. microlepidotus* is under investigation (Cunningham 2004). The studies of Makhubo (2009) and Stanley *et al.* (2011) did not include samples of this subspecies.

Distribution: Endemic to the Northern and Western Cape provinces, South Africa, where it is restricted to the Nuweveldberg and Komsberg mountain ranges in the Fraserburg, Sutherland and Beaufort West districts (Bates 2005a).

Habitat: Found in crevices amongst boulders on the upper slopes and summits of the Nuweveldberg and Komsberg mountains, in fynbos or montane grassland (Branch 1998; Bates 2005a), at altitudes of 1 526–1 784 m (M.F. Bates unpubl. data).

Bioregion: Karoo Renosterveld; Upper Karoo.

Assessment rationale: The taxon has a restricted range $(EOO = 16\ 875\ km^2$, $AOO = 1\ 080\ km^2\ [B1+2])$ but is probably fairly common where it does occur, and there are currently no known major threats (minor threats include tourism, frequent fires and overgrazing) or indications of population declines or fluctuations, nor any significant changes in the quality of its habitat. It is therefore classified as Least Concern. However, it may be intrinsically at risk because of poor dispersal capabilities and a restricted range.

Pseudocordylus spinosus FitzSimons, 1947 SPINY CRAG LIZARD

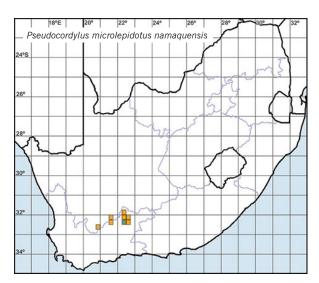
Michael F. Bates

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Although morphologically quite distinct from *P. melanotus subviridis*, a series of high-elevation *P. spinosus* specimens from Goodoo Pass in the Drakensberg shared the same 16S haplotype as several *P. m. subviridis* specimens from different localities in the Drakensberg region (Bates 2007a). The multi-gene study of Stanley *et al.* (2011) also found only minor differentiation between these two taxa. Taxonomic status of the isolated populations in the Ixopo and Donnybrook areas of southern KwaZulu-Natal is under investigation (M.F. Bates *et al.* in prep.).

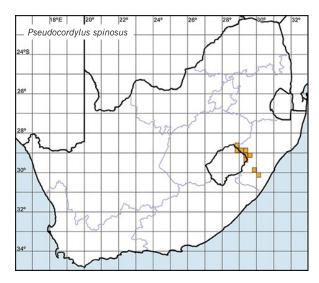
Distribution: Endemic to KwaZulu-Natal and Free State provinces, South Africa; found on the lower and middle slopes of the Drakensberg, with isolated populations near Donnybrook and Ixopo in southern KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004; Bates 2005a).





Pseudocordylus microlepidotus namaquensis—Komsberg, NC P. le F.N. Mouton

Conservation measures: Obtain more information on biology and ecology, and gain more insight into the status of available habitat and threats facing the population. Monitor populations, especially those outside the Karoo National Park.



EOO: 14 850 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 1 316 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found on outcrops consisting of small rocks scattered in montane grassland in the Grassland Biome, at altitudes of 900–2 517 m; often occupies crevices at or near ground level (Bates 2005a).

Bioregion: Drakensberg Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Has a fairly small range below the Vulnerable thresholds (EOO <20 000 km², AOO <2 000 km²), with a continuing decline in area, extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)], e.g. populations in southern KwaZulu-Natal are isolated by exotic plantations. Only a small portion of the area of the QDGCs where the species has been recorded currently provide suitable habitat. Probably found at more than ten locations and the range is not known to be severely fragmented, although the isolated nature of populations in southern KwaZulu-Natal may not have been recognised previously. Fortunately, much of the main Drakensberg population is protected within the Ukhahlamba Drakensberg Park.

Threats: Afforestation (pines, bluegums) is a major threat, especially in the lxopo-Donnybrook area of southern Kwa-Zulu-Natal where at least two small, isolated populations occur. Fires are a minor threat because lizards will seek refuge and safety in rocky crevices. Human traffic on hiking trails in the Drakensberg is of minor concern. Threats are potentially magnified by the species' intrinsically poor dispersal capabilities and restricted range.

Conservation measures: Ensure that conservation organisations and legislating bodies treat this species as Near



Pseudocordylus spinosus—Goodoo Pass, KZN

M.F. Bates

Threatened and afford it the necessary protection. Design a BMP-S. Communicate with farmers and other locals and educate them about this species. Measure population numbers and exact ranges, obtain more information on biology and ecology, investigate the status of available habitat, and ascertain the exact nature of threats. Protect the isolated populations in southern KwaZulu-Natal. Monitor populations in areas where there are hiking trails through suitable habitat. Prevent the establishment of exotic timber plantations in areas where the species occurs.

Pseudocordylus transvaalensis FitzSimons, 1943 NORTHERN CRAG LIZARD; TRANSVAAL CRAG LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Near Threatened

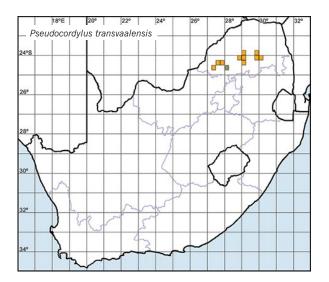
Endemic

Taxonomy: Based on morphological and molecular analyses, *Pseudocordylus transvaalensis* appears to be a valid species rather than a subspecies of *P. melanotus* (Jacobsen 1989; Bates 2005a, 2007a; Stanley *et al.* 2011). The three allopatric populations differ morphologically, but mitochondrial DNA sequence data for western and central populations indicate that they are conspecific (Bates 2007a).

Distribution: Endemic to Limpopo Province, South Africa. Occurs in three allopatric populations: western (Thabazimbi area), central (Mokopane area) and eastern (Woodbush/Haenertsburg area) (Jacobsen 1989; Bates 2005a).

EOO: 17 550 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 1 586 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found on large rock outcrops where it shelters in crevices or under rocks, on the upper slopes of hills or on ridges, in the Savanna and Grassland biomes, at altitudes of 1 700–2 000 m (Jacobsen 1989; Bates 2007a). The western population is associated with grassy, wooded hills (e.g. SVcb 17 Waterberg Mountain Bushveld), the central population occurs mainly in Central Bushveld, and the eastern population is associated with mixed Protea-grassland. Usually individuals occupy a crevice and lizard densities in rock outcrops are much lower than they are for the two subspecies of *P. melanotus* (Jacobsen 1989; Bates 2007a).





Pseudocordylus transvaalensis—10 km NW of Haenertsburg, LIMP M.F. Bates

206

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: This species has a fairly small range (EOO <20 000 km², AOO <2 000 km²) with a continuing decline in area, extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)] in at least some areas (e.g. near Haenertsburg in the eastern population) due to afforestation, the development of logging roads, fires and other human activities.

Threats: Afforestation (e.g. pines) is the main threat, especially in the area of the eastern population where it may have caused some habitat loss and prevented free association of local populations. Construction and the use of logging roads near known *P. transvaalensis* sites in the eastern population destroys some habitat (pers. obs.) and may restrict movement and result in road kills. It is likely that some plantations will become more extensive in future, although the negative impact on *P. transvaalensis* may not be considerable because such plantations are not usually

established in extensively rocky areas. Future expansion of human settlements (e.g. Greater Polokwane area), roads and human activity on walking trails also pose a potential threat, although the lizard's habitat requirements will minimise this. Fires pose a small risk, but refuges in rock crevices will provide protection in most cases. *Pseudocordylus transvaalensis* is also potentially at risk because of its intrinsically low dispersal capabilities and restricted range.

Conservation measures: Ensure that conservation organisations and legislating bodies treat this species as Near Threatened and afford it the necessary protection. Develop a BMP-S. Communicate with farmers and other locals and educate them about this species, especially in the eastern parts of the range where afforestation occurs. Determine population numbers and exact ranges, obtain more information on biology and ecology, and gain more insight into the status of available habitat. Monitor population trends. Identify and establish protected areas for each of the three allopatric populations.

Genus Smaug Stanley, Bauer, Jackman, Branch & Mouton, 2011 dragon lizards

The genus *Smaug* comprises six species, one of which (*S. warreni*) consists of three subspecies. All taxa were previously contained within the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). Relationships among the forms in the *S. warreni* complex (see Jacobsen 1989) are currently being investigated (E.L. Stanley & M.F. Bates in prep.). All species possess enlarged occipital and caudal spines, hence the appropriate common name 'dragon lizards' (*Smaug* is the name of a dragon in *The Hobbit* by J.R.R. Tolkien) (Stanley *et al.* 2011). Apart from *S. giganteus*, which is terrestrial in the grasslands of the central plateau of South Africa, all other

taxa are rupicolous and distributed in the northeastern parts of South Africa and Swaziland. The genus includes the largest living cordylids (*S. giganteus* is the largest). Some members of the clade display a postnuptial reproductive cycle (Van Wyk 1995). Sexual size dimorphism is moderate, but two species (*S. mossambicus* and *S. regius*) display sexual dichromatism (Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region, one taxon is classified as Vulnerable due to transformation and fragmentation of grasslands (*S. giganteus*) and the other five (*S. breyeri*, *S. vandami*, *S. w. warreni*, *S. w. barbertonensis* and *S. w. depressus*) are considered Least Concern.

Smaug breyeri (Van Dam, 1921) WATERBERG DRAGON LIZARD; WATERBERG GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The taxonomic status of forms in the *Smaug warreni* species complex, to which *C. breyeri* belongs (see Jacobsen 1989), is currently being evaluated using molecular methods (E.L. Stanley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

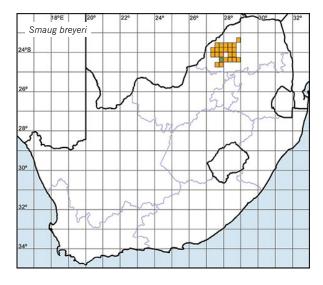
Distribution: Endemic to the Waterberg and surrounding areas in Limpopo Province, South Africa (Jacobsen 1989).

Habitat: A rupicolous species that occurs at altitudes of 700–1 700 m and prefers rock outcrops in open savanna, where it shelters in deep-shaded cracks on the cool side of rock outcrops (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Vegetation type: SVcb 17 Waterberg Mountain Bushveld; SVcb 12 Central Sandy Bushveld; SVcb 16 Western Sandy Bushveld; SVcb 19 Limpopo Sweet Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range, but habitat fragmentation is negligible and there is no noticeable decline in extent or quality of habitat. There are also no known threats. Being rupicolous, this lizard's habitat is reasonably safe.

Conservation measures: Conduct basic research into population numbers, biology, ecology and habitat status.





Smaug breyeri—21 km SW of Lephalale, LIMP

M. Burger

Smaug giganteus (A. Smith, 1844)

GIANT DRAGON LIZARD; GIANT GIRDLED LIZARD; SUNGAZER; OUVOLK

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Vulnerable A2c

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordy- lus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, where it is found only in the grasslands of the northern Free State (De Waal 1978) and the southwestern parts of Mpumalanga (Jacobsen 1989). Records of this species in KwaZulu-Natal (e.g. Bourquin 2004) apparently all refer to introduced populations that did not become established, and there are no confirmed records of natural populations in this province (Armstrong 2011). A record for Witsieshoek (2828DB) in the Free State and two records for western Lesotho (Ambrose 2006) are considered doubtful (question marks on map).

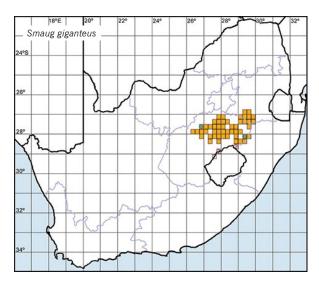
EOO: 39 296 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 3 352 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: One of only a few terrestrial cordylids, inhabiting flat or sloping Highveld grassland where it lives in self-excavated burrows (Branch 1998). Diurnal and insectivorous, although plant material may also be consumed (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Dry Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: A reduction in population size of at least 30% during the last 27 years (three generations) is inferred from the continuous habitat destruction in the Grassland Biome [A2c]. In addition, it is likely that a large part of the population exists in fragmented islands of grassland habitat between croplands.

Threats: The areas inhabited by this species are suitable for agriculture, particularly maize and sunflower cultivation, and large areas have been planted, resulting in largescale habitat loss (De Waal 1978; Newberry & Petersen 1982/3). Habitat loss due to agriculture is a continuing threat. Large portions of the grassland habitat are underlain by coal beds of varying quality and extent, and exploitation of coal for fuel has and will result in further habitat loss (Newberry & Petersen 1982/3). In the past this species has also been used by traditional healers (Newberry & Petersen 1982/3), but there is uncertainty over the extent of its present use in traditional medicine and witchcraft. Commercial exploitation for the pet trade is limited and contained (Jacobsen 1989) but remains a permanent





Smaug giganteus-in captivity, Khamai Reptile Park, Hoedspruit J. Marais

threat. In the past, fumigating burrows for the control of Yellow Mongoose (*Cynictis penicillata*) and Suricate (*Suricata suricatta*) resulted in great losses (Newberry & Petersen 1982/3), and poisoning of this lizard remains a threat in agricultural areas. Losses are exacerbated by poor recruitment ability; females reproduce only every second year (Van Wyk 1991). Poor fire management may also affect this species.

Conservation measures: Continue with research to develop an effective translocation protocol (Van Wyk 1988). Continuously encourage farmers to protect these animals and to stop all forms of persecution by farm workers (Newberry & Petersen 1982/3). Prohibit the removal of lizards from natural populations. Draft a BMP-S.

Smaug vandami (FitzSimons, 1930) VAN DAM'S DRAGON LIZARD;

VAN DAM'S GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The taxonomic status of forms in the *Smaug warreni* species complex, to which *S. vandami* belongs (Jacobsen 1989), is currently being evaluated using molecular methods (E.L. Stanley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

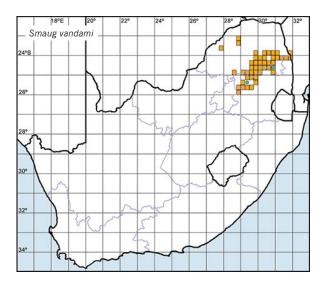
Distribution: Endemic to Limpopo and the eastern escarpment of Mpumalanga, South Africa, possibly extending into Mozambique (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Habitat: Prefers mesic savanna where it occurs in large cracks in shaded outcrops (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Smaug vandami-Farm Mooiplaats 242, Middelburg distr., MPM M.F. Bates

Smaug warreni warreni (Boulenger, 1908) WARREN'S DRAGON LIZARD; WARREN'S GIRDLED LIZARD

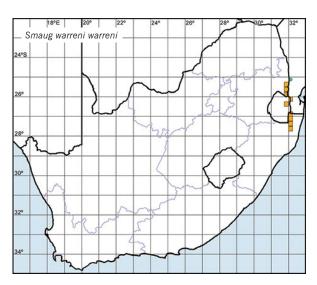
P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern Near-endemic



Smaug warreni warreni

J. Marais



Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The taxonomic status of forms in the *Smaug warreni* species complex (Jacobsen 1989) is currently being evaluated using molecular methods (E.L. Stanley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

CORDYLIDAE

Distribution: Endemic to the Lebombo Mountains, occurring from northeastern KwaZulu-Natal through Swaziland to eastern Mpumalanga (Jacobsen 1989) and adjacent Mozambique (D.G. Broadley pers. comm.). A new Virtual Museum record represents a small northern range extension for the species.

Habitat: A rupicolous taxon found on rock outcrops along the Lebombo Mountains at elevations of 300–800 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Smaug warreni barbertonensis (Van Dam, 1921) BARBERTON DRAGON LIZARD; BARBERTON GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The taxonomic status of forms in the *Smaug warreni* species complex (see Jacobsen 1989) is currently being evaluated using molecular methods (E.L. Stanley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Swaziland. Has a relatively restricted range extending from eastern Mpumalanga south through Swaziland to northern KwaZulu-Natal (Jacobsen 1989; Boycott 1992a; Bourquin 2004). The western limit is based on an isolated SARCA Virtual Museum record from the Ermelo district.

Habitat: Inhabits rock outcrops on hillsides, usually in the partial shade of trees (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Mesic Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range, but because of its rupicolous nature, the species should remain reasonably safe.

Conservation measures: None recommended, but research is needed to investigate the claim that removal of trees from the species' habitat could have a negative effect, because this lizard often selects crevices in the partial shade of trees (Jacobsen 1989).

Smaug warreni depressus (FitzSimons, 1930)

FLAT DRAGON LIZARD; FLAT GIRDLED LIZARD

P. le Fras N. Mouton

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

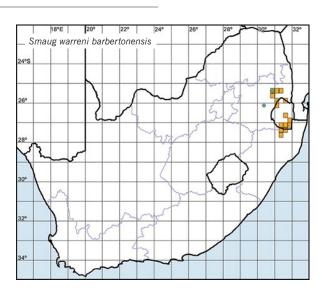
Taxonomy: Previously contained within the genus *Cordylus* (Stanley *et al.* 2011). The molecular assessment of Stanley *et al.* (2011) found that S. *w. depressus* was the sister taxon to the other taxa in the complex, suggesting that it is a valid species. A detailed investigation into the taxonomic status of forms in the *Smaug warreni* species complex (Jacobsen 1989) is currently being conducted using molecular methods (E.L. Stanley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to Limpopo Province, South Africa, where it occurs along the Soutpansberg Range and on

Vegetation type: SVI 16 Southern Lebombo Bushveld; SVI 17 Lebombo Summit Sourveld; SVI 23 Zululand Lowveld; SVI 5 Tshokwane-Hlane Basalt Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is not threatened. Habitat is secure and the species should remain Least Concern provided no large scale commercial harvesting takes place (Jacobsen 1989).

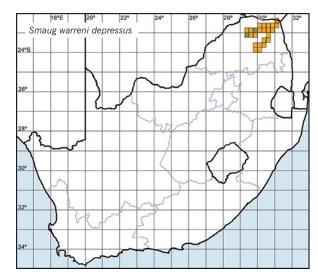
Conservation measures: None recommended.





Smaug warreni barbertonensis—Barberton, MPM

E.L. Stanley



smaller ridges between this range and Woodbush in the south (Jacobsen 1989).

Habitat: A rupicolous species occurring on rock outcrops on hillsides and mountain summits, in savanna (Jacobsen 1989).

Smaug warreni depressus—Soutpansberg, LIMP

J. Marais

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Although this taxon has a relatively restricted range, it is not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Smaug warreni depressus-Entabeni, Soutpansberg, LIMP

212

SUBFAMILY PLATYSAURINAE

The recent taxonomic re-assessment of Stanley *et al.* (2011) divided the family Cordylidae into two sub-families, Cordylinae and Platysaurinae. The latter

contains a single genus, *Platysaurus*, with 15 species (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Adolphs 2006; Uetz 2012).

Genus Platysaurus A. Smith, 1844—flat lizards

The genus *Platysaurus* is currently being revised on the basis of molecular data (S. Keogh *et al.* in prep.) and major taxonomic changes are expected. It currently consists of 15 species—three of these have two subspecies each, and one (*P. intermedius*) has nine subspecies—many of which require revision (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Adolphs 2006). Most species are found in southeastern Africa, although *P. broadleyi* and *P. capensis* occur as far west as the Northern Cape and southern Namibia, respectively, while *P. maculatus maculatus* is found as far north as southern Tanzania. The remaining taxa are found in South Africa, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Malawi and Mozambique. Nine species (15 taxa) are found in the *Atlas* region. All are diurnal, rupicolous and dorso-ventrally compressed, allowing them to seek refuge in very narrow

rock crevices (Broadley 1978; Scott *et al.* 2004). Most taxa exhibit sexual dichromatism, with brightly coloured adult males and dull, brownish, striped females. Females lay one or two clutches of two large eggs per clutch in a season (Branch 1998). *Platysaurus broadleyi* may be unique among lizards because males have an ultraviolet-reflective throat used to signal fighting ability (Whiting *et al.* 2006). *Platysaurus relictus* was previously considered a Lower Risk/near threatened (IUCN 1996) and 'restricted' (Branch 1988a) species. Two taxa with very restricted distributions are now considered Endangered (*P. intermedius inopinus, P. monotropis*) as a result of habitat transformation, and *P. orientalis fitzsimonsi* is classified as Near Threatened as a result of its restricted and highly fragmented distribution.

Platysaurus broadleyi Branch & Whiting, 1997 AUGRABIES FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Branch & Whiting (1997) showed that the eastern population (Gordonia and Kenhardt districts, Northern Cape) of *Platysaurus capensis* was distinct based on two unique traits, and it was therefore described as a new species, *P. broadleyi*.

Distribution: Endemic to the Gordonia and Kenhardt districts of the Northern Cape, South Africa. This species is patchily distributed along the Orange River, from Augrabies Falls National Park in the east to Pella in the west. Two records exist from Bak Putz River, a tributary of the Orange River. These records are about 45 km north of the Orange River, close to the border with Namibia. It is not known whether the Orange River and Bak Putz populations are contiguous. Although the species has been observed on both sides of the Orange River east and south of Namibia, it has yet to be recorded from that country.

Habitat: Associated with rock outcrops along the Orange River and its tributaries at elevations of 610–730 m (Branch & Whiting 1997). At Augrabies Falls National Park, where it is most abundant, it is found mainly on smooth granite, especially along the banks of the Orange River. Its distribution appears to be tied to water availability, because lizard density quickly declines with increasing distance from the river. *Platysaurus broadleyi* appears to favour narrow, deep rock crevices where it seeks refuge. Fig trees are used for shade and lizards feed on ripe figs when these are available (Whiting & Greeff 1997).

 Isere
 <th



Platysaurus broadleyi, male-Augrabies Falls, NC

M.F. Bates

Vegetation type: NKb 1 Lower Gariep Broken Veld. Augrabies Flat Lizards actually occur adjacent to this vegetation type, along the granitic banks of the Orange River. Most lizards are found in rocky habitat devoid of vegetation, except for the occasional Namaqua Fig Tree (*Ficus cordata*).

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO = 6 832 km², below the Vulnerable threshold; AOO = 296 km², below the Endangered threshold), and the rapid expansion of viticulture along the Orange River could threaten local populations through ecosystem alteration and the use of insecticides. However, *P. broadleyi* is extremely abundant in a protected area, Augrabies Falls National Park, and there are other healthy populations along the Orange River. Although its range appears to be fragmented, it is unlikely that this fragmentation is severe.

Conservation measures: No immediate actions are required. Preliminary observations suggest that several subpopulations are small and disjunct. A thorough survey of the Orange River and its tributaries would improve our understanding of the distribution and abundance of local subpopulations.

Platysaurus capensis A. Smith, 1844 NAMAQUA FLAT LIZARD; CAPE FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This species previously included populations to the east (from Pella eastwards) now referred to as *P. broadleyi* (Branch & Whiting 1997; Scott *et al.* 2004). Current research into the molecular systematics of *P. capensis* suggests the existence of a species complex (S. Keogh *et al.* unpubl. data). Taxonomic studies reveal that the Richtersveld, Namaqualand and Fish River Canyon populations may all represent valid species (S. Keogh & M.J. Whiting unpubl. data).

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. In the *At/as* region it is found in the Northern Cape, extending from Namaqualand in the south to the Richtersveld and Gariep Desert region in the north. North of the Orange River, in southern Namibia, the taxon is known from the Hunsberg, Huamsib and Ploegberg mountains, and the Fish River Canyon (Branch & Whiting 1997).

Habitat: Rupicolous, typically living on granite, gneiss and shale rock outcrops. Uses narrow crevices for refuge and frequently uses shelf rock such as exfoliation domes, in conjunction with large boulders. In dry areas it is typically associated with water (Orange River and Fish River Canyon). In the south it occupies the moister Succulent Karoo Biome. Typically found on relatively small rock outcrops or the lower slopes of mountains, at elevations of 40–1 000 m (Branch & Whiting 1997).

Bioregion: Richtersveld; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Gariep Desert; Bushmanland; Southern Namib Desert; Namaqualand Cape Shrublands.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread and common. However, if the Richtersveld, Namaqualand and Fish River Canyon populations are found to be valid species, their conservation status will have to be re-assessed.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

 Image
 <th



Platysaurus capensis, male-Richtersveld, NC

J. Marais



Platysaurus broadleyi, female—Augrabies Falls, NC

M.F. Bates

Platysaurus guttatus A. Smith, 1849 DWARF FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: *Platysaurus guttatus* was rendered a monotypic species when *P. guttatus minor* was elevated to species status by Jacobsen & Newbery (1989).

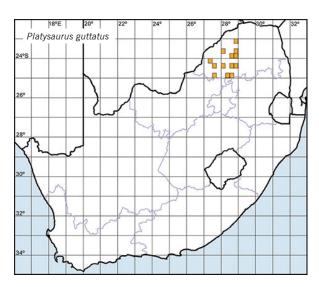
Distribution: Considered endemic to Limpopo, South Africa (Jacobsen 1989), although it may also occur in eastern Botswana.

Habitat: Rupicolous, inhabiting small rocky ridges and outcrops. Narrow (<5 mm high) crevices are important refuges; found at altitudes of 1 000–1 300 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, with an EOO and AOO above the Vulnerable thresholds. Nevertheless, the range is severely fragmented and the species should be monitored in the future.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Platysaurus guttatus, male—Farm Sweethome near Sebotane, LIMP M. Whiting

Platysaurus intermedius intermedius Matschie, 1891 COMMON FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

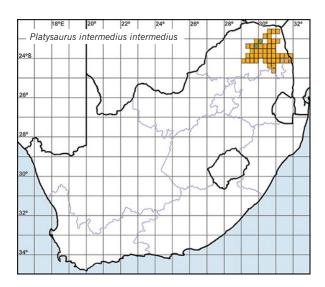
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previous (Scott *et al.* 2004) and current (S. Keogh *et al.* unpubl. data) molecular work suggests that



Platysaurus intermedius intermedius, male—Cleveland NR, Phalaborwa, MPM M. Burger



the *P. intermedius* complex will undergo significant taxonomic change, and *P. intermedius* may become a monotypic species.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa. Most of the range is located in Limpopo, with peripheral localities in Mpumalanga.

Habitat: Rupicolous, occupying rocky hillsides, outcrops and bedrock away from hills (Jacobsen 1989). Narrow rock crevices provide important refuges. Occurs at altitudes of 390–1 200 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Platysaurus intermedius intermedius, female—Cleveland NR, Phalaborwa, MPM M. Burger

Platysaurus intermedius inopinus Jacobsen, 1994 UNEXPECTED FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Endangered B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii) Endemic

Taxonomy: This subspecies is currently part of a molecular systematics and taxonomic study of the genus *Platysaurus* (S. Keogh *et al.* in prep.). It is likely to be elevated to species status.

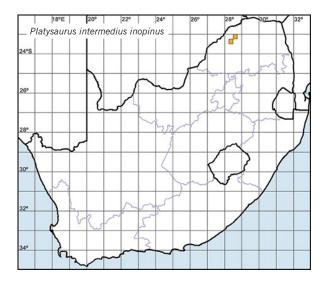
Distribution: Endemic to the northwestern region of Limpopo Province, South Africa. Occurs in a very restricted area about 9 km southwest of Blouberg Mountain (Jacobsen 1994a).

EOO: 374 km^2 (confidence: medium); AOO: 127 km^2 (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Occupies low sandstone ridges and outcrops where it is dependent on narrow rock crevices for refuge; occurs at elevations of about 1 000 m (Jacobsen 1994a).

Vegetation type: SVcb 18 Roodeberg Bushveld; SVcb 19 Limpopo Sweet Bushveld; SVcb 20 Makhado Sweet Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: This species has an extremely restricted distribution (EOO and AOO less than Endangered thresholds [B1+2]). The subpopulations are all in relatively close proximity and thus occupy fewer than five locations [B1a+2a]. Although these lizards are rupicolous, they are probably dependent on surrounding habi-



tat for insect prey. However, the area surrounding their rock outcrops is often overgrazed or planted over with crops. It is therefore likely that their habitat quality has decreased with increasing human habitation in the area [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)].

Threats: Although the taxon is rupicolous, it is likely to depend on productive land between rock outcrops for dispersal and for their role in supporting insect prey. The greatest threat is thus degradation of habitat through overgrazing and agriculture (crops). The use of insecticides at local settlements will reduce the prey population and result in incidental ingestion of toxins by lizards.



Platysaurus intermedius inopinus, male—Glen Alpine Dam, Bochum, LIMP M.J. Whiting



Platysaurus intermedius inopinus, female—Glen Alpine Dam, Bochum, LIMP M.J. Whiting

Conservation measures: Conduct a PHVA and establish a BMP-S. As a first step towards the management plan, survey all potential habitats consisting of Waterberg sandstone rock outcrops. Then, assess this habitat in the context of the surrounding vegetation in which insect prey lives. It is imperative to understand how vegetation and insect availability interact and in turn, affect the presence and abundance of *P. i. inopinus*. Further-

Platysaurus intermedius natalensis FitzSimons, 1948 KWAZULU-NATAL FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previous (Scott *et al.* 2004) and current (S. Keogh *et al.* unpubl. data) molecular work suggests that the *P. intermedius* complex will undergo significant taxonomic change. The possibility that *P. i. natalensis* is a full species is under consideration.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region where it is found in southern Swaziland, southeastern Mpumalanga and northern KwaZulu-Natal.

Habitat: Occupies rock outcrops at altitudes of 600– 900 m (Jacobsen 1989). Favours bedrock with exfoliating sheets and associated boulders. Crevices are important for refuge.

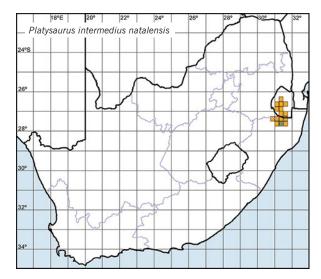
Bioregion: Lowveld; Sub-Escarpment Grassland.

Assessment rationale: There is no evidence of a population decline and this subspecies is currently considered Least Concern. However, EOO is small (13 015 km² [B1]) and the range is fragmented. Much of the land connecting the rocky outcrops inhabited by these lizards is being



Platysaurus intermedius natalensis, male—W of Pongola, KZN J. Marais

more, if the terrain surrounding rock outcrops is devoid of vegetation, this could impede lizard dispersal. Given the small size of outcrops, dispersal is likely to be an important factor regulating population growth in this taxon. Future conservation measures should thus address whether it is necessary to restore vegetation in the surrounding terrain for the purposes of population maintenance and growth.



transformed and degraded by human activity, and the use of pesticides by local farmers may affect insect prey.

Conservation measures: Carry out baseline population sampling to assess current distribution and abundance. Many subpopulations exist in areas with high human densities, but because these lizards are rupicolous, their habitat is not particularly susceptible to land transformation.



Platysaurus intermedius natalensis, female—Godlwayo Hill, N of Pongola, KZN W.R. Branch

Platysaurus intermedius parvus Broadley, 1976 BLOUBERG FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Previous (Scott *et al.* 2004) and current (S. Keogh *et al.* unpubl. data) molecular work suggests that the *P. intermedius* complex will undergo significant taxonomic change. Jacobsen (1989) suggested that *P. i. parvus* could be a full species and this is under consideration.

Distribution: Endemic to the Blouberg range in Limpopo Province, South Africa.

Habitat: Found on rocky slopes and outcrops consisting of Blouberg sandstone. Requires narrow rock crevices for refuge and occurs at altitudes of 1 000–1 200 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Vegetation type: SVcb 19 Limpopo Sweet Bushveld; SVcb 21 Soutpansberg Mountain Bushveld; SVcb 18 Roodeberg Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: EOO (168 km²) and AOO (145 km²) are lower than the Endangered thresholds. However, there is no information on population size or indications of population decline, and there are no indications of reduction in quality of habitat. Nevertheless, there are concerns about future collecting for the pet trade, and the damage caused to this lizard's habitat when crevices are broken open.

Conservation measures: Survey baseline population abundance and the extent of the species' distribution on the Blouberg range, and monitor the population. Provide protection from future collecting for the pet trade. Collecting of flat lizards often involves substantial damage to their habitat when crevices are broken open, so this should be discouraged. Protective legislation may be required.

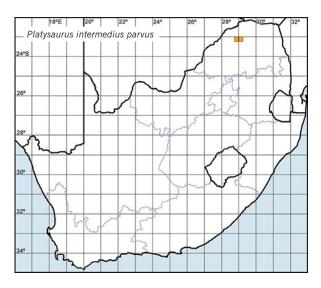
Platysaurus intermedius rhodesianus FitzSimons, 1941 ZIMBABWE FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Molecular data presented by Scott *et al.* (2004) placed *P. i. rhodesianus* in a separate clade with *P. imperator* and *P. torquatus*, rather than in a clade with *P. i. intermedius* and other *P. intermedius* subspecies, and *P. lebomboensis*, *P. minor*, *P. monotropis* and *P. orienta-lis.* This study, and current molecular work (S. Keogh *et al.* unpubl. data), suggest that the *P. intermedius* complex will undergo significant taxonomic change and it is likely that *P. i. rhodesianus* will be elevated to species status. Furthermore, *P. i. rhodesianus* is widespread, with some populations separated by significant physical barriers (e.g. Limpopo River) that are expected to constrain gene flow. Also, a number of populations show significant morphological variation, suggesting that *P. i. rhodesianus* may represent a species complex.

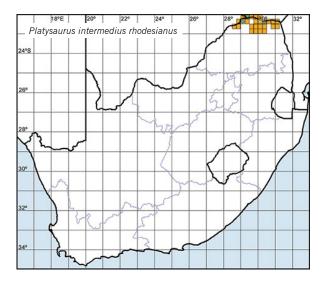
Distribution: Endemic to the southern African subregion. It occurs in the northern part of Limpopo Province in South





Platysaurus intermedius parvus, male—Blouberg, LIMP





Africa, in eastern Botswana, southern Zimbabwe and the southern part of Manica Platform in Mozambique (Broadley 1978; Jacobsen 1989).

Habitat: Found in a wide range of rocky habitats including sandstone, granite and gneiss. Favours areas with exfoliating bedrock and associated free-standing boulders



Platysaurus intermedius rhodesianus, male-near Musina, LIMP J. Marais

Platysaurus intermedius wilhelmi Hewitt, 1909 WILHELM'S FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Molecular data presented by Scott *et al.* (2004) placed *P. i. wilhelmi* in a separate clade with *P. lebomboensis*, far removed from *P. i. intermedius*. This study and current molecular work (S. Keogh *et al.* unpubl. data) suggest that the *P. intermedius* complex will undergo significant taxonomic change, and that *P. i. wilhelmi* is likely to be elevated to species status.

Distribution: Endemic to Mpumalanga and Limpopo provinces, South Africa. It may occur peripherally in Swaziland and Mozambique.

Habitat: Commonly occurs on granite outcrops and inselbergs where it uses open, exposed rock with associated boulders (Jacobsen 1989). Narrow rock crevices are important for refuge. Vegetation surrounding rock outcrops is frequently quite dense and juveniles may escape predators by running into it (M.J. Whiting *et al.* 2003).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Although the range is relatively fragmented, Wilhelm's Flat Lizard is sufficiently wide-spread and abundant not to be of conservation concern.

Conservation measures: Although this flat lizard is rupicolous, the intervening land connecting rock outcrops could be important for dispersal and for supporting insect prey. Where possible, therefore, maintain natural vegetation between rock outcrops and prevent overgrazing.

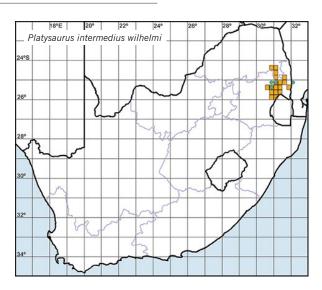
(Jacobsen 1989). Dependent on narrow crevices for refuge. Occurs at elevations of 300–800 m in South Africa (Jacobsen 1989) and up to about 1 100 m in Zimbabwe.

Bioregion: Mopane; Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Conservation measures: None recommended.



Platysaurus intermedius rhodesianus, female—Venetia Limpopo NR, LIMP M. Burger





Platysaurus intermedius wilhelmi, male—Sabie, MPM W.R. Schmidt

Platysaurus lebomboensis Jacobsen, 1994 LEBOMBO FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

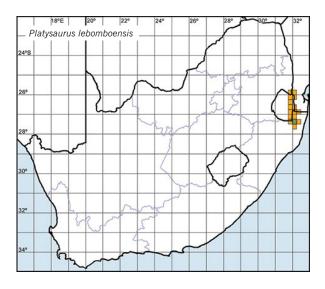
Distribution: Endemic to the southern African subregion. Occurs on the Lebombo Mountain Range in South Africa (eastern Mpumalanga, northeastern KwaZulu-Natal), Swaziland and Mozambique (Jacobsen 1994a).

Habitat: Occupies rock outcrops and rhyolite dwalas where it favours bedrock and associated boulders, taking refuge in rocky crevices. Occurs at altitudes of 600–800 m (Jacobsen 1989, 1994a).

Vegetation type: SVI 16 Southern Lebombo Bushveld; SVI 23 Zululand Lowveld; SVI 17 Lebombo Summit Sourveld; SVI 20 Western Maputaland Clay Bushveld; SVI 5 Tshokwane-Hlane Basalt Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Although it has a small EOO of $<5000 \text{ km}^2$ [B1], this species occurs on the slopes of the Lebombo Mountains and is considered secure with no known immediate threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Platysaurus lebomboensis, male—Manyiseni region, Lebombo Mtns, KZN M. Burger

Platysaurus minor FitzSimons, 1930 WATERBERG FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

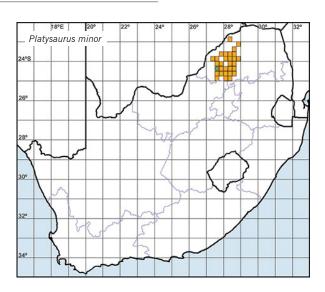
Endemic

Taxonomy: First described as a subspecies of *Platysaurus guttatus*, but later elevated to species status by Jacobsen & Newbery (1989) mainly because the two forms had



Platysaurus minor, male-30 km E of Sentrum, LIMP

M. Burger



been found in sympatry with no obvious intergradation. Furthermore, these authors noted that *P. guttatus* sensu stricto had more variable lateral stripes, although the morphological differences between the two species appear to be minimal.

Distribution: Endemic to the western half of Limpopo, South Africa where it occurs throughout the Waterberg range, extending into the foothills of the Blouberg range to the north.

Habitat: Found on low-lying isolated rock outcrops and on the lower slopes of mountains, at elevations of 900–1 400 m. Prefers areas of rocky shelf with associated boulders and narrow crevices that can be used for refuge (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a relatively wide distribution and is generally locally abundant.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Platysaurus minor, female—30 km E of Sentrum, LIMP

M. Burger

Platysaurus monotropis Jacobsen, 1994 ORANGE-THROATED FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Endangered B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii) Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to Limpopo Province, South Africa. Has an extremely restricted distribution and is known from only two QDGCs (2328BB, 2328BD).

EOO: 185 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 130 km² (confidence: medium).

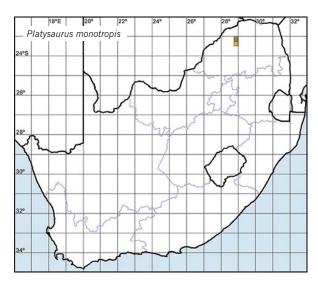
Habitat: Found on rocky outcrops of Waterberg sandstone at elevations of 1 200 m (Jacobsen 1989, 1994a). These outcrops are typically small and may range in size from <30 m in diameter to >500 m in diameter; they may be as close as 50 m apart or more than 1 km apart (Korner *et al.* 2000). The species is dependent on narrow rocky crevices for refuge.

Vegetation type: SVcb 18 Roodeberg Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has an extremely restricted distribution with EOO and AOO well below the Endangered thresholds. Subpopulations are all in relatively close proximity and comprise less than five locations [B1a+2a]. Although these lizards are rupicolous, they are probably dependent on healthy surrounding habitat for their insect prey. The area surrounding their rock outcrops is often heavily overgrazed or planted with crops. It is therefore likely that habitat quality has decreased with increasing human habitation in the area [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)].

Threats: Plausible threats are agriculture (crops), overgrazing and wood harvesting. Although these activities do not affect the lizards directly, they are likely to affect the availability of their insect prey. The future severity of these threats may depend upon human population growth rate at nearby communities. This lizard occurs on small isolated rock outcrops that in some cases may support fewer than 20 individuals (Korner et al. 2000). The size of subpopulations is likely to be a function of outcrop size and might also be affected by interspecific competition with P. minor (Korner et al. 2000). Small size of many subpopulations make them more susceptible to natural and anthropogenic environmental perturbations. Because of the small range of *P. monotropis*, and the vulnerability of its habitat of small rock outcrops, any future collection for commercial purposes could be greatly detrimental to the population.

Conservation measures: Conduct a PHVA and establish a BMP-S. As a first step to the latter, survey all potential habi-





Platysaurus monotropis, male—Makgabeng area, W of Senwabarwana (Bochum), LIMP M. Burger

tat consisting of Waterberg sandstone rock outcrops (the species will be easily visible if present). Assess this habitat in the context of the surrounding vegetation in which the species' insect prey lives. It is imperative to gain an understanding of how vegetation and insect availability interact and affect the presence and abundance of *P. monotropis*. Furthermore, if the terrain surrounding rocky outcrops is devoid of vegetation, this could impede dispersal. Given the small size of occupied outcrops, dispersal is likely to be an important factor regulating population growth. Future conservation measures should therefore address the question of whether vegetation restoration in the surrounding terrain is important for population maintenance and growth.

Platysaurus orientalis orientalis FitzSimons, 1941 SEKHUKHUNE FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The genus *Platysaurus* is being revised. An analysis of molecular data will help resolve the status of *P. orientalis fitzsimonsi* (S. Keogh, M. Whiting & D.G. Broadley in prep.).

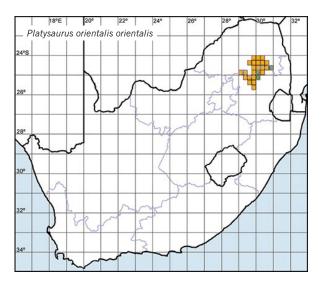
Distribution: Endemic to Mpumalanga and Limpopo provinces, South Africa, occurring along the eastern escarpment and associated mountain ranges, mainly in Sekhukhune district.

Habitat: Occupies rock outcrops typically composed of granites and quartzites (Jacobsen & Newbery 1989). Narrow vertical and horizontal crevices are important for refuge (Jacobsen 1989). Exposed bedrock with free-standing boulders is favoured. Occurs at altitudes of 700–1 700 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland.



Platysaurus orientalis orientalis, male—Abel Erasmus Pass, MPM M. Burger



Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: Monitor the extent and intensity of granite mining within its range. Provide protection against commercial exploitation for the pet trade. Conduct research into basic biology and population trends.



Platysaurus orientalis orientalis, female—Farm Kalkfontein, about 25 km SSE of Steelpoort, MPM M. Burger

Platysaurus orientalis fitzsimonsi Loveridge, 1944 FITZSIMONS' FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Near Threatened

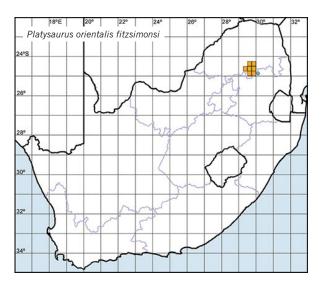
Endemic

Taxonomy: The genus *Platysaurus* is being revised. An analysis of molecular data will help resolve the status of this subspecies (S. Keogh *et al.* in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to the Sekhukhuneland region of Mpumalanga and Limpopo Provinces, South Africa. The most easterly locality (2430CC) is represented by a Virtual Museum record.

EOO: 2 315 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 1 327 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found on low-lying rocky ridges, particularly where there is exfoliating granite with free-standing boul-



ders. Narrow crevices are important for refuge. Occurs at elevations of 900-1500 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Vegetation type: SVcb 12 Central Sandy Bushveld; SVcb 27 Sekhukhune Plains Bushveld; SVcb 15 Springbok-vlakte Thornveld.

Assessment rationale: This subspecies has a restricted range (EOO <5 000 km² and AOO <2 000 km²) that is severely fragmented [B1a+2a] and it should therefore be considered Near Threatened. The reason for the fragmented distribution is not clear, but it may be partly the result of anthropogenic factors. There are no immediate threats, but mining could become a threat in the future.

Threats: Although most mines are situated further to the east, mining could become a threat in the future. Because of its limited distribution and dispersal capabilities, any habitat disturbance could have a major impact on this flat lizard.

Conservation measures: Assess distribution and abundance. Because of its localised distribution, *P. o. fitzsimonsi* would be best conserved by habitat protection; therefore, assess and manage the potential threat posed by mining. Conduct a BMP-S.

Platysaurus relictus Broadley, 1976 SOUTPANSBERG FLAT LIZARD

Martin J. Whiting

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the Soutpansberg Range in Limpopo Province, South Africa. Within the Soutpansberg, it is most common on northern slopes where there is less rainfall and more exposed rock without big tracts of forests (Jacobsen 1989).

Habitat: Occurs on north-facing rocky slopes and the crowns of ridges on the Soutpansberg, where it is dependent on narrow rock crevices for refuge. Rocky areas with extensive sheet rock and loose boulders are particularly favoured (Jacobsen 1988e, 1989).

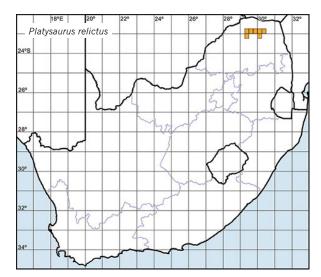
Vegetation type: SVmp 1 Musina Mopane Bushveld; SVcb 21 Soutpansberg Mountain Bushveld; SVI 8 Tzaneen Sour Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO = 2606 km^2 and AOO = 1976 km^2) but there is no evidence of severe range fragmentation or a decline in habitat extent or quality, and there are no immediate threats. However, there may be an indirect threat from agricultural activity, particularly in the southern part of the range where the use of insecticides may impact local populations. Food availability may be reduced due to insecticide use and secondary ingestion of toxins. In the past, populations were threatened by collection for the pet trade, but this was later ameliorated through protective legislation (Jacobsen 1988e).

Conservation measures: Monitor the quality of surrounding habitat as this may influence insect prey availability which could be critical for the survival of the species.



Platysaurus orientalis fitzsimonsi, male—about 3 km NE of Ga-Mahlanya, LIMP M. Burger





Platysaurus relictus, male—Watwaterpoort, NW of Louis Trichardt, LIMP J. Marais

CHAPTER 13

Family Gerrhosauridae

Michael F. Bates

The Gerrhosauridae is one of seven scincomorph families. Together with the Cordylidae, it forms part of the Cordyliformes clade (Lang 1991). There is, however, a history of disagreement amongst authors as to whether the Cordyliformes comprises a single family, the Cordylidae Gray, 1837 (e.g. Odierna *et al.* 2002—molecular and karyological data), two families, namely Cordylidae and Gerrhosauridae Fitzinger, 1843 (e.g. Loveridge 1942; FitzSimons 1943; Lang 1991—morphology), or one family with two subfamilies, namely Cordylinae and Gerrhosaurinae (e.g. Wermuth 1968—morphology). Since Lang (1991), most authors have accepted or confirmed the monophyly of Gerrhosauridae (e.g. molecular analyses of Frost *et al.* 2001 and Lamb *et al.* 2003).

There are 38 gerrhosaurid species in seven genera. The Gerrhosauridae consists of two subfamilies, the Gerrhosaurinae from mainland sub-Saharan Africa, and the Zonosaurinae from Madagascar (including the offshore islands of Comoros, Gloriosa and Cosmoledo). The Gerrhosaurinae consists of five genera, namely *Tetradactylus* (eight species), *Gerrhosaurus* (eight species), *Matobosaurus* (two species), *Broadleysaurus* (one species) and *Cordylosaurus* (one species), whereas the Zonosaurinae contains two genera, namely *Zonosaurus* (17 species) and *Trachyloptychus* (two species) (Branch 1998; Broadley 2007; Glaw & Vences 2007). Within the *Atlas* region there are 13 species in five genera.

The mtDNA analyses of Lamb et al. (2003) and Lamb & Bauer (2013) indicated that the stout-bodied G. major constituted a lineage distinct from other Gerrhosaurus, and showed that Cordylosaurus and Tetradactylus were embedded within Gerrhosaurus. This suggested that a new genus may be required for G. major and that Cordylosaurus may be referable to the genus Tetradactylus. However, the latter groupings were not strongly supported. Lamb et al. (2003) and Lamb & Bauer (2013) also showed that the monotypic genus Angolosaurus (A. skoogi) was embedded within Gerrhosaurus, to which it was transferred. Nance's (2007) study of cranial osteology questioned the latter proposal but failed to provide any substantial evidence to the contrary. A subsequent molecular phylogeny (Bates et al. 2013) with better sampling, recognised Cordylosaurus and Tetradactylus, and determined that Gerrhosaurus was paraphyletic, consisting of three genera, including the newly-named Broadleysaurus (for 'G. major') and Matobosaurus (for 'G. validus'). The only recently described gerrhosaurid from the African mainland is *Tetradactylus udzungwensis* (Salvidio *et al.* 2004), but for Madagascar five species of *Zonosaurus* have been described in the last 20 years. An analysis of morphological variation in *Tetradactylus* is underway (M.F. Bates in prep.).

Gerrhosaurids are diurnal, usually solitary and mainly terrestrial, although both species of Matobosaurus form loosely-structured colonies and are entirely rupicolous (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). Gerrhosaurus consists of medium to large robust-bodied lizards that often use burrows for shelter, whereas Cordylosaurus and Tetradactylus are both small, elongate lizards that shelter under stones or in tufts of grass (Branch 1998). Gerrhosaurus skoogi is a large species with a spade-like snout and is adapted to life in the dunes of the northern Namib Desert. Members of the genus Tetradactylus display varying degrees of limblessness, from T. seps with four well-developed but short limbs and pentadactyl feet, to T. fitzsimonsi with no forelimbs and spike-like hindlimbs. The most elongated and limbless forms are adapted to rapid serpentiform movement in low-growing grass, karoo and fynbos vegetation. Despite the morphological dissimilarity between the various forms, all gerrrhosaurids have a prominent granular lateral body fold.

Gerrhosaurids prey on a variety of insects such as grasshoppers, beetles and termites, but also take other arthropods such as scorpions, millipedes and snails, as well as fruits and flowers. Both *Broadleysaurus* and *Matobosaurus* occasionally eat smaller lizards (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998) and in the case of *M. validus*, even birds (G.J. Alexander pers. comm.). All species are considered oviparous, usually producing clutches of 1–9 eggs, although reproductive information for some species is lacking (Branch 1998). In some areas *Tetradactylus africanus* females display an interesting egg-laying/incubation strategy by using nests of the ant *Anochetus faurei* (Mason & Alexander 1996).

Most species in the *Atlas* region are widely distributed and fairly common, but in the genus *Tetradactylus* one species (*T. eastwoodae*) is now considered Extinct, while two (*T. breyeri*, *T. fitzsimonsi*) are classified as Vulnerable due to loss of habitat to afforestation and agricultural developments. *Tetradactylus breyeri* was previously classified as Rare (Branch 1988a) and Vulnerable (IUCN 1996). During the SARCA project *G. auritus* was recorded from the *Atlas* region for the first time—a Virtual Museum record—but because it is known locally only from this single locality, it was not assessed.

Genus Broadleysaurus Bates & Tolley, 2013—rough-scaled plated lizards

This recently-described genus (Bates *et al.* 2013) contains a single species, *Broadleysaurus major*. It has a very large range extending from the northeastern parts of the *Atlas* region through the eastern half of sub-Saharan Africa to southern Sudan, Somalia and Ethiopia, with scattered populations in Central and West Africa which were considered a subspecies (*Gerrhosaurus m.*

Broadleysaurus major (Duméril, 1851) ROUGH-SCALED PLATED LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

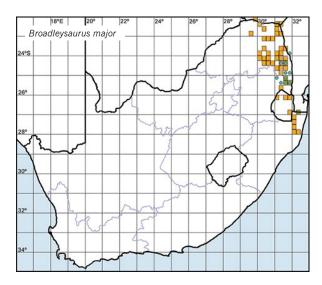
Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Broadley (1987a) reviewed geographical variation in *Broadleysaurus* (as *Gerrhosaurus*) *major* and recognised two subspecies, *G. m. major* (eastern and southeastern Africa) and *G. m. bottegoi* (western, central and northeastern Africa), distinguishable only on the basis of colour. *Gerrhosaurus m. bottegoi* is dark brown to black dorsally whereas *G. m. major* is buff to tawny, with variable amounts of black streaking in some areas. The darkstreaked *G. m. grandis*, to which southern African populations were referred in the past, is intermediate in colour pattern between *G. m. bottegoi* and *G. m. major* (Broadley 1987a). The molecular phylogeny of Bates *et al.* (2013) did not produce support for *G. m. bottegoi* as a separate taxon and they treated *B. major* as a monotypic species.

Distribution: Widely distributed in the eastern half of sub-Saharan Africa south of 6°N, from the southern parts of Sudan and Ethiopia southwards to the northeastern parts of the *Atlas* region, with scattered populations in Central and West Africa (Broadley 1987). Within the *Atlas* region it occurs in the eastern parts of Limpopo and Mpumalanga as well as northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, and in Swaziland.

Habitat: Terrestrial, usually solitary and often found in small, well-vegetated rock outcrops in savanna, sheltering in crevices, mammal burrows and disused termite

bottegoi) by Broadley (1987). These large and stocky lizards (up to 245 mm SVL) are mainly terrestrial but often found in rocky situations (Jacobsen 1989; see Bates *et al.* 2013). They prey on insects, millipedes, small lizards and also take flowers and fruits; females lay 2–6 eggs (Branch 1998). The species is not of conservation concern.



mounds (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). It has a wide habitat tolerance and may be found in chambers under rocks and near buildings (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Widespread in the *Atlas* region and occurs extensively elsewhere in Africa.

Conservation measures: Jacobsen (1989) noted that in Limpopo and Mpumalanga this subspecies is uncommon. He suggested that populations should be monitored, surveys undertaken, and ecological studies conducted.



Broadleysaurus major, adult-Greater Kuduland Safaris, LIMP M. Burger



Broadleysaurus major, juvenile—Cleveland NR, Phalaborwa, MPM M. Burger

Genus Cordylosaurus Gray, 1865 [1866]—dwarf plated lizards

This is a monotypic genus restricted to the arid western parts of southern Africa, from southwestern Angola through western Namibia and into the western parts of South Africa (Branch 1998). *Cordylosaurus subtesselatus* is a small, elongate lizard that is similar in appearance and closely related to *Tet*- *radactylus* (Lamb *et al.* 2003). It is oviparous (two eggs are laid in November), diurnal and terrestrial, and usually shelters under or between stones (Branch 1998). These lizards are widespread and occur in areas with limited threats, and are therefore not considered to be of conservation concern.

Cordylosaurus subtessellatus (A. Smith, 1844) DWARF PLATED LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

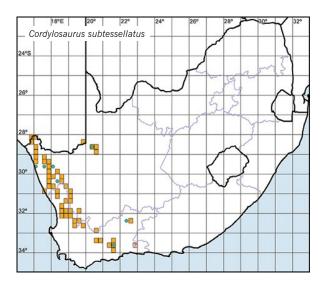
Taxonomy: Branch & Bauer (1995) noted considerable variation in most characters used by FitzSimons (1943) to separate the subspecies *C. trivittatus trivittatus* and *C. t. australis*, and supported Loveridge's (1942) contention that these taxa are referable to one variable species, namely *C. subtessellatus*. Most authors subsequent to FitzSimons (1943) have followed Loveridge's (1942) taxonomy (e.g. Branch 1988b, 1998).

Distribution: Occurs in the arid western parts of southern Africa, from southwestern Angola through western Namibia (excluding true deserts) to the Northern and Western Cape provinces of South Africa (Visser 1984g; Branch 1998; O'Connor et al. 2006), as far south as the Clanwilliam area and then slightly inland (excluding most of the fynbos region), with outlier records at Karoo National Park (3222BC) and possibly Mannetjiesberg (3322DB, questionable sight record). The *Atlas* map contains almost three times more occupied QDGCs than Visser's (1984g) map.

Habitat: Found among succulent and other karroid vegetation on small rocky outcrops in arid areas (Branch 1998). Shelters under stones in sandy areas but has also been found in a hole at the base of a Mopane tree, *Colopho*-



Cordylosaurus subtessellatus-N of Swakopmund, Namibia G.J. Alexander



spermum mopane (Loveridge 1942; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). In the Little Karoo this species was collected on a north-facing mudstone ridge with karroid-fynbos transitional veld (Branch & Bauer 1995). Occurs from near sea level to about 1 200 m in Karoo National Park near Beaufort West (Branch & Braack 1989).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and fairly common; no known threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Cordylosaurus subtessellatus-Springbok, NC

J. Marais

Genus Gerrhosaurus Wiegmann, 1828—plated lizards

Following the transfer of *Gerrhosaurus major* to *Broadley-saurus*, and *G. validus* to *Matobosaurus*, and the resurrection of *G. intermedius*, there are now eight species in the genus *Gerrhosaurus* (*G. auritus*, *G. bulsi*, *G. flavigula-ris*, *G. intermedius*, *G. multilineatus*, *G. nigrolineatus*, *G. skoogi* and *G. typus*) (Broadley & Cotterill 2004; Broadley 2007; Bates *et al.* 2013). These lizards occur in central, eastern and southern Africa. Four species occur in the *Atlas* region and one, *G. typicus*, is endemic to South Africa.

Gerrhosaurus auritus Boettger, 1887 KALAHARI PLATED LIZARD; GOLDEN PLATED LIZARD

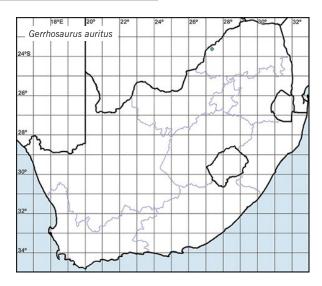
Michael F. Bates

Not Applicable

Taxonomy: First described as *Gerrhosaurus auritus*, this taxon was treated as a subspecies of *G. nigrolineatus* by Loveridge (1942) but retained as a full species by Fitz-Simons (1943) and Mertens (1971). Broadley (1971c) was the first author to treat *auritus* as a subspecies of *G. multilineatus* (by default, using trinomials for *G. m. multilineatus* and referring southern material to *auritus*). This arrangement was subsequently followed by Broadley & Blake (1979), Auerbach (1987) and Branch (1988b, 1998). The taxon was revived as a valid species by Griffin (2003) and has been treated as such by most subsequent authors (e.g. Broadley & Cotterill 2004; Adolphs 2006; Broadley 2007; Bates *et al.* 2013).

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. It occurs in the northern half of Namibia and most of Botswana, extending into the adjacent Hwange region of western Zimbabwe (Branch 1998). The SARCA Virtual Museum record (see photo) from Ellisras district in Limpopo represents the first record of this species in the *Atlas* region. This adult specimen (snout-to-vent lenght = 147 mm) was collected in 2008 by a team led by Andrew Cauldwell. The nearest recorded localities are in Botswana (Auerbach 1987), about 200 km to the west-south-west of the South African record.

Plated lizards are robust, medium-sized (occasionally over 200 mm SVL), diurnal, terrestrial and usually solitary. Females lay 4–12 eggs in a clutch (Branch 1998). All species are widely distributed and none are of conservation concern. *Gerrhosaurus typicus* was previously assessed as Rare in the South African Red Data Book (McLachlan 1988a) and Near Threatened by the IUCN (1996), but the species is now known to have a wide range in an area with limited threats.

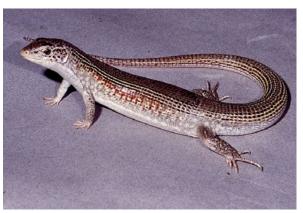


Habitat: Found in holes that it digs around the roots of shrubs in bushveld and Kalahari sandveld (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Not assessed as it is known from only one record in the *Atlas* region.

Conservation measures: Conduct a detailed survey in the vicinity of the single known local record to establish the extent of this species' range in the *Atlas* region.



Gerrhosaurus auritus—near Kome Pan, Botswana

W.D. Haacke



Gerrhosaurus auritus—Farm Groenfontein, 44 km WNW of Lephalale, LIMP Natural Scientific Services

Gerrhosaurus flavigularis Wiegmann, 1828 YELLOW-THROATED PLATED LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A molecular study confirmed that *Gerrhosaurus flavigularis* is the sister group to the *G. nigrolineatus* species complex (see *G. intermedius* account below) and sub-structuring of its populations indicated that further investigations are required (Bates *et al.* 2013).

Distribution: Endemic to sub-Saharan Africa. Occurs in coastal areas in the Western and Eastern Cape, northwards through the eastern parts of southern Africa to Ethiopia and Sudan, with an isolated relict population near Gobabis in Namibia (Branch 1998; Uetz 2012). Populations in the Western and Eastern Cape appear to be isolated from one another and from the main population further north. This species is very widespread and commonly reported in the northeastern parts of the *Atlas* region. Visser's (1984g) records at 2823AC (question mark on map) and 3124AB (not plotted) in the Northern Cape are slightly out of the species' normal range and therefore require confirmation.

Habitat: Found in a variety of grassland, savanna and fynbos habitats as well as in low, open coastal forest, sheltering in burrows dug at the base of bushes and under rocks (Branch 1998). In the Free State Province it is found on rocky and grassy hillsides where it uses burrows situated under rocks (De Waal 1978). Individuals from the northern parts of South Africa have been recorded from both rocky hillsides and sandy flats, where they shelter in burrows in the soil and sometimes under rocks, and forage between grass tussocks and in leaf litter at the base of bushes (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Fynbos; Albany Thicket.

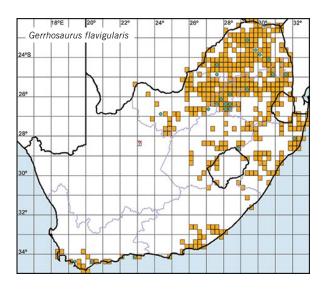
Gerrhosaurus intermedius Lönnberg, 1907 EASTERN BLACK-LINED PLATED LIZARD;

BLACK-LINED PLATED LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A molecular phylogeny indicated that Gerrhosaurus nigrolineatus was restricted to Gabon and the lower Congo region in west-Central Africa, while most other populations currently identified under this name were referable to G. intermedius. Gerrhosaurus intermedius and G. flavigularis occur in close proximity and have been confused in the past because the two species are often similar in colour pattern. However, they differ with regard to size (G. intermedius grows to 183 mm SVL versus 142 mm SVL in G. flavigularis) and scalation (e.g. in G. intermedius scales under the feet are keeled and spinose and there are usually four supraciliaries; in G. flavigularis scales under feet are smooth and tubercular and there are usually five supraciliaries) (FitzSimons 1935a; Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). Gerrhosaurus interme*dius* is also a more robust species with a relatively larger

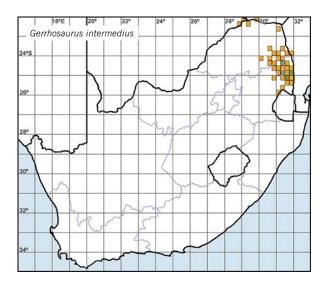




Gerrhosaurus flavigularis—Suikerbosrand NR, GP

W.R. Schmidt

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, occupying a variety of habitats (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). **Conservation measures:** None recommended.



head. Nevertheless, Jacobsen (1989) noted that morphologically *flavigularis*-like specimens with *intermedius*-like colour patterns and blue throats occur in the northeast of Limpopo and southwest of North-West Province, and require further investigation. A morphology-based revision of the *G. nigrolineatus* species complex (*G. nigrolineatus*, *G. intermedius*, *G. auritus*, *G. bulsi* and *G. multilineatus*) is in progress (D.G. Broadley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to the eastern half of sub-Saharan Africa as far north as Kenya (Loveridge 1942; Spawls *et al.* 2002; Bates *et al.* 2013). In the *Atlas* region it is restricted to northern and eastern Limpopo and northeastern Mpumalanga, South Africa. While *G. nigrolineatus* appears to be restricted to Gabon and the lower Congo region (Bates *et al.* 2013), the status of *G. intermedius*-like populations elsewhere in central and southern Africa remains uncertain and is under investigation (D.G. Broadley & M.F. Bates in prep.).

Habitat: In the *Atlas* region it is restricted to low elevations (300–700 m) in the Savanna Biome (Jacobsen 1989). Found in open bushveld where it forages among grass, under bushes and in leaf litter at the base of trees, taking refuge in rodent and mongoose burrows and old termitaria (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). Elsewhere in Africa it is found in savanna, coastal bush and grassland at altitudes ranging from sea level to about 1 600 m (Loveridge 1942; Spawls *et al.* 2002).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Reportedly uncommon and sparsely distributed in the Atlas region (Jacobsen 1989), but this

Gerrhosaurus typicus (A. Smith, 1837) KAROO PLATED LIZARD; NAMAQUA PLATED LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the Northern, Western and Eastern Cape provinces of South Africa. Found along the West Coast from the Richtersveld in the north to the southern Cape coast at De Hoop Nature Reserve near Bredasdorp (a Virtual Museum record), east to Kammanassieberg and along the inland escarpment to Karoo National Park at Beaufort West, Karoo Nature Reserve at Graaff Reinet, and near Glenmore (3326BB) between Port Elizabeth and East London. It may also occur in southern Namibia (Griffin 2003). When it was assessed by McLachlan (1988a) this species was known from only 12 QDGCs: six in Namaqualand, three in the southwestern Cape, and three in the central Nama-Karoo.

Habitat: Found in the Succulent and Nama-Karoo Biomes and the renosterveld part of the Fynbos Biome, occupying small burrows dug in the sand at the base of bushes (Loveridge 1942; Branch 1998). Recorded specifically from dry sandy areas, bare rocky hillsides and Acacia scrub in False Karroid Broken Veld (McLachlan 1988a). In the Little Karoo it is found on stony ground in succulent mountain scrub and in sandy areas in mountain renosterveld vegetation (Branch & Bauer 1995). Occurs mainly below the escarpment, from near sea level to about 900 m, with one record (Dunedin, 3122CD) as high as 1 497 m.

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Nama-Karoo; Albany Thicket.

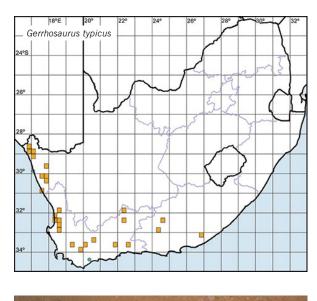
Assessment rationale: Widespread and probably more common than literature and maps suggest, owing to its



Gerrhosaurus intermedius—9 km S of Skukuza, Kruger NP, MPM W.R. Schmidt

may be at least partly because it is shy and fast-moving and therefore not easily observed or collected (FitzSimons 1935a; Spawls *et al.* 2002). Fairly widespread and not known to be threatened. Jacobsen (1989) commented that in Limpopo and Mpumalanga its conservation status is secure because it occurs in areas used for ranching, where habitat destruction is minimal.

Conservation measures: Determine population numbers and habitat status.





Gerrhosaurus typicus—Worcester Valley, WC

shy nature and habit of retreating rapidly to its burrow when approached, and the fact that much of the karroid region has been poorly sampled (Loveridge 1942; McLachlan 1988a; Branch & Bauer 1995).

Conservation measures: None recommended.

A.L. de Villiers

Genus Matobosaurus Bates & Tolley, 2013—giant plated lizards

This recently-described genus contains two species (Bates *et al.* 2013). *Matobosaurus validus* occurs from the northeastern parts of the *Atlas* region northwards through eastern Botswana, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique, while *M. maltzahni* is found only in northern Namibia and southern Angola (Branch 1998). These large and robust

Matobosaurus validus (A. Smith, 1849) COMMON GIANT PLATED LIZARD; GIANT PLATED LIZARD

Michael F. Bates

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Bates *et al.* (2013) showed that '*Gerrhosaurus validus validus*' (southeastern Africa) and '*G. v. maltzahni*' (southern Angola and northern Namibia) were genetically well defined and represented valid species. These two taxa are geographically isolated and differ with regard to several scale characters (FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998).

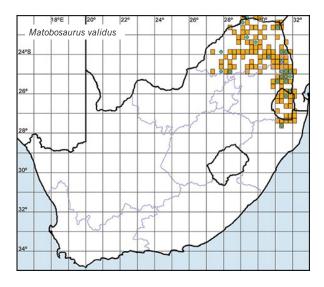
Distribution: Endemic to southeastern Africa. Distributed from Zambia and Malawi southwards to Zimbabwe and adjacent parts of Botswana and Mozambique, South Africa and Swaziland (Branch 1998). It occurs in the South African provinces of Limpopo, Mpumalanga (northern and eastern) and KwaZulu-Natal (northern), with a single record (2427CD) in extreme northern North-West Province. Jacobsen (1989) also recorded this lizard at 2626BD in North-West Province, but he noted that this outlier record was probably the result of a translocation, and it is therefore not plotted on the map nor considered in the current evaluation.

Habitat: Found in the Savanna and Grassland biomes, almost exclusively in bushveld areas. In the *Atlas* region it occurs at altitudes of 300–1 400 m (Jacobsen 1989). Lives communally in rocky outcrops, especially on the upper slopes of large granite hills, but may forage far from



Matobosaurus validus, adult—Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger

lizards (up to 285 mm SVL) are rupicolous and may form small colonies, often on wooded granite koppies (Branch 1998; see Bates *et al.* 2013). They prey on invertebrates and vegetable matter, and occasionally even eat small vertebrates; females lay 2–5 eggs (Branch 1998). Neither species is considered to be of conservation concern.



crevices (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). It may enlarge its retreat if this is situated on soil under rocks (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Mopane; Mesic Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and generally common (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). However, Jacobsen (1989) noted that some populations, like the one at Nylsvley Nature Reserve in Limpopo Province, are very small.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Matobosaurus validus, juvenile—Manyiseni region, Lebombo Mtns, KZN M. Burger

Genus Tetradactylus Merrem, 1820—plated snake lizards

The eight species of *Tetradactylus* are restricted to the southern half of Africa (Uetz 2012, but including *T. fitz-simonsi*). All except *T. ellenbergeri* (Angola, Zambia and Tanzania) and *T. udzungwensis* (Tanzania) are endemic to the southern and eastern parts of the *Atlas* region. A taxonomic review of the genus is in progress (M.F. Bates in prep.). The elongated body, long tail and minute limbs (forelimbs absent in *T. fitzsimonsi*) allow for rapid movement in long grass; the minute limbs may provide support when at rest (Branch 1998). These serpentiform lizards are diurnal and terrestrial. Females lay small clutches of 1–5 eggs (Branch 1998). *Tetradactylus eastwoodae* is

Tetradactylus africanus (Gray, 1838) EASTERN LONG-TAILED SEPS

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species reverts to binomials because *Tet-radactylus fitzsimonsi*, generally considered a subspecies of *T. africanus* (e.g. FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998), is here treated as a valid species (see discussion under *T. fitzsimonsi*).

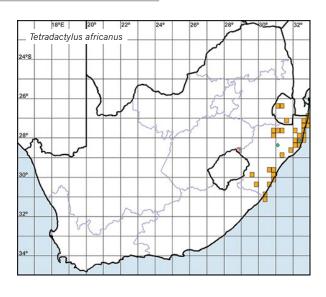
Distribution: Endemic to Swaziland and KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Occurs at several localities along the KwaZulu-Natal coast, but with a concentration of sites in the northern part of the province, including Maputaland (Bourguin 2004). The southernmost record in KwaZulu-Natal is in the Port Edward area (3130AB; Bourguin 2004), but a National Museum specimen (NMB R209, identity verified; see also FitzSimons 1943) from 'Pondoland Coast' (too vague to plot on map) extends the species' range into the Eastern Cape. Only a single additional record (2631AD) for Swaziland has been obtained since Boycott's (1992a) study. The identity of a specimen supposedly from Witsieshoek (2828DB) in the eastern Free State, collected prior to 1915, was confirmed by Bates (1992), but no additional specimens of this species have since been collected anywhere nearby (e.g. De Waal 1978; Bourguin 2004) and this record is therefore viewed with suspicion. The species may also occur in southern Mozambique.

Habitat: Occurs in open and wooded grasslands (Bourquin 2004). In Maputaland it is found in dry, sandy grasslands near the coast and on the edges of forests and plantations (Bruton & Haacke 1980). At Vernon Crookes Nature Reserve near Scottburgh, in pure grassland, it exclusively utilises mounds of the ant *Anochetus faurei* as oviposition sites (Mason & Alexander 1996).

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Lowveld; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread, and common in at least some areas such as Maputaland (see Bruton & Haacke 1980).

known from only one locality and has been considered as probably extinct since at least 1988 (Jacobsen 1988f; IUCN 1996), mainly as a result of afforestation that destroyed its grassland habitat. Its status as Extinct is now confirmed. *Tetradactylus breyeri* and *T. fitzsimonsi* have restricted ranges and are considered Vulnerable as a result of habitat loss to afforestation and agricultural developments. *Tetradactylus breyeri* was classified as Rare in the South African Red Data Book (Jacobsen 1988g) and Vulnerable by the IUCN (1996), but *T. fitzsimonsi* was not previously assessed on its own, as it was considered to be a subspecies of the wide-ranging *T. africanus*.





Tetradactylus africanus—Mtunzini, KZN

J. Marais

Conservation measures: Limit the frequency of fires in areas where this species occurs. Bruton & Haacke (1980) noted that *T. africanus* represented 16% of all reptiles (second most common after *Chamaesaura macrolepis*) found during the burning of dry grassland in Maputaland. In addition, parts of the range of this species are under cultivation (e.g. sugarcane and crops) or used for wood plantations (Rouget *et al.* 2006), so population monitoring may become necessary in the future.

Tetradactylus breyeri Roux, 1907 BREYER'S LONG-TAILED SEPS

Michael F. Bates

Global: Vulnerable A2c

Endemic

Taxonomy: A specimen collected in the Free State was considered by De Waal (1978) to be representative of a new subspecies. Bates (1996c) examined all available museum material of this species, including additional specimens from the Free State, and concluded that *T. breyeri* is a monotypic species.

Distribution: Endemic to the South African provinces of KwaZulu-Natal, Free State and Mpumalanga. The new Blyde River Canyon locality (2430DB) represents the northernmost extension of the range. This species is known from only 16 museum specimens (see Bates 1996c), one sight record at 2529DA (Jacobsen 1989) and two Virtual Museum records (2430DD, 2829BA).

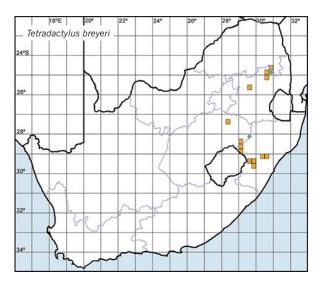
EOO: 101 250 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 5 136 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found in montane and Highveld grasslands of the Grassland Biome at altitudes of 1 400–2 000 m (Bates 1996c). May take shelter on soil under stones or in moribund termitaria (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Drakensberg Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Inferred population reduction of over 30% in the last 18 years (three generations) due to transformation of grasslands where the causes of reduction may not have ceased, based on a decline in AOO, EOO and habitat quality [A2c]; these declines are considered likely to continue into the future. Large parts of this species' habitat have been transformed for crop farming, heavy grazing of remaining areas has further reduced available sheltering sites, and further habitat destruction occurs when farmers frequently burn grasslands to produce green forage for livestock (Jacobsen 1988g). Farming practices have almost certainly fragmented the range of this species, preventing genetic exchange between populations. This is clearly evident when examining Google Earth images which indicate extensive transformation of grassland habitat for crop farming in many areas, e.g. the northeastern Free State.

Threats: Threatened by transformation of land for crops (especially in the case of the northeastern Free State population) and timber plantations (especially the central KwaZulu-Natal and northern Mpumalanga populations) (see Rouget *et al.* 2006), overgrazing by livestock causing depletion of sheltering sites and insect prey, infrastructure





Tetradactylus breyeri-Mt Sheba, MPM

W.D. Haacke

development in some areas, frequent fires, and the use of pesticides. Jacobsen (1988g, 1989) also noted the negative effects of cultivation, heavy grazing, regular anthropogenic fires and afforestation.

Conservation measures: Draft a BMP-S. Communicate with farmers and other locals and educate them about this species. Warn against the burning of grasslands, and encourage and monitor controlled fire management. Investigate population numbers and exact ranges, biology and ecology, status of available habitat, and threats. Monitor population trends, paying special attention to the extent of mortalities as a result of fires. Identify and establish more protected areas. Conduct further surveys that specifically aim to locate this species. Encourage farmers to provide corridors of suitable natural grassland between croplands and dissuade them from overgrazing cattle and small live-stock.

Tetradactylus eastwoodae Hewitt & Methuen, 1913 EASTWOOD'S LONG-TAILED SEPS

Michael F. Bates & Niels H.G. Jacobsen

Global: Extinct

Endemic

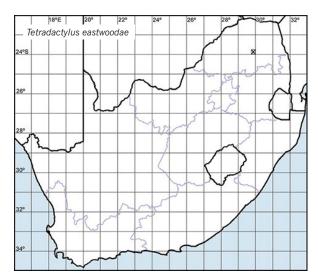
Taxonomy: This distinctive species has three digits per forelimb and two per hindlimb. It is known from only two specimens - the holotype collected by Mrs E.A. Eastwood in November 1911 and another specimen collected by Vincent A. Wager in December 1928. Both specimens were catalogued as being from 'Woodbush' and are in the collection of the Ditsong National Museum of Natural History (formerly Transvaal Museum), Pretoria.

Distribution: Endemic to the Woodbush-Haenertsburg area in Limpopo Province, South Africa. The type locality is "the Woodbush (Zoutpansberg District)" (Hewitt & Methuen 1913), but much of the Woodbush area is now under exotic (especially pine) plantations (Jacobsen 1988f, 1989). However, according to the book Between Woodbush and Wolkberg: The Googoo Thompson's Story (Wongtschowski 1990) the collector, Miss Eastwood (later Thompson), recalls collecting the holotype on the farm Clear Waters (the family's name for the farm Broedersdrift 958LS), which is situated a few kilometers southwest of Woodbush (indigenous) Forest. The term 'Woodbush' may have been used in a broad sense to mean the area in the vicinity of Woodbush Forest, but we here restrict the type locality of T. eastwoodae to the farm Broedersdrift 958, Pietersburg district (23°52'30"S, 29°57'E).

Habitat: Presumed to have occurred in open montane grassland. Photographs in the book by Wongtschowski (1990) illustrate that at the time the holotype was collected, the area consisted of open grassland. If the species still exists it would be most likely to occur in grassland remnants in the Woodbush, Haenertsburg and Wolkberg areas of the Grassland Biome, in one or more of the following vegetation types: Woodbush Granite Grassland (Gm 25), Northern Escarpment Quartzite Sourveld (Gm 23) and Wolkberg Dolomite Grassland (Gm 26) (Mucina *et al.* 2006). The area of the type locality was planted over with exotic plantations in about 1950.

Vegetation type: Gm 25 Woodbush Granite Grassland.

Assessment rationale: In the 1980s NHGJ and a team of collectors conducted several unsuccessful searches for T. eastwoodae using drift fences, pitfall and funnel traps, as well as active searching. The latter surveys were conducted in the last remaining patches of open grassland in the Haenertsburg-Woodbush area and on the Wolkberg Range, as identified from the 1: 50 000 topographic map of the area (see also Jacobsen 1988f, 1989), e.g. in a small, now-degraded area close to a stream between Woodbush Forest and Haenertsburg (this may have been where Wager collected a specimen), as well as an open area of grassland and fynbos-like vegetation adjacent to a forest that had not been burnt for about 20 years. Subsequently, in April 2008, a 10-day SARCA survey was conducted in grasslands in the Woodbush-Haenertsburg area employing both active searching and drift fence trapping,





Tetradactylus eastwoodae—near Woodbush, LIMP (holotype, TM 1496) V. Egan

in a concerted but also unsuccessful attempt to re-discover this species (De Villiers & Burger 2008; M. Burger pers. comm.). Also, no known captive specimens have ever been reported or are suspected to exist, so Eastwood's Long-tailed Seps should now be considered Extinct.

Threats: The habitat of this species has been largely destroyed by afforestation (pines and bluegums). Woodbush Granite Grassland is a Critically Endangered vegetation type that is negatively affected by bush encroachment, worsened due to the exclusion of fires (Mucina *et al.* 2006). However, frequent and severe fires are also threats should any populations still survive. Jacobsen (1989) noted the destruction caused by the annual burning of remnant grasslands for firebreaks between plantations at Woodbush and Haenertsburg. Cultivation and urban development have played a minor role in land transformation in this vegetation type (Mucina *et al.* 2006).

Conservation measures: Conservation measures can only be instigated if a surviving population of this species is discovered. Thus, conduct more surveys in patches of surviving grassland in the Woodbush, Haenertsburg and Wolkberg areas (see Dzerefos 2004; Mucina *et al.* 2006) using drift fences with pitfall and funnel traps. Protect these grasslands as it is possible that one or more small populations of *T. eastwoodae* may still survive. Mucina *et al.* (2006) noted that there are no conservation areas protecting any part of the Woodbush Granite Grassland.

Tetradactylus fitzsimonsi Hewitt, 1915 FITZSIMONS' LONG-TAILED SEPS

Michael F. Bates

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(ii,iii)+2ab(ii,iii)

Endemic

Taxonomy: Loveridge (1942) considered *Tetradactylus fitzsimonsi* to be a valid species, with *T. boulengeri* as a subspecies. However, *T. f. boulengeri* and *T. f. simplex* were treated as junior synonyms of *T. ellenbergeri* by Broadley (1971c). FitzSimons (1943) treated *T. fitzsimonsi* as a subspecies of *T. africanus* and this arrangement was followed by most subsequent workers (e.g. Branch 1988b, 1990b), although Branch (1998) noted that it should probably be treated as a separate species. *Tetradactylus fitzsimonsi* differs from *T. africanus* in that it lacks forelimbs, and the two taxa are geographically separated by over 500 km. They are consequently treated here as separate species.

Distribution: Endemic to the Eastern and Western Cape provinces, South Africa. Recorded from only three areas, i.e. Port Elizabeth (3325CD & DC, 3425BA) and near Humansdorp (3324DC) in the Eastern Cape, and George (3322CD) in the Western Cape.

EOO: 12 150 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 1 186 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Unknown (see Branch 1990b) but may be similar to that of *T. africanus*.

Bioregion: Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: EOO <20 000 km² [B1], AOO <2 000 km² [B2], severely fragmented [B1a+2a], and a continuing decline in AOO [b(ii)] and area, extent and quality of habitat [b(iii)]. The most recent specimen from the Port Elizabeth area was collected in 1991, the two Humansdorp (3324DC) specimens were collected in 1999 and the three George (3322CD) specimens were found in 1931.

Threats: Threats include transformation of land for crop farming and wood plantations, infrastructure development (industry, urbanisation, tourism, roads), invasive alien plants, fires and agricultural pollution. These threats are

Tetradactylus seps (Linnaeus, 1758) SHORT-LEGGED SEPS

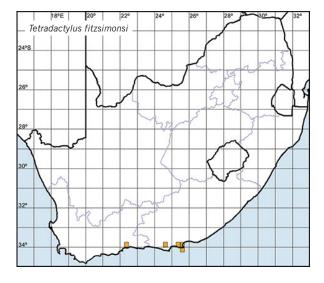
Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Branch (1990b) showed that *Tetradactylus laevicauda* (described from the KwaZulu-Natal Drakensberg), treated as a subspecies of *T. seps* by FitzSimons (1943), is a junior synonym of the latter. However, the KwaZulu-Natal and Cape populations are geographically well separated and a molecular analysis would be helpful to determine whether *T. laevicauda* (KwaZulu-Natal) is in fact a valid species. A morphology-based taxonomic review of the genus is in progress (M.F. Bates in prep.).

Distribution: Widespread and endemic to South Africa, where it occurs in two allopatric populations. One popula-

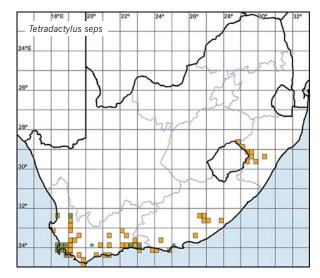




Tetradactylus fitzsimonsi—Lorraine, Port Elizabeth, EC W.R. Branch

particularly severe in and around Port Elizabeth, a highly developed area. Threats are exacerbated because of the species' restricted range.

Conservation measures: Ensure that conservation organisations and legislating bodies treat *T. fitzsimonsi* as Vulnerable and afford it the necessary protection. Develop a BMP-S. Determine population numbers and range, and monitor populations. Study the biology and ecology of the species, and determine habitat status and threats. Identify potential protected areas for all three populations and establish these where possible.



tion is in the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, where the species occurs mainly in the Fynbos and Grassland biomes, but with at least one record each in the Forest (Tsitsikamma, see Branch 1990b) and Nama-Karoo (3322AA) biomes. The other population is centred in the montane grasslands of the Drakensberg in KwaZulu-Natal.

Habitat: Often found in moist situations: marshy seepage zones with scattered stones and rotting logs in montane grassland (Katberg); valley bottoms with restioid mountain fynbos, often beside streams (Kammanassieberg and Cederberg); and open clearings in moist, cool, coastal forest (Tsitsikamma Coastal National Park) (Branch 1990b). Also observed in dense coastal fynbos at Llandudno (Cape Town) and in dense mountain fynbos near the top of Seweweekspoort Mountain near Ladismith (M.F. Bates pers. obs.). According to FitzSimons (1943) it is also found on grassy flats and the lower slopes of mountains, where it lives in piles of dead wood and leaves or under logs; it is common along roadsides and paths in

coastal montane forests, where it moves about in open sunlit patches (FitzSimons 1943). In the Cape provinces it is found at elevations of about 20 m (Llandudno) to 1 400 m (Branch 1990b), but in KwaZulu-Natal it occurs at higher elevations of 1 520–1 800 m (Bourquin 2004).

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Albany Thicket (marginal); Nama-Karoo; Forests (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and seemingly abundant in places.

Conservation measures: Protect habitat within the range of the species. Although *T. seps* is apparently common in the Western Cape, the large-scale destruction of fynbos habitat in this region is of concern (see Le Roux 2002; Jonas *et al.* 2006; Rouget *et al.* 2006) and population monitoring may become necessary. This species is under less pressure in the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. However, if the putative subspecies *T. s. laevicauda* in KwaZulu-Natal proves to be a valid taxon, it will require a separate assessment.



Tetradactylus seps—Algeria, Cederberg, WC

P. le F.N. Mouton



Tetradactylus seps—Elandsberg, EC

W.R. Branch

Tetradactylus tetradactylus (Daudin, 1802) CAPE LONG-TAILED SEPS

Michael F. Bates

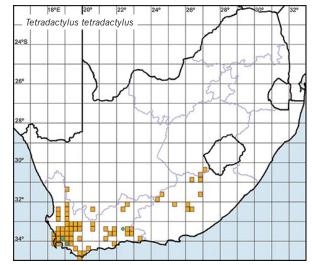
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Although Loveridge (1942) and FitzSimons (1943) treated *Tetradactylus bilineatus* as a subspecies



Tetradactylus tetradactylus—Gondwana GR, E of Herbertsdale, WC M. Burger



of *T. tetradactylus*, Branch (1990b) showed that it is a junior synonym of the latter.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, from the Western Cape eastwards to the northern part of the Eastern Cape and southeastern Free State. There are also two records in the Northern Cape, at Swaarweersberg (3220BC) near Sutherland, and near Nieuwoudtville (3119AC; Bates 2011) north of the Cederberg. This species may also occur

in the low-lying grasslands of southwestern Lesotho, in areas adjacent to the Free State (see Bates 1996a), although there is virtually no natural habitat left in that part of Lesotho (Jonas *et al.* 2006; Rouget *et al.* 2006). Since the last evaluation of its distribution by Branch (1990b), it has been found at several additional localities, mainly in the Western Cape, including records as far south as Renosterkop at Agulhas (3419DD). It is now evident that *T. tetradactylus* is widely distributed and that many of the gaps between localities are probably artefacts of collecting.

Habitat: Found mainly in fynbos, montane grassland and scrub vegetation on mountain plateaus, e.g. montane *Merxmuellera* grassland with scattered rocks (Karoo National Park, Mountain Zebra National park, Sneeuberg,

Winterberg) and sparse restioid mountain fynbos (Cederberg, Matroosberg, Kammanassieberg) (Branch 1990b). The northeasterly populations occur in dense grassland.

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread.

Conservation measures: Protect habitat within the range of the species. Although *T. tetradactylus* is apparently common in the Western Cape, the large-scale destruction of fynbos habitat in this region is of concern (see Le Roux 2002; Jonas *et al.* 2006; Rouget *et al.* 2006) and population monitoring may become necessary. In the Eastern Cape and southeastern Free State, part of the range falls in crop-growing areas.

CHAPTER 14

Family Scincidae

Aaron M. Bauer, Johan Marais, Gavin Masterson & James Harvey

The Scincidae is the most species-rich lizard family in the world and comprises approximately 1 560 species in 124 genera (Uetz 2012). It has traditionally been divided into four subfamilies (Greer 1970) but recent research suggests that these do not adequately reflect evolutionary lineages (Whiting et al. 2003; Brandley et al. 2005). Skinks are nearly global in their distribution, occurring from southern Europe, Central Asia and Japan south throughout all of Africa, tropical Asia, Australia, New Zealand and the islands of the Pacific, and from southern Canada to central Argentina and the West Indies. In Africa, skinks are particularly diverse and species-rich in the Atlas region and adjacent countries (FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998), but there are other centres of diversity in the forests and savannas of East and West Africa (Spawls et al. 2002; Chirio & LeBreton 2007). Two skink genera in the Atlas region have been affected by taxonomic re-arrangement, with Mochlus (including Lygosoma) replacing African Riopa (Wagner et al. 2009), and Afroablepharus applicable for some 'Panaspis', including the two species discussed below (Schmitz et al. 2005a; Jesus et al. 2007).

Within the *Atlas* region there are 59 recognised species of scincids (two with two subspecies each) in seven genera, representing three major lineages—acontines, scincines and lygosomines. Limb reduction and body attenuation has occurred many times within skinks (Greer 1991; Whiting *et al.* 2003; Wiens *et al.* 2006) and limbless and limb-reduced forms make up a large proportion of the regional scincid fauna. Several new species have been described recently, chiefly among the fossorial forms, and ongoing phylogenetic analyses have resulted in a series of changes in generic allocation of the acontines (Daniels *et al.* 2006; Lamb *et al.* 2010).

Skinks occur throughout the *At/as* region but diversity is greatest in areas of sandy soils, which provide appropriate substrates for many of the burrowing acontines

(Acontias and Typhlosaurus) and scincines (Scelotes). The fully-limbed Trachylepis occurs in almost all terrestrial habitat types and some species are rupicolous or arboreal. Skinks are absent only from very high elevations in montane regions. In the Atlas region, surface-active skinks are diurnal and most are heliothermic, but burrowing forms may be diurnal or nocturnal. Skinks feed almost exclusively on arthropods (Huey et al. 1974) but large species occasionally eat other lizards. Snails, slugs and other invertebrates are also included in the diet of some species. Termites are especially common prey for burrowing forms (Huey & Pianka 1977b; Pianka 1986). Both oviparous (e.g. Mochlus, Afroablepharus) and viviparous (most genera and species) reproductive modes occur in skinks in the Atlas region, with both modes reported to occur in Trachylepis capensis (Brown-Wessels 1989; Flemming 1994). A number of species are colonial and exhibit sexual dichromatism (Branch 1998). Most skinks, including all species in the Atlas region, have osteoderms imbedded in their skin and are covered by smooth or keeled overlapping scales.

The majority of terrestrial skinks have broad ranges and many are habitat generalists and/or occur in areas that are not subject to major anthropogenic or natural threats. As a consequence, most are classified as Least Concern. However, a number of fossorial skinks (Acontias, Scelotes) have quite limited distributions and several of these are here considered threatened, chiefly by mining activities and urbanisation. Scelotes guentheri is confirmed as being Extinct, S. inornatus is considered Critically Endangered, three taxa (Acontias poecilus, A. rieppeli, Cryptoblepharus africanus) are treated as Endangered, one (S. bourquini) as Vulnerable, and six (A. richardi, Typhlosaurus Iomiae, S. gronovii, S. kasneri, S. limpopoensis albiventris, S. montispectus) as Near Threatened. Acontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus is considered Data Deficient on the basis of insufficient information.

SUBFAMILY ACONTINAE

This is a well supported group of legless, burrowing skinks characterised by a divided frontal bone in the skull. Acontinae is the sister group to all other skinks (Whiting *et al.* 2003). Only 28 species in two genera, *Acontias* and *Typhlosaurus*,

are now recognised, the latter with greatly reduced content (Lamb *et al.* 2010). The subfamily is mainly restricted to southern Africa, with one species (*Acontias jappi*) in Zambia and another (*A. percivali*) isolated in Kenya and Tanzania.

Genus Acontias Cuvier, 1816 [1817]-legless skinks

A molecular analysis of the genus Acontias resulted in the transfer of the smaller species to a new genus, Microacontias (Daniels et al. 2006). However, a subsequent study including all Typhlosaurus species (Lamb et al. 2010) revealed that Acontias, as it was formerly construed (e.g. Broadley 1968a; Branch 1998), was rendered paraphyletic by Microacontias, Acontophiops and some Typhlosaurus. As a result, all acontines except the slender-bodied West Coast Typhlosaurus have been allocated to Acontias (Lamb et al. 2010). All five subspecies of T. aurantiacus (three allopatric, two parapatric) that were recognised by Broadley (1968, 1990a) are now treated as valid species, and a new, closely-related species is currently being described following a recent molecular systematic study (Pietersen et al. in prep.). Existing species and subspecies boundaries within some Acontias are in flux (Daniels et al. 2009). A total of 27 species,

one with subspecies, are currently recognised; 20 species occur in the Atlas region and 12 of these are strictly endemic. These lizards range from South Africa northwards to Angola and Kenya. All species are elongate, limbless and viviparous (mostly litters of 1-4 young, but up to 14 in A. plumbeus) and occupy mesic microhabitats in leaf litter or beneath logs, stones and debris (Branch 1998). Two species, A. poecilus and A. rieppeli, are considered Endangered due to land conversion for agriculture and forestry, housing and recreation. In addition, Acontias richardi is considered Near Threatened and A. kgalagadi subtaeniatus is regarded as Data Deficient due to insufficient information. Both of the latter two taxa were previously listed as Restricted (Branch 1988a). Although some other species have restricted distributions, most are not under major threat, and no other taxa are of conservation concern.

Acontias breviceps Essex, 1925 SHORT-HEADED LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

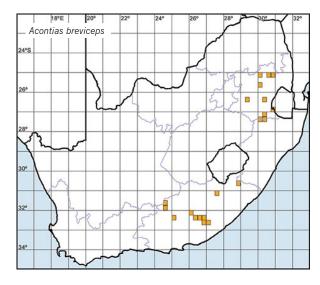
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Northern and southern populations of this species were investigated by Broadley & Greer (1969), who found average differences in scale counts. Daniels *et al.* (2006) investigated representatives of the northern population genetically and Lamb *et al.* (2010) sequenced a specimen from an intermediate locality in southern KwaZulu-Natal, but the most southerly population has yet to be evaluated in a molecular phylogenetic context. Further phylogenetic and phylogeographic research is needed to assess the monophyly of *Acontias breviceps* and the taxonomic status of the three apparently disjunct populations.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa. Until recently, it was thought to occur in two disjunct populations, one in the Mpumalanga Highveld and the other in inland parts of the Eastern Cape. However, recent records, including one obtained during a SARCA survey in the Cedarville region, are located between these two populations. Not yet recorded in western Swaziland but likely to occur there.

Habitat: Found in montane grasslands and immediately adjacent habitats where it is fossorial, occupying relatively mesic microhabitats beneath logs, stones and debris. Found in soil under rocks embedded on slopes in the Amatole Range (M.C. Cunningham & M.F. Bates unpubl. obs.).





Acontias breviceps-Hogsback, EC

W. Conradie

Occurs from altitudes of about 1 300 m to over 2 200 m (Branch 1998).

Biome: Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Relatively widespread and locally abundant. Threats from afforestation are limited to small parts of the range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Acontias cregoi (Boulenger, 1903) CREGOI'S LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Regional: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: This taxon was recently transferred from *Ty-phlosaurus* to *Acontias* by Lamb *et al.* (2010) on the basis of molecular phylogenetic results. *Typhlosaurus cregoi bicolor*, endemic to Zimbabwe, was elevated to specific status as *Acontias bicolor*, rendering *A. cregoi* monotypic (Lamb *et al.* 2010).

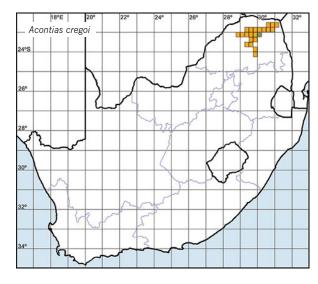
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring in Limpopo, South Africa and adjacent southern Mozambique (Branch 1998).

Habitat: Fossorial, found in soils with rocky cover on hills at 650 to 1 700 m elevation (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Relatively widespread and common; no major extrinsic threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Acontias cregoi-N of Soutpansberg, LIMP

J. Marais

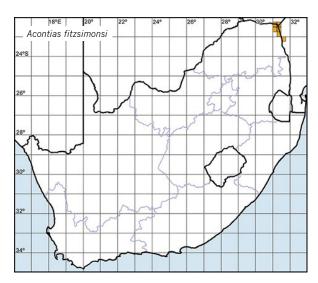
Acontias fitzsimonsi (Broadley, 1968) FITZSIMONS' LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern Endemic







Taxonomy: Typhlosaurus aurantiacus fitzsimonsi was transferred to Acontias by Lamb et al. (2010). All five subspecies of T. (= Acontias) aurantiacus recognised by Broadley (1968, 1990a)—including T. (= A.) a. fitzsi-

monsi—are probably valid species (Pietersen et al. in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it is limited to the northeastern Lowveld of Limpopo Province (Jacobsen 1989). Expected, but not yet recorded, from adjacent Mozambique and Zimbabwe.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in deep sandy soils in bushveld at about 400 m elevation (Jacobsen 1989).

Acontias gariepensis (FitzSimons, 1941) MIER KALAHARI LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Reviewed by Broadley (1968). Transferred from *Typhlosaurus* to *Acontias* by Lamb *et al.* (2010) on the basis of molecular phylogenetics.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring in the Mier Kalahari region of the Northern Cape, South Africa, and adjacent southeastern Namibia and southwestern Botswana (Broadley 1968).

Habitat: Fossorial, found in association with vegetated dune ridges in Kalahari duneveld, chiefly at 800–1 000 m elevation.

Bioregion: Kalahari Duneveld.

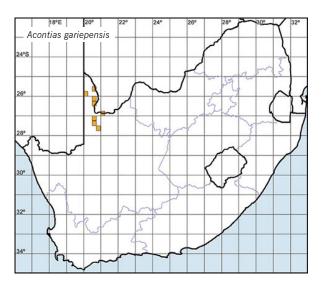
Assessment rationale: Widespread and common; not subject to major extrinsic threats. Protected within the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Vegetation type: SVmp 2 Limpopo Ridge Bushveld; SVmp 3 Cathedral Mopane Bushveld; SVI 1 Makuleke Sandy Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted distribution, but all known records are situated within a protected area (Kruger National Park) and there are no known extrinsic threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Acontias gariepensis—near Twee Riviere, NC

J. Marais

Acontias gracilicauda Essex, 1925 THIN-TAILED LEGLESS SKINK

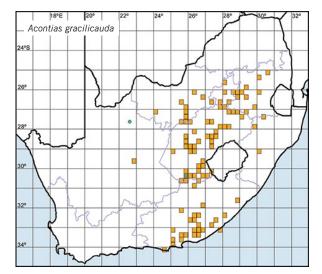
Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Recent molecular phylogenetic studies have demonstrated that *A. gracilicauda gracilicauda* and *A. g. namaquensis* are not closely related. The latter has been raised to full species status (Lamb *et al.* 2010) despite only minor scalation differences between the two taxa (Broadley & Greer 1969).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring in North-West Province, Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Free State, Eastern Cape and western KwaZulu-Natal (Broadley & Greer 1969). There are two somewhat isolated localities in the Northern Cape, representing the most westerly extent of the species' range: 2722DA refers to a Virtual Museum record near Olifantshoek, and 2922DB refers to a specimen collected in a garden at Prieska during a SARCA sur-



vey (see photo). A possible record from the Swartberg Pass in the Western Cape (not plotted here) is suspicious and requires confirmation (it may be referable to *A. meleagris*).

Habitat: Fossorial, usually occupying moderately mesic soils in open or partly-wooded habitats from sea level to at least 1 600 m (Branch 1998).

Biome: Grassland; Albany Thicket; Savanna; Fynbos; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Acontias gracilicauda—Prieska, NC

M. Burger

Acontias grayi Boulenger, 1887 GRAY'S DWARF LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The genus Microacontias, to which this species had been assigned (Daniels et al. 2006), was synonymised with Acontias by Lamb et al. (2010) based on molecular phylogenetic results. Another recent molecular phylogenetic study (Daniels et al. 2006) suggested that A. litoralis was derived from within a polytypic A. lineatus, making the latter paraphyletic. In a subsequent mitochondrial DNA phylogeny of 'Microacontias' (Janse van Vuuren 2009), the four currently recognised taxa in this clade were found to interdigitate in the phylogram. However, because all taxa were found to be identifiable morphologically, it was suggested that all subspecies of A. lineatus retain their status, with A. litoralis treated as a fourth subspecies of A. lineatus. The findings of Lamb et al. (2010) were similar to those of Daniels et al. (2006) and, on this basis and with regard to the diagnostic differences described by Broadley & Greer (1969), they elevated A. I. grayi and A. I. tristis to full species status.

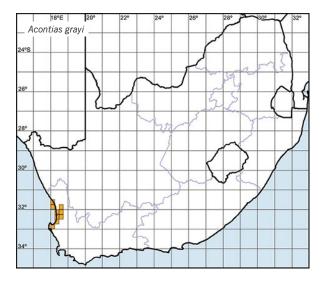
Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa, occurring only in the central-western coastal region (Broadley & Greer 1969). Apparent near-sympatry with *A. lineatus* in QDGC 3118DC requires further investigation.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in sandy soils in mesic conditions in fynbos or adjacent habitats (Branch 1998). Occurs from sea level to about 900 m elevation.

Bioregion: Northwest Fynbos; West Strandveld; Seashore Vegetation; Namaqualand Sandveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted EOO (3 188 km², i.e. below the EN threshold) [B1] but is not threatened or experiencing decline.

Conservation measures: This species occurs in an area where future habitat alteration is likely. Therefore, conduct taxonomic research, estimate population size and distribution, and monitor abundance.





Acontias grayi—Lambert's Bay, WC

J. Marais

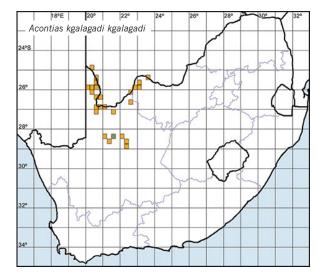
Acontias kgalagadi kgalagadi Lamb, Biswas & Bauer, 2010 KGALAGADI LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Originally described as *Typhlosaurus lineatus* Boulenger, 1887. The phylogenetic relationships of this skink were investigated recently using molecular techniques (Daniels et al. 2002, 2006). The most recent analysis of all acontines (Lamb et al. 2010) reveals that it is embedded within a clade of taxa now assigned to Acontias. Transfer to the genus Acontias results in the new combination Acontias lineatus, which is a junior secondary homonym of A. lineatus Peters, 1879. Lamb et al. (2010) proposed a replacement name, A. kgalagadi, for this species. Broadley (1968) reviewed this taxon and described two additional subspecies of (then) Typhlosaurus lineatus, namely T. I. subtaeniatus (now Acontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus) and T. I. jappi. The latter subspecies was subsequently elevated to specific status by Schneider & Bauer (2009) and then transferred to Acontias by Lamb et al. (2010). Jacobsen (1987a) also described an additional subspecies, T. I. richardi (now transferred to Acontias and accorded specific rank by Lamb et al. 2010). Acontias k. kgalagadi, A. richardi and A. jappi constitute a clade and it is likely that A. k. subtaeniatus also represents a full species within this group (Lamb et al. 2010).

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa (South Africa, Namibia, Botswana; Broadley 1968) and southern Angola (Conradie & Bourquin 2013). In South Africa it occurs



in the northern parts of the Northern Cape and in western North-West Province. An unconfirmed record from the central portion of North-West Province is not included on the map.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in sandy soils in areas of Kalahari dunes and open savanna. Occurs at elevations of 800 m to about 1 200 m.

Biome: Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common with no major threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Acontias kgalagadi kgalagadi-Caprivi Strip, Namibia

W.R. Branch



Acontias kgalagadi kgalagadi—Sasha, S Angola

W. Conradie

Acontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus (Broadley, 1968) STRIPE-BELLIED LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Data Deficient

Endemic

Taxonomy: Originally described by Broadley (1968) and discussed by Jacobsen (1987a, 1989) as *Typhlosaurus lineatus subtaeniatus*. Lamb *et al.* (2010) transferred *T. lineatus* to *Acontias* resulting in secondary homonymy with *A. lineatus* Peters, 1879, and they therefore proposed the replacement name *A. kgalagadi* for this species. Although other subspecies of *T. lineatus* (= *A. kgalagadi*) were raised to specific status, Lamb *et al.* (2010) retained this form as a subspecies of *A. kgalagadi* pending further research (D. Pietersen in prep.), although they suggested that its disjunct distribution and distinctive morphology were probably reflective of full species status.

Distribution: Endemic to northern Limpopo, South Africa.

EOO: 5 400 km² (confidence: low); AOO: 2 136 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: Occurs under rotting logs, rocks or other surface debris in deep sand at elevations of 650–1 000 m (Branch & Jacobsen 1988a; Jacobsen 1989).

Vegetation type: SVmp 1 Musina Mopane Bushveld; SVcb 19 Limpopo Sweet Bushveld; SVcb 20 Makhado Sweet Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: There are no documented extrinsic threats to this subspecies, but it has limited dispersal capabilities and appears to have an extremely restricted distribution. EOO is thought to be below the VU threshold but there is low confidence in range estimates. Habitat fragmentation is thought to be slight. Based on the available data, no information can be reliably inferred about population size or actual distribution range, and therefore this subspecies is considered Data Deficient on the basis of insufficient information.

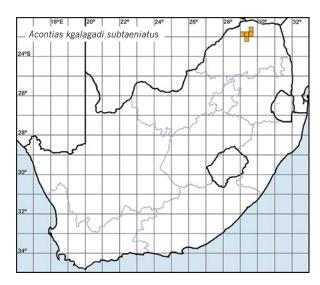
Threats: Has limited dispersal capabilities and appears to have an extremely restricted distribution. No known extrinsic threats.

Acontias lineatus Peters, 1879 STRIPED DWARF LEGLESS SKINK; STRIPED LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

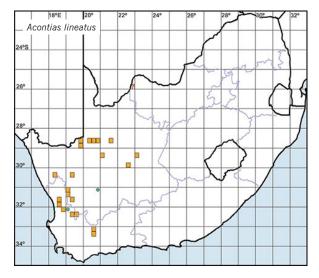
Taxonomy: The genus *Microacontias*, to which this species had previously been assigned (Daniels *et al.* 2006), was synonymised with *Acontias* by Lamb *et al.* (2010) based on molecular phylogenetic results. Daniels *et al.* (2006) suggested that *A. litoralis* was derived from within a polytypic *A. lineatus*, making the latter paraphyletic. In a subsequent mitochondrial DNA phylogeny of *'Microacontias'* (Janse van Vuuren 2009), the four currently recognised taxa in this clade were found to interdigitate in the phylogram. However, because all taxa were found to be identifiable morphologically, it was suggested that all subspecies of *A. lineatus* retain their status, with *A. litoralis* treated as a fourth subspecies





Acontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus—16 km E of Lang Jan NR, LIMP W.D. Haacke

Conservation measures: Estimate population size as an essential first step. Critically assess the taxonomic status of the subspecies and collect information on range, biology and ecology. Assess the current status of the habitat and expand existing protected areas or establish new reserves. Draw up a BMP-S.



of *A. lineatus*. The findings of Lamb *et al.* (2010) were similar to those of Daniels *et al.* (2006) and, on this basis and with regard to the diagnostic differences described by Broadley & Greer (1969), they elevated *A. l. grayi* and *A. l. tristis* to full species status, rendering *A. lineatus* monotypic.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and southern Namibia. Within the *Atlas* region it occurs in the Northern Cape and northern portions of the Western Cape (Broadley & Greer 1969). The identity of specimens collected at Molopo Nature Reserve (2522DD) in the western part of North-West Province requires confirmation.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in sandy soils in a wide variety of habitats, usually in association with plant roots or surface debris (Branch 1998). Occurs from about sea level to at least 1 200 m elevation.

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Savanna; Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, with no major extrinsic threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Acontias lineicauda Hewitt, 1937 ALGOA LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

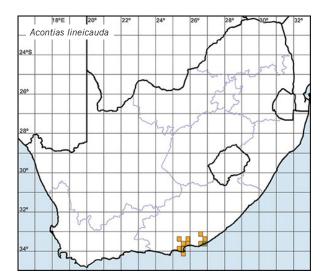
Endemic

Taxonomy: Until recently this taxon was considered as a slender, striped colour morph of Acontias meleagris orientalis (Broadley & Greer 1969; Daniels et al. 2002, 2005, 2006, 2009). Although easily diagnosable morphologically, A. lineicauda is neither monophyletic nor imbedded within A. orientalis (Daniels et al. 2005) and has been recognised as a paraphyletic species level taxon pending further study (Lamb et al. 2010). In a recent study of the biogeography of the A. meleagris complex, Engelbrecht et al. (2013) continued to recognise a A. meleagris orientalis 'lineicauda' morph, although restricting it to a clade distributed east of Algoa Bay (Alexandria to East London). Skinks from Port Elizabeth and Oyster Bay (not plotted here) display the 'lineicauda' morphology but were not assigned to any named clade (Engelbrecht et al. 2013). The taxonomic status of A. lineicauda remains problematic, particularly as topotypic material from Dunbrody (Hewitt 1937) within Algoa Bay and outside of the geographic area of the clade to which Engelbrecht et al. (2013) have applied the name, has not been assessed.

Distribution: Endemic to the Algoa Bay region and adjacent western Ciskei of the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Found from Port Elizabeth to the Hamburg area, chiefly along valleys such as those of the Sundays River and Great Fish River. Records indicated as questionable on the *A. orientalis* map may represent *A. lineicauda* (uncertainty due to overlap in ranges).

Habitat: Fossorial, found in coastal areas and alluvial soils in inland valleys, usually in relatively dry situations (Broadley & Greer 1969). Occurs from sea level to at least 500 m, but chiefly below 300 m.

Bioregion: Albany Thicket; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld; Seashore Vegetation; Lower Karoo.





Acontias lineicauda-Sundays River mouth, EC

M. Burger

Assessment rationale: Locally abundant in much of its range, and tolerant of low-level habitat disturbance. Urbanisation, mining and agricultural activity are localised threats, but several portions of the range are protected in Addo Elephant National Park.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Acontias lineatus—N of Pofadder, NC

J. Marais

Acontias litoralis Broadley & Greer, 1969 COASTAL DWARF LEGLESS SKINK; COASTAL LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The genus Microacontias, to which this species had previously been assigned (Daniels et al. 2006), was synonymised with Acontias by Lamb et al. (2010) based on molecular phylogenetic results. Daniels et al. (2006) suggested that A. litoralis was derived from within a polytypic A. lineatus, making the latter paraphyletic. In a subsequent mitochondrial DNA phylogeny of 'Microacontias' (Janse van Vuuren 2009), the four currently recognised taxa in this clade were found to interdigitate in the phylogram. However, because all taxa were found to be identifiable morphologically, it was suggested that all subspecies of A. lineatus retain their status, with A. litoralis treated as a fourth subspecies of A. lineatus. The findings of Lamb et al. (2010) were similar to those of Daniels et al. (2006) and, on this basis and with regard to the diagnostic differences described by Broadley & Greer (1969), they treated A. litoralis, and all subspecies of A. lineatus, as full species.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring in the western coastal parts of Northern and Western Cape provinces.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in sandy soils in sparsely-vegetated coastal dunes, from sea level to approximately 100 m elevation (Mashinini 2004). Especially common under leaf litter at the base of *Ruschia crassisepala*, and occurs in densities of up to 33 specimens per hectare (Mashinini *et al.* 2011).

Bioregion: Namaqualand Sandveld; West Strandveld; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Richtersveld; Seashore Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is abundant throughout and not subject to major extrinsic threats. Coastal development is a localised threat in a few areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Acontias meleagris (Linnaeus, 1758) CAPE LEGLESS SKINK

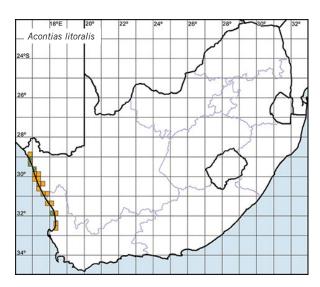
Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of this species is in a state of flux (Daniels *et al.* 2009, Engelbrecht *et al.* 2013). It is notably variable with respect to colouration (Broadley & Greer 1969) and molecular phylogenetic and phylogeographic research has demonstrated that this taxon as presently construed is paraphyletic (Daniels *et al.* 2002, 2005, 2006, 2009; Lamb *et al.* 2010; Engelbrecht *et al.* 2013). Further molecular and morphological investigations are required.

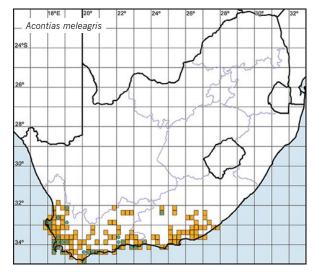
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring throughout most of the Western Cape and the western and south-





Acontias litoralis-Noup, NC

W.R. Branch



ern parts of the Eastern Cape (Broadley & Greer 1969). The identity of a specimen from De Aar in the southeastern Northern Cape (not plotted) requires confirmation.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in coastal areas in rich soils and in alluvial soils in inland valleys. Occurs from sea level to at least 1 400 m (Branch 1998).



Biome: Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common and not under significant threat.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Acontias meleagris-Vleesbaai region, WC

M. Burger

Acontias meleagris-Oyster Bay, EC

W.R. Branch

Acontias namaguensis Hewitt, 1938 NAMAQUALAND LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This taxon was considered a subspecies of A. gracilicauda (Broadley & Greer 1969) but was recently raised to full species status on the basis of a molecular phylogenetic study that showed that the two former subspecies are not sister taxa (Lamb et al. 2010).

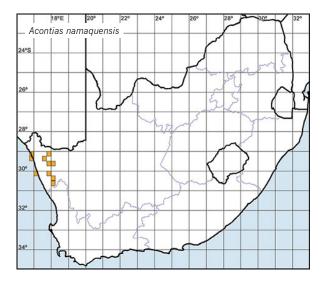
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring in the western portion of the Northern Cape (Little Namaqualand) (Broadley & Greer 1969).

Habitat: Fossorial, occurring in relatively mesic conditions in sandy soils from sea level to approximately 1 000 m elevation (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Namaqualand Hardeveld; Namaqualand Sandveld; Richtersveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but appears to be locally abundant and is not subject to major extrinsic threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Acontias namaquensis-S of Garies, NC

W.R. Branch

Acontias occidentalis FitzSimons, 1941 SAVANNA LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously considered a subspecies of *Acontias percivali*, an East African species. Recent molecular phylogenetic studies (Daniels *et al.* 2006; Lamb *et al.* 2010) have revealed that *Acontias occidentalis* is closely related to *A. percivali percivali*, but not to *A. percivali tasmani*, which Lamb *et al.* (2010) synonymised with *A. orientalis*. Lamb *et al.* (2010) also formally elevated *A. occidentalis* to full species status based on morphological diagnosability (Broadley & Greer 1969) and the 1 700 km disjunction between this form and its East African sister taxon, rendering *A. percivali* a monotypic species.

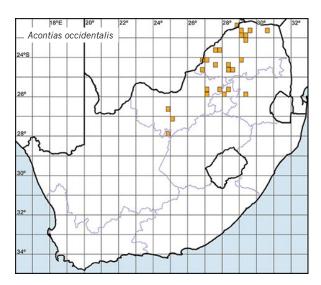
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa and adjacent areas in southern Angola. Within southern Africa it occurs in north-central Namibia, southern Botswana and parts of Zimbabwe and South Africa (Broadley & Greer 1969). In the *Atlas* region it is found in parts of Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng and North-West Province.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in soil under leaf litter or other debris. Occurs from altitudes of about 600 m to 2 100 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, especially outside the *Atlas* region, and not experiencing any major threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Acontias occidentalis-Farm Zjoebaya, Musina, LIMP

W.D. Haacke

Acontias orientalis Hewitt, 1937 EASTERN CAPE LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

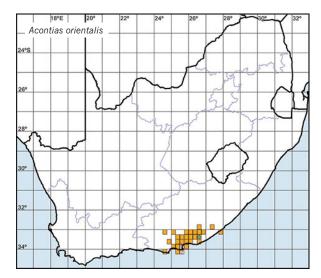
Endemic

Taxonomy: This species was, until recently (Lamb *et al.* 2010), considered a subspecies of *Acontias meleagris*. Daniels *et al.* (2002, 2005, 2006, 2009) considered the status of this taxon to be highly unstable, partly because of the inclusion of the form *A. meleagris lineicauda*, long



Acontias orientalis-Great Fish River Reserve, EC

W.R. Branch



regarded as a smaller, more slender morph of *A. meleagris* orientalis (Broadley & Greer 1969). Although easily diagnosed on morphological characters, *A. lineicauda* is neither monophyletic nor imbedded within *A. orientalis* (Daniels et al. 2005) and has been recognised (Lamb et al. 2010) as a paraphyletic species level taxon pending further study. Acontias percivali tasmani was synonymised with *A. orientalis* by Lamb et al. (2010), based on its minimal genetic differentiation (Daniels et al. 2005, 2006) and nearly complete morphological overlap (Broadley & Greer 1969).

M. Burger

Distribution: Endemic to the southern parts of the Eastern Cape, South Africa. There is an apparently isolated population at Xukulu in the eastern Transkei (Broadley & Greer 1969). Records indicated as questionable on the map may represent *A. lineicauda* (uncertainty due to overlap in ranges).

Habitat: Fossorial, found in coastal areas and alluvial soils in inland valleys in mesic to relatively dry situations. Occurs from sea level to at least 1 400 m (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Albany Thicket; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld; Seashore Vegetation; Lower Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Relatively widespread and common and not subject to major threats throughout most of its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Acontias parietalis (Broadley, 1990) MAPUTALAND LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: *Typhlosaurus aurantiacus parietalis* was transferred to *Acontias* by Lamb *et al.* (2010). All five subspecies of *T.* (= *Acontias*) *aurantiacus* recognised by Broadley (1968, 1990a)—including *T.* (= *A.*) *a. parieta-lis*—are now treated as valid species (Pietersen *et al.* in prep.). Although KwaZulu-Natal populations of this species have been referred to '*T. a. aurantiacus*' (e.g. Branch 1998), Broadley (1990a) clarified that these, along with specimens from Inhaca Island, Mozambique, were referable to '*T. a. parietalis*', with the former taxon restricted to southern coastal Mozambique.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring in coastal southern Mozambique and in northeastern Kwa-Zulu-Natal, South Africa (Broadley 1968).

Habitat: Fossorial, found in sandy soils and mesic conditions in coastal sandveld and grassland areas. Occurs from sea level to 200 m elevation (Bourquin 2004).

Vegetation type: FOz 7 Northern Coastal Forest; SVI 18 Tembe Sandy Bushveld; CB 1 Maputaland Coastal Belt; CB 2 Maputaland Wooded Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Has a relatively widespread global distribution. Although some areas of appropriate habitat may be threatened by coastal development or recreational land use, much of the range is included in protected areas and other threats are minimal. Regional EOO is small but threats are highly localised and fragmentation is slight.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

 18*E
 20*
 22*
 24*
 26*
 28*
 302
 32*

 24*S
 28*
 28*
 30*
 30*
 30*
 30*

 30*
 32*
 34*
 34*
 34*
 34*



Acontias parietalis—Kosi Bay, KZN

J. Marais



Acontias orientalis-NE of Oyster Bay, EC

Acontias plumbeus Bianconi, 1849 GIANT LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Earlier molecular phylogenetic results placed *Acontias plumbeus* with other robust species in a restricted *Acontias* (Daniels *et al.* 2006). More recent research (Lamb *et al.* 2010) demonstrates that it is also closely related to skinks formerly placed in *Acontophiops* and *Typhlosaurus* sensu lato. The taxonomic status of isolated populations near East London and on the eastern escarpment of Zimbabwe should be investigated further.

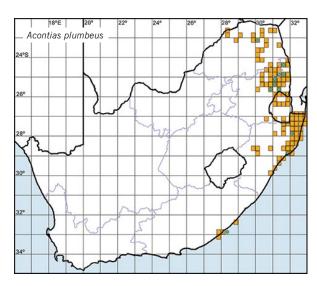
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Occurs in Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Swaziland and South Africa (Broadley & Greer 1969). Within South Africa, it is widespread in the northern and eastern regions of Limpopo, in eastern Mpumalanga and throughout the lower elevations of KwaZulu-Natal. There are scattered coastal populations in the Eastern Cape, such as at Dwesa Nature Reserve and in the East London region.

Habitat: Found in mesic microhabitats under leaf litter or other cover in forested or partly-wooded habitats, grasslands or alluvial sands. Occurs from sea level to at least 1 500 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests; Grassland; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Acontias plumbeus-Mtubatuba, KZN

J. Marais

Acontias poecilus Bourquin & Lambiris, 1996 VARIABLE LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Endangered B1ab(ii,iii)+2ab(ii,iii)

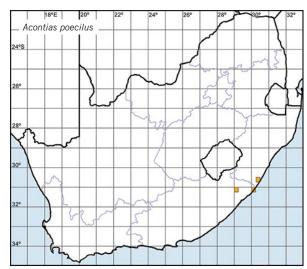
Endemic

Taxonomy: This relatively recently described species was previously confused with the similar *Acontias plumbeus* (e.g. Broadley 1984), to which it is closely related (Lamb *et al.* 2010). Although it may be diagnosed from



Acontias poecilus-Port Edward, KZN

J. Marais



A. plumbeus morphologically, its high genetic similarity to this species (Lamb *et al.* 2010) suggests that further work, incorporating broader sampling across both species, is required to clarify relationships further.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring in coastal regions of the extreme southern part of KwaZulu-Natal and the adjacent eastern parts of the Eastern Cape.

EOO: 3 105 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 347 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found in moist situations in soil or under leaf litter in forested or shaded habitats. Occurs from sea level to approximately 300 m in KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004) and up to 900 m in the Eastern Cape.

Vegetation type: CB 4 Pondoland-Ugu Sandstone Coastal Sourveld; CB 3 KwaZulu-Natal Coastal Belt; Gs 12 East Griqualand Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted EOO (<5 000 km²) and AOO (<500 km²). Most of the distribution is fragmented by intensive human land use and there are only five locations [B1a+2a]. Increasing human pressure for agricultural land, housing and coastal recreation imply a continuing decline in the AOO, and in quality and extent of suitable habitat [B1b(ii,iii)+2b(ii,iii)].

Acontias richardi (Jacobsen, 1987) RICHARD'S LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: The relationships of this skink were recently investigated using molecular techniques (Lamb *et al.* 2010), resulting in its transfer from *Typhlosaurus* to *Acontias* and its elevation from a subspecies of *T. lineatus* (now *A. kgalagadi*). Acontias *k. kgalagadi*, *A. richardi*, *A. jappi* and probably also *A. k. subtaeniatus*, constitute a clade. Relationships between this taxon and others formerly in the *Typhlosaurus lineatus* group are under review (D. Pietersen in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to northern Limpopo Province, South Africa, where it has a highly restricted distribution in the Soutpansberg district. The record plotted at 2230CB was obtained during a SARCA survey.

EOO: 1 427 km² (confidence: low); AOO: 856 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: Found under rotting logs in deep aeolian sand deposits on the northern slopes of the Soutpansberg at about 800 m elevation (Jacobsen 1987a, 1989).

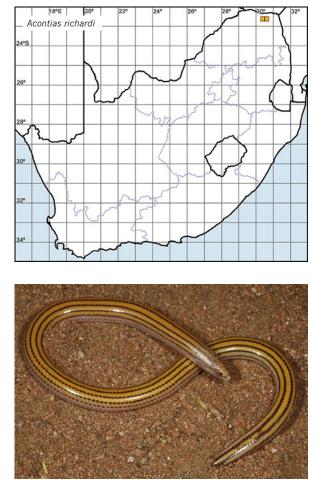
Vegetation type: SVI 1 Makuleke Sandy Bushveld; SVcb 21 Soutpansberg Mountain Bushveld; SVmp 1 Musina Mopane Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has an extremely restricted EOO [B1] and AOO [B2]. Currently known from only two sites that are not in protected areas (Jacobsen 1988h; SARCA survey), and there is continuing decline in quality of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)] due to agricultural practices such as livestock grazing (Jacobsen 1989).

Threats: Has limited dispersal capabilities and appears to have an extremely restricted distribution. No serious extrinsic threats, but livestock grazing takes place within its range and if this is uncontrolled, it may impact the skink's food source. Fires may also be a threat to this species.

Threats: Threatened by land conversion for agriculture, housing and recreation, particularly in coastal areas. This skink has limited dispersal capabilities and a restricted range.

Conservation measures: Clarify the species' taxonomic status relative to adjacent populations of *A. plumbeus*. Determine population size, range, biology and ecology, habitat status and threats. Establish provincial legislation that protects the species. Ensure that it is protected in a reserve. Develop habitat corridors that link subpopulations. Prioritise a survey of Mkambati Nature Reserve in the Eastern Cape, where Branch & Haagner (1999) suggested that this skink might occur. Conduct directed searches in the area between the coast and Mount Frere, the only known inland locality for the species. Conduct a PHVA and draw up a BMP-S.



Acontias richardi-Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger

Conservation measures: Collect information on range, population size, biology and ecology. Assess the current status of the habitat. Monitor the effects of livestock grazing, protect the area in which *A. richardi* occurs, and draft a BMP-S.

Acontias rieppeli Lamb, Biswas & Bauer, 2010 WOODBUSH LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer & Michael F. Bates

Global: Endangered B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii) Endemic

Taxonomy: Originally described as *Acontophiops lineatus* Sternfeld, 1912 (often incorrectly given as Sternfeld, 1911). The relationships of this skink were investigated recently using molecular techniques (Daniels *et al.* 2002, 2006). The most recent molecular analysis of all acontines (Lamb *et al.* 2010) reveals that this species is embedded within a clade of taxa now assigned to *Acontias*. Transfer to the genus *Acontias* results in the new combination, *Acontias lineatus*, which is a junior secondary homonym of *A. lineatus* Peters, 1879. Lamb *et al.* (2010) proposed the replacement name *A. rieppeli*, using a previously nomenclaturally-unavailable epithet proposed by Welch (1982a).

Distribution: Endemic to the Woodbush, Haenertsburg and Wolkberg areas of Limpopo Province, South Africa.

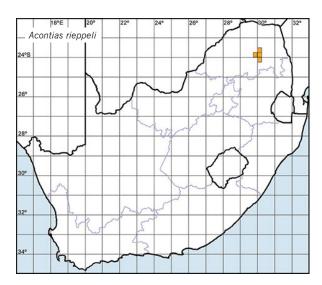
EOO: 879 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 283 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Fossorial, found in mesic conditions in montane grassland, usually under stones. Occurs at elevations of 1 600–2 000 m (Jacobsen 1989). Near Haenertsburg it is found on soil under rocks imbedded on grassy slopes and ridges; also up to 20 cm below the surface in reddishbrown soil at the edges of pine plantations or even up to about 50 m within the forest (M.F. Bates unpubl. data).

Vegetation type: Gm 23 Northern Escarpment Quartzite Sourveld; Gm 25 Woodbush Granite Grassland.

Assessment rationale: This species has a restricted range (EOO <5 000 km² and AOO <500 km²), is vulnerable to threats from afforestation, cultivation and infrastructural expansion, and has experienced severe habitat fragmentation [B1a+2a]. It is also experiencing a continuing decline in area, extent and quality of habitat in some portions of its range [b(iii)].

Threats: The primary extrinsic threat is afforestation; exotic pine plantations have apparently resulted in local decreases in abundance (Jacobsen 1988i). However, the recent discovery of specimens living in soils at the edges of a pine forest near Haenertsburg (M.F. Bates unpubl. data) suggests that this species is able to re-colonise such areas, or even that afforestation may not totally eradicate local populations. In the Haenertsburg area at least, grassland is also ploughed up and used for cultivation and even propagation of medicinal plants (M.F. Bates pers. obs.). *Acontias rieppeli* may also occur in and around the town





Acontias rieppeli—near Wolkberg hut, Wolkberg Wilderness Area, LIMP M. Burger

of Haenertsburg and in the Ebenezer Dam area, so it could also be affected to a small extent by urbanisation and tourist/entertainment activities. Also, if this species is at all affected by roads (as is *Scelotes*), then ongoing construction of forest roads will create another negative impact. Also threatened by its limited dispersal capabilities and highly restricted range.

Conservation measures: Collect data on population size and range in order to establish a baseline for monitoring population status on a periodic basis. Study biology, ecology and habitat status in order to evaluate the particular requirements of the species and provide a basis for possible restoration of habitat in currently or formerly afforested areas in its range. Attempt to determine the extent to which the species occurs in soils within exotic plantations. Develop a BMP-S.

Acontias tristis Werner, 1911 NAMAQUALAND DWARF LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The genus Microacontias, to which this species had been assigned (Daniels et al. 2006), was synonymised with Acontias by Lamb et al. (2010) based on molecular phylogenetic findings. A recent molecular phylogenetic study (Daniels et al. 2006) suggested that A. litoralis was derived from within a polytypic A. lineatus, making the latter paraphyletic. In a subsequent mitochondrial DNA phylogeny of 'Microacontias' (Janse van Vuuren 2009), the four currently recognised taxa in this clade were found to interdigitate in the phylogram. However, because all taxa were found to be identifiable morphologically it was suggested that all subspecies of A. lineatus retain their status, with A. litoralis treated as a fourth subspecies of A. lineatus. The findings of Lamb et al. (2010) were similar to those of Daniels et al. (2006) and, on this basis and with regard to the diagnostic differences described by Broadley & Greer (1969), they elevated A. I. tristis and A. I. gravi to full species status.

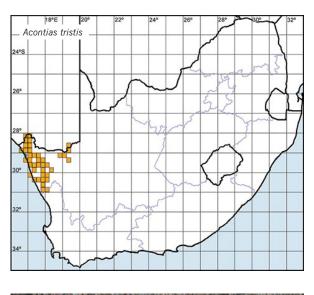
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring only in the western parts of the Northern Cape and in a small part of the adjoining Western Cape. Its proximity to the Namibian border suggests that it may also occur in that country.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in sandy soils in mesic microhabitats, in arid to semi-arid habitats (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). Occurs from sea level to at least 1 000 m elevation.

Bioregion: Richtersveld; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Gariep Desert; Namaqualand Sandveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, with no major identifiable extrinsic threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Acontias tristis-Namaqua NP, NC

D. Maguire

Genus Typhlosaurus Wiegmann, 1834—blind legless skinks

A recent molecular phylogenetic study (Lamb *et al.* 2010) revealed that many species formerly assigned to *Typhlosaurus* (Broadley & Greer 1969; Branch 1998) were embedded within the genus *Acontias*. Consequently, Lamb *et al.* (2010) allocated these species, along with all species of *Microacontias* and the monotypic *Acontiophiops*, to a more inclusive *Acontias*. *Typhlosaurus* is therefore restricted to five species distributed along the West Coast of southern Africa from the Cape Peninsula north to the Kuiseb River in central Namibia. Four spe-

Typhlosaurus caecus (Cuvier, 1816 [1817]) SOUTHERN BLIND LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species was reviewed by Broadley (1968b), who considered *Typhlosaurus caecus* and *T. vermis* as two semispecies within a superspecies. Bates *et al.* (1998) demonstrated that the two taxa are distinct and should be considered full species. The latter authors also argued that Northern Cape specimens previously allocated to *T. caecus* by Broadley (1968b) and Branch (1998) are in fact *T. vermis*.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, occurring along the West Coast of the Western Cape (Bates *et al.* 1998). A recent record of *T. caecus* from the Richtersveld and another from nearby Koiingnaas (neither plotted) require confirmation.

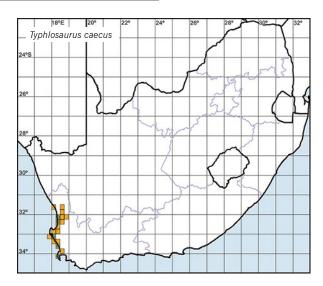
Habitat: Fossorial, found in partly vegetated sandy soils in coastal and sandveld habitats from sea level to at least 500 m elevation.

Bioregion: West Strandveld; Southwest Fynbos; Northwest Fynbos; Namagualand Sandveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a moderately restricted distribution but is common throughout and adequately protected. The only extrinsic threats are from housing and recreation, and these impact only a small portion of the range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

cies (three strictly endemic) occur in the *Atlas* region, in coastal and Namib sands and isolated sandveld areas. All taxa are elongate, limbless, burrowing insectivores that feed chiefly on termites (Branch 1998). They are active diurnally or nocturnally, largely depending on thermal conditions, and are viviparous (1–3 young in a litter) (Branch 1998). *Typhlosaurus Iomiae* is considered Near Threatened mainly because of its extremely restricted distribution. All other taxa in the *Atlas* region are classified as Least Concern.





Typhlosaurus caecus— Koeberg NR, WC

W.R. Branch

Typhlosaurus Iomiae Haacke, 1986 LOMI'S BLIND LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: The original specific epithet '*lomii*' was corrected in accordance with the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature to '*lomiae*' by Michels & Bauer (2004), to match the gender of the person honoured by the epithet.

Distribution: Endemic to Namaqualand district in the West Coast region of the Northern Cape, South Africa.

EOO: 876 km^2 (confidence: medium); AOO: 430 km^2 (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Fossorial, found in low vegetated sand dunes often in association with termitaria (Haacke 1986; Bauer *et al.* 2000), at elevations below 100 m.

Vegetation type: SKs 8 Namaqualand Coastal Duneveld.

Assessment rationale: Although there are currently no known threats, the species has a restricted distribution (EOO and AOO less than the EN thresholds) and occurs at only a few sites in an area that is not formally protected (Haacke 1988) and that might be affected by diamond mining in the future.

Threats: Has limited dispersal capabilities and appears to have an extremely restricted distribution. There are currently no documented extrinsic threats. Although not contained in any formal protected areas, the species occurs within the De Beers Consolidated Diamond Mines Ltd. concession area, so public access is restricted at this time (Haacke 1988a). In this area, the habitat used by the species (Bauer *et al.* 2000) is not currently impacted by mining activities, although this may change (Haacke 1988a).

Typhlosaurus meyeri Boettger, 1894 MEYER'S BLIND LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

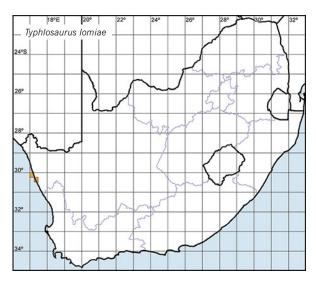
Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Namibia (Lüderitz district) and the adjacent northwestern Richtersveld of the



Typhlosaurus meyeri-Sperrgebiet, Namibia

```
J. Marais
```

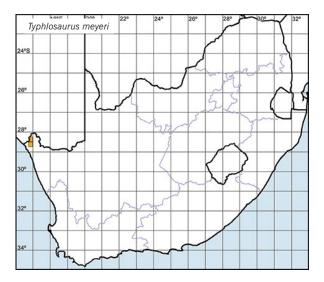




Typhlosaurus Iomiae-Noup, Namaqualand, NC

J. Marais

Conservation measures: Obtain information on range, population size, biology and ecology, and assess the status of the habitat. Incorporate the area in which the species occurs into a formally protected area and draft a BMP-S.



Northern Cape, South Africa (Broadley 1968a; Haacke 1986; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Habitat: Occurs in sparsely vegetated dunes and other areas of loose sand in the southern Namib (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]), chiefly below 500 m elevation.

Bioregion: Southern Namib Desert.

Assessment rationale: Although marginally represented in the *Atlas* region, with records in only two QDGCs, this represents more than 5% of the total range so the species was assessed. Fairly widespread in an area largely uninhabited by humans. Although parts of the range are intensively mined for diamonds, most of the distribution falls within Spergebiet buffer zones that are protected from

Typhlosaurus vermis Boulenger, 1887 PINK BLIND LEGLESS SKINK;

BOULENGER'S BLIND LEGLESS SKINK

Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Reviewed by Broadley (1968a), who was of the opinion that *Typhlosaurus caecus* and *T. vermis* might be two semispecies within a superspecies. Bates *et al.* (1998) demonstrated that the two are distinct and should be considered full species. These authors also argued that Northern Cape specimens previously allocated to *T. caecus* by Broadley (1968a) and Branch (1998) are in fact *T. vermis*.

Distribution: Endemic to the Namaqualand district of the Northern Cape, South Africa. A record from Putzonderwater (2921BB) in the central Northern Cape (Broadley 1968a; Haacke 1986) is correctly identified (Bates *et al.* 1998) but the locality is almost certainly incorrect. Another set of records from Baievlei (3017BD), just south of Langstrand in the northern Western Cape, is unconfirmed and may be referable to *T. caecus*. These two sets of questionable records have not been included on the map. No records exist for Namibia, but the species may occur in the Oranjemund area.

Habitat: Fossorial, found in sparsely vegetated sandy soils in coastal and sandveld habitats, from sea level to at least 900 m elevation.

Bioregion: Namaqualand Sandveld; Southern Namib Desert; Richtersveld; Seashore Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Has a moderately restricted distribution but is common throughout. Major extrinsic threats from housing and mining are limited to relatively small portions of the range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

public access and are not mined. Within the *Atlas* region AOO (5 711 km²) and especially EOO (26 000 km²) are small, but there is no evidence of decline. This species is therefore currently not considered to be of conservation concern.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

 Ise
 20°
 22°
 24°
 26°
 28°
 30°
 32°

 28°
 30°
 30°
 32°
 30°
 32°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°
 33°



Typhlosaurus vermis-Noup, NC

W.R. Branch

SUBFAMILY LYGOSOMINAE

This is the largest subfamily of skinks and includes many of the species familiar to most people. It is wide ranging, but particularly diverse in Africa and the Australasian region. There remains controversy over the monophyly of this subfamily (Whiting *et al.* 2003; Giovannottia *et al.* 2010) and the number of genera, their content and relationships (Honda *et al.* 2000; Whiting *et al.* 2003; Brandley *et al.* 2005; Austin & Arnold 2006; Sindaco *et al.* 2012). Four genera occur in southern Africa and all reach the *Atlas* region where they are represented by 17 species. The fact that three of the four genera have recently undergone name changes highlights the level of taxonomic confusion in this subfamily.

Genus Afroablepharus Greer, 1974—snake-eyed skinks

Snake-eyed skinks have a complicated taxonomic history. They were usually placed in the genus Panaspis. However, the concept and extent of Panaspis has undergone substantial changes since its creation by Cope in 1868 (see Boulenger 1887; Smith 1937; Mittleman 1952; Fuhn 1969; Perret 1973, 1975; Welch 1982a,b). Based on morphological characters, Greer (1974) described a new genus, Afroablepharus, for African species with an ablepharine (non-blinking) eye and contact between the frontal scale and just one subocular scale. Welch (1982a) proposed a tribe, Panaspinini, to include the African genera Cophoscincopus, Panaspis, Afroablepharus, Lacertaspis and Leptosiaphos, but this was largely ignored by subsequent workers. Broadley (1989) rejected Greer's (1974) arrangement and retained Panaspis for savanna species (although he also included P. breviceps, a rainforest inhabitant) with an ablepharine eye and returned Afroablepharus to the synonymy of Panaspis. Subsequent molecular studies (Schmitz et al. 2005a; Jesus et al. 2007) have confirmed the generic distinctness of the former subgenera (Afroablepharus, Leptosiaphos and Lacertaspis) within Panaspis. The latter genus is now restricted to a suite of 3-4 species from West and Central Africa. Five species of Afroablepharus are currently recognised (Uetz 2012), but an undescribed species from São Tomé awaits description (Jesus et al. 2007), and Medina et al. (2012) note that A. wahlbergii comprises a complex of cryptic species. Two species are found in the Atlas region, one of which was described relatively recently (P. maculicollis; Jacobsen & Broadley 2000). These are diurnal, terrestrial or semi-burrowing small- to medium-sized skinks with small but well-developed limbs. Females lay small clutches of 2-6 eggs (Branch 1998). Neither species in the Atlas region is of conservation concern.

Afroablepharus maculicollis (Jacobsen & Broadley, 2000) SPOTTED-NECK SNAKE-EYED SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

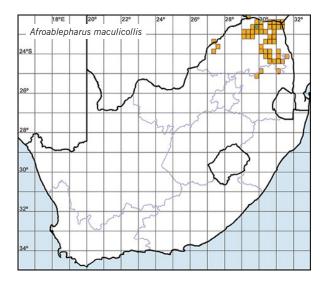
Taxonomy: Afroablepharus maculicollis was first recognised by Jacobsen (1989) as a cryptic species related to *A. wahlbergii*. It was later described by Jacobsen & Broadley (2000) based on differences in the average number of scale rows at mid-body, body patterning (particularly on the neck) and male colouration during the breeding season. Taxonomy is stable but older specimen records and pre-2000 references to *A. wahlbergii* should be carefully checked using the key provided by Jacobsen & Broadley (2000). The relationship of this species and of *A. wahlbergii* to the isolated population in northern Namibia remains unresolved.

Distribution: Endemic to the southern half of Africa. Found in Zambia, Zimbabwe, northern Botswana, Caprivi Strip, South Africa and central Mozambique (Branch 1998;



Afroablepharus maculicollis-Alldays, LIMP

J. Marais



Jacobsen & Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is restricted to Limpopo and northern Mpumalanga. It may occur in Angola, but this is unconfirmed.

Habitat: A terrestrial species, very similar in habits to *A. wahlbergii* and known to occur in sympatry with the latter in several areas. Found in open or rocky savanna at altitudes of 220–900 m (Jacobsen & Broadley 2000).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and found in several protected areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Afroablepharus wahlbergii (A. Smith, 1849) WAHLBERG'S SNAKE-EYED SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Although Smith (1849) initially used 'walbergii' as the specific epithet, he later corrected this to 'wahlbergii' in an often overlooked errata slip (Ulber 1999). Such an inserted slip, under Article 32.5.1.1 of the ICZN (1999), is clear evidence of an inadvertent error that has been corrected. The absence of the errata slip from some copies of Smith's work has contributed to confusion on this point (e.g. Greenbaum et al. 2007). Jacobsen (1989) drew attention to the presence of a cryptic species in northern savanna areas of South Africa, which was later described by Jacobsen & Broadley (2000) as Panaspis maculicollis. Older specimen records of A. wahlbergii should therefore be checked using the key in Jacobsen & Broadley (2000), particularly in areas of known sympatry. The taxonomic status of the isolated Namibian population of this species is unresolved. According to Medina et al. (2012), 'A. wahlbergii' is a complex of at least five species.

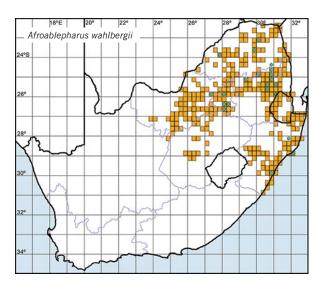
Distribution: Endemic to sub-Saharan Africa. Found in Namibia, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mozambique, Malawi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia and Somalia (Branch 1998; Jacobsen & Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in Free State, North-West Province, Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal and Swaziland. There is one record in the Northern Cape, at Warrenton (2824BB).

Habitat: A ubiquitous terrestrial species found in a wide variety of habitats ranging from rocky outcrops to open Highveld grasslands, usually under suitable cover or in leaf litter, from the coast up to altitudes of 2 000 m (Branch 1998; Jacobsen & Broadley 2000; Masterson *et al.* 2008).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Afroablepharus wahlbergii-Durban, KZN

J. Marais

Genus Cryptoblepharus Wiegmann, 1834-coral rag skinks

The genus *Cryptoblepharus* is a taxonomically complex group of skinks that appears to have spread throughout the Indo-Pacific region via transoceanic dispersal (Rocha *et al.* 2006; Horner 2007). There are 62 recognised taxa comprising 48 monotypic and six polytypic species (Horner 2007). These lizards are diurnal, and rupicolous or semi-arboreal. Clutch size is limited to 1–2 eggs

Cryptoblepharus africanus (Sternfeld, 1918) AFRICAN CORAL RAG SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Endangered D

Taxonomy: The taxonomy of the genus *Cryptoblepharus* is controversial and cannot be considered stable despite recent reviews by Rocha *et al.* (2006) and Horner (2007). Based on the results of their mitochondrial sequence analysis, Rocha *et al.* (2006) concluded that the subspecific assignments of the Western Indian Ocean *Cryptoblepharus* are the most appropriate. By contrast, Horner (2007) used morphological characteristics from a small sample to elevate *C. boutonii africanus* to species status. The taxonomy of Horner (2007) is followed in this assessment, in keeping with the adoption of a general evolutionary species paradigm in the *Atlas*. However, it is acknowledged that taxon allocation in allopatric, highly mobile populations, such as those of the *C. boutonii* species complex, is controversial.

Distribution: Endemic to Africa, occurring from South Africa northwards along the east coast to Tanzania, Kenya and Somalia (Rocha *et al.* 2006; Uetz 2012). Within the *Atlas* region it is found only at Black Rock near Kosi Bay in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

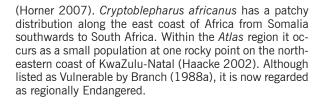
EOO: 0.01 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 0.01 km² (confidence: high).

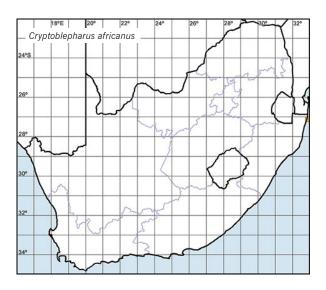
Habitat: Found in the supratidal and intertidal zones of a porous sandstone cliff. During suitable weather conditions it emerges from retreats in the supratidal, upper areas of the cliff to forage in intertidal pools, which it may also use to escape predators (Haacke 1988b, 2002).

Vegetation type: Not applicable.

Assessment rationale: Between 100 and 200 individuals occur at Black Rock (Haacke 2002) and this single, small and restricted regional population is not expected to experience any significant immigration, resulting in a listing of Endangered [D].

Threats: The most serious plausible threat is destruction of habitat via anthropogenic utilisation of the rock outcrop for recreation/tourism or fishing (Haacke 1988b), but







Cryptoblepharus africanus-Black Rock, KZN

J. Marais

there is also the possibility of sea level rise or tsunamis associated with climatic factors.

Conservation measures: Monitor population size, viability and threats. Furthermore, resolve the taxonomic status of the population at Black Rock. Ensure protection of Black Rock by excluding recreational visitors from this critical habitat.

Genus Mochlus Günther, 1864-writhing skinks

Mochlus is a genus of 12 species distributed throughout much of sub-Saharan Africa (Uetz 2012). It was previously included in the genus *Lygosoma*, which is now restricted to Asia (Wagner *et al.* 2009). These are diurnal, semi-fossorial, small- to medium-sized skinks with very

Mochlus sundevallii sundevallii (A. Smith, 1849) SUNDEVALL'S WRITHING SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: There are two subspecies: the widespread *Mochlus sundevallii sundevallii* and the Somalian *M. sundevallii somalica*, which has a longer fifth toe (Branch 1998).

Distribution: Endemic to Africa. Found in southern Angola, Namibia, Zambia, Zimbabwe, northern and northeastern South Africa, Mozambique, Malawi, Tanzania, Kenya and Uganda (Broadley 1966b; Spawls *et al.* 2002). Within the *Atlas* region it is found mainly north of 26°S, in Swaziland, Mpumalanga, Limpopo, Gauteng, North-West Province and Northern Cape, but also in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal.

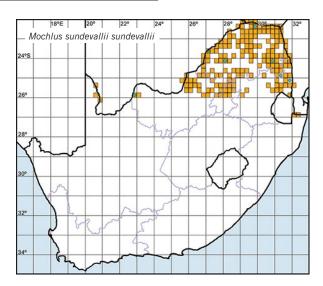
Habitat: A fossorial species found in arid, sandy conditions, usually under suitable surface cover such as logs, rocks or leaf litter, mainly in savanna but also in grassland, from 0–1 800 m (FitzSimons 1943; Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and commonly found when searched for.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

small but fully developed limbs. Females lay clutches of 2–6 soft-shelled eggs (Branch 1998). One subspecies, *M. sundevallii sundevallii*, enters the northern and northeastern parts of the *Atlas* region. It is not of conservation concern.





Mochlus sundevallii sundevallii—Koanaka, W Botswana

J. Marais

Genus Trachylepis Fitzinger, 1843-typical skinks

Although previously placed in the genus *Mabuya*, typical skinks from the Afro-Malagasy region were assigned to *Trachylepis* by Bauer (2003) following the work of Mausfeld *et al.* (2002). There are at least 78 species (Uetz 2012) occurring throughout Africa, Madagascar, parts of southwestern Asia and on Fernando de Noronha, an island off the coast of Brazil. Several additional species are in the process of being described. Thirteen species are found in

Trachylepis capensis (Gray, 1831) CAPE SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the southern parts of Africa. Found in South Africa, Lesotho, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and western Zambia (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000). Widespread in the *Atlas* region but absent from much of the central Northern Cape and Transkei. Populations on the Inyanga Mountains of Zimbabwe and the Liuwa Plain in Zambia appear to be isolated and relictual (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000).

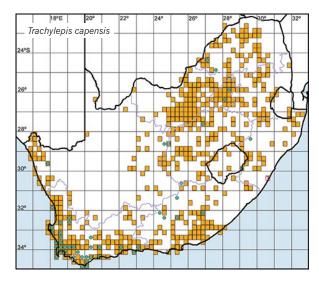
Habitat: A ubiquitous, terrestrial species found in all major biomes of South Africa, although more abundant in grassland, savanna and fynbos at altitudes of 0–2 300 m (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). Recorded from rocky areas, open veld, holes in disused termite mounds and around houses (De Waal 1978). May dig tunnels at the base of vegetation or rocks, and is also fond of areas with mats of dead leaves (Branch 1998).

Biome: Grassland; Fynbos; Savanna; Albany Thicket; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Forests; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and abundant.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

the *Atlas* region, occupying all major biomes. Southern African species are small to large skinks with well-developed limbs. These lizards are diurnal, and terrestrial, rupicolous or arboreal. Most species are viviparous, but a few (e.g. *T. homalocephala*) are oviparous (Branch 1998), and both modes of reproduction have been recorded for *T. capensis* (Brown-Wessels 1989). None of the species in the *Atlas* region are of conservation concern.





Trachylepis capensis—Springbok, NC

J. Marais

Trachylepis depressa (Peters, 1854) EASTERN SAND SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously known as *Mabuya homalocephala depressa* (e.g. Branch 1988b). Recently recognised as a full species, *Trachylepis depressa*, with 5–7 keels per dorsal scale being diagnostic (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000). The identities of older records of *T. homalocephala* should be confirmed in light of this change.

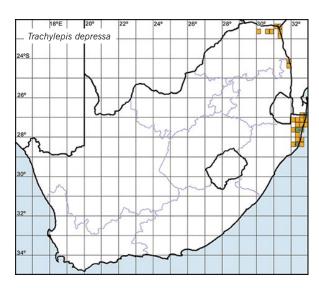
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found in Mozambique, south of the Zambezi, southeastern Zimbabwe and the eastern edge of South Africa (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in the northeastern parts of KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and Limpopo provinces.

Habitat: A terrestrial species found on sandy soils in coastal scrub and in moist habitats fringing the Limpopo River (Branch 1998), at altitudes below 700 m.

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Lowveld; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Mopane; Seashore Vegetation; Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Trachylepis depressa-Cape Vidal, KZN

G.J. Alexander

Trachylepis homalocephala (Wiegmann, 1828) RED-SIDED SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Global: Least Concern

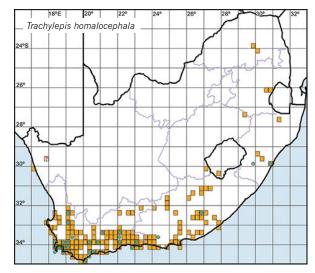
Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously recognised subspecies (*smithi* and *peringueyi*) were treated as junior synonyms of *Mabuya* (= *Trachylepis*) *homalocephala* by Branch (1998), who also elevated *T. depressa* to species status (see also Broadley 2000). The distribution of this species is quite frag-



Trachylepis homalocephala-Koeberg NR, WC

M. Burger



mented, with several apparently isolated populations (e.g. Namaqualand; eastern escarpment). Sequence data for the Namaqualand population, referable to *T. h. peringueyi*, indicate that taxonomic revision is required (B. Maritz *et al.* in prep.). Jacobsen (1989) reported morphological differences between the escarpment populations of Mpumalanga/Limpopo and those in KwaZulu-Natal, but viewed this as a clinal phenomenon. Sequence data from these populations might indicate otherwise. The specific epithet 'homalocephala' is a recent spelling of the original 'homolocephalus' by Wiegmann (1828), but is maintained under Article 33.3.1 of the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature (Bauer 2000; Broadley 2000).

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Found in the Western and Eastern Cape provinces and KwaZulu-Natal, with isolated populations in southern Lesotho, eastern Free State, eastern escarpment in Mpumalanga and Limpopo, and in Namaqualand (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Broadley 2000).

Habitat: A terrestrial species found in moist sandy habitats usually fringing rivers and wetlands (Broadley 2000). Occurs mainly in lowlands and on lower mountain slopes, but occasionally on escarpments, at elevations of up to 1 500 m (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Biome: Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Grassland; Succulent Karoo; Forests; Nama-Karoo; Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Trachylepis homalocephala, male—Port Elizabeth, EC W.R. Branch

Trachylepis margaritifer (Peters, 1854) RAINBOW SKINK

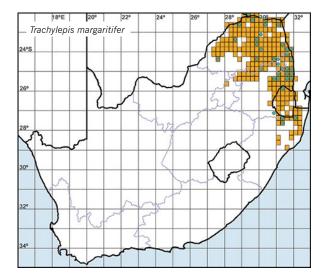
Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Broadley & Bauer's (1999) revision of the *Tra-chylepis quinquetaeniata* group in East Africa led to the re-instatement of *T. margaritifer* as a full species. The specific ending was incorrectly amended (as *T. margaritifera*) but subsequently corrected by Broadley (2001b). *Trachy-lepis margaritifer* differs consistently from *T. quinquetae-niata* with regard to colouration of juveniles and females, and it has higher midbody scale counts; the two taxa have also been found in sympatry in southeastern Kenya (Broadley & Bauer 1999).

Distribution: Endemic to Africa. Found in Kenya, Tanzania, southeastern Zambia, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Swaziland and northeastern South Africa (Broadley & Bauer 1999; Broadley 2000). In South Africa it occurs in northern KwaZulu-Natal, northern and eastern Mpumalanga, Limpopo and the northern parts of Gauteng.

Habitat: A rupicolous species that occurs in large colonies on rock outcrops or vertical structures such as houses and



walls; occupies coastal scrub and mesic or arid savanna up to 1 500 m (Broadley & Bauer 1999; Broadley 2000). **Biome:** Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt. **Assessment rationale:** Widespread and common. **Conservation measures:** None recommended.



Trachylepis margaritifer, male—Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger



Trachylepis margaritifer, female—N of Ingwavuma, Lebombo Mtns, KZN W.R. Branch

Trachylepis occidentalis (Peters, 1867) WESTERN THREE-STRIPED SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

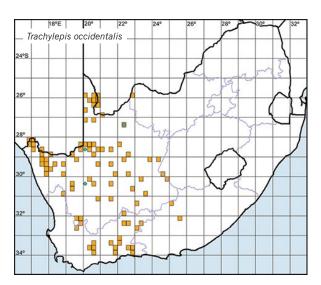
Distribution: Endemic to Africa. Found in western South Africa, Botswana, Namibia and southern Angola (Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in the Northern and Western Cape provinces, adjacent parts of the Eastern Cape, and southwestern Free State.

Habitat: A terrestrial species found in arid scrub and karroid veld, from the coast to altitudes of 900 m in Namaqualand; uses tree clumps and bushes for refuge (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Savanna; Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, occurring in areas with low human density, and found in several protected areas in South Africa.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Trachylepis occidentalis-S of Solitaire, Namibia

W.R. Branch

Trachylepis punctatissima (A. Smith, 1849) SPECKLED ROCK SKINK; MONTANE SPECKLED SKINK

Gavin Masterson

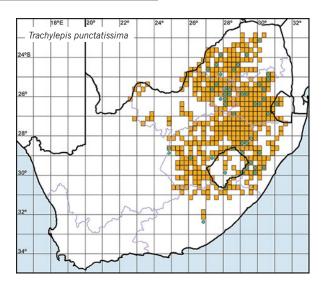
Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Elevated to species status by Broadley (2000), but intergrades between *Trachylepis punctatissima*, *T. striata* and *T. wahlbergii* have been reported from some parts of Botswana and Gauteng. Broadley (2000) recommended that the identity of these specimens be investigated to resolve the specific status of what were previously subspecies of *T. striata*. Older specimen records of the *T. striata* complex should be checked using the key in Broadley (2000).



Trachylepis punctatissima—Kempton Park, GP

W.R. Schmidt



Distribution: Endemic to the southern half of Africa. Found in South Africa and Botswana, with isolated populations in eastern Zimbabwe and parts of Malawi; replaced in southern Malawi by *T. mlanjensis* (Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in the northern half of the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal (excluding eastern and coastal areas), Lesotho, Free State, North-West Province, Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and peripheral areas in the Northern Cape. The southernmost locality (3226BD) is a Virtual Museum record.

Habitat: Rupicolous and/or semi-arboreal, found on rock outcrops, trees and houses, predominantly along the escarpment and on the Highveld. It occurs from the Kwa-Zulu-Natal Midlands (610 m) to elevations of 2 600 m on the Drakensberg escarpment (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000; Bourquin 2004).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and abundant, occurring in numerous protected areas. Commensal with humans in urban habitat.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Trachylepis variegata punctulata was assigned specific status by Broadley (2000) based on consistent morphological differences (keeling of dorsal scales and colour pattern) between it and the nominate form. The specific distinctiveness of this taxon was verified by Portik (2009) using molecular data. A subsequent molecular study by Portik & Bauer (2012) conservatively recognised T. variegata and T. punctulata as distinct species. The presence of two distinct lineages that conform to the described morphology of T. punctulata precluded confirmation of a sister taxon relationship between T. variegata and T. punctulata. Their study indicated that one of these lineages is distributed from northwestern Namibia to the Northern Cape, and the other lineage occurs in Zimbabwe and Limpopo Province. The type locality for this species is southwestern Angola and, although untested, is likely part of the Namibian lineage. As such, the lineage occurring in Zimbabwe and Limpopo Province may require a different name. Additional sampling is required to determine the extent of each lineage, particularly in Botswana and eastern Namibia, and it is unclear if and where the two lineages of T. punctulata come into contact.

Distribution: Endemic to the southern half of Africa. Found in Zambia, northwestern Zimbabwe, south of the Save River in Mozambique, southwestern Angola, Namibia, Botswana and South Africa (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in northern Limpopo, North-West Province, the upper Northern Cape, and Free State. The distribution appears to overlap with that of *T. variegata* (e.g. 2722AD, 2825AA) but this may be due to incorrect identifications and requires further investigation.

Habitat: A terrestrial species found in arid regions (less than 500 mm rainfall per annum), mainly on deep, sandy soils and occasionally on rocky outcrops (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000), at elevations as high as 1 300 m.

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, common and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Trachylepis punctatissima—De Berg Pass, MPM W.R. Branch



Trachylepis punctulata—Leba Pass, SW Angola

W.R. Branch

264

Trachylepis sparsa (Mertens, 1954) KARASBURG TREE SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Elevated to specific status by Broadley (2000), who found no evidence of intergrades between it and *Tra-chylepis striata*, *T. punctatissima* and *T. wahlbergii*. The status of old specimen records for the *T. striata* complex should be confirmed using the key in Broadley (2000).

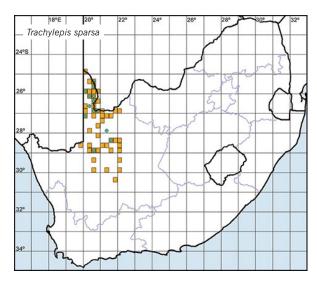
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found in southern Namibia and northwestern South Africa, just entering southwestern Botswana (Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in the central and northern parts of the Northern Cape in a pattern that appears to track the Hartebees River Basin.

Habitat: A semi-arboreal species usually found on large trees in dry watercourses, but also found in Sociable Weaver (*Philetairus socius*) nests and on rock piles, in arid savanna and karroid veld (Broadley 2000), at altitudes of 300–1 000 m.

Bioregion: Kalahari Duneveld; Bushmanland; Inland Saline Vegetation; Eastern Kalahari Bushveld; Alluvial Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Trachylepis sparsa—Askham, NC

J. Marais

Trachylepis spilogaster (Peters, 1882) KALAHARI TREE SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

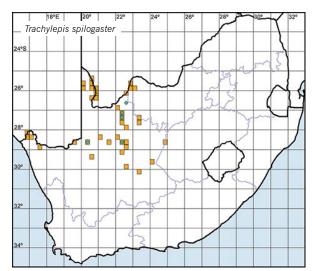
Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, Namibia and Angola (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it occurs in the Northern Cape and extreme western North-West Province, along the Orange, Kuruman and Hartebees rivers and in surrounding habitat (Branch 1998; Broadley



Trachylepis spilogaster-Kamanjab, Namibia

W.R.Branch



2000). SARCA surveys recorded the southernmost distribution limits for the species in the Copperton (2922DC) and Omdraaisvlei (3023AB) regions.

Habitat: An arboreal species found on trees and other vertical structures, even in close proximity to human habitation (Bauer *et al.* 1993). Often found along dry river courses in arid savanna, up to altitudes of 1 000 m, and occasionally in sympatry with the Karasburg Tree Skink, *T. sparsa* (Broadley 2000).

Bioregion: Eastern Kalahari Bushveld; Bushmanland; Kalahari Duneveld; Upper Karoo; Inland Saline Vegetation; Gariep Desert; Richtersveld; Alluvial Vegetation.

Trachylepis striata (Peters, 1844)

STRIPED SKINK; EASTERN STRIPED SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Binomials are applicable following Broadley's (2000) elevation of *Trachylepis striata punctatissima*, *T. s. wahlbergii* and *T. s. sparsa* to species status. However, some confusion still exists regarding the status of these three taxa, as intergrades have been reported from some parts of their overlapping ranges. Molecular data suggest that the two most widespread members of the *T. striata* species complex, i.e. *T. striata* and *T. wahlbergii*, may not be reciprocally monophyletic (Castiglia *et al.* 2006). The entire complex requires re-examination at the phylogeographic scale. Older specimen records of the *T. striata* complex need to be confirmed using the key provided in Broadley (2000).

Distribution: Endemic to Africa. Found in South Sudan, Ethiopia, eastern Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Zambia, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, eastern South Africa and Swaziland (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in the eastern lowlands of Kwa-Zulu-Natal, Swaziland (excluding Highveld), eastern Mpumalanga and Limpopo.

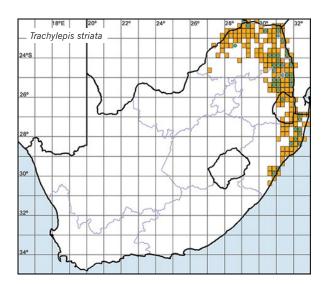
Habitat: Rupicolous or arboreal. Found on trees and other vertical structures such as huts and houses, in savanna woodland, from coastal plains and mangroves to low mountain slopes along the eastern escarpment of South Africa, up to 1 000 m (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 2000; Bourquin 2004).



Trachylepis striata—Cleveland NR, S of Phalaborwa, LIMP

M. Burger

Assessment rationale: Widespread, occurring in areas of low human density where threats are at a minimum. **Conservation measures:** None recommended.



Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, common and commensal with humans (Broadley 2000).

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Trachylepis striata—St Lucia, KZN

W.R. Schmidt

Trachylepis sulcata sulcata Peters, 1867 WESTERN ROCK SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

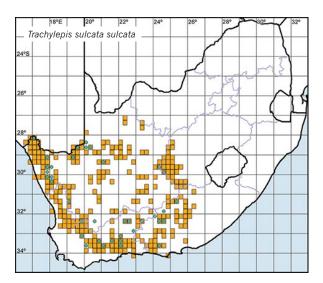
Taxonomy: Three poorly defined subspecies of *Trachylepis* sulcata have been recognised, namely T. s. sulcata, T. s. ansorgii and T. s. nigra (Bauer et al. 1993; Branch 1998). In a morphology-based review of the African members of the genus Mabuya (= Trachylepis) by Broadley (2000), the taxonomic status of the subspecies of T. sulcata was not assessed (D.G. Broadley pers. comm.). In a recent molecular study, T. s. nigra-from Lüderitz, Namibiawas found to be merely a melanistic form which is not genetically distinct from the nominate subspecies (Portik et al. 2010, 2011). Trachylepis s. ansorgi occurs in Angola and possibly northern Namibia (Bauer et al. 1993; Portik 2009), but its status is uncertain.

Distribution: Endemic to Namibia and the western and central parts of South Africa (Broadley 2000). Within the Atlas region it is found in the Northern, Western and (western) Eastern Cape provinces, and southwestern Free State.

Habitat: A rupicolous skink found in groups on rock outcrops in arid savanna, karroid veld and desert (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000), from sea level to 1 000 m.



Trachylepis sulcata sulcata, male-Sperrgebiet, Nambia



Biome: Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Fynbos; Grassland; Savanna; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and abundant.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Trachylepis sulcata sulcata, female-Springbok, NC

J. Marais

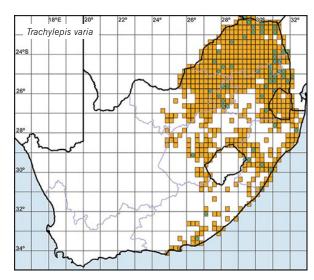
Trachylepis varia (Peters, 1867) VARIABLE SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: There appear to be several cryptic species within the taxon currently known as Trachylepis varia (A.M. Bauer pers. comm.). Loveridge (1953) described T. v. nyikae from Malawi, but Broadley (2000) did not find support for this taxon. Jacobsen (1989) reported on specimens that he referred to as 'Mabuya sp. nov. aff. lacertiformis (Peters)' and described as intermediate between T. varia and T. lacertiformis, based on lepidosis and colouration. He provided notes and a distribution map based on the 181 specimens of this form. However, the identity of these specimens remains unresolved and they are excluded from this assessment.

Distribution: Endemic to Africa. Found in Sudan, South Sudan, Somalia, throughout East Africa, Zambia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Mozambique, Zimbabwe,



Botswana, Namibia and eastern South Africa (Broadley 2000). Within the Atlas region it is found in the Eastern Cape, northeastern Northern Cape, Free State, North-West Province, Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Kwa-Zulu-Natal, Swaziland and western Lesotho (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Broadley 2000).

Habitat: A terrestrial species commonly found in open, rocky habitat in coastal scrub, montane grassland and savanna, from sea level to 1 900 m, in areas with arid or wet climates (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998; Broadley 2000; Bourquin 2004).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and abundant, occurring in several protected areas.

Conservation measures: Update this assessment once the unanswered taxonomic questions have been resolved.

Trachylepis varia-Cleveland NR, S of Phalaborwa, LIMP

M. Burger

Trachylepis variegata (Peters, 1870) VARIEGATED SKINK

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

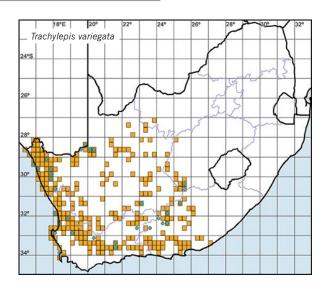
Taxonomy: Broadley (2000) raised Mabuya variegata punctulata to species status on the basis of morphological differences between it and M. v. variegata. This is supported by molecular phylogenetic data (Portik 2009). Trachylepis variegata therefore reverts to binomials. A subsequent molecular study by Portik & Bauer (2012) showed that this species appears to be comprised of a single widespread lineage. However, additional sampling is needed, especially in south-central Namibia, to test whether the northwestern subclade is of any taxonomic significance.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found in southern Angola, Namibia and the western half of South Africa (Branch 1998; Broadley 2000). Within the Atlas region it is found in the Northern, Western and Eastern Cape provinces, southwestern Free State, and peripherally in western North-West Province. The distribution appears to overlap with that of T. punctulata (e.g. at 2722AD, 2825AA), but this may be due to incorrect identifications and requires further investigation.



Trachylepis variegata—Augrabies, NC

J. Marais



Habitat: A terrestrial species found in the dry western half of southern Africa, mainly in rocky areas but also in sandy gravel habitat (Broadley 2000).

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Savanna; Grassland; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Trachylepis variegata—Farm Donkiedam, NW of Loeriesfontein, NC M. Burger

SUBFAMILY SCINCINAE

These mainly Old World skinks are characterised by divided frontal and nasal bones. They display great variation in body size and form, with numerous independent lineages developing a serpentine body and varying degrees of limb loss. The content and relationships of the subfamily remain problematic, with no support for the monophyly of the subfamilies Scincinae and Lygosominae (Whiting *et al.* 2003; Austin & Arnold 2006; Brandley *et al.* 2005). Around 30 genera are recognised, but their relationships are obscure (Whiting *et al.* 2004; Schmitz *et al.* 2004, 2005b). The scincines of sub-Saharan Africa form a well supported monophyletic group of 7–8 genera, which appears to be sister to a clade containing burrowing lizards of the genera *Typhlacontias*, *Melanoseps* and *Feylinia* (Whiting *et al.* 2003, 2004). Only a single genus, *Scelotes*, is represented in the *Atlas* region.

lizards are found primarily in coastal areas, although the

ranges of several species extend inland, and the ranges of a

few species (S. capensis, S. bourquini, S. limpopoensis, S.

mirus) are situated entirely inland. Scelotes are small fos-

sorial lizards with varying degrees of limb loss. They occur

in leaf litter or in the subsurface of loamy and sandy soils.

Genus Scelotes Fitzinger, 1826-dwarf burrowing skinks

There are reportedly 21–24 species in the genus *Scelotes* (Branch 1998; Bauer *et al.* 2003; Uetz 2012). However, confusion still exists in this regard because the monophyly of all species currently assigned to the genus has not been confirmed by phylogenetic analysis, and some have been assigned to other genera—e.g. *S. poensis* and *S. shebeni* have been referred to *Melanoseps* (Brygoo & Roux-Esteve 1982). The most recently described species are *S. mon-tispectus* from the Western Cape (Bauer *et al.* 2003) and three species (*S. bourquini*, *S. fitzsimonsi*, *S. vestigifer*) from KwaZulu-Natal (Broadley 1994). *Scelotes* is largely restricted to southern Africa, with only one species found further north (*S. uluguruensis* in Tanzania). Eighteen species (one with two subspecies) occur in the *Atlas* region, but additional undescribed species may be present. These

Scelotes anguineus (Boulenger, 1887) ALGOA DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

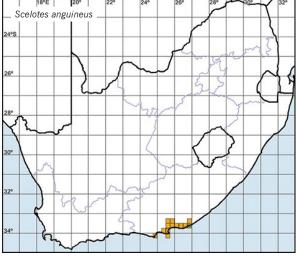
Distribution: Endemic to the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Largely restricted to the Algoa Bay region, from Cape St Francis (3424BB) in the west to Port Alfred (3326DB) in the east.



Scelotes anguineus—St Francis Bay, EC

J. Marais

Females produce litters of 1–5 young (Branch 1998). Most species in the *Atlas* region are endemic and have restricted ranges. Four taxa were previously listed as Red Data species (Branch 1988a) but seven are currently considered to be of conservation concern: *S. guentheri* is regarded as being Extinct, *S. inornatus* is classified as Critically Endangered, *S. bourquini* is considered Vulnerable, and four taxa (*S. gronovii*, *S. kasneri*, *S. limpopoensis albiventris*, *S. montispectus*) are categorised as Near Threatened.





Scelotes anguineus—Port Elizabeth, EC

W.R. Branch

Habitat: Inhabits coastal dunes and thickets (Branch & Braack 1987).

Bioregion: Albany Thicket; Estuarine Vegetation; Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld; Alluvial Vegetation; Eastern Strandveld; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Seashore Vegetation.

Scelotes arenicolus (Peters, 1854) ZULULAND DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The species was reviewed by Broadley (1994) and there are no outstanding issues.

Distribution: A near-endemic occurring from Lake Sibaya in KwaZulu-Natal into southern Mozambique as far north as Inhambane (Broadley 1994). Records from St Lucia Village and Cape Vidal are doubtful and have been omitted from the map, following Broadley (1994) and Bourquin (2004).

Habitat: Inhabits vegetated coastal dunes and sandy coastal areas up to approximately 100 m elevation (Bourquin 2004).

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Lowveld; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is fairly common and not threatened. Occurs in several protected areas such as Ndumo Game Reserve and iSimangaliso Wetland Park.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is common (J. Marais pers. obs.) and not threatened.

Conservation measures: Conduct further research into population numbers, biology, ecology, threats and habitat status.

 18°E
 20°
 22°
 24°
 26°
 28°
 30°
 32°

 28°
 30°
 32°
 34°
 34°
 34°
 34°
 32°
 34°
 32°
 34°
 34°
 34°
 32°
 34°
 32°
 34°
 34°
 36°
 32°
 32°
 34°
 36°
 32°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°
 36°



Scelotes arenicolus—Kosi Bay, KZN

J. Marais

Scelotes bidigittatus FitzSimons, 1930 LOWVELD DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

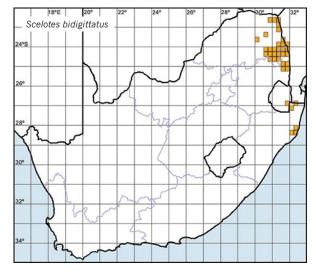
Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species was reviewed by Broadley (1994) and there are no outstanding issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Found from St Lucia Village and Mtubatuba in KwaZulu-Natal, northwards into Swaziland and the eastern parts of Mpumalanga (including the Kruger National Park) and Limpopo. It is likely to occur in southern Mozambique but this has not been verified (Pienaar *et al.* 1983; Broadley 1994).

Habitat: Fossorial, occurring under debris in loose soil in Lowveld bush and savanna, from sea level to 1 100 m (Pienaar *et al.* 1983; Jacobsen 1989; Bourquin 2004).



Biome: Savanna; Forests; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread and common. Conservation measures: None recommended.



Scelotes bidigittatus-Hoedspruit, LIMP

J. Marais

Scelotes bipes (Linnaeus, 1766) SILVERY DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Branch (1998) treated *S. bipes sexlineatus* as a full species, rendering *S. bipes* monotypic. A molecular analysis by Heideman *et al.* (2011) confirmed the specific distinctness of the two taxa.

Distribution: A South African endemic that occurs in the Western Cape from Mossel Bay to near Saldanha Bay, and on Robben Island. There appear to be five distinct populations, with substantial gaps between some of them.

Habitat: Fossorial, occurring in areas of sandy soil (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Southwest Fynbos; West Strandveld; South Coast Fynbos; West Coast Renosterveld; South Strandveld; Northwest Fynbos.

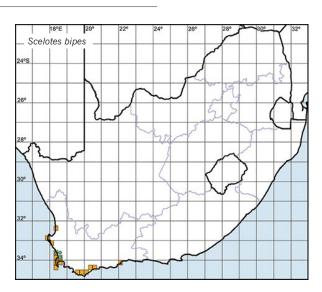
Assessment rationale: Has a fairly restricted range but is abundant and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Scelotes bipes-Cape Peninsula, WC

A.L. de Villiers





Scelotes bipes—Koeberg NR, WC

W.R. Branch

Scelotes bourquini Broadley, 1994 BOURQUIN'S DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(i,ii,iii,iv,v)

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species was incorrectly listed as *Scelotes guentheri* in the South African Red Data Book (Bourquin 1988).

Distribution: Endemic to KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, where it is found in the Midlands between Howick and Nottingham Road.

EOO: 7 762 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 3 771 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Inhabits mesic areas in primary and secondary grasslands at elevations of 950–1 250 m (Bourquin 2004).

Vegetation type: Gs 9 Midlands Mistbelt Grassland.

Assessment rationale: EOO is below the Vulnerable threshold. The range is severely fragmented [B1a] and there is continuing decline in EOO and AOO [B1b(i,ii)] and area, extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii)] due to urban development and agriculture (Bourquin 1988). There is probably an associated decline in number of locations/ subpopulations [B1b(iv)] and mature individuals [B1b(v)].

Threats: Habitat is threatened by urban development, plantations of alien species, and habitat-destructive agricultural practices (Bourquin 1988). This species also has a restricted range and limited dispersal abilities.

Conservation measures: Scelotes bourquini is poorly represented in protected areas and there is severe habitat loss in the KwaZulu-Natal Midlands. Conduct further research into its distribution and natural history, and assess the extent of habitat destruction.

Scelotes caffer (Peters, 1861) CAPE DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

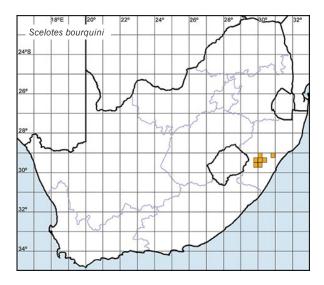
Endemic

Taxonomy: The highly disjunct distribution and significant morphological variation in this species suggest that more than one species is subsumed under this name. Further investigation of interpopulational variation is therefore necessary (Branch 1990a; Branch & Bauer 1995).



Scelotes caffer-Eland's Bay area, WC

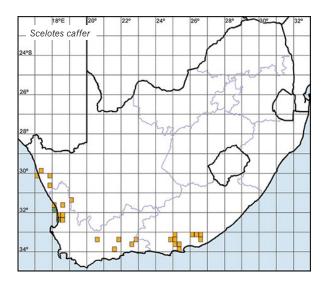
A.L. de Villiers





Scelotes bourquini-Nottingham Road, KZN

J. Marais



Distribution: Endemic to South Africa. Found in the western parts of the Northern Cape, Western Cape, and southern parts of the Eastern Cape. There are scattered populations near Grahamstown, in the Little Karoo, on the West Coast at Elandsberg, at Brandberg in Little Namaqualand, and near Calvinia in the western Karoo.

Habitat: Found under stones and amongst dead plants in the east, and usually under litter in flat sandy areas on the West Coast (Branch & Bauer 1995; Branch 1998).

Biome: Albany Thicket; Fynbos; Succulent Karoo. **Assessment rationale:** Widespread and fairly common. **Conservation measures:** None recommended.

Scelotes capensis A. Smith, 1849 WESTERN DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

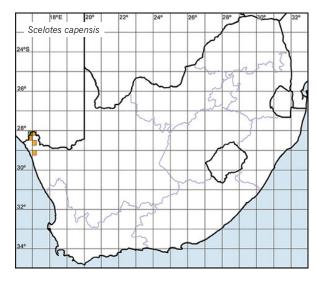
Distribution: Endemic to Namibia and the Northern Cape, South Africa. Found from southern and central Namibia to Lekkersing in the southern Richtersveld (Branch 1994a; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]; Griffin 2003).

Habitat: Inhabits mesic microhabitats on vegetated rocky slopes in succulent veld, and rocky areas in the southern Namib Desert (Berger-Dell'mour 1987; Branch 1994a; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). Usually occurs on slopes at elevations up to 1 000 m.

Bioregion: Richtersveld; Gariep Desert; Southern Namib Desert.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range within the *Atlas* region but is abundant and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Scelotes capensis-Numees Mine, Richtersveld NP, NC

W.R. Branch

Scelotes fitzsimonsi Broadley, 1994 FITZSIMONS' DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Specimens from Vernon Crookes Nature Reserve and Durban are probably incorrectly identified or represent undescribed species (Branch 1998).

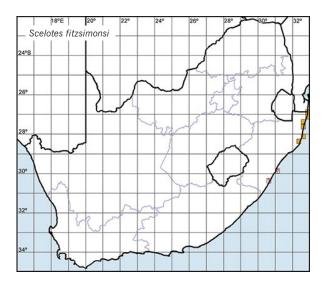
Distribution: Endemic to northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Found from the Mozambique border at Kosi Bay southwards to St Lucia Village. Specimens from Durban and Vernon Crookes Nature Reserve, marked as questionable on the map, were probably misidentified or may represent a new species.

Habitat: Occurs in sandy soil in, and adjacent to, coastal dune forest below 100 m (Bourguin 2004).

Bioregion: Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO 6 750 km² [B1]) but is fairly common and not threatened. Most of its distribution falls within the protected iSimangaliso Wetland Park.

Conservation measures: Conduct research into population numbers, biology, ecology, habitat and potential threats.





Scelotes fitzsimonsi-St Lucia, KZN

J. Marais

Scelotes gronovii (Daudin, 1802) GRONOVI'S DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: A molecular assessment by Heideman *et al.* (2011) determined that the population of *S. gronovii* at Elands Bay and the nearby Steenboksfontein Farm may represent a distinct species. The taxonomic status of these populations is under investigation (M.F. Bates in prep.).

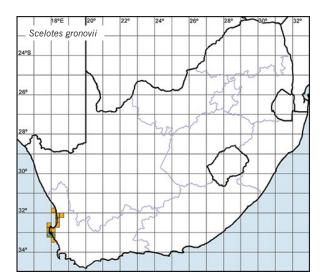
Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, occurring from Doringbaai in the north to Robben Island in the south, and inland to Graafwater. Also occurs on Dassen Island (Branch 1998).

EOO: 11 250 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 5 940 km² (confidence: high).



Scelotes gronovii-Dassen Island, WC

```
A.L. de Villiers
```



Habitat: Fossorial, inhabiting sparsely-vegetated coastal dunes and strandveld, chiefly at elevations below 100 m (Baard 1988a).

Bioregion: West Strandveld; Seashore Vegetation; Northwest Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: The EOO for this species is below the Vulnerable threshold [B1], and agricultural practices and human development continue to destroy suitable habitat [B1b(ii,iii)]. However, the distribution is not severely fragmented, the taxon occurs at more than 10 locations, and there is no evidence of severe fluctuations in population numbers. *Scelotes gronovii* is therefore considered Near Threatened. **Threats:** Further research into potential threats is required. Development of the coastal zone for human settlement and recreation, as well as habitat destruction by off-road vehicles, agricultural practices, mining and human settlements, could pose threats in future (Baard 1988a).

Scelotes guentheri Boulenger, 1887 GÜNTHER'S DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Extinct

Endemic

Taxonomy: There has been confusion regarding the identity of this species in the past. *Scelotes guentheri*, as discussed by Bourquin (1988), is the species now regarded as *S. bourquini* (Broadley 1994). Because *S. guentheri* is known from only a single specimen, its taxonomic status remains uncertain; however, most authors have considered it a valid species (e.g. FitzSimons 1943; Broadley 1994; Branch 1998).

Distribution: Described by Boulenger in 1887 on the basis of a single specimen from 'Port Natal' somewhere near Durban. This species has not been found again in more than 125 years, despite recent intensive efforts. Extensive surveys in the greater Durban area failed to produce any specimens (J. Marais unpubl. data). These surveys included Marianhill, an area where the Reverend Henry Callaway may well have found the first and only specimen when travelling by ox-wagon from Pietermaritzburg.

Habitat: Unknown.

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt. Locality description vague, therefore vegetation type unknown.

Assessment rationale: No specimens of this species have been found in over 120 years, despite directed searches near the type locality. There are also no known captive specimens, so the species' status as Extinct (see Broadley 1994) is now confirmed.

Threats: Apparently this species had limited dispersal capabilities and a restricted range. Conversion of habitat in the Durban area for agriculture and human settlement

Scelotes inornatus A. Smith, 1849 DURBAN DWARF BURROWING SKINK; SMITH'S DWARF BURROWING SKINK

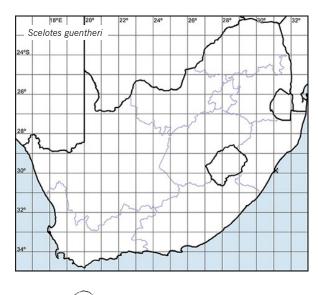
Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

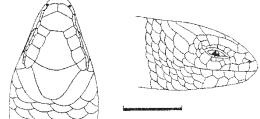
Global: Critically Endangered B2ab(i,ii,iii,iv,v) Endemic

Taxonomy: This species was reviewed by Broadley (1994) and there are no outstanding issues.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and limited to the greater Durban area of KwaZulu-Natal, from the Durban beachfront (next to the old FitzSimons Snake Park) in the north to Scottburgh in the south, and as far inland as Woodlands/Montclair. The published localities (Broadley 1994) on the northern and southern banks of the Umgeni River (2931CC) are incorrect; no voucher specimens exist for these records and they probably represent *S. mossam*-

Conservation measures: Conduct research into population numbers, biology, ecology, habitat status and potential threats. If the Elands Bay-Steenboksfontein population proves to be a distinct species, a separate assessment of this population and the other population further south will need to be conducted.





Scelotes guentheri—Durban, KZN, from Broadley 1994, after Boulenger 1887

may have been a major cause of extinction (Bourquin 1988; Broadley 1994).

Conservation measures: Not applicable as this species is deemed extinct.

 16%E
 22%
 24%
 26%
 28%
 30%
 32%

 24%S

 26%

 26%

 30°

 30°

 30°

 30°

 30°

 30°

 32°

 34°

bicus. There are nevertheless several additional valid records of this species from that QDGC.

EOO: 142 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 4.7 km² (confidence: high).

Habitat: Found in Berea Red Sand associated with coastal forest below 70 m (Bourquin 2004) and within 4 km of the ocean.

Vegetation type: CB 3 KwaZulu-Natal Coastal Belt; FOz 7 Northern Coastal Forest.

Assessment rationale: EOO approaching, and AOO below, the Critically Endangered threshold. Severe fragmentation of range [B2a]. Development of roads, housing, industries and farmland has resulted in an observed and projected decline in EOO (apparently extirpated at Stamford Hill) [B2b(i)] and an observed and projected decline in AOO (e.g. Marlight Road) [B2b(ii)]. Such developments have also resulted in an observed and projected (and continuing) decline in the area, extent and quality of habitat [B2b(iii)], and a decrease in the number of subpopulations/locations [B2b(iv)] and mature individuals [B2b(v)].

Threats: Development of roads, housing, industries and farmland cause habitat destruction and severe fragmen-

Scelotes kasneri FitzSimons, 1939 KASNER'S DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Although there appears to be significant genetic divergence between this species and the morphologically similar *Scelotes montispectus* (Bauer *et al.* 2003), further investigation of species' boundaries in these taxa and related forms is required. A molecular assessment by Heideman *et al.* (2011) determined that the population of *S. kasneri* at Elands Bay may represent a distinct species. The taxonomic status of the latter population is under investigation (M.F. Bates in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa, occurring from Darling in the south to Lamberts Bay and Clanwilliam in the north.

EOO: 10 800 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 3 780 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Occurs in coastal dunes, often under stones or other debris, or in association with the roots of plants, chiefly below 300 m (Baard 1988b).

Bioregion: Northwest Fynbos; West Strandveld; West Coast Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: Scelotes kasneri meets the area requirements for Vulnerable under B1 (EOO <20 000 km²), but fragmentation is moderate and there is no evidence to suggest extreme fluctuations in range or population numbers. Habitat destruction by urban development and agricultural practices could be problematic and the species is therefore regarded as Near Threatened.

Threats: Potential threats are related to developments and activities associated with mining, human settlement, agriculture and tourism, and include degradation of sand dune habitat and damage by off-road vehicles.

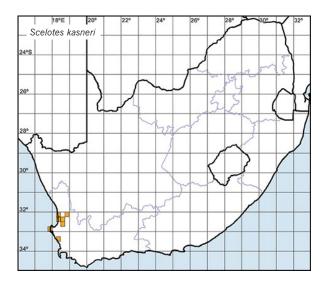


Scelotes inornatus—Durban, KZN

J. Marais

tation (J. Marais unpubl. data). Further fragmentation is projected.

Conservation measures: It is likely that all localities at which this species occurs are known. Therefore, conduct a PHVA and establish a BMP-S to prevent further habitat destruction. Additionally, develop protective legislation and conduct further research into population numbers, biology, ecology, habitat quality and potential threats.





Scelotes kasneri—Clanwilliam, WC

J. Marais

Conservation measures: Conduct further research into population numbers, biology, ecology and potential threats. If the Elands Bay population proves to be a separate species, a separate assessment of this population and the other population further north will need to be conducted.

SCINCIDAE

Scelotes limpopoensis limpopoensis FitzSimons 1930

LIMPOPO DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Two subspecies of *Scelotes limpopoensis* are currently recognised, namely *S. I. limpopoensis* and *S. I. albiventris*. Molecular phylogenetic investigations are needed to determine taxon boundaries and the taxonomic status of these two forms.

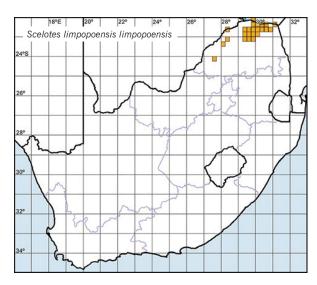
Distribution: A southern African endemic occurring in Limpopo, South Africa, from the northwestern Kruger National Park westwards to the foothills of the Soutpansberg and Waterberg, and northwards into adjacent Zimbabwe and Botswana (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Habitat: A fossorial skink inhabiting aeolian sands in mesic savanna at altitudes of 300–1 100 m (Pienaar *et al.* 1983; Jacobsen 1987b, 1989).

Bioregion: Mopane; Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Alluvial Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Has a moderately restricted range but is fairly common and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Scelotes limpopoensis limpopoensis—Mapungubwe, LIMP

J. Marais

Scelotes limpopoensis albiventris Jacobsen, 1987 WHITE-BELLIED DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Molecular phylogenetic investigations are required to evaluate the relationship between *S. I. limpopoensis* and *S. I. albiventris*.

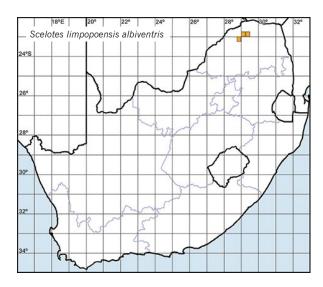
Distribution: A South African endemic with an extremely limited range, from just west of the Blouberg Nature Reserve to Langjan Nature Reserve and vicinity, in the Soutpansberg district of Limpopo Province (Jacobsen 1987b).

EOO: 2 700 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 1 620 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: A fossorial skink, inhabiting deep aeolian sands in woodland at elevations of 800–1 050 m (Jacobsen 1987b, 1989; Branch & Jacobsen 1988b).

Vegetation type: SVcb 19 Limpopo Sweet Bushveld; SVmp 1 Musina Mopane Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: This taxon meets the area requirements for Endangered under B1 (EOO <5 000 km²) and Vulnerable under B2 (AOO <2 000 km²). There is a fair amount of agricultural activity within the area occupied, including irrigation for crops adjacent to available water, so a continued decline in area, extent and quality of habitat is inferred [B1b(iii), B2b(iii)]. However, there is no information on population size or trends, habitat fragmenta-





Scelotes limpopoensis albiventris- Malebogo NR, LIMP

tion is slight, and there is no observed decline in EOO or AOO. This skink is thus considered to be Near Threatened.

Threats: No serious extrinsic threats have been noted (Branch & Jacobsen 1988b) but the subspecies has limited dispersal abilities and a restricted range. A number of

Scelotes mirus (Roux, 1907) MONTANE DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species was reviewed by Broadley (1994) and there are no outstanding taxonomic issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region, occurring from the northern half of KwaZulu-Natal northwards into Swaziland, Mpumalanga and southern Limpopo. It may also occur in southern Mozambique. The southernmost limit is based on a Virtual Museum record from near Babanango (2831AC).

Habitat: Inhabits rocky montane grasslands and scrub, at elevations of 800–2 000 m (Jacobsen 1989; Bourquin 2004).

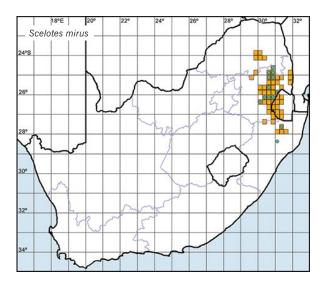
Biome: Grassland; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

agricultural activities, including crop irrigation, take place within its range.

Conservation measures: Research should be conducted on taxonomy, population numbers, biology, ecology, habitat requirements and potential threats.





Scelotes mirus—Barberton, MPM

W.R. Schmidt

Scelotes montispectus Bauer, Whiting & Sadlier, 2003 BLOUBERGSTRAND DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

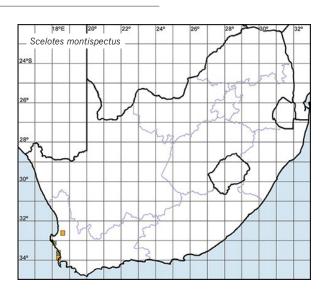
Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Although Bauer *et al.* (2003) found a relatively large genetic divergence between *Scelotes montispectus* and the related *S. kasneri*, further investigations of the species' boundaries of these morphologically similar taxa are required. Heideman *et al.* (2011) recognised *S. montispectus* as distinct from *S. kasneri*, based on small morphological differences and geographical separation, but they did not find strong molecular support for this.

Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa, where it is known from Bloubergstrand, Blaauwberg Conservation Area, Koeberg Nature Reserve, Mamre Nature Reserve, Melkbosstrand, West Coast National Park, Langebaan and Tweekuilen.

EOO: 6 750 $\rm km^2$ (confidence: high); AOO: 1 620 $\rm km^2$ (confidence: medium).



Habitat: Inhabits sparsely-vegetated coastal dunes near sea level (Bauer *et al.* 2003).

Vegetation type: FS 6 Cape Flats Dune Strandveld.

Assessment rationale: This recently described species is known from only 10 specimens, most of which were collected during the course of the SARCA project. There is incomplete knowledge on distribution, habitat requirements, population size, population structure and threats. Most localities at which S. *montispectus* has been found are in protected areas. However, EOO and AOO fall below the Vulnerable thresholds [B1+2] and there are probably 6–10 locations [B1a, B2a]. There is also evidence



Scelotes montispectus-Koeberg, WC

W.R. Branch

of some habitat destruction within the range, but the extent and effects of this require more detailed evaluation. It seems most appropriate at this time to consider the species as Near Threatened.

Threats: Probably threatened by the transformation of coastal habitat for human habitation and recreation, and the use of off-road vehicles (Bauer *et al.* 2003). In addition, it has limited dispersal capabilities and a restricted range.

Conservation measures: Conduct more research into population numbers, biology, ecology, habitat quality and potential threats. Improve public awareness of the species. Draw up a BMP-S.



Scelotes montispectus—Koeberg NR, WC

M. Burger

Scelotes mossambicus (Peters, 1882) MOZAMBIQUE DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: This species has been confused with *S. fitz-simonsi* (Broadley 1994) in the past. *Scelotes brevipes*, long regarded as a distinct species, was synonymised with *S. mossambicus* by Broadley (1994).

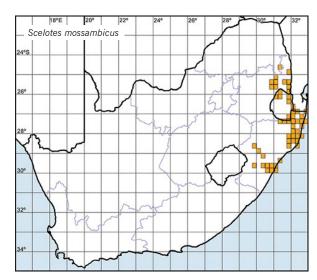
Distribution: A southern African endemic occurring from Durban in KwaZulu-Natal northwards into southern Mozambique (as far as Inhambane), Swaziland, northeastern Mpumalanga and peripherally in adjacent parts of Limpopo (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1994).

Habitat: Inhabits rocky grassland and alluvial sands from the coast to 1 300 m (Pienaar *et al.* 1983; Jacobsen 1989; Bourquin 2004). Some populations persist in disturbed areas (J. Marais unpubl. data).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Scelotes mossambicus—Mtubatuba, KZN

Scelotes sexlineatus (Harlan, 1824) STRIPED DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

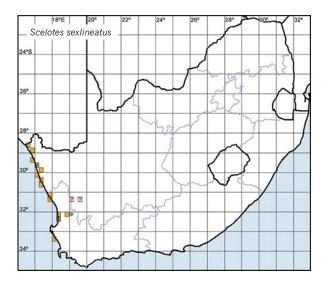
Taxonomy: Previously considered a subspecies of *S. bipes* but treated as a full species by Branch (1998). A molecular analysis by Heideman *et al.* (2011) confirmed that *S. sexlineatus* is a distinct species.

Distribution: A South African endemic occurring along the West Coast from near Suurfontein (Western Cape) northwards to Alexander Bay (Northern Cape), with populations in the Clanwilliam, Calvinia and Nieuwoudtville areas. There is a possibility that this species may also occur in Namibia. Two old inland records are considered questionable as they are somewhat out-of-range and the specimen identifications require confirmation.

Habitat: Inhabits sandy soils in Succulent Karoo at elevations of 0–500 m (A.M. Bauer & J. Marais pers. obs.). **Biome:** Succulent Karoo; Fynbos.



Scelotes sexlineatus-McDougall's Bay, S of Port Nolloth, NC J. Marais



Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread and common. Conservation measures: None recommended.



Scelotes sexlineatus-McDougall's Bay, S of Port Nolloth, NC W.R. Branch

Scelotes vestigifer Broadley, 1994 COASTAL DWARF BURROWING SKINK

Johan Marais & Aaron M. Bauer

Global: Least Concern

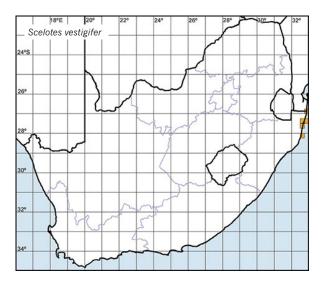
Near-endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomy of this species was reviewed by Broadley (1994).



Scelotes vestigifer-near Sodwana Bay, KZN

J. Marais



Distribution: A southern African endemic that occurs along the KwaZulu-Natal coast from Cape Vidal northwards to Ponta do Ouro in southern Mozambique (Broadley 1994). A record from St Lucia Village is doubtful, could not be confirmed after detailed searches of the area (J. Marais unpubl. data), and is not plotted on the map. **Habitat:** Found in sandy coastal dunes at elevations below 100 m (Bourquin 2004).

Vegetation type: FOz 7 Northern Coastal Forest; CB 1 Maputaland Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is fairly common (J. Marais unpubl. obs.) and not threatened.

Conservation measures: Conduct research into population numbers, habitat, biology, ecology and threats.



Scelotes vestigifer-E shores, Lake St Lucia, KZN

W.R. Branch

CHAPTER 15

Family Varanidae

William R. Branch & Graham J. Alexander

Varanidae is a small family of lizards that occurs through Africa and the Middle East, to India, Sri Lanka and China, extending down through Southeast Asia to Indonesia, the Philippines, New Guinea, Australia, and western Melanesia and Micronesia. Its range also includes many islands in the South China Sea and eastern Indian Ocean (but not Madagascar and adjacent islands). All living monitor lizards (73 species; Uetz 2012) are placed in the genus Varanus, with nine subgenera recognised. Four of the five African species, and V. yemensis from the Arabian Peninsula, are placed in the subgenus Polydaedalus, with the Desert Monitor (V. griseus) on its own in the subgenus Psammosaurus (King et al. 1991; Green & King 1993; Böhme 2003). Despite this group reaching its greatest diversity in Australasia, the earliest Varanus fossils were found in late Eocene and early Oligocene freshwater deposits in Egypt, indicating that the genus arose in Africa before dispersing to Australia and Asia (Holmes et al. 2010).

Varanids include the world's largest lizards. The Asian water monitor (*V. salvator*) grows to 3.21 m in length but reaches a maximum weight of only 25 kg. The Ko-modo Dragon (*V. komodoensis*) is fractionally shorter but much heavier; the largest verified wild specimen attained 3.13 m in length and weighed about 166 kg (Ciofi 1999). Even larger fossil species are known. *Varanus priscus* (also known as *Megalania prisca*) was a very large Australian species that became extinct 40 000 years BP, soon after modern humans entered that continent (Molnar 2004; Pianka *et al.* 2004). It has been calculated that large specimens may have reached over 7 m in length and weighed 1 940 kg (Molnar 2004).

Although varying greatly in adult size (from 120 mm to over 3 m), monitors are similar in appearance, having well-developed limbs and strong claws; a long tail that is usually laterally compressed and cannot be shed or regenerated; a long and flexible neck; small, polygonal, non-overlapping, bead-like scales that lack osteoderms; a single pair of pre-anal pores; and a long, smooth, retractile tongue similar to that of snakes.

Monitor lizards live in a wide variety of habitats, ranging from mangrove swamps and dense forests to savannas and arid deserts. Several species are semi-aquatic and many of these regularly undertake sea crossings. All except two fruit-eating Asian species (V. prasinus and V. olivaceus) are predatory, swallowing prey whole or first tearing it to bits with their strong claws. Small species eat insects while larger species take any prey that they can overcome. The Rock Monitor (V. albigularis) regularly consumes tortoises (Branch 2006a), while the Komodo Dragon has been reported eating monkeys, wild boar, goats, deer, horses and water buffalo (Auffenberg 1981). Human fatalities following attacks by Komodo Dragons are known (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Komodo dragon) and it has even been suggested that this species evolved to prey on pygmy elephants (Diamond 1987).

Recent studies have shown that some *Varanus*, such as the Komodo Dragon and Lace Monitor (*V. varius*), possess venom glands along their jawline and venom toxins in their saliva (Fry *et al.* 2006). It has been suggested that other varanids, including *V. priscus*, are likely to also have possessed similar glands. If this were true, it would make the latter species the largest venomous vertebrate ever known (Fry *et al.* 2009). The ecological function of venom in *Varanus* has been reviewed by Arbuckle (2009). The presence and significance of such venoms in smaller species, including those from Africa, remain unknown.

All varanids are oviparous, laying 7–37 large soft-shelled eggs in holes or termite nests (Cowles 1930). A form of parthenogenesis has been recorded in captive Komodo Dragons (Watts *et al.* 2006). Males of some species engage in ritualised wrestling contests to determine dominance and lay claim to territories.

Large numbers of Water Monitors (*V. niloticus*) are harvested for their meat and skins in the Lake Chad basin of West Africa (De Buffrénil & Hémery 2007), and although some species such as the Komodo Dragon are considered Vulnerable, neither of the two taxa (*V. albigularis albigularis, V. niloticus*) in the *Atlas* region is of conservation concern.

Genus Varanus Merrem, 1820-monitor lizards

The genus *Varanus* contains 73 species (Uetz 2012), of which only five occur in Africa (Bayless 2002), with an additional species (*V. yemenensis*) on the Arabian Peninsula (see Portik & Papenfuss 2012). Two species enter the *Atlas* region: *V. niloticus* is largely aquatic, whereas *V. albigularis* is terrestrial and often found on rocky hillsides. Female *V. a. albigularis* produce 8–51 eggs per clutch, deposited

Varanus albigularis albigularis (Daudin, 1802) SOUTHERN ROCK MONITOR;

ROCK MONITOR; WHITE-THROATED MONITOR

Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A phylogeographic study throughout its range would be informative. Although Broadley & Howell (1991) rejected all subspecies of *A. albigularis*, trinomials are now required as Broadley & Cotterill (2004) revived *V. a. angolensis* for monitors from northern Angola and adjacent Zambia and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

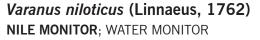
Distribution: Occurs widely over the savannas of southern and eastern Africa (Broadley 1966a; Bayless 2002). In South Africa it is absent from the western parts of the Western Cape and the central and western portions of the Northern Cape, although there is some evidence of recent range expansion in the latter province (Alexander & Marais 2007). It is also largely absent from Highveld Grassland in the central parts of the *Atlas* region. Some records from Lesotho (Ambrose 2006) and Eastern Cape (Visser 1984h) require confirmation.

Habitat: Found mainly in savannas and arid areas over a wide range of altitudes. It has an affinity for rocky outcrops and will climb trees (Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Nama-Karoo; Albany Thicket; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Fynbos (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

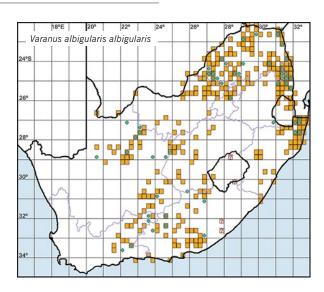


Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Böhme & Ziegler (1997) elevated *V. niloticus ornatus*, the large forest water monitor of the Congo Basin region, to full species status.

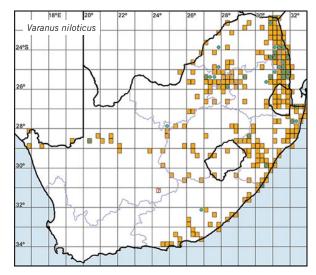
Distribution: Occurs over much of sub-Saharan Africa, from the Nile River southwards to South Africa (Branch 1998; Bayless 2002). In the *Atlas* region it is largely limited to the eastern half of South Africa, extending west along the Orange River to the West Coast, and it also occurs in Swaziland and Lesotho. Although there are few recorded localities along the Vaal River, this species is almost certainly common there (Bates 2010). It reaches the southern limit of its distribution at the Seekoei River in the Eastern Cape. in a self-excavated hole in the ground which is then covered up, while *V. niloticus* females lay 20–60 eggs in a hole that they dig into a termite mound and which is subsequently closed up by the worker termites (Branch 1998). Both monitor species are more common in the eastern parts of the subcontinent. The two taxa in the *Atlas* region are widespread, abundant and not threatened.





Varanus albigularis albigularis—Hoedspruit, LIMP

D. Pietersen



Habitat: Usually found close to, or in, water, but may be found some distance away when foraging. It occurs over a wide range of altitudes, from sea level to 1 700 m (Bourquin 2004).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Albany Thicket; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests; Nama-Karoo (marginal); Succulent Karoo (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Varanus niloticus-Mala Mala, MPM

W.R. Branch

CHAPTER 16

Family Chamaeleonidae

Krystal A. Tolley

The Chameleonidae, together with the Agamidae and Iguanidae, are placed in the infraorder Iguania. Chameleons occur mainly in Africa, Madagascar and their associated islands, with a few species in Arabia, India, Sri Lanka and along the fringes of the Mediterranean in southern Europe (Tolley & Burger 2007). There are currently 197 recognised species (Uetz 2012), with new species being described every year. Presently there are 11 genera: three in Madagascar (Brookesia, Calumma, Furcifer), one on the Seychelles (Archaius) and seven in Africa (Bradypodion, Chamaeleo, Kinyongia, Nadzikambia, Rhampholeon, Rieppeleon, Trioceros) (Tolley & Burger 2007; Townsend et al. 2011). Chamaeleo is the most widespread genus in Africa and currently contains 14 species (Uetz 2012). Previously, 36 species of Chamaeleo were referred to the subgenus Trioceros, but the latter was recently elevated to full genus status (Tilbury & Tolley 2009a).

Two genera occur in the *Atlas* region. Here there are only two species of *Chamaeleo* (*C. dilepis*, *C. namaquensis*), but all 17 described species of *Bradypodion* occur in the *Atlas* region and only two species (*B. setaroi*, *B. transvaalense*) are not strictly endemic to South Africa (their ranges extend into Mozambique and Swaziland respectively). Several introduced populations of *Bradypodion* have been recorded from various places in South Africa and Namibia. Until recently, *Bradypodion* also included several East African species and a single species from Malawi, but these were transferred to two new genera, *Kinyongia* and *Nadzikambia*, respectively (Tilbury *et al.* 2006).

Although Madagascar is considered hyper-diverse, a number of new African species have been described in the last decade and Africa now accounts for approximately 60% of all chameleon species. East Africa is especially diverse, with several species of *Chamaeleo, Trioceros, Rhampholeon* and *Rieppeleon,* and all known *Kinyongia* species. Approximately 18% of African chameleon species occur within the *At/as* region, where diversity is highest in the Maputo-Pondo-Albany area and the Cape Floristic Region (Tolley *et al.* 2006, 2008). Chameleons occur across

many different biomes and vegetation types (e.g. forests, fynbos, Indian Ocean coastal belt, grasslands, savanna), although only a few species occur in xeric habitats (e.g. desert and Karoo).

Most chameleons are arboreal but *Chamaeleo namaquensis*, which occurs in the *At/as* region, is terrestrial and inhabits xeric environments with sparse vegetation. Chameleons generally prey upon insects, although the larger species are known to prey upon small mammals, reptiles and birds. All members of the genus *Bradypodion* are viviparous, with aseasonal reproduction. Females give birth to several litters of usually 10–15 young, although litter size varies (Branch 1998; Jackson 2007). *Bradypodion* are small chameleons with a total length not exceeding 150–180 mm. The two *Chamaeleo* species in the *At/as* region are larger, with a total length of 200–300 mm. Both species are oviparous and females usually lay more than 20 eggs per clutch (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Chameleons are popular in the pet trade (Carpenter et al. 2004), although imports and exports are restricted throughout most of the Atlas region and trade is therefore not considered of major conservation concern in this area. Outside the region, legal exports of African chameleons to Europe and America are growing each year, most species originating in Tanzania and Madagascar (Carpenter et al. 2005). In the Atlas region, many species have small ranges, often covering only a few thousand square kilometres and occasionally limited to a few hundred square kilometres. In areas where anthropogenic land transformation is severe, species with limited ranges are typically of conservation concern. In the genus Bradypodion, three species (B. caeruleogula, B. caffer, B. taeniabronchum) were identified as Endangered, four species (B. kentanicum, B. melanocephalum, B. pumilum, B. thamnobates) as Vulnerable and three species (B. dracomontanum B. nemorale, B. ngomeense) as Near Threatened. Two species of Bradypodion (B. setaroi, B. taeniabronchum) are now considered to be less threatened than they were previously, mainly due to improved information on their distribution and biology.

Genus Bradypodion Fitzinger, 1843—dwarf chameleons

The genus Bradypodion contains 17 species (Uetz 2012) and is near-endemic to the Atlas region. Fifteen species are found only in South Africa, one (B. transvaalense) is found in South Africa and Swaziland and another (B. setaroi) extends from South Africa into adjacent southern Mozambique. All species are small (80-150 mm total length), arboreal and viviparous, usually giving birth to 10-15 young per litter (Jackson 2007). A number of species are of conservation concern due mainly to habitat fragmentation and transformation within very limited ranges. Three species are classified as Endangered, six as Vulnerable and two as Near Threatened. Two species have been downgraded, mainly due to improved information on their distribution and biology: B. taeniabronchum was classified as Critically Endangered (IUCN 1996) but is now considered Endangered, while B. setaroi was considered Endangered (IUCN 1996) but is now classified as Least Concern. Although molecular analyses (e.g. Tolley & Burger 2004a; Tilbury et al. 2006; Tolley et al. 2006) do not support speculation (Raw 1995, 2001) that a large number of undescribed Bradvpodion species exist in the Atlas region, they do indicate that several undescribed species with restricted ranges (not included on any Atlas maps) are present (Tolley & Burger 2007). The conservation status of these forms will have to be assessed in due course.

Bradypodion atromontanum Branch, Tolley & Tilbury, 2006 SWARTBERG DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: For many years a dwarf chameleon of undetermined taxonomic status was known from the Swartberg area (Branch 1988b, 1998). A subsequent phylogenetic study resulted in its description as a new species (Branch et al. 2006b). Morphologically it can be confused with B. gutturale (Tolley & Burger 2007) but the two species are allopatric.

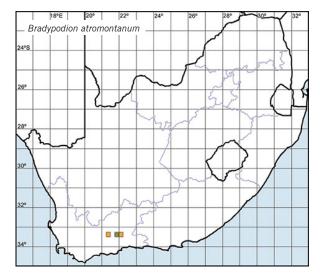
Distribution: Endemic to the Greater and Lesser Swartberg mountains, Western Cape, South Africa.

Habitat: Limited to the fynbos vegetation of the Groot and Klein Swartberg mountains (Branch et al. 2006b). Occurs at altitudes of 700-1800 m (Branch et al. 2006b; unpubl. data).

Bioregion: Western Fynbos-Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: Bradypodion atromontanum has a restricted distribution with an EOO (2 700 km²) below the Endangered threshold [B1]. However, its known distribution is within a protected area (Swartberg Nature Reserve) and it is unlikely that the species will experience any major habitat loss or population declines due to common threats such as land transformation. A large wild fire could have an impact on population numbers but, because fire is managed within the Swartberg, it is unlikely that this will severely impact the species.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Bradypodion atromontanum—Greater Swartberg, WC

286

Bradypodion caeruleogula Raw & Brothers, 2008 UMLALAZI DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Endangered B1ab(i,iii)+2ab(ii,iii) Endemic

Taxonomy: Recently described from Dlinza Forest (Raw & Brothers 2008). Genetic studies (Tilbury & Tolley 2009b) indicate that chameleons from two additional nearby forests (Entumeni and Ongoya) also belong to this taxon.

Distribution: Found in three forest patches (Dlinza, Entumeni and Ongoya) in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

EOO: 1 300 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 38 km² (confidence: high).

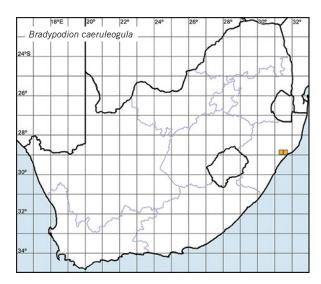
Habitat: Found in forests where it prefers the high canopy, or high perches in smaller trees (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Vegetation type: FOz 5 Scarp Forest.

Assessment rationale: Has a very limited distribution (EOO and AOO are below the Endangered thresholds) and occurs in only three forests (Entumeni, Dlinza and Ongoya). Entumeni (in a rural area) is fragmented-broken into small patches due to human activities, while Ongoya (in a rural area) and Dlinza (in the town of Eshowe) are not as heavily transformed but are nevertheless impacted and vulnerable to external pressures. Overall, the range is considered to be severely fragmented [B1a+2a]. The effects of fragmentation, and the disruption of landscape level processes, continue due to large human populations outside the forests, both within buffer zones and across the broader landscape (Berliner et al. 2006; D. Berliner pers. comm.). Human population densities are especially high near Dlinza and Ongoya (D. Berliner pers. comm.). Ongova is formally protected but is nevertheless affected by human activities (Boudreu et al. 2005); Dlinza and Entumeni are partially protected but there is a serious threat of fragmentation and disturbance which could affect natural processes [B1b(i,iii), B2b(ii,iii)].

Threats: Threats generally relate to habitat degradation as a result of human activities. The broader landscape is heavily populated by a rural community (Driver *et al.* 2005), as are the buffer zones surrounding Dlinza and Ongoya. Entumeni and Dlinza have been particularly heavily transformed and the original forest matrix is no longer intact.

Conservation measures: Develop a BMP-S. Although all three forests are protected at some level, human impacts





Bradypodion caeruleogula, male—Dlinza Forest, Eshowe, KZN K.A. Tolley

in the area are expected to continue. Conservation of this species should therefore mainly ensure that the forests are properly protected and that encroachment is minimised. Restore degraded areas within the forests, and reduce population density in buffer zones, to help ensure that ecological processes are not further disrupted and that the forests remain healthy and intact. Perform additional surveys to determine whether chameleons use only pristine forest or are also found in degraded forest, and whether forest fragmentation has a seriously negative effect on gene flow.

Bradypodion caffer (Boettger, 1889) PONDO DWARF CHAMELEON;

TRANSKEI DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Endangered B1ab(i,ii,iii,iv,v)+2ab(i,ii,iii,iv,v) Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Has a restricted range and is known only from a few coastal localities in the northeastern parts of the Eastern Cape, South Africa (Tolley & Burger 2007).

EOO: 1 950 $\rm km^2$ (confidence: medium); AOO: 45 $\rm km^2$ (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Inhabits coastal forest where it is found high up in trees but also lower down on bushes and shrubs (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Vegetation type: FOz 5 Scarp Forest; CB 5 Transkei Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: It has a restricted range, occurring in only three QDGCs and having an EOO <5 000 km² [B1] and an AOO <500 km² [B2]. The species' preferred habitat of coastal forests is naturally patchy, but much of this habitat has been transformed and fragmented [B1a+2a]. The trend of transformation (both urban and rural) is ongoing (Driver *et al.* 2005), leading to a decline in EOO, AOO and quality of habitat [B1b(i,ii,iii)+2b(i,ii,iii)]. The number of locations is estimated at 5–10 but these are subject to decline [B1b(iv)+2b(iv)], and it is likely that the number of mature individuals is also declining [B1b(v)+2b(v)]. The species is thus assigned the category Endangered.

Threats: Occurs within a highly fragmented, vulnerable ecosystem (Driver *et al.* 2005). This area is heavily transformed, mainly through rural subsistence farming in a densely populated region. Predicted future threats centre on the growing human population and increased pressure for land use. Only 2.5 km² of the range is under formal protection in the Silaka Nature Reserve.

Conservation measures: Perform surveys to provide a better estimate of AOO, especially in previously unsurveyed

Bradypodion damaranum (Boulenger, 1887) KNYSNA DWARF CHAMELEON

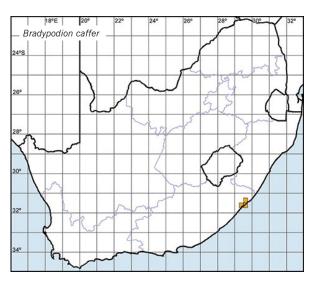
Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of an isolated population of chameleons in Grootvadersbos Forest is uncertain. Although this chameleon is morphologically similar to *B. damaranum*, preliminary data suggests that it is genetically distinct (Tolley *et al.* 2006). However, this analysis was based on a single sample and more data are needed to determine the status of the Grootvadersbos population.

Distribution: Has a restricted range along the south-facing forested slopes of the Outeniqua and Tsitsikamma mountains in the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, South

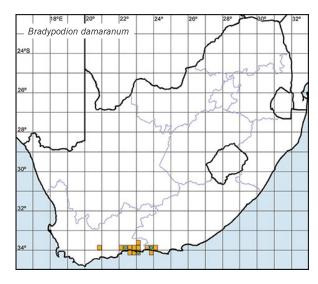




Bradypodion caffer, male-Port St Johns, KZN

K.A. Tolley

areas. A better understanding of the occurrence of the species, with respect to fragmentation of habitat, is imperative. Examine populations in fragmented habitats for signs of genetic bottlenecks. This will allow for an understanding of whether the species is able to utilise a series of small land patches and/or corridors, and whether it can thrive in degraded habitat. Draft a BMP-S.



Africa, from the George area eastwards to Witelsbos. There is a small isolated population (area of 0.6 km²) in Grootvadersbos Forest approximately 180 km west of the main distribution (Tolley et al. 2006; Tolley & Burger 2007).

Habitat: Restricted to moist coastal Afromontane forest (Tolley & Burger 2007). Often occurs high up in the canopy but sometimes found on smaller trees and bushes. Also inhabits well-vegetated urban gardens.

Vegetation type: FOz 1 Southern Afrotemperate Forest.

Assessment rationale: This species has a small AOO and EOO (estimated with high levels of confidence as 12 448 km² and 800 km² respectively), both below the Vulnerable thresholds [B1+2]). It is confined to indigenous Afromontane forest. Much of this forest was transformed into plantations in the past and is now patchy in some areas. However, the development of plantations has been largely halted and in some areas, rehabilitation back to indigenous forest is taking place.

Conservation measures: Not under immediate threat and therefore no conservation actions recommended. Never-

Bradypodion dracomontanum Raw, 1976 DRAKENSBERG DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: There has been some confusion between *B*. dracomontanum and an undescribed species (the 'Emerald Dwarf'). Both occur in the Drakensberg Mountains but B. dracomontanum occurs from Cathedral Peak northwards, whereas the Emerald Dwarf occurs to the south of Cathedral Peak (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Distribution: Occurs in the Drakensberg Range of KwaZulu-Natal and the eastern Free State, South Africa. Found from Cathedral Peak northwards to Normandien Pass (2729DC), and as far west as Golden Gate Highlands National Park.

EOO: 6 771 km² (confidence: low); AOO: 3 000 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: Found mainly in small forest patches, but can extend into grassland, generally above 1 500 m.

Biome: Grassland; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Appears to have a moderately restricted distribution (EOO under the Vulnerable threshold [B1]). However, much of the potential available habitat has not been fully surveyed and it is possible that the distribution is wider than estimated. Approximately 20% of the known distribution is within protected areas, mainly the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg National Park. Most of the remaining range is poorly protected (Driver et al. 2005) and is moderately to highly fragmented [B1a]. The species is therefore considered Near Threatened. If additional information regarding AOO, EOO and quality of habitat becomes available, this species should be re-evaluated.

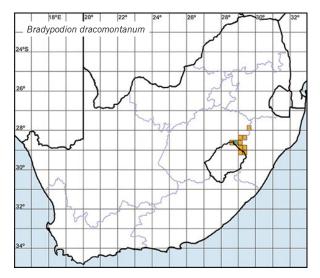
Threats: Although a large proportion of the AOO falls within protected areas, outside of these the habitat is moderately to highly fragmented by human activities (Driver et al. 2005). Most of the area within the range has high



Bradypodion damaranum-Knysna, WC

W.R. Schmidt

theless, it should be noted that any future land transformation of indigenous Afromontane forest could adversely affect this species.





Bradypodion dracomontanum-Royal Natal NP, KZN

potential for afforestation and the planting of crops, and human population density is expected to increase.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Bradypodion gutturale (A. Smith, 1849) LITTLE KAROO DWARF CHAMELEON: ROBERTSON'S DWARF CHAMELEON

Krvstal A. Tollev

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: There are no major taxonomic issues, but it should be noted that considerable morphological variation exists across the range of this species (Tolley & Burger 2007) and this has caused confusion in the past. Bradypodion records from outside the general vicinity of Robertson in the Western Cape (Tolley & Burger 2004a,b; Tolley et al. 2004) were previously not included under B. gutturale (Branch 1998).

Distribution: Endemic to the southwestern part of South Africa (Tolley & Burger 2007). Most records are in the Western Cape, but the northernmost locality-represented by a Virtual Museum record—is at Gannaga Pass near Sutherland in the Northern Cape. The species occurs from the Worcester area to Uniondale, generally within the Cape Fold Mountains, but also in suitable vegetation patches in the Little Karoo and on the Agulhas Plain from Cape Agulhas eastwards to the Outeniqua Mountains near Mossel Bay (Tolley & Burger 2004b).

Habitat: Occurs mainly in fynbos, renosterveld and karroid vegetation (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Biome: Fynbos; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended, but it should be noted that this chameleon is under threat from habitat loss through agricultural land transformation and habitat fragmentation. Information provided in the National Spatial Biodiversity Assessment (Driver et al. 2005) suggests that 25% of its historical natural habitat is presently transformed. This species does not generally tolerate altered environments such as urban gardens or agricultural fields.

Bradypodion kentanicum (Hewitt, 1935) **KENTANI DWARF CHAMELEON**

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(i,ii,iii)+2ab(i,ii,iii) Endemic

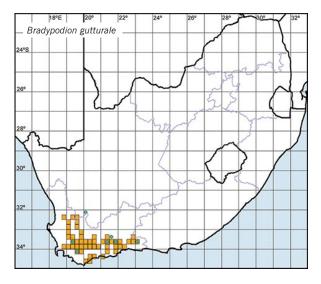
Taxonomy: Although there are no notable taxonomic issues (Tolley & Burger 2007; Tolley et al. 2004, 2006), this species is often confused with *B. caffer*, which occurs further north along the coastline.

Distribution: Endemic to the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Known from the vicinity of Kentani along the coast, northwards to Dwesa and Coffee Bay (Branch 1998; Tolley et al. 2006; Tolley & Burger 2007).

EOO: 5 850 km² (confidence: low); AOO: 600 km² (confidence: low).

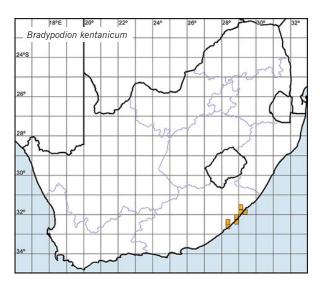
Habitat: Found in the trees and bushes of coastal scarp forest (Tolley & Burger 2007). Also found inland from the coastal belt.

Vegetation type: SVs 7 Bhisho Thornveld; CB 5 Transkei Coastal Belt; FOz 5 Scarp Forest; SVs4 Ngongoni Veld.





Bradypodion gutturale-Ladismith, Little Karoo, WC



Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range, with EOO and AOO below the Vulnerable thresholds. Habitat is severely fragmented [B1a+2a] and most of the AOO is within a vulnerable ecosystem classified as 'hardly protected'

(Driver *et al.* 2005). Occurs in only one small protected area (Dwesa Wildlife Reserve, 37 km²). Overall, its range is currently heavily impacted by small-scale agriculture (Driver *et al.* 2005). There is a continuing decline in range and the extent and quality of habitat, as the area has high potential for increased agriculture, afforestation and alien plant invasions [B1b(i,ii,iii)+2b(i,ii,iii)]. The number of subpopulations and/or locations is unknown.

Threats: Habitat is severely fragmented by subsistence agriculture (Driver *et al.* 2005). The greatest threats are increased agriculture, afforestation and alien plant invasions.

Conservation measures: Develop a BMP-S that highlights research needs, such as distribution surveys and classification of relevant threats; this would allow for a re-assessment based on better data. Carry out population genetic studies to identify the number of subpopulations, determine whether or not gene flow is restricted, and establish if genetic bottlenecks occur. Population demographic anal-

Bradypodion melanocephalum

(Gray, 1865 "1864") **KWAZULU DWARF CHAMELEON**; BLACK-HEADED DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(i,ii,iii)+2ab(i,ii,iii)

Endemic

Taxonomy: This species appears to be part of a larger species complex (comprising *B. melanocephalum* and *B. thamnobates*) in which genetic differentiation is low but obvious morphological differences exist (Raw 2001; Tolley & Burger 2007; Da Silva & Tolley 2013; K.A. Tolley unpubl. data). Additional work is needed on the taxonomic status of the morphological forms within this complex.

Distribution: Found in the coastal regions of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa from just north of Durban southwards to Mkhambathi Nature Reserve in the Eastern Cape (Tolley & Burger 2007), but the range extends about 100 km inland except in the southern portion of the range where these chameleons appear to be confined to the coast. It is thought that the inland population is disjunct from the smaller coastal population (Armstrong 2009).

EOO: 15 000 km² (confidence: low); AOO: 1 500 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: Appears to inhabit a number of vegetation types such as grasses, bushes, thickets, trees and roadside verges (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Biome: Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Savanna; Forests.

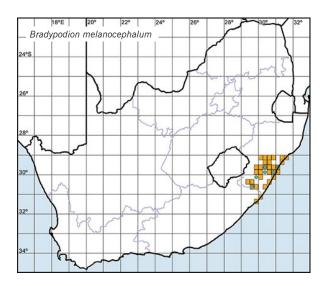
Assessment rationale: Occurs in one of the most anthropogenically fragmented regions of South Africa (Driver *et al.* 2005) [B2a], resulting in a reduced EOO (<20 000 km²) and small AOO (150 km² for coastal, and 1 350 km² for inland, populations; A.J. Armstrong unpubl. data). Given the decline in habitat (Armstrong 2009) [B2b(i,ii,iii)] and the expectation that pressure for land transformation in this area is likely to continue due to projected human population density increases (Driver *et al.* 2005; Armstrong 2008, 2009), this species is considered Vulnerable. In addition, climate model projections using the Intergovern-



Bradypodion kentanicum-Dwesa NR, EC

M. Burger

yses would be useful to quantify population declines. The greatest threat is present and future habitat fragmentation, and efforts should thus be made to protect and rehabilitate this species' habitat.





Bradypodion melanocephalum—Redhill, Durban, KZN

M. Burger

mental Panel on Climate Change A2 and B2 scenarios suggest that this species could suffer a 40% loss in climatically-suitable habitat in the next 100 years (Houniet *et al.* 2009).

Threats: This species occurs in a severely fragmented habitat that is also under threat from alien invasive species (Driver *et al.* 2005; Armstrong 2009). The range is under heavy pressure for present and future land trans-

formation, especially around the Durban municipal area (Armstrong 2008). Fragmentation could disrupt gene flow and increase the likelihood of genetic bottlenecks. This in turn could reduce the potential for recovery and population growth, even in areas that may be rehabilitated in the future (e.g. see Armstrong 2008).

Bradypodion nemorale Raw, 1978 QUDENI DWARF CHAMELEON; ZULULAND DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: Originally described from Qudeni and Nkandla forests (Raw 1978). Later, Raw (2001) proposed that the Nkandla population should be assigned to a separate taxon and more recently, Raw & Brothers (2008) described this population as *B. nkandlae*. The latter description was based on juvenile specimens that lacked clear diagnostic morphological differences from *B. nemorale* from Qudeni Forest, aside from pigmentation. Furthermore, genetic studies of chameleons from these two forests suggest that the two populations are not distinct species, and *B. nkandlae* was therefore referred to the synonymy of *B. nemorale* (Tilbury & Tolley 2009b).

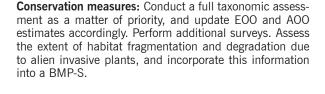
Distribution: Endemic to Qudeni and Nkandla forests, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa (Tolley & Burger 2007).

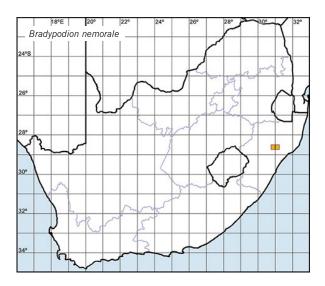
EOO: 1 300 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 59 km² (confidence: high).

Habitat: Confined to isolated patches of Afromontane and scarp forest. Usually found high up in the canopy, although smaller individuals have been observed in the understorey (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Vegetation type: FOz 5 Scarp Forest; FOz 3 Southern Mistbelt Forest.

Assessment rationale: This species has a very restricted EOO and AOO (both below the Endangered threshold [B1+2]) but it appears to be locally abundant in two isolated forest patches, Qudeni and Nkandla. Nkandla Forest is formally protected, not presently under great threat (Geldenhuys 2000; Berliner et al. 2006) and relatively well managed (I. van der Merwe pers. comm.). Qudeni Forest is not formally protected (although it is managed as a Provincial State Forest) and the high anthropogenic pressure on surrounding areas (Driver et al. 2005) may lead to the disruption of ecological processes. It is considered degraded due to informal use of resources by a dense surrounding human population (Geldenhuys 2000). In combination with heavily transformed surrounding landscapes and resource extraction in buffer zones, this could lead to the disruption of natural processes in the forest. Considering the size of the chameleon's range and the nature of its threats, there are probably about 10-20 locations. Within both forests there appears to be no further decline in habitat quality or range size. The species should be considered Near Threatened, partly due to the tenuous nature of the protection of their habitat, especially at Qudeni.







Bradypodion nemorale-Nkandla Forest, KZN

M. Burger

Threats: Although this species occurs as two isolated populations, this fragmentation is natural. However, considering its small range, the species is susceptible to natural and anthropogenic pressures. Much of the forest habitat in KwaZulu-Natal has been given over to wood plantations, but no additional pressure is expected on the two forest patches (Berliner *et al.* 2006).

Conservation measures: Monitor the situation, especially at Qudeni Forest, and manage it to prevent further encroachment by plantations and to ensure that the impacts of human resource use on the forest are minimised. In the event of further encroachment or habitat degradation, reevaluate the conservation status of this species. Tilbury & Tolley (2009) noted low levels of gene flow between the Qudeni and Nkandla populations and this, together with differences in body size, casque size and colouration, suggested that the two populations should be treated as separate management units.

Bradypodion ngomeense Tilbury & Tolley, 2009 NGOME DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to a single forest patch, Ngome Forest, in northern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa (Tolley & Burger 2007; Tilbury & Tolley 2009b).

EOO: 650 km^2 (confidence: high); AOO: 37 km^2 (confidence: high).

Habitat: Usually found in forest canopies but sometimes also in the tops of smaller trees (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Vegetation type: FOz 3 Southern Mistbelt Forest.

Assessment rationale: This species occurs only in one small forest and has a very small AOO (<500 km²). However, Ngome Forest is formally protected as it falls within the Ntendeka Wilderness Area. At present there is little encroachment from the surrounding human community (I. van der Merwe pers. comm.). Transformation of the forest into plantations is not a serious threat at this time because no additional licenses for water rights will be granted (I. van der Merwe pers. comm.). Although there are no immediate threats to the intact forest, this species is of concern due to its restricted range, coupled with the potential for transformation of the broader landscape in the future.

Threats: Most of Ngome Forest is intact and the human population density within the surrounding buffer area is low (Berliner *et al.* 2006). However, human density across the overall landscape is high and could pose a threat in the future. Encroachment of pine plantations into the buffer zone is possible and the forest edge is highly exposed.

Bradypodion occidentale (Hewitt, 1935) WESTERN DWARF CHAMELEON; NAMAQUA DWARF CHAMELEON

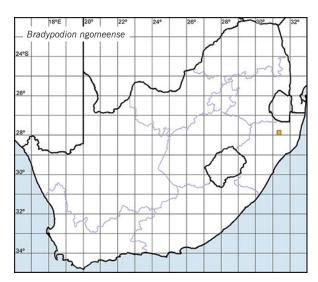
Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: There are no substantial taxonomic issues, although a contact zone may exist between *Bradypodion occidentale* and *B. pumilum*. Chameleons with intermediate morphological characteristics have been found (Tolley & Burger 2007), suggesting that there are hybrids between the two species. It was initially thought that these individuals were a new ecomorph of *B. pumilum*, as they were genetically similar to that species (Tolley *et al.* 2006). Unfortunately, a lack of additional samples from this potential contact zone has prevented further investigation. Although *B. occidentale* is often confused with *B. ventrale* because they share some similar morphological features, genetic studies have clearly shown that two species are involved (Tolley *et al.* 2004).

Distribution: Endemic to the Western and Northern Cape provinces, South Africa. Distributed in a narrow belt along the West Coast, from around Langebaan in the south to

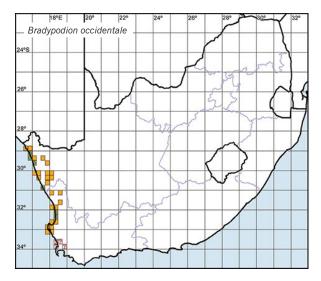




Bradypodion ngomeense-Ngome Forest, KZN

K.A. Tolley

Conservation measures: Monitor the situation at Ngome Forest to ensure that there is no further encroachment by plantations or transformation by human settlements. If any encroachment, degradation or transformation takes place, re-assess the species.



Alexander Bay in the north (Branch 1998; Tolley & Burger 2007). In some areas the species may reach 100 km inland, depending on the availability of appropriate vegetation. Records immediately north of Cape Town are unconfirmed (see question marks on map) and may represent *B*.

pumilum or a hybrid between *B. pumilum* and *B. occidentale*. There are reports of an isolated introduced population at Lüderitz, Namibia (Branch 1998).

Habitat: Typically found in undisturbed strandveld along the West Coast, and further inland in succulent Karoo (Tolley & Burger 2007). Also found in fynbos vegetation types, especially renosterveld.

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Wide-ranging and common. Apart from the most southerly parts, most of its distribution is not greatly fragmented (Driver *et al.* 2005).

Conservation measures: Protection of suitable habitat in the southern portion of its range should be encouraged.

Bradypodion pumilum (Gmelin, 1789) CAPE DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(i,ii,iii,v)

Endemic

Taxonomy: Until about a decade ago some authors were still of the opinion that most populations of Bradypodion were subspecies of *B. pumilum* (Klaver & Böhme 1997; Neças 2004). However, it is now commonly accepted that most of these subspecies are valid species (Branch 1998; Tolley et al. 2004; Tolley & Burger 2007). In addition, B. pumilum was considered to be represented only by the colourful morph typical of the Cape Town area. Other dwarf chameleons on the periphery of its distribution were of uncertain taxonomic status, but subsequent genetic studies (Tolley et al. 2006) showed that these should be considered as ecomorphs of B. pumilum. At least two ecomorphs exist: 'typical' (closed habitat) and 'fynbos' (open habitat). Hopkins & Tolley (2011) found that natural selection in open habitats limited body size as well as conspicuous features such as bright colours, while sexual selection in closed habitats favoured the development of ornamentation related to display. The 'renosterveld' morph (Tolley & Burger 2007) may actually be a hybrid between B. pumilum and B. occidentale (K.A. Tolley unpubl. data).

Distribution: Endemic to the southwestern parts of the Western Cape, South Africa, extending eastwards onto the Agulhas Plain (Tolley & Burger 2007). Introduced populations in Namibia and Clanwilliam (Branch 1998) have not been re-discovered in recent years.

EOO: 13 407 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 3 366 km² (confidence: high).

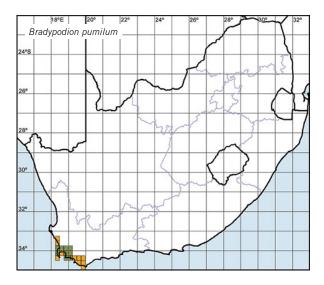
Habitat: Occurs in a variety of habitats including fynbos, renosterveld, thicket, riparian vegetation and some exotic and native trees. Ecomorphs inhabit different vegetation types. The typical colourful form is often found in urban gardens, in the canopy of forest patches, and in bushes and thickets. The fynbos form is associated with the montane and lowland fynbos of the Western Cape, while the renosterveld form is known from remnant patches of renosterveld north and west of Cape Town (Tolley & Burger 2007). This species is generally absent from agricultural landscapes (e.g. Tolley & Measey 2007).

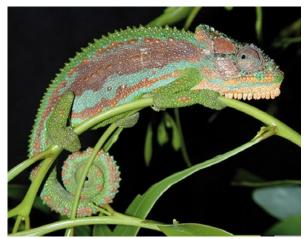
Bioregion: Southwest Fynbos; West Coast Renosterveld; West Strandveld; South Strandveld.



Bradypodion occidentale-Noup, NC

K.A. Tolley





Bradypodion pumilum-Stellenbosch, WC

K.A. Tolley

Assessment rationale: Considered Vulnerable because of its restricted range (EOO <20 000 km²), coupled with a continuing decline in size and quality of habitat and (by inference) the number of mature individuals [B1b(i,ii,iii,v)], and the fact that subpopulations in transformed areas are highly fragmented [B1a] and essentially isolated from subpopulations in protected areas. Chameleons in some fragmented areas are known to be genetically bottlenecked and gene flow between subpopulations is restricted (K.P. Hopkins & K.A. Tolley unpubl. data), decreasing the potential for recovery. In addition, climate model projections

using the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change A2 and B2 scenarios suggest that this species could suffer a 60% loss in climatically suitable habitat in the next 100 years (Houniet et al. 2009). Although about 1 300 km² of its range is within protected areas (Driver et al. 2005), the remaining habitat is severely fragmented and transformed through urbanisation. In these impacted areas, some small, densely populated patches are known, but these probably represent refuges. Chameleons of this species also occur in some urban gardens. In the past, such records were numerous, but recent anecdotal information indicates that these occurrences have become relatively rare. This suggests that the majority of the urban environment (and thus, the majority of the distribution) is sparsely populated and that this species is in a population decline in these fragmented urban areas (although no quantitative assessment has been conducted).

Threats: The greatest current threat to this species is environmental change, primarily in the form of habitat loss and transformation through urbanisation and agricultural sprawl. According to the National Spatial Biodiversity Assessment (Driver *et al.* 2005), well over 50% of the historical natural habitat of *B. pumilum* is presently transformed. Although this species can persist in some fragments of the urban setting, it generally does not tolerate altered environments (e.g. Tolley & Measey 2007). Global climatic change model predictions using the 'worst case scenario' predict that the species' range will be reduced by about 50% by 2050 (Houniet *et al.* 2009). Although part of the range is in fire-prone habitat, the increased frequency of fires due to anthropogenic influences will impact it negatively. This is

compounded by other threats such as predation by domestic cats in urban and rural settings, and deliberate translocation of chameleons. *Bradypodion pumilum* is popular with the general public as a pet, despite this being prohibited by conservation legislation. Specimens are often captured at one locality and released elsewhere, sometimes within the range of another chameleon species. This practice is of particular conservation concern because it leads to the mixing of gene pools among subpopulations and may result in hybridisation.

Conservation measures: Formulate and implement a BMP-S. Given that habitat loss, fragmentation and transformation are the most serious threats to B. pumilum, manage its remaining habitat wisely. Its new status of Vulnerable should influence future environmental impact assessments and the design and management of urban green areas and larger nature reserves. Conduct baseline studies investigating the dispersal abilities of this chameleon; these will be useful for making recommendations regarding the linking of existing habitat fragments that promote dispersal and interbreeding. Conduct additional genetic studies mapping the presence and frequency of bottlenecked populations, to contribute to an understanding of the effects of fragmentation, and the formulation of a recovery plan within the urban environment. Focus public awareness on the negative impacts of translocating chameleons and encourage the planting of chameleonfriendly gardens to increase and link remaining suitable habitat. Extend this campaign to include public contributions of survey data to map the distribution (presence/absence) of chameleons in the urban environment.

Bradypodion setaroi Raw, 1976 SETARO'S DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

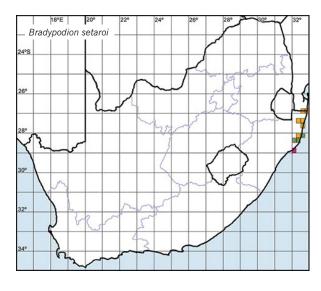
Distribution: Occurs from the St Lucia estuary in coastal KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, northwards into southern Mozambique (Tolley & Burger 2007). Specimens from Arboretum (2832CC) near Richards Bay were probably introduced to the area.

Habitat: Found in the trees and bushes of coastal forests (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Vegetation type: CB 1 Maputaland Coastal Belt; FOz 7 Northern Coastal Forest; FOa 3 Mangrove Forest.

Assessment rationale: Although the species has a relatively small EOO (5 600 km²; less than the Vulnerable threshold), this is much larger than previously believed. The AOO is estimated to be 4 400 km², incorporating severely fragmented areas. The southern portion of the range is highly fragmented, but much of the rest is only moderately or slightly fragmented. Furthermore, continued decline in EOO/AOO or habitat quality is not projected at present. Increases in human population density within the species' range are expected to be low (Driver *et al.* 2005) and more than half of the range is located within the iSimangaliso Wetland Park.

Conservation measures: No conservation actions are recommended. However, future re-assessments of this species would be improved by additional information on distribution.





Bradypodion setaroi—Lake Sibaya, KZN

K.A. Tolley

Bradypodion taeniabronchum (A. Smith, 1831) ELANDSBERG DWARF CHAMELEON; SMITH'S DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Endangered B1ac(iv)+2ac(iv) Endemic

Taxonomy: At the time of its South African Red Listing (Branch 1988a), this species was known from only one small area on Lady's Slipper, a peak in the Elandsberg Mountains. Subsequent surveys have revealed that it occurs widely in the fynbos vegetation of the Elandsberg (Tolley & Burger 2004a; Tolley et al. 2006). In 1992, a population was discovered on the Kareedouw Mountains (Burger & Smith 1992) but the taxonomic status of this population was uncertain (Tolley & Burger 2004a). A detailed genetic study has revealed that this population and the Elandsberg one represent separate genetic lineages, each of which has B. ventrale as its closest extant relative (Tolley et al. 2006). However, this latter study could not show conclusively that the two populations are separate species and, because they are morphologically indistinguishable, they are currently treated as two distinct populations of a single species.

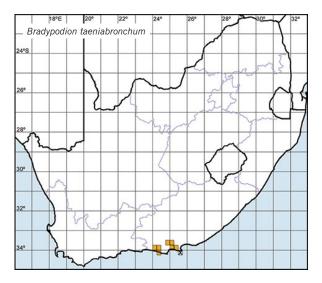
Distribution: Endemic to the southwestern parts of the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Found only in two disjunct mountain ranges, the Elandsberg (including the Vanstadensberg block) and the Kareedouw mountains, and in a wetland area near Cape St Francis. Some historical records suggest that the species previously inhabited suitable areas outside these known sites, e.g. Schoenmakerskop in Port Elizabeth and Van Stadens Wildflower Reserve near Port Elizabeth (Tolley & Burger 2004a). The species now appears to be absent from both of these localities (marked by a cross on the map). Schoenmakerskop was previously vegetated with fynbos but is now completely transformed. A recent survey of Van Stadens Wildflower Reserve produced no new records of this species (Tolley & Burger 2004a).

EOO: 5 850 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 400 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Montane fynbos, especially on mountain slopes at high altitude (Tolley & Burger 2007). A new population was discovered in 2009 in a wetland near Cape St Francis. The species is not found in intervening lowland fynbos or other vegetation types. It is not limited to *Protea* stands as was previously thought (Branch 1988b), but is often found on restios, ericas and Asteraceae.

Bioregion: Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: This species has a small EOO and AOO (less than the Endangered threshold) and is known from only three locations [B1a+2a]. It is at risk due to large fluctuations in the number of mature individuals due to burning (both controlled and natural) of fire-prone fynbos [B1c(iv)+B2c(iv)]. One location (Elandsberg) is fragmented, particularly near Longmore Plantation. The second location (Kareedouw Mountains) is less fragmented and under protection by South African National Parks, but it requires management of alien invasive plants. The third location was discovered in 2009 and little is known about the extent of this population. Climate model projections using the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change A2 and B2 scenarios suggest that this species could suffer up





Bradypodion taeniabronchum-Lady's Slipper, Elandsberg, EC K.A. Tolley

to a 40% loss in climatically-suitable habitat in the next 100 years (Houniet *et al.* 2009). It has been extirpated in totally transformed parts of its range (e.g. Schoenmakers-kop).

Threats: Some managed areas are under burn rotations for fynbos regeneration. Burn rotations on Longmore property are regimented and take into account the dispersal and re-colonisation potential (or lack thereof) of the chameleons, but such consideration is uncommon. Most of the remaining habitat in the Elandsberg is under provincial protection and burn rotations do not take chameleons into account. The number of locations is low and an uncontrolled fire could potentially decimate a large proportion of mature individuals. In 2005 an entire location (22 000 ha of pine and fynbos) in the Elandsberg was burned by two wildfires on subsequent days, leaving only small patches of vegetation surviving in ravines (K. Kirkman pers. comm.). The full effects of this fire on the chameleon population have not yet been assessed, although a brief survey in 2008 established that chameleons are present at the Van Stadensberg Natural Heritage Site in the Elandsberg (pers. obs.). Because each location has a unique genetic lineage (Tolley et al. 2006), the threat of natural or controlled fire is amplified.

Conservation measures: Restrict further habitat encroachment in protected areas and on private land. Take every opportunity to reclaim natural veld, and actively manage reclaimed areas. This should include the removal of invasive plants and regular control of encroachment. In areas where controlled burns are necessary for maintenance of fire-prone fynbos vegetation, limit the burn rotation to blocks that are as small as possible. Do not burn alternate blocks at intervals of less than four years, to allow for maturation of the veld and re-colonisation by chameleons (this rotation scheme is in place at Longmore Plantation). Another strategy at Longmore is to encourage fynbos growth in newly-planted pine compartments, until the fynbos is gradually shaded out by growing pines. This is done by strip-spraying with herbicides around the young trees, rather than blanket-spraying of the entire compartment (the latter would kill fynbos and promote grasses). For a period of approximately five years, the compartment comprises a mixture of fynbos and young pines. This practice could allow for additional temporary habitat for chameleons as compartments are rotated. Formulate a BMP-S that includes a plan for research and conservation actions.

Bradypodion thamnobates Raw, 1976 MIDLANDS DWARF CHAMELEON; NATAL MIDLANDS DWARF CHAMELEON

Krvstal A. Tollev

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(i,ii,iii)+2ab(i,ii,iii)

Endemic

Taxonomy: Recent genetic studies show that this species is part of the *Bradypodion melanocephalum* species complex. Based on mitochondrial DNA markers, *B. melanocephalum* and *B. thamnobates* are poorly differentiated suggesting either a very recent evolutionary origin or continued gene flow between populations (Tolley *et al.* 2004). A fine-scale investigation using more sensitive genetic markers is needed. Morphological differences between the various forms in the complex were discussed by Da Silva & Tolley (2013).

Distribution: Endemic to KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. It has a limited distribution and is generally found in the Midlands, particularly in the vicinity of Howick, Mooi River and Nottingham Road (Tolley & Burger 2007).

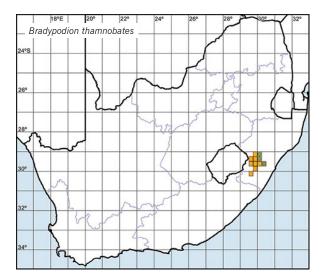
EOO: 7 150 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 1 100 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Found along road verges and in fragments of Southern Mistbelt Forest. Adults may inhabit any small patch of thick, structured vegetation, even if this comprises exotic plant species. Juveniles are often found in grassland and in more marginal habitat (Tolley & Burger 2007). This species is also found in gardens—especially those planted with trees and bushes—in small towns and on large estates.

Biome: Grassland; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO and AOO fall under the Vulnerable thresholds) but is locally common. Its current range is highly transformed and severely fragmented, under heavy anthropogenic pressure and poorly protected (Driver *et al.* 2005). It is considered Vulnerable under criteria B1ab(i,ii,iii)+2ab(i,ii,iii).

Threats: Much of the species' habitat has been given over to agriculture and large-scale wood plantations (pine and eucalyptus). Afforestation potential, with the associated risk of alien plant invasion, is high within the region





Bradypodion thamnobates-Howick, KZN

M. Burger

(Rouget *et al.* 2004; Driver *et al.* 2005). Continuing land transformation could cause a further decline in the extent and quality of the remaining habitat.

Conservation measures: Conduct a full assessment of population structure and habitat use; this will contribute towards understanding the effects of habitat fragmentation on this species. Formulate a BMP-S that includes a plan for research and conservation actions.

Bradypodion transvaalense (FitzSimons, 1930) NORTHERN DWARF CHAMELEON;

WOLKBERG DWARF CHAMELEON; TRANSVAAL DWARF CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Considerable morphological variation exists within this species (Tolley & Burger 2007). Its taxonomy has been in question since Jacobsen (1989) suggested, on the basis of morphology, that it may contain up to nine different taxa. Although there have not been any phylogenetic studies on its taxonomy to date, limited data suggest that dwarf chameleons from within this species' distribution are monophyletic (Tolley *et al.* 2004). Despite this, there is some variation within this clade and this must still be assessed in a taxonomic framework.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region and found along the eastern escarpment and associated inselbergs. It occurs in South Africa from the Soutpansberg Range in the north, southwards through Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces, to the Highveld of Swaziland (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Habitat: Found in forested patches along the eastern escarpment and associated areas (Tolley & Burger 2007), usually at high altitudes on mountain slopes and plateaus or in deep gorges. Jacobsen (1989) noted that this species also occurs in scrub-covered road verges near forests, and in gardens at Woodbush.

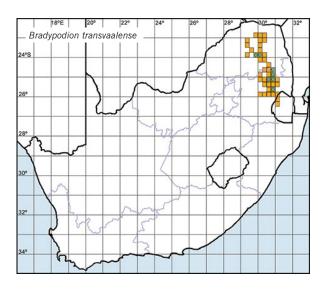
Biome: Forests.

Assessment rationale: Although *Bradypodion transvaalense* is geographically widespread, the area it occupies is restricted by its reliance on forested patches. It is abundant within these patches and is therefore of no conservation concern. However, this apparently large geographic range may actually contain several species rather than one. In addition, climate model projections using the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change A2 and B2 scenarios suggest that this species could suffer a 40% loss in climatically-suitable habitat in the next 100 years (Houniet *et al.* 2009). The species should therefore be re-assessed once a taxonomic or phylogenetic study has been completed and a climate model can be applied to any new taxonomy.

Conservation measures: Carry out a full taxonomic/phylogenetic assessment, as this species may include cryptic taxa represented by small populations of conservation importance.



Bradypodion transvaalense—Entabeni, Soutpansberg, LIMP K.A. Tolley





Bradypodion transvaalense, female—Woodbush Forest, LIMP K.A. Tolley



Bradypodion transvaalense, male-Woodbush Forest, LIMP K.A. Tolley



Bradypodion transvaalense—Bulembu border post, Swaziland D. Maguire

Bradypodion ventrale (Gray, 1845) EASTERN CAPE DWARF CHAMELEON; SOUTHERN DWARF CHAMELEON

Krvstal A. Tollev

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Until recently there was confusion about the status of *B. ventrale* and *B. karooicum* (Branch 1998). Given the lack of clear morphological and genetic differences between these two species (Tolley *et al.* 2004), *B. karooicum* is now considered a junior synonym of *B. ventrale*. In some areas (e.g. near Uniondale and at Groendal Nature Reserve) there appear to be contact zones with other species and some individuals may be hybrids (Tolley *et al.* 2006).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa. Has the widest range of all dwarf chameleons and is found across much of the Eastern Cape, southeastern Free State, eastern parts of the Western Cape (Uniondale and Beaufort West areas) and adjacent parts of the Northern Cape (Tolley & Burger 2007). Several introduced populations probably referable to this species occur in the Free State (Douglas 1992b), Gauteng and Northern Cape. It is likely that many specimens were translocated via the nursery plant trade.

Habitat: Found across several biomes and considered a habitat generalist (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Biome: Grassland; Albany Thicket; Savanna; Nama-Ka-roo; Fynbos; Forests; Succulent Karoo.

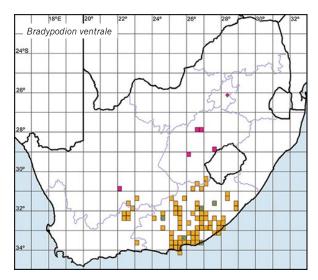
Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Climatic modelling suggests 15–20% loss of suitable habitat by 2080 (Houniet *et al.* 2009).

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Bradypodion ventrale—Cape Recife, Port Elizabeth, EC

K.A. Tolley



Genus Chamaeleo Laurenti, 1768-typical chameleons

Chamaeleo is a widespread genus containing 14 species (Uetz 2012). Eleven species occur in Africa, although one species (*C. chameleon*) is found in northern Africa as well as southern Europe, and three species (*C. calyptratus*, *C. arabicus*, *C. zeylanicus*) are found from Arabia to Sri

Lanka. The ranges of two species (*C. namaquensis, C. dilepis*) extend into the *Atlas* region. *Chamaeleo* are medium to large (200–300 mm total length), oviparous and mostly arboreal chameleons (Tolley & Burger 2007). Neither species in the *Atlas* region is of conservation concern.

Chamaeleo dilepis dilepis Leach, 1819 COMMON FLAP-NECK CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A number of subspecies of *C. dilepis* (*C. d. dilepis*, *C. d. idjwiensis*, *C. d. isabellinus*, *C. d. martensi*, *C. d. petersii*, *C. d. ruspolii*) are recognised, partly due to morphological variation across the species' very large geographic range (Klaver & Böhme 1997; Neças 2004). The validity of these subspecies is unclear and a detailed taxonomic revision of the species complex would be useful. A modern molecular assessment will probably elevate some subspecies to full species status, and show that others simply represent natural clinal variation. Included in the *C. dilepis* species complex are the extralimital species *C. roperi* and *C. quilensis*, but their taxonomic status also requires investigation. Tilbury (2010) considers all of the above-mentioned taxa, as well as *C. angusticoronatus*, as variants of a polymorphic *C. dilepis*. Only one subspecies is present in the *Atlas* region, namely *C. d. dilepis*.

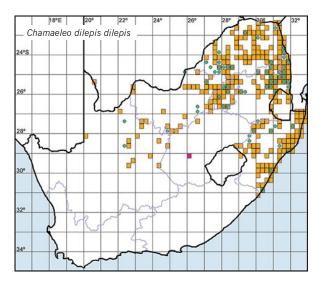
Distribution: This is one of the world's most widely distributed chameleons. It is found throughout southern, central and east Africa (Neças 2004), ranging from South Africa northwards to Ethiopia and westwards to Nigeria. In the *Atlas* region it occurs in Swaziland and the northern and eastern parts of South Africa, extending into savanna areas of the Northern Cape and northwestern Free State (Tolley & Burger 2007). Translocated specimens have been reported from gardens in Bloemfontein (Douglas 1992b).

Habitat: Occurs in a variety of habitats; usually found high up in bushes or trees (Tolley & Burger 2007).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Azonal Vegetation; Forests; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Chamaeleo dilepis dilepis

W.R. Schmidt

Chamaeleo namaquensis A. Smith, 1831 NAMAQUA CHAMELEON

Krystal A. Tolley

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This species represents a distinct phylogenetic lineage within *Chamaeleo* (Townsend & Larson 2002; Tolley *et al.* 2013). It diverged from other *Chamaeleo* approximately 38 mya (Tolley *et al.* 2013). Despite this, it is strongly supported as being in the *Chamaeleo* clade, and most other chameleon genera contain species or lineages of similar age. Therefore, although some suggestions have been made that this taxon could be representative of a separate genus (Townsend & Larson 2002; Tilbury 2010), the most parsimonious solution is to retain it within *Chamaeleo* in order to remain consistent within the context of the entire family.

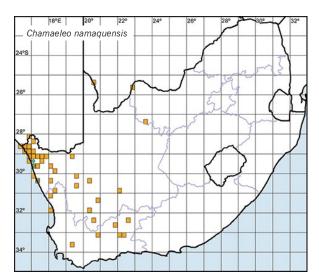
Distribution: Endemic to the southwestern parts of Africa, from southern Angola through western Namibia to the western half of South Africa (Tolley & Burger 2007). In South Africa it occurs in the Northern and Western Cape provinces and North-West Province. Found from the southwestern Karoo to Namaqualand. The southernmost record is near Worcester (3319CB), the most southwesterly record is near Prince Albert (3322AB), and the most inland record in the central Northern Cape is at Carnarvon (3022CC). Further surveys are required to confirm whether the disjunct records in the northern part of the Northern Cape and adjacent North-West Province represent one or more isolated populations. The latter records suggest that the species may also occur in Botswana.

Habitat: Terrestrial, living on gravel plains and sandy substrates in xeric regions (Neças 2004; Tolley & Burger 2007). Occasionally perches in bushes.

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Savanna; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Chamaeleo namaguensis—Gaias, Namibia

R. Babb

CHAPTER 17

Family Agamidae

Atherton L. de Villiers & Michael F. Bates

Previous classifications (e.g. Estes *et al.* 1988) placed the Agamidae as one of three families in the basal group Iguania, the others being the Iguanidae (iguanas) and Chamaeleonidae (chameleons). However, the recent molecular phylogeny of the Squamata (Vidal & Hedges 2009) recognises a derived clade, namely Toxicofera, that includes the Anguimorpha and Iguania of Estes *et al.* (1988) as well as snakes.

Agamidae is a large family distributed throughout most of the Old World, including mainland Africa, temperate and tropical Asia, southeastern Europe, Australia and some Indo-Australian islands (Pianka & Vitt 2003). The greatest diversity exists in Asia and Australia, where agamids are believed to have originated and from where they subsequently dispersed into Africa (Branch 1998; Amer & Kumazawa 2005). The family consists of 433 species in 53 genera (Uetz 2012). Subfamilial relationships within the family remain controversial, with up to six subfamilies being recognised by some authors. Only the Uromasticinae and Agaminae are represented in Africa, and only the latter is represented in the *Atlas* region.

In the At/as region there are two genera, namely Agama and Acanthocercus. The genus Agama is widely distributed in Africa and consists of 47 species (Uetz 2012; Wagner et al. 2013; and including A. knobeli). Five species occur in the At/as region: three terrestrial species (A. aculeata, A. armata, A. hispida), a rupicolous species (A. atra), and a species which could be regarded as being partly terrestrial and partly rupicolous (A. anchietae). Acanthocercus contains eight species of arboreal and rock-dwelling lizards found in the eastern half of sub-Saharan Africa and the Arabian Peninsula, but only one taxon (A. a. atricolllis) occurs in the At/as region. The taxonomic status of some Agama in southern Africa is uncertain and new species are likely to be described. A recent preliminary study by Leaché et al. (2009) provided a phylogeny of African Ag-

ama, but further studies are needed to elucidate relationships (Branch *et al.* 2006a).

Agamids are small to large lizards that generally have a squat body, a large head with distinct neck, a relatively long tapering tail that cannot be autotomised or fully regenerated after being lost, and well-developed legs. Outside the *Atlas* region, bizarre forms with dorsal crests, colourful dewlaps and expandable appendages are common (FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998; Pianka & Vitt 2003). One of the key distinguishing features of these lizards is their teeth, which are borne on the crest of the jawbones (arcodont) rather than on the inner side of the jaws (pleurodont) (Heying 2003).

As a group, agamid lizards are mainly terrestrial, but some are dependent on rocky (especially in Africa) or arboreal habitats. The family also includes semi-aquatic Asian forms that use water as a refuge (e.g. Physignathus-water dragons), as well as facultatively bipedal forms (e.g. Chlamydosaurus-frilled lizards) and gliding forms (e.g. Draco-flying dragons) (Pianka & Vitt 2003). Agamids are generally active during the day and have good vision. The diet of most species consists mainly of insects with some species apparently dependent on ants, but others are herbivores (e.g. Hydrosaurus-water lizards, Uromastyxspiny-tail lizards) (Branch 1998; Pianka & Vitt 2003). Most African agamids (e.g. Agama atra) form social groups and are territorial. Males develop bright colours (e.g. blue head and throat) for courtship and territorial displays. Females of most species-including all African forms-are oviparous (4-18 eggs per clutch, often two clutches in a season; Branch 1998; Spawls et al. 2002), but females of a few species of the northern Eurasian genus Phrynocephalus give birth to young (Pianka & Vitt 2003).

None of the southern African taxa are of conservation concern.

Genus Agama Daudin, 1802-agamas

Agama is a large genus containing 47 species (Uetz 2012; Wagner et al. 2013; and including A. knobeli) of diurnal lizards that are widely distributed in Africa. Various species from the Arabian Peninsula were previously included in the genus Agama but have now been transferred to the genera Acanthocercus, Laudakia, Trapelus and Pseudotrapelus (Joger 1991; Spawls et al. 2002), rendering Agama an African endemic. A recent molecular phylogeny of the genus Agama identified monophyletic radiations in West, East and South Africa, as well as the Sahel (Leaché et al. 2009). Further research into phylogenetic relationships and biogeography in the genus are advanced (Leache 2012; S. Nielsen in prep.). There are 11 species in southern Africa and five of these occur in the Atlas region. One species has two subspecies, namely A. aculeata aculeata and A. a. distanti. Leaché et al. (2009) analysed

Agama aculeata aculeata Merrem, 1820 WESTERN GROUND AGAMA; COMMON GROUND AGAMA

Michael F. Bates & Atherton L. de Villiers

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of the *Agama aculeata* species complex (*A. aculeata aculeata, A. a. distanti, A. armata*) should be investigated (Branch *et al.* 2006a). Taxa are currently based on morphological differentiation (McLachlan 1981) but a molecular analysis is required.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa where it has an extensive range. Occurs in southern Angola, most of Namibia except the Namib Desert, most of Botswana (but replaced in the east by *A. armata*), and the western half of South Africa (McLachlan 1981; Visser 1984i). In the latter region it is widely distributed in the Northern Cape, the western parts of North-West Province, Free State and Eastern Cape provinces, and the eastern parts of the Western Cape. A few records in the western Northern Cape and another in the Western Cape, indicated by question marks on the map, require confirmation. This subspecies is largely replaced in the western parts of the country by *A. hispida*.

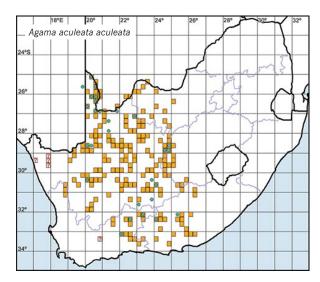
Habitat: A largely terrestrial lowland agama often found in dry sandy areas where it takes refuge under thorny bushes such as Buffalo Thorn (*Ziziphus mucronata*) (De Waal 1978). It occasionally basks in the branches of bushes or trees, and retreats into burrows of small mammals or short self-excavated holes at the bases of bushes or under stones (Visser 1984i; Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Nama-Karoo; Grassland; Albany Thicket; Succulent Karoo; Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

representatives of all five species found in the Atlas region, and the study confirmed a close relationship between the largely rupicolous and communal species A. atra and A. anchietae, which together formed a sister group to the terrestrial and solitary (occasionally in pairs) ground agamas. Among the latter, A. aculeata and A. armata were more closely related to one another than either was to A. hispida. Females lay two or more clutches in a season, each clutch consisting of 5-18 eggs (Branch 1998). In just about every part of the Atlas region there is at least one, and in some places 2-3, species of Agama. Agama hispida is a near-endemic (its range extends peripherally into southern Namibia), whereas A. armata enters the Atlas region only in the northern parts of Limpopo Province. All taxa in the Atlas region are common and none are of conservation concern.





Agama aculeata aculeata—Farm Good Hope, 30 km SW of Prieska, NC M. Burger

Agama aculeata distanti Boulenger, 1902 EASTERN GROUND AGAMA; DISTANT'S GROUND AGAMA

Michael F. Bates & Atherton L. de Villiers

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of the *Agama aculeata* species complex (*A. aculeata aculeata, A. a. distanti, A. armata*) should be investigated (Branch *et al.* 2006a). Taxa are currently based on morphological differences (McLachlan 1981), but a molecular analysis is required. Although McLachlan (1981) referred ground agamas from KwaZulu-Natal to *A. a. armata*, we follow Jacobsen (1989) and Bourquin (2004) and treat these populations as *A. a. distanti*.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Swaziland. This subspecies has an extensive range in the northeastern parts of the *Atlas* region where it occurs in Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, much of North-West Province, Free State (excluding the southwest), KwaZulu-Natal and the northern parts of the Eastern Cape. There are no records in the Northern Cape, where *A. a. distanti* is replaced by *A. a. aculeata*. It may also occur in eastern Botswana, southern Mozambique and the western half of Lesotho.

Habitat: Found in grassland and woodland habitat, and sometimes in rocky areas, at altitudes of 20–1 800 m (Jacobsen 1989; Bourquin 2004). Mainly terrestrial but may climb into the branches of bushes or onto rocks, poles or termitaria, using these as vantage points, display platforms or for basking in the sun (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). Often found at the fringes of shrubs or foraging among grass tussocks, and less commonly under stones partly buried in the soil; takes refuge in mammal burrows, the branches of shrubs, and holes in old termite mounds (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and fairly common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

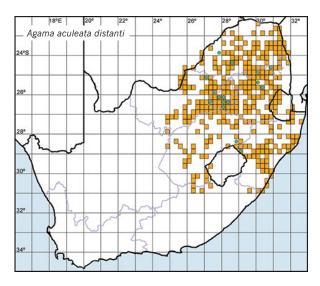
Agama anchietae Bocage, 1896 ANCHIETA'S AGAMA

Atherton L. de Villiers & Michael F. Bates

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A comprehensive phylogeny of African *Agama* is required and the taxonomic status of various taxa should be investigated (Branch *et al.* 2006a). Some molecular work has been done on phylogenetic relationships among southern African *Agama*, and the status of *A. anchietae* as a species distinct from *A. atra* was confirmed by Matthee & Flemming (2002) using sequence data. Morphologically, however, this species may be confused with *A. atra*, *A. hispida* and *A. aculeata*.

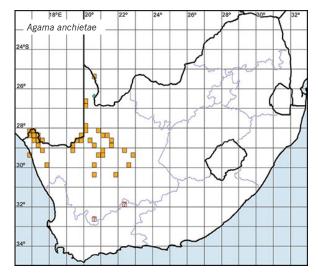
Distribution: This species has an extensive geographical range that extends from the northwestern part of South Africa northwards through Namibia and Angola to the southern Democratic Republic of the Congo (McLachlan 1981; Visser 1984i; Branch 1998). In South Africa, it apparently occurs only in the Northern Cape. However,





Agama aculeata distanti—Schoemanskloof region, MPM





AGAMIDAE

there are two questionable southerly records, one near Sutherland (3220DA) in the Northern Cape and another at Dunedin (3122CD) in the Western Cape. Because this species is easily confused with other agamas (*A. atra, A. hispida, A. aculeata*), the identity of the specimens involved requires confirmation.

Habitat: A partly terrestrial and partly rupicolous lizard that occurs in flat, dry, sparsely-vegetated areas. Typically associated with bedrock, small piles of rocks and broken ground; one was found in the lower branches of a tree (Branch 1994a, 1998; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). Prefers small rubble fields and low rock outcrops (W.R. Branch pers. comm.).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Desert; Succulent Karoo; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Has a widespread distribution in fairly remote areas where land transformation is generally not a threat.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Agama anchietae—S of Grootdrink, NC

M. Burger

Agama armata Peters, 1854 NORTHERN GROUND AGAMA; PETERS' GROUND AGAMA

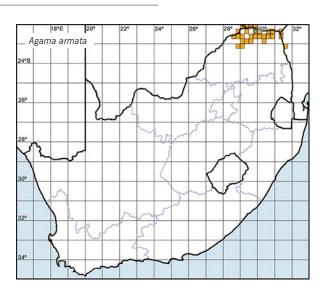
Atherton L. de Villiers & Michael F. Bates

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of the A. aculeata species complex (A. aculeata aculeata, A. a. distanti, A. armata) requires investigation (Branch et al. 2006a). There has been much confusion about the identification and geographical range of A. armata (e.g. Branch 1998), a species that is easily confused with A. aculeata distanti. Agama armata was considered a subspecies of A. aculeata by McLachlan (1981). However, a taxonomic study by Jacobsen (1992c) determined that A. armata. sometimes sympatric with A. aculeata distanti, has a different gular pattern. According to Jacobsen (1992c) the distribution of A. armata in the Atlas region is restricted to the northern half of Limpopo, with the exception of a Swaziland record (not plotted here) which is considered to probably be referable to A. aculeata distanti. The findings of Jacobsen (1992c) are accepted for the time being because there is no contradictory evidence.

Distribution: Has an extensive distribution that ranges southwards from Kenya and Tanzania (Spawls *et al.* 2002) to Zambia, Malawi, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Caprivi Strip of Namibia, eastern Botswana (FitzSimons 1943; McLachlan 1981; Branch 1998) and South Africa, where it is restricted to the northern half of Limpopo (Jacobsen 1992c).

Habitat: A terrestrial and mainly solitary species associated with areas of deep sand, calcrete flats and open woodland (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998, 2005). Often shelters under flat, partially-buried rocks (Jacobsen 1989) and uses a short burrow dug into sandy soil at the base of a bush, or a rodent tunnel, for temporary shelter (Branch 1998, 2005). In South Africa it is found at altitudes of 400–800 m (Jacobsen 1989). In East Africa the species occurs on open plains, in rock outcrops and sheet rock, and shelters in crevices, under rocks or in holes; also known to climb bushes and trees to bask in the sun (Spawls *et al.* 2002).





Agama armata—Greater Kuduland Safaris, E of Tshipise, LIMP M. Burger

Bioregion: Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and apparently relatively common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Agama atra Daudin, 1802 SOUTHERN ROCK AGAMA; SOUTH AFRICAN ROCK (OR MOUNTAIN) AGAMA

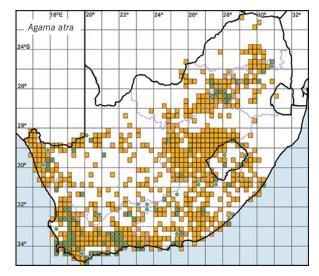
Atherton L. de Villiers & Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: A phylogeny of all African Agama is required and the taxonomic status of various taxa needs further investigation (Branch et al. 2006a). Some work has been done on the phylogenetic relationships among southern African Agama. One such study indicated the existence of three main clades in the A. atra complex, namely a southern-eastern clade, a northern-central clade (including Namagualand) and a Namibian clade (comprising A. atra knobeli) (Matthee & Flemming 2002). A subsequent phylogeographic study of A. atra in the Cape Floristic Region (part of the southern-eastern clade) revealed the existence of four geographically distinct clades of unresolved taxonomic status in this region (Swart et al. 2009). This study also confirmed that the Northern Cape and Namibian populations were genetically distinct from one another, with the Namibian population being recognised as a full species, namely A. knobeli. The taxonomic status of the large-bodied Northern Cape populations (see Flemming 1996) is currently being investigated (M.F. Bates et al. in prep.). Agama atra knobeli was recorded from the Richtersveld area of Namagualand (as far south as the Knersvlakte), apparently based on a larger caudal crest than in A. atra and medially-oriented dorsal imbrication (Branch 1988b, 1998; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]). However, both of these characters are likely to be variable and interpreted subjectively, so for now A. knobeli is considered a Namibian endemic, based on the molecular analyses discussed above.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Occurs virtually throughout South Africa and Lesotho, southeastern Namibia, southeastern Botswana and western Swaziland, wherever there is suitable rocky habitat. However, it is absent from most of KwaZulu-Natal except the Drakensberg



and southeastern parts (Bourquin 2004), and is inexplicably absent from large parts of the northern Free State, even where apparently suitable rocky habitat is available (De Waal 1978). Some records in the Northern Cape could represent an undescribed species (M.F. Bates *et al.* in prep.).

Habitat: A rupicolous lizard found in a variety of rocky habitats, ranging from seashore rocks to rocky hillsides to mountain tops (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989, Branch 1998), from sea level (e.g. Llandudno) to at least 2 200 m (Monontsa Pass) (M.F. Bates pers. obs.). Shelters in rock crevices and under rocks.

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Succulent Karoo; Savanna; Nama-Karoo; Albany Thicket; Desert; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, often abundant.

Conservation measures: If it is determined that this species consists of various cryptic species, a re-appraisal of conservation status may be necessary.



Agama atra-34 km SE of Kanye, E Botswana

W.R. Branch



Agama atra, gravid female—W of Groblershoop, NC

M. Burger

Agama hispida (Kaup, 1827) SOUTHERN SPINY AGAMA; CAPE SPINY AGAMA

Michael F. Bates & Atherton L. de Villiers

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

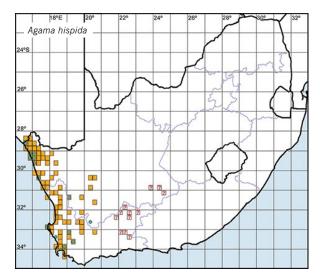
Taxonomy: A comprehensive molecular phylogeny of all southern African agamas is needed to determine relationships. The taxonomic status of populations in the northwestern Free State previously assigned to this species (De Waal 1978; Bates 1992, 1996a) is being re-investigated (M.F. Bates in prep.), and some other easterly records (e.g. McLachlan 1981) may be referable to A. a. aculeata or a similar agamid. Therefore, most records east of 20° longitude should be investigated and the identity of lizards in these areas established.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and adjacent southwestern Namibia (McLachlan 1981). In South Africa it occurs mainly along the West Coast in the winter rainfall areas of the Northern and Western Cape provinces. Several records (question marks on map) from the Nama-Karoo, including the De Aar-Hanover and Beaufort West areas, may refer to A. a. aculeata. Two isolated populations in grassland habitat in the northwestern Free State (not plotted on map) may represent a cryptic taxon (M.F. Bates in prep.).

Habitat: Found in flat sparsely-vegetated areas of the Fynbos Biome in the southwestern parts of South Africa, and the Succulent Karoo Biome in Namaqualand and adjacent areas, particularly in the sandy coastal lowlands. In the rest of its range it occurs mainly in flat sparsely-vegetated



Agama hispidal, male—Strandfontein, West Coast, WC



karroid habitats. Terrestrial and solitary, seeking refuge in holes under large tufts of grass, small bushes or shrubs (FitzSimons 1943; Visser 1984i). Individuals construct short tunnels at the base of bushes, or use small mammal burrows (Branch 1998).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Nama-Karoo; Desert (marginally).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and fairly common.

Conservation measures: If the Free State populations are referable to a new taxon, then a separate assessment will be needed.



Agama hispida, female-near Sutherland, NC

J. Marais

Genus Acanthocercus Fitzinger, 1843—tree and rock agamas

Moody (1980) partitioned the genus *Agama* into five genera, including *Stellio*. Although the name *Stellio* is sometimes still applied to agamas, it is unavailable because it was first used for a monitor lizard (*Stellio saurus* Laurenti, 1768—a junior synonym of *Varanus niloticus* Linnaeus, 1766). *Stellio*, as used by Moody (1980), included Eurasian and African agamids, but these were later separated and the name *Acanthocercus* was applied only to African species and two Arabian species (Baig & Böhme 1997). *Acanthocercus* currently contains eight species (Uetz 2012), five of which are restricted to the Horn of Africa and two to the Arabian Peninsula. The remaining species, *A. atricollis* (including a few subspecies), is found mainly in the eastern half of sub-Saharan

Acanthocercus atricollis atricollis (A. Smith, 1849) SOUTHERN TREE AGAMA; TREE AGAMA; BLACK-NECKED AGAMA

Michael F. Bates & Atherton L. de Villiers

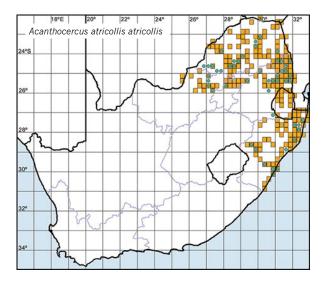
Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Further investigation of the taxonomic status of this species is required. Klausewitz (1957) established six subspecies but the species was treated as being monotypic by Broadley & Howell (1991). The status of these poorly-defined subspecies, of which only *A. a. atricollis* occurs in southern Africa (Branch 1998), is being re-investigated (P. Wagner pers. comm.). Preliminary results indicate that several subspecies should be elevated to species rank (Wagner & Bauer 2012).

Distribution: Has an extensive but somewhat fragmented distribution, ranging southwards and southwestwards

Acanthocercus atricollis atricollis, male—Skukuza, Kruger NP, MPM J. Marais

Africa, entering the *Atlas* region in the northeastern and eastern parts. Preliminary results of a molecular and morphological analysis of *Acanthocercus* indicate that it consists of several distinct genera (Wagner & Bauer 2012). Up to three species of *Acanthocercus* may occur in southern Africa, including *A. atricollis*, the recently described *A. branchi* (Wagner *et al.* 2012b), and another species in Namibia, Angola and Zambia (P. Wagner pers. comm. 2012). Tree and rock agamas are large, diurnal, communal agamids. Some species are rock-dwelling but others, like *A. a. atricollis*, are primarily arboreal. Females lay 4–15 eggs per clutch (Spawls *et al.* 2002). In the *Atlas* region this subspecies is widespread and common, and not of conservation concern.



from Ethiopia through East Africa and Angola into southern Africa, where it occurs in parts of Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, South Africa and Swaziland (FitzSimons 1943; Branch 1998; Clauss & Clauss 2002; Branch 2005). In the *Atlas* region it has a relatively wide distribution in Limpopo, the northern and eastern parts of Mpumalanga, northern Gauteng, northeastern North-West Province, KwaZulu-Natal and Swaziland. There are some records within the Grassland Biome (e.g. 2730CA, 2830AD), but it may be that these areas are wooded or



Acanthocercus atricollis atricollis, female—Lower Sabie, Kruger NP, MPM W.R. Schmidt

that the lizards there are living on buildings and/or trees in gardens.

Habitat: Largely arboreal and typically associated with large trees, but sometimes found among rocks (Spawls *et al.* 2002; Jacobsen 2005) or on walls. Individuals cross open ground only when moving between trees, but may forage at or around the tree base and bury their eggs in moist soil (Jacobsen 1989, 2005; Branch 1998). They take refuge and sleep under loose bark, in hollow branch-

es, or in holes or crevices in tree trunks (Branch 1998; Jacobsen 2005). Found in woodlands and wooded grasslands in KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and very common in certain parts of its range, especially in bushveld areas (Fitz-Simons 1943; Jacobsen 1989).

Conservation measures: None recommended.

CHAPTER 18

Family Typhlopidae

G. John Measey & William R. Branch

Relationships between the main basal groups within snakes have yet to be resolved. One lineage, the scolecophidians, comprises a number of families of so-called 'blind snakes'. A recent phylogeny of scolecophidians (Vidal et al. 2010) reveals a long Gondwanan history and an initial diversification of the group following the separation of East and West Gondwana. Subsequent radiation was accompanied by several oceanic dispersal events, while their exceptional diversification in the Cenozoic was probably linked to a parallel radiation of prey (ants and termites). The main clades of scolecophidians diverged in the Jurassic and Cretaceous between 159 and 97 million years ago, and the very deep genetic divergence between these clades has necessitated the recognition of two new scolecophidian families; the Xenotyphlopidae from Madagascar and the Gerrhopilidae from Sri Lanka to Papua New Guinea (Vidal et al. 2010).

The Typhlopidae is the most diverse scolecophidian family and comprises small- to large-bodied snakes (252 species in 10 genera, Uetz 2012). Scolecophidians typically have conservative morphologies and it is therefore often difficult to distinguish between species. This has probably led to an under-appreciation of their diversity. A preliminary phylogeny of the family (Vidal *et al.* 2010) recovered multiple examples of paraphyly that will require nomenclatural revision.

The two new genera Afrotyphlops and Megatyphlops, and the genus Rhinotyphlops, proposed for African typhlopids (Broadley & Wallach 2009) appear to form monophyletic lineages (Vidal et al. 2010). However, greater taxon sampling is required to assess species assignments and to compare levels of genetic divergence within and between the identified clades. Where molecular phylogenetic techniques have been used, extensive cryptic radiations have been described (e.g. West Indies, Thomas & Hedges 2007). Current assignments of typhlopids within the Atlas region are based on morphological studies, with molecular phylogenetic analysis at a preliminary stage. It is likely that such assessments will greatly increase the number of African genera and species, as they have done for Australian and Caribbean typhlopids and African leptotyphlopids (Adalsteinsson et al. 2009).

Typhlopids are cosmopolitan, with their core distribution in the tropics. Few species occur in temperate areas in either hemisphere. Within the *Atlas* region, four genera are known. One of these, *Ramphotyphlops*, has a single species (Brahminy Blind Snake, *R. braminus*) introduced from Asia. It is not assessed here although an account is presented. *Ramphotyphlops braminus* is parthenogenetic and has apparently spread around the world with horticultural products such as potted plants. The other three genera are *Afrotyphlops* (16 species, two in the *Atlas* region), *Megatyphlops* (four species, two in the *Atlas* region) and *Rhinotyphlops* (four species, two in the *Atlas* region). Some species are widespread (e.g. *R. lalandei*) while others (e.g. *A. fornasinii*) have restricted ranges.

Blind snakes are characterised by tubular bodies, very short tails, uniform scalation around the body, and reduced eyes covered by head shields. Most species are pink or brown, often with irregular dark blotches. Although most species in the family are small, two of the species in the Atlas region, namely M. schlegelii and M. mucruso, are among the largest blind snakes, growing to 1 m in length. This is reflected in their new generic name, Megatyphlops (Broadley & Wallach 2009). The mouths of blind snakes are characteristically very small and they use the toothed maxillary bones of their upper jaws to rake in large numbers of small prey very quickly (Webb & Shine 1993; Kley 2001). These harmless snakes are non-venomous and live underground where they prey on social insects such as ants and termites (Webb et al. 2001). In most species, females lay 4-25 eggs per clutch in late summer and these hatch in autumn (Webb et al. 2001). Bibron's Blind Snake (A. bibronii), however, lays thin-shelled eggs at an advanced stage of development, which hatch in 5-8 days (Erasmus & Branch 1983).

Globally there are currently 61 taxa in this poorly-known family on the Red List, 30 of which are listed as Data Deficient and seven of which are in threatened categories (IUCN 2010b). The species in the *Atlas* region are mostly widespread and common and none are considered to be of conservation concern. However, little is known about the ecology of most species, including how they might be impacted by alien invasives such as the Argentine Ant *Linepithema humile*.

Genus Afrotyphlops Broadley & Wallach, 2009—African blind snakes

Afrotyphlops is a genus of sub-Saharan blind snakes containing 16 species (Broadley & Wallach 2009). The two local species (*A. bibronii*, *A. fornasinii*) both occur in the eastern half of the *Atlas* region. They live underground and feed mostly on ant pupae, which are raided

Afrotyphlops bibronii (A. Smith, 1846) BIBRON'S BLIND SNAKE

G. John Measey

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Previously known as *Typhlops bibronii*, but placed in the new endemic African genus *Afrotyphlops* by Broadley & Wallach (2009). The taxonomic status of the isolated population in eastern Zimbabwe should be investigated using molecular techniques.

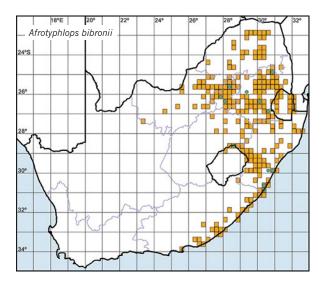
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring mainly in the eastern half of the *Atlas* region and in extreme eastern Botswana (Broadley & Wallach 2009). A relict population exists in eastern Zimbabwe and another may be present in adjacent Mozambique (Broadley 1990b). *Atlas* data suggest that this species also occurs in the southernmost parts of Mozambique.

Habitat: Burrows in loose soil and apparently moves into surface soils in search of macro-invertebrate prey items, especially after rain (Broadley 1990b). Found in old termitaria, and in or on soil under rocks and rotting logs (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989). Occurs at altitudes of 0–2 000 m (Broadley & Wallach 2009).



Afrotyphlops bibronii—near Wolkberg hut, Wolkberg Wilderness Area, LIMP M. Burger

from nests (Webb *et al.* 2001). Females lay 5–14 eggs per clutch; eggs of *A. bibronii* hatch after only 5–8 days (Erasmus & Branch 1983; Branch 1998). Both species are common and wide-ranging and are thus not considered threatened.



Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Afrotyphlops bibronii—Pretoria, GP

J. Marais

Afrotyphlops fornasinii (Bianconi, 1849) FORNASINI'S BLIND SNAKE

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously known as *Typhlops fornasinii*, but placed in the endemic African genus *Afrotyphlops* by Broadley & Wallach (2009). The taxonomic status of the insular populations off the coast of Mozambique should be investigated using molecular techniques, as should the population in southeastern Zimbabwe.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found on the coastal plains of northern KwaZulu-Natal and southern Mozambique as far north as Maputo and the adjacent off-shore islands. An isolated population occurs in southeast-ern Zimbabwe (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998; Broadley & Wallach 2009).

Habitat: Found in coastal sand associated with leaf litter (Branch 1998), at altitudes of 0–100 m (Broadley & Wallach 2009).

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Lowveld.

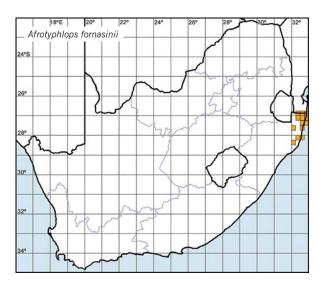
Assessment rationale: This species has a small EOO (5 000 km², on the Endangered threshold) and fairly small AOO (4 000 km²) within the *Atlas* region (both estimates made with a low level of confidence). However, it is common and appears to be tolerant of moderate habitat change.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Afrotyphlops fornasinii—St Lucia, KZN

J. Marais



Genus Megatyphlops Broadley & Wallach, 2009—giant blind snakes

Megatyphlops is an African genus comprising four species (Broadley & Wallach 2009), two (*M. schlegelii*, *M. mucruso*) of which are present in the *Atlas* region. As their name suggests these are large snakes (up to 1 m long), and *M. mucruso* is the largest of all blind snakes. The other mem-

Megatyphlops mucruso (Peters, 1854) ZAMBEZI GIANT BLIND SNAKE;

ZAMBEZI BEAKED BLIND SNAKE

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously known by the name *Rhinotyphlops* schlegelii mucruso, but elevated to full species status and placed in the new genus *Megatyphlops* by Broadley & Wallach (2009).

Distribution: Found in northern Limpopo, South Africa, extending northwards through Zimbabwe, central and northern Mozambique, to coastal Kenya and into the southern Congo basin, including northeastern Angola (Broadley 1990b; Broadley & Wallach 2009). The record in QDGC 2331DC should be checked as it falls within the range of the closely-related *M. schlegelii*.

Habitat: Uses its horny beak to penetrate hard substrates, including termitaria. Occurs at altitudes of 250–900 m in Limpopo (Jacobsen 1989), and elsewhere at 0–1 740 m (Broadley & Wallach 2009).

Bioregion: Mopane; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a fairly restricted range within the *Atlas* region but is probably common and does not appear to be threatened. Outside this region it is also likely to be Least Concern.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Megatyphlops schlegelii (Bianconi, 1847) SCHLEGEL'S GIANT BLIND SNAKE;

SCHLEGEL'S BEAKED BLIND SNAKE

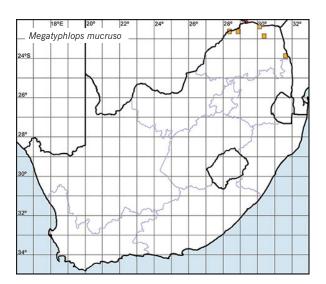
G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Until recently, four subspecies were recognised under the name *Rhinotyphlops schlegelii* (schlegelii, petersii, mucruso, brevis; see Hahn 1980), but the latter two have now been elevated to species status within the genus *Megatyphlops* (Broadley & Wallach 2009). *Rhinotyphlops s. petersii* is considered a junior synonym of *M. schlegelii* (Broadley & Wallach 2009). It would be worthwhile to test the hypotheses proposed in the morphologybased taxonomic revision by means of a molecular investigation of all species in the genus.

Distribution: Endemic to the southern half of Africa. Found in Limpopo, eastern Mpumalanga, Swaziland and north-

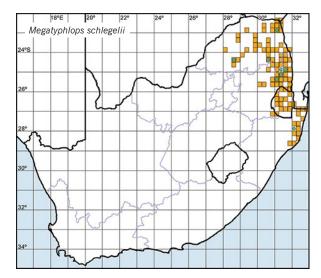
bers of the genus occur elsewhere in eastern and southern Africa. These snakes live much deeper underground than other scolecophidians and are seldom seen. Females usually lay clutches of 12–40 eggs (Branch 1998). They are widespread and not considered to be threatened.





Megatyphlops mucruso—Waterpoort, LIMP

W.D. Haacke



eastern KwaZulu-Natal, as well as southern Mozambique, eastern Botswana, northern Namibia and southern Angola (Broadley & Wallach 2009). Broadley & Wallach (2009) omitted an isolated cluster of records from Gauteng (see Broadley 1990b) and these records have also been excluded from the current assessment. They may, however, require further investigation.

Habitat: Uses its hardened beak to burrow into compact soil, including termitaria, in search of its social macro-invertebrate adult and larval prey (Kley 2001). Most often seen when crossing roads after rain; occurs at altitudes of 200–1 200 m in Limpopo and Mpumalanga (Jacobsen 1989) and 0–200 m in KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Megatyphlops schlegelii—Klaserie, LIMP

D. Pietersen

Genus Ramphotyphlops Fitzinger, 1843—Australasian blind snakes

Ramphotyphlops is a genus of Australasian blind snakes currently containing 27 species (Uetz 2012), most of which occur in Australia. These snakes are restricted to Southeastern Asia, the Philippines, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, and islands of the Indian and western Pacific Oceans, except for *R. braminus* (see below) which has been introduced throughout tropical and subtropi-

Ramphotyphlops braminus (Daudin, 1803) BRAHMINY BLIND SNAKE; FLOWERPOT SNAKE

William R. Branch

Not Applicable

Taxonomy: Paradoxically, this was one of the first snake species to be recorded from South Africa (as *Onychocephalus Capensis* Smith, 1838). It was first recognised as being referable to *Typhlops* (= *Ramphotyphlops*) braminus by McLachlan (1978b) based on the existence of a population on the Cape Peninsula.

Distribution: Found in South East Asia from Philippines to northern Australia and now also known to have been transported to numerous other countries (Broadley & Wallach 2009). Found on the East African coastal plain from Somalia to Beira in Mozambique, with isolated populations now established in Durban and Cape Town. Recently introduced into Egypt (Baha el Din 1996), Central African Republic (Chirio & Ineich 1997) and Libya (Joger *et al.* 2008). In most areas it is restricted to the coastal plain (Branch 1998), but in Tanzania it is known from localities almost 200 km inland (Loveridge 1955). Reported from Cape Town by McLachlan (1978b) and subsequently from Durban by Alexander (1987). Recently found inland in the Western Cape, at Worcester (3319CB) in 1997, and Porterville (3318BB) in 2002 (Turner *et al.* 2007).

Habitat: Usually found in urban gardens where it burrows in moist soil under rocks and rotting logs (Branch 1998). McDowell (1974) first demonstrated that this is an all-female species and the only known parthenogenetic, triploid snake.

Biome: Fynbos, Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Not assessed as it is an introduced species.

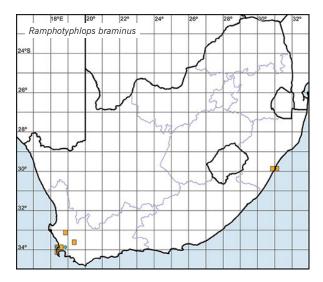
Conservation measures: None recommended.

cal regions of the world (Broadley & Wallach 2009). Males are characterised by an unusual hemipenis with a solid terminal awn (McDowell 1974), while females of all species—except the all-female parthenogenetic *R. braminus*—are oviparous and lay small clutches of eggs, usually about 13 but exceptionally up to 34 (Shine & Webb 1990).



Ramphotyphlops braminus—Durban, KZN

J. Marais



Genus Rhinotyphlops Fitzinger, 1843—beaked blind snakes

Rhinotyphlops is endemic to central, eastern and southern Africa, and contains four species (*R. lalandei*, *R. schinzi*, *R. boylei*, *R. leucocephalus*). The first two species occur in the *Atlas* region, whereas *R. boylei* is restricted to Namibia and Botswana, and *R. leucocephalus* is restricted to Somalia (Broadley & Wallach 2009). *Rhi-*

Rhinotyphlops lalandei (Schlegel, 1839) DELALANDE'S BEAKED BLIND SNAKE

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The taxonomy would be improved by a molecular-based revision of the relict populations in Namibia.

Distribution: Widespread but endemic to southern Africa, occurring from northern Zimbabwe southwards to the Western Cape in South Africa. Also found in Swaziland, western Lesotho, southern Namibia, eastern Botswana and western Mozambique, with isolated populations in central Namibia (Broadley & Wallach 2009). In the *Atlas* region it appears to be absent from Kalahari sands and east of the Drakensberg. Some records in western Lesotho require confirmation.

Habitat: Fossorial, using its hard beak to burrow into firm substrates. It has been found under rocks and rotting logs and in moribund termitaria (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989).

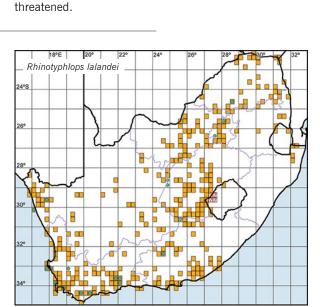
Biome: Grassland; Fynbos; Savanna; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Rhinotyphlops Ialandei—Farm Kalkfontein, about 25 km SSE of Steelpoort, MPM M. Burger



notyphlops boylei may occur in the Mier-Kalahari of the Northern Cape. These harmless snakes live underground

and feed on termites and ant brood (Webb et al. 2001).

Females lay small clutches of 2-4 eggs (Branch 1998).

Neither species in the Atlas region is considered to be



Rhinotyphlops lalandei-Kimberley, NC

D. Maguire



Rhinotyphlops lalandei—near Alldays, LIMP

J. Marais

Rhinotyphlops schinzi (Boettger, 1887) SCHINZ'S BEAKED BLIND SNAKE

G. John Measey

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to Namibia, western Botswana and northwestern South Africa (Broadley 1990a; Broadley & Wallach 2009). Within the *Atlas* region it occurs only in the Northern Cape. Although not commonly encountered, it is likely to be more widespread than *Atlas* records suggest because the Northern Cape has not been comprehensively surveyed.

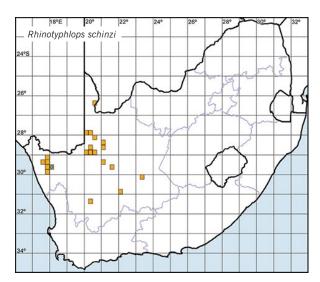
Habitat: The beak of this snake suggests that it is capable of burrowing into hard ground in the arid zones that it inhabits.

Bioregion: Bushmanland, Namaqualand Hardeveld, Upper Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and found in an area with relatively low-impact agricultural practices.



Rhinotyphlops schinzi—Farm Botterkraal, about 37 km SW of Strydenburg, NC M. Burger



Conservation measures: Conduct surveys to discover the true range of the species.



Rhinotyphlops schinzi-Springbok, NC

J. Marais

CHAPTER 19

Family Leptotyphlopidae

William R. Branch & Graham J. Alexander

Thread snakes are small slender snakes that share the following features with other members of the infraorder Scolecophidia: a cylindrical body, reduced ventral scales, reduced eyes covered by head shields, a single visual cell type in the retina, and the complete absence of neural spines on the vertebrae. They are sometimes less appropriately called worm snakes. These snakes have solidly constructed skulls with teeth restricted to the lower jaws. They lack a left lung, a tracheal lung and a left oviduct (Vitt & Caldwell 2009). Except for two species that have 16 midbody scale rows and two others that have 14-16 rows, all other members of the family have 14 midbody scale rows (Broadley & Wallach 2007a). The family includes the world's smallest known snake (Leptotyphlops carlae, 104 mm total length; Hedges 2008), but the West African species Rhinoleptus koniagui can grow as long as 460 mm (Adalsteinsson et al. 2009).

Until recently, all but one (Rhinoleptus koniagui) of the 117 known leptotyphlopid species (Hedges 2008) were placed in the large and widely distributed genus Leptotyphlops. However, recent molecular studies (Adalsteinsson et al. 2009) have revealed deep genetic divergences between morphologically conservative lineages. To better reflect the evolutionary history of the family, it has been subdivided with the description of new subfamilies, tribes and genera. The revised classification recognises two subfamilies, namely Leptotyphlopinae (Africa, Arabia and southwest Asia) and the new subfamily Epictinae (New World and Africa north of the equator). Three tribes are recognised within the Leptotyphlopinae, with the Myriopholini and Leptotyphlopini having representatives in the Atlas region. Within the former, one local species (L. longicaudus) is transferred to the new genus Myriopholis. Most other local species remain in the genus Leptotyphlops, excluding L. occidentalis and L. gracilior, which are both transferred to the new genus Namibiana. Significant non-monophyly within some species complexes, and the estimated long period of time (tens of millions of years) separating populations of currently recognised species, indicate that an unusually large number of cryptic species await description.

The family has a curious distribution in the New and Old World that probably reflects its West Gondwanan origin, with divergences among living lineages occurring as early as the mid-Cretaceous, 92 (113–75) million years ago (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009; Hedges & Vidal 2009). In the New World it occurs from North America south through Middle and South America (exclusive of the high Andes) to Uruguay and Argentina on the Atlantic side. It also occurs on numerous Caribbean islands. In the Old World leptotyphlopinids are distributed throughout Africa (north and south of the Sahara Desert), the Arabian Peninsula and in southwestern Asia (Turkey, Iran, Pakistan and northwestern India) (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009).

All thread snakes live underground and feed almost exclusively on the eggs, larvae and workers of social insects (Webb et al. 2000b). Although often referred to as fossorial, they display few adaptations for burrowing and probably wiggle through existing cracks and insect burrows in the soil. Their minute, slender bodies are vulnerable to attack by the soldier castes of ants and termites, and they therefore probably depend on chemical camouflage to avoid detection. These chemicals may be acquired passively, or secondarily modified, from their food. Such dependence on specific chemical camouflage may result in co-dependence of different thread snakes on specific prey species. This may in turn account for the existence of numerous cryptic taxa within morphologically conservative species complexes. All species are oviparous, laying a small number (1-7) of minute elongate eggs that are unusually attached like a string of sausages (Branch 1998).

Most of the 10 thread snake species in the *Atlas* region are classified as Least Concern, but *L. telloi* has a restricted range and is considered Near Threatened, while *L. sylvicolus* is treated as Data Deficient because its taxonomic status and range boundaries are uncertain. The conservation status of the undescribed species alluded to by Adalsteinsson *et al.* (2009) is unknown.

Genus Leptotyphlops Fitzinger, 1843—typical thread snakes

The greatly reduced nominate genus *Leptotyphlops* is retained for a group of 18–22 species (Broadley & Broadley 1999; Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009; Uetz 2012) that occur in southern and East Africa. Detailed morphological studies of local species (Broadley & Watson 1976; Broadley & Broadley 1999; Broadley & Wallach 1997a,b) have only partially uncovered the extent of thread snake diversity in the *Atlas* region. This existing taxonomy has nevertheless been used for the current assessment pending fuller molecular studies (W.R. Branch & S.B. Hedges in prep.).

Leptotyphlops distanti Boulenger, 1892 DISTANT'S THREAD SNAKE; DISTANT'S WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: This species formed part of the *Leptotyphlops scutifrons* species complex (Broadley & Wallach 2007a). However, Adalsteinsson *et al.* (2009) noted that many species groups recognised previously are paraphyletic, and they therefore refrained from recognising such groups. The status of the apparently isolated population in KwaZu-lu-Natal should be investigated.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa and limited to the northeastern and eastern parts of South Africa and adjacent Mozambique, possibly extending into Swaziland (Branch 1998). There is an isolated population in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal.

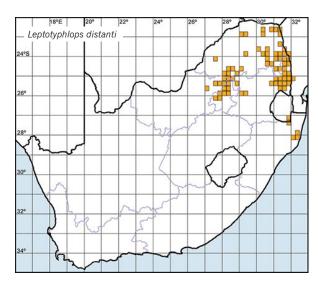
Habitat: Occurs in mesic habitats, ranging from sea level to the Highveld. Found under logs and stones and among the roots of grasses, at altitudes of 250–1 600 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Mopane; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Dry Highveld Grassland (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

These small, slender, harmless snakes live underground and feed mostly on ant pupae (Webb *et al.* 2000b). Females lay small clutches of 3–7 eggs (Branch 1998). Most of the seven described species in the *Atlas* region are listed as Least Concern, but *L. telloi* has a restricted range and is considered Near Threatened, while *L. sylvicolus* is treated as Data Deficient because its taxonomic status and distribution are uncertain. The latter species may in fact consist of a few highly restricted cryptic species that could be of conservation concern.





Leptotyphlops distanti-near Middelburg, MPM

W.R. Branch

Leptotyphlops incognitus Broadley & Watson, 1976 INCOGNITO THREAD SNAKE; INCOGNITO WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This species has a complicated taxonomic history. It was initially described as a subspecies of *Leptotyphlops conjunctus* (Broadley & Watson 1976), which itself has been treated as either a full species or a subspecies of the widespread *L. scutifrons*. It was raised to species status within the *L. scutifrons* species complex by Broadley & Broadley (1999). Recent molecular studies (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009) revealed numerous cryptic species within the *L. scutifrons/conjunctus* complex, including *L. incognitus*. Further studies, including those using DNA sequences from topotypic material (Mutare, Zimbabwe), are required to determine whether *L. incognitus* and based on the latest concept of the species (Broadley & Broadley 1999).

Distribution: Occurs from southern Zambia, southern Malawi, northern and eastern Zimbabwe, and central and southern Mozambique, southwards to Swaziland and the northeastern parts of South Africa, including the provinces of Limpopo, Gauteng, Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal (Broadley & Broadley 1999). Two outlier records shown on the map, at QDGSs 2525DD and 2729AA (see Jacobsen 1989), require confirmation.

Habitat: Found mainly in mesic environments, under rocks and rotting logs and amongst the roots of grasses adjacent to boulders, at elevations of 200–1 600 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Leptotyphlops jacobseni Broadley & Broadley, 1999 JACOBSEN'S THREAD SNAKE; JACOBSEN'S WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

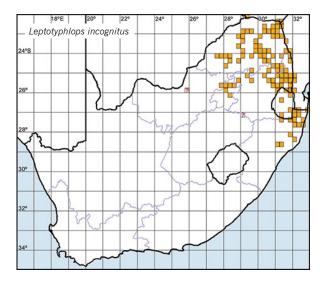
Endemic

Taxonomy: Previously treated as a northern population of *Leptotyphlops nigricans* (Broadley 1990b) but since described as a separate species (Broadley & Broadley 1999).



Leptotyphlops jacobseni-The Downs, LIMF

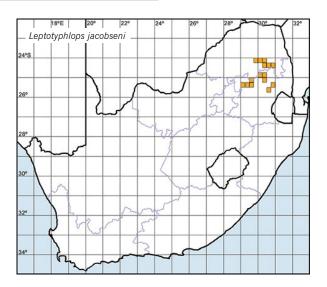
W.D. Haacke





Leptotyphlops incognitus—Farm Hippo, Komati River Valley, MPM W.R. Branch

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Conservation measures: None recommended.



Distribution: Endemic to northern Mpumalanga and southern Limpopo, South Africa (Broadley & Broadley 1999).

Habitat: Restricted to the grasslands of the Afromontane region (1 300–1 700 m) where it has been found under stones and in old termitaria (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley & Broadley 1999).

LEPTOTYPHLOPIDAE

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a relatively restricted range but is abundant and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Leptotyphlops nigricans (Schlegel, 1839) BLACK THREAD SNAKE; BLACK WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Broadley & Broadley (1999) recognised that the disjunct northern populations previously assigned to *Leptotyphlops nigricans* (e.g. Broadley & Watson 1976; Branch 1998) represented different species which they described as *L. jacobseni* and *L. kafue*. They also restricted *L. nigricans* to the two southern Cape provinces. However, recent molecular studies have revealed deep genetic divergence between Western and Eastern Cape populations that may indicate separate species status (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009). The area of separation or overlap between the putative Cape species is unknown and the *Atlas* assessment is based on the current concept of the species (i.e. Broadley & Broadley 1999).

Distribution: Endemic to the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, South Africa (Broadley & Broadley 1999).

Habitat: Strictly subterranean in habits, but little is known about its habitat.

Biome: Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Forests; Grassland; Savanna (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

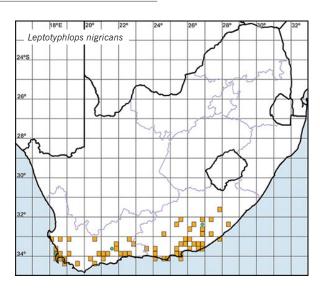
Leptotyphlops scutifrons (Peters, 1854) PETERS' THREAD SNAKE; PETERS' WORM SNAKE

William R. Branch & Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The species complex to which these snakes belong has a convoluted taxonomic history. Taxonomy of the group is only now being unravelled with the aid of molecular analyses (Adalsteinsson et al. 2009). Previously, Leptotyphlops conjunctus and L. incognitus were treated as full species, or as subspecies of L. scutifrons (Broadley & Watson 1976; Broadley & Broadley 1999; Broadley & Wallach 2007a). Moreover, additional subspecies of L. scutifrons are recognised in East Africa (Broadley & Wallach 2007a) and the status of old, poorly known names such as L. conjunctus lepezi remain unresolved. A preliminary molecular phylogeny (Adalsteinsson et al. 2009) has also identified numerous undescribed cryptic species within the L. scutifrons/conjunctus/incognitus complex that require fuller analysis. For this assessment, we follow Broadley & Broadley (1999) in recognising two subspecies (L. s. scutifrons, L. s. conjunctus) in the Atlas region.

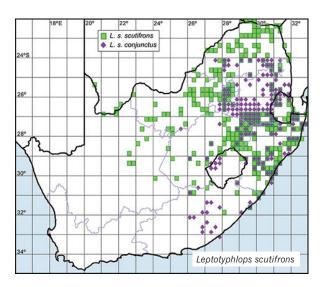
Distribution: Occurs from Tanzania in the north, through





Leptotyphlops nigricans-Commonage, Grahamstown, EC

W.R. Branch



Zimbabwe and Botswana, as far south as the Eastern Cape in South Africa. It occurs in the eastern and central parts of the *Atlas* region, including Swaziland and western Lesotho (Broadley & Broadley 1999; Broadley & Wallach 2007a). The extensive overlap in distributions of the putative sub-



Leptotyphlops scutifrons scutifrons-E of Tshipise, LIMP

M. Burger

species emphasises the unsatisfactory nature of the current taxonomy, but also indicates that museum curators and researchers have difficulty distinguishing between the two taxa using the supposedly diagnostic characters.

Habitat: Strictly subterranean in habits and found in a wide variety of soil types (Branch 1998). A specialist that feeds on ant eggs and their larvae (Webb *et al.* 2000b).

Leptotyphlops sylvicolus Broadley & Wallach, 1997 FOREST THREAD SNAKE:

SOUTHERN FOREST WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Data Deficient

Endemic

Taxonomy: Broadley & Broadley (1999) recorded *L. sylvi-colus* from three isolated populations in forest habitats on the east coast of South Africa. Recent *Atlas* records from grassland habitat in the former Transkei are of specimens that do not fully conform to the morphology of this species, and the deep genetic divergence within this species complex (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009) indicates the presence of a number of undescribed species that may have more restricted ranges and that may be of significant conservation concern.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa. Occurs in coastal northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, central-eastern KwaZulu-Natal and coastal Transkei, Eastern Cape (Broadley & Wallach 2009). Specimens from the Matatiele area (QDGS 3028DB) of inland Eastern Cape, collected during a SARCA field trip, were provisionally assigned to this species by Adalsteinsson *et al.* (2009) and this locality has been included on the map.

EOO: 57 200 km^2 (confidence: low); AOO: 296 km^2 (confidence: low).

Habitat: Subterranean in habits. Eastern populations inhabit forested areas (Broadley & Broadley 1999) but specimens from the Matatiele area of the Eastern Cape were collected in montane grassland.

Vegetation type: FOz 5 Scarp Forest; FOz 3 Southern Mistbelt Forest; CB 1 Maputaland Coastal Belt; Gs 10 Drakensberg Foothill Moist Grassland.



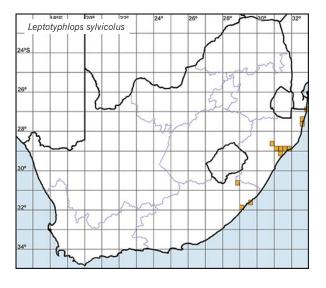
Leptotyphlops scutifrons conjunctus—Hogsback, EC

W.R. Branch

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Nama-Karoo (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: Some of the populations identified by Adalsteinsson *et al.* (2009) as possible new species may have restricted ranges and may later require separate conservation assessments.





Leptotyphlops sylvicolus—near Fever village, about 25 km SW of Cedarville, EC M. Burger

Assessment rationale: There is concern over the taxonomic status of the different populations of *Leptotyphlops sylvicolus* and for this reason, it is assessed as Data Deficient. It appears to be restricted to forest patches (excluding the Matatiele population), most of which are small and isolated. Because of this, it is thought to have a restricted range with an AOO below the Endangered threshold [B2]. The range may also be severely fragmented [B2a] and under threat from deforestation, often for coastal development, resulting in a continuing decline in habitat and population size [B2b(ii,iii,iv,v)].

Leptotyphlops telloi Broadley & Watson, 1976 TELLO'S THREAD SNAKE: TELLO'S WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Near Threatened

Taxonomy: The relationships of this species to other populations in the *Leptotyphlops scutifrons/conjunctus* complex requires further study.

Distribution: Endemic to the Lebombo Mountains on the border between Swaziland and Mozambique (Broadley & Broadley 1999). Boycott (1992b) confirmed the presence of this species in Swaziland (Mambane and Umbuluzi Gorge), but it has not yet been recorded from South Africa.

EOO: 5 400 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 3 038 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Strictly subterranean in habits and restricted to mountainous areas (Broadley & Broadley 1999).

Vegetation type: SVI 16 Southern Lebombo Bushveld; SVI 5 Tshokwane-Hlane Basalt Lowveld.

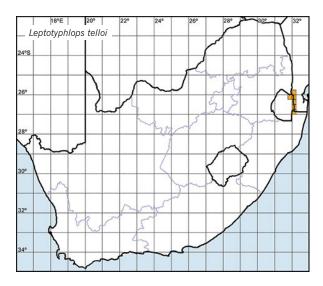
Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO approaches the Endangered threshold) and is rarely found. It is also likely to be experiencing some reduction in AOO as well as population size due to reduction in qual-



Leptotyphlops telloi—N of Umbuluzi Gorge, Swaziland (TM 55433) W.R. Schmidt

Threats: In KwaZulu-Natal the species is restricted to a few indigenous forest patches along the coast, many of which are undergoing rapid transformation (CSIR 2008). There is little potential for dispersal between patches of suitable habitat.

Conservation measures: Protect suitable habitat. If the four isolated populations prove to be separate species, and/or if additional cryptic species are present, these will have very restricted ranges and their conservation status should be re-evaluated.



ity of habitat. The species is therefore classified as Near Threatened.

Threats: Threats include extensive sugarcane farming within the range, and transformation of land due to subsistence farming and development of rural villages.

Conservation measures: Protect suitable habitat within the range.



Leptotyphlops telloi—N of Umbuluzi Gorge, Swaziland (TM 55433) W.R. Schmidt

Genus Myriopholis Hedges, Adalsteinsson & Branch, 2009 -many-scaled thread snakes

The genus Myriopholis contains 24 species, most from the former Leptotyphlops longicaudus group (Broadley & Wallach 2007a; Uetz 2012), with three isolated species from Socotra Island included provisionally. The various species are distributed throughout Africa (north and south of the Sahara Desert), the Arabian Peninsula and southwestern Asia (Turkey, Iran, Pakistan and northwestern India). Members of this genus are distinguished from Leptotyphlops and Namibiana by their higher numbers of subcaudals, a (usually) white ventrum and semilunate cloacal shield. Females lay two or more eggs in summer (Branch 1998). The only species in the Atlas region (M. longicauda) is widespread and common and not of conservation concern.

Myriopholis longicauda (Peters, 1854) LONG-TAILED THREAD SNAKE: LONG-TAILED WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Molecular studies have revealed deep genetic divergence between leptotyphlopid species, and the Leptotyphlops longicaudus species complex has been transferred to the new genus Myriopholis (Adalsteinsson et al. 2009). Some northern populations in East Africa have been assigned to new or revived species (Broadley & Wallach 2007a) but further cryptic species await description (W.R. Branch pers. comm.).

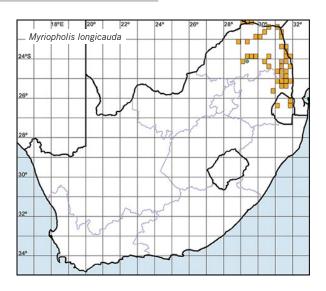
Distribution: Distributed from Zambia and Malawi southwards to South Africa (Limpopo and eastern Mpumalanga) and Swaziland, reaching its western limits in Zimbabwe and eastern Botswana (Broadley & Broadley 1999).

Habitat: Subterranean in habits, occurring in a wide range of mesic soils. Found under rocks on soil at altitudes of 200-1 400 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Myriopholis longicauda—Orpen Gate, Kruger NP, MPM

W.R. Branch

Genus Namibiana Hedges, Adalsteinsson & Branch, 2009—Namib thread snakes

The five species in the genus *Namibiana* occur in southwestern Africa, including South Africa (two species), Namibia (two species) and Angola (two species) (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009). These snakes are distinguished from *Leptotyphlops*

Namibiana gracilior (Boulenger, 1910) SLENDER THREAD SNAKE; SLENDER WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Molecular studies (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009) indicate deep genetic divergence between many leptotyphlopid species. Members of the *Leptotyphlops rostratus* group (*sensu* Broadley & Broadley 1999, i.e. *L. rostratus*, *L. occidentalis*, *L. gracilior*, *L. labialis*, *L. latifrons*) have been placed in the new genus *Namibiana*. The status of the isolated population in southern Namibia should be investigated using molecular data.

Distribution: Endemic to the southwestern parts of southern Africa. Occurs in the western half of the Western Cape and the adjacent southwestern parts of the Northern Cape, with an isolated population in southern Namibia (Broadley & Broadley 1999).

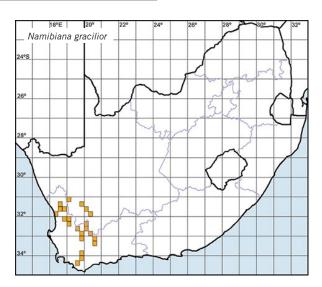
Habitat: Subterranean in habits but often found in old termitaria (Branch 1998).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

and *Myriopholis* by the combination of a semilunate cloacal shield, higher mid-dorsal scale counts and a more elongate body. In the *Atlas* region, *N. gracilior* and *N. occidentalis* are widespread and common and not of conservation concern.





Namibiana gracilior—Clanwilliam district, WC

W.D. Haacke

Namibiana occidentalis (FitzSimons, 1962) WESTERN THREAD SNAKE; WESTERN WORM SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Molecular studies (Adalsteinsson *et al.* 2009) indicate deep genetic divergences between many leptoty-phlopid species. Members of the *Leptotyphlops rostratus* group (*sensu* Broadley & Broadley 1999, i.e. *L. rostratus*, *L. occidentalis*, *L. gracilior*, *L. labialis*, *L. latifrons*) have been placed in the new genus *Namibiana*.

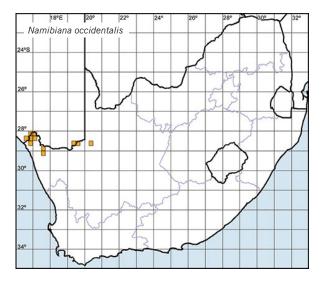
Distribution: Occurs in western and southern Namibia, just entering the Northern Cape, South Africa (Broadley & Broadley 1999).

Habitat: Strictly subterranean in habits and restricted to arid environments.

Bioregion: Richtersveld; Southern Namib Desert; Bushmanland; Gariep Desert; Kalahari Duneveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Namibiana occidentalis—Klein Spitzkoppe, Namibia

W.D. Haacke

CHAPTER 20

Family Pythonidae

James Harvey & Graham J. Alexander

The pythons form a clade that is well supported by morphological and molecular data (Underwood & Stimson 1990; Kluge 1991; Lawson *et al.* 2004; Noonan & Chippindale 2006; Vidal *et al.* 2007b). Although previously considered to be part of the Boidae, several recent molecular studies have shown Pythonidae to be only distantly related to boids. Pythonidae appears to form a monophyletic clade with the families Loxocemidae and Xenopeltidae, with Loxocemidae the closest relative to Pythonidae (Slowinski & Lawson 2002; Wilcox *et al.* 2002; Vidal & Hedges 2004; Lee *et al.* 2007; Vidal *et al.* 2007b). Noonan & Chippindale (2006) also recovered Loxocemidae as a sister taxon to Pythonidae, but found *Xenopeltis* (Xenopeltidae) to be more closely allied to Asian anilioids and to the Caenophidia.

Pythons are found throughout much of sub-Saharan Africa, Southeast Asia, Papua New Guinea and Australia. There are 41 recognised species in nine genera (Kluge 1993b; Rawlings *et al.* 2008; Schleip 2008; Schleip & O'Shea 2010; Uetz 2012). These include new species recently identified in the genera *Python* (Keogh *et al.* 2001), *Morelia* (Harvey *et al.* 2000; Rawlings & Donellan 2003) and *Leiopython* (Schleip 2008). *Python reticulatus* and *P. timoriensis* have been transferred to the genus *Broghammerus* (Rawlings *et al.* 2008). Most python genera and species are restricted to the Australo-Papuan region, with seven genera occurring there (Rawlings *et al.* 2008). Only one genus, namely *Python*, is found in Africa, where four species occur. *Python natalensis* is the only species that occurs within the *Atlas* region.

In the Atlas region, P. natalensis is widespread in warm, mesic habitats, including woodland and forest, and particularly in rocky and riverine areas. It is active at night and during the day, frequently basking in winter. Pythons are terrestrial, but will take to water to seek refuge or to capture prey. This is the largest snake species in the Atlas region, where it reaches lengths of nearly 5 m. Adult pythons usually ambush their prey, but young snakes may hunt more actively. A variety of prey items are taken by P. natalensis, including antelope, monkeys, birds, fish and lizards. Even crocodiles may be taken and these, like all other prey, are killed by constriction (Alexander & Marais 2007). The killing of humans by pythons has been recorded but is rare (Branch & Haacke 1980). Mating in P. natalensis takes place from June to September, and females lay 30–100 eggs (Alexander & Marais 2007). Female pythons coil around their eggs and rely on basking to warm their bodies and thus effectively keep their eggs warm. As a result, the distribution of this species is limited to areas with adequate ambient temperatures that support hatching success (Alexander 2007).

Python natalensis was previously considered as Vulnerable (Branch 1988a) and is currently listed as a CITES II species. In this assessment it is classified as Least Concern.

Genus Python Daudin, 1803—pythons

The genus *Python* is distributed throughout sub-Saharan Africa and Southeast Asia. There are 10 extant species in the genus (Uetz 2012). *Python natalensis*, *P. breitensteini* and *P. brongersmai* are now all recognised as valid species (Broadley 1999a; Keogh *et al.* 2001; Schleip & O'Shea 2010), while *P. reticulatus* and *P. timoriensis* were recently transferred to *Broghammerus* (Rawlings *et al.* 2008). Four species are found in Africa, namely *P. anchietae*, *P. regius*,

Python natalensis A. Smith, 1840 SOUTHERN AFRICAN PYTHON

Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

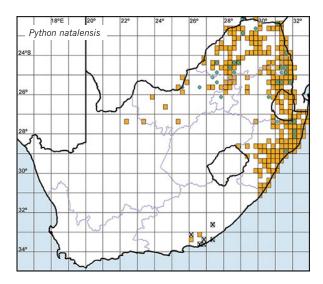
Taxonomy: Raised to specific status by Broadley (1999a) based on morphological characters. Although the current taxonomic arrangement appears appropriate, a genetic analysis is needed to conclusively resolve the relationship between *Python natalensis* and *P. sebae* (Alexander 2007). The exact ranges of the two species, particularly in areas of possible sympatry in East and Central Africa, have not yet been accurately delineated.

Distribution: Endemic to the southern half of Africa. Occurs from the equator southwards to the northern and eastern parts of South Africa (Alexander 2007), including the northeastern parts of the Northern Cape, and Swaziland. In the west the species only reaches as far north as the northern border of Angola, but appears to penetrate farther north in the east at elevated altitudes on the eastern and western arcs of the Rift Valley (Broadley 1999a). The southernmost population, in the Eastern Cape, is isolated from other populations by a distance of more than 350 km. This population was thought to have been extirpated in the early part of the twentieth century (FitzSimons 1962), but occasional records from the region (e.g. Alicedale 3326AC, 1980s, W.R. Branch unpubl. data) indicate that small populations may still survive there. Specimens were introduced into the Andries Vosloo Kudu Reserve (3326BA) in the early 1980s, and subsequent records, including records of hatchlings, indicate that the introduction was successful, at least in the short term (W.R. Branch unpubl. data). Apart from the Alicedale and Andries Vosloo populations, all other populations in the Eastern Cape are now considered extirpated, as there have not been any reports of their continued existence within the last 50 years.

Habitat: Found in a wide variety of habitats but usually in riverine or rocky areas, and often in association with large animal burrows. Although more abundant in lowlying areas, it may occur on lower mountain slopes if suitable rocky refugia are available (Alexander 2007).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket; Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Although the species is widespread, the large size of individuals, the relatively low densities of populations, and its status as a top predator, *P.* sebae and *P.* natalenis, but only the latter occurs in the *Atlas* region where it is restricted to the north and east. It occurs in mesic habitats, particularly in rocky and riparian areas, where it feeds on a variety of mammals, birds, reptiles and fish. From 30 to 100 eggs are laid in spring (Alexander 2007). *Python natalensis* was previously listed as Vulnerable (Branch 1988a) but it currently does not meet the criteria to be considered threatened or even Near Threatened.





Python natalensis

W.R. Schmidt

make *P. natalensis* especially sensitive to habitat transformation and fragmentation. This has resulted in declines or extirpation of several populations (FitzSimons 1962; Alexander 1990), but these have not been sufficiently extensive for the species to be classified as threatened. Furthermore, significant immigration of reproductively mature individuals from surrounding areas into the *Atlas* region is expected. This regional assessment is therefore Least Concern.

Conservation measures: Measure population densities and investigate the species' spatial ecology in order to estimate the minimum area needed to sustain populations.

CHAPTER 21

Family Viperidae

Andrew A. Turner & William R. Branch

The family Viperidae is monophyletic (Wüster et al. 2008) and consists of 38 genera and 315 species (Uetz 2012). Studies on Asian and Neotropical crotalines have resulted in the recognition of numerous new genera, some of which remain controversial. Representatives of the family occur on all continents except Australia and Antarctica. The family comprises two well-defined radiations: pit vipers (Crotalinae) distributed mainly in Asia and the Americas, and Old World adders (Viperinae) restricted mainly to the western Palaearctic and Africa. African night adders (Causus) share a number of putatively primitive features, e.g. oviparity and enlarged head shields, that have led to the assumption by McDiarmid et al. (1999) that they are basal viperids, sometimes placed in a separate subfamily Causinae. However, recent molecular phylogenetic studies (Nagy et al. 2005; Wüster et al. 2008) have shown that Causus is nested within the viperines, obviating the need for a separate subfamily. Only the Viperinae occur in Africa.

Viperidae is represented in Africa by 11 genera: *Bitis, Causus, Atheris, Montatheris, Proatheris, Echis, Cerastes, Pseudocerastes, Daboia, Vipera* and *Macrovipera* (Spawls & Branch 1995; Lenk *et al.* 2001). The monotypic genus *Adenorhinos* has been placed in the synonomy of *Atheris* (Lenk *et al.* 2001; Wüster *et al.* 2008; Branch & Bayliss 2009). In the *Atlas* region there are currently 11 species of *Bitis* and two species of *Causus.* An additional genus, *Proatheris*, occurs elsewhere in southern Africa and beyond. Distinct phylogenetic clades have been identified within *Bitis* and a number of subgenera recognised (see Chapter 2).

Members of this family all have highly enlarged tubular fangs that are positioned towards the front of the mouth. They can rotate forward during biting and swallowing, but lie flat against the roof of the mouth when not in use. Most species have thick-set, or at least short, bodies compared to typical colubrids, and a wide head that is distinct from the neck. The night adders, *Causus*, have smaller fangs, enlarged head shields, narrower heads and more slender bodies than *Bitis*.

Female *Bitis* give birth to young (usually 16–43 per litter in the large species *B. arietans* and *B. gabonica*; 3–15 per litter in the other, smaller species), whereas female *Causus* lay 6–26 eggs per clutch (Branch 1998). The Puff Adder (*B. arietans*) is unusual in that very large Ugandan females can give birth to extremely large litters of up to 156 young (Janecek 1976). Many of the smaller species of *Bitis* feed largely on lizards, while the larger species feed primarily on rodents. Their large gape and body girth allow adders to consume very large meals in relation to their body size (see Branch *et al.* 2002). Night adders (*Causus*) prey mainly on frogs.

All African viperids have very long fangs and produce venom capable of causing serious injury to humans. Because the larger *Bitis* species can inflict fatal bites, they are often persecuted by humans. The larger species, such as *B. arietans* and *B. gabonica*, are harvested for food in some parts of Africa (e.g. Fa & Gracia Yuste 2001; Mawoung 2006). Despite this, *B. arietans* is a very common snake in the *Atlas* region and *B. gabonica* is very widespread outside the *Atlas* region (Spawls *et al.* 2002). Several *Bitis* species are popular in the pet trade and this is a cause of concern for species with limited distributions, such as *B. albanica*.

Neither species of *Causus* is of conservation concern. *Bitis albanica* is regarded as Critically Endangered, *B. inornata* as Endangered, *B. armata* as Vulnerable and *B. gabonica* as Near Threatened. The main threat to these species is habitat loss. *Bitis schneideri* was treated as Vulnerable by the IUCN (1996), while *B. xeropaga* was classified as Peripheral in the Red Data Book (Branch 1988a), but both species are now classified as Least Concern.

Genus Bitis Gray, 1842—African adders

Bitis is a diverse genus containing 17 species (Uetz 2012). All of these are endemic to Africa except B. arietans, which extends marginally into the Arabian Peninsula. There are five main clades in this genus: i) Puff Adder (B. arietans), ii) large bodied-taxa (Bitis gabonica, B. rhinoceros, B. nasicornis), iii) dwarf adders (B. albanica, B. armata, B. atropos, B. inornata, B. rubida, B. xeropaga), iv) desert adders (B. caudalis, B. cornuta, B. peringueyi, B. schneideri), and v) Kenya Horned Viper (B. worthingtoni) (Lenk et al. 1999). A number of subgenera have been proposed for these clades (see discussion in Chapter 2). The phylogenetic positions of *B. heraldica* from Angola and B. parviocula from Ethiopia are unknown. Several of these species show substantial genetic and morphological divergence across their ranges. Taxonomic amendments are in progress and are likely to increase the number of described species. Currently 11 species of Bitis are known from the Atlas area, but cryptic taxa within B. atropos are likely to increase this count (Kelly et al. 2009a). Four species (B. armata, B. albanica, B. rubida, B. inornata) are endemic to the Cape provinces of South Africa and all

Bitis albanica Hewitt, 1937 ALBANY ADDER

William R. Branch & Andrew A. Turner

Global: Critically Endangered B1ab(ii,iii,v)

Endemic

Taxonomy: Until recently, several taxa were included under the name *Bitis cornuta*, either as synonyms or subspecies. These included *B. albanica*, *B. armata* and *B. inornata*, which are all now recognised as full species (Branch 1998, 1999; Marais 2004; Alexander & Marais 2007; Phelps 2009). Ongoing genetic studies (A. Barlow pers. comm.) may affect this arrangement.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and restricted to inland areas of Albany Bay in the Eastern Cape (Branch 1998). Probably extinct at several historical localities (see crosses on map) and currently considered to occur in only two adjacent QDGCs.

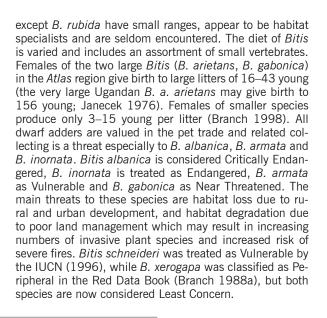
EOO: 95 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 50 km² (confidence: medium).

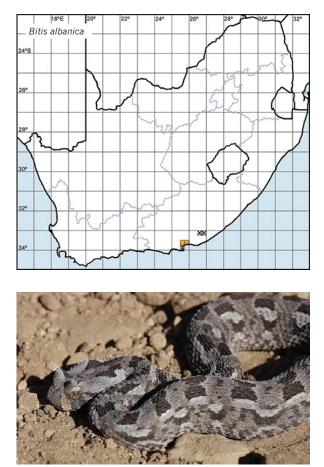
Habitat: Found in bontveld vegetation (or Coega Bontveld following Mucina & Rutherford 2006) and occurs northeast of Port Elizabeth on limestone (Nanaga formation) and calcareous paleodunes (Cenozoic Algoa Group). Altitudes range from sea level to 400 m. The area receives bimodal rainfall with maxima in March and October. It is a semi-arid landscape with precipitation ranging from 400 mm per annum inland to 550 mm per annum closer to the coast. The mean maximum and minimum monthly temperatures are 32.1°C and 3.4°C and frost is rare, occurring on average only three days per year (see Mucina & Rutherford 2006).

Bioregion: Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Has a very restricted distribution (EOO below the Critically Endangered threshold [B1] and AOO 50 km²), the single known surviving population constitutes one location [B1a], and critical habitat is current-

VIPERIDAE





Bitis albanica, male—Grassyridge, EC

T. Phelps

ly being extensively strip-mined for limestone pavement [B1b(ii,iii,v)]. The range of *B. albanica* appears to have undergone considerable contraction, as no specimens have been collected from two historical areas (Die Dune, Port Elizabeth; and Brak Kloof and Kleinpoort, Graham-

stown) despite directed searches in these areas. All recent records (12 specimens since 1995) are restricted to a 10 km strip currently being mined for limestone pavement. Coega Bontveld habitat is poorly protected and more than 60% of this vegetation type falls within the PPC Grassridge mine and may be strip-mined for limestone in the next 10–20 years, i.e. 3–6 generations for this species.

Threats: Habitat destruction is the main threat. Coega Bontveld has a total area of 24 622 ha and 93% of this was untransformed when the habitat was last assessed (around 2005; Mucina & Rutherford 2006). However, the development of limestone strip mining and the Coega Industrial Development Zone are likely to push this vegetation type to near extinction, and it is likely that in 20 years

Bitis arietans arietans (Merrem, 1820) PUFF ADDER

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Bitis arietans contains significant phylogeographic structure (Lenk et al. 1999). The implications of this for the systematics of this taxon are being investigated. Barlow et al. (2013) studied the molecular phylogeography of B. arietans thoughout Africa (but excluding Somalia where B. a. somalica occurs) and determined that there were several parapatric mitochondrial clades, including a widespread southern African clade subdivided into four separate subclades. While the taxonomic status of the various African clades requires further investigation, evidence of secondary admixture of genes among previously isolated refugial populations suggested that southern African subclades do not represent cryptic species. A complex history of refugial isolation and secondary expansion associated with climatic cycles was indicated for southern Africa (Barlow et al. 2013). Two subspecies are currently recognised, namely B. a. arietans (widespread in sub-Saharan Africa) and B. a. somalica (restricted to Somalia) (Branch 1999b).

Distribution: Occurs throughout most of sub-Saharan Africa and extends to the Arabian Peninsula (Broadley 1990b; Spawls & Branch 1995). Very widespread in the *Atlas* region, avoiding only the driest deserts and the highest mountains (Branch 1998).

Habitat: Occurs in a wide variety of habitats but is absent from alpine areas, dense forests and true deserts (Branch 1998). Although it can be described as a habitat generalist,

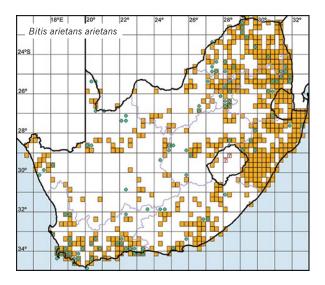


Bitis arietans arietans—near Venetia Limpopo NR, LIMP

M. Burger

time a maximum of only 15% of this vegetation type will remain.

Conservation measures: Draw up a BMP-S as a matter of urgency, and conduct a PHVA. Conduct surveys to establish whether this adder is present in the Greater Addo Elephant National Park. Conduct research to improve knowledge of biology, population numbers and habitat requirements. Provide protection through local and national legislation. Attempt to quantify the extent of the removal of this species from the wild for the commercial pet trade. Provide formal protection for at least one locality known to harbour populations of the species. This should encompass sufficient unmined Bontveld habitat (i.e. intact limestone pavement) to protect a sustainable population of at least 200 mature adult snakes.



population densities vary throughout its range; where it is abundant, it appears to prefer bushy cover (Phelps 2009).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Fynbos; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and abundant across the entire *Atlas* region (Branch 1998; Marais 2004). However, there are systematic issues that need attention and that may result in the recognition of additional taxa. Nevertheless, and despite fear-driven persecution of this snake by humans, its threat status is likely to remain Least Concern.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Bitis arietans arietans—Table Mountain, Cape Town, WC

Bitis armata (A. Smith, 1826) SOUTHERN ADDER

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(i,ii,iii,iv)+2ab(i,ii,iii,iv)

Endemic

Taxonomy: Until recently, several taxa were included under the name *Bitis cornuta*. These included *B. armata*, *B. albanica*, *B. inornata* and *B. rubida*, which are all now recognised as full species (Branch 1997, 1998, 1999a; Marais 2004; Alexander & Marais 2007; Phelps 2009). The taxonomic status of the isolated population around Langebaan is worth investigating. However, judging by the intermediate location of the extirpated population around Cape Town and a single recent record nearby, the Langebaan population was probably isolated only recently.

Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape, South Africa. Found in two disjunct coastal regions: around Langebaan Peninsula on the West Coast, and from the Bot River area to the Breede River mouth on the south coast. There may also be very small remnant populations between Somerset West and Danger Point. Branch's (1999) Potberg record (3420BC) for *B. cornuta* is considered to be referable to *B. armata* as there are recent records of this species from that locality.

EOO: 12 945 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 830 km² (confidence: high).

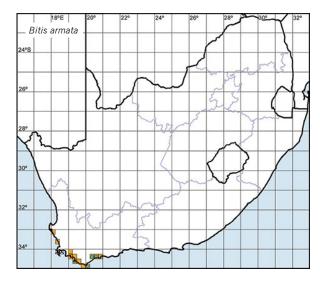
Habitat: Occurs mainly in coastal fynbos associated with limestone geology. Shelters under limestone rock slabs between dense shrubs on coastal plains (Branch 1998). Has pronounced arboreal habits and has been found in bushes 1.5–2 m above the ground (Phelps 2006). Although typically a snake of low-lying fynbos, one individual near Gansbaai was found at an altitude of 300 m (Phelps 2009).

Bioregion: South Strandveld; South Coast Fynbos; Dune Thicket; East Coast Renosterveld; Southwest Fynbos; West Strandveld; Estuarine Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range (EOO and AOO below the Vulnerable thresholds) which is severely fragmented [B1a+2a]. The Southern Adder is confined to a particular habitat type, which, outside of protected areas, is threatened by housing and other developments. It is also collected for the pet trade and has suffered extirpation in several areas near Cape Town (Branch 1999a). Because the range continues to decrease in size and quality [B1b(i,ii,iii)+2b(i,ii,iii)], and because the number of subpopulations is also decreasing [B1b(iv)+2b(iv)], this species is considered Vulnerable.

Threats: Threatened primarily by residential and other developments. It is vulnerable to further loss of habitat and population declines because of its restricted distribution and confinement to a particular habitat type in coastal areas that are targeted for housing developments. In many areas the habitat is also affected by invasive alien trees that change the habitat structure and diversity of indigenous vegetation, impact negatively on water regimes, and increase the severity of fires. This species is also collected for the pet trade.

Conservation measures: Protect populations that currently fall outside conservation areas. This may take the form of private conservation initiatives and will be most effective if corridors between protected areas are established and protected. Perform population size estimates for pop-





Bitis armata, adult female-De Hoop NR, WC

T. Phelps



Bitis armata, male—De Hoop NR, WC

T. Phelps

ulations in protected areas. Ensure that this species is covered by regional and national legislation. Develop a BMP-S for those populations outside of formally conserved areas so as to galvanise conservation action for the most threatened populations.

Bitis atropos (Linnaeus, 1758) BERG ADDER

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Several discrete populations occur along the southern African escarpment. Molecular analysis supports morphological differences between these isolates, indicating that at least three cryptic taxa are subsumed under this name (W.R. Branch & C. Kelly pers. comm.). Although FitzSimons (1959) described the subspecies *B. a. unicolor* on the basis of patternless specimens from Belfast, the applicability of this name to the Mpumalanga escarpment populations requires further assessment.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Occurs in at least four disjunct populations: i) Cape Fold Mountains in the Western and Eastern Cape, ii) Maloti-Drakensberg of Lesotho and adjacent parts of KwaZulu-Natal, Free State and Eastern Cape, iii) Mpumalanga and Limpopo escarpment, and iv) eastern highlands of Zimbabwe and adjacent Mozambique (Broadley 1990a; Branch 1998; Marais 2004; Alexander & Marais 2007; Phelps 2009). Old records from East London (3327BB) and Whitney (3326DA) are considered unlikely, as is an old record from Swaershoek (3225AD; FitzSimons 1962). However, the latter is supported by a specimen (TM 35635, may be lost) collected in 1968 on the farm Mt. Marlow near Swaershoek (3225DA) and a more recent specimen from Petersburg (3225BD) that was found in Themeda grassland associated with isolated mountains of the inland escarpment (W.R. Branch pers. comm.). The species has never been recorded from the montane grasslands of the



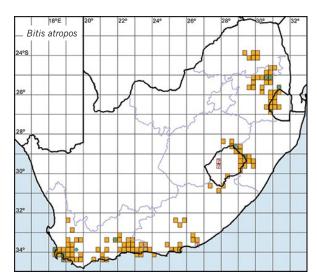
Bitis atropos-WC

J. Marais



Bitis atropos-Wolkberg near Tzaneen, LIMP

J. Marais



Amatole Range in the Eastern Cape, even though other montane reptiles (e.g. *Afroedura*, *Pseudocordylus melanotus subviridis*) from the Drakensberg are known from the region. Old records of *B. atropos* from the Suurberg around Grahamstown (Hewitt 1937a; FitzSimons 1962), and from the coastal Marine Drive area of Port Elizabeth (FitzSimons 1962), have not been supported by additional material during the last 25–50 years, and these populations may therefore have been extirpated (W.R. Branch pers. obs.). Records in central Lesotho require confirmation.

Habitat: Occupies grass- or restio-covered mountain slopes and summits. Takes refuge under rock slabs and tussocks of grass (Jacobsen 1989). Some populations



Bitis atropos-Mt Sheba, MPM

J. Marais



Bitis atropos—Finsbury near Lydenburg, MPM

J. Marais

in the Western and Eastern Cape provinces occur at sea level. Syntopic with *Bitis cornuta* and *B. rubida* in the Cederberg Range, and with *B. rubida* in the Swartberg Range (Phelps 2009).

Biome: Grassland; Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, occurring in several protected areas including mountains not easily accessible to humans. However, the Berg Adder is collected for the pet trade, and is negatively affected by high intensity grazing and associated fires. Fires in some parts of Mpumalanga result in snakes being burnt while sheltering under flat stones (N.H.G. Jacobsen pers. comm.).

Conservation measures: Once the current systematic revision (W.R. Branch & C. Kelly in prep.) has been completed, the conservation status of all resultant taxa should be assessed.



Bitis atropos-Klein Swartberg, WC

W.R. Branch

Bitis caudalis (A. Smith, 1839) HORNED ADDER

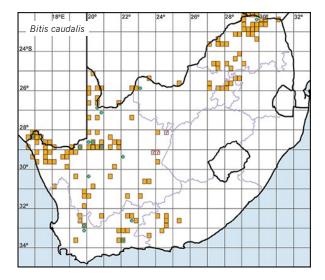
Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Preliminary phylogeographic analysis indicates appreciable regional divergence (A. Barlow *et al.* unpubl. data).

Distribution: Occurs from southern Angola eastwards to southern Zimbabwe and southwards through Limpopo to the western half of South Africa, including the southeastern Karoo of the Eastern Cape (Branch 1998; Broadley 1990b; Alexander & Marais 2007). Widespread in the northern and western parts of South Africa but absent from the southern coastal region. Further study is required to determine whether recent records from the Oudtshoorn area in the Little Karoo (e.g. Phelps & Els 2006) represent recent range extensions or general rarity of the taxon in the region. A few old records from the eastern Great Karoo also require confirmation.

Habitat: Prefers hot, dry, open areas. May bury itself in sand with only the top of the head exposed, but also seeks refuge under rocks and vegetation; occurs at elevations of 300–1 600 m in the northern parts of the region (Jacobsen 1989).



Biome: Savanna; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widely distributed, common in suitable habitats and found in several protected areas. In parts of its range habitat destruction is evident, and there is an unknown level of harvesting for the pet trade.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Bitis caudalis-NE of Tshipise, LIMP

M. Burger



Bitis caudalis—Oudtshoorn, WC

T. Phelps

VIPERIDAE

Bitis cornuta (Daudin, 1803) MANY-HORNED ADDER

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Until recently, several taxa were included under the name *Bitis cornuta*. These included *B. albanica, B. armata, B. inornata* and *B. rubida*, which are all now recognised as full species (Branch 1998, 1999a; Marais 2004; Alexander & Marais 2007; Phelps 2009).

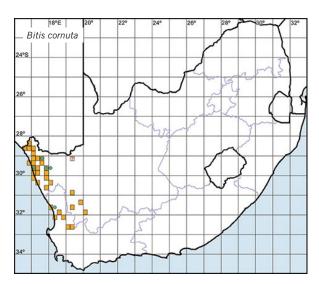
Distribution: Endemic to southwestern Africa. Recorded from Moeb Bay in Namibia southwards along the West Coast of South Africa (Broadley 1990b). In the *Atlas* region it occurs in the western parts of Northern Cape and northwestern parts of Western Cape, as far south as Graafwater. There is still some uncertainty regarding the southernmost extent of its range. Old records from Porterville and Bredasdorp (Branch 1999a) may be referable to other species of dwarf adder (e.g. *Bitis rubida*, *B. armata*), but have been excluded from all maps pending confirmation. Branch's (1999a) Potberg record (3420BC) is considered to be referable to *B. armata* as there are recent records of this species from that locality.

Habitat: Found mainly in dry to very dry rocky habitat and gravel plains with low shrub vegetation. Syntopic with *Bitis rubida* and *B. atropos* in the Cederberg Range (Phelps 2009).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Fynbos; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and found in areas that are generally sparsely inhabited by humans. The status of Least Concern may change, however, as the species is illegally traded and does not occur in many protected areas in South Africa or Namibia.

Conservation measures: Conduct surveys to determine the extent of its range, especially in the south.





Bitis cornuta—Noup, Namaqualand, NC

J. Marais

Bitis gabonica (Duméril, Bibron & Duméril, 1854) GABOON ADDER; GABOON VIPER

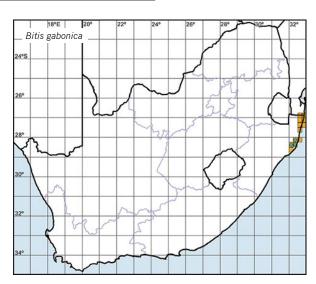
Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Near Threatened



Bitis gabonica-Monzi, KZN

T. Phelps



Taxonomy: Molecular studies have indicated that the disjunct South African population has not diverged from populations to the north (W. Wüster & A. Barlow unpubl. data). The South African population is also morphologically similar to the closest population in Zimbabwe/Mozambique (e.g. Broadley 1990b). The lack of genetic differ-

entiation suggests that B. gabonica once had a large and continuous distribution that was fragmented only relatively recently, resulting in various isolated populations such as the one in the Atlas region (W. Wüster & A. Barlow unpubl. data). This population should be considered regionally important in terms of the overall conservation of the species and the maintenance of genetic variability. Bitis rhinoceros of West Africa is now treated as a full species and not a subspecies of B. gabonica, rendering the latter monotypic (Lenk et al. 2001).

Distribution: Widespread in the Congo Basin, extending marginally into adjacent areas such as southern Nigeria and northern Zambia, with isolated populations in South Sudan and eastern and southern Africa, the southernmost occurring in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal. Upper Guinea populations are now referred to B. rhinoceros. The population in South Africa is geographically isolated, with the nearest population in the forests of the eastern escarpment of Zimbabwe and adjacent forests in Mozambique (Broadley 1990b; Spawls & Branch 1995; Branch 1998; Phelps 2009).

EOO: 6 075 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 1 080 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: In southern Africa this species is restricted to the subtropical northeastern coastal plain where it occupies moist coastal forests and surrounding moist grasslands and thickets; often found in the ecotone between forests and grassland (Branch 1998; Alexander & Marais 2007; Phelps 2009). The habitat has been described as 'forestthicket-grassland mosaic' (Perrin & Bodbijl 2001), but according to Warner (2009) these snakes occur mainly in coastal dune forest which occurs as a strip of up to a few kilometres wide along the coastline. They occasionally move onto frontal dunes near the seashore (Phelps 2003).

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Freshwater Wetlands; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted and fragmented distribution within the Atlas region, where EEO and AOO fall below the VU threshold and there is a continuing decline in area, extent and quality of habitat [B1b(iii)+2b(iii)]. There is extensive habitat fragmentation in the south of the range, mainly the result of dune mining, but most of the regional distribution (in the north) is situated within the iSimangaliso Wetland Park, where a strip of up to a few kilometres wide of suitable coastal dune forest habitat is continuously protected for over 200 km along the coastline. Threats to this species have not abated and at least one locality (Dukuduku Forest) has been 'decimated' (Alexander & Marais 2007). Because the South African breeding population is unlikely to receive significant immigration from outside the Atlas region, this regional assessment of Near Threatened is not downgraded.

Threats: This species has a restricted distribution in the Atlas region and is largely dependent on forests which are constantly being degraded. It is threatened due to habitat loss, collection for the pet and muti (traditional medicine) trades, and road mortality, and is indiscriminately killed by locals in areas of forest encroachment outside protected areas.

Conservation measures: Monitor and compare populations inside and outside the iSimangaliso Wetland Park. Draft a BMP-S that addresses the issues of populations outside protected areas, re-introductions and translocations. Determine the phylogenetic position of the South African population relative to the Zimbabwe/Mozambigue population, thus allowing management actions to be relevant from an evolutionary perspective. Conduct a PHVA.

Bitis inornata (A. Smith, 1838) PLAIN MOUNTAIN ADDER

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Endangered B1ab(iii)+2ab(iii)

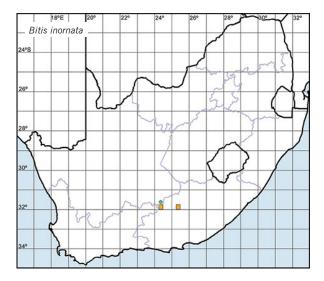
Endemic

Taxonomy: Until recently several taxa were included under the name Bitis cornuta. These included B. inornata, B. albanica, B. armata and B. rubida, which are all now recognised as full species (Branch 1998, 1999a; Marais 2004; Alexander & Marais 2007; Phelps 2009).

Distribution: Endemic to the Eastern Cape, South Africa, where it is limited to the Sneeuberg Range and surrounding mountains near Graaff-Reinet. The northernmost locality (3124CB) is a Virtual Museum record.



Bitis inornata-Compassberg region, EC



EOO: 4 050 km² (confidence: low); AOO: 1 620 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: Occurs at high altitudes (>1 500 m) in grassland areas. Takes cover in tussocks of grass and under slabs of rock on the tops of mountains (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Upper Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Occurs in a restricted area (EOO <5 000 km²) and is known from only two locations [B1a]. Its habitat has undergone significant transformation [B1b(iii)], mostly through agricultural development. Although this adder prefers higher lying areas that are less subject to intensive agriculture (mostly grazing), altered fire regimes are likely to have a detrimental effect. The extent to which this habitat transformation has fragmented populations is unknown. Specimens are seldom encountered, indicating that the species is naturally rare and possibly becoming increasingly scarce (Marais 2004; W.R. Branch pers. comm.).

Bitis rubida Branch, 1997 RED ADDER

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Until recently several taxa were included under the name *Bitis cornuta*. These included *B. rubida*, *B. albanica*, *B. armata* and *B. inornata*, which are all now recognised as full species (Branch 1998, 1999a; Marais 2004; Alexander & Marais 2007; Phelps 2009). There are still uncertainties as to the extent of phylogeographic differences within *B. rubida*.

Distribution: Endemic to the Western Cape and adjacent parts of the southern Northern Cape and western Eastern Cape, South Africa. Occurs from the Cederberg Mountains southwards through the Cape Fold Mountains around Ceres and eastwards through the Little Karoo to Willowmore (Branch 1999a; Marais 2004).

Habitat: Found on rocky mountain slopes in the Succulent Karoo and Fynbos (including renosterveld) biomes. Takes shelter under rock slabs on the slopes or tops of mountains (Branch 1998). Syntopic with *B. cornuta* and *B. atropos* in the Cederberg Range, and with *B. atropos* in the Swartberg Range (Phelps 2009). Several populations in the vicinity of Ladismith in the Western Cape occur on sparsely-vegetated gravel plains (T. Phelps pers. obs.).

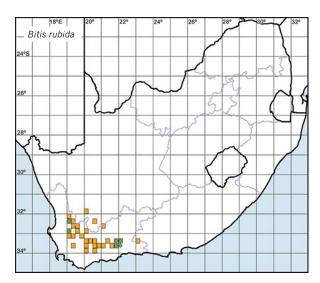


Bitis rubida-Cederberg, WC

W.R. Branch

Threats: There is increasing agricultural impact on the habitat of this species, ranging from grazing to the setting of regular fires.

Conservation measures: Design a BMP-S. Manage specific areas within the range to protect this snake from the negative impacts of agriculture and fire. Conduct a study aimed at gathering data on distribution and habitat requirements.



Bioregion: Western Fynbos-Renosterveld; Northwest Fynbos; Rainshadow Valley Karoo; Karoo Renosterveld; Southwest Fynbos; Trans-Escarpment Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widely distributed and found in several protected areas (Anysberg, Cederberg, Gamkaberg, Groenefontein, Rooiberg, Tanqua and Swartberg nature reserves, and Grootwinterhoek Wilderness Area). Not known to be threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Bitis rubida—Komsberg near Sutherland, NC

W.R. Branch

Bitis schneideri (Boettger, 1886) NAMAQUA DWARF ADDER

Andrew A. Turner & Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Revived from the synonymy of *B. caudalis* by Haacke (1975). The relationships of populations on either side of the Orange River, and relationships to adjacent populations of *B. caudalis* and *B. peringueyi*, require further investigation.

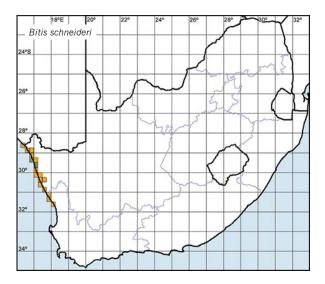
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found from the mouth of the Olifants River in the Western Cape, South Africa, northwards to Lüderitz Bay in southwestern Namibia (Branch 1998).

Habitat: Inhabits semi-vegetated sandy desert areas, mostly close to the coast.

Bioregion: Namagualand Sandveld; Inland Saline Vegetation; Richtersveld; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Bushmanland.

Assessment rationale: Previously treated as Vulnerable (Branch 1988a; IUCN 1996). It occupies a fairly large, sparsely inhabited area (EOO 28 491 km²) but is limited to loose sands that generally occur near the coast (AOO 10 684 km²). These areas are threatened by mining and other activities that destroy its habitat. Illegal collection for the pet trade also poses a threat to the species, but this probably only affects a few populations. It is now considered Least Concern, pending analyses of population size and threats.

Conservation measures: Develop local conservation initiatives along the Northern Cape coast to improve the chances of long-term survival of the species. These initiatives should include the expansion of formal conservation areas and the inclusion of private landowners who protect a percentage of the land for conservation purposes. This approach will be needed to create effective corridors between populations.





Bitis schneideri-McDougal's Bay, Port Nolloth, NC

J. Marais



Bitis schneideri-Farm Gemsbokvlakte, Namagualand, NC

W.D. Haacke



Bitis schneideri-Port Nolloth, NC

W.R. Branch

Bitis xeropaga Haacke, 1975 **DESERT MOUNTAIN ADDER**

Andrew A. Turner

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

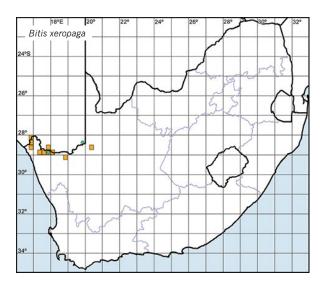
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Namibia. Restricted to the lower Orange River, from Augrabies Falls to the Richtersveld (Northern Cape), and northwards into Namibia as far as Aus (Branch 1998).

Habitat: Found on sparsely-vegetated rocky desert slopes (Branch 1998), generally associated with mountains fringing major drainages.

Bioregion: Richtersveld; Gariep Desert; Bushmanland; Alluvial Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Previously treated as Peripheral (Branch 1988a) as it has a limited range in South Africa and is habitat-specific. However, much of the range is inhospitable to people and populations are formally protected in the Augrabies and Richtersveld national parks. There is an unquantified demand for this species in the pet trade, but because the size of wild populations is unknown, the impact of collecting is difficult to gauge. However, although the snakes are sparsely distributed, global distribution is large and the species is therefore classified as Least Concern.

Conservation measures: Consider the expansion of formally protected areas along the lower Orange River. This would not only protect this species, but also a number of other reptiles and plants unique to this area. A more detailed understanding of the ecological requirements of this snake will be useful for assessing suitable habitat. Quantification of collection for the pet trade will allow for a sensible response to this threat.





Bitis xeropaga—Aggeneys, NC

D. Maguire



Bitis xeropaga—between Augrabies Falls and Onseepkans, NC



Bitis xeropaga—near Aggeneys, NC

J. Marais

Genus Causus Wagler, 1830—night adders

Causus is a small genus consisting of six species (Rasmussen 2005) distributed throughout sub-Saharan Africa. These snakes are generally found in moist regions because they prey mainly on frogs. Despite their vernacular English name, they may be active by day or night. Females lay

Causus defilippii (Jan, 1862) SNOUTED NIGHT ADDER

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

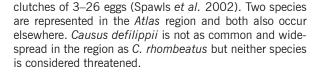
Distribution: Occurs from coastal southern Kenya southwards to eastern Tanzania, eastern Zambia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, South Africa and Swaziland (Spawls & Branch 1995; Branch 1998; Rasmussen 2005). In South Africa it is found in Limpopo, northern and eastern Mpumalanga and northeastern and coastal KwaZulu-Natal.

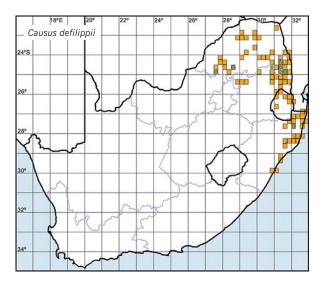
Habitat: Occupies mesic to dry low-lying savanna.

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Has a large range in South Africa and is not known to be threatened. Occurs in several protected areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.







Causus defilippii—Frischgewaagd (Bobididi) Resettlement, about 20 km S of Steelpoort, MPM M. Burger

Causus rhombeatus (Lichtenstein, 1823) RHOMBIC NIGHT ADDER; COMMON NIGHT ADDER

Andrew A. Turner

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

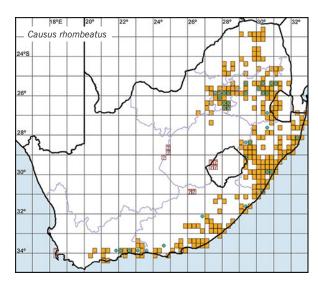
Distribution: Occurs widely throughout sub-Saharan Africa from eastern Nigeria, southern Sudan and Ethiopia southwards to the Swellendam area in the Western Cape, South Africa, but absent from the arid western half, and much of the central part, of southern Africa (Broadley 1990b; Spawls & Branch 1995; Branch 1998; Rasmussen 2005). In the *Atlas* region it occurs in the western half of Swaziland and in the eastern and extreme southern parts of South Africa. Three old records from the Cape Town area probably represent incorrect localities or possible accidental introductions and are indicated by question marks (they were excluded from the map in Rasmussen 2005), as are records from the Kimberley, Colesberg and Maseru (Lesotho) areas which also require confirmation.

Habitat: Found in mesic habitats, generally near water.

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket; Fynbos; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widely distributed and regularly encountered in spite of some persecution. This species may benefit from certain land-use changes such as the construction of dams and pastures, because of its reliance on frogs as prey. It occurs in many protected areas.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Causus rhombeatus—Port Elizabeth, EC

W.R. Branch

CHAPTER 22

Family Lamprophiidae

William R. Branch, James Harvey, Bryan Maritz, Johan Marais, Marius Burger, Gavin Masterson & Michael F. Bates

Advanced snakes (Caenophidia) make up 82.4% (2 782) of the approximately 3 378 living species of snakes (Uetz 2012). Recent molecular studies have helped to clarify interfamilial relationships within Caenophidia, with recognition of a superfamily (Elapoidea) comprising the traditional Family Elapidae and a sister clade often informally referred to as the 'African Radiation' (Lawson *et al.* 2005; Vidal *et al.* 2007a; Vidal *et al.* 2008a; Kelly *et al.* 2007b). This large clade (approximately 60 genera and 280 species), here referred to the Lamprophiidae (Vidal *et al.* 2007a), includes four major groups treated as subfamilies (Atractaspidiinae, Lamprophiinae, Pseudoxyrhophiinae, Psammophiinae) by many recent researchers, e.g. Vidal *et al.* (2007a, 2008a), Fry *et al.* (2008) and Vonk *et al.* (2008). These

have all been treated as families by some authors (Kelly *et al.* 2008, 2009), while two additional families—Prosymnidae (*Prosymna*) and Pseudaspididae (*Pseudaspis* and *Pythonodipsas*)—were recently proposed by Kelly *et al.* (2009b). The Lamprophiidae comprises mostly African (including Madagascan) snakes that appear to have undergone an explosive diversification in the Late Eocene (Kelly *et al.* 2009b). The evolutionary relationships of a number of genera (e.g. *Buhoma, Prosymna, Pseudaspis* and *Pythonodipsas*) within the Lamprophiidae remain problematic and they are considered *incertae sedis* (of uncertain placement). Other caenophidian genera within the *Atlas* region are now considered either as members of a restricted family Colubridae or of the family Natricidae (i.e. *Natriciteres*).

SUBFAMILY ATRACTASPIDINAE

The atractaspidines are primarily African snakes and are represented by approximately 11 genera and 67 species (see Uetz 2012, but minus Macrelaps; Vidal et al. 2008a). They occur throughout most of Africa, with one genus entering the Near East (Branch 1998; Shine et al. 2006). Two tribes are recognised (Nagy et al. 2005; Vidal et al. 2008a), with the Atractaspidini including the genera Homoroselaps and Atractaspis, and the Aparallactini including the remaining genera. Both tribes occur in the Atlas region and are represented by 13 species in six genera (Amblyodipsas, Aparallactus, Atractaspis, Homoroselaps, Macrelaps and Xenocalamus), two of which are endemic to the Atlas region (i.e. Homoroselaps and Macrelaps).

Homoroselaps, previously placed in Elaps (type genus of the Elapidae), has had a complicated taxonomic history and its familial assignment has oscillated between elapids and atractaspidines (McDowell 1968; Underwood & Kochva 1993). However, the most recent molecular stud-

Genus Amblyodipsas Peters, 1857—purple-glossed snakes

The genus Amblyodipsas is confined to sub-Saharan Africa, with most species occurring in the southern and eastern portions of the continent. Nine species are currently recognised (Branch 1998; Uetz 2012), but two subspecies—A. katangensis ionidesi and A. microphthalma nigra-may represent distinct species (Broadley & Cotterill 2004; Branch 2006b). Three species occur in the Atlas region, where they are confined to the northeast and eastern coastal region. One of these, A. concolor, is endemic.

Amblyodipsas concolor (A. Smith, 1849) KWAZULU-NATAL PURPLE-GLOSSED SNAKE

Marius Burger

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the Atlas region. Restricted to the northeastern and eastern parts, from the Duiwelskloof area in Limpopo, southwards through Mpumalanga, Swa-



Amblyodipsas concolor-Wolkberg Wilderness Area, about 15 km SE of Haenertsburg, LIMP M. Burger

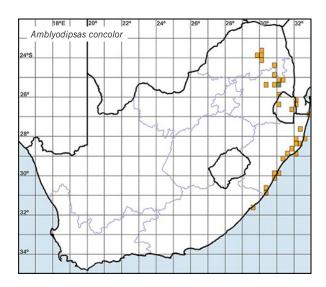
pidinae (Nagy et al. 2005; Vidal et al. 2008a). Atractaspidines are fossorial and generally nocturnal, they

ies have firmly nested Homoroselaps within the Atractas-

lack a loreal scale, have smooth shiny scales, slender bodies with relatively small heads, indistinct necks, small eves and short tails; all species are oviparous (Shine et al. 2006). Many have specialised diets, e.g. Aparallactus eats primarily centipedes, and Xenocalamus eats mainly amphisbaenids (Branch 1998).

Some species appear to be naturally rare (Homoroselaps dorsalis and Xenocalamus transvaalensis) or have restricted ranges (Amblyodipsas microphthalma nigra), but only two taxa are considered to be of conservation concern, both Near Threatened: Homoroselaps dorsalis because its range lies within prime agricultural land, and Macrelaps microlepidotus because of ongoing habitat destruction

These snakes are fossorial, primarily nocturnal and occur in moist woodland, forests and grassland. They prey mainly on lizards and other snakes (Shine et al. 2006). Two to twelve eggs are laid, but a female A. concolor was once recorded as having given birth to 12 young (Haacke 1982; Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). Amblyodipsas m. microphthalma and A. m. nigra were previously listed as Peripheral and Restricted respectively (Branch 1988a), but both are now considered Least Concern.



ziland and coastal KwaZulu-Natal, reaching its southern limits at Mtumbane in the northeastern Eastern Cape. It probably also occurs in southern Mozambique.

Habitat: Generally associated with moist, well-wooded or forested regions (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998), but records for the Wolkberg are from grassland (M. Burger pers. obs.). Found from near sea level (14 m at Mtumbane; Haagner 1994) to 1 650 m in the Wolkberg. Apparently mostly fossorial, burrowing in humic soils and sheltering under rocks and rotting logs (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Central Bushveld.

Amblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalma (Bianconi, 1850) EASTERN PURPLE-GLOSSED SNAKE

Marius Burger

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A molecular assessment should be made of the relationship between the two subspecies, *A. m. microphthalma* and *A. m. nigra*. Likewise, the systematic placement of these two taxa needs to be assessed in relation to the genus *Xenocalamus*.

Distribution: Most of the species' range is within southern Mozambique, with the northeastern limit at QDGC 2335CD (Broadley 1990b). This subspecies is peripheral in South Africa (Jacobsen 1988j), where it reaches its western limit in the Pafuri region of Kruger National Park in Limpopo Province, and its southern limit at St Lucia in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal. It may also occur in Swaziland and Zimbabwe but no records are currently known from these countries.

Habitat: A fossorial species inhabiting deep aeolian sands and coastal alluvium, including Wambia and Pumbe sandveld of northeastern Kruger National Park (Jacobsen 1989). Occurs from near sea level to about 350 m in the Kruger National Park.

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Probably affected by the mining of sand dunes in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, but the extent of the threat is unknown. Likewise, timber and sugarcane industries in this region might have had a detrimental effect, but the taxon might have been relatively unaffected because of its fossorial habits. However, within the *At/as* region it occurs largely within protected areas. Threats in southern Mozambique are unknown.

Conservation measures: Conduct surveys in the known range, including Mozambique. This will improve EOO and AOO estimates, help to evaluate major threats, and be useful for gathering material for a molecule-based taxonomic assessment.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread. Although Jacobsen (1989) considered this species to be vulnerable and it is generally thought to be rare (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998), this perceived rarity is probably due mainly to its secretive fossorial habits.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

 Ites
 Ize*
 <th



Amblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalma—Kosi Bay, KZN J. Marais

Amblyodipsas microphthalma nigra Jacobsen, 1986

SOUTPANSBERG PURPLE-GLOSSED SNAKE; BLACK WHITE-LIPPED SNAKE

Marius Burger

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: This taxon was originally considered to be a melanistic form of *Amblyodipsas microphthalma* (e.g. FitzSimons 1962; Pienaar 1966, 1978; Broadley 1971b, 1983), until Jacobsen (1986) described it as a subspecies. Its taxonomic status should be re-evaluated by means of morphological and genetic analyses. Likewise, its relationship to the genus *Xenocalamus* should be assessed.

Distribution: Endemic to Limpopo Province, South Africa. Its distribution is centered in the Soutpansberg area, from where it extends eastwards to the Pafuri region of the Kruger National Park. The Pafuri area (2231CB) is the only QDGC from which both subspecies of *A. microphthalma* have been recorded, but they apparently remain parapatric where the Saselondonga Gorge crosses the northern sandveld (Jacobsen 1986). The distribution map contains all the QDGC records from Jacobsen (1986, 1989), including the discrepancies between these two reports. This taxon may also occur in Mozambique and Zimbabwe, but no records are currently known for these countries.

Habitat: Apparently it has an association with rocky, broken terrain, as most individuals have been recorded from under rocks and logs. This subspecies is seemingly less inclined to burrow into sand than *A. m. microphthalma*, but specimens have also been unearthed from sandy substrates (Jacobsen 1986).

Vegetation type: SVcb 21 Soutpansberg Mountain Bushveld; SVI 1 Makuleke Sandy Bushveld; SVmp 1 Musina Mopane Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: This snake is rarely found (<15 museum specimens known) and has a restricted range (EOO 9 750 km², below the Vulnerable threshold, and AOO 5 400 km²). However, there are no known threats

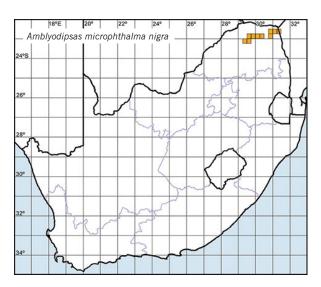
Amblyodipsas polylepis polylepis (Bocage, 1873) COMMON PURPLE-GLOSSED SNAKE

Marius Burger

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of the East African subspecies *A. polylepis hildebrandtii* should be re-evaluated.

Distribution: Widely distributed in African countries between latitudes 10° and 31° south of the equator, inclusive of northeastern and eastern South Africa, Swaziland, southern Mozambique, Zimbabwe, northern Botswana, northern Namibia, Zambia, Malawi, Angola and southern Democratic Republic of Congo (Broadley 1971b, 1990b; Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998). In South Africa it occurs in Limpopo, eastern Mpumalanga, Gauteng and eastern KwaZulu-Natal. Two questionable outlier localities on the



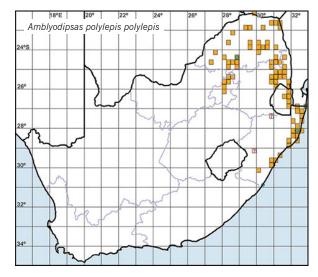


Amblyodipsas microphthalma nigra—E of Tshipise, LIMP

M. Burger

and the species is here considered Least Concern. It was previously classified as Restricted (Branch 1988a).

Conservation measures: Conduct surveys within the known range and in adjacent areas to improve estimates of EOO and AOO, and to evaluate population trends, habitat requirements and major threats. Gather material for a molecular phylogeny.



LAMPROPHIIDAE

map (see also Broadley 1990b) require confirmation. The southernmost limit of the species is Uvongo (3030CD) in KwaZulu-Natal, based on a Virtual Museum record.

Habitat: Primarily fossorial, occurring in a variety of vegetation types. In South Africa it is found from near sea level to 1 300 m (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Has a wide distribution stretching over several countries and is probably common, although seldom encountered.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Amblyodipsas polylepis polylepis—St Lucia, KZN

J. Marais

Genus Aparallactus Smith, 1849-centipede-eaters

The genus *Aparallactus* occurs throughout much of sub-Saharan Africa and contains 11 species (Branch 1998; Uetz 2012). Two species occur in the eastern half of the *Atlas* region. They are slender nocturnal snakes occurring under rocks and in old termitaria in mesic habitats. Prey

Aparallactus capensis (A. Smith, 1849) BLACK-HEADED CENTIPEDE-EATER; CAPE CENTIPEDE-EATER

Marius Burger

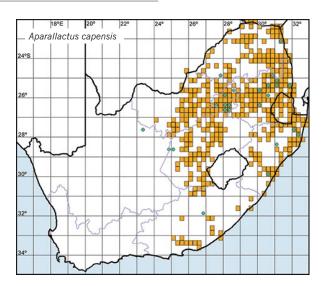
Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The relationship between *A. capensis* and *A. nigriceps* (of southern Mozambique) should be investigated.

Distribution: An eastern African species ranging from the Eastern Cape of South Africa to Tanzania in the north. The distribution extends westwards through southeastern Democratic Republic of Congo and Zambia to Angola and northern Namibia (Broadley 1990b). An historical record from central Namibia, between Omaruru and Okahandja (Sternfeld 1910), has not been verified by new material. The species is apparently absent from southern Mozambique (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). In the Atlas region it occurs in the eastern half of South Africa and throughout Swaziland. Within South Africa it is widely distributed and occurs in North-West Province, Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, Free State and the Eastern Cape. Its range extends marginally into the Northern Cape in the Kimberley and Jan Kempdorp (Andalusia) regions. Three SARCA Virtual Museum records extend the known range westwards. Two isolated records from the Western Cape require confirmation and were regarded as suspicious and omitted from the map because they are situated well outside the main distribution. These records are for Prince Albert (3322AA) and Bredasdorp (3420CA) and are based on voucher specimens in the Port Elizabeth Museum (see also Broadley 1990b) and Field Museum of Natural History, respectively.

Habitat: A terrestrial species that may be partially fossorial, with an affinity for old termitaria. Present in a wide variety of habitat types from near sea level up to 2 300 m (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Albany Thicket; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Nama-Karoo (marginal); Fynbos (marginal). consists of centipedes and other invertebrates (Spawls *et al.* 2002). Females of most species lay clutches of 2–4 eggs, but *A. jacksoni* gives birth to 2–3 offspring (Branch 1998; Spawls *et al.* 2002). Neither species in the *Atlas* region is of conservation concern.





Aparallactus capensis—Johannesburg, GP

G.J. Alexander

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Conservation measures: None recommended.

Aparallactus lunulatus lunulatus (Peters, 1854) PLUMBEOUS CENTIPEDE-EATER;

RETICULATED CENTIPEDE-EATER

Marius Burger

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The *Aparallactus lunulatus* complex should be revised in order to evaluate the taxonomic status of the various subspecies (*A. I. lunulatus*, *A. I. scortecci* and *A. I. nigrocollaris*).

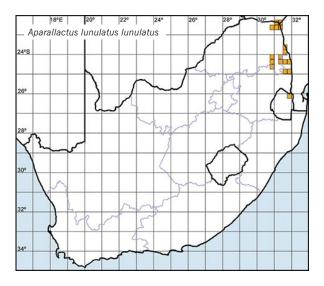
Distribution: Enters the *Atlas* region in the northeast, but is widely distributed northwards through southern Mozambique and Zimbabwe into eastern Africa as far north as South Sudan, and westwards into the Democratic Republic of Congo (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). Occurs in the South African provinces of Limpopo and Mpumalanga; the single record from northeastern Swaziland (Boycott 1992a) represents the southernmost limit of the range.

Habitat: In South Africa it shelters under rocks and rotting logs in sandy terrain at altitudes of 300–800 m; in eastern Africa it apparently has an affinity for stony country in moist savanna and semi-desert from sea level to 2 200 m (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998; Spawls et al. 2002).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Widely distributed over several countries. Probably common although not often encountered.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Aparallactus Iunulatus Iunulatus—Hoedspruit, LIMP

J. Marais

Genus Atractaspis Smith, 1849-stiletto snakes

The genus *Atractaspis* is distributed widely across sub-Saharan Africa, with one species (*A. microlepidota*) reaching the Middle East. Although 21 species are currently recognised (Uetz 2012; see also Dobiey & Vogel 2007), the taxonomic status of several species is uncertain (e.g. Spawls & Branch 1995). A morphology-based phylogeny of 14 species in the genus *Atractaspis* was conducted by Moyer & Jackson (2011), but *A. duerdeni* was not included in their analysis. The ranges of two species (*A. bibronii*, *A. duerdeni*) extend into the *Atlas* region, where these snakes occur in a variety of habitats, mainly in the northeast. Members of the genus *Atractaspis* are fossorial, mainly nocturnal, and feed on reptiles, amphibians and small mammals (Shine *et al.* 2006). Females lay clutches of 3–11 eggs (Branch 1998; Alexander & Marais 2007). Their venom is primarily cytotoxic and of medical significance. *Atractaspis bibronii* is responsible for a substantial proportion of dangerous snakebites in South Africa (Tilbury & Branch 1989). Fatalities have been recorded after bites from *Atractaspis* species that occur outside the *Atlas* region (Corkhill & Kirk 1954; Ismail *et al.* 2007). Both species in the *Atlas* region are widespread and not of conservation concern.

Atractaspis bibronii A. Smith, 1849 BIBRON'S STILETTO SNAKE; SOUTHERN STILETTO SNAKE; BIBRON'S BURROWING ASP

Marius Burger

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: It seems likely that several cryptic taxa are currently subsumed under the name *Atractaspis bibronii* (Nagy *et al.* 2005). Morphological and genetic techniques should be employed to conduct a major revision of this species across its entire range.

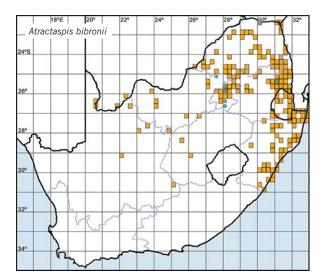
Distribution: Widely distributed in sub-Saharan Africa, extending from Kenya and southern Somalia southwards to Tanzania, Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia, Malawi, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland; there is also a disjunct population in central-western Angola (Broadley 1990b, 1991; Spawls & Branch 1995; Dobiey & Vogel 2007). In the *Atlas* region this species appears to be most abundant in the northeast, i.e. Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Kwa-Zulu-Natal and Swaziland. There are scattered records in North-West Province, Free State and Northern Cape. The southwesterly limits of the species' range (2922AA) are represented by a specimen collected during a SARCA field survey.

Habitat: Primarily fossorial. Often found in termitaria or on soil under logs or rocks, in a variety of habitat types, from about sea level to at least 1 600 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Dry Highveld Grassland; Mopane; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Eastern Kalahari Bushveld; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Kalahari Duneveld; Upper Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Atractaspis bibronii-E of Tshipise, LIMP

M. Burger

Atractaspis duerdeni Gough, 1907 DUERDEN'S STILETTO SNAKE; BEAKED STILETTO SNAKE; BEAKED BURROWING ASP

Marius Burger

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: For a long time this species was confused with *Atractaspis bibronii* (e.g. Broadley 1983). The taxonomy of the species as a whole (including the status of the disjunct Namibian population) and its relationship to *A. bibronii* should be investigated by means of a molecular assessment.

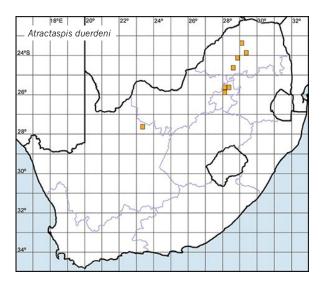
Distribution: A southern African endemic with two widely separated populations, one in north-central Namibia and the other in southeastern Botswana, extending into South Africa (Broadley 1990b, 1991; Spawls & Branch 1995; Branch 1998; Marais 2004; Dobiey & Vogel 2007). Most of the records in the *Atlas* region are in Limpopo and Gauteng provinces, but the southernmost record (2723CB, obtained during a SARCA field survey) is from the Kuruman region of the Northern Cape. It is likely that the species also occurs in North-West Province.

Habitat: A poorly-known fossorial snake that inhabits sandy soil. The altitudinal range in South Africa is 1 250 to 1 500 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Eastern Kalahari Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common, especially outside the *Atlas* region.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Atractaspis duerdeni-Bela Bela, LIMP

W.R. Schmidt

Genus Homoroselaps Jan, 1858—harlequin snakes

The genus *Homoroselaps* is endemic to the *Atlas* region and contains two species that occur in the south and east. *Homoroselaps* has a convoluted taxonomic history: these snakes were previously considered to be elapids (Underwood & Kochva 1993) but were recently classified as atractaspidines (Nagy *et al.* 2005; Kelly *et al.* 2009b). The two

Homoroselaps dorsalis (A. Smith, 1849) STRIPED HARLEQUIN SNAKE

Marius Burger

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. This species has a patchy distribution, with records in western Swaziland and the South African provinces of Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Free State and KwaZulu-Natal. Two records in the northern part of the Eastern Cape (see Branch 1988c) were incorrectly plotted (W.R. Branch pers. comm.) and are not included on the map here.

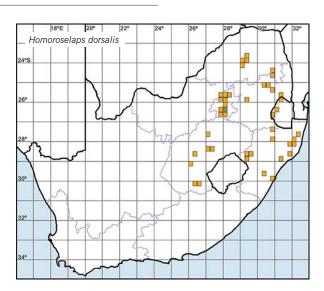
EOO: 276 670 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 3 915 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: Partially fossorial and known to inhabit old termitaria in grassland habitat. Most of its range is at moderately high altitudes, reaching 1 800 m in Mpumalanga and Swaziland, but it is also found at elevations as low as about 100 m in KwaZulu-Natal (De Waal 1978; Branch 1988c, 1998; Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1990b; Bourquin 2004; Marais 2004).

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Central Bushveld; Dry Highveld Grassland; Lowveld; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: *Homoroselaps dorsalis* does not meet the criteria for threatened status, mostly because of its fairly large EOO and AOO. However, the population is severely fragmented and there are continuing declines in AOO, quality of habitat and number of mature individuals. This species is therefore of conservation concern and considered to be Near Threatened.

Threats: Threats are varied but ultimately they all relate to loss, degradation and/or fragmentation of habitat. Grasslands in South Africa, particularly in the montane regions, are under severe pressure primarily as a result of afforestation and overly frequent burns (CSIR 2008). Urban, industrial and mining developments in the Gauteng Highveld have transformed much of the former habitat of this known species are slender, fossorial and occur in grassland, mesic savanna and fynbos. They feed on burrowing lizards and snakes (Alexander & Marais 2007). Females lay clutches of 2–16 eggs (Branch 1998). *Homoroselaps dorsalis* was listed as Rare (Branch 1988c) and Lower Risk/near threatened (IUCN 1996), and is now considered Near Threatened.





Homoroselaps dorsalis—Suikerbosrand NR, GP

B. Maritz

species, and these threats continue unabated. Likewise, large-scale crop farming in the Free State and Gauteng is likely to have had, and continues to have, a significantly detrimental impact on the habitat of this species.

Conservation measures: Protect substantial units of grassland habitat where the species occurs. Regulate burning at unprotected grassland sites by means of legislation.

Homoroselaps lacteus (Linnaeus, 1758) SPOTTED HARLEQUIN SNAKE

Marius Burger

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: A taxonomic investigation of the various colour pattern morphs within this species is in preparation (W.R. Branch unpubl. data).

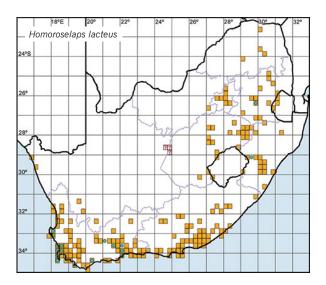
Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Found in South Africa and western Swaziland, but also on the borders of western Lesotho, suggesting that it may also occur there. Widespread in the *Atlas* region but generally absent from arid areas. The range includes most of the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, KwaZulu-Natal, eastern half of the Free State, southeastern North-West Province, Gauteng, Mpumalanga and Limpopo as far north as the Tshipise area (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1990b; Bourquin 2004). There are also a few scattered records in the southern parts of the Northern Cape, an isolated population in the Port Nolloth/Kleinsee area, and a few questionable old records from around Kimberley.

Habitat: A semi-fossorial species found in sandy substrates, old termitaria and under rocks, from near sea level to elevations of 1 800 m (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen



Homoroselaps lacteus-Greytown, KZN

J. Harvey



1989; Spawls & Branch 1995; Branch 1998; Bourquin 2004).

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Albany Thicket; Savanna; Succulent Karoo; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Conservation measures: None recommended.



Homoroselaps lacteus-De Hoop NR, WC

T. Phelps

Genus Macrelaps Boulenger, 1896—KwaZulu-Natal black snakes

Macrelaps is a monotypic genus endemic to the *Atlas* region. The only known species, *M. microlepidotus*, is restricted to central and eastern KwaZulu-Natal and the eastern parts of the Eastern Cape. It is a fossorial species that is found in forests and occasionally in grasslands. These snakes are mostly nocturnal and feed on reptiles,

Macrelaps microlepidotus (Günther, 1860) KWAZULU-NATAL BLACK SNAKE

Marius Burger

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the eastern parts of the *At/as* region, from Kosi Bay in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, southwards to East London in the Eastern Cape. It occurs as far inland as the Estcourt area in KwaZulu-Natal (Bourquin 2004), and the Amatole Mountains in the Eastern Cape (Conradie *et al.* 2012). This species may also occur in southern Mozambique.

EOO: 109 415 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 2 305 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: A semi-fossorial species with an affinity for forests, where it tends to frequent moist leaf litter and humic soil. In coastal bush it is associated with damp localities near water (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998; Marais 2004). Altitude ranges from near sea level to about 1 300 m at Nkandla and Estcourt.

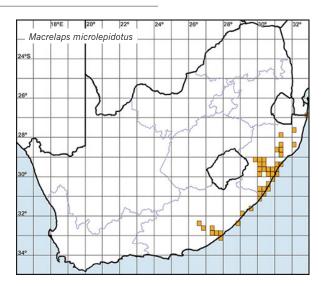
Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Lowveld; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Albany Thicket; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests.

Assessment rationale: AOO approaches the Vulnerable threshold and there is ongoing habitat destruction [B2b(iii)], but habitat fragmentation is moderate and there are more than 10 locations. The species is classified as Near Threatened.

Threats: Coastal developments and ongoing destruction of forests.

Conservation measures: Protect forest habitat.

frogs and mammals (Marais 2004; Shine *et al.* 2006). Females lay clutches of 3–19 eggs in summer (Branch 1998; Shine *et al.* 2006). *Macrelaps microlepidotus* was not previously considered to be of conservation concern but it is now classified as Near Threatened as a result of ongoing habitat destruction.





Macrelaps microlepidotus—Hillcrest, KZN

G.J. Alexander

Genus Xenocalamus Günther, 1868—quill-snouted snakes

The genus *Xenocalamus* is confined to southern and central Africa and contains five species (Uetz 2012). Three species are found in the *Atlas* region where they are confined to the north and east, while two (*X. mechowii* and *X. mitchellii*) are extralimital (Branch 1998; Uetz 2012). *Xenocalamus* and *Amblyodipsas* appear to be closely related (Nagy et al. 2005; Vidal et al. 2008a). These are slender, fosso-

Xenocalamus bicolor bicolor Günther, 1868 BICOLOURED QUILL-SNOUTED SNAKE

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

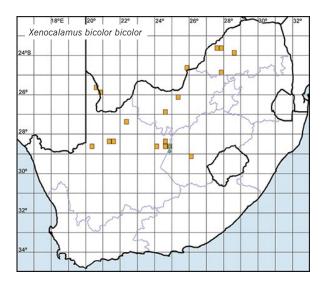
Taxonomy: Jacobsen (1989) cast some doubt on the validity of the subspecies of *Xenocalamus bicolor* due to the occurrence of intermediate specimens, and suggested that more material was needed to clarify the situation. After examining additional material, Bates (1991) confirmed that *X. b. concavorostralis*, from Bloemfontein, is a junior synonym of *X. b. bicolor*. A molecular analysis of relationships among the various subspecies of *X. bicolor* is required.

Distribution: Widespread and endemic to southern Africa. Occurs from South Africa northwards into Namibia, western and central Botswana, northern Zimbabwe and Mozambique (Broadley 1990b). In the *Atlas* region it occurs from Augrabies in the west to the extreme northern part of the Northern Cape, eastwards through North-West Province to Lephalale in Limpopo, and then south to Bloemfontein in the Free State. Two Virtual Museum records were obtained for the Kimberley area.



Xenocalamus bicolor bicolor—between Kimberley and Rooipoort NR, NC W.R. Branch

rial snakes found on sandy substrates. They feed on other fossorial reptiles, particularly amphisbaenians (Shine *et al.* 2006). Females lay small clutches of 2–4 eggs (Branch 1998). *Xenocalamus transvaalensis* was previously listed as Rare (Branch 1988a) and Data Deficient (IUCN 1996) but is here considered Least Concern, whereas *X. sabiensis* was not assessed as its range within the *Atlas* area is peripheral.



Habitat: Inhabits mainly Kalahari sands at altitudes of 1 000–1 200 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Although seldom encountered, this fossorial snake has a wide distribution.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Xenocalamus bicolor bicolor—Lephalale, LIMP

W.R. Branch

Xenocalamus bicolor australis FitzSimons, 1946 WATERBERG QUILL-SNOUTED SNAKE

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Jacobsen (1989) cast some doubt on the validity of the subspecies of *Xenocalamus bicolor* due to the occurrence of intermediate specimens, and suggested that more material was needed to clarify the situation. A molecular analysis of relationships among the various subspecies of *X. bicolor* is required.

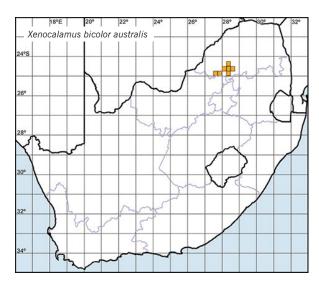
Distribution: Endemic to the Waterberg Range of Limpopo Province, South Africa. Found mainly in the vicinity of Nylsvley and Bela-Bela (Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Habitat: Inhabits deep alluvial sands (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998) in bushveld. Found at altitudes of 1 100–1 400 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: This subspecies is not often encountered within its restricted range, probably because of its fossorial habits (it lives in deep sand). It is not known to experience any major threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Xenocalamus bicolor australis—24 km NE of Sentrum, LIMP M. Burger

Xenocalamus bicolor lineatus Roux, 1907 STRIPED QUILL-SNOUTED SNAKE

Johan Marais

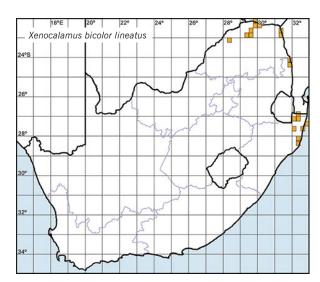
Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Jacobsen (1989) cast some doubt on the validity of the subspecies of *Xenocalamus bicolor* due to the occurrence of intermediate specimens, and suggested that more material was needed to clarify the situation. A molecular analysis of relationships among the various sub-



Xenocalamus bicolor lineatus—LIMP

```
W.D. Haacke
```



species of *X. bicolor* is required. This taxon was treated as a full species, *X. lineatus*, by Broadley & Blaylock (2013), without explanation.

Distribution: Occurs from northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa into southern Mozambique, northeastern Mpumalanga, northern Limpopo and southern Zimbabwe (Broadley 1990b). May also occur in Swaziland. **Habitat:** Inhabits deep aeolian sands in savanna habitats at altitudes of 200–1 100 m (Jabobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Mopane, Lowveld, Central Bushveld, Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Xenocalamus sabiensis Broadley, 1971 SAVE QUILL-SNOUTED SNAKE

Johan Marais

Not Applicable

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found in southeastern Zimbabwe and adjacent Mozambique (Broadley 1990b), with a single record (near Pafuri in northeastern Limpopo Province) in the *Atlas* region.

Habitat: Inhabits alluvial sands (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Mopane.

Assessment rationale: A fossorial snake that is seldom seen. In the *Atlas* region it is known from only a single locality in South Africa, representing less than 5% of the total range of the species, and it was therefore not assessed.

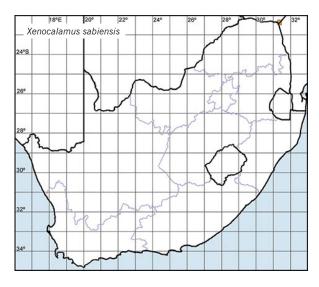
Conservation measures: Conduct research into population numbers, biology, ecology, habitat status and potential threats.



P. Coates Palgrave

Assessment rationale: Widespread, fossorial and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Xenocalamus sabiensis, dark phase—Chibaki River, Zimbabwe (paratype, TM 29115) W.R. Schmidt

Xenocalamus transvaalensis Methuen, 1919

SPECKLED QUILL-SNOUTED SNAKE; TRANSVAAL QUILL-SNOUTED SNAKE

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: The relationship of the two apparently disjunct populations (see map) should be assessed.

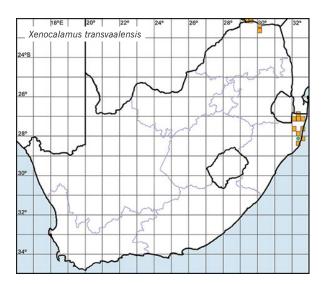
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found in two disjunct populations: one reaching from Mapelane, northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, into southern Mozambique; and the other located in northern Limpopo and possibly extreme eastern Botswana (Broadley 1990b). It may also occur in southern Zimbabwe.

Habitat: Inhabits deep Kalahari and alluvial sands (Jacobsen 1987; Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread but seldom seen because of its fossorial habits.

Conservation measures: Conduct research into population numbers, biology, ecology, habitat status, taxonomy and potential threats.





Xenocalamus transvaalensis-Malala Lodge, S of Hluhluwe, KZN J. Harvey

SUBFAMILY LAMPROPHIINAE

Generic boundaries and species content within the subfamily Lamprophiinae remain problematic. This subfamily contains many of the characteristic and common species of African snakes, including the house snakes and relatives (*Bothrolycus, Bothrophthalmus, Boaedon, Lamprophis, Lycodonomorphus, Pseudoboodon*), and a number of smaller genera usually associated with the wolf snake and file snake genera. Following the detailed study of Kelly *et al.* (2010), a number of important generic re-arrangements were proposed (see below), and a new genus described to accommodate the Swazi Rock Snake.

Lamprophiines lack fangs but may have enlarged, nongrooved teeth at the front of the maxilla for prey capture and manipulation. These snakes prey on vertebrates such as rodents and lizards (Branch 1998), which they kill by constriction. They are oviparous and mainly nocturnal. Most are terrestrial, although many clades include rupicolous species, while others are fully or partially aquatic.

Of the 12 genera and 68 species in the subfamily, six genera and at least 15 species occur in the *Atlas* region. Although some species are rare (e.g. *Lamprophis fiskii*) and others have restricted ranges, only *Lycophidion pygmaeum* (Near Threatened) is of conservation concern.

Genus Boaedon Duméril, Bibron & Duméril, 1854—house snakes

This genus includes the large common house snakes of Africa, provisionally 6–8 species, including *B. fuliginosus*, *B. capensis*, *B. lineatus*, *B. olivaceus* and *B. virgatus*. Several extralimital species may also belong to the genus, including *B.* geometricus of the Seychelles and *B.* erlangeri and *B.* abyssinicus of Ethiopia (Kelly et al. 2011), but further research is required to validate this. Only a single, common and widespread species (*B.* capensis) occurs in the Atlas region.

Boaedon capensis (Duméril, Bibron & Duméril, 1854) COMMON HOUSE SNAKE; BROWN HOUSE SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

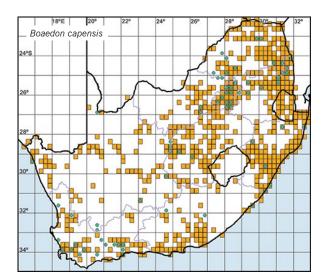
Taxonomy: Hughes (1997) validated *Lamprophis capensis* for southern populations previously referred to *Lamprophis fuliginosus*. Both of these, along with many other house snake species, were transferred to *Boaedon* by Kelly *et al.* (2011). Recent molecular analyses have indicated that the *B. fuliginosus-capensis* species complex contains a number of divergent lineages (Brassine *et al.* 2008; Kelly *et al.* 2011), some occurring in the *Atlas* region. The status and distribution of these, including the well-known 'mentalis' morphotype of the western arid region of the subcontinent (Branch 1998), remains problematic.

Distribution: The confused taxonomy of species and populations allied to *B. capensis* make an assessment of dis-



Boaedon capensis-between Pofadder and Aggeneys, NC

W.R. Branch





Boaedon capensis—Oudtshoorn, WC

T. Phelps

tribution difficult at this stage. As currently understood (e.g. Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998; as *L. fuliginosus*), the species occurs ubiquitously across southern Africa, although it appears to be absent in the highlands of Lesotho and in large parts of the Eastern Cape.

Habitat: Inhabits a wide range of terrestrial habitats and appears to be tolerant of considerable habitat transformation.

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Nama-Karoo; Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Succulent Karoo; Forests; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common throughout its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Genus Gonionotophis Boulenger, 1893-file snakes

Loveridge (1939) noted the close relationship between the file snake genera Mehelya and Gonionotophis. Molecular studies (Vidal et al. 2008a; Kelly et al. 2011) showed that Gonionotophis is nested within Mehelya so in order to maintain monophyletic genera, all species currently placed in Mehelya Csiki, 1903 were transferred to Gonionotophis Boulenger, 1893, which has priority over all other potential names. The generic name Simocephalus Günther, 1858, under which many early file snake species were described, is unavailable because it was initially applied by Schoedler, 1858 to a new crustacean genus

Gonionotophis capensis capensis (A. Smith, 1847) COMMON FILE SNAKE; CAPE FILE SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Three subspecies are recognised, namely Gonionotophis capensis capensis, G. c. savorgnani (Kenya to Cameroon) and G. c. fiechteri (Somalia). The status of these subspecies is currently being investigated (C.M.R. Kelly pers. comm.).

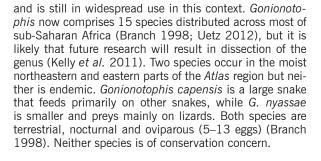
Distribution: Widespread, occurring from Tanzania in the north, southwards to southern Africa (Branch 1998). In the Atlas region it occurs in the South African provinces of Limpopo, Gauteng, northern Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal, and in Swaziland. A record (2929CC; Broadley 1990b) on the border of KwaZulu-Natal and Lesotho is considered erroneous and is not included on the map here.

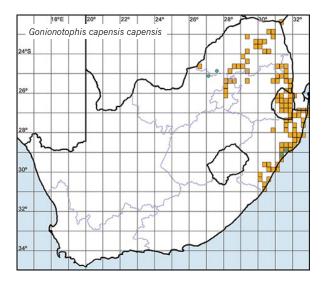
Habitat: Inhabits primarily savanna habitats but enters forests and even some arid areas in parts of its range (Branch 1998). May be found under rocks or logs (Jacobsen 1989). A telemetered specimen spent considerable periods of time underground within termitaria (G.J. Alexander unpubl. obs.).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Freshwater Wetlands; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in some areas, but considered 'very rare' in the northeastern parts of South Africa by Jacobsen (1989).

Conservation measures: None recommended.







Gonionotophis capensis capensis—Hammanskraal, GP

Gonionotophis nyassae (Günther, 1888) BLACK FILE SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Widespread, occurring from Kenya southwards to southern Africa (Broadley 1990b). In the *Atlas* region it is known from Limpopo, northern Gauteng, the northern and eastern parts of Mpumalanga and KwaZuluNatal, and Swaziland.

Habitat: Found in savanna and forested habitats. Occurs from near sea level in the coastal lowlands of KwaZulu-Natal to higher altitude (up to 1 500 m) savanna habitats in Limpopo; may be found in holes in the ground, in moribund termitaria and under rocks on soil (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Mopane; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Sub-Escarpment Grasslands.

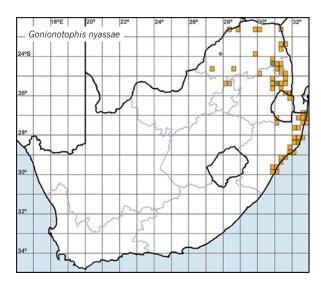
Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in places.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Gonionotophis nyassae—Schoemanskloof region, MPM

M. Burger



Genus Inyoka Branch & Kelly, 2010—Swazi rock snakes

The genus *Inyoka* is monotypic and endemic to the *Atlas* region. It was recently erected (Kelly *et al.* 2011) for the Swazi Rock Snake. *Inyoka* is sister to the Forest Wolf Snake

(*Hormonotus modestus*) which has similar physical characteristics, including large eyes, but which differs in many other respects. *Inyoka swazicus* is considered Least Concern.

Inyoka swazicus (Schaefer, 1970) SWAZI ROCK SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Ever since its description (Schaefer 1970) there has been debate concerning the generic placement of this species. Visser (1979) suggested that it had greater affinities with the boigine genus *Telescopus*, but despite the superficially similar appearance, hemipenial morphology mitigated against this association (W.R. Branch unpubl. data). A subsequent molecular phylogeny of the Lamprophiidae (Vidal *et al.* 2008a) demonstrated that *swazicus* clustered with the monotypic genus *Hormonotus*. A detailed molecular analysis (Kelly *et al.* 2011) confirmed this sister relationship, but sufficient morphological and molecular divergence merited the description of a new genus for the species.

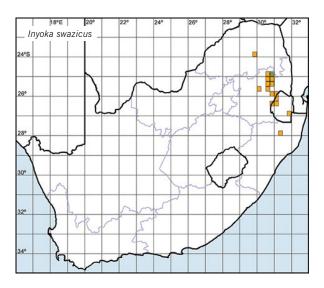
Distribution: Endemic to the *At/as* region. Found from central Limpopo in the north, southwards through Mpumalanga and Swaziland, reaching northern KwaZulu-Natal.

Habitat: Inhabits rock outcrops in grassland and savanna (Branch 1998). Shelters under rocks on rock, or in crevices, at altitudes of 1 400–1 900 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Sub-Escarpment Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Although this species is rarely encountered, it occurs over a fairly wide area in rocky habitats that do not appear to be significantly impacted by anthropogenic habitat transformation. However, afforestation in the northern parts of the range has almost certainly destroyed or altered some habitat.

Conservation measures: Conserve suitable habitats. Carry out research into biology and ecology.





Inyoka swazicus—foothills of Iron Crown, about 4 km S of Haenertsburg, LIMP M. Burger

Genus Lamprophis Fitzinger, 1843—dwarf house snakes

The genus *Lamprophis* is now restricted to a group of four small house snakes (Kelly *et al.* 2011) that are either endemic to the *Atlas* region or, in the case of *L. guttatus*, also found in southern Namibia. These snakes

Lamprophis aurora (Linnaeus, 1758) AURORA SNAKE: AURORA HOUSE SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Widespread in South Africa, inhabiting suitable habitat in all provinces but absent from most of the Northern Cape. Records extend from the Cape Peninsula through the Western and Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, western Lesotho, Free State, eastern parts of the Northern Cape, North-West Province, Gauteng, Mpumalanga, and as far north as 2330CA in Limpopo. The isolated Virtual Museum record from Nieuwoudtville (3119AC) may be based on a translocated specimen.

Habitat: Occurs in grassland, fynbos and moist savanna habitats. Specimens are known from the coast up to the plateau (1 700 m) of the Highveld. Often found near streams and under rocks, occasionally in old termitaria (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Nama-Karoo; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Succulent Karoo; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in suitable habitat.

Conservation measures: This species is closely associated with grassland habitats, which are part of a highly transformed ecosystem (Le Roux 2002). Promote the protection of remaining grassland habitat.

Lamprophis fiskii Boulenger, 1887

FISK'S SNAKE; FISK'S HOUSE SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

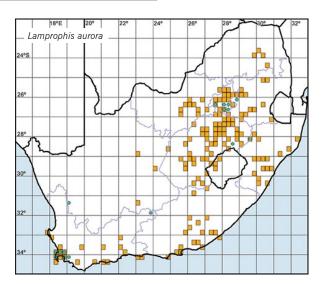
Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it is known only from the Northern, Western and Eastern Cape provinces (Barts *et al.* 2012). The range extends from near Steinkopf in the western Northern Cape, southwards to near Worcester in the Western Cape, then eastwards to near Aberdeen (3223DC) in the Eastern Cape. The latter QDGC refers to a Virtual Museum record and represents the first record of the species in the Eastern Cape. It may also occur north of the Orange River in southern Namibia.

Habitat: Found in a wide variety of terrestrial habitats throughout western South Africa, especially rocky and

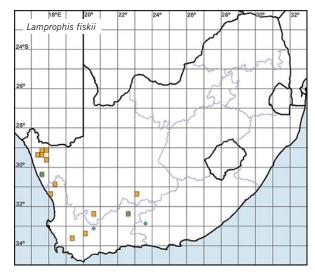
are small to medium-sized constrictors. All species are terrestrial, nocturnal, oviparous and prey on small vertebrates. In the *Atlas* region, all species are considered Least Concern.





Lamprophis aurora-Johannesburg, GP

G.J. Alexander



sandy areas in arid regions (Branch 1998; Barts *et al.* 2012), and may be associated with temporary water bodies in some places (S. Thomas pers. comm.).

Bioregion: Namaqualand Hardeveld; Upper Karoo; Gariep Desert; Richtersveld; Southwest Fynbos; Namaqualand Sandveld; Rainshadow Valley Karoo; Karoo Renosterveld; Lower Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Apparently widely distributed in an area of low human population density and few threats. In a few areas it may be affected by habitat loss due to agriculture and mining. This species is very poorly known. For example, there is only a single record on reproduction: a captive female laid three eggs (J. Marais pers. comm.). Even basic distribution data are lacking, making it difficult to assess this species based on habitat type.

Conservation measures: Survey the species' range. Collect detailed information on habitat associations and demographics. Initiate research into the ecology of the species.



Lamprophis fiskii-N of Matjiesfontein on R354, WC

C. & S. Dorse

Lamprophis fuscus Boulenger, 1893 YELLOW-BELLIED SNAKE; YELLOW-BELLIED HOUSE SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

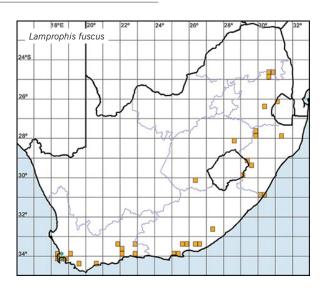
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Swaziland. Localities are widely scattered, indicating a fragmented distribution. Known from the Cape Peninsula, extending eastwards through the Eastern Cape, eastern Free State, KwaZulu-Natal, western Swaziland and Mpumalanga. It may also occur in western Lesotho and Limpopo Province.

Habitat: A poorly known snake, usually found in moribund termitaria (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Albany Thicket; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: This species is widespread and therefore considered to be of Least Concern. However, it inhabits mainly grassland and fynbos habitats (Branch 1998) and these declined in extent by 7% and 9% respectively during the period 1996–2000 (Rouget *et al.* 2003; O'Connor & Kuyler 2009) and continue to decline (CSIR 2008), partly as a result of crop farming, afforestation and changes in fire regimes. Further habitat transformation could result in additional population fragmentation, increasing vulnerability and pushing the species towards a threatened category.

Conservation measures: Monitor the population for potential declines resulting from further habitat transformation. Focus on the protection of suitable grassland and fynbos habitat where the species has been recorded. Conduct basic research on distribution, biology and habitat preferences.





Lamprophis fuscus-Amatole Mtns, EC

J. Harvey

Lamprophis guttatus (A. Smith, 1843) SPOTTED ROCK SNAKE; SPOTTED HOUSE SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: There is considerable variation in colour pattern (see Branch 1998), habits and behaviour across the range of this species. This is accompanied by significant genetic divergence (Kelly et al. 2011) and it is therefore possible that 'L. guttatus' contains a number of taxa.

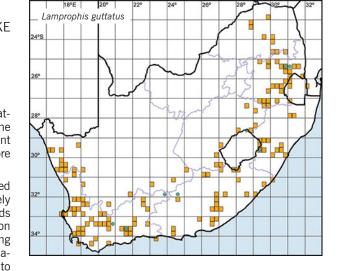
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa and recorded from Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland. It is also likely to occur in Lesotho and Mozambique, although no records are currently known from these countries. The distribution appears to generally follow the Great Escarpment, running southwards from southern Namibia, through Namaqualand to the Cape Fold Mountains and then northeast to Limpopo.

Habitat: Found in rocky habitats throughout its range. Shelters under rocks or in crevices at altitudes as high as 2 300 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Grassland; Fynbos; Savanna; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket.



Lamprophis guttatus-Kloof, KZN



Assessment rationale: Widespread in rocky habitats that are not significantly prone to anthropogenic influence. In addition, these snakes are often abundant.

Conservation measures: As this species is easily collected in suitable habitat, its presence in the pet trade should be monitored.



Lamprophis guttatus-Steytlerville, EC

W.R. Branch

Genus Lycodonomorphus Fitzinger, 1843—water and ground snakes

Lycodonomorphus is a small genus closely related to *Lamprophis*. It now contains eight species (with the transfer of *Lycodonomorphus inornatus* from *Lamprophis*) which occur throughout Central and East Africa and the eastern parts of Southern Africa (Branch 1998). Four species occur in the *Atlas* region, all in areas with high rainfall. They are predominately aquatic snakes that prey mainly on frogs which they

Lycodonomorphus inornatus (Duméril, Bibron & Duméril, 1854) OLIVE GROUND SNAKE; BLACK HOUSE SNAKE; OLIVE HOUSE SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Until recently this species was known as *Lamprophis inornatus*. Northern and southern populations differ with regard to body proportions and scalation and are genetically divergent, indicating that two taxa may be present (Kelly *et al.* 2011).

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Swaziland. This is a predominantly temperate species that occurs from the southwestern Cape eastwards through the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, northeastern Free State, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Limpopo and Swaziland.

Habitat: Inhabits grassland, savanna, fynbos and forest habitats across its distribution (Branch 1998). Shelters under rocks on soil and in or under rotting logs (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Grassland; Fynbos; Savanna; Albany Thicket; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, and common in parts of its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Lycodonomorphus laevissimus (Günther, 1862) DUSKY-BELLIED WATER SNAKE

DOSKI-DELEIED WATER S

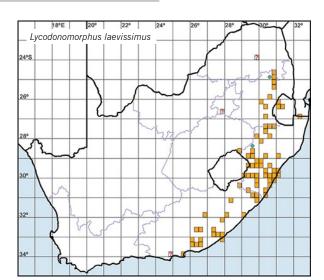
Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

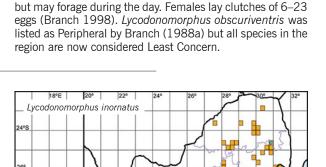
Endemic

Taxonomy: Raw (1973) described two subspecies (*L. I. fitzsimonsi, L. I. natalensis*) but these are no longer recognised (Haagner & Branch 1994; Branch 1998). A phylogeographic study of populations from different drainage basins may be informative with regard to gene flow.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region, occurring from the Eastern Cape northwards through KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and Swaziland. The possible northern limits of the range are represented by a questionable iso-



J. Marais



Lvcodonomorphus inornatus—Duiwelskloof, LIMP

subdue by constriction. One large species (L. inornatus) is

terrestrial and feeds on rodents, lizards and even snakes.

These non-venomous constrictors are generally nocturnal

LAMPROPHIIDAE

lated record in Limpopo (2329DD). An isolated population exists around Vereeniging (2627DB) on the Gauteng/ Free State border and probably originated from specimens washed down the Vaal River (Jacobsen 1989; Bates 1996a), but the permanency of this population requires confirmation. This species may also occur in southern Mozambique.

Habitat: Inhabits riverine and other aquatic habitats, favouring well-wooded streams (Branch 1998). Often found along perennial streams in grassland; occurs from near sea level to at least 1 700 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Albany Thicket; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Drakensberg Grassland; Lowveld; Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld; Lower Karoo; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Central Bushveld; Estuarine Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and generally abundant in suitable habitat.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Lycodonomorphus obscuriventris FitzSimons, 1964 FLOODPLAIN WATER SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously considered a subspecies of *Lycodonomorphus whytii* but raised to species status by Broadley (1995a). The relationship between these two taxa should be investigated by means of a molecular analysis.

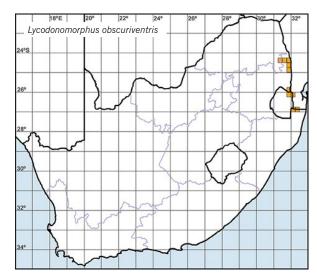
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Ranges from Mozambique southwards, entering southern Zimbabwe and the eastern parts of Limpopo, Mpumalanga and Swaziland, as well as northeastern KwaZulu-Natal (Broadley 1990b; Bourguin 2004).

Habitat: Inhabits lowland swamps and floodplains (Broadley 1990b).

Vegetation type: SVI 5 Tshokwane-Hlane Basalt Lowveld; SVI 18 Tembe Sandy Bushveld; SVI 16 Southern Lebombo Bushveld; SVI 3 Granite Lowveld; SVI 23 Zululand Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a limited distribution in the *Atlas* region, with an estimated AOO of 600 km² (approaching the Endangered threshold [B2]). However, it occurs primarily in the Kruger National Park as well as other protected areas in eastern Mpumalanga, and there do not appear to be any major threats. Nevertheless, its habitat is likely to be threatened by changes in water regimes caused by anthropogenic extraction of water or changing climatic trends. Habitat loss resulting from industrial and agricultural development could also threaten this species.

Conservation measures: Initiate research on biology, ecology and habitat status.



Lycodonomorphus laevissimus-Mooi River, KZN



Lycodonomorphus obscuriventris-Swaziland

W.D. Haacke

J. Marais

Lycodonomorphus rufulus (Lichtenstein, 1823) BROWN WATER SNAKE; COMMON WATER SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Broadley (1967) treated *L. rufulus mlanjen*sis as a subspecies of *L. leleupi*, rendering *L. rufulus* a monotypic species. *Lycodonomorphus leleupi mlanjensis* was later raised to species status by Broadley & Cotterill (2004). The status of the isolated population of *L. rufulus* on the eastern highlands of Zimbabwe, and phylogenetic relationships within the genus, are under investigation (C.M.R. Kelly pers. comm.).

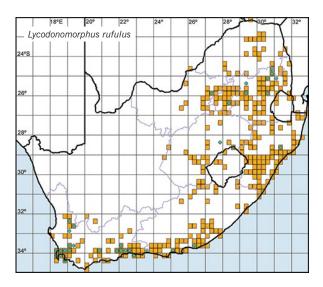
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. The species has a largely temperate distribution pattern and is widespread in the eastern and southern parts of the *Atlas* region. Occurs in Swaziland, Lesotho and all provinces of South Africa, but is notably absent from most parts of the drier Northern Cape. The range extends to the Limpopo Valley and, after a disjunction, the taxon is again found in the eastern parts of Zimbabwe and adjacent Mozambique (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Habitat: Associated with aquatic habitats including dams, streams and rivers (Branch 1998).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Fynbos; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket; Forests; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Waterbodies.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common throughout its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Lycodonomorphus rufulus-Suikerbosrand NR, GP

G.J. Alexander

Genus Lycophidion Fitzinger, 1843—wolf snakes

The genus *Lycophidion* comprises 19 species (Uetz 2012) distributed across sub-Saharan Africa (Branch 1998). Three species occur in the eastern parts of the *Atlas* region and one of these, *L. pygmaeum*, is endemic. *Lycophidion semiannule*, recorded from northeastern KwaZu-lu-Natal by Broadley (1990), is now considered restricted to Benguerra Island and possibly Inhambane, both in southeastern Mozambique (Broadley 1996). These small

Lycophidion capense capense (A. Smith, 1831) CAPE WOLF SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The validity of the two additional subspecies *L. c. loveridgei* and *L. c. jacksoni*, both from northeastern and eastern Africa, should be subjected to a modern taxonomic analysis.

Distribution: Widespread throughout the southeastern regions of Africa. Occurs from Zambia southwards to the *Atlas* region, where it is known from Swaziland and all provinces of South Africa, although it is apparently absent from large parts of the Northern and Western Cape provinces (Branch 1998).

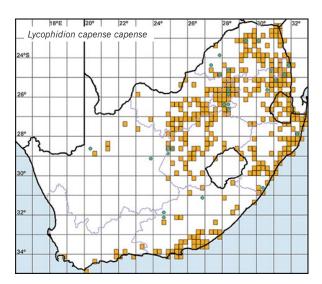
Habitat: Occurs from coastal regions to higher elevations in the central portions of South Africa. Often found under rocks or logs and in old termitaria (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket; Fynbos; Forests; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common throughout its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

non-venomous terrestrial snakes forage at night for lizards, which they kill by constriction. Females in the *Atlas* region lay small clutches of 3–9 eggs (Branch 1998). The most recently described species, *L. pygmaeum*, is considered Near Threatened given its limited distribution and habitat loss within its range. *Lycophidion variegatum* was formerly listed as Rare (Branch 1988) but is now classified as Least Concern.





Lycophidion capense capense—Umhlanga Rocks, KZN

J. Marais

Lycophidion pygmaeum Broadley, 1996 PYGMY WOLF SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Near Threatened

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to South Africa where it is restricted to the northeastern parts of KwaZulu-Natal, from the Mozambique border southwards to St Lucia Village. It is likely to occur in southern Mozambique and possibly in the eastern parts of Swaziland.

EOO: 20250 km^2 (confidence: medium); AOO: 4050 km^2 (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Inhabits lowland forests, grasslands and mesic savanna habitats. Has also been recorded from pine plantations (Branch 1998).

Vegetation type: CB 1 Maputaland Coastal Belt; FOz 7 Northern Coastal Forest; SVI 18 Tembe Sandy Bushveld; SVI 23 Zululand Lowveld; SVI 24 Zululand Coastal Thornveld; CB2 Maputaland Wooded Grassland; SVI 20 Western Maputaland Clay Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted distribution (EOO close to the VU threshold) in an area with numerous anthropogenic impacts. Afforestation, human settlement and small-scale agriculture are likely to have severely fragmented the range. There are no extralimital records (i.e. Mozambique) so it is improbable that migration from adjacent reservoirs will mitigate habitat loss.

Threats: Threatened by habitat transformation caused by plantations, agriculture and expanding human settlement. Habitat transformation is taking place across much of its range (Driver *et al.* 2005).

Conservation measures: This species is poorly known; carry out research on its habits and habitat utilisation. Prioritise the conservation of its habitat.

Lycophidion variegatum Broadley, 1969 VARIEGATED WOLF SNAKE

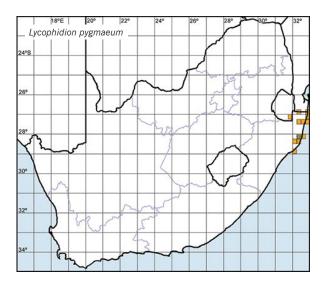
Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern Taxonomy: No notable issues.



Lycophidion variegatum-Mokopane, LIMP

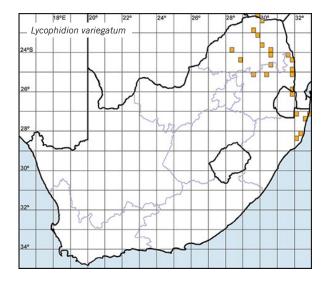
```
W.D. Haacke
```





Lycophidion pygmaeum—St Lucia, KZN

J. Marais



Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring along the eastern and western sides of Zimbabwe, southwards through Limpopo, the northern half of Mpumalanga, eastern Swaziland and northeastern KwaZulu-Natal (Broadley 1990b). The QDGC records along the KwaZulu-Natal

coast require confirmation. Broadley (1990) recorded *Lycophidion semiannule* from these QDGCs (and 2632DD), but Broadley (1996) subsequently restricted the latter species to the Bazaruto Archipelago in Mozambique. According to Broadley (1996) and Bourquin (2004), *L. variegatum* does not occur further south than the Ngwavuma area (2732AA).

Habitat: Found in savanna and grassland habitats as well as rocky areas throughout its range. Recorded from rock

outcrops, under rocks on rock or soil, and under dead plants or logs, at elevations of $300-1\ 200\ m$ (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Mopane; Mesic Highveld Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Although of rare occurrence, this species is widespread in South Africa.

Conservation measures: Collect information on biology and ecology.

SUBFAMILY PSAMMOPHIINAE

The subfamily Psammophiinae represents a monophyletic group that was formerly considered part of the family Colubridae (see Chapter 24; Brandstätter 1996; Vidal & Hedges 2002). It was recently proposed that this group of snakes should be elevated to family level (Kelly *et al.* 2008, 2009).

The Psammophiinae comprises seven genera and approximately 50 species (Kelly *et al.* 2008). These taxa are distributed throughout southern Europe, the Middle East, south-central Asia, mainland Africa and Madagascar (Branch 1998; Kelly *et al.* 2008). This subfamily is ubiquitous in the *Atlas* region, where five genera (*Dipsina*, *Hemirhagerrhis*, *Psammophis*, *Psammophylax*, *Rhamphiophis*) and 16 species occur.

Members of the Psammophiinae inhabit a wide variety of habitats, from deserts to grassland, fynbos, savanna and

woodland. These snakes are generally diurnal and terrestrial, although *Hemirhagerrhis nototaenia* could be considered arboreal (Branch 1998). They actively hunt for their prey, which consists primarily of small vertebrates (Branch 1998; Alexander & Marais 2007). All species in the *Atlas* region are oviparous, and *Psammophylax rhombeatus* exhibits egg-guarding behaviour (Broadley 1990b). The venom of *Psammophis mossambicus* is relatively potent and may be of clinical importance (Fry *et al.* 2003).

Branch (1988a) listed *Psammophis leightoni* as Vulnerable (it retains this status here) and *P. jallae* as Peripheral (now Least Concern). These snakes are apparently not threatened by commercial trade for skins or pets. The main threat facing *P. leightoni* is habitat loss to coastal developments and agriculture, and habitat deterioration with an associated increased incidence of fire as a result of alien invasive plants.

Genus Dipsina Jan, 1863—dwarf beaked snakes

Dipsina is a monotypic genus endemic to southern Africa. It is the sister group to the genus *Psammophis* (Kelly *et al.* 2008). These small (maximum 320 mm snout–vent length) snakes

are diurnal and terrestrial, they prey on lizards, and females lay clutches of 2–4 eggs (Branch 1998). The only known species, *D. multimaculata*, is not of conservation concern.

Dipsina multimaculata (A. Smith, 1847) DWARF BEAKED SNAKE

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

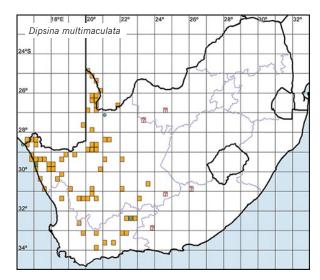
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found in Namibia, southwestern Botswana and western South Africa (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). Within the *Atlas* region it occurs in the Northern and Western Cape provinces. Some old records (question marks on map) from the Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and North-West Province (mainly from Broadley 1990b) require confirmation.

Habitat: Terrestrial, found in arid sandy areas or dry watercourses, using burrows for refuge and bushes for cover (Branch 1998).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Savanna; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Widespread, without significant threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Dipsina multimaculata—Springbok, NC

J. Marais

Genus Hemirhagerrhis Boettger, 1896-bark snakes

Hemirhagerrhis contains four species found throughout sub-Saharan Africa (Broadley & Hughes 2000). Only one species (*H. nototaenia*) occurs in the *Atlas* region and it is not of conservation concern. These small snakes are diurnal, arboreal or rupicolous, and feed primarily on geckos (Broadley & Hughes 2000). Females lay clutches of 2–8 eggs (Branch 1998).

Hemirhagerrhis nototaenia (Günther, 1864) EASTERN BARK SNAKE; MOPANE SNAKE

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: *Hemirhagerrhis viperina* from north-central Namibia was previously considered a subspecies of *H. nototaenia* (Branch 1998).

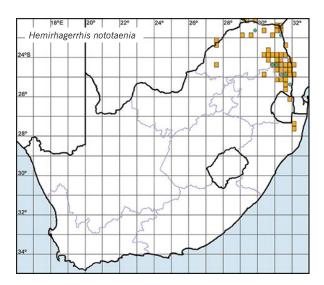
Distribution: Endemic to sub-Saharan Africa. Found in southeastern Kenya, Tanzania, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and northeastern South Africa (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998; Broadley & Hughes 2000). Scattered records extend the range westwards from Sudan to Burkina Faso (Broadley & Hughes 2000). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in Limpopo and the northeastern parts of Mpumalanga, Swaziland and KwaZulu-Natal.

Habitat: A semi-arboreal species found mainly in savanna, often sheltering under loose bark and cracks in trees, up to altitudes of 1 200 m (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998; Broadley & Hughes 2000).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mopane; Central Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and probably more common than records suggest due to its cryptic colouration and secretive habits. No known threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Hemirhagerrhis nototaenia-Hoedspruit, LIMP

D. Pietersen

Genus Psammophis Boie, 1825—sand and grass snakes

The widespread genus *Psammophis* comprises 33 species (Uetz 2012) found throughout Africa and parts of Asia. Eleven species occur in the *Atlas* region. Most of these are widely distributed in the region but only one, *P. leightoni*, is endemic. These diurnal snakes actively hunt for small vertebrates such as lizards and small rodents. Females of most species lay clutches of 3–15 eggs, but *P. mossambicus* females may lay as many as 30 eggs per clutch (Branch 1998). The venom of most species is mild and considered harmless to humans, but that of *P. mossambicus* is more potent (Branch 1998) and requires further study. Branch (1988a) listed *P. leightoni* as Vulnerable and this status is retained as the species is threatened by habitat loss associated with agriculture and human settlement throughout its small range. *Psammophis jallae* was listed as Peripheral by Branch (1988a) but this species is no longer considered to be of conservation concern.

Psammophis angolensis (Bocage, 1872) DWARF SAND SNAKE; PYGMY SAND SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

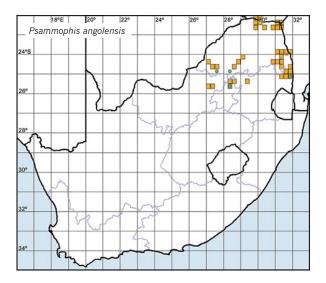
Distribution: Widespread in sub-Saharan Africa, ranging from Tanzania and the Democratic Republic of the Congo, through Zambia, Malawi, Mozambique, westwards to Angola and southwards through Zimbabwe to South Africa (Broadley 2002). In the *Atlas* region it occurs in Limpopo and the adjacent northern parts of North-West Province, Gauteng and Mpumalanga.

Habitat: Found in savanna habitats, sheltering under stones (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Although of apparently rare occurrence, it is widespread in the *Atlas* region and elsewhere in Africa.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Psammophis angolensis—near Alldays, LIMP

J. Marais

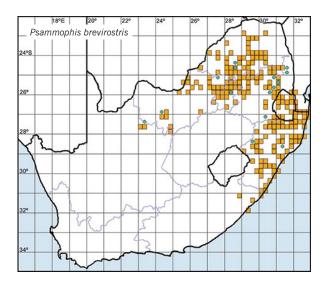
Psammophis brevirostris Peters, 1881 SHORT-SNOUTED GRASS SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of this species—which is part of the *Psammophis 'phillipsii'* species complex has been investigated by Kelly *et al.* (2008). *Psammophis brevirostris leopardinus* from southern Angola and Namibia is now considered a valid species (Broadley 2002, validated by Kelly *et al.* 2008). The taxonomic status of several apparently relict populations requires further assessment.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Widespread in the *Atlas* region, occurring in Limpopo, North-West Province, Gauteng, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, the adjacent northeastern parts of the Eastern Cape, and Swaziland.



First recorded from the Kuruman region during a SARCA survey and by means of a Virtual Museum record. These records define the westernmost limit within the *Atlas* region and are the first records for the Northern Cape. Relict populations are known from eastern Namibia, Botswana and eastern Zimbabwe (Broadley 2002).

Habitat: Inhabits grassland and savanna habitats from coastal regions to higher altitudes in the Drakensberg, central Highveld and highlands of eastern Zimbabwe. Shelters in holes in the ground, under rocks and in old termitaria (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Psammophis brevirostris—near Nelspruit, MPM

J. Marais

Psammophis crucifer (Daudin, 1803) CROSS-MARKED GRASS SNAKE; MONTANE GRASS SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: In certain parts of its range, this species exhibits colour polymorphism. However, limited sampling by Kelly *et al.* (2008), which included the isolated population in eastern Zimbabwe, suggested that the different populations are not sufficiently divergent to justify separate taxonomic status.

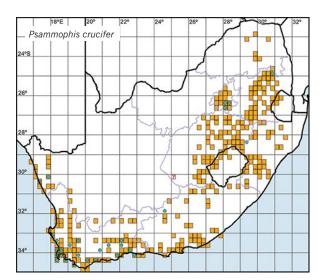
Distribution: A largely temperate species endemic to southern Africa. Widespread in the *Atlas* region and also occurring as a relict population in the highlands of eastern Zimbabwe (Broadley 2002). Occurs in the western and southern parts of the Northern Cape, across the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, the eastern half of the Free State, Gauteng, high-lying regions of KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga, and northwestern Swaziland, with isolated records in Limpopo. It is likely to be far more widespread in Lesotho than current records indicate.

Habitat: Fynbos, and montane and Highveld grasslands, from coastal areas to higher altitudes, perhaps as high as 3 000 m (Branch 1998). Shelters under rocks on soil, in old termitaria and occasionally in rock crevices or low-growing shrubs (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Grassland; Fynbos; Savanna; Albany Thicket; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Forests; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Psammophis crucifer—Gondwana GR, E of Herbertsdale, WC M. Burger

Psammophis jallae Peracca, 1896 JALLA'S SAND SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

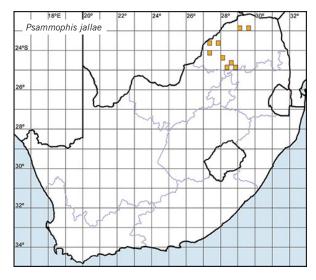
Distribution: Widespread in the northern parts of southern Africa. Recorded from Angola, Zambia, Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe and South Africa (Broadley 2002). In the *Atlas* region it is known from the western parts of Limpopo, reaching Waterpoort in the north.

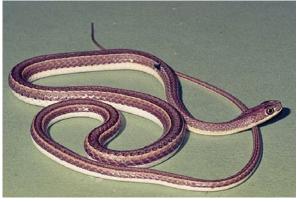
Habitat: Inhabits grassland and arid savanna habitats at altitudes of 750–1 500 m (Broadley 2002).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Although this sand snake is not common, it has a fairly wide distribution in the *Atlas* region and is likely to occur in numerous conservation areas in the western parts of Limpopo Province.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Psammophis jallae-Vaalwater, LIMP

W.D. Haacke

Psammophis leightoni Boulenger, 1902 CAPE SAND SNAKE; CAPE WHIP SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Global: Vulnerable B1ab(iii)

Endemic

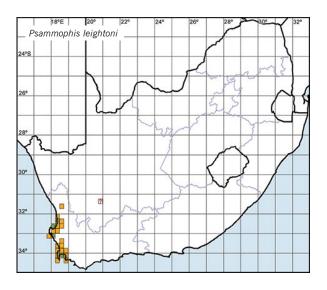
Taxonomy: Broadley (2002) elevated *P. leightoni namibensis* and *P. l. trinasalis* to species status, rendering *P. leightoni* a monotypic species. However, the validity of these changes has been questioned (Kelly *et al.* 2008) and further research is necessary to investigate this issue.

Distribution: Endemic to the western regions of the Western Cape, South Africa. Broadley (2002) plotted an isolated record (3120BD) in the Northern Cape and this is considered questionable and in need of confirmation.

EOO: 18 755 km² (confidence: medium); AOO: 3 849 km² (confidence: low).

Habitat: Found in sand fynbos and strandveld habitats throughout its range.

Vegetation type: FFd2 Leipoldtville Sand Fynbos; FRs9 Swartland Shale Renosterveld; FFs2 Graafwater Sandstone Fynbos; FS5 Langebaan Dune Strandveld; FRg2 Swartland Granite Renosterveld; FFd3 Hopefield Sand Fynbos; FS3 Saldanha Flats Strandveld; FFs9 Peninsula Sandstone Fynbos; FFg3 Peninsula Granite Fynbos; FFg2



Boland Granite Fynbos; FFd6 Hangklip Sand Fynbos; FS1 Lambert's Bay Strandveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a limited distribution (EOO <20 000 km²) in a region that is characterised by high levels of habitat transformation. Average habitat transformation within the Cape Floristic Region is estimated at approximately 30%, while certain vegetation types (e.g. Renosterveld) in which this species is known to occur

have been reduced by up to 80% in extent (Rouget et al. 2003) [B1b(iii)]. Habitat transformation is expected to increase (Rouget et al. 2003). Additionally, remaining habitats within the range are likely to be severely fragmented [B1a]. There are very few large tracts of undisturbed habitat remaining for this species, which occurs in few protected areas. It is likely that the majority of populations are isolated and although this snake is capable of long distance movement, altered habitats and roads will act as barriers.

Threats: Threatened primarily by habitat loss associated with agriculture and development of human settlements throughout its range.

Conservation measures: Conserve existing habitat. Assess the occurrence of the species within transformed areas. Clarify the taxonomic status of P. leightoni relative to P. namibensis and P. trinasalis.

Psammophis mossambicus Peters, 1882 **OLIVE GRASS SNAKE**

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Kelly *et al.* (2008) reported that there appears to be little support for the separation of Psammophis phillipsii phillipsii and P. mossambicus, and that the latter may be a junior synonym of *P. phillipsii*. However, larger samples and a more detailed investigation are required to settle this question.

Distribution: Widespread in sub-Saharan Africa but the exact range is difficult to define given the taxonomic issue discussed above. According to Branch (1998) and Broadley (2002), the species occurs from South Sudan southwards to Angola, Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambigue, South Africa and Swaziland. Within the Atlas region it is known from the Lowveld of Limpopo and Mpumalanga, southwards through Swaziland and KwaZulu-Natal. It appears to be absent from the high-lying regions of Mpumalanga. Broadley (2002) recorded the southernmost limit at 2931BA but it is now known to occur further south at 2931AD. Although Bourquin (2004) plotted several records throughout KwaZulu-Natal, including one as far south as 3130AA on the Eastern Cape border, many of these require confirmation. All records west of 31°E and at loci 2831AB, 2831BA and 2931CA (from Bourguin 2004 and other sources) are excluded from the map here, as these were considered too far removed from the range determined by Broadley (2002). These records are probably referable to P. brevirostris.

Habitat: Inhabits savanna and grasslands from sea level to approximately 1 500 m, and is often associated with moist habitats (Broadley 2002).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Central Bushveld; Mopane; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Freshwater Wetlands; Alluvial Vegetation.

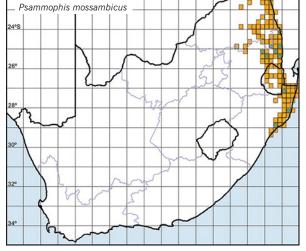
Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

20° 18°E 220 Psammophis mossambicus 2405

Psammophis mossambicus-Cleveland NR, S of Phalaborwa, LIMP M. Burger







Psammophis namibensis Broadley, 1975 NAMIB SAND SNAKE: NAMIB WHIP SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Broadley (2002) elevated *Psammophis leightoni namibensis* to species status, but Kelley *et al.* (2008) indicated that *P. namibensis* and *P. leightoni* may represent a single species and called for further molecular work to investigate this.

Distribution: Occurs along the western portions of southern Africa, from Angola through Namibia, south to Namaqualand in the Northern Cape, South Africa (Branch 1998).

Habitat: Inhabits arid regions, including desert and succulent scrubland (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Namaqualand Sandveld; Richtersveld; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Bushmanland; Southern Namib Desert; Gariep Desert.

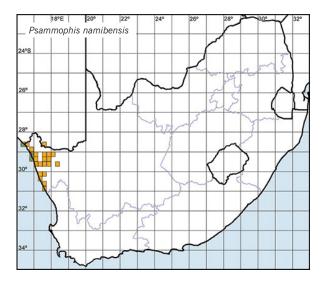
Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Psammophis namibensis-Sossusvlei, Namibia

W.R. Branch





Psammophis namibensis-Gaias, Namibia

J. Marais

Psammophis notostictus Peters, 1867 KAROO SAND SNAKE; KAROO WHIP SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

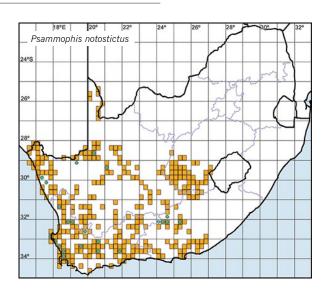
Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: A widespread species that occurs from southern Angola through Namibia to South Africa (Broadley 2002). In the *Atlas* region it occurs throughout the North-



Psammophis notostictus-De Hoop NR, WC

T. Phelps



ern and Western Cape provinces, the western half of the Eastern Cape and the southern half of the Free State.

Habitat: Inhabits arid scrubland, karroid bushveld and fynbos habitats. May be found in old termitaria, under rocks or in open veld (De Waal 1978).

Biome: Nama-Karoo; Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Grassland; Albany Thicket; Desert; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Psammophis subtaeniatus Peters, 1882 WESTERN YELLOW-BELLIED SAND SNAKE; WESTERN STRIPE-BELLIED SAND SNAKE

WESTERN STRILE-DELETED SAND SNARE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: *Psammophis subtaeniatus orientalis* from east and southeast Africa was elevated to species status by Broadley (2002) (validated by Kelly *et al.* 2008), rendering *P. subtaeniatus* a monotypic species.

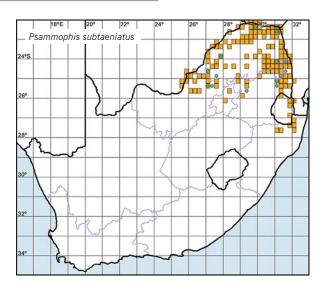
Distribution: Occurs from southern Angola through northern Namibia, Botswana, southern Zambia, Zimbabwe, western Mozambique and Swaziland (Branch 1998). In South Africa it is known from Limpopo, northern North-West Province, Gauteng, parts of the northern half of Mpumalanga and northern KwaZulu-Natal.

Habitat: Inhabits dry savannas at altitudes of 100–1 500 m (Broadley 2002). Recorded on rocky hillsides, in rock crevices and large, old termitaria, as well as under bark, logs or rocks; may take refuge in bushes up to 1.2 m high (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Mopane; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Alluvial Vegetation; Sub-Escarpment Grassland.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Psammophis subtaeniatus—Cleveland NR, S of Phalaborwa, LIMP M. Burger

Psammophis trigrammus Günther, 1865 WESTERN SAND SNAKE; WESTERN WHIP SNAKE

Michael F. Bates

Global: Least Concern

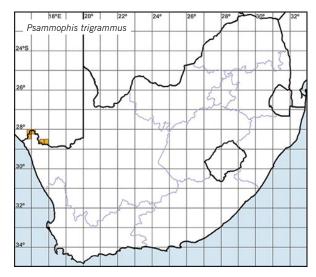
Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to southwestern Africa. Found in southern Angola, northern and western Namibia and the northern Richtersveld of the Northern Cape, South Africa (Broadley 1990b, 2002; Branch 1998; Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Habitat: Recorded from rocky patches on sandy soil near river valleys at elevations of about 60–320 m in the Richtersveld National Park (Bauer & Branch 2003 [2001]).

Bioregion: Richtersveld; Gariep Desert; Southern Namib Desert.

Assessment rationale: Although restricted to a small area in the extreme northwestern part of the Northern Cape,



this species is widespread and common elsewhere in southwestern Africa. There are no known threats in the *Atlas* region, where much of the range is protected within the Richtersveld National Park, and therefore the regional assessment is also Least Concern.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Psammophis trigrammus—Langer Hinreich, Namibia

W. Conradie

Psammophis trinasalis Werner, 1902 FORK-MARKED SAND SNAKE; KALAHARI SAND SNAKE

Bryan Maritz

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously regarded as a subspecies of *P. leightoni* but elevated to species status by Broadley (2002). Kelly *et al.* (2008) did not include *P. trinasalis* in their analysis, but concern over the validity of *P. namibensis* (also formerly considered a subspecies of *P. leightoni*) should prompt verification of the validity of *P. trinasalis*.

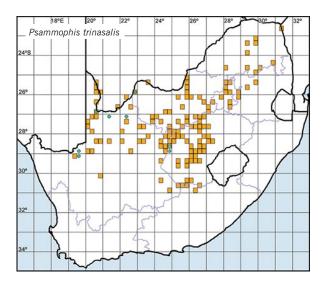
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, this species is known from the Namibian plateau, Botswana and the northern and central parts of South Africa (Branch 1998). It may also occur peripherally in adjacent Zimbabwe and Mozambique. In the *Atlas* region it is found in the Northern Cape, Free State, North-West Province, Gauteng, Limpopo and western Mpumalanga.

Habitat: Inhabits arid savannas and grasslands at elevations of 200–1 700 m; often found in old termitaria and occasionally under rocks (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 2002).

Bioregion: Dry Highveld Grassland; Eastern Kalahari Bushveld; Central Bushveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Upper Karoo; Kalahari Duneveld; Alluvial Vegetation; Bushmanland; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Psammophis trinasalis—Aroab, Namibia

W.R. Branch

Genus Psammophylax Fitzinger, 1843—African grass snakes

This genus now contains five species following the transfer of *Rhamphiophis acutus* (and its subspecies) to the genus *Psammophylax* by Kelly *et al.* (2008). The likelihood of cryptic species-level diversity in the East African *P. variabilis* and *P. multisquamis* species complexes means that species numbers will probably increase further in future (C.M.R. Kelly pers. comm.). These snakes are found throughout Africa but only two species (*P. rhombeatus*,

Psammophylax rhombeatus rhombeatus (Linnaeus, 1758)

SPOTTED GRASS SNAKE; SPOTTED SKAAPSTEKER

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Trinomials are retained as *Psammophylax rhombeatus ocellatus* of southern Angola was considered a valid subspecies by Broadley (1977b). The latter subspecies and the population of *P. r. rhombeatus* on the northwest coast of South Africa are disjunct and are currently being investigated (C.M.R. Kelly pers. comm.).

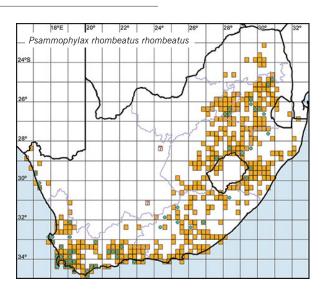
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa and found in South Africa, Swaziland, Lesotho and Namibia (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). Found in all nine provinces of South Africa but absent from most of the North-West Province, western Free State and central Northern Cape. Two QDGC records in the eastern part of the Northern Cape are somewhat out of range and considered questionable. If the three scattered QDGC records in Namibia (see Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998) merely represent relict populations of this subspecies, then it could be considered a near-endemic in the *Atlas* region.

Habitat: Very common, found in savanna, grassland, fynbos and desert, from the coast up to about 2 300 m; shelters under rocks on soil, in rock crevices, old termitaria



Psammophylax rhombeatus rhombeatus—Gondwana GR, E of Herbertsdale, WC M. Burger

P. tritaeniatus) occur in the *Atlas* region. They are diurnal, terrestrial, active foragers that prey mainly on small mammals and lizards (Branch 1998). Females of *P. r. rhombeatus* guard their eggs (up to 30 per clutch) while they incubate, remaining with them until they hatch; *P. tritaeniatus* females produce clutches of 5–18 eggs (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). Neither species is of conservation concern.



and holes in the ground (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989; Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Biome: Grassland; Fynbos; Savanna; Albany Thicket; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Forests; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Conservation measures: None recommended.



Psammophylax rhombeatus rhombeatus-Mooi River, KZN

Psammophylax tritaeniatus (Günther, 1868)

STRIPED GRASS SNAKE; STRIPED SKAAPSTEKER

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

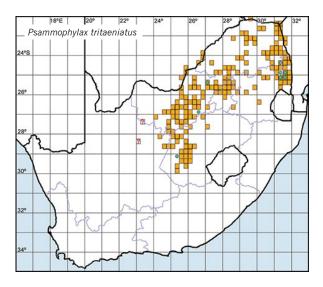
Distribution: Endemic to sub-Saharan Africa. Found in Tanzania, Zimbabwe, western Mozambique, Botswana, Angola, Namibia and South Africa (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). Within the *Atlas* region it is found in Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, North-West Province, adjacent northeastern Northern Cape and western Free State. Two records plotted on the map are old (one dating to 1896) and out of range, and are here considered questionable.

Habitat: Found throughout savanna and Highveld grassland areas (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998) at altitudes of 200–1 600 m. Terrestrial, taking refuge under rocks and in old termitaria (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Nama-Karoo (marginal).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Psammophylax tritaeniatus-Namibia

J. Marais

Genus Rhamphiophis Peters, 1854—beaked snakes

The genus *Rhamphiophis* occurs throughout Africa. It now contains only four species (Uetz 2012) following the recent transfer of *R. acutus* to the genus *Psammophylax* by Kelly *et al.* (2008). These diurnal and terrestrial snakes have short re-inforced skulls that allow them to dig in soil (Kelly *et al.*

Rhamphiophis rostratus Peters, 1854 RUFOUS BEAKED SNAKE

Gavin Masterson

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Endemic to sub-Saharan Africa. Found in northeastern South Africa, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Malawi, Tanzania, Kenya, Ethiopia and South Sudan (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). Within the *Atlas* region it is restricted to the northern and eastern parts of Limpopo, and northeastern Mpumalanga.

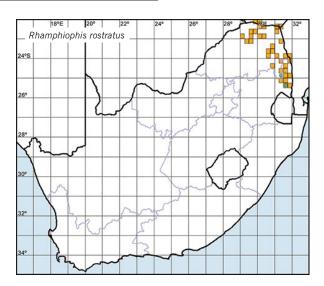
Habitat: A terrestrial species that is found in moist and arid savanna, often in gerbil burrows or termite mounds (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998), at altitudes of 400–1 000 m.

Bioregion: Mopane; Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Alluvial Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and well protected within its regional range, primarily within the Kruger National Park.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

2008). Only one species (*R. rostratus*) occurs in the *Atlas* region and it is not of conservation concern. Adults of this species prey on small vertebrates, including other snakes, while juveniles are known to include insects in their diet; females lay clutches of 8–17 eggs (Branch 1998).





Rhamphiophis rostratus—Hoedspruit, LIMP

J. Marais

SUBFAMILY PSEUDOXYRHOPHIINAE

The pseudoxyrhophiines comprise approximately 20 genera and 80 species (Glaw & Vences 2007) that are found mainly in Madagascar, with one genus (*Ditypophis*) endemic to Socotra Island and two genera (*Duberria* and *Amplorhinus*) restricted to mainland Africa (Lawson *et al.* 2005; Kelly *et al.* 2009). One additional African genus (*Montaspis*) is likely to belong in this subfamily (Kelly *et al.* 2009) and is provisionally considered a pseudoxyrhophiine, but further research is necessary to validate this.

The various species demonstrate a broad variety of lifestyles and include terrestrial and arboreal snakes, as well as nocturnal and diurnal species. Prey specialisation is evident in some genera, e.g. *Duberria* eat only slugs and snails, while some *Liopholidophis* consume frog eggs. Bites from some of the larger species (e.g. *Leioheterodon*, *Ithycyphus, Madagascarophis*) may cause mild envenomation (Glaw & Vences 2007), as may bites from southern African *Amplorhinus* (Spawls & Branch 1995). Most Malagasy species for which reproductive data are known are oviparous (exceptions include some viviparous *Stenophis* and *Liopholidophis*; Glaw & Vences 2007) while the African genera *Duberria* and *Amplorhinus* are viviparous (reproduction in *Montaspis* is unknown).

Three genera and four species are found in the *Atlas* region. One of these, *Duberria variegata*, is restricted to the coastal forests of Maputaland but it is not currently threatened. *Montaspis gilvomaculata* is known from only four specimens and its conservation status cannot be assessed adequately; it is considered to be Data Deficient on the basis of insufficient information.

Genus Amplorhinus A. Smith, 1847-many-spotted snakes

The genus *Amplorhinus* contains a single species that occurs in a series of isolated populations extending along the eastern side of southern Africa, from the southern Cape to eastern Zimbabwe in the north. These terrestrial snakes are usually found in the vicinity of rivers, seepage areas and other wetlands in mountainous regions. They prey on frogs and lizards, and females give birth to 4–12 young (Branch 1998). *Amplorhinus multimaculatus* is not of conservation concern.

Amplorhinus multimaculatus A. Smith, 1847 MANY-SPOTTED SNAKE; CAPE MANY-SPOTTED SNAKE

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

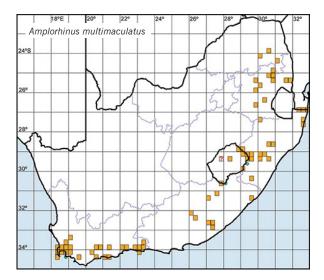
Near-endemic

Taxonomy: The Zimbabwean and South African populations are geographically well separated, and are substantially divergent genetically (Kelly *et al.* 2009b). These populations, and perhaps also the two major regional populations in South Africa, i.e. Western Cape and eastern parts of the *Atlas* region, may all represent separate species (C.M.R. Kelly pers. comm.).

Distribution: Occurs in scattered populations from the Western Cape into the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Lesotho, Mpumalanga and southeastern Limpopo. The population in the Western Cape is clearly isolated from other



Amplorhinus multimaculatus—Jonkershoek Valley, Stellenbosch, WC A.L. de Villiers



populations. There is also an isolated population in eastern Zimbabwe (Broadley 1990b). Records from the Irene area in Gauteng are dubious (Jacobsen 1989) and are not shown on the map.

Habitat: Occurs in reed beds, vleis and riverside vegetation in fynbos, grassland and montane forests (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Biome: Grassland; Fynbos; Savanna; Forests; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common throughout much of its range (Broadley 1990b), but appears to be vulnerable to habitat destruction in some areas (Jacobsen 1989).

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Genus Duberria Fitzinger, 1826-slug-eaters

The genus *Duberria* is widespread in southern and eastern sub-Saharan Africa, and currently contains three species (Uetz 2012). *Duberria lutrix shirana* was recently elevated to species status (Broadley *et al.* 2003). Two species occur in the eastern and southern parts of the *Atlas* region. These

Duberria Iutrix Iutrix (Linnaeus, 1758) SOUTH AFRICAN SLUG-EATER; COMMON SLUG-EATER

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Two allopatric subspecies of *Duberria lutrix* are recognised in southern Africa, namely *D. I. lutrix* (*Atlas* region) and *D. I. rhodesiana* (Zimbabwe and Mozambique), but they are genetically deeply divergent and probably represent separate species (C.M.R. Kelly unpubl. data). Broadley & Blaylock (2013) noted that molecular data suggests that most recognised subspecies of *D. lutrix*, extending from the Cape to Ethiopia—including *D. l. rhodesiana*—probably represent good evolutionary species.

Distribution: Endemic to the eastern and southern parts of the *Atlas* region, including Swaziland and Lesotho. The Virtual Museum records in the Graaff-Reinet area are the first records of this species in the northwestern part of the Eastern Cape.

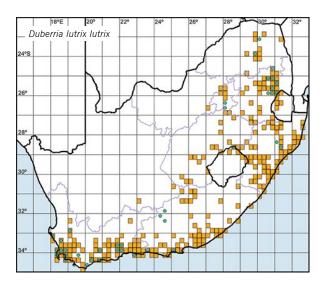
Habitat: Favours damp localities in grassland, moist savanna, lowland forests and fynbos (Marais 2004).

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Albany Thicket; Savanna; Forests; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

small, non-venomous, terrestrial snakes are found in moist habitats and feed exclusively on terrestrial snails and slugs. Females give birth to 6–22 young (Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region, one species (*D. variegata*) has a restricted distribution but neither of the two taxa is of conservation concern.





Duberria lutrix lutrix—Wolkberg, LIMP

Duberria variegata (Peters, 1854) VARIEGATED SLUG-EATER; SPOTTED SLUG-EATER

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

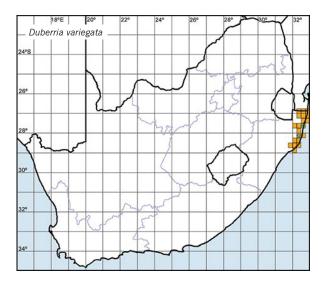
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa and Mozambique. Restricted to an area stretching from Inhambane in southern Mozambique to Richards Bay in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal (Broadley 1990b).

Habitat: Found in lowland coastal forests and savanna (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Freshwater Wetlands; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Although it has a restricted distribution in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal and adjacent southern Mozambique, this species is fairly common where it occurs (pers. obs.) and a large part of its range falls within protected areas, notably iSimangaliso Wetland Park.

Conservation measures: A poorly-known species: investigate its biology, ecology and population size.





Duberria variegata-St Lucia, KZN

Genus Montaspis Bourquin, 1991—cream-spotted mountain snakes

Montaspis is a monotypic genus endemic to South Africa. It is confined to high altitudes in the Drakensberg Range of KwaZulu-Natal, including the upper parts of Sani Pass bordering Lesotho. *Montaspis gilvomaculata* is known from only four specimens and its natural history is virtually unknown (Branch *et al.* 2003). It is a medium-sized

terrestrial species found in the vicinity of aquatic habitats in grassland where it feeds on frogs (Branch 1998). The species has a restricted distribution and its conservation status is uncertain because of a lack of data; it is considered to be Data Deficient on the basis of insufficient information.

Montaspis gilvomaculata Bourquin, 1991 CREAM-SPOTTED MOUNTAIN SNAKE

Johan Marais

Global: Data Deficient

Endemic

Taxonomy: The relationship of this species to other snakes remains uncertain, although its morphology suggests a close relationship with *Amplorhinus*, and it has accordingly been provisionally included in the Pseudoxyrhophiinae (Vidal *et al.* 2008a; Kelly *et al.* 2009b).

Distribution: Drakensberg Mountains of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa (Bourquin 1991, 2004; Branch *et al.* 1993; Branch 1998; Marais 2004).

EOO: 7 087 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 1 618 km² (confidence: low).

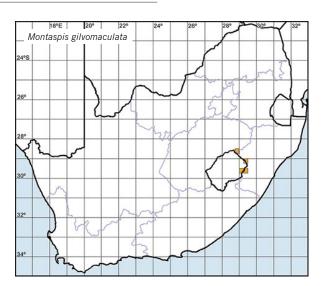
Habitat: Thought to inhabit areas near mountain streams and vleis in high altitude grassland (1 800–3 000 m) (Bourquin 1991; Marais 2004).

Vegetation type: Gd 7 uKhahlamba Basalt Grassland; Gd 8 Lesotho Highland Basalt Grassland; Gd 5 Northern Drakensberg Highland Grassland.

Assessment rationale: A rare and poorly known snake that has been recorded only at high altitudes in the KwaZulu-Natal Drakensberg and is known from only four specimens (Branch *et al.* 1993). Almost nothing is known about abundance, microhabitat and natural history. The species is thus regarded as Data Deficient.

Threats: Unknown.

Conservation measures: No specific conservation measures are suggested as most of its range is protected within the uKhahlamba/Drakensberg Park. Conduct research on range and population sizes, habitat status, threats, biology and ecology.





Montaspis gilvomaculata—Drakensberg, KZN

SUBFAMILY LAMPROPHIIDAE: INCERTAE SEDIS

Kelly et al. (2009b) revived the family Pseudaspididae Dowling & Duellman, 1978 for two monotypic genera, *Pseudaspis (P. cana)* and *Pythonodipsas (P. carinata*; Namibia and Angola). These authors also created the family Prosymnidae for the enigmatic genus *Prosymna*.

The familial status and relationships of these three genera has not been resolved, and they are included here in the Lamprophildae, but not assigned to subfamilies. Seven species (*Pseudaspis*, *Prosymna*) occur in the *Atlas* region.

Genus Prosymna Gray, 1849—shovel-snouted snakes

The genus *Prosymna* currently contains 16 species (Uetz 2012) following the elevation to species level of *P. lineata* from *P. sundevallii* (Broadley 1999b) and *P. greigerti* from *P. meleagris* (Chiro *et al.* 2011). Kelly *et al.* (2009b) proposed a monogeneric family Prosymnidae for African shovel-snouted snakes within the Elapoidea, but this has not been widely accepted. These small, fossorial snakes are confined to sub-Saharan Africa, with six

species occurring in the *Atlas* region. They feed almost exclusively on reptile eggs, with some species adapted to take the hard-shelled eggs of geckos. Females lay small clutches of 3–6 eggs (Branch 1998). Two species, *P. frontalis* and *P. janni*, have restricted distributions and were previously listed as Peripheral (Branch 1988a), but no species are currently considered to be of conservation concern.

Prosymna bivittata Werner, 1903 TWO-STRIPED SHOVEL-SNOUT

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

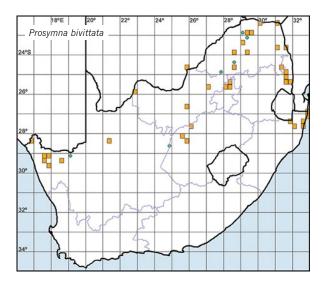
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found in southern Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and South Africa (Broadley 1990b). Patchily but widely distributed in the *Atlas* region. It occurs in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, northeastern Mpumalanga, northern Gauteng, Limpopo, North-West Province, western Free State and the northern half of Northern Cape. It probably also occurs in Swaziland and Mozambique.

Habitat: Found in moist and dry savanna and also in karoo scrub and sandveld in the west of South Africa. In Zimbabwe it seems to prefer open habitats in grassland and sparse thornveld (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). Found under rocks on soil and under logs at altitudes of 200–1 400 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Patchily distributed but wide-spread.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Prosymna bivittata-E Shores, Lake St Lucia, KZN

W.R. Branch

Prosymna frontalis (Peters, 1867) SOUTHWESTERN SHOVEL-SNOUT

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

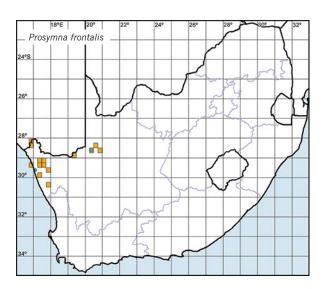
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. The range extends from southern Angola to Namibia and then southwards to the Namaqualand, Kenhardt and Gordonia districts in the Northern Cape, South Africa (Broadley 1990b). Recorded as far south as Kakamas and as far east as Keimoes and Augrabies.

Habitat: Inhabits rocky areas in arid regions (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo; Desert.

Assessment rationale: Although previously known from only a single locality in South Africa and listed as Peripheral (Branch 1988a), it is now known to be fairly widespread and common in the *Atlas* region. It also has a large extralimital range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Prosymna frontalis-Aus, Namibia

W.R. Branch

Prosymna janii Bianconi, 1862 MOZAMBIQUE SHOVEL-SNOUT; JAN'S SHOVEL-SNOUT

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

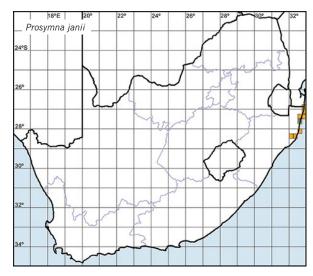
Distribution: Distributed from St Lucia and Mtubatuba in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, northwards into southern Mozambique (Broadley 1990b).

Habitat: Inhabits loose sandy soil in coastal dune forests, coastal forests and woodland (Broadley 1990b).



Prosymna janii-St Lucia, KZN

W.R. Schmidt



Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range but is abundant and not threatened. Much of the distribution within South Africa falls within the protected iSimangaliso Wetland Park.

Conservation measures: Conduct research into population numbers, biology, ecology, range, habitat status and threats.

Prosymna lineata (Peters, 1871) LINED SHOVEL-SNOUT

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously considered a subspecies of *P. sundevallii* but elevated to species status by Broadley (1999b).

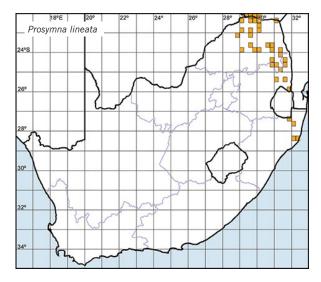
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Recorded from Dukuduku Forest in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, northwards into northeastern Swaziland, northeastern Mpumalanga and Limpopo, as well as Mozambique, Zimbabwe and northeastern Botswana (Broadley 1990b).

Habitat: Inhabits sandveld areas and miombo woodland (Broadley 1990b). Found under rocks on rock or soil, and under rotting logs, at altitudes of 300–1 400 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Prosymna lineata-Malebogo NR, near Blouberg, LIMP

M. Burger

Prosymna stuhlmannii (Pfeffer, 1893) EAST AFRICAN SHOVEL-SNOUT

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

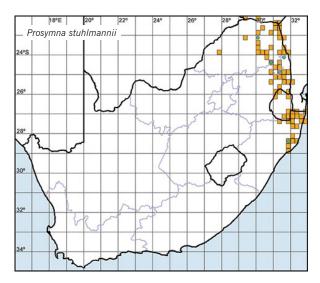
Taxonomy: Previously treated as a southern subspecies of *Prosymna ambigua* (Branch 1998).

Distribution: Found from South Africa and Swaziland northwards through Zimbabwe, eastern Zambia and further north to southern Somalia (Broadley 1990b). In the *Atlas* region it is found from Empangeni in northeastern Kwa-



Prosymna stuhlmannii-Skukuza, Kruger NP, MPM

G.J. Alexander



Zulu-Natal northwards to Swaziland, eastern Mpumalanga and Limpopo where it occurs as far west as the Mokolo Dam near Lephalale.

Habitat: Found in lowland forests, wooded hills and moist savanna (Branch 1998; Marais 2004). More-or-less fossorial and usually found under rotting logs and stones, in decaying plant matter, and in deserted termite mounds (Jacobsen 1989; Marais 2004).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Fairly widespread and not threatened.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

Prosymna sundevallii (A. Smith, 1849) SUNDEVALL'S SHOVEL-SNOUT

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: Treated as monotypic since *P. sundevallii lineata* was elevated to species status by Broadley (1999b).

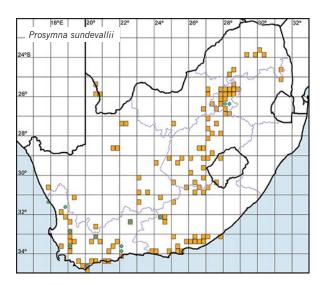
Distribution: Endemic to South Africa, Lesotho and southern Botswana (Broadley 1990b). Widespread but absent from KwaZulu-Natal and large parts of the Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga.

Habitat: Occurs in fynbos and mesic thicket in the Western Cape, and elsewhere in moist and dry savanna and karroid areas where it is often found in old termitaria and under rocks (Broadley 1990b).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Fynbos; Nama-Karoo; Albany Thicket; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Prosymna sundevallii—Farm De Put, about 26 km SE of Britstown, NC M. Burger

Genus *Pseudaspis* Fitzinger, 1826—mole snakes

The genus *Pseudaspis* contains a single species (*P. cana*) that is widely distributed across sub-Saharan Africa. It occurs virtually throughout the *Atlas* region in savanna, grassland and semi-desert, and is not of conservation con-

Pseudaspis cana (Linnaeus, 1758) MOLE SNAKE

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Visser (2010) noted that males of the brown phase from northern Namibia have much shorter and morphologically different hemipenes compared to specimens of the larger black phase in the Western and Northern Cape provinces. He therefore suggested that the northern subspecies *P. cana anchietae* may be valid.

Distribution: Common throughout most of South Africa and Swaziland, extending northwards into Namibia, Angola, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Zambia, Tanzania and Kenya (Broadley 1990b).

Habitat: Occupies a variety of habitats, including mountainous regions and even deserts (Broadley 1990b), but not found in forests. Particularly common in sandy, scrubcovered areas (Branch 1998) and in grasslands, where it spends most of its life underground in deserted animal burrows (Broadley 1990b).

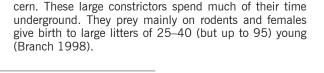
Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Fynbos; Succulent Karoo; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Nama-Karoo; Albany Thicket; Desert.

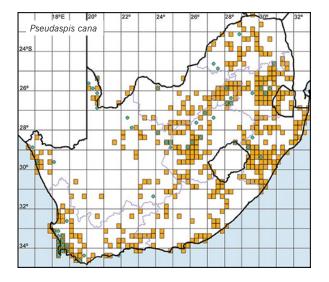
Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Pseudaspis cana—Rietvlei area, about 40 km NW of Nelspruit, MPM M. Burger







Pseudaspis cana—Kimberley, NC

D. Maguire



Pseudaspis cana, juvenile-Cape Town, WC

T. Phelps

CHAPTER 23

Family Elapidae

William R. Branch, Graham J. Alexander & Bryan Maritz

Together with the Lamprophiidae, elapids form the Elapoidea, a group of advanced snakes with a mainly Old World distribution. Most representatives are easily assigned to the Elapidae by virtue of their fixed and hollow front fangs and the lack of a loreal scale. The Atractaspidiinae are also characterised by the absence of a loreal, and harlequin snakes (Homoroselaps) have fixed front fangs. Homoroselaps, formerly included in the Elapidae, is now considered referable to the Atractaspidiinae. Molecular studies of elapids have also revealed that both the African water cobras (Boulengerina) and Burrowing Cobra (Paranaja) are nested within typical cobras (Naja), with which they are now merged (Branch 2005; Nagy et al. 2005; Wüster et al. 2007; Vidal et al. 2008a). Wallach et al. (2009) resurrected Boulengerina as a subgenus of Naja. With the exception of Naja, for which numerous new species have been described or await description (Broadley 1995b; Wüster & Broadley 2003, 2007; Broadley & Wüster 2004; Wüster et al. 2007), the taxonomy of the other African elapids is relatively stable.

A number of elapid subfamilies have been recognised, including the Elapinae (cobras and mambas), Hydrophiinae (sea snakes), Micrurinae (coral snakes), Acanthophiinae (Australian elapids) and Laticaudinae (sea kraits). However, none are universally recognised. Molecular evidence indicates that there are two subfamilies: the Elapinae of Africa, Asia and the New World, and the Hydrophiinae of Australasia and various marine habitats (Slowinski & Keogh 2000). This means that Australian terrestrial elapids are 'hydrophiines' even though they are not marine species. It is believed that both the oviparous sea kraits (*Laticauda*) and the 'true' viviparous sea snakes evolved separately from Australasian terrestrial hydrophiines (Slowinski & Keogh 2000).

Elapids are distributed throughout tropical and subtropical regions, including sub-Saharan Africa and Australasia. Globally, there are about 354 species in over 60 genera (Uetz 2012). In Africa there are only seven terrestrial genera (*Aspidelaps, Dendroaspis, Elapsoidea, Hemachatus, Naja, Pseudohaje, Walterinnesia*) and one marine genus (*Pelamis*), and approximately 30 species (Spawls & Branch 1995; Wallach *et al.* 2009). The *Atlas* region contains six genera and 13 species.

Although there are genera of small elapids (e.g. in Australia), these snakes are usually medium to large in size (reaching almost 6 m in the King Cobra, Ophiophagus hannah) and are often brightly banded, particularly the juveniles. They are mostly terrestrial but there are many burrowing forms (e.g. neotropical [Micrurus] coral snakes and African [Elapsoidea] garter snakes), while some are arboreal (e.g. Pseudohaje) and others are aquatic (particularly the sea snake and sea krait radiations, and the African Water Cobra Naja annulata). Some species have very generalised diets but many taxa have narrow prey preferences with correlated morphological specialisations, e.g. specialisations for feeding on other snakes, elongate burrowing lizards, reptile eggs, mammals, birds, frogs or fish. All African terrestrial elapids lay eggs (from 2-8 in Elapsoidea to over 25 in large forest cobras like Naja melanoleuca), with the exception of the Rinkhals (Hemachatus haemachatus) which is viviparous and produces litters of up to 60 young (Spawls & Branch 1995).

The family includes many of the world's most venomous snakes. In some areas these are common enough to cause high incidences of snakebites, e.g. cobras in parts of southeast Asia and West Africa, kraits in southeast Asia and taipans in New Guinea. Bigger species are 'confident' of their abilities and will stand their ground when they feel threatened. Many have characteristic defensive displays to warn potential predators. These displays include rearing the forebody and inflating the neck region, often in association with elongated neck ribs, to form a hood. Within the *Atlas* region the Mozambique Spitting Cobra (*N. mossambica*), Black Spitting Cobra (*N. nigricincta woodi*) and Rinkhals (*H. haemachatus*) have the ability to spit venom.

Most species are widespread and common in the *Atlas* region, but the Green Mamba (*Dendroaspis angusticeps*) is classified as Vulnerable. It occurs as an isolated population on the southeast African coast (KwaZulu-Natal and adjacent parts of the Eastern Cape and Mozambique) in an area where its forest habitat has been fragmented and destroyed to make way for housing and other developments.

SUBFAMILY ELAPINAE

Molecular evidence indicates that two subfamilies of Elapidae should be recognised: the Elapinae of Africa, Asia and the New World, and the Hydrophiinae of Australasia and various marine habitats (Slowinski & Keogh 2000). In the *Atlas* region there are five genera (*Aspidelaps*, *Dendroaspis*, *Elapsoidea*, *Hemachatus*, *Naja*) and 12 species (one with two subspecies) of elapines.

Genus Aspidelaps A. Smith, 1849—shield cobras

Shield cobras are mainly endemic to southern Africa, but the range of one species (*A. lubricus*) extends into southern Angola. The genus contains two species (each consisting of a number of subspecies), both of which occur in the *Atlas* region. Both *Aspidelaps lubricus* (western and southern parts of the *Atlas* region) and *A. scutatus* (northern parts) are terrestrial and often burrow

into sandy soil using their enlarged rostral shield. These snakes prey on small vertebrates, especially rodents, but also reptiles and frogs; females lay clutches of 3–11 eggs (Branch 1998; Broadley & Baldwin 2006). Neither species is considered to have potent venom but a few human deaths have been recorded. Both species are classified as Least Concern.

Aspidelaps lubricus lubricus (Laurenti, 1768) CORAL SHIELD COBRA; CORAL SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Broadley & Baldwin (2006) referred *A. lubricus infuscatus* to the synonomy of *A. lubricus cowlesi* (Namibia and southwestern Angola). However, relationships between the subspecies should also be investigated using molecular methods.

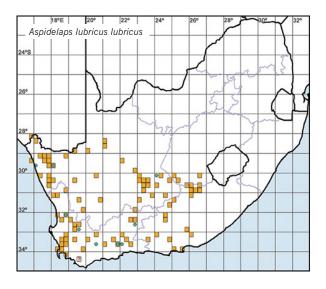
Distribution: Found from southwestern Namibia southwards through the western parts of South Africa (Broadley & Baldwin 2006). In the *Atlas* region it is widespread in the Northern and Western Cape provinces, the western half of the Eastern Cape, and the southern Free State. It reaches its southeastern limits in Port Elizabeth. Close to being classified as near-endemic.

Habitat: Found in rock outcrops, stony and dry sandy regions (Marais 2004) and arid plains in valleys (Branch 1998).

Biome: Fynbos; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo; Albany Thicket; Grassland; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Aspidelaps lubricus lubricus-near Springbok, NC

B. Wilson

Aspidelaps scutatus scutatus (A. Smith, 1849)

COMMON SHIELD COBRA; SHIELD-NOSE SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Three subspecies are recognised, namely *Aspidelaps scutatus scutatus*, *A. s. intermedius* and *A. s. fulafula*. According to Broadley & Baldwin (2006) the latter two subspecies may together represent a single evolutionary species (*A. s. fulafula* is the older name). A molecular analysis would help resolve the taxonomy.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found from central Namibia eastwards to Botswana, southern and western Zimbabwe, and the northern parts of South Africa (Boycott 1992a; Broadley & Baldwin 2006). In the Atlas region it occurs in the northeastern part of the Northern Cape, northern North-West Province, western half of Limpopo, northwestern Mpumalanga, and northern Gauteng. Records south of the currently delineated range have been rejected but may represent populations that were isolated in patches with suitable substrates (Broadley 1968c; Broadley & Baldwin 2006). Aspidelaps s. scutatus is widespread, but in South Africa it is replaced east of about 30° longitude—in the eastern parts of Mpumalanga and Limpopo-by A. s. intermedius. In southern Mozambique and southeastern Zimbabwe, it is replaced by A. s. fulafula (Broadley & Baldwin 2006).

Habitat: Semi-fossorial and nocturnal, found primarily in sandy areas (Marais 2004). In South Africa *A. s. scutatus* is found in stony and sandy areas at altitudes of 500–1 300 m; one specimen was observed at night emerging from loose sand and leaf litter at the base of a tree (Jacobsen 1989). May take refuge in rodent burrows by day (Broadley & Baldwin 2006).

Bioregion: Mopane; Central Bushveld; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Eastern Kalahari Bushveld; Dry Highveld Grassland (marginal).

Aspidelaps scutatus intermedius Broadley, 1968 INTERMEDIATE SHIELD COBRA; SHIELD-NOSE SNAKE

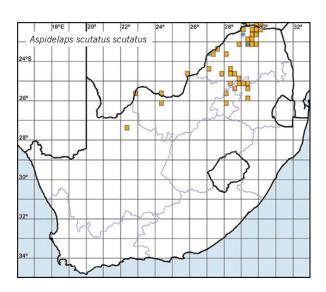
Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: According to Broadley & Baldwin (2006), *A. s. intermedius* and *A. s. fulafula* may together represent a single evolutionary species (*A. s. fulafula* is the older name). The distributions of the two subspecies in the *Atlas* region do not abut, indicating isolation. A molecular analysis would help resolve the taxonomy but, pending further work, the two subspecies are still recognised and the name *intermedius* is employed for populations in the *Atlas* region.

Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Found in Swaziland, eastern Limpopo and the northeastern parts of Mpumalanga. In southern Mozambique and southeastern Zimbabwe, it is replaced by *A. s. fulafula* (Broadley & Baldwin 2006).



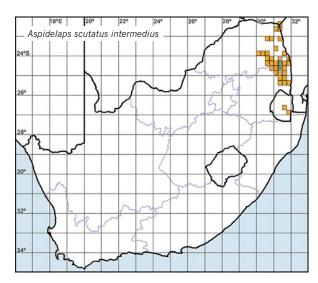


Aspidelaps scutatus scutatus—Marble Hall, MPM

J. Marais

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in parts of its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Habitat: Semi-fossorial and nocturnal, found primarily in sandy areas (Marais 2004) at altitudes of 90–1 400 m (Jacobsen 1989; Boycott 1992a). May take refuge in rodent burrows by day (Broadley & Baldwin 2006).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mopane.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in parts of its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Aspidelaps scutatus intermedius—Hoedspruit, LIMP

D. Maguire

Genus Dendroaspis Schlegel, 1848—mambas

There are four species in the genus *Dendroaspis*, which is distributed throughout most of tropical Africa (Branch 1998). Two species occur in the *Atlas* region. These large, agile, highly venomous, diurnal elapids have long, flatsided heads and elongate bodies with long tails. All except the terrestrial Black Mamba (*Dendroaspis polylepis*) are strictly arboreal. They actively pursue their prey of small mammals and birds (juvenile Green Mambas, *D. angusticeps*, also eat chameleons), striking rapidly and often repeatedly until the victim succumbs to the toxic venom. Female *D. polylepis* lay clutches of 12–17 eggs, whereas

Dendroaspis angusticeps (A. Smith, 1849)

EASTERN GREEN MAMBA; GREEN MAMBA

Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Vulnerable B2ab(ii,iii,iv,v)

Taxonomy: Populations from the southern part of the range (South Africa and southern Mozambique) differ genetically from Tanzanian specimens (Pook *et al.* 2005). Because *Dendroaspis angusticeps* was described from specimens collected in an area between KwaZulu-Natal and Maputo (Mozambique), northern populations may require a new name. D.G. Broadley (in litt.) is currently assembling meristic data (ventral and subcaudal counts) for *D. angusticeps* throughout its range to investigate whether the name *D. intermedius* Guenther, 1865 (described from the Zambezi River) can be applied to northern populations. Nevertheless, Broadley & Blaylock (2013) have already used the latter name for populations from central Mozambique northwards, while referring the South African population to *D. angusticeps*.

Distribution: Found from coastal Kenya southwards and westwards into Tanzania, Mozambique and South Africa (Spawls & Branch 1995). In the *Atlas* region it is restricted to low altitude forests along the KwaZulu-Natal coast-line, extending as far south as the extreme northeastern part of the Eastern Cape (Broadley 1990b; Alexander & Marais 2007). The South African population, together with one locality (2532DB) in southern Mozambique, is considered as an isolated unit for the purposes of this assessment.

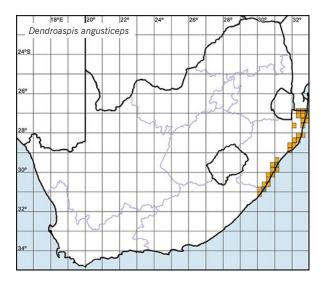
EOO: 40 000 km² (confidence: high); AOO: 1 044 km² (confidence: medium).

Habitat: Strictly arboreal and restricted to forests, occurring from sea level to 200 m (Bourquin 2004).

Vegetation type: FOz 7 Northern Coastal Forest; FOa 2 Swamp Forest.

Assessment rationale: Has an AOO of less than 2 000 km², distribution is severely fragmented [B2a] and habitat is undergoing reduction in area and quality [B2b(iii)]. Natural vegetation in this snake's habitat is highly threatened (Mucina & Rutherford 2006). The AOO [B2b(ii)] and number of subpopulations [B2b(iv)] is being reduced as fragments of forest are transformed. This is also likely to result in a reduction in the number of mature individuals [B2b(v)]. The only known locality in southern Mozambique (2532DB) is considered genetically connected to the South African population. Other localities in Mozam-

female *D. angusticeps* lay smaller clutches of up to 10 eggs (Branch 1998). These are probably the most feared of all African snakes, but only the Black Mamba regularly bites humans. Two species enter the subcontinent, including the *Atlas* region. *Dendroaspis angusticeps* is considered regionally Vulnerable because it has a restricted distribution—mainly along the coast of KwaZulu-Natal—and its habitat is under threat because of coastal developments. The other species, *D. polylepis*, is uncommon but widespread in savanna areas and not of conservation concern.





Dendroaspis angusticeps—Umkomaas, KZN

J. Marais

bique are far to the north and these populations are not considered to be contiguous with the Mozambique-South Africa population. It is therefore unlikely that there is significant gene flow between north and south. Consequently, it is not considered necessary to downgrade this regional classification. It should also be noted that the population in the *Atlas* region may represent a separate species from populations found further north (see Taxonomy above).

Threats: A strict habitat specialist that is restricted to Northern Coastal Forest and Swamp Forest, both of which are restricted in extent in South Africa, and both of which are under threat of transformation (Mucina & Rutherford 2006). The range is highly fragmented and is becoming more so through land transformation (e.g. coastal housing developments).

Dendroaspis polylepis Günther, 1864 BLACK MAMBA

Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Occurs from Senegal eastwards to Somalia, then south to the Eastern Cape in South Africa, and west to Namibia and Angola (Jacobsen 1989), but absent from the equatorial forests of West and Central Africa (Broadley 1990b). In the *Atlas* region it is mostly restricted to the northern and eastern parts, from the northern parts of North-West Province to Limpopo, the northern and eastern parts of Mpumalanga, Swaziland, KwaZulu-Natal and the northeastern parts of the Eastern Cape. Haacke (1984) reported a visual sighting at Union's End (2420CC) in the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park in the extreme northern part of the Northern Cape, and a Virtual Museum record (2722DC) extends the species' range further south in this province.

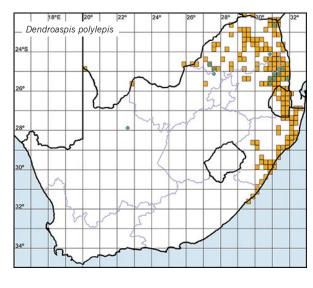
Habitat: Found in a wide variety of habitat types, especially rocky hillsides and outcrops (Jacobsen 1989). Takes shelter in rock crevices, old termitaria and hollow logs (Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Widespread but mostly uncommon, occurring at low densities (Jacobsen 1989).

Conservation measures: Educate the public to discourage persecution of this species. Details of local abundance are needed (Jacobsen 1989) to assess spatial requirements for the conservation of sustainable populations.

Conservation measures: Draft a BMP-S. Protect suitable habitat, and monitor and measure the population densities of subpopulations.





Dendroaspis polylepis-Schoemanskloof, MPM

M. Burger

Genus Elapsoidea Bocage, 1866—garter snakes

The genus Elapsoidea is widely distributed throughout sub-Saharan Africa and contains 10 species (Broadley 1971a, 1998; Uetz 2012). Four species occur in southern Africa and two of these occur in the eastern and central parts of the Atlas region. These are small to mediumsized burrowing elapids that have a small head, short tail, and 13 scale rows at midbody. Their dorsal surfaces are often brightly banded, especially in juvenile snakes. It is often difficult to distinguish between species and subspe-

Elapsoidea boulengeri Boettger, 1895 BOULENGER'S GARTER SNAKE; ZAMBEZI GARTER SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously treated as a subspecies of *E. semi*annulata (Broadley 1971a, 1990b), but later revived as a full species (Broadley 1998).

Distribution: Restricted to southeastern Africa, from Tanzania south to the northeastern parts of South Africa (Broadley 1971a). In the Atlas region it is restricted to the northern parts of KwaZulu-Natal, Swaziland, eastern Mpumalanga and Limpopo.

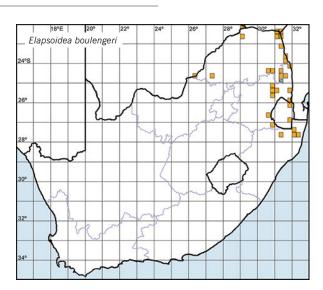
Habitat: Found in mesic habitats and may be associated with open flood plains (Broadley 1971a). Shelters under rocks and rotting logs (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Mopane; Central Bushveld; Alluvial Vegetation.

Assessment rationale: Widespread but apparently of naturally rare occurrence (Jacobsen 1989).

Conservation measures: None recommended.

cies because various scale counts are similar, and different juvenile and adult colour patterns add to the confusion. Garter snakes burrow in sandy or humic soils and appear on the surface at night. Most species prey on fossorial reptiles, although frogs and occasionally small mammals are also taken (Broadley 1990b). All species of Elapsoidea are oviparous: females in the Atlas region lay clutches of 4-10 eggs (Branch 1998). Neither species in the Atlas region is of conservation concern.





Elapsoidea boulengeri

G.J. Alexander



Elapsoidea boulengeri-Cleveland NR, Phalaborwa, LIMP

Elapsoidea sundevallii (A. Smith, 1848) SUNDEVALL'S GARTER SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The various subspecies of *Elapsoidea sundevallii* are often difficult to distinguish morphologically (Broadley 1971a) and there is therefore a need to investigate their status by means of a molecular analysis.

Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa, occurring mainly in the northern and eastern parts, from central Namibia in the west, through Botswana, the southern extremes of Zimbabwe, northern and eastern South Africa, Swaziland and southern Mozambique (Broadley 1971a; Branch 1998). Elapsoidea s. sundevallii is restricted to western Swaziland, southeastern Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal, possibly entering the northeastern parts of the Eastern Cape. Elapsoidea s. decosteri occurs in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, eastern Swaziland and the southern tip of Mozambique. Elapsoidea s. longicauda occurs in northern Limpopo and the southern parts of Zimbabwe and Mozambique. Elapsoidea s. media occurs in southern Limpopo, northern and western Mpumalanga, Gauteng, eastern North-West Province, Free State and eastern parts of the Northern Cape. SARCA surveys in the Prieska/Britstown region substantially extend its range to the south-



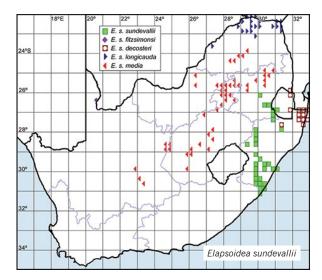
Elapsoidea sundevallii sundevallii, adult

J. Marais



Elapsoidea sundevallii sundevallii, subadult

J. Marais



west. *Elapsoidea s. fitzsimonsi* occurs in Namibia and Botswana and only just enters South Africa in the Mier Kalahari of the Northern Cape.

Habitat: Found in a wide variety of habitats but appears to favour alluvial and aeolian sands (Broadley 1971a). Refugia of *E. s. media* include old termitaria and the underside of rocks (De Waal 1978). Occurs from sea level to 1 800 m.

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread but rarely encountered throughout its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Elapsoidea sundevallii decosteri—Tongaland, KZN

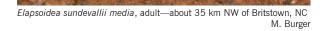
W.D. Haacke



Elapsoidea sundevallii longicauda, adult

J. Marais





Elapsoidea sundevallii media, subadult—about 20 km E of Kimberley, NC M. Burger



Elapsoidea sundevallii media, subadult—Kempton Park, GP W.R. Schmidt



Elapsoidea sundevallii fitzsimonsi-Waterberg Canal, Namibia W.D. Haacke

Genus Hemachatus Fleming, 1822—Rinkhals

The Rinkhals is a close relative of the true cobras (*Naja*), but it has keeled scales, lacks solid teeth on the maxilla, and is viviparous (usually 20-30 young in a litter but occasionally many more). The single species in the genus, Hemachatus haemachatus, is endemic to the moist eastern and southern parts of the Atlas region, with an isolated population on the eastern highlands

Hemachatus haemachatus (Bonnaterre, 1790) **RINKHALS**

Graham J. Alexander

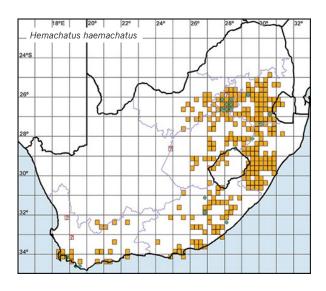
Global: Least Concern

Near-endemic

Taxonomy: This species displays regional variation in size and colouration, and there are isolated populations in the Cape escarpment region and the eastern highlands of Zimbabwe (Alexander 1996). Molecular data analysed for South African populations indicates limited phylogeographic structuring (A. Barlow & W. Wüster pers. comm.). Although there is no molecular data available for the relict population in the Nyanga District of Zimbabwe, snakes from this area appear to have lower ventral and subcaudal counts than those in South Africa, and meristic data from throughout the range of the species is currently being assembled to see whether this population is taxonomically distinct (D.G. Broadley, pers. comm.).

Distribution: A southern African endemic with a temperate distribution (Alexander & Marais 2007). It occurs from sea level in the Western Cape, through the Cape Fold Mountains into the Eastern Cape, northwards along the eastern escarpment, through KwaZulu-Natal and the Free State and Lesotho grasslands into Gauteng, eastern North-West Province, Mpumalanga and western Swaziland. The seemingly isolated records in the Sutherland and Beaufort West areas are of zoogeographical interest. Historical records plotted by Broadley (1990b) in the northwestern parts of the Western Cape have not been confirmed in recent years, and the same applies to the Kimberley

of Zimbabwe. It is mostly nocturnal or crepuscular and preys mainly on rodents and frogs, particularly toads. Although common in some places, many populations are declining due to road mortalities, increased incidence of fires, wanton killings and urbanisation (especially in Gauteng). However, the species is currently not of conservation concern



(2824DB) locality. A relict population occurs in the Invanga highlands of Zimbabwe (Broadley 1974).

Habitat: Normally restricted to open grassland, rocky outcrops and the margins of wetlands (Dawson et al. 1991). These snakes may be very common at some localities, even in peri-urban areas (Alexander 1996).

Bioregion: Mesic Highveld Grassland; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Dry Highveld Grassland; Central Bushveld; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Albany Thicket; Drakensberg Grassland; Southwest Fynbos; Eastern Fynbos-Renosterveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Hemachatus haemachatus-Port Elizabeth, EC





Hemachatus haemachatus-W of Johannesburg, GP

G.J. Alexander

Genus Naja Laurenti, 1768-cobras

The 28 recognised species of Naja are widely distributed in Africa and Asia (Uetz 2012). Upper Miocene fossils are known from France. Fifteen species occur in Africa (Wallach et al. 2009), but possible additional cryptic species exist within the forest cobra (N. melanoleuca) species complex, while N. melanoleuca subfulva Laurent 1955 may be re-instated as a full species (D.G. Broadley pers. comm.). Six species of Naja occur in southern Africa, with five entering the Atlas region. The genus Naja was divided into four subgenera, three of which are restricted to Africa and Arabia (Wallach et al. 2009). The subgenus Afronaja contains seven species (N. ashei, N. katiensis, N. mossambica, N. nigricollis, N. nigricincta, N. nubiae and N. pallida) from mainland Africa which all have modified fangs and can 'spit' venom for a distance of up to 3 m. Of these, only N. mossambica and N. nigricincta woodi

Naja annulifera Peters, 1854 SNOUTED COBRA

Bryan Maritz & Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

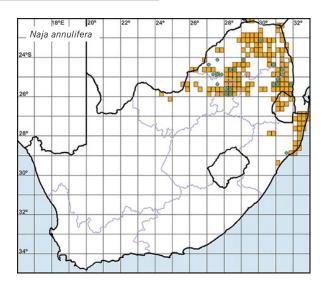
Taxonomy: Previously considered a subspecies of *Naja haje* but elevated to species status (as *N. annulifera annulifera*) by Broadley (1995b). Broadley & Wüster (2004) later showed that *N. annulifera anchietae* was a valid species, rendering *N. annulifera* monotypic.

Distribution: Known from southern Zambia and Malawi, extending southwards through Zimbabwe and central and southern Mozambique, and entering South Africa and Swaziland (Broadley 1990b). In the *Atlas* region it occurs in the northern half of North-West Province, Limpopo, Gauteng, Mpumulanga, Swaziland and northern and coastal KwaZulu-Natal.

Habitat: Inhabits savanna, entering coastal scrubland and forest, from near sea level to 1 400 m. Takes refuge in holes in the ground, old termite mounds and rocky outcrops, and basks in the sun near its retreat (Jacobsen 1989).

Bioregion: Central Bushveld; Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Mopane; Dry

occur in the Atlas region. Another subgenus, Uraeus, contains six species, including two (N. nivea and N. annulifera) from the Atlas region, while the subgenus Boulengerina contains four species, including the local species N. melanoleuca. Cobras are large, stocky, terrestrial snakes with smooth scales. They are alert, active foragers, pursuing and capturing a variety of small vertebrates (Branch 1998). When threatened they lift their forebody and spread a characteristic hood. Bites from spitters and non-spitters present different symptoms but all are potentially fatal to humans. All cobras are oviparous and in the Atlas region females produce clutches of 8-33 eggs (Branch 1998). Although N. melanoleuca was previously classified as Restricted and N. nigricincta woodi was considered Rare (Branch 1988a), none of the species in the Atlas region are currently of conservation concern.



Highveld Grassland; Alluvial Vegetation; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Eastern Kalahari Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and often abundant.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Naja annulifera-N Swaziland

J. Marais



Naja annulifera—Zeerust, NW

W.R. Schmidt

Naja melanoleuca Hallowell, 1857 FOREST COBRA

Bryan Maritz & Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Current research suggests that there is significant genetic structure in this species. It has been referred to as a 'species complex' by Broadley & Cotterill (2004) and may contain several cryptic species (D.G. Broadley *et al.* in prep.). Eastern populations, including those of the *Atlas* region, have sometimes been referred to as *N. m. sub-fulva* Laurent, 1955 (e.g. Broadley & Blaylock 2013), and Chirio & Ineich (2006) even recognized this as a separate species, *N. subfulva*. While *N. subfulva* now appears to represent a distinct species, it does not include populations on the east and southeast African lowlands, whose status is still under investigation (D.G. Broadley pers. comm.).

Distribution: Widespread throughout forests and forest/savanna mosaic in sub-Saharan Africa, from Senegal east to southern Sudan and Kenya, south to Angola, Zambia, eastern Zimbabwe, Mozambique and northeastern South Africa (Spawls & Branch 1995; Broadley & Blaylock 2013; D.G. Broadley pers. comm.). In the *Atlas* region it is found mainly in the coastal parts of KwaZulu-Natal, from Kosi Bay southwards to Durban, with a single record from Limpopo Province at Pafuri Camp in the Kruger National Park (Marais & Jubber 2010).

Habitat: Inhabits forests and moist savanna habitats. Often found in or near water and may climb into low bushes (Branch 1998).

Vegetation type: CB 1 Maputaland Coastal Belt; CB 2 Maputaland Wooded Grassland; SVI 16 Southern Lebombo Bushveld; SVI 23 Zululand Lowveld; SVI 24 Zululand Coastal Thornveld; AZf 6 Subtropical Freshwater Wetlands; CB 3 KwaZulu-Natal Coastal Belt; FOz 7 Northern Coastal Forest; SVI 18 Tembe Sandy Bushveld; SVs 6 Eastern Valley Bushveld; FOa 2 Swamp Forest; FOa 3 Mangrove Forest.

Assessment rationale: Although this large predator has a limited distribution in the *Atlas* region (previously classified as Restricted, Branch 1988a), it is abundant within

Naja mossambica Peters, 1854 MOZAMBIQUE SPITTING COBRA; M'FEZI

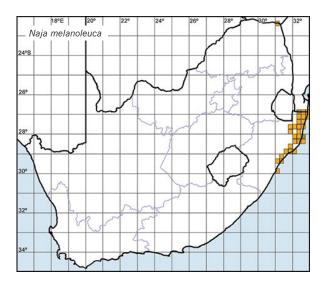
Bryan Maritz & Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Widespread in eastern and southern Africa. Occurs from southern Tanzania westwards to southern Angola and northern Namibia, and southwards to South Africa and Swaziland in the *Atlas* region (Broadley 1990b). In South Africa it is known from Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, and the northeastern part of North-West Province.

Habitat: Inhabits moist savanna and lowland forests. Shelters in holes in the ground, under rocks on rock or soil, and in rock crevices, at altitudes of 200–1 750 m (Jacobsen 1989). Occurs at lower altitudes on the Kwa-Zulu-Natal coast, even at sea level (Bourquin 2004).



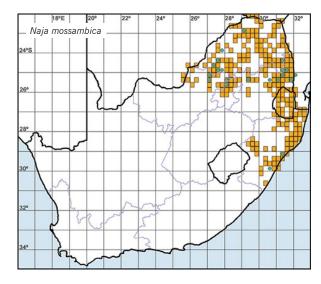


Naja melanoleuca-Gingindlovu, KZN

B. Maritz

parts of its range and has been found in transformed habitats (B. Maritz pers. obs.). Nevertheless, it is often unnecessarily persecuted and is threatened by habitat transformation throughout its range in the *Atlas* region.

Conservation measures: Educate the public about the role this species plays in the ecosystem. Habitat preservation is crucial to its well-being, therefore monitor the destruction of forests for coastal housing developments.



Bioregion: Lowveld; Central Bushveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Mesic Highveld Grassland; Mopane; Sub-Escarpment Savanna; Sub-Escarpment Grassland; Dry Highveld Grassland; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Alluvial Vegetation; Azonal Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and abundant. Conservation measures: None recommended.



Naja mossambica—Kwalata Game Ranch near Hammanskraal, GP B. Maritz

Naja nigricincta woodi Pringle, 1955 BLACK SPITTING COBRA

Bryan Maritz & Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Wüster *et al.* (2007) considered *Naja nigricollis woodi* to be a subspecies of *N. nigricinta*, although they cautioned that the taxonomy of the *N. nigricollis-nigricincta* complex still requires further study.

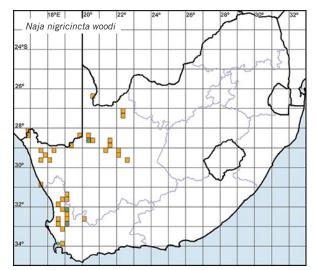
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Occurs from southern Namibia into the arid regions of western South Africa (Branch 1998). In the *At/as* region it is found in the Northern Cape and western half of the Western Cape. Its range extends as far east as Prieska and as far south as Paarl.

Habitat: Inhabits arid rocky regions throughout its range.

Bioregion: Northwest Fynbos; Bushmanland; Alluvial Vegetation; West Coast Renosterveld; Knersvlakte; Namaqualand Hardeveld; Rainshadow Valley Karoo; Richtersveld; Gariep Desert; Southern Namib Desert; Inland Saline Vegetation; Kalahari Duneveld; Eastern Kalahari Bushveld.

Assessment rationale: Previously classified as Restricted (Branch 1988a), but now know to be widespread with only minor habitat transformation within its range.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Naja nigricincta woodi-Fish River Canyon, Namibia

B. Maritz

Naja nivea (Linnaeus, 1758) CAPE COBRA

Bryan Maritz & Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

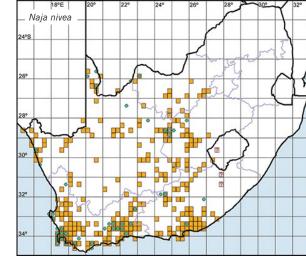
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Known from the southern half of Namibia, southern half of Botswana, and western, southern and central parts of South Africa (Broadley & Wüster 2004). In the *Atlas* region it is wide-spread in the Northern, Western and Eastern Cape provinces, western and southern Free State, and North-West Province. It may marginally enter southwestern Lesotho, but this requires confirmation. Its occurrence in the north-eastern part of the Eastern Cape also requires confirmation.

Habitat: Inhabits arid karoo, open fynbos and grassland habitats throughout its range (Branch 1998). Found in old mammal burrows and under rocks at altitudes as high as 1 600 m (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989). Within its range it is a habitat generalist which adapts well to urban environments if sufficient remnant natural habitat is available; it is often found within town and city limits (T. Phelps pers. comm.). In the Western Cape, adults establish permanent refugia (burrows) which are used for as long as four years (Phelps 2007).

Biome: Fynbos; Grassland; Nama-Karoo; Albany Thicket; Succulent Karoo; Savanna.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and abundant.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Naja nivea, adult male-De Hoop NR, WC

T. Phelps



Naja nivea, subadult—Farm Botterkraal, about 37 km SW of Strydenburg, NC M. Burger



Naja nivea, adult-Port Nolloth, NC

B. Maritz

SUBFAMILY HYDROPHIINAE

Almost from their first discovery sea snakes were placed in a separate family, the Hydrophiidae, although they shared with terrestrial elapids fixed front fangs. McDowell (1970) first showed that Australian and Melanesian terrestrial elapids and sea snakes shared a similar kinesis of the palatine bone. Subsequent molecular studies (e.g. Keogh 1998; Slowinski & Keogh 2000) confirmed the monophyly of this group and treated it as a subfamily (Hydrophiinae) of the Elapidae. Molecular studies have shown that the sea kraits (*Laticauda*), although not sharing the same palatine kinesis, group with hydrophiines. Nested within the terrestrial Australo-Melanesian hydrophiines is a monophyletic group containing the viviparous sea snakes (Hydrophiini), which excludes the amphibious sea kraits. Sanders *et al.* (2012), in a phylogeny of the Hydrophiini, noted that within a 'core *Hydrophis* group', *Hydrophis* was recovered as broadly paraphyletic, with several other genera nested within it (*Pelamis, Enhydrina, Astrotia, Thalassophina, Acalyptophis, Kerilia, Lapemis, Disteira*). Instead of erecting multiple new genera, they recommended dismantling the latter (mostly monotypic) genera and recognised a single genus, *Hydrophis* Latreille 1802. The only hydrophine representative in African and *Atlas* waters is the Yellow-bellied Sea Snake (*Hydrophis platurus*).

Genus Hydrophis Latreille, 1802—sea snakes

The genus *Hydrophis* contains 46 species (Uetz 2012), distributed mainly within the warm coastal waters of Australasia. Only a single species, the Yellow-bellied Sea Snake (*H. platurus*), enters the *Atlas* region. *Hydrophis platurus* is closely related to other sea snakes, with the exception of the sea kraits, and to Australian terrestrial elapids. It has the widest distribution of any snake in the world and is found throughout the tropical and sub-tropical waters of the Indo-Pacific, with occasional vagrants

being carried around the Cape of Good Hope into the southern Atlantic Ocean as far north as Swakopmund, Namibia (Griffin 2003). This highly venomous species is pelagic, drifting in warm ocean currents and feeding on small fish (Branch 1998), often in association with drift lines. Females give birth to 3–8 young from March to October (Branch 1998). This species is a vagrant in the *Atlas* region and is neither regionally nor globally (IUCN 2009) of conservation concern.

Hydrophis platurus (Linnaeus, 1766) YELLOW-BELLIED SEA SNAKE

Graham J. Alexander

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously know as *Pelamis platurus*. Sanders *et al.* (2012), in a phylogeny of the hydrophines, showed that *Pelamis* was nested within *Hydrophis*, necessitating the transfer of *P. platurus* to *Hydrophis*.

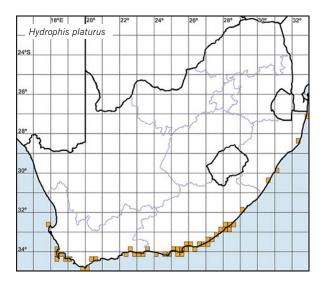
Distribution: Occurs throughout the Indian and Pacific oceans, from the east coast of Africa to the west coast of the Americas (Alexander & Marais 2007). In the *Atlas* region it occasionally washes up on the shores of KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern and Western Cape provinces.

Habitat: Found in the open ocean within 50 m of the surface; spends most of its time underwater (Branch 1998).

Biome: Marine oceanic-epipelagic (0–200 m).

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Hydrophis platurus-King's Beach, Port Elizabeth, EC

CHAPTER 24

Family Colubridae

Bryan Maritz, William R. Branch, Johan Marais & James Harvey

Historically, the family Colubridae represented a morphologically and ecologically diverse group of species with a near-global distribution. For many years these snakes were defined more by what they lacked, i.e. the front fangs of elapids and viperids, than by what they shared. Their relationships have remained intractable for nearly 100 years. Recent molecular studies on caenophidian ('advanced') snakes reveal deep divergences, with Asian families such as the Xenodermatidae, Pareatidae and Homalopsidae, along with the cosmopolitan Viperidae, forming basal clades (Vidal & Hedges 2009). The Elapoidea (families Lamprophiidae, Chapter 22; and Elapidae, Chapter 23) are sister to a clade of derived families that together form the Colubroidea (sensu stricto, see comments in Chapter 2). This includes the Dipsadidiae (New World), Pseudoxenodontidae (Asia), Colubridae and Natricidae (both cosmopolitan but mainly Palaearctic).

In the Atlas region, a restricted Colubridae (sensu Vidal et al. 2007, 2010; Zaher et al. 2009) now comprises only 14 species in the following eight genera: *Philothamnus, Meizodon, Dasypeltis, Telescopus, Dipsadoboa, Crotaphopeltis, Thelotornis* and *Dispholidus*. These taxa are ubiquitous in the region, although species richness is higher in the mesic eastern half of South Africa, corre-

sponding to overall reptile species richness patterns (Maritz 2007).

The various species in the region occur in a diverse array of habitats, from arid rocky areas, through arid and mesic savannas, to moist coastal forest (Branch 1998: Alexander & Marais 2007). Some species are semi-aquatic (Philothamnus hoplogaster) while others are strongly arboreal (Thelotornis, Dispholidus and most Philothamnus) (Branch 1998). They inhabit very wide altitudinal ranges, from sea level to over 2 500 m (e.g. Dasypeltis). All are oviparous, with both nocturnal and diurnal representatives (Alexander & Marais 2007). They generally prey on small vertebrates, which are actively hunted. In Africa, Dasypeltis is unique in that its members feed exclusively on bird eggs (Gans 1959; Bates & Little 2013). These are engulfed and broken, their contents swallowed and the shells regurgitated (Broadley 1990b). Most species have back fangs and relatively weak venom, except Dasypeltis, Philothamnus and Meizodon which are fangless and nonvenomous. Some species (e.g. Thelotornis and Dispholidus) possess potent, clinically-important venoms.

Although the range of some species is peripheral in the *Atlas* region, none are currently considered to be of conservation concern.

Genus Crotaphopeltis Fitzinger, 1843—herald snakes

The genus *Crotaphopeltis* contains six species, all confined to sub-Saharan Africa (Uetz 2012). A single species, *C. hotamboeia*, is widespread in the *Atlas* region, except in the drier western parts. These are terrestrial and nocturnal snakes that are generally found in moist

Crotaphopeltis hotamboeia (Laurenti, 1768) RED-LIPPED SNAKE: HERALD SNAKE

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: This species has a wide distribution in sub-Saharan Africa and a phylogeographic analysis is therefore desirable to investigate the possibility of cryptic species.

Distribution: Widespread in the eastern and southern parts of southern Africa, extending northwards to Tropical Africa (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it is found in the South African provinces of Western and Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Free State, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, North-West and Limpopo. It also occurs in Lesotho and Swaziland. The species has been recorded marginally in the southern and eastern parts of the Northern Cape, but is notably absent from most of the drier parts of the province.

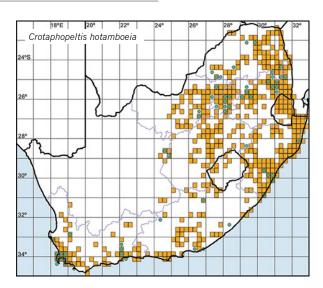
Habitat: Generally occupies damp areas in fynbos, lowland forest, moist savanna and grassland (Branch 1998). Commonly found sheltering under rocks and in old termitaria (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Fynbos; Albany Thicket; Forests; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.

habitats. They feed almost exclusively on frogs (Keogh *et al.* 2000). Females in the *Atlas* region lay clutches of 6–19 eggs in early summer (Branch 1998). *Crotaphopeltis hotamboeia* is not considered to be of conservation concern.





Crotaphopeltis hotamboeia—Reddersburg, FS

W.R. Branch

Genus Dasypeltis Wagler, 1830—egg-eaters

The taxonomy of *Dasypeltis* is unsettled, with 12 species currently recognised (Uetz 2012, plus *D. palmarum*). Five new taxa (*D. confusa*, *D. gansi*, *D. latericia*, *D. sahelensis* and *D. parascabra*) were described recently and two others (*D. abyssina* and *D. palmarum*) resurrected from synonymy with *D. scabra* (Trape & Mané 2006; Trape *et al.* 2012). Members of this genus are confined to Africa and the Arabian Peninsula (Gans 1959). The genus is widespread in the *Atlas* region, where there are at least three,

Dasypeltis inornata A. Smith, 1849 SOUTHERN BROWN EGG-EATER

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

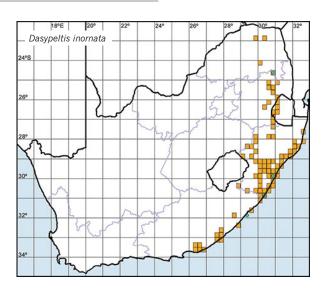
Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Found from the Alexandria area in the southern part of the Eastern Cape northwards through KwaZulu-Natal, western Swaziland, eastern Mpumalanga and up to northern Limpopo. The northernmost population is isolated in the Soutpansberg Range (Jacobsen 1989), but a SARCA survey record from the Wolkberg (2430AA) partly fills a large gap between this population and those further south in northern Mpumalanga.

Habitat: Prefers open coastal woodland and moist savanna, sheltering under rocks on rock or soil, from near sea level to over 1 600 m (Jacobsen 1989; Branch 1998).

Biome: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Savanna; Grassland; Forests; Albany Thicket.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common in the *Atlas* region as a whole, but considered Near Threatened in Swaziland (Monadjem *et al.* 2003).

Conservation measures: None recommended.



but possibly as many as six or more, species (Bates *et al.* 2011, 2012). These nocturnal snakes are found in a vari-

ety of habitats and feed exclusively on bird eggs. Clutches

of 6-28 eggs are laid (Alexander & Marais 2007). One

species (D. medici) is restricted to northeastern KwaZulu-

Natal and was previously listed as Peripheral in the *Atlas* region. Another species (*D. inornata*) is endemic to the *At*-

las region. None of the species in this genus are currently

considered to be of conservation concern.



Dasypeltis inornata—Pietermaritzburg, KZN

Dasypeltis medici medici (Bianconi, 1859)

EAST AFRICAN EGG-EATER

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The taxonomic status of *Dasypeltis medici lamuensis* (found from Somalia to Tanzania) is being investigated by D.G. Broadley & M.F. Bates (in prep.).

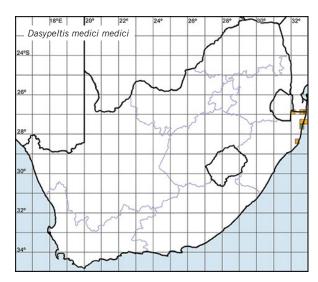
Distribution: Occurs from St Lucia Village in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal northwards into Mozambique, eastern Zimbabwe and elsewhere further north to Kenya (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Habitat: Found in lowland evergreen forest and moist savanna (Broadley 1990b; Marais 2004).

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests; Freshwater Wetlands; Lowveld.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range in the *At/as* region but is common elsewhere and is not threatened. Occurs in only one protected area in the *At/as* region, namely the iSimangaliso Wetland Park, but this reserve is large, well-managed and provides adequate protection.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Dasypeltis medici medici-St Lucia, KZN

B. Maritz

Dasypeltis scabra (Linnaeus, 1758) RHOMBIC EGG-EATER; COMMON EGG-EATER

Johan Marais

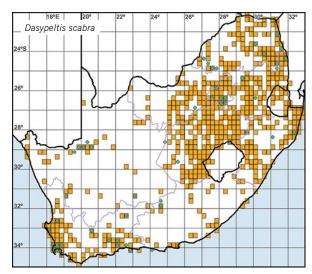
Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: The taxonomy of this species in southern Africa is being investigated, and the presence of cryptic taxa has been suggested (Bates *et al.* 2011, 2012).

Distribution: Widespread throughout most of the *Atlas* region, but with a patchy distribution in parts of the Eastern



Dasypeltis scabra—Gondwana GR, E of Herbertsdale, WC M.Burger



and Northern Cape provinces. Its range extends to South Sudan in the north and to at least Republic of the Congo in the west (Gans 1959; Branch 1998; Trape & Mané 2006; Trape *et al.* 2012).

Habitat: Occurs in a variety of habitats, but not in true deserts and closed-canopy forests. Often found in deserted termitaria, under rocks, in rock crevices, under the

bark of trees and in rotting logs (De Waal 1978; Jacobsen 1989; Marais 2004).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Fynbos; Nama-Karoo; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Succulent Karoo; Albany Thicket; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Dasypeltis scabra, plain phase—Suikerbosrand NR, GP B. Maritz

Genus Dipsadoboa Günther, 1858—cat-eyed tree snakes

The genus *Dipsadoboa* contains 10 species confined to sub-Saharan Africa (Branch 1998; Uetz 2012). These arboreal and nocturnal snakes occur in lowland forest and moist savanna. They feed primarily on geckos and arboreal frogs (Broadley 1990b). Females lay clutches of

Dipsadoboa aulica (Günther, 1864) MARBLED TREE SNAKE

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: Occurs from northeastern KwaZulu-Natal through eastern Swaziland and into the northeastern parts of Mpumalanga and eastern Limpopo, then into Mozambique and Zimbabwe. There are few records north of the Zambezi, with one unconfirmed record from Tanzania (Rasmussen 1989).

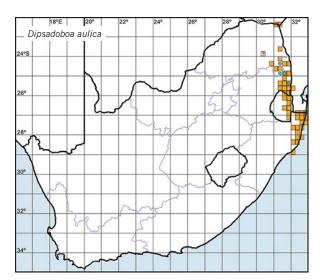
Habitat: Found in lowland riverine forests and moist savanna, from near sea level to at least 300 m (Jacobsen 1989; Marais 2004). Shelters by day in hollow logs, under bark and in thatched roofs; known to hunt frogs in reed beds (Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Has a moderate range within the *Atlas* region but is common and widespread elsewhere (Spawls *et al.* 2002; Marais 2004).

Conservation measures: None recommended.

7–9 eggs in summer (Alexander & Marais 2007). Only one species, *Dipsadoboa aulica*, occurs in the *Atlas* region, where it is restricted to the eastern parts of the country. It is not considered to be of conservation concern.





Dipsadoboa aulica—Malala Lodge, S of Hluhluwe, KZN

J. Harvey

Genus Dispholidus Duvernoy, 1832—Boomslang

The genus *Dispholidus* contains a single species (*D. ty-pus*) that is widespread across sub-Saharan Africa. Up to four subspecies (*D. t. typus, D. t. viridis, D. t. kivuen-sis, D. t. punctatus*) were recognised in the past (Laurent 1956), with only *D. t. typus* recorded from the *Atlas* region. All of these taxa appear to intergrade morphologically and only a monotypic *D. typus* is currently recognised (Broadley & Wallach 2002; Broadley & Cotterill 2004). However, preliminary genetic data indicate that multiple distinct lineages with unique histories may be present, some of which may best be treated as separate species

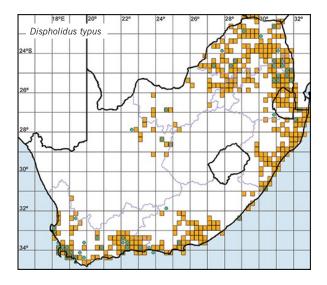
Dispholidus typus (A. Smith, 1828) BOOMSLANG

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Four subspecies (*D. t. typus*, *D. t. viridis*, *D. t. kivuensis*, *D. t. punctatus*) have been recognised in the past, but morphologically the latter three are weakly defined and considered invalid (Broadley & Cotterill 2004). However, molecular studies indicate significant differences between populations, some of which may represent new species; the genus is currently being revised (T.G. Eimermacher & D.G. Broadley in prep.). Broadley & Blaylock (2013) considered populations in (mainly) the Western and Eastern Cape provinces as being referable to *D. t. typus*, while populations elsewhere in the range (where males are usually mainly green dorsally) were treated as *D. t. viridis*.

Distribution: Endemic to sub-Saharan Africa and widespread in the southern, eastern and north-central parts of the *Atlas* region (Branch 1998). Found in the Western and Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Swaziland, Mpumalanga, Limpopo, northern Gauteng, North-West Province and the adjacent parts of the Northern Cape and western Free State. Also recorded at one locality (3119AC) in the southern part of the Northern Cape. The range extends further north into Kenya and westwards to Senegal (Spawls *et al.* 2002). Largely absent from much of the drier western parts of the *Atlas* region, and not found on the grassy plains of the central Highveld or in Lesotho. An old record (2926BC) from the Free State is not plotted on the map because it probably represents a translocation (Bates 1996a). Similarly, an isolated historical record (T.G. Eimermacher, D.G. Broadley, A. Barlow, Z. Nagy, E. Greenbaum & B.Y. Wilson in prep.). *Dispholidus typus* occurs in wooded habitats throughout the southern, eastern and north-central parts of the *Atlas* region. These are large arboreal snakes with variable colouration and potent haemotoxic venom. They feed primarily on arboreal lizards such as chameleons, but also take birds, their nestlings and eggs (Haagner 1990; Alexander & Marais 2007). Females lay 8–27 eggs in late spring to mid-summer (Marais 2004). This species is not of conservation concern.



from the Burgersdorp area (3026CC; Broadley 1990b) is omitted.

Habitat: Largely arboreal in a variety of habitats including Karoo scrub, arid savanna, moist savanna, lowland forest, grassland and fynbos (Marais 2004). Often found moving over open ground, but quickly takes refuge in trees and bushes (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Fynbos; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Albany Thicket; Forests; Nama-Karoo; Succulent Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Dispholidus typus, male (speckled phase)-Port Elizabeth, EC J. Marais



Dispholidus typus, hatchling—Hoedspruit, LIMP

Genus Meizodon Fischer, 1856—African smooth snakes

The genus *Meizodon* is confined mainly to sub-Saharan Africa (a record of *M. semiornatus* from Yemen is probably inaccurate, Branch *et al.* 2010) and consists of five species (Branch 1998; Uetz 2012). The only representative in the *Atlas* region is *M. semiornatus* semiornatus, which occurs in northeastern South Africa at the periphery of its large African range. These are small, secretive, diurnal

Meizodon semiornatus semiornatus (Peters, 1854) SEMIORNATE SNAKE

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: There are two recognised subspecies, namely *Meizodon semiornatus semiornatus* and *M. s. tchadensis*, the latter from Sudan and Chad (Branch 1998).

Distribution: Endemic to eastern and southeastern Africa. Its distribution extends from near Hluhluwe in northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, northwards into the eastern parts of Swaziland and Mpumalanga, with an isolated locality (2231CA) in northeastern Limpopo (SARCA Virtual Museum record; see also Swanepoel 2010). Elsewhere, it occurs from Mozambique and Zimbabwe northwards to Uganda and Kenya (Broadley 1990b).

Habitat: Found in wooded areas in arid and mesic savannas, as well as in marshy areas (Jacobsen 1987; Broadley 1990b).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

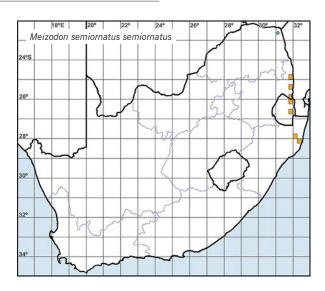
Assessment rationale: Although this secretive snake has quite a localised distribution in the Atlas region, it is fairly



Meizodon semiornatus semiornatus—Swaziland

W.D. Haacke

snakes that live in thick vegetation and rotting material in savannas. They feed on small frogs and lizards (Broadley 1988; Branch 1998). Females lay small clutches of 2–3 large eggs in spring (Broadley *et al.* 2003). Although previously listed as Peripheral with a localised range in the *Atlas* region, *M. s. semiornatus* is no longer considered to be of conservation concern.



widespread elsewhere. In Swaziland it is considered Near Threatened (Monadjem *et al.* 2003) but in the *Atlas* region it is assessed as Least Concern.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Meizodon semiornatus semiornatus, dark phase—Hluhluwe, KZN J. Marais

Genus *Philothamnus* Smith, 1840—green snakes

The genus *Philothamnus* currently contains 19 species (Uetz 2012) restricted to sub-Saharan Africa. However, several taxonomic issues remain unresolved (e.g. Spawls *et al.* 2002). Four species occur in the *Atlas* region. *Philothamnus hoplogaster* and the two subspecies of *P. natalensis* are similar in appearance and behaviour and may be confused with one another. These diurnal and arboreal snakes are found in thick vegetation in forests and

Philothamnus angolensis Bocage, 1882 ANGOLA GREEN SNAKE

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

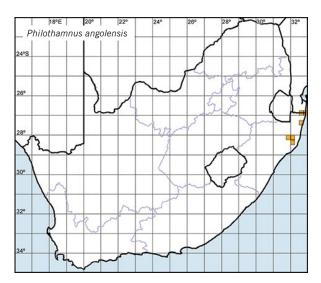
Distribution: Found from northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, northwards into Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, and Namibia, and elsewhere further north to Tanzania (Broadley 1990b). Within the *Atlas* region it has a patchy distribution, with populations in Hhluhluwe Game Reserve, the Sibaya area, and Mangusi Forest near Kosi Bay.

Habitat: Found in forests, wooded grassland and the margins of arid savanna, where it climbs into reed beds, bushes and trees (Marais 2004).

Bioregion: Lowveld; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt.

Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range within the *Atlas* region but is widespread and abundant elsewhere. This snake is highly mobile and faces no significant threats.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



moist savanna, often near water. They are active hunters,

feeding on lizards, frogs, fish, and nestling birds (Broad-

ley 1990b). All green snakes are oviparous and produce clutches of 3–16 eggs (Alexander & Marais 2007). *Phi*-

Iothamnus angolensis was previously listed as Peripheral

(Branch 1988a) and has a restricted distribution in the

Atlas region, but no members of the genus are currently

considered to be of conservation concern.



Philothamnus angolensis-Malawi

Philothamnus hoplogaster (Günther, 1863) SOUTHEASTERN GREEN SNAKE; GREEN WATER SNAKE

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

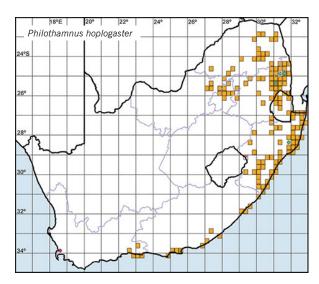
Distribution: Widespread in sub-Saharan Africa. Found in South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique, Zimbabwe and north to Kenya, Sudan and Cameroon (Broadley 1990b; Spawls *et al.* 2002). Occurs in the eastern part of the *Atlas* region, in Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, eastern North-West Province and KwaZulu-Natal, extending southwards down the Eastern Cape coast to the eastern parts of the Western Cape. It apparently occurs as scattered subpopulations in the Eastern and Western Cape provinces. Two Virtual Museum records from the Cape Peninsula are well separated to the west of the main distribution and may represent introductions.

Habitat: Found in a variety of habitats, but common in moist savanna, wooded grassland and lowland forest, usually near water; it is an excellent swimmer (Branch 1998). It is also a good climber, at home in trees and shrubs (Marais 2004).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland; Forests; Albany Thicket; Fynbos.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Philothamnus hoplogaster—Oyster Bay, EC

W.R. Branch

Philothamnus natalensis natalensis (A. Smith, 1848) EASTERN NATAL GREEN SNAKE

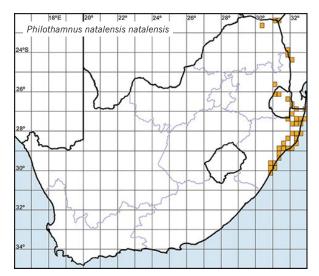
Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Alexander (1987) suggested that *Philotham*nus natalensis occidentalis should be elevated to full species status on the basis of certain morphological and behavioural differences when compared with *P. n. na*talensis.



Philothamnus natalensis natalensis—Umhlanga Rocks, KZN J. Marais



Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. Found from Amanzimtoti in southern KwaZulu-Natal northwards into Swaziland, the eastern parts of Mpumalanga and Limpopo, southern Mozambique and eastern Zimbabwe (Broadley 1990b).

Habitat: Inhabits mainly lowland forest and moist savanna, often along forested river valleys, and is an excellent climber (Marais 2004). **Biome:** Forests; Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt. **Assessment rationale:** Widespread and common. **Conservation measures:** None recommended.

Philothamnus natalensis occidentalis Broadley, 1966 WESTERN NATAL GREEN SNAKE

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Endemic

Taxonomy: Alexander (1987) suggested that this subspecies should be elevated to full species status on the basis of morphological and behavioural differences.

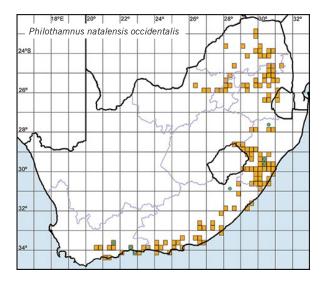
Distribution: Endemic to the *Atlas* region. Occurs from the eastern parts of the Western Cape (east of Montagu) to the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, northeastern Free State, western Swaziland, Mpumalanga, Limpopo, northern Gauteng, and the adjacent northeastern North-West Province.

Habitat: Occurs in lowland forest, wooded grassland and forest edge (Bourquin 2004; Marais 2004). Often found in trees and shrubs near water, at altitudes as high as 2000 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Grassland; Savanna; Albany Thicket; Fynbos; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Philothamnus natalensis occidentalis-Mariepskop, LIMP D. Pietersen

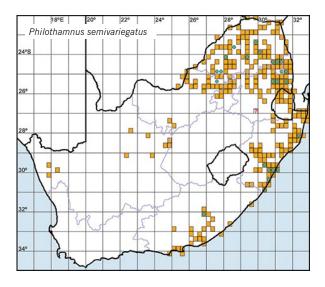
Philothamnus semivariegatus (A. Smith, 1847) SPOTTED BUSH SNAKE

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Although trinomials were used for the species by some recent authors (e.g. Broadley 1990b), Hughes (1985) had shown earlier that *P. s. dorsalis* from Central Africa is a valid species.

Distribution: Endemic to sub-Saharan Africa, from Senegal to South Africa, but absent in Gabon and peripheral to the Congo basin of Democratic Republic of the Congo (Hughes 1985). Widespread in the eastern half of southern Africa, from Humansdorp in the Eastern Cape to Kwa-Zulu-Natal, Mpumalanga, Swaziland, Gauteng, Limpopo, North-West Province and the Northern Cape as far west as Springbok and Kamieskroon in Namaqualand. It also oc-



COLUBRIDAE

curs in Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and further north to Sudan and Guinea (Branch 1998). There are scattered populations in the Northern Cape, some of which may represent natural range expansions by snakes washing down rivers (e.g. Vaal and Orange Rivers) during floods, or using riverine vegetation as corridors.

Habitat: Inhabits moist savanna, lowland forest and riverbanks, as well as shrubby vegetation and rocky regions in the Karoo. It is an excellent climber and forages in shrubs and bushes (Branch 1998; Marais 2004). Occupies crevices in rock outcrops, holes in trees, and large old termitaria, and is also found under tree bark, at altitudes as high as 2 000 m (Jacobsen 1989).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland; Albany Thicket; Fynbos; Forests; Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Philothamnus semivariegatus-Durban, KZN

Genus Telescopus Wagler, 1830—tiger snakes

Telescopus contains 13 species (Uetz 2012), eight of which occur in Africa. The other five species are found in southern Europe and southwestern Asia. An additional species from Namibia has been identified but has not yet been described (W.D. Haacke pers comm.; Alexander & Marais 2007). These are slender, nocturnal

snakes found in savanna, forest and semi-desert. Their diet includes a variety of lizards, fledgling birds and small mammals (Broadley 1990b). Females lay clutches of 3–20 eggs (Alexander & Marais 2007). There are two species in the *Atlas* region, neither of which is of conservation concern.

Telescopus beetzii (Barbour, 1922) BEETZ'S TIGER SNAKE

Johan Marais

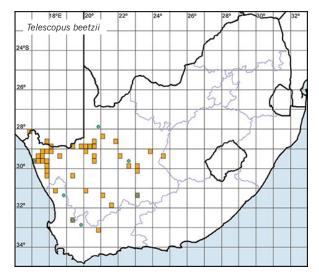
Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: A revision of *Telescopus* in southwestern Africa is in progress (W.D. Haacke in prep.).

Distribution: Endemic to southwestern Africa. Occurs from near Windhoek in Namibia southwards to the Western Cape of South Africa (Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it is found from Namaqualand (Northern Cape) to the western Free State, and southwards into the central Karoo as far as Ceres district (3219DD, Virtual Museum record) and Laingsburg (3320BB) in the Western Cape. The northernmost limit (2720DD) in the *Atlas* region is represented by a Virtual Museum record.

Habitat: Found in arid regions in the Karoo where it lives in rocky outcrops, sheltering in crevices (Branch 1998). It has also been collected from old termite mounds in the Free State (De Waal 1978).

Biome: Succulent Karoo; Nama-Karoo.



Assessment rationale: Widespread and common. Conservation measures: None recommended.



Telescopus beetzii-about 22 km SW of Prieska, NC

M. Burger



Telescopus beetzii—Aus, Namibia

W.R. Branch

Telescopus semiannulatus semiannulatus A. Smith, 1849 EASTERN TIGER SNAKE

LASTERN HIGER SNA

Johan Marais

Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: There are currently two recognised subspecies, namely *T. s. semiannulatus* and *T. s. polystictus*. At least one additional Namibian species, apparently closely allied to *T. semiannulatus*, has been identified but has not yet been described (W.D. Haacke pers. comm.).

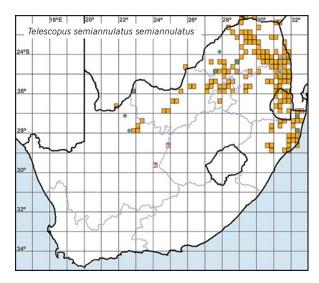
Distribution: Endemic to the southern half of Africa. Occurs in South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and northwards to Democratic Republic of the Congo and Kenya (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998). In the *Atlas* region it is found in northern Kwa-Zulu-Natal, Swaziland, Mpumalanga, Limpopo, Gauteng, North-West Province and the northeastern parts of Northern Cape. The southwestern range limits are represented by two Virtual Museum records. Old records (Broadley 1990b) near the western border of the Free State are considered to be dubious.

Habitat: Found in arid and moist savanna and lowland forest, where it shelters under bark, loose flakes of rock and in rock crevices (Marais 2004). It is also known to climb trees (Broadley 1990b).

Biome: Savanna; Grassland; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Telescopus semiannulatus semiannulatus—Skukuza, Kruger NP, MPM B. Maritz

Telescopus semiannulatus polystictus Mertens, 1954 DAMARA TIGER SNAKE

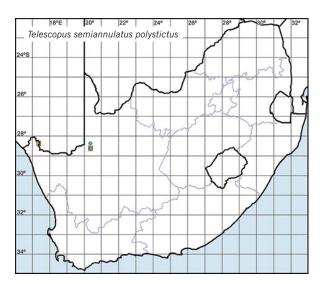
Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: There are currently two recognised subspecies, namely *T. s. semiannulatus* and *T. s. polystictus*. At least one additional Namibian species, apparently closely allied to *T. semiannulatus*, has yet to be described (W.D. Haacke pers. comm.).

Distribution: Endemic to southwestern Africa. Found in the Northern Cape, South Africa, in the Richtersveld and Augrabies National Park, northwards through the central parts of Namibia almost as far as Ovamboland (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Habitat: Occurs in rocky, high-lying regions (Branch 1998). In Namibia it is found in mopane savanna, dwarf shrub savanna, highland savanna, thornbush savanna and marginally in semi-desert and mixed tree and shrub savanna (A.M. Bauer pers. comm.).



Biome: Desert; Nama-Karoo.

Assessment rationale: Only the southern edge of its range falls within the *Atlas* region. There are few threats in this area where it is protected in the Richtersveld and Augrabies National Parks. It has a widespread distribution in Namibia to the north. It is considered to be both globally and regionally of Least Concern.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Telescopus semiannulatus polystictus—Angola

W.R. Branch

Genus Thelotornis A. Smith, 1849-twig snakes

The genus *Thelotornis* is widespread across sub-Saharan Africa and contains four species (Uetz 2012). *Thelotornis usambaricus* from the Usambara Mountains of Tanzania and Vamizi Island, northern Mozambique is the most recently described species (Broadley 2001c; Broadley & Farooq 2013). One representative of the genus, *T. capensis*

capensis, occurs within the *Atlas* region where it is found in the eastern savannas. These slender, arboreal, cryptically-patterned snakes feed primarily on lizards—especially arboreal species—and frogs (Shine *et al.* 1996). Females of *T. c. capensis* lay clutches of 4–18 eggs in summer (Branch 1998). This subspecies is not of conservation concern.

Thelotornis capensis capensis A. Smith, 1849 SOUTHERN TWIG SNAKE; SOUTH-EASTERN SAVANNA VINE SNAKE

Johan Marais

Global: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Two subspecies are recognised, namely *Thelotornis capensis capensis* and *T. c. oatesii* (Zimbabwe, central Mozambique, northern Botswana, northern Namibia).

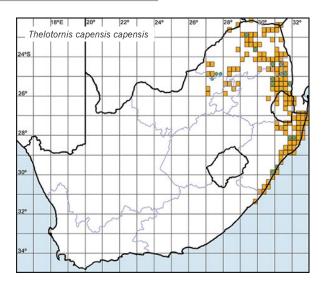
Distribution: Endemic to southern Africa. In the *At/as* region it occurs along the east coast and in the northern parts of KwaZulu-Natal, northwards through Swaziland, northern and eastern Mpumalanga, Limpopo, northern Gauteng and northeastern North-West Province. The southernmost record is at Mkhambathi Nature Reserve in the Eastern Cape. Extralimitally it is found in southern Mozambique, southern Zimbabwe and southeastern Botswana (Broadley 2001c).

Habitat: Inhabits trees and shrubs in coastal thicket, forest fringes and savanna (Broadley 1990b; Branch 1998).

Biome: Savanna; Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Grassland; Forests.

Assessment rationale: Widespread and common.

Conservation measures: None recommended.





Thelotornis capensis capensis—Hoedspruit, LIMP

CHAPTER 25

Family Natricidae

William R. Branch, Johan Marais & James Harvey

The Natricidae, commonly called Old World Water Snakes, have often been treated as a separate subfamily within the historically large family Colubridae (see Chapter 24). Molecular studies on caenophidian ('advanced') snakes indicate that they group with a clade of derived families that together form the Colubroidea (Vidal & Hedges 2009). The latter group comprises the Dipsadidiae (New World), Pseudoxenodontidae (Asia), Natricidae and Colubridae (both cosmopolitan but mainly Palaearctic). Natricids are found in North and Central America, Africa, Eurasia and northern Australia, where they are often some of the commonest and most conspicuous snakes. Approximately 40 genera and nearly 200 species are recognised (Uetz 2012), but the African radiation is the most poorly known.

The Natricidae comprises small to medium-sized, aquatic to semi-aquatic snakes. They are mostly harmless although a number of Asian species have potent, even fatal, venoms (Sawai *et al.* 2002). The hemipenis is characterised by a centripetal sulcus (Branch 1986).

The family is poorly represented in sub-Saharan Africa, with four genera (*Afronatrix, Hydraethiops, Limnophis, Natriciteres*) containing only 11 species (Branch 1998; Zaher *et al.* 2009). There are six species of the semi-aquatic, mainly frog-eating, oviparous genus *Natriciteres*, but only two species occur within the *Atlas* region. The ranges of both species extend peripherally into eastern mesic habitats. Both species have wide distributions to the north of the *Atlas* region, and a modern taxonomic revision of the genus is required.

Natriciteres sylvatica was previously classified as Peripheral but is no longer considered of regional conservation concern. *Natriciteres olivacea* has a marginal distribution in the *Atlas* area and was therefore not assessed.



Genus Natriciteres Loveridge, 1953-marsh snakes

The genus *Natriciteres* is restricted to sub-Saharan Africa and contains six species. Until recently, three of these (*N. bipostocularis*, *N. pembana* and *N. sylvatica*) were considered to be subspecies of *N. variegata* (Spawls *et al.* 2002; Broadley & Cotterill 2004). These small diurnal snakes inhabit wetland areas in forests and savannas. They feed on frogs and fish (Broadley 1990b) and 3–11 eggs are laid in summer (Marais 2004). These snakes

Natriciteres olivacea (Peters, 1854) OLIVE MARSH SNAKE

Johan Marais

Not Applicable

Taxonomy: No notable issues.

Distribution: In the *At/as* region this species is known from only a single specimen collected in 2005 in the Kosi Bay region of northeastern KwaZulu-Natal. Its range extends through southern Mozambique to Zimbabwe and northern Botswana, and elsewhere further north to Sudan and West Africa (Branch 1998).

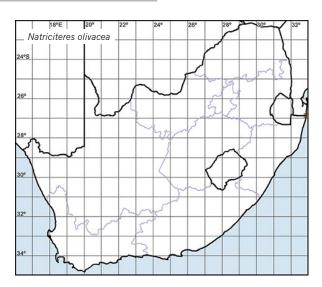
Habitat: Inhabits pans and vleis in coastal forest and savanna (Branch 1998).

Vegetation type: FOz 7 Northern Coastal Forest.

Assessment rationale: The range just enters the *Atlas* region at Kosi Bay, but the species is widespread further north. The single known specimen from KwaZulu-Natal was found within the iSimangaliso Wetland Park where no known threats exist.

Conservation measures: Conduct research into population numbers, habitat status, range, biology and ecology.

have the ability to shed their tails as a defense mechanism (Broadley 1987b). Two species enter the eastern edge of South Africa and both have restricted ranges in the *At/as* region. *Natriciteres sylvatica* was previously classified as Peripheral but is no longer considered of regional conservation concern. In the *At/as* region *N. olivacea* is known from only a single specimen from Kosi Bay and it is therefore not assessed.





Natriciteres olivacea-Malawi

W.D. Haacke

Natriciteres sylvatica Broadley, 1966 FOREST MARSH SNAKE;

SOUTHERN FOREST MARSH SNAKE

Johan Marais

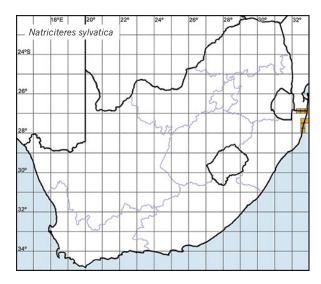
Regional: Least Concern

Taxonomy: Previously considered a subspecies of *Natriciteres variegata*, but treated as a full species by Spawls *et al.* (2002) and Broadley *et al.* (2003).

Distribution: Occurs from northeastern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa northwards into Mozambique and further north to Tanzania (Broadley 1990b).

Habitat: Found in lowland and montane evergreen forests where it shelters under cover at forest fringes, and hunts in pools (Branch 1998).

Bioregion: Indian Ocean Coastal Belt; Lowveld; Zonal and Intrazonal Forests.



Assessment rationale: Has a restricted range in South Africa but is not threatened and occurs largely within the iSimangaliso Wetland Park.

Conservation measures: None recommended.



Natriciteres sylvatica—N Mozambique

REFERENCE LIST

- ABREU-GROBOIS, A. & PLOTKIN, P. 2008. Lepidochelys olivacea. In IUCN 2010, IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2010.1. www.iucnredlist.org.
- ADALSTEINSSON, S.A., BRANCH, W.R., TRAPE, S., VITT, L.J. & HEDGES, S.B. 2009. Molecular phylogeny, classification, and biogeography of snakes of the family Leptotyphlopidae (Squamata, Scolecophidia). *Zootaxa* 2244: 1–50.
- ADOLPHS, K. 2006. Bibliotheca Cordyliformium. Neues Quellenverzeichnis der Gürtelschweife und Schildeschen (Reptilia, Cordylidae & Gerrhosauridae). Squamata Verlag, Sankt Augustin.
- AGAPOW, P.M. 2005. Species: demarcation and diversity. In A. Purvis, J.L. Gittleman & T. Brooks (eds), *Phylogeny and Conservation. Conservation Biology* 8: 57–75. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- ALEXANDER, G.J. 1987. The Herpetofauna of Municipal Durban: A Biogeographical Review. M.Sc. thesis, University of Natal, Durban.
- ALEXANDER, G.J. 1990. Reptiles and amphibians of Durban. Durban Museum Novitates 15: 1–41.
- ALEXANDER, G.J. 1996. *Thermal Physiology of* Hemachatus haemachatus *and its Implications to Range Limitation*. Ph.D. thesis, University of Natal, Durban.
- ALEXANDER, G.J. 2007. Thermal biology of the Southern African Python (*Python natalensis*): Does temperature limit its distribution? In R.W. Henderson & R. Powell (eds), *Biology of the Boas and Pythons*: 50–75. Eagle Mountain Publishing, Eagle Mountain.
- ALEXANDER, G.J. & MARAIS, J. 2007. A Guide to Reptiles of Southern Africa. Struik, Cape Town.
- ALEXANDER, G.J., HORNE, D. & HANRAHAN, S.A. 2002. An evaluation of the effects of deltamethrin on two non-target lizard species in the Karoo, South Africa. *Journal of Arid Envi*ronments 50(1): 121–133.
- ALLENTOFT, M.E. & O'BRIEN, J. 2010. Global amphibian declines, loss of genetic diversity and fitness: a review. *Diversity* 2(1): 47–71.
- AMBROSE, D. 2006. Lesotho Annotated Bibliography Section 166: Reptiles Including Annotated Checklist. Mamhlongo Productions, Roma.
- AMER, S.A.M. & KUMAZAWA, Y. 2005. Mitochondrial genome of *Pogona vitticepes* (Reptilia; Agamidae): control region duplication and the origin of Australasian agamids. *Gene* 346: 249–256.
- ANDREWS, K.M. & GIBBONS, J.W. 2005. How do highways influence snake movement? Behavioral responses to roads and vehicles. *Copeia* 2005: 772–782.
- ANONYMOUS. 2001. Memorandum of understanding on the conservation and management of marine turtles and their habitats of the Indian Ocean and South-East Asia. *Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals.* Manila.
- ANONYMOUS. 2007. Rehabilitation of mined Bontveld. *Algoa Branch of the Botanical Society of South Africa, Newsletter, 3rd Quarter:* 2–3. www.botanicalsociety.org.za/branches/Alg.
- ARBUCKLE, K. 2009. Ecological function of venom in Varanus, with a compilation of dietary records from the literature. Biawak 3(2): 46–56.
- ARENA, P.C., STEEDMAN, C. & WARWICK, C. 2012. Amphibian and Reptile Pet Markets in the EU: an Investigation and Assessment. Private report commissioned and circulated by the Animal Protection Agency (UK) and others, 52 pp. (available at www.apa.org.uk).
- ARMSTRONG, A.J. 2008. Translocation of black-headed dwarf chameleons *Bradypodion melanocephalum* in Durban, Kwa-Zulu-Natal, South Africa. *African Journal of Herpetology* 57: 29–41.
- ARMSTRONG, A.J. 2009. Distribution and conservation of the coastal population of the black-headed dwarf chameleon *Bradypodion melanocephalum* in KwaZulu-Natal. *African Journal of Herpetology* 58: 85–97.

- ARMSTRONG, A.J. 2011. Status of the Sungazer Smaug giganteus in KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa. African Herp News 54: 1–4.
- ARMSTRONG, A.J., BENN, G., BOWLAND, A.E., GOODMAN, P.S., JOHNSON, D.N., MADDOCK, A.H. & SCOTT-SHAW, C.R. 1998. Plantation forestry in South Africa and its impact on biodiversity. South African Forestry Journal 182: 59–65.
- ARNOLD, E.N. 1989. Towards a phylogeny and biogeography of the Lacertidae: relationships within an Old-World family of lizards derived from morphology. *Bulletin of the British Museum* of Natural History (Zoology) 55: 209–257.
- ARNOLD, E.N., ARRIBAS, O. & CARRANZA, S. 2007. Systematics of the Palaearctic and Oriental lizard tribe Lacertini (Squamata: Lacertidae: Lacertinae), with descriptions of eight new genera. *Zootaxa* 1430: 1–86.
- AUERBACH, R.D. 1987. The Amphibians and Reptiles of Botswana. Mokwepa Consultants, Gaborone.
- AUFFENBERG, W. 1981. *The Behavioral Ecology of the Komodo Monitor.* University Presses of Florida, Gainesville.
- AULIYA, M. 2003. Hot Trade in Cool Creatures: a Review of the Live Reptile Trade in the European Union in the 1990's with a Focus on Germany. TRAFFIC Europe, Brussels.
- AUST, P., BOYLE, B., FERGUSSON, R. & COULSON, T. 2009. The impact of Nile crocodiles on rural livelihoods in northeastern Namibia. South African Journal of Wildlife Research 39(1): 57–69.
- AUSTIN, J.J. & ARNOLD, E.N. 2006. Using ancient and recent DNA to explore relationships of extinct and endangered *Leiolopisma* skinks (Reptilia: Scincidae) in the Mascarene islands. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 39: 503–511.
- AUSTIN, J.J., ARNOLD, E.N. & JONES, C.G. 2004. Reconstructing an island radiation using ancient and recent DNA: the extinct and living day geckos (*Phelsuma*) of the Mascarene islands. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 31: 109–122.
- AVERY, G., KANDEL, A.W., KLEIN, R.G., CONARD, N.J. & CRUZ-URIBE, K. 2004. Tortoises as food and taphonomic elements in palaeo "landscapes". In de J.-P. Brugal & J. Desse (eds), Petits Animaux et Sociétés Humaines: Du complement Alimentaire aux Resources Utilitaires: 147–161. Association Pour la Promotion et la Diffusion des Connaissances Archéologiques (APDCA), Antibes.
- BAARD, E.H.W. 1988a. Scelotes gronovii: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 154–155. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- BAARD, E.H.W. 1988b. Scelotes kasneri: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 152–153. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- BAARD, E.H.W. 1991. A review of the taxonomic history of and some literature on the geometric tortoise, *Psammobates geometricus* (Linnaeus, 1758). *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 39: 8–12.
- BAARD, E.H.W. 1993a. Distribution and status of the geometric tortoise *Psammobates geometricus* in South Africa. *Biological Conservation* 63: 235–239.
- BAARD, E.H.W. 1993b. A conservation strategy for the geometric tortoise, *Psammobates geometricus* in the southwestern Cape Province, South Africa. *Internal Report* 11: 1–64. Chief Directorate Nature and Environmental Conservation (C.P.A.), Cape Town.
- BAARD, E.H.W. 1995. A preliminary analysis of the habitat of the geometric tortoise, *Psammobates geometricus*. South African Journal of Wildlife Research 25(1): 8–13.
- BAARD, E.H.W. 1997. A conservation strategy for the geometric tortoise, *Psammobates geometricus*. In J. Van Abbema (ed.), *Proceedings: Conservation, Restoration and Management of Turtles and Tortoises—An International Conference*: 324– 329. New York Turtle and Tortoise Society, New York.
- BAHA EL DIN, S. 1996. *Ramphotyphlops braminus* (Daudin 1803). A new addition to the Egyptian herpetofauna. *Casopis Narodniho Muzea, Rada Priodovedna* 1. 65: 130.

- BAIG, K.J. & BÖHME, W. 1997. Partition of the "Stellio" group of Agama into two distinct genera: Acanthocercus FITZINGER 1843, and Laudakia GRAY 1845 (Sauria: Agamidae). In W. Bischoff, W. Böhme & T. Ziegler (eds), Herpetologia Bonnensis. Societas Europaea Herpetologica, Bonn.
- BAILLIE, J.E.M., GRIFFITHS, J., TURVEY, S.T., LOH, J. & COL-LEN, B. 2010. Evolution Lost. Status and Trends of the World's Vertebrates. Zoological Society of London, London.
- BALDWIN, R., HUGHES, G.R. & PRINCE, R.I.T. 2003. Loggerhead turtles in the Indian Ocean. In A.B. Bolten & B.E. Witherington (eds), *Loggerhead Sea Turtles*: 218–232. Smithsonian Books, Washington.BALSAMO JR., R.A., HOFMEYR, M.D., HENEN, B.T. & BAUER,
- BALSAMO JR., R.A., HOFMEYR, M.D., HENEN, B.T. & BAUER, A.M. 2004. Leaf biomechanics as a potential tool to predict feeding preferences of *Psammobates geometricus* (geometric tortoise). *African Zoology* 39(2): 175–181.
- BANKS, P.B. & BRYANT, J.V. 2007. Four-legged friend or foe? Dog walking displaces native birds from natural areas. *Biology Letters* 3: 611–613.
- BARLOW, A., PHELPS, T., BAKER, K.H., PEPPIN, L., HENDRY, C.R. & WÜSTER, W. 2010. The genetic signature of past climatic change in a widespread African viper: Phylogeography of the puff adder, *Bitis arietans* (abstract). In M.A.L. Zuffi (ed.), *Abstract Book: 3rd Biology of the Vipers Conference Calci (Pisa, Italy), 31st March–2nd April 2010:* 56. Pisa.
- BARTS, M. 2002. Die Dickfingergeckos des südlichen Afrikas. Teil III. Pachydactylus haackei Branch, Bauer & Good, 1996. Sauria 24(3): 13–18.
- BARTS, M. 2005. Die Dickfingergeckos des südlichen Afrikas. Teil IV. Pachydactylus tigrinus Van Dam, 1921. Sauria 27(2): 3–11.
- BARTS, M., HULBERT, F. & BOONE, J. 2005. A new locality record for *Pachydactylus haackei* Branch, Bauer and Good, 1996 at Augrabies National Park, Republic of South Africa. *Russian Journal of Herpetology* 12(3): 237–239.
- BARTS, M., SCHNEIDER, C., BOONE, J., MARAIS, J., BRANCH, W.R. & HAACKE, W.D. 2012. Lamprophis fiskii Boulenger, 1887 (Ophidia, Colubroidea, Lamprophiidae: Lamprophiinae), eine selten gefundene Hausschlange aus Südafrika. Sauria 34(2): 41–51.
- BATES, M.F. 1989. The flat geckos of Thaba Phatshwa Mountain. *National Museum News* 36: 33–34.
- BATES. M.F. 1991. A re-evaluation of the taxonomic status of Xenocalamus bicolor concavorostralis Hoffman, 1940 (Serpentes: Atractaspidinae). South African Journal of Zoology 26(2): 78–81.
- BATES, M.F. 1992. The Herpetofauna of the Orange Free State—with Special Emphasis on Biogeographical Patterning. M.Sc. thesis, University of Natal, Durban.
- BATES, M.F. 1996a. New reptile distribution records for the Free State Province of South Africa. Navorsinge van die Nasionale Museum. Bloemfontein 12(1): 1–47.
- BATES, M.F. 1996b. In search of the elusive flat geckos of the eastern Free State. *Culna* 51: 13–15.
- BATES, M.F. 1996c. Taxonomic status and distribution of the South African lizard *Tetradactylus breyeri* Roux (Gerrhosauridae). South African Journal of Zoology 31(4): 214–218.
- BATES, M.F. 1997. Herpetofauna of the nature reserves and national parks of the Free State province of South Africa. *African Journal of Herpetology* 46(1): 13–29.
- BATES, M.F. 2005a. Taxonomic history and geographical distribution of the *Pseudocordylus melanotus* (A. Smith, 1838) and *P. microlepidotus* (Cuvier, 1829) complexes (Sauria: Cordylidae). Navorsinge van die Nasionale Museum, Bloemfontein 21(4): 37–112.
- BATES, M.F. 2005b. Dwarf geckos have invaded Bloemfontein. *Culna* 60: 6–7.
- BATES, M.F. 2005c. Thar be Dragons. Nouveau 12: 56-58.
- BATES, M.F. 2007a. An Analysis of the Pseudocordylus melanotus Complex (Sauria: Cordylidae). Ph.D. thesis, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.
- BATES, M.F. 2007b. First records of the Cape Girdled Lizard, *Cordylus cordylus* (Linnaeus, 1758), in Lesotho. *Navorsinge van die Nasionale Museum, Bloemfontein* 23: 185–195.
- BATES, M.F. 2010. Geographical Distribution: *Varanus niloticus*. *African Herp News* 52: 25–26.
- BATES, M.F. 2011. Geographical Distribution: *Tetradactylus tetradactylus. African Herp News* 53: 52–53.

- BATES, M.F. 2013. Geographical distributions: Tropidosaura cottrelli. African Herp News 60: 25–27.
- BATES, M.F. & BROADLEY, D.G. 2012. Geographical distributions: Cordylus vittifer. African Herp News 56: 34–35.
- BATES, M.F. & LITTLE, I.T. 2013. Predation on the eggs of ground-nesting birds by *Dasypeltis scabra* (Linnaeus, 1758) in the moist highland grasslands of South Africa. *African Journal of Herpetology* 62(2): 125–134.
- BATES, M.F. & MAGUIRE, D. 2009. Geographical distribution: Zygaspis vandami arenicola. African Herp News 47: 43–44.
- BATES, M.F. & WHITTINGTON-JONES, C. 2009. Geographical distribution: *Pseudocordylus melanotus melanotus*. African Herp News 48: 23–25.
- BATES, M.F., BARLOW, A., WÜSTER, W., TOLLEY, K.A. & BROAD-LEY, D.G. 2011. A taxonomic revision of the genus *Dasypeltis* in the western half of southern Africa. Abstracts: *Proceedings* of the 10th conference of the Herpetological Association of Africa, 12–14 January 2011: 11. Cape Town, South Africa.
- BATES, M.[F.], BROADLEY, D.[G.], BARLOW, A., WÜSTER, W. & TOLLEY, K.[A.] 2012. Taxonomy and distribution of the African egg-eating snakes of the genus *Dasypeltis*. Abstract: Seventh World Congress of Herpetology, Vancouver, Canada, 8–14 August 2012 (www.wch2012vancouver.com/abstractdownload; see also *African Herp News* 58: 27–28, 2012).
- BATES, M.F., HEIDEMAN, N.J.L., WILSON, B.A., HENDRICKS, M.G.J., DON, N. & MOSES, C. 1998. Morphological variation and geographical distribution in the South African lizards *Typhlosaurus caecus* (Cuvier 1817) and *Typhlosaurus vermis* Boulenger 1887 (Scincidae: Acontinae). African Journal of Herpetology 47: 35–41.
- BATES, M.F., PIETERSEN, D. & MEASEY, G.J. 2010. New amphisbaenian records for the Northern Cape, South Africa. Navorsinge van die Nasionale Museum, Bloemfontein 26(3): 61–72.
- BATES, M.F., TOLLEY, K.A., EDWARDS, S., DAVIDS, Z., DA SIL-VA, J. & BRANCH, W.R. 2013. A molecular phylogeny of the African plated lizards, genus *Gerrhosaurus* Wiegmann, 1828 (Squamata: Gerrhosauridae), with the description of two new genera. *Zootaxa* 3750(5): 465–493.
- BAUER, A.M. 1990. Pachydactylus mariquensis latirostris [natural history note]. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 37: 57.
- BAUER, A.M. 1993. African-South American relationships: a perspective from the Reptilia. In P. Goldblatt (ed.), *Biological Relationships Between Africa and South America*: 245–288. Yale University Press, New Haven.
- BAUER, A.M. 1993 [1992]. Pachydactylus punctatus punctatus [distributional note]. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 41: 37–38.
- BAUER, A.M. 2000. Comments on the types and type localities of South African reptiles collected by Heinrich Bergius and Ludwig Krebs. African Journal of Herpetology 49(1): 53–60.
- BAUER, A.M. 2000 [1999]. Evolutionary scenarios in the *Pach-ydactylus*-group geckos of southern Africa: new hypotheses. *African Journal of Herpetology* 48: 53–62.
- BAUER, A.M. 2003. On the identity of *Lacerta punctata* Linnaeus, 1758, the type species of the genus *Euprepis* Wagler, 1830, and the generic assignment of Afro-Malagasy skinks. *African Journal of Herpetology* 52: 1–7.
- BAUER, A.M. & BRANCH, W.R. 1995. Geographic variation in western populations of the *Pachydactylus punctatus* complex (Reptilia: Gekkonidae). *Tropical Zoology* 8: 69–84.
- BAUER, A.M. & BRANCH, W.R. 1997. South African lizards: Gekkonidae. The genus: *Phyllodactylus*. In J.H. Van Wyk (ed.), *Proceedings of the FitzSimons Commemorative Symposium* (3nd HAA Symposium on African Herpetology). South African Lizards: 50 years of Progress: 24–28. Herpetological Association of Africa, Stellenbosch.
- BAUER, A.M. & BRANCH, W.R. 2003 [2001]. The herpetofauna of the Richtersveld National Park and the adjacent northern Richtersveld, Northern Cape Province, Republic of South Africa. *Herpetological Natural History* 8: 111–160.
- BAUER, A.M. & BRANCH, W.R. 2004. An accidental translocation of *Gekko monarchus* into Africa. *Hamadryad* 28(1–2): 122–123.
- BAUER, A.M. & LAMB, T. 2002. Phylogenetic relationships among members of the *Pachydactylus capensis* group of southern African geckos. *African Zoology* 37: 209–220.

- BAUER, A.M. & LAMB, T. 2005. Phylogenetic relationships of southern African geckos in the *Pachydactylus* Group (Squamata: Gekkonidae). *African Journal of Herpetology* 54: 105– 129.
- BAUER, A.M., BARTS, M. & HULBERT, F. 2006a. A new species of the *Pachydactylus weberi* group (Reptila: Squamata: Gekkonidae) from the Orange River, with comments on its natural history. Salamandra 42: 83–92.
- BAUER, A.M., BRANCH, W.R. & GOOD, D.A. 1996. A new species of rock-dwelling *Phyllodactylus* (Squamata: Gekkonidae) from the Richtersveld, South Africa. Occasional Papers of the Museum of Natural Sciences, Louisiana State University 71: 1–13.
- BAUER, A.M., BRANCH, W.R. & HAACKE, W.D. 1993. The herpetofauna of the Kamanjab area and adjacent Damaraland, Namibia. *Madoqua* 18(2): 117–145.
- BAUER, A.M., GOOD, D.A. & BRANCH, W.R. 1997. The taxonomy of the southern African leaf-toed geckos, with a review of Old World "*Phyllodactylus*" (Squamata: Gekkonidae) and the description of five new genera. *Proceedings of the California Academy of Sciences* 49(14): 447–497.
- BAUER, A.M., HEINICKE, M.P., JACKMAN, T.R. & BRANCH, W.R. 2011. Systematics of the Pachydactylus mariquensis group of geckos (Reptilia: Squamata: Gekkonidae): Status of P. mariquensis latirostris, P. m. macrolepis and P. amoenus. Navorsinge van die Nasionale Museum, Bloemfontein 27(4): 85–108.
- BAUER, A.M., LAMB, T. & BRANCH, W.R. 2006b. A revision of the Pachydactylus serval and P. weberi groups (Reptilia: Gekkota: Gekkonidae) of southern Africa, with the description of eight new species. Proceedings of the California Academy of Sciences 57: 595–709.
- BAUER, A.M., SCHNEIDER, V., LAMB, T., MOLER, P.E. & BABB, R.D. 2000. New data on the South African skink *Typhlosaurus Iomii* Haacke 1986 (Squamata: Scincidae). *African Journal of Herpetology* 48: 21–25.
- BAUER, A.M., WHITING, A.S. & SADLIER, R.A. 2003. A new species of Scelotes from near Cape Town, Western Cape Province, South Africa. Proceedings of the California Academy of Sciences 54(13): 231–237.
- BAYLESS, M.K. 2002. Monitor lizards: a pan-African check-list of their zoogeography (Sauria: Varanidae: Polydaedalus). *Journal* of *Biogeography* 29: 1643–1701.
- BENYR, G. 1995. Systematik und Taxonomie der Geckos des Pachydactylus bibronii-laevigatus Komplexes (Reptilia: Squamata: Gekkonidae). Diplomarbeit, Universiteit Wien, Vienna.
- BERGER-DELL'MOUR, H. 1987. Some new data on the herpetology of South West Africa. *Journal of the Herpetological As*sociation of Africa 33: 5–8.
- BERLINER, D.D., VAN DER MERWE, I., BENN, G. & ROUGET, M. 2006. Systematic Conservation Planning for the Forest Biome of South Africa. Approach, Methods and Results of the Selection of Priority Forests for Conservation Action. UK DFID for the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, Pretoria.
- BICKHAM, J.W., IVERSON, J.B., PARHAM, J.F., PHILIPPEN, H., RHODIN, A.G.J., SHAFFER, H.B., SPINKS, P.Q., et al. 2007. An annotated list of modern turtle terminal taxa with comments on areas of taxonomic instability and recent change. *Chelonian Research Monographs* 4: 173–199.
- BIRDLIFE INTERNATIONAL. 2010. Important Bird Areas (IBAs). www.birdlife.org/action/science/sites/
- BISHOP, J.M., LESLIE, A.J., BOURQUIN, S. & O'RYAN, C. 2009. Reduced effective population size in an overexploited population of the Nile Crocodile (*Crocodylus niloticus*). *Biological Conservation* 142: 2335–2341.
- BJÖRNDAL, K.A. 1996. Foraging ecology and nutrition of sea turtles. In P.L. Lutz & J.A. Musick (eds), *The Biology of Sea Turtles*: 199–232. CRC Press, Boca Raton.
- BLAKE, D.K. & JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1992. The conservation status of the Nile Crocodile (Crocodylus niloticus) in South Africa. In G.A. Smith & J. Marais (eds), Conservation and Utilization of the Nile Crocodile in South Africa: Handbook on Crocodile Farming: 11–21. Crocodilian Study Group of Southern Africa. Pretoria.
- BLAUSTEIN, A.R. & KIESECKER, J.M. 2002. Complexity in conservation: lessons from the global decline of amphibian populations. *Ecology Letters* 5: 597–608.

- BLAUSTEIN, A.R. & WAKE, D.B. 1990a. Declining amphibian populations. A global phenomenon? *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 5: 203–204.
- BLAUSTEIN, A.R. & WAKE, D.B. 1990b. The puzzle of declining amphibian populations. *Scientific American* 1995(April): 56–61.
- BÖHME, W. 2003. Checklist of the living monitor lizards of the world. Zoologische Verhandelingen, Leiden 341: 4–43.
- BÖHME, W., JOGER, U. & SCHATTI, B. 1989. A new monitor lizard (Reptilia: Varanidae) from Yemen, with notes on ecology, phylogeny and zoogeography. *Fauna Saudi Arabia* 10: 433–448.
- BÖHME, W. & ZIEGLER, T. 1997. A taxonomic review of the Varanus (Polydaedalus) niloticus (Linnaeus, 1766) species complex. Herpetological Journal 7: 155–162.
- BÖHM, M., COLLEN, B., BAILLIE, J.E.M., BOWLES, P., CHAN-SON, J., COX, N., HAMMERSON, G. et al. 2013. The conservation status of the world's reptiles. *Biological Conservation* 157: 372–385.
- BONNATERRE, P.J. 1789. Tableau encyclopédique et méthodique des trois règnes de la nature. Erpétologie: j-xxviij [= 1–28], 1–70, [1], Pl. 1–7, Pl. 1–6, Pl. 1–6, 6 (2), 7–12. Panckoucke, Paris.
- BOOTH, W., MILLION, L.R., REYNOLDS, G., BURGHARDT, G.M., VARGO, E.J., SCHAL, C., TZIKA, A.C. & SCHUETT, G.W. 2011a. Consecutive Virgin Births in the New World Boid Snake, the Colombian Rainbow Boa, *Epicrates maurus*. *Journal of Heredity* 102(6): 759–763.
- BOOTH, W., SMITH, C.F., ESKRIDGE, P.H., HOSS, S.K., MEN-DELSON, J.R. & SCHUETT, G.W. 2011b. Evidence for viable, non-clonal but fatherless Boa constrictors. *Biology Letters* 7(2): 253–256.
- BOOTH, W., SMITH, C.F., ESKRIDGE, P.H., HOSS, S.K., MEN-DELSON, J.R. &.SCHUETT, G.W. 2012. Facultative parthenogenesis discovered in wild vertebrates. *Biology Letters* (published online 12 Sept 2012; doi: 10.1098/rsbl.2012.0666).
- BOTHA, H., VAN HOVEN, W. & GUILLETTE Jr., L.J. 2011. The decline of the Nile crocodile population in Loskop Dam, Olifants River, South Africa. *Water SA* 37(1): 103–108.
- BOUDREAU, S., LAWES, M.J., PIPER, S.E. & PHADIMA, L.J. 2005. Subsistence harvesting of pole-size understorey species from Ongoye Forest Reserve, South Africa: Species preference, harvest intensity, and social correlates. *Forest Ecology* and Management 21: 149–165.
- BOULENGER, G.A. 1885. Catalogue of the Lizards in the British Museum (Natural History). Second Edition. Vol. 1. Geckonidae, Eublepharidae, Uroplatidae, Pygopodidae, Agamidae. British Museum (Natural History), London.
- BOULENGER, G.A. 1887. *Catalogue of the Lizards in the British Museum (Natural History).* Vol. III. British Museum of Natural History, London.
- BOULENGER, G.A. 1903. On a collection of batrachians and reptiles from the interior of Cape Colony. *Annals and Magazine of Natural History, Seventh Series* 12: 215–217.
- BOUR, R. 1988. Taxonomic and nomenclatural status of *Homopus signatus* (Gmelin, 1789) (Reptilia: Chelonii). *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 35: 1–7.
- BOUR, R. 2008. The type specimens of *Testudo angulata* Schweigger, 1812 and *Testudo bellii* Gray, 1828. *Emys* 15(1): 28–34.
- BOUR, R. & OHLER, A. 2008. *Chersine* Merrem, 1820 and *Chersina* Gray, 1831: A nomenclatural survey. *Zootaxa* 1752: 66–68.
- BOURGEOIS, M. 1968. Contribution à la morphologie comparée du crâne des Ophidiens de l'Afrique Centrale. *Publications de l'Université Officielle du Congo* 18: 1–293.
- BOURJEA, J., LAPÈGUE, S., GAGNEVIN, L., BRODERICK, D., MORTIMER, J.A., CICCIONE, S., ROOS, D., TAQUET, C. & GRIZEL, H. 2007a. Phylogeography of the green turtle, *Chelonia mydas*, in the Southwest Indian Ocean. *Molecular Ecology* 16(1): 175–186.
- BOURJEA, J., FRAPPIER, J., QUILLARD, M., CICCIOINE, S., ROOS, D., HUGHES, G.R. & GRIEZEL, H. 2007b. Mayotte Island: another important green turtle nesting site in the southwest Indian Ocean. *Endangered Species Research* 3: 273–282.
- BOURQUIN, 0. 1987. The recent geographical range extension of Hemidactylus mabouia mabouia. Lammergeyer 38: 12–14.

- BOURQUIN, O. 1988. Scelotes guentheri: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 105–106. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- BOURQUIN, O. 1991. A new genus and species of snake from the Natal Drakensberg, South Africa. Annals of the Transvaal Museum 35(12): 199–203.
- BOURQUIN, O. 2004. Reptiles (Reptilia) in KwaZulu-Natal: 1 diversity and distribution. *Durban Museum Novitates* 29: 57–103.
- BOWEN, B.W., GRANT, W.S., HILLIS-STARR, Z., SHAVER, D.J., BJORNDAL, K.A., BOLTEN, A.B. & BASS, A.L. 2007. Mixedstock analysis reveals the migrations of juvenile hawksbill turtles (*Eretmochelys imbricata*) in the Caribbean Sea. *Molecular Ecology* 16(1): 49–60.
- BOWEN, B.W., KAMEZAKI, N., LIMPUS, C.J., HUGHES, G.R., MEYLAN, A.B., & AVISE, J.C. 1994. Global phylogeography of the loggerhead turtle (*Caretta caretta*) as indicated by mitochondrial DNA haplotypes. *Evolution* 48(6): 1820–1328.
- BOWEN, B.W., NELSON, W.S. & AVISE, J.C. 1993. A molecular phylogeny for marine turtles: trait mapping, rate assessment, and conservation relevance. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA* 90: 5574–5577.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. 1986. A review of *Homopus signatus* (Schoepff) with notes on related species (Cryptodira: Testudinidae). *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 32: 10–16.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. 1988. *Homopus signatus cafer:* species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), *South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians:* 127–128. South African National Programme Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. 1989. Homopus signatus. In I.R. Swingland & M.W. Klemens (eds), The Conservation Biology of Tortoises: 82–84. Occasional papers of the IUCN Species Survival Commission No. 5, Gland.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. 1990. *Chamaesaura anguina*: Size, reproduction and susceptibility to fire. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 37: 49.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. 1992a. A Herpetofaunal Survey of Swaziland. M.Sc. thesis, University of Natal, Durban.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. 1992b. An Annotated Checklist of the Amphibians and Reptiles of Swaziland. The Conservation Trust of Swaziland, Mbabane.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. 2001. The terrapins and tortoises (Chelonia: Pelomedusidae and Testudinidae) of Swaziland. *Durban Museum Novitates* 26: 25–37.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. & BOURQUIN, O. 2000. The Southern African Tortoise Book: A Guide to Southern African Tortoises, Terrapins and Turtles. O. Bourquin, Hilton.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. & BOURQUÍN, O. 2008. Pelomedusa subrufa (Bonnaterre, 1789)—Helmeted Terrapin. In A.G.J. Rhodin, P.C.H. Pritchard, P.P. Van Dijk, R.A. Saumune, K.A. Buhlmann & J.B. Iverson (eds), Conservation Biology of Freshwater Turtles and Tortoises: A Compilation Project of the IUCN/SSC Tortoise and Freshwater Turtle Specialist Group: 007.1– 007.6. Chelonian Research Monographs Number 5. Chelonian Research Foundation, www.iucn-tftsg.org/cbftt/.
- BOYCOTT, R.C. & BRANCH, W. 1989. Psammobates oculifer. In I.R. Swingland & M.W. Klemens (eds), The Conservation Biology of Tortoises: 88–90. Occasional papers of the IUCN Species Survival Commission No. 5, Gland.
- BOYCOTT, R.C., FORRESTER, B., LOFFLER, L. & MONADJEM, A. 2007. Wild Swaziland—Common Animals and Plants. P. & J. Perry, Mbabane.
- BRAIN, C.K. 1962. A review of the gecko genus *Ptenopus* with the description of a new species. *Cimbebasia* 1: 1–18.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1981. An annotated checklist of the lizards of the Cape Province, South Africa. Annals of the Cape Provincial Museums (Natural History) 13: 141–167.
- BRANCH, W.R. [B]. 1985. Cape lizards. VIII. Girdled lizards and their relatives. *The Naturalist* 29(3): 10–18.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1986. Hemipenial morphology of African snakes: a taxonomic review. Part 1. Scolecophidia and Boidae. *Journal of Herpetology* 20(3): 285–299.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1988a. South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1988b. Field Guide to the Snakes and other Reptiles of Southern Africa. First Edition. Struik, Cape Town.

- BRANCH, W.R. 1988c. Homoroselaps dorsalis: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 99–100. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1989. Chersina angulata. In I.R. Swingland & M.W. Klemens (eds), The Conservation Biology of Tortoises: 68–71. Occasional papers of the IUCN Species Survival Commission No. 5, Gland.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1990a. The herpetofauna of the Cape Province, South Africa: New distribution records and zoogeography. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 37: 17–44.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1990b. The genus *Tetradactylus* (Sauria: Gerrhosaurinae) in the Cape Province, South Africa: New records and their taxonomic status. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 37: 13–16.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1991. The herpetofauna of the offshore islands of South Africa. Annals of the Cape Provincial Museums 18(10): 205–225.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1994a. Herpetofauna of the Sperrgebeit region of southern Namibia. *Herpetological Natural History* 2(1): 1–11.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1994b. Field Guide to the Snakes and Other Reptiles of Southern Africa. Struik, Cape Town.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1997. A new adder (*Bitis*; Viperidae) from the Western Cape Province, South Africa. South African Journal of Zoology 32: 37–42.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1998. Field Guide to Snakes and Other Reptiles of Southern Africa. Second Edition. Struik, Cape Town.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1999a. Dwarf adders of the Bitis cornuta-inornata complex (Serpentes: Viperidae). Kaupia (Darmstadt) 8: 39–63.
- BRANCH, W.R. 1999b. Bitis arietans peghullae Stewart 1973 (Serpentes: Viperidae): a valid race of puff adder? African Journal of Herpetology 48(1 & 2): 15–19.
- BRANCH, W.R. 2005. A Photoguide to the Snakes and other Reptiles and Amphibians of East Africa. Struik, Cape Town.
- BRANCH, W.R. 2006a. Natural history note. *Varanus albigularis* (Daudin, 1802), rock monitor, diet. *African Herp News* 40: 19–20.
- BRANCH, W.R. 2006b. Priorities for systematic studies on southern African reptiles. In W.R. Branch, K.A. Tolley, M. Cunningham, A.M. Bauer, G. Alexander, J.A. Harrison, A.A. Turner & M.F. Bates (eds), A Plan for Phylogenetic Studies of Southern African Reptiles: Proceedings of a Workshop Held at Kirstenbosch, February 2006. Biodiversity Series No. 5: 2–20. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- BRANCH, W.R. 2007. A new species of tortoise of the genus *Homopus* (Chelonia: Testudinidae) from southern Namibia. *African Journal of Herpetology* 56: 1–21.
- BRANCH, W.R. 2008. Tortoises, Terrapins and Turtles of Africa. Struik, Cape Town.
- BRANCH, W.R. 2010. Recent studies on African snakes and chelonians: a personal perspective. African Herp News 50: 2–10.
- BRANCH, W.R. 2013. Geographical distribution: Meroles ctenodactylus. African Herp News 59: 54–56.
- BRANCH, W.R. & BAUER, A.M. 1994. *Phyllodactylus peringueyi* (Reptilia: Gekkonidae): Its taxonomic history, rediscovery, and phylogenetic affinities. *Annals of the South African Museum* 104(2): 13–30.
- BRANCH, W.R. & BAUER, A.M. 1995. Herpetofauna of the Little Karoo, Western Cape, South Africa with notes on life history and taxonomy. *Herpetological Natural History* 3(1): 47–89.
- BRANCH, W.R. & BAUER, A.M. 1996 [1997]. Notes on two poorly-known *Phyllodactylus* (Squamata: Gekkonidae) from South Africa. *Herpetological Natural History* 4(2): 127–134.
- BRANCH, W.R. & BAYLISS, J. 2009. A new species of *Atheris* (Serpentes: Viperidae) from northern Mozambique. *Zootaxa* 2113: 41–54.
- BRANCH, W.R. & BRAACK, H.H. 1987. Reptiles and amphibians of the Addo Elephant National Park. *Koedoe* 30: 61–111.
- BRANCH, W.R. & BRAACK, H.H. 1989. Reptiles and amphibians in the Karoo National Park: A surprising diversity. In W.R. Branch (ed.), Proceedings of the First HAA Conference. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 36: 26–35.
- BRANCH, W.R. & BURGER, M. 2009. Nucras taeniolata Smith, 1838 (Striped Sandveld Lizard) (Sauria, Lacertidae): Additional records. *Herpetological Bulletin* 107: 40–41.

- BRANCH, W.R. & ERASMUS, H. 1984. Captive Breeding of Pythons, with details of an interspecific hybrid (*Python molurus bivitattus* x *P. sebae natalensis*). *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 30: 1–10.
- BRANCH, W.R. & HAACKE, W.D. 1980. A fatal attack on a young boy by an African Rock Python *Python sebae*. *Journal of Herpetology* 14(3): 305–306.
- BRANCH, W.R. & HAAGNER, G.V. 1999. Life history note: *Psammophis brevirostris* and *Acontias* sp.: The value of road kills. *African Herp News* 30: 28.
- BRANCH, W.R. & HANEKOM, N. 1987. The herpetofauna of the Tsitsikamma Coastal and Forest National Parks. *Koedoe* 30: 49–60.
- BRANCH, W.R. & HARRISON, J.A. 2004. Conservation Status and Threats. In L.R. Minter, M. Burger, J.A. Harrison, H.H. Braack, P.J. Bishop & D. Kloepfer (eds), Atlas and Red Data Book of the Frogs of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland: 13–29. SI/MAB Series 9. Smithsonian Institute, Washington.
- BRANCH, W.R. & JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988a. Typhlosaurus lineatus subtaeniatus: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 107–108. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- BRANCH, W.R. & JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988b. Scelotes limpopoensis albiventris: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 156–157. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- BRANCH, W.R. & KELLY, C.R. 2008. Taxonomic assessment of the geographical isolates of the Berg Adder (*Bitis atropos*) In. *Programme & Abstracts of the 9th Herpetological Association of Africa Conference, 24–27 November 2008*: 12. Sterkfontein Dam, South Africa.
- BRANCH, W.R. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2010. A new chameleon (Sauria: Chamaeleonidae: Nadzikambia) from Mount Mabu, Northern Mozambique. African Journal of Herpetology 59(2): 157– 172.
- BRANCH, W.R. & WHITING, M.J. 1997. A new *Platysaurus* (Squamata: Cordylidae) from the Northern Cape Province, South Africa. *African Journal of Herpetology* 46: 124–136.
- BRANCH, W.R., BAARD, E.H.W., HAACKE, W.D., JACOBSEN, N., POYNTON, J.C. & BROADLEY, D.G. 1988. A provisional and annotated checklist of the herpetofauna of southern Africa. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 34: 1–19.
- BRANCH, W.R., BAUER, A.M. & GOOD, D.A. 1995a. Species limits in the *Phyllodactylus lineatus* complex (Reptilia: Gekkonidae), with the elevation of two taxa to specific status and the description of two new species. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 44(2): 33–54.
- BRANCH, W.R., BENN, G.A. & LOMBARD, A.T. 1995b. The tortoises (Testudinidae) and terrapins (Pelomedusidae) of southern Africa: Their diversity, distribution and conservation. *South African Journal of Zoology* 30: 91–102.
- BRANCH, W.R., BAUER, A.M. & GOOD, D.A. 1996. A review of the Namaqua gecko, *Pachydactylus namaquensis* (Reptilia: Gekkonidae) from southern Africa, with the description of two new species. *South African Journal of Zoology* 31(2): 53–69.
- BRANCH, W.R., BAUER, A.M., & LAMB, T. 2002. Natural history note. *Bitis caudalis* (horned adder). Prey size. *Herpetological Review* 33: 137–138.
- BRANCH, W.R., BAUER, A.M., JACKMAN, T. & MARAIS, J. 2007. Geographical distribution: *Homopus signatus* subsp. *African Herp News* 43: 26–27.
- BRANCH, W.R., EGAN, D. & EDMONDS, J. (eds). 2010. Proceedings of the 9th Conservation Workshop for the Fauna of Arabia, 3–5 February 2008. Conservation Status of the Terrestrial Snakes of the Arabian Peninsula. Breeding Centre for Endangered Arabian Wildlife, Sharjah.
- BRANCH, W.R., HAAGNER, G.V. & BOURQUIN, O. 1993. Further specimens of the cream-spotted mountain snake *Montaspis gilvomaculata* from Natal. *Lammergeyer* 42: 50–52.
- BRANCH, W.R., HAAGNER, G.V., HALL, R.J. & CRAIG, G. 1992. Geographical Distribution: *Phyllodactylus peringueyi*. *Journal* of the Herpetological Association of Africa 41: 38.
- BRANCH, W.R., TÖLLEY, K.A., CUNNINGHAM, M., BAUER, A.M., ALEXANDER, G., HARRISON, J.A., TURNER, A.A. &

BATES, M.F. (eds). 2006a. A Plan for Phylogenetic Studies of Southern African Reptiles: Proceedings of a Workshop held at Kirstenbosch, February 2006. SANBI Biodiversity Series 5. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.

- BRANCH, W.R., TOLLEY, K.A. & TILBURY, C.R. 2006b. A new Dwarf Chameleon (Sauria: *Bradypodion* Fitzinger, 1843) from the Cape Fold Mountains, South Africa. *African Journal of Herpetology* 55(2): 123–141.
- BRANDLEY, M.C., SCHMITZ, A. & REEDER, T.W. 2005. Partitioned Bayesian analyses, partition choice, and the phylogenetic relationships of scincid lizards. *Systematic Biology* 54: 373–390.
- BRANDSTÄTTER, F. 1996. *Die Sandrennattern: Genus* Psammophis. Westarp Wissenschaften, Magdeburg.
- BRASSINE, M.C., KELLY, C.M.R., BARKER, N.P. & VILLET, M.H. 2008. The phylogenetics of the Lamprophis fuliginosus/capensis species complex in southern Africa. Abstract: Proceedings of the 9th Conference of the Herpetological Association of Africa, 26–30 November 2008: 13. Sterkfontein Dam, South Africa.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1964. A review of the crag lizards (Genus *Pseudocordylus*) of Natal. *Annals of the Natal Museum* 16: 99–110.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1966a. *The Herpetology of South-East Africa*. Ph.D. thesis, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1966b. A review of the *Riopa sundevalli* group (Sauria: Scincidae) in southern Africa. *Arnoldia (Rhodesia)* 2(34): 1–7.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1967. A review of the genus *Lycodonomorphus* Fitzinger (Serpentes: Colubridae) in southeastern Africa, with a key to the genus. *Arnoldia* 3(16): 1–9.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1968a. A review of the African cobras of the genus *Naja* (Serpentes: Elapinae). *Arnoldia (Rhodesia)* 3(29): 1–14.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1968b. A revision of the African genus *Typhlosaurus* Wiegmann (Sauria: Scincidae). *Arnoldia (Rhodesia)* 3(36): 1–20.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1968c. A revision of Aspidelaps scutatus (A. Smith) (Serpentes: Elapinae). Arnoldia (Rhodesia) 4(2): 1–9.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1971a. The reptiles and amphibians of Zambia. *The Puku* 6: 1–143.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1971b. A revision of the African snake genera Amblyodipsas and Xenocalamus. Occasional Papers of the National Museums and Monuments of Rhodesia, Series B, Natural Sciences 4: 629–697.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1971c. A revision of the African snake genus Elapsoidea Bocage (Elapidae). Occasional Papers of the National Museums and Monuments of Rhodesia, Series B, Natural Sciences 4: 577–626.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1972. A review of the *Nucras tessellata* group (Sauria: Lacertidae). *Arnoldia (Rhodesia)* 5(20): 1–36.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1974. Current research projects of the Department of Herpetology, Umtali Museum. *The Rhodesian Science News* 8: 304–306.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1977a. A review of the northeastern forms of the *Pachydactylus capensis* complex (Sauria: Gekkonidae). *Arnoldia (Rhodesia)* 8(18): 1–19.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1977b. A revision of the African snakes of the genus *Psammophylax* Fitzinger (Colubridae). *Occasional Papers of the National Museums and Monuments of Rhodesia, Series B, Natural Sciences* 6: 1–44.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1978. A revision of the genus *Platysaurus* A. Smith (Sauria: Cordylidae). Occasional Papers of the National Museums and Monuments of Rhodesia, Series B, Natural Sciences 6: 129–185.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1979. A field study of two sympatric 'annual' lizards (genus *lchnotropis*) in Rhodesia. *South African Journal of Zoology* 14: 133–138.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1981a. A review of the genus Pelusios Wagler in southern Africa (Pleurodira: Pelomedusidae). Occasional Papers of the National Museums and Monuments of Rhodesia, Series B, Natural Sciences 6: 633–686.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1981b. A review of the populations of *Kinixys* (Testudinidae) occurring in south-eastern Africa. *Annals of the Cape Provincial Museums* (*Natural History*) 13: 195–216.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1983. *FitzSimons' Snakes of Southern Africa.* Delta Books, Cape Town.

- BROADLEY, D.G. 1984. An atypical specimen of *Acontias plumbeus* from Umtentweni. *Lammergeyer* 32: 52.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1987a. A review of geographical variation in *Gerrhosaurus major* Duméril (Sauria: Cordylidae). *Herpetological Journal* 1: 194–198.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1987b. Caudal autotomy in African snakes of the genera Natriciteres Loveridge and Psammophis Boie. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 33: 18–19.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1988. Life history notes: Meizodon semiornatus semiornatus: Habitat, diet and distribution. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 34: 44.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1989a. A reappraisal of the genus *Panaspis* Cope, with the description of a new species of *Leptosiaphos* (Reptilia: Scincidae) from Tanzania. *Arnoldia* (*Zimbabwe*) 9(32): 439–449.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1989b. Kinixys belliana Bell's Hinged Tortoise. In I.R. Swingland & M.W. Klemens (eds), The Conservation Biology of Tortoises: 49–55. Occasional Papers IUCN Species Survival Commission No. 5, Gland.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1989c. Geochelone pardalis. In I.R. Swingland & M.W. Klemens (eds), The Conservation Biology of Tortoises: 43–46. Occasional papers of the IUCN Species Survival Commission No. 5, Gland.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1990a. The herpetofaunas of the islands off the coast of South Moçambique. Arnoldia (Zimbabwe) 9: 469–493.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1990b. *FitzSimons' Snakes of Southern Africa.* Jonathan Ball and Ad. Donker Publishers, Parklands.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1991. A review of the southern African stiletto snakes of the genus *Atractaspis* A. Smith (Serpentes: Atractaspididae). *ArnoIdia (Zimbabwe)* 9(36): 495–517.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1993. A review of southern African species of Kinixys Bell (Reptilia: Testudinidae). Annals of the Transvaal Museum 46: 41–52.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1994. The genus Scelotes Fitzinger (Reptilia: Scincidae) in Mozambique, Swaziland and Natal, South Africa. Annals of the Natal Museum 35: 237–259.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1995a. A small collection of reptiles and amphibians from central and southern Malawi. African Herp News 24: 16–18.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1995b. The Snouted Cobra, Naja annulifera, a valid species in southern Africa. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 44: 26–32.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1996. A Revision of the Genus Lycophidion Fitzinger (Serpentes: Colubridae) in Africa south of the Equator. Syntarsus 3: 1–33.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1997. A review of the *Monopeltis capensis* complex in southern Africa (Reptilia: Amphisbaenidae). *African Journal of Herpetology* 46(1): 1–12.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1998. A review of the African Elapsoidea semiannulata complex (Serpentes: Elapidae). African Journal of Herpetology 47(1): 13–24.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1999a. The Southern African Python, *Python natalensis* A. Smith 1840 is a valid species. *African Herp News* 29: 31–32.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 1999b. Geographical distribution notes, Serpentes, Colubridae. *Prosymna lineata* (Peters, 1871): Lined Shovel-snout. *African Herp News* 30: 36–37.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 2000. A review of the genus *Mabuya* in southeastern Africa (Sauria: Scincidae). *African Journal of Herpetology* 49(2): 87–110.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 2001a. Geographical distribution: *Monopeltis* sphenorhynchus. African Herp News 32: 23.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 2001b. An annotated checklist of the herpetofauna of Mulanje Mountain. *Nyala* 21: 29–36.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 2001c. A review of the genus *Thelotornis* A. Smith in eastern Africa with the description of a new species from the Usamabara Mountains. (Serpentes: Colubridae: Dispholidini). *African Journal of Herpetology* 50(2): 53–70.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 2002. A review of the species of *Psammophis* Boie found south of Latitude 12°S (Serpentes: Psammophiinae). *African Journal of Herpetology* 51(2): 83–119.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 2007. Book review: Bibliotheca Cordyliformium. Neues Quellenverzeichnis der Gurtelschweife und Schildechsen (Reptilia, Cordylidae & Gerrhosauridae) by Klaus Adolphs. African Journal of Herpetology 56(1): 99– 100.

- BROADLEY, D.G. 2008. A guide to the reptiles of southern Africa. By Graham Alexander and Johan Marais. African Journal of Herpetology 57(1): 51–56.
- BROADLEY, D.G. 2012. Book review: *Turtles of the World. Vol.* 1: Africa, Europe and Western Asia by Holger Vetter. African Herp News 57: 1–3.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & BALDWIN, A.S. 2006. Taxonomy, natural history, and zoogeography of the southern African Shield Cobras, Genus Aspidelaps (Serpentes: Elapidae). *Herpetological Natural History* 9(2): 163–176.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & BAUER, A.M. 1999. A review of the *Mabuya* quinquetaeniata complex in East Africa (Sauria: Scincidae). *African Journal of Herpetology* 47: 43–58.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & BLAKE, D.K. 1979. A check list of the reptiles of the National Parks and other conservation areas of Zimbabwe Rhodesia. *Arnoldia (Rhodesia)* 8(35): 1–15.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & BLAYLOCK, R. 2013. *The Snakes of Zimbabwe and Botswana*. Edition Chimaira, Frankfurt am Main.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & BOYCOTT, R.C. 2008. Pelusios rhodesianus (Hewitt, 1927)—Variable Mud Turtle, Variable Hinged Terrapin. In A.G.J. Rhodin, P.C.H. Pritchard, P.P. van Dijk, R.A. Saumure, K.A. Buhlmann, J.B. Iverson & R.A. Mittermeier (eds), Conservation Biology of Freshwater Turtles and Tortoises: A Compilation Project of the IUCN/SSC Tortoise and Freshwater Turtle Specialist Group: 004.1–004.3. Chelonian Research Monographs Number 5. Chelonian Research Foundation, http://www.iucn-fttsg.org/cbftt/.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & BRANCH, W.R. 2002. A review of the small East African Cordylus (Sauria: Cordylidae), with the description of a new species. African Journal of Herpetology 51: 9–34.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & BROADLEY, S. 1997. A revision of the African genus Zygapsis Cope (Reptilia: Amphisbaenia). Syntarsus 4: 1–23.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & BROADLEY, S. 1999. A review of the African worm snakes from south of the latitude 12°S (Serpentes: Leptotyphlopidae). Syntarsus 5: 1–36.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & COTTERILL, F.P.D. 2004. The reptiles of southeast Katanga, an overlooked 'hot spot'. African Journal of Herpetology 53(1): 35–61.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & FAROOQ, H.O.M. 2013. Geographical distributions: *Thelotornis usambaricus. African Herp News* 59: 48–50.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & GREER, A.E. 1969. A revision of the genus Acontias Cuvier (Sauria: Scincidae). Arnoldia (Rhodesia) 4: 1–27.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & HOWELL, K.M. 1991. A checklist of the reptiles of Tanzania, with synoptic keys. *Syntarsus* 1: 1–70.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & HUGHES, B. 2000. A revision of the African genus *Hemirhagerrhis* Boettger 1893 (Serpentes: Colubridae). Syntarsus 6: 1–17.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 2000. A new species of rupicolous Cordylus Laurenti from Malawi (Sauria: Cordylidae). African Journal of Herpetology 49(2): 169–172.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & RASMUSSEN, G.S.A. 1995. Geographical distribution, Reptilia, Sauria, Gekkonidae: Colopus w. wahlbergii Peters. African Herp News 22: 52.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & VAN DAELE, P. 2003. Geographical distribution: Colopus wahlbergi. African Herp News 36: 20.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & WALLACH, V. 1997a. A review of the worm snakes of Mozambique (Serpentes: Leptotyphlopidae) with the description of a new species. *Arnoldia (Zimbabwe)* 10(11): 111–119.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & WALLACH, V. 1997b. A review of the genus Leptotyphlops (Serpentes: Leptotyphlopidae) in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, with the description of a new forest-dwelling species. Durban Museum Novitates 22: 37–42.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & WALLACH, V. 2000. A new blind snake (Serpentes: Typhlopidae) from montane forests of the Eastern Arc Mountains in Tanzania. *African Journal of Herpetology* 49(2): 165–168.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & WALLACH, V. 2002. Review of the Dispholidini, with the description of a new genus and species from Tanzania (Serpentes, Colubridae). Bulletin of the British Museum of Natural History (Zoology) 68(2): 57–74.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & WALLACH, V. 2007a. A revision of the genus Leptotyphlops in northeastern Africa and southwestern Arabia (Serpentes: Leptotyphlopidae). Zootaxa 1408: 1–78.

- BROADLEY, D.G. & WALLACH, V. 2007b. A review of East and Central African species of *Letheobia* Cope, revived from the synonymy of *Rhinotyphlops* Fitzinger, with descriptions of five new species (Serpentes: Typhlopidae). *Zootaxa* 1515: 31–68.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & WALLACH, V. 2009. A review of the eastern and southern African blind-snakes (Serpentes: Typhlopidae), excluding *Letheobia* Cope, with the description of two new genera and a new species. *Zootaxa* 2255: 1–100.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & WATSON, C. 1976. A revision of the Worm Snakes of southeastern Africa (Serpentes: Leptotyphlopidae). Occasional Papers National Museums and Monuments, Rhodesia, B. Natural Sciences 5(8): 465–510.
- BROADLEY, D.G. & WÜSTER, W. 2004. A review of the southern African 'non-spitting' cobras (Serpentes: Elapidae: Naja). African Journal of Herpetology 53(2): 101–122.
- BROADLEY, D.G., DORIA, C.T. & WIGGE, J. 2003. Snakes of Zambia. An Atlas and Field Guide. Edition Chimaira, Frankfurt am Main.
- BROADLEY, D.G., GANS, C. & VISSER, J. 1976. Studies on amphisbaenians (Amphisbaenia, Reptilia) 6. The genera Monopeltis and Dalophia in southern Africa. Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History 157(5): 311–485.
- BROADLEY, D.G., HUNT, J. & CANTLE, G. 2010. Geographical Distribution: *Psammobates oculifer* Kuhl, 1820 - Serrated Tortoise. *African Herp News* 51: 24–25.
- BROCHU, C.A. 2000. Phylogenetic relationships and divergence timing of *Crocodylus* based on morphology and the fossil record. *Copeia* 2000: 657–673.
- BROCHU, C.A. 2003. Phylogenetic approaches toward crocodylian history. Annual Review of Earth Planet Science 31: 357–397.
- BRODERICK, D. 2001. Genetic differentiation among marine turtle rookeries in the Indian Ocean as inferred from MtDNA sequence variation. In S. Ciccione, D. Roos, D. & J-Y. Le Gall (eds), *Knowledge and Conservation of Sea Turtles in South-West Indian Ocean.* Editions du Centre d'Etude et de Decouverte des Tortues Marine de La Réunion (CEDTM), No. 1: 26. La Réunion.
- BROOKS, T.M., MITTERMEIER, R.A., MITTERMEIER, C.G., DA FONSECA, G.A.B., RYLANDS, A.B., KONSTANT, W.R., FLICK, P., et al. 2002. Habitat loss and extinction in the hotspots of biodiversity. Conservation Biology 16(4): 909–923.
- BROWN-WESSELS, H.I. 1989. Bimodal reproductive strategy in Mabuya capensis (Gray) (Squamata: Scincidae). Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 36: 46–50.
- BRUTON, M.N. & HAACKE, W.D. 1980. The reptiles of Maputaland. In M.N. Bruton & K.H. Cooper (eds), Studies on the Ecology of Maputaland: 251–287. Rhodes University, Grahamstown.
- BRUTON, M.N., HUGHES, G.R., BUXTON, C.D. & STOBBS, R.E. 1989. *Recommendations on Marine Conservation in the Federal Republic of the Comores.* Investigational Report 34, JLB Smith Institute of Icthyology, Grahamstown.
- BRYGOO, E R. & ROUX-ESTEVE, R. 1982. Un genre de lezards scincines d'Afrique: Melanoseps. Bulletin du Museum national d'histoire Naturelle section a Zoologie Biologie et Ecologie Animales 3(4) 1981[1982]: 1169–1191.
- BURGER, M. 1993. The herpetofauna of Anysberg Nature Reserve, Cape Province, South Africa. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 42: 1–12.
- BURGER, M. & HAHNDIEK, Q. 1993. Geographical distribution: Nucras tessellata livida. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 42: 41.
- BURGER, M. & SMITH, R.B.T. 1992. Geographical distribution: Bradypodion taeniabronchum. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 41: 37.
- BURRAGE, B.R. 1978. Reptiles collected from the west coast of the Cape Province, South Africa. *Transactions of the Kansas Academy of Science* 81(3): 265–271.
- BUTCHART, S.H.M., WALPOLE, M., COLLEN, B. VAN STRIEN, A., SCHARLEMANN, J.P.W., ALMOND, R.E.E., BAILLIE, J.E.M., et al. 2010. Global biodiversity: indicators of recent declines. *Science* 328: 1164–1168.
- CABRERA-PÉREZ, M.A., GALLO-BARNETO, R., ESTEVE, I., PATIÑO-MARTÍNEZ, C. & LÓPEZ-JURADO, L.P. 2012. The management and control of the California kingsnake in Gran Canaria (Canary Islands): Project LIFE+ Lampropeltis. Aliens: The Invasive Species Bulletin 32: 20-28.

- CADLE, J.E. 1994. The colubrid radiation in Africa (Serpentes: Colubridae): phylogenetic relationships and evolutionary patterns based on immunological data. *Zoological Journal of the Linnaean Society* 110: 103–140.
- CALVETE, J.J., ESCOLANO, J. & SANZ, L. 2007. Snake venomics of *Bitis* species reveals large intragenus venom toxin composition variation: Application to taxonomy of congeneric genera. *Journal of Proteome Research* 6: 2732–2745.
- CAMP, C.L. 1923. Classification of the lizards. Bulletin of The American Museum of Natural History 48: 289–481.
- CARPENTER, A.I., ROBSON, O., ROWCLIFFE, J.M. & WATKIN-SON, A.R. 2005. The impacts of international and national governance changes on a traded resource: a case study of Madagascar and its chameleon trade. *Biological Conservation* 123: 279–287.
- CARPENTER, A.I., ROWCLIFFE, J.M. & WATKINSON, A.R. 2004. The dynamics of the global trade in chameleons. *Biological Conservation* 120: 291–301.
- CARR, A. 1952. *The Handbook of Turtles.* Cornell University Press, Ithaca.
- CARRANZA, S. & ARNOLD, E.N. 2006. Systematics, biogeography, and evolution of *Hemidactylus* geckos (Reptilia: Gekkonidae) elucidated using mitochondrial DNA sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 38(2): 531–545.
- CASTIGLIA, R., COSTI, M. & ANNESI, F. 2006. Molecular and karyological homogeneity in *Trachylepis striata* (Peters 1844) and *T. wahlbergii* (Peters 1869) (Scincidae Reptilia). *Tropical Zoology* 19(1): 119–128.
- CASTLEY, J.G. 1997. Vertebrate diversity in indigenous forests of the Eastern Cape. Ph.D. thesis, University of Port Elizabeth.
- CHIRIO, L. & INEICH, I. 1997. *Ramphotyphlops braminus* (Braminy Blind Snake). Central African Republic. *Herpetological Review* 28(1): 52.
- CHIRIO, L. & INEICH, I. 2006. Biogeography of the reptiles of the Central African Republic. *African Journal of Herpetology* 55(1): 23–59.
- CHIRIO, L. & LEBRETON, M. 2007. *Atlas des Reptiles du Cameroun.* Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle & IRD Editions, Paris.
- CHIRIO, L., INEICH, I., SCHMITZ, A., & TRAPE, J.-F. 2011. Note sur la systématique de quelques espèces du genre *Prosymna* Gray, 1849 en Afrique au nord de l'équateur (Serpentes, Prosymnidae). *Revue Suisse de Zoologie* 118 (1): 157–17.
- CHOWN, S.L. 2010. Temporal biodiversity change in transformed landscapes: A southern African perspective. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B* 365: 3729–3742.
- CIOFI, C. 1999. The Komodo Dragon. Scientific American 280(3): 84–92.
- CLAUSS, B. & CLAUSS, R. 2002. Common Amphibians and Reptiles of Botswana. Gamsberg Macmillan Publishers, Windhoek.
- COLE, D.N. 1993. Trampling Effects on Mountain Vegetation in Washington, Colorado, New Hampshire, and North Carolina. Research Report. United States Department of Agriculture, Intermountain Research Station, Ogden.
- COLLAR, N.J. 1986. Species are a measure of man's freedom: reflections after writing a Red Data Book on African birds. *Oryx* 20(1): 15–19.
- COMBRINK, X., KORRÜBEL, J.L., KYLE, R., TAYLOR, R. & ROSS, P. 2011. Evidence of a declining Nile Crocodile (*Crocodylus niloticus*) population at Lake Sibaya, South Africa. South African Journal of Wildlife Research 41(2): 145–157.
- CONRAD, J.L. 2008. Phylogeny and systematics of Squamata (Reptilia) based on morphology. *Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History* 310: 1–183.
- CONRADIE, W. 2012. Geographical Distribution: Nucras taeniolata. African Herp News 58: 21–22.
- CONRADIE, W. & BOURQUIN, S. 2013. Geographical distributions: Acontias kgalagadi kgalagadi. African Herp News 60: 28–29.
- CONRADIE, W., DOUCETTE-RIISE, S., VANHOOYDONCK, B., ENGELBRECHT, H., MEASEY, J. & TOLLEY, K. 2011. Herpetological Survey of Rooipoort Nature Reserve, Northern Cape Province, South Africa. *African Herp News* 53: 35–41.
- CONRADIE, W., MEASEY, G.J., BRANCH, W.R. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2012. Revised phylogeny of African sand lizards (*Pedioplanis*),

with the description of two new species from south-western Angola. *African Journal of Herpetology* 61(2): 91–112.

- CONRADIE, W., VENTER, J. & NICOLAU, J.R. 2012. Geographical Distribution: *Macrelaps microlepidotus*. *African Herp News* 58: 19–21.
- CORDES, I.G. & MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 1996. The Saldanha-Langebaan area as a refugium for cool-adapted lizard populations: Conservation priorities. *Koedoe* 39: 71–83.
- CORKHILL, N.L. & KIRK, R. 1954. Poisoning by the Sudan mole viper Atractaspis microlepidota Günther. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 48(5): 376– 384.
- COSTANDIUS, E., MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & BOUCHER, C. 2006. Conservation status of the dwarf crag lizard, *Pseudocordylus nebulosus*, from the Hottentot Holland Mountains, South Africa. South African Journal of Wildlife Research 36(2): 123–132.
- COTT, H.B. 1934. The Zoological Society's Expedition to the Zambesi. 1927: No. 5. On a collection of Lizards mainly from Portuguese East Africa, with descriptions of new species of Zonurus, Monopeltis & Chirindia. Proceedings of the Zoological Society, London 1: 145–173.
- COWLES, R.B. 1930. The life history of *Varanus niloticus* (Lin.) as observed in Natal, South Africa. *Journal of Entomology and Zoology* 22(1): 3–31.
- CSIR. 2008. Land Use Data for Agriculture, Forestry and other Land Uses (AFOLU) Sector: Input into Greenhouse Inventory report of South Africa. Draft 2.1. Unpublished Report, CSIR, Pretoria.
- CUNNINGHAM, J., BAARD, E.H.W., HARLEY, E.H. & O'RYAN, C. 2002. Investigation of genetic diversity in fragmented geometric tortoise (*Psammobates geometricus*) populations. *Conservation Genetics* 3: 215–223.
- CUNNINGHAM, M. 2004. Moving among montane islands: a comparative phylogeographic history of Cape Fold Mountain crag lizards (*Cordylus 'Pseudocordylus' capensis* group and *Cordylus 'Pseudocordylus' microlepidotus microlepidotus*). Programme and Abstracts of the Seventh Herpetological Association of Africa Symposium 6–9 October 2004: 13–14. Herpetological Association of Africa, Bayworld, Port Elizabeth.
- CUNNINGHAM, M., HENDERSON, C.L. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2003. Herpetological surveys: Cockscomb (T'Numqa) mountain. African Herp News 36: 22–25.
- DANIELS, S.R., HEIDEMAN, N.[J.L.] & HENDRICKS, M.[G.J.] 2009. Examination of evolutionary relationships in the Cape fossorial skink species complex (Acontinae: *Acontias meleagris meleagris*) reveals the presence of five cryptic lineages. *Zoologica Scripta* 38(5): 449–463.
- DANIELS, S.R., HEIDEMAN, N.[J.L.], HENDRICKS, M.[G.J.] & CRANDALL, K.A. 2006. Taxonomic subdivisions within the fossorial skink subfamily Acontinae (Squamata: Scincidae) reconsidered: a multilocus perspective. *Zoologica Scripta* 35(4): 353–362.
- DANIELS, S.R., HEIDEMAN, N.[J.L.], HENDRICKS, M.[G.J.] & WILSON, B. 2002. A molecular phylogeny for the South African limbless lizard taxa of the subfamily Acontinae (Sauria: Scincidae) with special emphasis on relationships within Acontias. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 24: 315–323.
- DANIELS, S.R., HEIDEMAN, N.[J.L.], HENDRICKS, M.[G.J.], MOKONE, M.E. & CRANDALL, K.A. 2005. Unraveling evolutionary lineages in the limbless fossorial skink genus Acontias: are subspecies equivalent systematic units? *Molecular Phylo*genetics and Evolution 34: 645–654.
- DANIELS, S.R., HOFMEYR, M.D., HENEN, B.T. & BAARD, E.H.W. 2010. Systematics and phylogeography of a threatened tortoise, the speckled padloper. *Animal Conservation* 13: 237–246.
- DANIELS, S.R., HOFMEYR, M.D., HENEN, B.T. & CRANDALL, K.A. 2007. Living with the genetic signature of Miocene induced change: evidence from the phylogeographic structure of the endemic angulate tortoise *Chersina angulata*. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 45: 915–926.
- DANIELS, S.R., MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & DU TOIT, D.A. 2004. Molecular data suggest that melanistic ectotherms at the south-western tip of Africa are the products of Miocene climatic events: evidence from cordylid lizards. *Journal of Zoology, London* 263: 373–383.

- DA SILVA, J.M. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2013. Ecomorphological variation and sexual dimorphism in a recent radiation of dwarf chameleons (*Bradypodion*). *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 109: 113–130.
- DAWSON, P., ALEXANDER, G.J. & NICHOLLS, S. 1991. The rinkhals (*Hemachatus haemachatus*) a southern African venomous snake—housing, husbandry and maintenance. *Animal Technology* 42: 71–76.
- DE BUFFRÉNIL, V. & HÉMERY, G. 2007. Harvest of the Nile Monitor, Varanus niloticus, in Sahelian Africa. Part I: Impact of intensive harvest on local stocks. *Mertensiella* 16: 181–194.
- DE VILLLIERS, A.L. 2006. Geographical Distribution: Lygodactylus capensis capensis. African Herp News 40: 29–30.
- DE VILLIERS, M.S. & BURGER, M. 2008. The Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment: Win Some, Lose Some. *Threatened Species Newsletter (Aug 2008)*. SANBI, Pretoria.
- DE VILLIERS, M.S., BATES, M.F., BURGER, M., HARRISON, J.A. & NAVARRO, R. 2010. The Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment, 2005–2009. *African Herp News* 50: 10–13.
- DE VILLIERS, M.S., BURGER, M., HARRISON, J.A. & NAVAR-RO, R. 2008. Virtually First: An Online Museum of Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. 6th World Congress of Herpetology, 17–22 August 2008, Manaus.
- DE WAAL, S.W.P. 1978. The Squamata (Reptilia) of the Orange Free State, South Africa. *Memoirs van die Nasionale Museum, Bloemfontein* 11: 1–160.
- DE WITTE, G. 1953. *Reptiles. Exploration du Parc National de l'Upemba, Mission G.-F. de Witte, Fasc. 6.* 322pp. + pls. I– XLI, map. Institut des Parcs Nationaux du Congo Belge, Bruxelles.
- DIAMOND, A.W. 1976. Breeding biology and conservation of hawksbill turtles, *Eretmochelys imbricata* L. on Cousine Island, Seychelles. *Biology Conservation* 9: 119–215.
- DIAMOND, J.M. 1987. Did Komodo dragons evolve to eat pygmy elephants? *Nature* 326 (6116): 832.
- DICKERSON, L.M. 1939. The problem of wildlife destruction by automobile traffic. *Journal of Wildlife Management* 3: 104–116.
- DIXON, R., BOUWMAN, H., OSTHOFF, G., GOVENDER, D. & PIENAAR, D. 2010. Crocodile deaths in the Kruger National Park. The death of an ecosystem. www.sanparks.org/parks/ kruger/conservation/scientific/noticeboard/science_network_ meeting_2010/Presentations/DixonRD.pdf
- DOBIEY, M. & VOGEL, G. 2007. *Venomous Snakes of Africa.* Edition Chimaira, Frankfurt am Main.
- DOUGLAS, R.M. 1992a. Investigations into the Ecology of the Herpetofauna of Florisbad Research Station, Central Orange Free State, South Africa. M.Sc. thesis, University of Natal, Durban.
- DOUGLAS, R.M. 1992b. The genera *Bradypodion* and *Chamaeleo* in the Orange Free State, South Africa. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 40: 19–20.
- DREYER, W.A. 1935. The question of wildlife destruction by the automobile. *Science* 82: 439–440.
- DRIVER, A., MAZE, K., ROUGET, M., LOMBARD, A.T., NEL, J., TURPIE, J.K., COWLING, R.M., et al. 2005. National Spatial Biodiversity Assessment 2004: Priorities for Biodiversity Conservation in South Africa. Strelitzia 17, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- DUBOIS, A., CROCHET, P-A., DICKINSON, E.C., NEMÉSIO, A., AESCHT, E., BAUER, A.M., BLAGODEROV, V., et al. 2013. Nomenclatural and taxonomic problems related to the electronic publication of new nomina and nomenclatural acts in zoology, with brief comments on optical discs and on the situation in botany. *Zootaxa* 3735(1): 1–94.
- DUDLEY, S.F.J. & CLIFF, G. 1993. Some effects of shark nets in the Natal nearshore environment. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 36(3): 243–255.
- DUNHAM, K.M., GHIURGHI, A., CUMBI, R. & URBANO, F. 2010. Human-wildlife conflict in Mozambique: a national perspective, with emphasis on wildlife attacks on humans. *Oryx* 44(2): 185–193.
- DU PREEZ, L. 2007. *Why Grass Lizards Attempt to Flee from Fire.* Honours dissertation, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.
- DU TOIT, A., MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & FLEMMING, A.F. 2003. Aseasonal reproduction and high fecundity in the Cape grass

lizard, Cordylus anguinus, in a fire-prone habitat. Amphibia-Reptilia 24(4): 471–482.

- DU TOIT, D.A. & ALBLAS, A. 2003. Geographical distribution: Nucras livida. African Herp News 36: 15–16.
- DUTTON, P.H. 2006. Geographic variation in foraging strategies of leatherbacks: a hedge against catastrophe? In M. Frick, A. Panagopoulou, F. Rees & K. Williams (eds), Book of Abstracts. Twenty-sixth Annual Symposium on Sea Turtle Biology and Conservation International Sea Turtle Society: 189. Athens, Greece.
- DUTTON, P.H., BOWEN, B.W., OWENS, D.W., BARRAGAN, A. & DAVIS, S.K. 1999. Global phylogeography of the leatherback turtle (*Dermochelys coriacea*). *Journal of Zoology* 248: 397–409.
- DZEREFOS, C. 2004. Yesterday, today and tomorrow: The story of the Haenertsburg Grasslands of Limpopo. *Veld and Flora* 90(1): 18–19.
- EATON, M.J., MARTIN, A., THORBJARNARSON, J. & AMATO, G. 2009. Species-level diversification of African dwarf crocodiles (Genus Osteolaemus): a geographic and phylogenetic perspective. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 50: 496–506.
- EDWARDS, S. 2013. Patterns and processes of adaptation in lacertid lizards to environments in southern Africa. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.
- EDWARDS, S., VANHOOYDONCK, B., HERREL, A., MEASEY, G.J. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2012. Convergent Evolution Associated with Habitat Decouples Phenotype from Phylogeny in a Clade of Lizards. *PLoS One*: 7(12): e51636. doi: 10.1371/journal. pone.0051636.
- EDWARDS, S., BRANCH, W.R., VANHOOYDONCK, B., HERREL, A., MEASEY, G.J. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2013a. Taxonomic adjustments in the systematics of the southern African lacertid lizards (Sauria: Lacertidae). *Zootaxa* 3669(2): 101–114.
- EDWARDS, S., TOLLEY, K.A., VANHOOYDONCK, B., MEASEY, G.J. & HERREL, A. 2013b. Is dietary niche breadth linked to morphology and performance in Sandveld lizards *Nucras* (Sauria: Lacertidae)? *Biological Journal of the Linnean Socie*ty (doi: 10.1111/bij.12148).
- EIDENMÜLLER, B. & PHILIPPEN, H-D. 2008. Varanoid Lizards. Terralog 6, Edition Chimaria, Frankfurt am Main.
- ENGELBRECHT, H.M., MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & DANIELS, S.R. 2011. Are melanistic populations of the Karoo girdled lizard, *Karusasaurus polyzonus*, relics or ecotypes? A molecular investigation. *African Zoology* 46(1): 146–155.
- ENGELBRECHT, H.M., VAN NIEKERK, A., HEIDEMAN, N.J.L. & DANIELS, S.R. 2013. Tracking the impact of Pliocene/Pleistocene sea level and climatic oscillations on the cladogenesis of the Cape legless skink, Acontias meleagris species complex, in South Africa. Journal of Biogeography 40: 492–506.
- ENGLEDER, A., HARING, E., KIRCHHOF, S. & MAYER, W. 2013. Multiple nuclear and mitochondrial DNA sequences provide new insights into the phylogeny of South African Lacertids (Lacertidae, Eremiadinae). *Journal of Zoological Systematics* and Evolutionary Research 51(1): 1–12.
- ERASMUS, H. & BRANCH, W.R. 1983. Egg retention in the South African Blind Snake *Typhlops bibroni*. Journal of Herpetology 17 (1): 97–99.
- ESTES, R., DE QUEIROZ, K. & GAUTHIER, J. 1988. Phylogenetic relationships within Squamata. In R. Estes & G. Pregill (eds), *Phylogenetic Relationships of the Lizard Families: Essays Commemorating Charles L. Camp*: 119–281. Stanford University Press, Stanford.
- FA, J.E. & GRACÍA YUSTE, J.E. 2001. Commercial bushmeat hunting in the Monte Mitra forests, Equatorial Guinea: Extent and impact. *Animal Biodiversity and Conservation* 24(1): 31–52.
- FABRICIUS, C., PALMER, A.R. & BURGER, M. 2002. Landscape diversity in a conservation area and commercial and communal rangeland in xeric succulent thicket, South Africa. *Land-scape Ecology* 17: 531–537.
- FAO. 2006. Report of the Workshop on Assessing the Relative Importance of Sea Turtle Mortality due to Fisheries; Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania 25–28 April 2008. GCP/ INT/919/JPN Meeting Report No. 1, 1–58. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, Italy.
- FAO. 2009. Guidelines to reduce sea turtle mortality in fishing operations. Rome, FAO. Fisheries and Aquaculture Department.

- FELL, R. 2005. Aggregating Behaviour in Peers' Girdled Lizard, Cordylus peersi. M.Sc. thesis, University of York, York.
- FENG, G., WU, X., YAN, P. & LI, X. 2010. Two complete mitochondrial genes of and implications for crocodilians phylogeny. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 31: 299–309.
- FENNESY, S.T. & ISAKSEN, B. 2007. Can bycatch reduction devices be implemented successfully on prawn trawlers in the Western Indian Ocean? *African Journal of Marine Science* 29(3): 453–463.
- FERGUSSON, R.A. 2010. Wildlife survey phase 2 and management of human-wildlife conflicts in Mozambique. Final Report for Agreco: Part 3—Survey of Crocodile Populations in Mozambique—2010. Executive summary.
- FERREIRA, S.M. & PIENAAR, D. 2011. The degradation of the crocodile population in the Olifants River Gorge of Kruger National Park, South Africa. *Aquatic Conservation: Marine and Freshwater Ecosystems* 21: 155–164.
- FITTER, R. & FITTER, M. (eds). 1987. The Road to Extinction: Problems of Categorizing the Status of Taxa Threatened with Extinction. IUCN and UNEP, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1935a. Scientific results of the Vernay-Lang Kalahari Expedition, March to September, 1930. Reptilia and Amphibia. Annals of the Transvaal Museum 16(2): 295–397.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1935b. Notes on a collection of reptiles and amphibians made in the southern Kalahari, Bushmanland and Great and Little Namaqualand. *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 15: 519–550.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1938. Transvaal Museum expedition to South-West Africa and Little Namaqualand, May to August 1937. Reptiles and amphibians. *Annals of the Transvaal Mu*seum 19: 153–209.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1941. Descriptions of some new lizards from South Africa and a frog from southern Rhodesia. Annals of the Transvaal Museum 20: 273–281.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1943. The lizards of South Africa. *Memoirs* of the Transvaal Museum 1: i–xv, 1–528.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1946. An account of the reptiles and amphibians collected on an expedition to the Cape Province, October to December, 1940. *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 20: 351–377.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1947. Descriptions of new species and subspecies of reptiles and amphibians from Natal, together with notes on some other little known species. *Annals of the Natal Museum* 11: 111–140.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1959. Some new reptiles from southern Africa and southern Angola. *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 23: 405–409.
- FITZSIMONS, V.F.M. 1962. Snakes of Southern Africa. Purnell & Sons, Cape Town.
- FLEMMING, A.F. 1993a. The female reproductive cycle of the viviparous lizard *Pseudocordylus m. melanotus* (Sauria: Cordylidae). *Journal of Herpetology* 27(1): 103–107.
- FLEMMING, A.F. 1993b. The male reproductive cycle of the lizard *Pseudocordylus m. melanotus* (Sauria: Cordylidae). *Journal of Herpetology* 27(4): 473–478.
- FLEMMING, A.F. 1994. Male and female reproductive cycles of the viviparous lizard, *Mabuya capensis* (Sauria: Scincidae) from South Africa. *Journal of Herpetology* 28: 334–341.
- FLEMMING, A.F. 1996. An Analysis of the Agama atra Complex (Reptilia: Agamidae) in Namaqualand and Southern Namibia. Ph.D. thesis, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.
- FLEMMING, A.F. & MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 2002. Reproduction in a group-living lizard from South Africa. *Journal of Herpetology* 36: 691–696.
- FRANKE, J. & TELECKY, T.M. 2001. *Reptiles as pets. An examination of the trade in live reptiles in the United States.* The Humane Society of the United States.
- FRAZIER, J. 1975. Marine turtles of the Western Indian Ocean. Oryx 13(2): 164–175.
- FRAZIER, J. 1980. Exploitation of marine turtles in the Indian Ocean. *Human Ecology* 8(4): 329–370.
- FRAZIER, J. 1985. *Marine Turtles in the Comoro Archipelago*. North Holland Publishing, Amsterdam.
- FRITZ, U. & BININDA-EMONDS, O.R.P. 2007. When genes meet nomenclature: tortoise phylogeny and the shifting genetic concepts of *Testudo* and *Geochelone*. *Zoology* 110: 298–307.

- FRITZ, U. & HAVAŠ, P. 2007. Checklist of chelonians of the world. Vertebrate Zoology 57(2): 148–368.
- FRITZ, U., BRANCH, W.R., HOFMEYR, M., MARAN, J., PROKOP, H., SCHLEICHER, A., ŠIROKÝ, P. et al. 2011. Molecular phylogeny of African hinged and helmeted terrapins (Testudines: Pelomedusidae: *Pelusios* and *Pelomedusa*). *Zoologica Scripta* 40: 115–125.
- FRITZ, U., DANIELS, S.R., HOFMEYR, M.D., GONZÁLEZ, J., BARRIO-AMORÓS, C.L., ŠIROKY, P., HUNDSDÖRFER, A.K. & STUCKAS, H. 2010. Mitochondrial phylogeography and subspecies of the wide-ranging, sub-Saharan leopard tortoise *Stigmochelys pardalis* (Testudines: Testudinidae)—a case study for the pitfalls of pseudogenes and GenBank sequences. *Journal of Zoological Systematics and Evolutionary Research* 48: 348–359.
- FROST D.R. & HILLIS, D.M. 1990. Species in concept and practice: Herpetological applications. *Herpetologica* 46: 87–104.
- FROST, D., JANIES, D., MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & TITUS, T. 2001. A molecular perspective on the phylogeny of the girdled lizards (Cordylidae, Squamata). *American Museum Novitates* 3310: 1–10.
- FROST, D.E. & ETHERIDGE, R.E. 1989. A phylogenetic analysis and taxonomy of iguanian lizards (Reptilia: Squamata). University of Kansas Museum of Natural History, Miscellaneous Publications 81: 1–65.
- FRY, B.G., SCHEIB, H., VAN DE WEERD, L., YOUNG, B., MC-NAUGHTAN, J., RYAN RAMJAN, S.F., VIDAL, N., et al. 2008. Evolution of an arsenal: structural and functional diversification of the venom system in the advanced snakes. *Molecular* and Cellular Proteomics 7: 215–246.
- FRY, B.G., VIDAL, N., NORMAN, J.A., VONK, F.J., SCHEIB, H., RAMJAN, S.F.R., KURUPPU, S., et al. 2006. Early evolution of the venom system in lizards and snakes. *Nature* 439: 584–588.
- FRY, B.G., WROE, S., TEEUWISSE, W., VAN OSCH, J.P., MORENO, K., INGLE, J., MCHENRY, C., et al. 2009. A central role for venom in predation by Varanus komodoensis (Komodo dragon) and the extinct giant Varanus (Megalania) priscus. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA 106(22): 8969–8974.
- FRY, B.G., WÜSTER, W., RAMJAN, S.F.R., JACKSON, T., MAR-TELLI, P. & KINI, R.M. 2003. Analysis of Colubroidea snake venoms by liquid chromatography with mass spectrometry: evolutionary and toxinological implications. *Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry* 17: 2047–2062.
- FUHN, I.E. 1969. Revision and redefinition of the genus *Ablepharus* Lichtenstein, 1823 (Reptilia, Scincidae). *Revue Roumaine de Biologie (Zoologie)* 14: 23–41.
- GAFFNEY, E. 1991. The fossil turtles of Australia. In P. Vickers-Rich, J. Monaghan, R. Baird, R. & T.H. Rich (eds), *Vertebrate Paleontology of Australia*: 704–720. Pioneer Design Studio, Lilvdale.
- GAMBLE, T., BAUER, A.M., GREENBAUM, E. & JACKMAN, T.R. 2008a. Evidence for Gondwanan vicariance in an ancient clade of gecko lizards. *Journal of Biogeography* 35: 88–104.
- GAMBLE, T., BAUER, A.M., GREENBAUM, E. & JACKMAN, T.R. 2008b. Out of the blue: A novel, trans-Atlantic clade of geckos (Gekkota, Squamata). Zoologica Scripta 37(4): 355–366.
- GANS, C. 1959. A Taxonomic revision of the African Snake Genus *Dasypeltis* (Reptila : Serpentes). *Annales du Musée Royal du Congo Belge*, Ser. 8, 74: 1–237.
- GANS, C. 1974. *Biomechanics.* University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
- GANS, C. 2005. Checklist and bibliography of the amphisbaenia of the world. *Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History* 289: 1–130.
- GARBER, S.D. & BURGER J. 1995. A 20-yr study documenting the relationship between turtle decline and human recreation. *Ecological Applications* 5(4): 1151–1162.
- GÄRDENFORS, U., HILTON-TAYLOR, C., MACE, G. & RODRIGU-EZ, J.P. 2001. The application of IUCN Red List criteria at regional levels. *Conservation Biology* 15(5): 1206–1212.
- GARNER, T. & PEARMAN, P. 2001. Reduced genetic diversity in Swiss populations of the Italian Agile Frog, *Rana latastei*. *FrogLog* 46: 3.
- GELDENHUYS, C.J. 1994. Bergwind fires and the location pattern of forest patches in the southern Cape landscape, South Africa. *Journal of Biogeography* 21: 49–62.

- GELDENHUYS, C.J. 2000. Assessment of State Forests Managed by Provincal Authorities: KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Services. Report Number FW-02/00, Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, Pretoria.
- GERLACH, J. 2001. Tortoise phylogeny and the 'Geochelone' problem. Phelsuma 9(A): 1–24.
- GIBBONS, J.W., SCOTT, D.E., RYAN, T.J., BUHLMANN, K.A., TUBERVILLE, T.D., METTS, B.S., GREENE, J.L., et al. 2000. The global decline of reptiles, déjá vu amphibians. Bioscience 50: 653–666.
- GIOVANNOTTIA, M., CAPUTOB, V., O'BRIENA, P.C.M., LOVEL-LA, F.L., TRIFONOVA, V., NISI CERIONIB, P., OLMO, E., et al. 2010. Skinks (Reptilia: Scincidae) have highly conserved karyotypes as revealed by chromosome painting. Cytogenetic and Genome Research 127: 224–231.
- GLAW, F. & VENCES, M. 2007. A Field Guide to the Amphibians and Reptiles of Madagascar. Third Edition. Vences & Glaw Verlag, Cologne.
- GLOBAL INVASIVE SPECIES DATABASE. 2010. www.issg.org/ database/species/search.asp.
- GOEDBLOED, D. & CUNNINGHAM, M. 2006. Distribution and phylogeography of *Pseudocordylus langi*, a montane endemic lizard from the Drakensberg Mountains. In *Programme & Ab*stracts of the 8th Herpetological Association of Africa Symposium, 24–27 November 2006: 48. North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa.
- GOOD, D.A. & BAUER, A.M. 1995. The Namaqua day gecko revisited: allozyme evidence for the affinities of *Phelsuma ocellata*. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 44: 1–9.
- GOOD, D.A., BAUER, A.M. & BRANCH, W.R. 1996. A new species of *Phyllodactylus* (Squamata: Gekkonidae) from the Karoo National Park, South Africa. *African Journal of Herpetol*ogy 45(2): 49–58.
- GOODE, E.V., FOLEY, K.E. & BAARD, E.H.W. 2012. The Geometric Tortoise: Quietly 'Slipping' into Extinction. *The Tortoise* 1(1): 40–49.
- GRAVLUND, P. 2001. Radiation within the advanced snakes (Caenophidia) with special emphasis on African opistoglyph colubrids, based on mitochondrial sequence data. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 72: 99–114.
- GREEN, B. & KING, D. 1993. Goanna. The Biology of Varanid Lizards. Australian Natural History Series. New South Wales University Press, Kensington, Australia.
- GREENBAUM, E., BAUER, A.M. & JACKMAN, T.R. 2007. Homopholis and Blaesodactylus (Squamata: Gekkonidae) revisited: New insights from a molecular phylogeny. African Journal of Herpetology 56: 101–114.
- GREENBAUM, E., STANLEY, E.L., KUSAMBA, C., MONINGA, W.M., GOLDBERG, S.R. & BURSEY, C.R. 2012. A new species of *Cordylus* (Squamata: Cordylidae) from the Marungu Plateau of south-eastern Democratic Republic of the Congo. *African Journal of Herpetology* 61(1): 14–39.
- GREER, A.E. 1970. A subfamilial classification of scincid lizards. Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology 139: 151–183.
- GREER, A.E. 1974. The generic relationships of the scincid lizard genus *Leiolopisma* and its relatives. *Australian Journal of Zoology*, *Supplemetary Series* 31: 1–67.
- GREER, A.E. 1991. Limb reduction in squamates: identification of the lineages and discussion of the trends. *Journal of Herpetology* 25: 166–173.
- GREIG, J.C. & BURDETT, P.D. 1976. Patterns in the distribution of southern African terrestrial tortoises (Cryptodira: Testudinidae). Zoologica Africana 11(2): 249–273.
- GRIFFIN, M. 2003. Annotated Checklist and Provisional National Conservation Status of Namibian Reptiles. Namibia Scientific Society, Windhoek.
- GROOMBRIDGE, B. 1994. IUCN Red List of Threatened Animals. IUCN, Gland.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1969. The call of the barking geckos. Scientific Papers of the Namib Desert Research Station 46: 83–93.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1975. The burrowing geckos of southern Africa, 1 (Reptilia: Gekkonidae). *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 29(12):197–243, pls 10 & 11.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1976a. The burrowing geckos of southern Africa, 5 (Reptilia: Gekkonidae). *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 30: 71–89.

- HAACKE, W.D. 1976b. The burrowing geckos of southern Africa, 4 (Reptilia: Gekkonidae). *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 30: 53–70.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1976c. The burrowing geckos of southern Africa, 3 (Reptilia: Gekkonidae). *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 30: 29–39.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1976d. The burrowing geckos of southern Africa, 2 (Reptilia: Gekkonidae). *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 30: 13–28.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1982. Further notes on reproduction and distribution of the Natal purple-glossed snake *Amblyodipsas concolor* (A.Smith). *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 28: 24–25.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1984. The herpetology of the southern Kalahari domain. In Proc. Symp. Kalahari Ecosystems. *Koedoe* (Suppl.) 1984: 171–186.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1986. Description of a new species of *Typhlosaurus* Wiegmann, 1834 (Reptilia: Scincidae) from the west coast of southern Africa, with new records of related species. *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 34: 227–235.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1988a. *Typhlosaurus lomii*: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), *South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians*: 146–147. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1988b. *Cryptoblepharus boutonii africanus*: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), *South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians*: 75–77. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- HAACKE, W.D. 1996. Description of a new species of *Phyllo-dactylus* Gray (Reptilia: Gekkonidae) from the Cape Fold Mountains, South Africa. *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 36: 229–237.
- HAACKE, W.D. 2002. Variation in population size of Bouton's snake-eyed skink (Reptilia: Scincidae) at Black Rock in northern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Koedoe* 45(1): 93–100.
- HAACKE, W.D. 2008. A new leaf-toed gecko (Reptilia: Gekkonidae) from south-western Angola. African Journal of Herpetology 57(2): 85–92.
- HAAGNER, G., BRANCH, W.R. & HAAGNER, A. 2000. Notes on a collection of reptiles from Zambia and adjacent areas of the Democratic Republic of the Congo. *Annals of the Eastern Cape Museums* 1: 1–25.
- HAAGNER, G.V. 1990. Life history notes: Dispholidus typus typus Boomslang. Ophiophagy. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 37: 47.
- HAAGNER, G.V. 1994. Geographical distribution: *Amblyodipsas* concolor. *African Herp News* 21: 26.
- HAAGNER, G.V. & BRANCH, W.R. 1994. A taxonomic revision of the dusky-bellied water snake, *Lycodonomorphus laevissimus* (Serpentes: Colubridae). *Journal of African Zoology* 108: 237–250.
- HAHN, D.E. 1980. Liste der rezenten Amphibien und Reptilien. Anomalepididae, Leptotyphlopidae, Typhlopidae. Das Tierreich 101: 1–93.
- HAILEY, A., CHIDAVAENZI, R.L. & LOVERIDGE, J.P. 1998. Diet mixing in the omnivorous tortoise *Kinixys spekii*. *Functional Ecology* 12: 373–385.
- HALKETT, D., HART, T., YATES, R., VOLMAN, T.P., PARKING-TON, J.E., ORTON, J., KLEIN, R.G., et al. 2003. First excavation of intact Middle Stone Age layers at Ysterfontein, Western Cape Province, South Africa: Implications for Middle Stone Age ecology. Journal of Archaeological Science 30: 955–971.
- HAMANN, M., LIMPUS, C., HUGHES, G., MORTIMER, J. & PILCHER, N. 2006. Assessment of the Conservation Status of the Leatherback Turtle in the Indian Ocean and South East Asia. IOSEA Marine Turtle MoU Secretariat, Bangkok.
- HAN, D., ZHOU, K. & BAUER, A.M. 2004. Phylogenetic relationships among the higher taxonomic categories of gekkotan lizards inferred from C-mos nuclear DNA sequences and a new classification of the Gekkota. *Biological Journal of the Linnaean Society* 83: 353–368.
- HANSEN, M.C., STEHMAN, S.V. & POTAPOV, P.V. 2010. Quantification of global gross forest cover loss. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA* 107(19): 8650– 8655.
- HARRIS, D.J., ARNOLD, E.N. & THOMAS, R.H. 1998. Relationships of lacertid lizards (Reptilia: Lacertidae) estimated from

mitochondrial DNA sequences and morphology. *Proceedings* of the Royal Society of London B 265: 1939–1948.

- HARRIS, D.J., MARSHALL, J.C. & CRANDALL, K.A. 2001. Squamate relationships based on C-mos nuclear DNA sequences: Increased taxon sampling improves bootstrap support. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 22: 235–242.
- HARRISON, J.A. & BURGER, M. (eds). 1998. Frogs and Frog Atlasing in Southern Africa. ADU Guide 4. Animal Demography Unit, Cape Town.
- HARRISON, J.A., BURGER, M., MINTER, L.R., DE VILLIERS, A.L., BAARD, E.H.W., SCOTT, E., BISHOP, P.J., et al. 2001. Conservation Assessment and Management Plan for Southern African Frogs. Final Report. IUCN/SSC Conservation Breeding Specialist Group, Apple Valley.
- HARVEY, M.B., BARKER, D.G., AMMERMAN, L.K. & CHIPPIN-DALE, P.T. 2000. Systematics of pythons of the *Morelia amethistina* complex (Serpentes: Boidae) with the description of three new species. *Herpetological Monographs* 14: 139–185.
- HAYWARD, J. & MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 2007. Group location in the group-living lizard, *Cordylus cataphractus*: The significance of occupancy and a group signal. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 28: 329–335.
- HEDGES, S.B. 2008. At the lower limit of size in snakes: Two new species of threadsnakes (Squamata: Leptotyphlopidae: Leptotyphlops) from the Lesser Antilles. Zootaxa 1841: 1–30.
- HEDGES, S.B. & KUMAR, S. (eds). 2009. *The Timetree of Life.* Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- HEDGES, S.B. & VIDAL, N. 2009. Lizards, snakes, and amphisbaenians (Squamata). In S.B. Hedges & S. Kumar (eds), *The Timetree of Life*: 383–389. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- HEINZ, H.M. 2011. Comparative phylogeography of two widespread geckos from the typically narrow-ranging Pachydactylus group in southern Africa. M.Sc. dissertation, Villanova University, Villanova.
- HEKKALA, E.R., AMATO, G., DESALLE, R. & BLUM, M.J. 2010. Molecular assessment of population differentiation and individual assignment potential of Nile crocodile (*Crocodylus niloticus*) populations. *Conservation Genetics* 11: 1435–1443.
- HENEN, B.T., HOFMEYR, M.D., BALSAMO, R.A. & WEITZ, F.M. 2005. Lessons from the food choices of the endangered geometric tortoise *Psammobates geometricus*. South African Journal of Science 101: 435–438.
- HERMANN, H-W. & JOGER, U. 1997. Evolution of viperine snakes. In R. Thorpe, W. Wüster & A. Malhotra (eds), *Venom*ous Snakes: Ecology, Evolution and Snakebite: 43–61. Oxford University Press, London.
- HERSELMAN, Y.M. 1991. A Revision of the Taxonomic Status of Pseudocordylus capensis (Reptilia: Cordylidae). M.Sc. thesis, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.
- HERSELMAN, Y.M., MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN WYK, J.H. 1992. The status of the races of the graceful crag lizard, *Pseudocordylus capensis*, from South Africa. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 13(2): 109–119.
- HEWITT, J. 1925. On some new species of reptiles and amphibians from South Africa. *Records of the Albany Museum* 3: 343–368, xv–xix.
- HEWITT, J. 1926. Some new or little-known reptiles and batrachians from South Africa. *Annals of the South African Museum* 20: 473–490.
- HEWITT, J. 1927. Further descriptions of reptiles and batrachians from South Africa. *Records of the Albany Museum* 3: 371–415.
- HEWITT, J. 1931. Descriptions of some African tortoises. *Annals of the Natal Museum* 6: 461–506.
- HEWITT, J. 1933. On the Cape species and subspecies of the genus *Chersinella* Gray. Part I. *Annals of the Natal Museum* 7(2): 255–297.
- HEWITT, J. 1934. On the Cape species and subspecies of the genus *Chersinella* Gray. Part II. *Annals of the Natal Museum* 7(3): 303–352.
- HEWITT, J. 1935. Some new forms of batrachians and reptiles from South Africa. *Records of the Albany Museum* 4: 283– 357.
- HEWITT, J. 1937a. A Guide to the Vertebrate Fauna of the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa. Part II. Reptiles, Amphibians and Freshwater Fishes. Albany Museum, Grahamstown.

- HEWITT, J. 1937b. A note on the relationships of the Cape genera of land tortoises. *South African Journal of Science* 33: 788–796.
- HEWITT, J. 1937c. Descriptions of South African lizards. *Annals of the Natal Museum* 8(2): 199–209.
- HEWITT, J. & METHUEN, P.A. 1913. Descriptions of some new Batrachia and Lacertilia from South Africa. *Transactions of the Royal Society of South Africa* 3: 107–111.
- HEYING, H. 2003. Family Agamidae. Animal Diversity Web (University of Michigan Museum of Zoology). http://animaldiversity.ummz.umich.edu/site/accounts/information/Agamidae. html.
- HIBBITTS, T.J., WHITING, M.J. & STUART-FOX, D.M. 2007. Shouting the odds: vocalization signals status in a lizard. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 61: 1169–1176.
- HILTON-TAYLOR, C. 2000. 2000 IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. IUCN Species Survival Commission, Cambridge.
- HIPSLEY, C.A., HIMMELMANN, L., METZLER, D. & MÜLLER, J. 2011. Integration of Bayesian molecular clock methods and fossil based soft-bounds reveals an early Cenozoic origin of African lacertid lizards. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 9: 151.
- HIRTH, H. & CARR, A. 1970. *The Green Turtle in the Gulf of Aden and the Seychelles Islands.* North-Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam.
- HIRTH, H.F. 1969. *Marine Turtles in the Seychelles and Aldabra* (*British Indian Ocean Territory*). Proceedings of the Working Meeting of Marine Turtle Specialists, IUCN, Morges.
- HIRTH, H.F. 1997. Synopsis of the Biological Data on the Green Turtle, *Chelonia mydas* (Linnaeus 1758). US Fish & Wildlife Service Biological Report 97(1): 1–120.
- HITCHINGS, S.P. & BEEBEE, T.J.C. 1997. Genetic substructuring as a result of barriers to gene flow in urban *Rana temporaria* (common frog) populations: implications for biodiversity conservation. *Heredity* 79: 117–127.
- HITCHINS, P.M., BOURQUIN, O. & HITCHINS, S. 2004. Nesting success of hawksbill turtles (*Eretmochelys imbricata*) on Cousine Island, Seychelles. *Journal of Zoology, London* 264: 383–389.
- HOARE, D.B., MUCINA, L., RUTHERFORD, M.C., VLOK, J.H.J., EUSTON-BROWN, D.I.W., PALMER, A.R., POWRIE, L.W., et al. 2006. Albany Thicket Biome. In L. Mucina & M.C. Rutherford (eds), *The Vegetation of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland*: 541–567. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- HOFFMAN, D. & VAN DER BANK, H. 2001. Geographical distribution: *Pelusios subniger subniger*. *African Herp News* 32: 24.
- HOFFMAN, T.S. & O'RIAIN, M.J. 2011. The spatial ecology of Chacma baboons (*Papio ursinus*) in a human-modified environment. *International Journal of Primatology* 32: 308–328.
- HOFFMANN, M., HILTON-TAYLOR, C., ANGULO, A., BOHM, M., BROOKS, T.M., BUTCHART, S.H.M., CARPENTER, K.E., et al. 2010. The impact of conservation on the status of the world's vertebrates. Science 330 (6010): 1503–1509.
- HOFMEYR, M.D. 2004. Egg production in *Chersina angulata*: an unusual pattern in a Mediterranean climate. *Journal of Herpetology* 38: 172–179.
- HOFMEYR, M.D. 2009. Chersina angulata (Schweigger 1812) angulate tortoise, South African bowsprit tortoise. In A.G.J. Rhodin, P.C.H. Pritchard, P.P. van Dijk, R.A. Saumure, K.A. Buhlmann, J.B. Iverson & R.A. Mittermeier (eds.), Conservation Biology of Freshwater Turtles and Tortoises: A Compilation Project of the IUCN/SSC Tortoise and Freshwater Turtle Specialist Group: 030.1–030.6. Chelonian Research Monographs No. 5, www.iucn-tftsg.org/cbftt/.
- HOFMEYR, M.D., HENEN, B.T. & BAARD, E.H.W. 2006. Conservation action plan for the Endangered geometric tortoise. *Chelonii* 4: 101–105.
- HOFMEYR, M.D., HENEN, B.T. & LOEHR, V.J.T. 2005. Overcoming environmental and morphological constraints: Egg size and pelvic kinesis in the smallest tortoise, *Homopus signatus*. *Canadian Journal of Zoology, London* 83: 1343–1352.
- HOLMES, R.B., MURRAY, A.M., ATTIA, Y.S., SIMONS, E.L. & CHATRATH, P. 2010. Oldest known Varanus (Squamata: Varanidae) from the Upper Eocene and Lower Oligocene of Egypt: Support for an African origin of the genus. *Palaeontol*ogy 53(5): 1099–1110.

- HONDA, M., OTA, H., KOBAYASHI, M., NABHITABHATA, J., YONG, H.S. & HIKIDA, T. 2000. Phylogenetic relationships, character evolution, and biogeography of the subfamily Lygosominae (Reptilia: Scincidae) inferred from mitochondrial DNA sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 15: 452–461.
- HOOGMOED, M.S. & CRUMLY, C.R. 1984. Land tortoise types in the Rijksmuseum van Natuurlijke Historie with comments on nomenclature and systematics (Reptilia: Testudines: Testudinidae). Zoologishe Mededelingen 58(15): 241–259.
- HOPKINS, K.P. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2011. Morphological variation in the Cape Dwarf Chameleon (*Bradypodion pumilum*) as a consequence of spatially explicit habitat structure differences. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 102: 878–888.
- HORNER, P. 2007. Systematics of the snake-eyed skinks, Cryptoblepharus Wiegmann (Reptilia: Squamata: Scincidae)—an Australian based review. The Beagle (Supplement) 3: 21– 198.
- HOSER, R. 2009. A reclassification of the true cobras; species formerly referred to the genera *Naja*, *Boulengerina* and *Paranaja*. *Australasian Journal of Herpetology* 7: 1–15.
- HOUGHTON, J.D.R., DOYLE, T.K., WILSON, M.W., DAVENPORT, J. & HAYS, G.C. 2006. Jellyfish aggregations and leatherback turtle foraging patterns in a temperate coastal environment. *Ecology* 87(8): 1967–1972.
- HOULAHAN, J.E., FINDLAY, C.S., SCHMIDT, B.R., MEYER, A.H. & KUZMIN, S.L. 2000. Quantitative evidence for global amphibian population declines. *Nature* 404: 752–755.
- HOUNIET, D.T., THUILLER, W. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2009. Potential effects of predicted climate change on the endemic South African dwarf chameleons, *Bradypodion. African Journal of Herpetology* 59: 28–35.
- HUEY, R.B. & PIANKA, E.R. 1977a. Natural selection for juvenile lizards mimicking noxious beetles. *Science* 195(4274): 201–203.
- HUEY, R.B. & PIANKA, E.R. 1977b. Patterns of niche overlap among broadly sympatric versus narrowly sympatric Kalahari lizards (Scincidae: *Mabuya*). *Ecology* 58: 119–128.
- HUEY, R.B., PIANKA, E.R., EGAN, M.E. & COONS, L.W. 1974. Ecological shifts in sympatry: Kalahari fossorial lizards (*Typhlosaurus*). *Ecology* 55: 304–316.
- HUGHES, B. 1985: Progress on a taxonomic revision of African green tree snakes (*Philothamnus* spp.). In Schuchmann, K.L. (ed.). Proceedings of the International Symposium on African Vertebrates. ZFMK, Bonn.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1971. Sea turtle research and conservation in South East Africa. *IUCN Publications New Series Supplementary Papers* 20: 56–66.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1972. The olive ridley sea-turtle (*Lepidochelys olivacea*) in South-east Africa. *Biological Conservation* 4: 128–134.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1974a. The Sea Turtles of South-East Africa. I. Status, Morphology and Distributions. Investigational Report 35. Oceanographic Research Institute, Durban, South Africa.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1974b. The Sea Turtles of South-East Africa. II. The Biology of the Tongaland Loggerhead Turtle Caretta caretta L. with comments on the Leatherback Turtle Dermochelys coriacea L. and the Green Turtle Chelonia midas L. in the study region. Investigational Report 37. Oceanographic Research Institute, Durban.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1974c. *The Sea Turtles of South East Africa*. Ph.D. thesis, University of Natal, Durban.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1976. Sea Turtles in South East Africa. Proceedings of the Symposium on Endangered Wildlife in Southern Africa. University of Pretoria, Pretoria.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1978. Marine Turtles. In A.E.F. Heydorn (ed.), Ecology of the Agulhas Current region: An assessment of biological responses to environmental parameters in the southwest Indian Ocean. *Transactions of the Royal Society of South Africa* 43(2): 151–190.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1980. Sea Turtles: A Guide. Natal Parks Board, Pietermaritzburg.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1989. Sea turtles. In D. Pelletier & R.J.M. Crawford (eds), *Oceans of Life off Southern Africa*: 230–243. Vlaeberg, Cape Town.
- HUGHES, G.R. 1996. Nesting of the leatherback turtle (Dermochelys coriacea) in Tongaland, KwaZulu-Natal, South Af-

rica, 1963–1995. Chelonian Conservation and Biology 2(2): 153–158.

- HUGHES, G.R. 2010. Loggerheads and leatherbacks in the western Indian Ocean. Indian Ocean Turtle Newsletter 11: 24–31.
- HUGHES, G.R. & MENTIS, M.T. 1967. Further studies on marine turtles in Tongaland II. *Lammergeyer* 7: 55–72.
- HUGHES, G.R., LUSCHI, P., MENCACCI, R. & PAPI, F. 1998. The 7000-km oceanic journey of a leatherback turtle tracked by satellite. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 229: 209–217.
- ICZN (INTERNATIONAL COMMISSION ON ZOOLOGICAL NO-MENCLATURE). 1999. International Code of Zoological Nomenclature, Fourth Edition. International Trust for Zoological Nomenclature, London.
- ICZN (INTERNATIONAL COMMISSION ON ZOOLOGICAL NO-MENCLATURE). 2005. Opinion 2104 (Case 3226). Lacepède, B.G.É. de la V., 1788, Histoire Naturelle des Quadrupèdes Ovipares: rejected as a non-binominal work. Bulletin of Zoological Nomenclature 62(1): 55.
- IOSEA. 2009. Online Reporting Facility IOSEA MoU. www.ioseaturtles.org/report.php.
- ISMAIL, M., AL-AHAIDIB, M.S., ABDOON, N. & ABD-ELSALAM, M.A. 2007. Preparation of a novel antivenom against Atractaspis and Walterinnesia venoms. Toxicon 49(1): 8–18.
- IUCN. 1996. 1996 IUCN Red List of Threatened Animals. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- IUCN. 2001. IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria. Version 3.1. IUCN Species Survival Commission. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- IUCN. 2003. Guidelines for Application of IUCN Red List Criteria at Regional Levels: Version 3.0. IUCN Species Survival Commission, IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- IUCN. 2008. Guidelines for Using the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria, Version 7.0 (August 2008). IUCN Species Survival Commission, IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- IUCN. 2009. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, 2009. www.iucnredlist.org/.
- IUCN. 2010a. Nature's backbone at risk. www.iucn.org/about/ work/programmes/species/news_events/?6333/Natures-backbone-at-risk.
- IUCN. 2010b. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, 2010.4. www.iucnredlist.org/.
- IUCN. 2012a. IUCN Red List of Categories and Criteria: Version 3.1. Second edition. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- IUCN. 2012b. Guidelines for Application of IUCN Red List Criteria at Regional and National Levels: Version 4.0. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- IUCN STANDARDS AND PETITIONS SUBCOMMITTEE. 2010. Guidelines for Using the IUCN Red List categories and Criteria. Version 8.1. Prepared by the Standards and Petitions Subcommittee in August 2010, http://www.iucnredlist.org/ documents/RedListGuidelines.pdf.
- IVERSON, J.B. 1992. A Revised Checklist with Distribution Maps of the Turtles of the World. Iverson Publishers, Richmond.
- JACKSON, J.C. 2007. Reproduction in Dwarf Chameleons (Bradypodion) with particular reference to B. pumilum occurring in Fire-prone Fynbos Habitat. Ph.D. thesis, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1984. A new subspecies of *Chirindia langi* (Reptilia: Amphisbaenia) from southern Africa, with notes on the ecology of the species. *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 33: 391–398.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1986. A new subspecies of Amblyodipsas microphthalma (Bianconi, 1850) (Serpentes: Colubridae) from the Transvaal. Annals of the Transvaal Museum 34(5): 123–127.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1987a. A new subspecies of *Typhlosaurus lineatus* Boulenger 1887 (Reptilia: Scincidae) from Venda, southern Africa. South African Journal of Zoology 22: 318– 320.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1987b. A new subspecies of Scelotes limpopoensis FitzSimons, 1930 (Sauria: Scincidae), with notes on the distribution of the genus Scelotes in the Transvaal. Annals of the Transvaal Musuem 34: 371–376.

- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988a. Afroedura pondolia multiporis: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 138–139. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988b. Lygodactylus methueni: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book— Reptiles and Amphibians: 73–74. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988c. Lacerta rupicola: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 159–160. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBŠEN, N.H.G. 1988d. Nucras caesicaudata: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book— Reptiles and Amphibians: 200–201. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988e. Platysaurus relictus: species account. In W.R. Branch, W.R. (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 166–167. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988f. Tetradactylus eastwoodae: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 23–24. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988g. Tetradactylus breyeri: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book— Reptiles and Amphibians: 107–108. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988h. Typhlosaurus lineatus richardi: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 147–148. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 51. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988i. Acontophiops lineatus: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book— Reptiles and Amphibians: 150–151. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1988j. Amblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalma: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 184– 185. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1989. The Distribution and Conservation Status of Reptiles and Amphibians in the Transvaal. Final Report Project TN 6/4/1/30. Chief Directorate of Nature and Environmental Conservation, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1992a. New *Lygodactylus* taxa (Reptilia: Gekkonidae) from the Transvaal. *Bonner Zoologische Beiträge* 43: 527–542.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1992b. Flat geckos (genus Afroedura) in the Transvaal. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 40: 22–25.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1992c. The status of Agama aculeata armata Peters 1854, (Reptilia: Agamidae). Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 41: 30–34.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1994a. The *Platysaurus intermedius* complex (Sauria: Cordylidae) in the Transvaal, South Africa, with descriptions of three new taxa. *South African Journal of Zool*ogy 29(2): 132–143.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1994b. A new subspecies of Lygodactylus ocellatus (Roux) (Lacertilia: Gekkonidae) from the Soutpansberg, South Africa. Journal of African Zoology 108: 231–236.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1995. Chamaesaura macrolepis macrolepis: Geographical distribution. African Herp News 23: 48.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 2005. *Remarkable Reptiles of South Africa.* Briza, Pretoria.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 2011. The distribution of Lygodactylus bradfieldi Hewitt 1932 in Limpopo Province, South Africa. African Herp News 53: 21–27.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 2012. Geographical Distribution: Lygodactylus capensis capensis. African Herp News 56: 37–38.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. & BROADLEY, D.G. 2000. A new species of *Panaspis* Cope (Reptilia: Scincidae) from southern Africa. *African Journal of Herpetology* 49(1): 61–71.
- JACOBSEN, N.H.G. & NEWBERY, R.E. 1989. The genus Platysaurus A. Smith 1844 in the Transvaal. Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa 36: 51–63.

- JACOBSEN, N.H.G., PIETERSEN, E.W. & PIETERSEN, D.W. 2010. A preliminary herpetological survey of the Vilanculos Coastal Wildlife Sanctuary on the San Sebastian Peninsula, Vilankulo, Mozambique. *Herpetology Notes* 3: 181–193.
- JANECEK, J. 1976. An exceptionally lathe puff adder brood, *Bi-tis arietans* at Dvur Kralove Zoo. *International Zoo Yearbook* 16: 85–86.
- JANKE, A., GULLBERG, A., HUGHES, S., AGGARWAL, R.K. & ARNASON, U. 2005. Mitogenomic analyses place the Gharial (*Gavialis gangeticus*) on the crocodile tree and provide Pre-K/T divergence times for most crocodilians. *Journal of Molecular Evolution* 61(5): 620–626.
- JANSE VAN RENSBURG, D.A. 2009. Morphological and Behavioural Correlates of Melanism in Cordylid Lizards: Conservation Implications for Melanistic Lizards in the Greater Cederberg Biodiversity Corridor. Ph.D. thesis, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.
- JANSE VAN RENSBURG, D.A., MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN NIEKERK, A. 2009. Why cordylid lizards are black at the south-western tip of Africa. *Journal of Zoology, London* 278(4): 333–341.
- JANSE VAN VUUREN, L.C. 2009. A Taxonomic Study of the Genus Microacontias (Reptillia: Acontinae) using DNA and Morphometric Data. M.Sc. thesis, University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, South Africa.
- JENSEN, M.P., ABREY-GROBOIS, F.A., FRYDENBERG, J. & LOE-SCHCKE, V. 2006. Microsatellites provide insight into contrasting mating patterns in arribada vs. non-arribada olive ridley sea turtle rookeries. *Molecular Ecology* 15: 2567–2575.
- JESUS, J., HARRIS, J.D. & BREHM, A. 2007. Relationships of Afroablepharus Greer, 1974 skinks from the Gulf of Guinea islands based on mitochondrial and nuclear DNA: Patterns of colonization and comments on taxonomy. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 45: 904–914.
- JOGER, U. 1985. The African gekkonine radiation—preliminary phylogenetic results, based on quantitative immunological comparisons of serum albumins. In K.L. Schuchmann (ed.), *Proceedings of the International Symposium on African Vertebrates*: 479–494. Zoologisches Forschungsinstitute und Museum Koenig, Bonn.
- JOGER, U. 1991. A molecular phylogeny of agamid lizards. Copeia 1991(3): 616–622.
- JOGER, U., BSHENA, I. & ESSGHAIER, F. 2008. First record of the parthenogenetic Brahminy blind snake, *Ramphotyphlops braminus* (Daudin, 1803), from Libya (Serpentes: Typhlopidae). *Herpetology Notes* 1: 13–16.
- JONAS, Z., ROUGET, M., REYERS, B., MOHAMED, B., RU-THERFORD, M.C., MUCINA, L. & POWRIE, L.W. 2006. Vulnerability assessment of vegetation types. In L. Mucina & M.C. Rutherford (eds), The Vegetation of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland: 738–747. *Strelitzia* 19, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- JONES, J., COLLEN, B., ATKINSON, G., BAXTER, P., BUBB, P., ILLIAN, J., KATZNER, T., *et al.* 2011. The why, what, and how of global biodiversity indicators beyond the 2010 target. *Conservation Biology* 25(3): 450–457.
- JOSHUA, Q.I., HOFMEYR, M.D. & HENEN, B.T. 2010. Seasonal and site variation in Angulate Tortoise diet and activity. *Jour*nal of Herpetology 44(1): 124–134.
- JOSWIG, N. & IZABER, F. 2012. Terrarium Fairs and Terrarium Keeping in the European Union. A Presentation of Facts by the Organizers of the TERRARISTIKA Hamm in Reply to the Paper, "Amphibian and Reptile Pet Markets in the EU: an Investigation and Assessment" (2012) by Phillip C. Arena, Catrina Steedman & Clifford Warwick. (available at http://www. terraristikahamm.de/images/richtigstellung.pdf)
- KAISER, H., CROTHER, B.I., KELLY, C.M.R., LUSELLI, L., O'SHEA, M., OTA, H., PASSOS, P., SCHLEIP, W.D. & WÜSTER, W. 2013. Best Practices: In the 21st Century, taxonomic decisions in herpetology are acceptable only when supported by a body of evidence and published via peer review. *Herpetological Review* 44(1): 8–23.
- KASELOO, P.A. & TYSON, K.O. 2004. Synthesis of noise effects on wildlife populations. Report DOT F 1700.7 (8–72), Office of Research and Technology Services Federal Highway Administration, Virginia.

- KEARNEY, M. 2003. Systematics of the Amphisbaenia (Lepidosauria: Squamata) based on morphological evidence from recent and fossil forms. *Herpetological Monographs* 17: 1–74.
- KEARNEY, M. & STUART, B.L. 2004. Repeated evolution of limblessness and digging heads in worm lizards revealed by DNA from old bones. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London* B 271: 1677–1683.
- KELLY, C.M.R., BARKER, N.P. & VILLET, M.H. 2003. Phylogenetics of advanced snakes (Caenophidia) based on four mitochondrial genes. Systematic Biology 52: 439–459.
- KELLY, C.M.R., BRANCH, W.R., VILLET, M.H. & BARKER, N.P. 2009a. Berg adders and montane biogeography: a study of the southern African Bitis atropos species complex. In Programme & Abstracts of the 10th Anniversary Conference, Southern African Society for Systematic Biology, Illovo Beach, 22–27 July 2009: 39. Illovo Beach, South Africa.
- KELLY, C.M.R., BARKER, N.P., VILLET, M.H. & BROADLEY, D.G. 2009b. Phylogeny, biogeography and classification of the snake superfamily Elapoidea: a rapid radiation in the late Eocene. *Cladistics* 25(1): 38–63.
- KELLY, C.M.R., BARKER, N.P., VILLET, M.H., BROADLEY, D.G. & BRANCH, W.R. 2008. The snake family Psammophiidae (Reptilia: Serpentes): Phylogenetics and species delimitation in the African sand snakes (*Psammophis* Boie, 1825) and allied genera. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 47: 1045–1060.
- KELLY, C.M.R., BRANCH, W.R., BROADLEY, D.G., BARKER, N.P. & VILLET, M.H. 2011. Molecular systematics of the African snake family Lamprophiidae Fitzinger, 1843 (Serpentes: Elapoidea), with particular focus on the genera Lamprophis Fitzinger 1843 and Mehelya Csiki 1903. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 58(3):415–26.
- KEOGH, J.S. 1998. Molecular phylogeny of elapid snakes and a consideration of their biogeographic history. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 63: 177–203.
- KEOGH, J.S., BARKER, D.G. & SHINE, R. 2001. Heavily exploited but poorly known: systematics and biogeography of commercially harvested pythons (*Python curtus* group) in Southeast Asia. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 73: 113–129.
- KEOGH, J.S., BRANCH, W.R. & SHINE, S. 2000. Feeding ecology, reproduction and sexual dimorphism in the colubrid snake *Crotaphopeltis hotamboeia* in southern Africa. *African Journal of Herpetology* 49(2): 129–137.
- KETTUNEN, M., GENOVESI, P., GOLLASCH, S., PAGAD, S. & STARFINGER, U. 2009. Technical Support to EU Strategy on Invasive Alien Species (IAS) Assessment of the impacts of IAS in Europe and the EU. Institute for European Environmental Policy, London and Brussels.
- KIMAKWA, E. & NGUSARU, A. 2008. Report of the first meeting of the Western Indian Ocean Marine Turtle Task Force. In D. Hykle & R. Nel (eds), A Workshop to promote Implementation of the IOSEA Marine Turtle Conservation and Management Plan in the Western Indian Ocean. 27–29 February 2008, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania: 1–33. IOSEA/WWF.
- KINDLER, C., BRANCH, W.R., HOFMEYR, M.D., MARAN, J., ŠIROKÝ, P., VENCES, M., HARVEY, J., et al. 2012. Molecular phylogeny of African hinge-back tortoises (*Kinixys*): implications for phylogeography and taxonomy (Testudines: Testudinidae). Journal of Zoological Systematics and Evolutionary Research 50(3): 192–201.
- KING, D., KING, M. & BAVERSTOCK, P. 1991. A new phylogeny of the Varanidae. *Mertensiella* 2: 211–219.
- KING, F.W. & BURKE, R.L. 1997. Crocodilian, Tuatara and Turtle Species of the World. An Online Taxonomic and Geographic Reference, www.flmnh.ufl.edu/natsci/herpetology/turtcr.
- KIRCHHOF, S. & RICHTER, K. 2009. Eine kaum bekannte Eidechse: die Soutpansberg-Felseidechse Australolacerta rupicola (FitzSimons, 1933). Die Eidechse 20: 33–40.
- KIRCHHOF, S, KRÄMER, M., LINDEN, J. & RICHTER, K. 2010. The reptile species assemblage of the Soutpansberg (Limpopo Province, South Africa) and its characteristics. *Salamandra* 46(3): 147–166.
- KISS, A. 2004. Is community-based ecotourism a good use of biodiversity conservation funds? *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 19(5): 232–237.
- KLAUSEWITZ, W. 1957. Eidonomische Untersuchungen über die Rassenkreise Agama cyanogaster und Agama atricollis. Die

Unterarten von Agama atricollis. Senckenbergiana Biologica 38: 157–174.

- KLAVER, C. & BÖHME, W. 1997. Chamaeleonidae. Das Tierreich 112: 1–85.
- KLAVER, C. & BÖHME, W. 1986. Phylogeny and classification of the Chamaeleonidae (Sauria) with special reference to hemipenis morphology. *Bonner Zoologische Monographien* 22: 5–60.
- KLEIN, R.G. & CRUZ-URIBE, K. 2000. Middle and Later Stone Age large mammal and tortoise remains from Die Kelders Cave 1, Western Cape Province, South Africa. *Journal of Human Evolution* 38: 169–195.
- KLEY, N.J. 2001. Prey transport mechanisms in blindsnakes and the evolution of unilateral feeding systems in snakes. *Ameri*can Zoologist 41: 1321–1337.
- KLUGE, A.G. 1991. Boine phylogeny and research cycles. Miscellaneous Publications, Museum of Zoology, University of Michigan 178: 1–58.
- KLUGE, A.G. 1993a. Calabaria and the phylogeny of erycine snakes. Zoological Journal Linnaean Society 107: 293–351.
- KLUGE, A.G. 1993b. Aspidites and the phylogeny of pythonine snakes. Records of the Australian Museum (Supplement 19): 1–77.
- KLUGE, A.G. 2001. Gekkotan lizard taxonomy. *Hamadryad* 26: 1–209.
- KLUGE, A.G. & Eckardt, M.J. 1969. *Hemidactylus garnotii* Duméril and Bibron, a triploid all-female species of gekkonid lizard. *Copeia* 1969: 651–664.
- KOCH, C. 1962. The Tenebrionidae of Southern Africa XXI. Scientific Papers of the Namib Desert Research Station 5: 61– 106.
- KORNER, P., WHITING, M.J. & FERGUSON, J.W.H. 2000. Interspecific aggression in flat lizards suggests poor species recognition. African Journal of Herpetology 49: 139–146.
- KRAUS, F. 2009. Alien Reptiles and Amphibians—A Scientific Compendium and Analysis. Springer, Dordrecht.
- KRUGER, F.J., FORSYTH, G.G., KRUGER, L.M., SLATER, K., LE MAITRE, D.C. & MATSHATE, J. 2006. Classification of veldfire risk in South Africa for the administration of the legislation regarding fire management. In D.X. Viegas (ed.), *Fifth International Conference on Forest Fire Research*, 27 to 20 *November 2006.* Figuiera da Foz, Portugal.
- KÖHLER, J., VIETIES, D.R., BONETT, R.M., HITA-GARCIA, F., GLAW, F., STEINKE, D. & VENCES, M. 2005. Boost in species discoveries in a highly endangered vertebrate group: amphibians and global conservation. *BioScience* 55: 693–606.
- KUHN, A., BAUER, A. & JACKMAN, T. Molecular phylogenetics of South African flat geckos (Gekkonidae: Afroedura) Loveridge, 1944 and the recognition of seven new species. Seventh World Congress of Herpetology, Vancouver, Canada, 8–14 August 2012 (www.wch2012vancouver.com/abstractdownload; see also African Herp News 58: 48–49).
- KYLE, R. 1999. Gillnetting in nature reserves: a case study from the Kosi Lakes, South Africa. *Biological Conservation* 88: 183–192.
- KYLE, R. 2008. A July 2008 update on Nile crocodile numbers in and around the Kosi Bay lakes. Unpublished Internal Report, Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife.
- LACEPEDE, B.G.É. de la V. 1788. Histoire Naturelle Des Quadrupedes Ovipares.
- LAMB, T. & BAUER, A.M. 2000a. Relationships of the Pachydactylus rugosus group of geckos (Reptilia: Squamata: Gekkonidae). African Zoology 35: 55–67.
- LAMB, T. & BAUER, A.M. 2000b. Systematics of the *Pachydac-tylus rugosus* complex of southern African geckos (Squamata: Gekkonidae). *African Zoology* 35: 55–67.
- LAMB, T. & BAUER, A.M. 2003. Meroles revisited: Complementary systematic inference from additional mitochondrial genes and complete taxon sampling of southern Africa's desert lizards. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 29: 360–364.
- LAMB, T. & BAUER, A.M. 2006. Footprints in the sand: Independent reduction of subdigital lamellae in the Kalahari-Namib ground geckos. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B* 273: 855–864.
- LAMB, T. & BAUER, A.M. 2013. To be or not to be Angolosaurus: a multilocus perspective on the phylogenetic position of Africa's desert plated lizard (Gerrhosauridae). Zoologica Scripta 42: 381–388.

- LAMB, T., BISWAS, S. & BAUER, A.M. 2010. A phylogenetic reassessment of African fossorial skinks in the subfamily Acontinae (Squamata: Scincidae): evidence for parallelism and polyphyly. *Zootaxa* 2657: 33–46.
- LAMB, T., MEEKER, A.M., BAUER, A.M. & BRANCH, W.R. 2003. On the systematic status of the desert plated lizard (*Angolosaurus skoogi*): Phylogenetic inference from DNA sequence analysis of the African Gerrhosauridae. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 78: 253–261.
- LAMBARDI, P., LUTJEHARMS, J.R.E., MENCACCI, R., HAYS, G.C. & LUSCHI, P. 2008. Influence of ocean currents on longdistance movement of leatherback sea turtles in the Southwest Indian Ocean. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 353: 289–301.
- LAMBARDI, P., MENCACCI, R., LUTJEHARMS, J., HUGHES, G.R., BENVENUTI, S. & LUSCHI, P. 2006. The influence of oceanographic conditions on the migratory behaviour of South African leatherbacks. In M. Frick, A. Panagalopolou, A. Rees & K. Williams (compilers), *Proceedings of the 26th Annual Symposium on Sea Turtle Biology and Conservation*: 98, Heraklion, Greece.
- LAMBIRIS, A.J.L., LAMBIRIS, J.C. & MATHER, S. 1989. A field study of the hinged tortoise *Kinixys spekii* Gray (Chelonii: Testudinidae). *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 36: 68–71.
- LANG, M. 1991. Generic relationships within Cordyliformes (Reptilia: Squamata). *Bulletin de l'Institut recherches sciences naturelles de Belgique* 61: 121–188.
- LANGEN, T.A., MACHNIAK, A., CROWE, E.K., MANGAN, C., MARKER, D.F., LIDDLE, N. & RODEN, B. 2007. Methodologies for surveying herpetofauna mortality on rural highways. *Journal of Wildlife Management* 71(4): 1361–1368.
- LANGTON, T.E.S. (ed.). 1989. Amphibians on Roads. Proceedings of the Toad Tunnel Conference, ACO Polymers, Shefford, United Kingdom.
- LANGTON, T.E.S., ATKINS, W. & HERBERT, C. 2011. On the distribution, ecology and management of non-native reptiles and amphibians in the London Area. Part 1. Distribution and predator/prey impacts. *The London Naturalist* 90: 83–155.
- LANGTON, T.E.S. & HERBERT, C. 2011. On the distribution, ecology and management of non-native reptiles and amphibians in the London Area. Part 2. Disease impacts, perspectives, trade exploitation and finding ethical solutions. *The London Naturalist* 90: 157-177.
- LANZA, B. & BOSCHERINI, S. 2000. The gender of the genera *Podarcis* Wagler 1839 (Lacertidae), *Pelamis* Daudin 1803 (Hydrophiidae) and *Uropeltis* Cuvier 1829 (Uropeltidae). *Tropical Zoology* 13: 327–329.
- LAPPARENT DE BROIN, F. 2000. African chelonians from the Jurassic to the present: phases of development and preliminary catalogue of the fossil record. *Paleontologia Africana* 36: 43–82.
- LAPPARENT DE BROIN, F. 2003. Miocene chelonians from southern Namibia. *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of Namibia* 19: 67–102.
- LAURANCE, W.F. & USECHE, D.C. 2009. Environmental synergisms and extinctions of tropical species. *Conservation Biol*ogy 23: 1427–1437.
- LAURANCE, W.F., CAMARGO, J.L.C., LUIZÃO, R.C.C., LAUR-ANCE, S.G., PIMM, S.L., BRUNA, E.M., STOUFFER, P.C., et al. 2011. The fate of Amazonian forest fragments: A 32-year investigation. *Biological Conservation* 144(1): 56–67.
- LAURENT, R.L. 1956. Contribution à l'Herpetologie de la Region des Grands Lacs de l'Afrique Centrale. Annales du Musée Royal du Congo Belge, Sér. 8, 48: 1–390.
- LAURENT, R.L. 1964. Reptiles et amphibiens de l'Angola. *Companhia de Diamantes de Angola, Publicações Culturais* 67: 1–165.
- LAURET-STEPLER, M., BOURJEA, J., ROOS, D., PELLETIER, D., RYAN, P.G., CICCIONE, S. & GRIEZEL, H. 2007. Reproductive seasonality and trend of *Chelonia mydas* in the SW Indian Ocean: A 20-year study based on track counts. *Endangered Species Research* 3: 217–227.
- LAWES, M.J., EVERARD, D. & EELEY, H.A.C. 1999. Developing environmental criteria and indicators for sustainable plantation management: the South African perspective. South African Journal of Science 95: 461–469.

- LAWSON, R., SLOWINSKI, J.B. & BURBRINK, F.T. 2004. A molecular approach to discerning the phylogenetic placement of the enigmatic snake *Xenophidion schaeferi* among the Alethinophidia. *Journal of Zoology* 263: 285–294.
- LAWSON, R., SLOWINSKI, J.B., CROTHER, B.I. & BURBRINK, F.T. 2005. Phylogeny of the Colubroidea (Serpentes): new evidence from mitochondrial and nuclear genes. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 37: 581–601.
- LE, M., RAXWORTHY, C.J., MCCORD, W.P. & MERTZ, L. 2006. A molecular phylogeny of tortoises (Testudines: Testudinidae) based on mitochondrial and nuclear genes. *Molecular Phylo*genetics and Evolution 40(2): 517–531.
- LE GALL, J.Y. 1988. Biologie et évaluation des populations de Tortue Verte *Chelonia mydas* de atolls Tromelin et Europa. (Oceéan Indien S.O.). *Mésogée* 48: 33–42.
- LE ROUX, J. 2002. The Biodiversity of South Africa 2002: Indicators, Trends and Human Impacts. Struik, Cape Town.
- LEACHÉ, A.[D.]. 2012. Biogeography of African Agama lizards. Seventh World Congress of Herpetology, Vancouver, Canada, 8–14 August 2012 (www.wch2012vancouver.com/abstractdownload; see also African Herp News 58: 49).
- LEACHÉ, A.D., CHONG, R.A., PAPENFUS, T.J., WAGNER, P., BÖHME, W., SCHMIDZ, A., RÖDEL, M-O., et al. 2009. Phylogeny of the genus Agama based on mitochondrial DNA sequence data. Bonner zoologische Beiträge 56(4): 273–278.
- LEE, M.S.Y. 1998. Convergent evolution and character correlation in burrowing reptiles: Towards a resolution of squamate relationships. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 65: 369–453.
- LEE, M.S.Y. 2000. Soft anatomy, diffuse homoplasy, and the relationships of lizards and snakes. *Zoologica* Scripta 29(1): 101–130.
- LEE, M.S.Y., HUGALL, A.F., LAWSON, R. & SCANLON, J.D. 2007. Phylogeny of snakes (Serpentes): Combining morphological and molecular data in likelihood, Bayesian and parsimony analyses. Systematics and Biodiversity 5(4): 371–389.
- LENK, P., HERRMANN, H-W., JOGER, U. & WINK, M. 1999. Phylogeny and taxonomic subdivision of *Bitis* (Reptilia: Viperidae) based on molecular evidence. *Kaupia* 8: 31–38.
- LENK, P., KALYABINA, S., WINK, M. & JOGER, U. 2001. Evolutionary relationships among the true vipers (Reptilia: Viperidae) inferred from mitochondrial DNA sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 19: 94–104.
- LESLIE, A.J & SPOTILA, J.R. 2000. Osmoregulation of the Nile Crocodile, *Crocodylus niloticus*, in Lake St Lucia, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiol*ogy. 126(3): 351–365.
- LESLIE, A.J., PENICK, D.N., SPOTILA, J.R. & PALADINO, F.V. 1996. Leatherback turtle, *Dermochelys coriacea*, nesting and nesting success at Tortuhuero, Costa Rica, in 1990–1991. *Chelonian Conservation and Biology* 2: 159–168.
- LEUTERITZ, T.E.J. & HOFMEYR, M.D. 2007. The extended reproductive season of tent tortoises: a response to an arid and unpredictable environment. *Journal of Arid Environments* 68(4): 546–563.
- LEVER, C. 2003. Naturalized Reptiles and Amphibians of the World. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- LIMPUS, C. 2009. A Biological Review of Australian Marine Turtles. Queensland Environmental Agency, Brisbane.
- LINNAEUS, C. 1758. Systema Naturae, 10th Edition. Salvius, Stockholm.
- LITSCHKA, T., KOEN, C. & MONADJEM, A. 2008. Geographical distribution: Zygaspis vandami arenicola. African Herp News 46: 24–25.
- LLOYD, J.W., VAN DEN BERG, E.C. & PALMER, A.R. 2002. Patterns of Transformation and Degradation in the Thicket Biome, South Africa. Final Report. Subtropical Thicket Ecosystem Planning Project. Report Number GW/A/2002/30. ARC-ISCW, Pretoria.
- LOEHR, V.J.T. 2006. Natural diet of the Namaqualand speckled padloper (*Homopus signatus signatus*). Chelonian Conservation and Biology 5: 149–152.
- LOEHR, V.J.T. 2008. The Ecology of the World's Smallest Tortoise, Homopus signatus signatus: Effects of Rainfall. Ph.D. thesis, University of the Western Cape, Bellville.
- LOEHR, V.J.T. 2010. Der Rooiberg-Gürtelschweif, Cordylus imkeae Mouton & van Wyk, 1994: Freilandbeobachtungen, Pflege und Zucht. Sauria 32(4): 53–60.

- LOEHR, V.J.T., HENEN, B.T. & HOFMEYR, M.D. 2004. Reproduction of the smallest tortoise, the Namaqualand speckled padloper, *Homopus signatus signatus*. *Herpetologica* 60(4): 44–54.
- LOEHR, V.J.T., HOFMEYR, M.D. & HENEN, B.T. 2007a. Annual variation in the body condition of a small, arid-zone tortoise, *Homopus signatus signatus. Journal of Arid Environments* 71: 337–349.
- LOEHR, V.J.T., HOFMEYR, M.D. & HENEN, B.T. 2007b. Growing and shrinking in the smallest tortoise, *Homopus signatus*: the importance of rain. *Oecologia* 153: 479–488.
- LOMBARD, P. 2006. Marine turtle Monitoring and Conservation in Southern Mozambique: Update 2005/2006. Unpublished report.
- LOURO, C., PEREIRA, M. & COSTA, A. 2006. The Conservation Status of Marine Turtles in Mozambique. República De Moçambique Ministério Para a Coordenação da Acção Ambiental, Centro de Desenvolvimento Sustentável Para as Zonas Costeiras, Maputo.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1939. Revision of the African snakes of the genera Mehelya and Gonionotophis. Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology 86: 131–162.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1941. Revision of the African terrapin of the Family Pelomedusidae. *Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology* 88(6): 465–524.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1942. Revision of the African lizards of the family Gerrhosauridae. *Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology* 89(11): 485–543.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1944a. New geckos of the genera Afroedura, new genus, and Pachydactylus from Angola. American Museum Novitates 1254: 1–4.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1944b. Remarks on the gekkonid genera *Homopholis* and *Platypholis* with description of a new race. *Proceedings of the Biological Society of Washington* 57: 1–4.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1944c. Revision of the African lizards of the family Cordylidae. Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology 95: 1–118.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1947. Revision of the African lizards of the Family Gekkonidae. *Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology* 98: 1–469, pls. 1–7.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1953. Zoological results of a fifth expedition to East Africa. III. Reptiles from Nyassaland and Tete. *Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology* 110: 143–322.
- LOVERIDGE, A. 1955. On a second collection of reptiles and amphibians taken in Tanganyika Territory by C.J.P. Ionides. *Jour*nal of East African Natural History Society 22: 168–198.
- LOVERIDGE, A. & WILLIAMS, E.E. 1957. Revision of the African tortoises and turtles of the suborder Cryptodira. *Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology* 115: 163–557.
- LUSCHI, P., HAYS, G.C. & PAPI, F. 2003a. A review of longdistance movements by marine turtles, and the possible role of ocean currents. *Oikos* 103: 293–302.
- LUSCHI, P., SALE, E., MENCACCI, R., HUGHES, G.R., LUTJE-HARMS, J.R.E., & PAPI, F. 2003b. Current transport of leatherback sea turtles (*Dermochelys coriacea*) in the ocean. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B* 270: 129–132.
- LUSCHI, P., LUTJEHARM, J.R.E., LAMBARDI, R., MENCACCI, R., HUGHES, G.R. & HAYS, G.C. 2006. A review of migratory behaviour of sea turtles off Southeastern Africa. *South African Journal of Science* 102: 51–58.
- LUTZ, P.L. & MUSICK, J.A. (eds). 1996. The Biology of Sea Turtles. Volume I. CRC Press, Boca Raton.
- MABE, L.T. 2009. Graceful Crag Lizards (Cordylidae: Pseudocordylus capensis) are a Recent Species Radiation in the Cape Fold Mountains. B.Sc. Honours thesis, University of the Free State, Qwaqwa Campus, Qwaqwa.
- MACE, G.M. 2000. Summary of the results of the review of IUCN Red List categories and criteria 1996–2000. In C. Hilton-Taylor, 2000 IUCN Red List of Threatened Species: (annex 7)57–61. IUCN Species Survival Commission, Cambridge.
- MACE, G.M. & LANDE, R. 1991. Assessing extinction threats: towards a re-evaluation of IUCN threatened species categories. *Conservation Biology* 5: 148–157.
- MACE, G.M. & STUART, S.N. 1994. Draft IUCN Red List Categories, Version 2.2. Species 21–22: 13–24.
- MACE, G.M., COLLAR, N.J., COOKE, J., GASTON, K., GINS-BERG, J., LEADER, I., WILLIAMS, N., et al. 1992. The de-

velopment of new criteria for listing species on the IUCN Red List. Species 19: 16–22.

- MACEY, J.R., PAPENFUSS, T.J., KUEHL, J.V., FOURCADE, H.M. & BOORE, J.L. 2004. Phylogenetic relationships among amphisbaenian reptiles based on complete mitochondrial genomic sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 33: 22–31.
- MAKHUBO, B.G. 2009. *Cape Crag Lizards (Cordylidae:* Pseudocordylus microlepidotus) *show extensive Gene Flow across the Cape Floristic Region.* B.Sc. Honours thesis, University of the Free State, Qwaqwa Campus, Qwaqwa.
- MAKHUBO, B.G., TOLLEY, K.A. & BATES, M.F. 2012. Phylogenetic relationships among members of the *Afroedura nivaria* species complex in South Africa. Seventh World Congress of Herpetology, Vancouver, Canada, 8–14 August 2012 (www. wch2012vancouver.com/abstractdownload; see also *African Herp News* 58: 51, 2012).
- MAKOKHA, J.S., BAUER, A.M., MAYER, W. & MATTHEE, C.A. 2007. Nuclear and mtDNA-based phylogeny of southern African sand lizards, *Pedioplanis* (Sauria: Lacertidae). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 44(2): 622–633.
- MARAIS, J. 2004. A Complete Guide to the Snakes of Southern Africa. Struik, Cape Town.
- MARAIS, J. & JUBBER, W. 2010. Geographical distribution: Naja melanoleuca. African Herp News 52: 24–25.
- MARITZ, B. 2007. The Distribution and Abundance of Herpetofauna on a Quaternary Aeolian Dune Deposit: Implications for Strip Mining. M.Sc. thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.
- MARITZ, B. & ALEXANDER, G.J. 2007. Herpetofaunal utilisation of riparian buffer zones in an agricultural landscape, in Mtunzini, South Africa. *African Journal of Herpetology* 56(2): 163–169.
- MARITZ, B., MASTERSON, G., MACKAY, D. & ALEXANDER, G. 2007. The effect of funnel trap type and size of pitfall trap on trap success: implications for ecological field studies. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 28: 321–328.
- MARQUEZ-M., R. 1994. Sinopsis de datos biológicos sobre la Tortuga Lora, Lepidochelys kempi (Garman, 1880). FAO Sinopsis No. 152, Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, sobre la Pesca, Mexico City.
- MASHININI, P.L. 2004. An Ecological Study of Acontias litoralis along the Cape West Coast of South Africa. M.Sc. thesis, University of the Free State, Bloemfontein.
- MASHININI, P.L., HEIDEMAN, N.J.L. & MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 2011. On some ecological aspects of the coastal legless lizard Acontias litoralis (Scincidae: Acontinae). African Herp News 53: 16–21.
- MASON, M.C. & ALEXANDER, G.J. 1996. Oviposition site selection in *Tetradactylus africanus africanus*: A relationship with the ant *Anochetus faurei*. *African Journal of Herpetol*ogy 45(1): 31–37.
- MASTERSON, G.[P.R.] 2008. Species richness estimation: the how and why. Abstract: *Proceedings of the 9th Conference of the Herpetological Association of Africa, 26–30 November* 2008. Sterkfontein Dam, South Africa.
- MASTERSON, G.P.R., MARITZ, B. & ALEXANDER, G.J. 2008. Effect of fire history and vegetation structure on herpetofauna in a South African grassland. *Applied Herpetology* 5: 129–143.
- MASTERSON, G.P.R., MARITZ, B., MACKAY, D. & ALEXANDER, G.J. 2009. The impacts of past cultivation on the reptiles in a South African grassland. *African Journal of Herpetology* 58(2): 71–84.
- MATTHEE, C.A. & FLEMMING, A.F. 2002. Population fragmentation in the southern rock agama, Agama atra: More evidence for vicariance in southern Africa. *Molecular Ecology* 11(3): 465–471.
- MATTHEE, C.A., TILBURY, C.R. & TOWNSEND, T. 2004. A phylogenetic review of the African leaf chameleons: Genus Rhampholeon (Chamaeleonidae): The role of vicariance and climate change in speciation. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B 271: 1967–1975.
- MATTHEWS, W.S. 1994. *Hippo and Crocodile Counts in the Northern KwaZulu Region. Winter 1994.* Unpublished Report, Bureau of Natural Resources, Pietermaritzburg.
- MAUSFELD, P., SCHMITZ, A., BÖHME, W., MISOF, B., VR-CIBRADIC, D. & ROCHA, C.F.D. 2002. Phylogenetic affinities of *Mabuya atlantica* Schmidt, 1945, endemic to the Atlantic

Ocean archipelago of Fernando de Noronha (Brazil): Necessity of partitioning the genus *Mabuya* Fitzinger, 1826 (Scincidae: Lygosominae). *Zoologischer Anzeiger* 241: 281–293.

- MAWOUNG, G.N. 2006. Perception of hunting, gathering and fishing techniques of the Bakola of the coastal region, southern Cameroon. *African Study Monographs (Supplement)* 33: 49–69.
- MAYER, W. & PAVLICEV, M. 2007. The phylogeny of the family Lacertidae (Reptilia) based on nuclear DNA sequences: Convergent adaptations to arid habitats within the subfamily Eremiadinae. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 44: 1155–1163.
- MCALILEY, L.R., WILLIS, R.E., RAY, D.A., WHITE, P.S., BRO-CHU, C.A. & DENSMORE III, J.D. 2006. Are crocodiles really monophyletic? Evidence for subdivisions from sequence and morphological data. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 39: 16–32.
- MCALLISTER, H.J., BASS, A.J. & VAN SCHOOR, H.J. 1965. Marine turtles on the coast of Tongaland, Natal. *Lammergeyer* 3(2): 10–40.
- MCCALLUM, M.L. 2007. Amphibian decline or extinction? Current declines dwarf background extinction rate. *Journal of Herpetology* 41(3): 483–491.
- MCCORD, W.P., JOSEPH-OUNI, M. & TABAKA, C. 2005. Chelonian Illustrations No. 18. African Hinge-Back Tortoises. *Reptilia* 38: 71–74.
- MCDIARMID, R.W., CAMPBELL, J.A. & TOURÉ, T.A. 1999. Snake Species of the World. A Taxonomic and Geographic Reference. Volume 1. Herpetologists' League, Washington DC.
- MCDOWELL, S.B. 1970. On the status and relationships of the Solomon Island elapid snakes. *Journal of Zoology, London* 151: 145–190.
- MCDOWELL, S.B. 1974. A catalogue of the snakes of New Guinea and the Solomons, with special reference to those in the Bernice Bishop Museum. Part I. Scolecophidia. *Journal of Herpetology* 8: 1–57.
- MCDOWELL, S.M. 1968. Affinities of the snakes usually called *Elaps lacteus* and *E. dorsalis. Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society* 47: 561–578.
- MCLACHLAN, G.R. 1978a. South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 23. CSIR, Pretoria.
- MCLACHLAN, G.R. 1978b. A population of *Typhlops braminus* (Daudin) on the Cape Peninsula (Reptilia; Typhlopidae). *Zoo-logica Africana* 13(2): 353–354.
- MCLACHLAN, G.R. 1979. The taxonomy of *Pachydactylus rugosus*. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 21: 4–7.
- MCLACHLAN, G.R. 1988a. *Gerrhosaurus typicus*: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), *South African Red Data Book— Reptiles and Amphibians*: 109–110. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- MCLACHLAN, G.R. 1988b. *Palmatogecko rangei*: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), *South African Red Data Book— Reptiles and Amphibians*: 199–200. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- MCLACHLAN, G.R. & SPENCE, J.M. 1966. The genus Pachydactylus (Part 1). Annals of the Cape Provincial Museums 5: 149–156.
- MCMAHON, C.R. & HAYS, G.C. 2006. Thermal niche, largescale movements and implications of climate change for a critically endangered marine vertebrate. *Global Change Biol*ogy 12: 1330–1338.
- MEASEY, G.J. (ed). 2011. Ensuring a future for South Africa's frogs: a strategy for conservation research. SANBI Biodiversity Series 19. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- MEASY, G.J. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2013. A molecular phylogeny for sub-Saharan amphisbaenians. *African Journal of Herpetology* 62(2): 100–108.
- MEASEY, G.J., ARMSTRONG, A.J. & HANEKOM, C. 2009. Subterranean herpetofauna show a decline after 34 years in Ndumu Game Reserve, South Africa. *Oryx* 43: 284–287.
- MECENERO, S. & DE VILLIERS, M.S. 2007. Virtual firsts. *CREW* 4 (Dec 2007): 13–14.
- MECENERO, S., BALL, J.B., EDGE, D.A., HAMER, M.L., HEN-NING, G.A., KRÜGER, M., PRINGLE, E.L., TERBLANCHE,

R.F. & WILLIAMS, M.C. 2013. *Conservation Assessment of Butterflies of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland: Red List and Atlas.* Saftronics, Johannesburg & Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.

- MEDINA, M.F., GREENBAUM, E., BAUER, A.M. & BRANCH, W.R. 2012. Systematics of African Skinks in the *Panaspis* wahlbergi Complex. Abstract: Seventh World Congress of Herpetology, Vancouver, Canada, 8–14 August 2012 (www.wch-2012vancouver.com/abstractdownload; see also African Herp News 58: 53, 2012).
- MEGANATHAN, P.R., DUBEY, B., BATZER, M.A., RAY, D.A. & HAQUE, I. 2010. Molecular phylogenetic analyses of genus *Crocodylus* (Eusuchia, Crocodylia, Crocodylidae) and the taxonomic position of *Crocodylus porosus*. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 57: 393–402.
- MEIRTE, D. 1992. Cles de determination des serpents d'Afrique. Museum Royal d'Afrique Centrale, Tervuren, Belgique, Annual Series Octavo Science Zoologique 267: 1–152.
- MEREDITH, R.W., HEKKALA, E.R., AMATO, G. & GATESY, J. 2011. A phylogenetic hypothesis for *Crocodylus* (Crocodylia) based on mitochondrial DNA: Evidence for a trans-Atlantic voyage from Africa to the New World. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 60: 183–191.
- MERTENS, R. 1955. Die Amphibien und Reptilien Südwestafrikas. Abhandlungen der Senckenbergische Naturforschende Gesellschaft 490: 1–172.
- MERTENS, R. 1971. Die Herpetofauna Südwest-Afrikas. Abhandlungen der Senckenbergischen naturforschenden Gesellschaft 529: 1–110.
- MESHAKA, W.E., Jr. 2011. A Runaway Train in the Making: The Exotic Amphibians, Reptiles, Turtles, and Crocodilians of Florida. Monograph 1. *Herpetological Conservation and Biology* 6: 1–101.
- METHUEN, P.A. & HEWITT, J. 1914. The Percy Sladen Memorial Expedition to Great Namaqualand, 1912–1913. Records and descriptions of the Reptilia and Batrachia. *Annals of the Transvaal Museum* 4: 118–145.
- MEYLAN, A. 1988. Spongivory in hawksbill turtles: a diet of glass. Science 239(4838): 393–395.
- MEYLAN, P. & AUFFENBERG, W. 1986. New land tortoises (Testudines: Testudinidae) from the Miocene of Africa. *Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society* 86: 279–307.
- MICHELS, J.P. & BAUER, A.M. 2004. Some corrections to the scientific names of amphibians and reptiles. *Bonner zoologische Beiträge* 52: 83–94.
- MIDGLEY, G.F. & THUILLER, W. 2011. Potential responses of terrestrial biodiversity in Southern Africa to anthropogenic climate change. *Regional Environmental Change* 11, Supplement 1: 127–135.
- MIDGLEY, G.F., CHAPMAN, R.A., HEWITSON, B., JOHNSTON, P., DE WIT, M., ZIERVOGEL, G., MUKHEIBIR, P. et al. 2005. A Status Quo, Vulnerability and Adaptation Assessment of the Physical and Socio-economic effects of Climate Change in the Western Cape. Report to the Western Cape Government, Cape Town, South Africa. CSIR Report No. ENV-S-C 2005-073, Stellenbosch.
- MIDGLEY, G.F., HANNAH, L., MILLAR, D., RUTHERFORD, M.C. & POWRIE, L.W. 2002. Assessing the vulnerability of species richness to anthropogenic climate change in a biodiversity hotspot. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 11: 445–451.
- MIDGLEY, G.[F.], RUTHERFORD, M.[C.] & BOND, W. 2001. The Heat is On. Impacts of Climate Change on Plant Diversity in South Africa. National Botanic Institute, Cape Town.
- MILLS, M.G.L. 2002. South African carnivores. In "The State of South Africa's Species" Proceedings of a conference held at the Rosebank Hotel in Johannesburg 4–7 September 2001: 169–176. Endangered Wildlife Trust and WWF-SA.
- MILTON, S.J. 1992. Plants eaten and dispersed by adult leopard tortoises *Geochelone pardalis* (Reptilia: Chelonii) in the southern Karoo. South African Journal of Zoology 27: 45–49.
- MINTER, L.R., BURGER, M., HARRISON, J.A., BRAACK, H.H., BISHOP, P.J. & KLOEPFER, D. (eds). 2004. Atlas and Red Data book of the Frogs of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. SI/ MAB Series #9: Smithsonian Institution, Washington, and Avian Demography Unit, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.
- MITTLEMAN, M.B. 1952. A generic synopsis of the lizards of the subfamily Lygosominae. Smithsonian Institution Miscellaneous Collections 117: 1–35.

- MOLNAR, R.E. 2004. *Dragons in the Dust: The Paleobiology of the Giant Monitor Lizard Megalania*. Indiana University Press, Bloomington.
- MONADJEM, A., BOYCOTT, R.C., PARKER, V. & CULVERWELL, J. 2003. Threatened Vertebrates of Swaziland. Swaziland Red Data Book: Fishes, Amphibians, Reptiles, Birds and Mammals. Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Communications, Mbabane.
- MOODY, S.M. 1980. *Phylogenetic and Historical Bogeographical Relationships of the Genera in the Family Agamidae (Reptilia: Lacertilia).* Ph.D. thesis, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
- MORTIMER, J.A. 1984. *Marine Turtles in the Republic of the* Seychelles. International Union for the Conservation of Nature, Gland.
- MORTIMER, J.A. 1995. Feeding ecology of sea turtles. In K.A. Bjorndal (ed), *Biology and Conservation of Sea Turtles*: 103– 109. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington.
- MORTIMER, J.A. & DONNELLY, M. 2008. *Red List Status Assessment for the Hawksbill Turtle* (Eretmochelys imbricata). IUCN, Gland.
- MOTT, T. & VIEITES, D.R. 2009. Molecular phylogenetics reveals extreme morphological homoplasy in Brazilian worm lizards challenging current taxonomy. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 51(2): 190–200.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 1986. Description of a new species of *Cordylus* Laurenti (Reptilia: Cordylidae) from the south-western Cape, South Africa. South African Journal of Zoology 21: 319–324.
- MOUTON, P. LE F. N. 1987. Phenotypic variation among populations of *Cordylus cordylus* (Reptilia: Cordylidae) in the southwestern Cape Province, South Africa. South African Journal of Zoology 22(2): 119–129.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 1988a. Afroedura hawequensis: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book— Reptiles and Amphibians: 139–140. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 1988b. *Lacerta australis*: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), *South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians*: 157–158. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 1988c. Cordylus cataphractus: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book— Reptiles and Amphibians: 81–82. National Scientific Programmes Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & HERSELMAN, Y.M. 1994. Paradoxical reproduction and body size in the rock lizard, Agama atra atra, in Namaqualand, South Africa. South African Journal of Zoology 29(3): 199–203.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & MOSTERT, D.P. 1985. Description of a new species of Afroedura (Loveridge) (Reptilia: Gekkonidae) from the south-western Cape. South African Journal of Zoology 20: 246–249.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN WYK, H. 1994. Taxonomic status of geographic isolates in the *Cordylus minor* complex (Reptilia: Cordylidae): A description of three new species. *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 43: 6–18.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN WYK, J.H. 1989. Cordylus minor: A valid species of South African lizard (Reptilia: Cordylidae). South African Journal of Zoology 24: 322–328.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN WYK, J.H. 1990. Taxonomic status of the melanistic forms of the *Cordylus cordylus* complex (Reptilia: Cordylidae) in the south-western Cape, South Africa. *South African Journal of Zoology* 25(1): 31–38.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN WYK, J.H. 1993. Sexual dimorphism in cordylid lizards: A case study of the Drakensberg crag lizard, *Pseudocordylus melanotus*. *Canadian Journal of Zoology* 71: 1715–1723.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN WYK, J.H. 1995. A new crag lizard from the Cape Folded Mountains in South Africa. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 16: 389–399.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN WYK, J.H. 1997. Adaptive radiation in cordyliform lizards: An overview. *African Journal of Herpetology* 46: 78–88.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N., FLEMMING, A.F. & KANGA, E.M. 1999. Grouping behaviour, tail biting behaviour, and sexual dimorphism in the armadillo lizard (*Cordylus cataphractus*) from South Africa. *Journal of Zoology* 249: 1–10.

- MOUTON, P. LE F.N., FLEMMING, A.F. & NIEUWOUDT, C.J. 2000b. Sexual dimorphism and sex ratio in a terrestrial girdled lizard, *Cordylus macropholis*. *Journal of Herpetology* 34: 379–386.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N., GEERTSEMA, H. & VISAGIE, L. 2000a. Foraging mode of a group-living lizard, *Cordylus cataphractus* (Cordylidae). *African Zoology* 35: 1–7.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N., JANSE VAN RENSBURG, D.A. & VAN WYK, J.H. 2010. Epidermal glands in cordylid lizards with special reference to generation glands. *Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society* 158: 312–324.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N., NIEUWOUDT, C.J., BADENHORST, N.C. & FLEMMING, A.F. 2002. Melanistic Cordylus polyzonus (Sauria: Cordylidae) populations in the Western Cape, South Africa: Relics or ecotypes? Journal of Herpetology 36: 526–531.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N., OELOFSEN, B.W. & MOSTERT, D.P. 1987. New Data on threatened lizard species in the south-western Cape, South Africa. South African Journal of Science 83: 48–52.
- MOUTON, P. LE F.N., VISSER, J.D. & VAN WYK, J.H. 1992. Morphological variation in the girdled lizard *Cordylus mclachlani* Mouton 1986 from South Africa. South African Journal of Zoology 27: 35–37.
- MOYER, K. & JACKSON, K. 2011. Phylogenetic relationships among the Stiletto Snakes (genus Atractaspis) based on external morphology. African Journal of Herpetology 60(1): 1–17.
- MROSOVSKY, N. 2003. Predicting Extinction: Fundamental Flaws in IUCN's Redlist System, as exemplified by the case of Sea Turtles. University of Toronto Press, Toronto.
- MUCINA, L. & RUTHERFORD, M.C. 2006. The Vegetation of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. Strelitzia 19: South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- MUCINA, L., HOARE, D.B., LÖTTER, M.C., DU PREEZ, J., RU-THERFORD, M.C., SCOTT-SHAW, C.R., BREDENKAMP, G.J., et al. 2006. Grassland Biome. In L. Mucina & M.C. Rutherford (eds), The Vegetation of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. Strelitzia 19: 348–437. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- MULLER, J. 1997. Reproduction in sea turtles, In P.L. Lutz & J.A. Musick (eds.), *The Biology of Sea Turtles*: 51–82. CRC Press, Boca Raton.
- MUSICK, J.A. & LIMPUS, C.J. 1996. Habitat utilization and migration in juvenile sea turtles. In P.L. Lutz & J.A. Musick (eds), *The Biology of Sea Turtles. Volume I:* 137–163. CRC Press, Boca Raton.
- NAGY, Z.T., JOGER, U., WINK, M., GLAW, F. & VENCES, M. 2003. Multiple colonization of Madagascar and Socotra by colubrid snakes: evidence from nuclear and mitochondrial gene phylogenies. *Proceedings of the Royal Society, London Series B* 270: 2613–2621.
- NAGY, Z.T., VIDAL, N., VENCES, M., BRANCH, W.R., PAUWELS, O.S.G., WINK, M. & JOGER, U. 2005. Molecular systematics of African Colubroidea (Squamata: Serpentes). In B.A. Huber, B.J. Sinclair & K.-H. Lampe (eds), African Biodiversity: Molecules, Organisms, Ecosystems. Proceedings of the 5th International Symposium on Tropical Biology: 221–228. Museum Koenig, Bonn.
- NANCE, H.A. 2007. Cranial osteology of the African gerrhosaurid Angolosaurus skoogi (Squamata; Gerrhosauridae). African Journal of Herpetology 56(1): 39–75.
- NEÇAS, P. 2004. *Chameleons—Nature's Hidden Jewels*. Edition Chimaira, Frankfurt am Main.
- NEL, R. 2008. Sea Turtles of KwaZulu-Natal: Data Report for 2007/8 Season. Report for Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, Pietermaritzburg.
- NEL, R. 2009. Sea Turtles of KwaZulu-Natal: Data Report for 2008/9 season. Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth.
- NEWBERY, R. 1984. The American red-eared terrapin in South Africa. *African Wildlife* 38(5): 186–189.
- NEWBERRY, R.E. & PETERSEN, W. 1982/3. Management Proposals: Cordylus giganteus. Internal Report. Transvaal Division Nature Conservation, Pretoria.
- NICHOLSON, L. 1978. The effects of roads on desert tortoise populations. In M. Trotter (ed.), *The Desert Tortoise Council Proceedings of the 1978 Symposium*: 127–129. San Diego, USA.

- NOONAN, B.P. & CHIPPINDALE, P.T. 2006. Dispersal and vicariance: The complex evolutionary history of boid snakes. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 40: 347–358.
- NORDMOE, E.D., SIEG, A.E., SOTHERLAND, P.R., SPOTILA, J.R., PALADINO, F.V. & REINA, R.D. 2004. Nest site fidelity of leatherback turtles at Playa Grande, Costa Rica. *Animal Behaviour* 68: 387–394.
- O'CONNOR, T.G. & KUYLER, P. 2009. Impact of land use on the biodiversity integrity of the moist sub-biome of the grassland biome, South Africa. *Journal of Environmental Management* 90: 384–395.
- O'CONNOR, D.E., STUART-FOX, D. & WHITING, M.J. 2006. Geographical distribution: *Cordylosaurus subtesselatus*. *African Herp News* 39: 16–17.
- ODIERNA, G., CANAPA, A., ANDREONE, F., APREA, G., BARUC-CA, M., CAPRIGLIONE, T. & OLMO, E. 2002. A phylogenetic analysis of Cordyliformes (Reptilia: Squamata): Comparison of molecular and karyological data. *Molecular Phylogenetics* and Evolution 23: 37–42.
- ONDERSTALL, D. 1984. Descriptions of two new subspecies of Afroedura pondolia (Hewitt) and a discussion of species groups within the genus (Reptilia: Gekkonidae). Annals of the Transvaal Museum 33: 497–509.
- PADIAL, J.M. & DE LA RIVA, J.D.L. 2006. Taxonomic inflation and the stability of species lists: The perils of ostrich's behaviour. Systematic Biology 55(5): 859–867.
- PARKER, H.W. 1935. A new species of amphisbaenid lizard from Bechuanaland. Annals of the Magazine of Natural History, Ser. 10 15: 582–583.
- PASTEUR, G. 1965. Recherches sur l'Évolution des lygodactyles, lezards afro-malgaches actuels. *Travaux de l'Institut Scienti*fique Chérifien, Série Zoologie 29: 1–132.
- PAULI, B.D., MONEY, S. & SPARLING, D.W. 2010. Ecotoxicology of Pesticides in Reptiles, In D.W. Sparling, G. Linder, C.A. Bishop & S.K. Krest (eds), *Ecotoxicology of Amphibians and Reptiles*: 203–224. CRC Press, Boca Raton.
- PAVLICEV, M. & MAYER, W. 2009. Fast radiation of the subfamily Lacertinae (Reptilia: Lacertidae): History or methodological artefact? *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 52: 727–734.
- PERERA, S.J., RATNAYAKE-PERERA, D. & PROCHES, Ş. 2011. Vertebrate distributions indicate a greater Maputaland-Pondoland-Albany region of endemism. South African Journal of Science 107(7/8): 1–15.
- PERRET, J-L. 1973. Contribution à l'étude des *Panaspis* (Reptilia, Scincidae) d'Afrique occidentale avec la description de deux espèces nouvelles. *Revue Suisse de Zoologie* 80: 595– 630.
- PERRET, J-L. 1975. La différenciation dans le genre Panapis Cope (Reptilia, Scincidae). Bulletin de la Société des Sciences Naturelles de Neuchâtel 98: 5–16.
- PERRIN, M.R. & BODBIJL, T. 2001. Habitat selection and small mammal prey availability of the gaboon adder in Zululand (KwaZulu-Natal), South Africa. South African Journal of Wildlife Research 31(3&4): 115–126.
- PERRY, G., BUCHANAN, B.W., FISHER, R.N., SALMON, M. & WISE, S.E. 2008. Effects of artificial night lighting on amphibians and reptiles in urban environments. *Urban Herpetol*ogy 3: 239–256.
- PERRY, G. & FARMER, M. 2011. Reducing the risk of biological invasion by creating incentives for pet sellers and owners to do the right thing. *Journal of Herpetology* 45(1): 134–141.
- PERRY, G. & FISHER, R.N. 2006. Night lights and reptiles: observed and potential effects. In C. Rich and T. Longcore (eds.), *Ecological Consequences of Artificial Night Lighting*: 169– 191. Island Press, Washington DC.
- PETERS, W. 1854. Diagnosen neuer Batrachier, welche zusammen mit der früher (24 Juli und 17 August) gegebenen Übersicht der Schlangen und Eidechsen mitgetheilt werden. *Monatsberichte der königlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften* zu Berlin 1854: 614–628.
- PETERSEN, S.L. 2008. Understanding and Mitigating Vulnerable Bycatch in Southern African Trawl and Longline Fisheries. Ph.D. thesis, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.
- PHARAOH, A.M., FANNING, E. & SAID, A. 2003. Observations of sea turtles nesting on Misali Island, Pemba. *Journal of East African Natural History* 92(1): 127–134.

- PHELPS, T. 2003. Bitis gabonica (Gaboon Adder): Unusual mortality. The Herpetological Bulletin 86: 26–27.
- PHELPS, T. 2006. Southern Adder, *Bitis armata* (Smith, 1826). Arboreal behaviour. *African Herp News* 39: 14–16.
- PHELPS, T. 2007. Observations of the Cape cobra, *Naja nivea* (Serpentes: Elapidae) in the De Hoop Nature Reserve, Western Cape Province, South Africa. *Herpetological Bulletin* 99: 29–35.
- PHELPS, T. 2009. Old World Vipers. A natural history of the Azemiopinae and Viperinae. Chimaira, Frankfurt am Main.
- PHELPS, T. & ELS, J. 2006. Horned Adder. Bitis caudalis (Smith, 1830). Geographical distribution. African Herp News 40: 30–31.
- PHELPS, R.I., FOCARDI, S., FOSSI, C, LEONZIO, C. & RENZONI, A. 1986. Clorinated hydrocarbons and heavy metals in crocodile eggs from Zimbabwe. *Transactions of the Zimbabwe Scientific Association* 63: 8–15.
- PIANKA, E.R. 1986. Ecology and Natural History of Desert Lizards. Princeton University Press, Princeton.
- PIANKA, E.R. & HUEY, R.B. 1978. Comparative ecology, resource utilization and niche segregation among gekkonid lizards in the southern Kalahari. *Copeia* 1978: 691–701.
- PIANKA, E.R. & VITT, L.J. 2003. *Lizards: Windows to the Evolution of Diversity*. University of California Press, Berkeley.
- PIANKA, E.R., HUEY, R.B. & LAWLOR, L.R. 1979. Niche segregation in desert lizards. In D.J. Horn, G.R. Stairs & R.D. Mitchell (eds), *Analysis of Ecological Systems*: 67–115. Ohio State University Press, Columbus.
- PIANKA, E.R., KING, D. & ALLEN KING, R. (eds). 2004. Varanoid Lizards of the World. Indiana University Press, Bloomington.
- PIENĀAR, U. DE V. 1966. The reptiles of the Kruger National Park. *Koedoe Monograph* 1: 1–223.
- PIENAAR, U. DE V. 1978. The Reptile Fauna of the Kruger National Park. National Parks Board of Trustees, Pretoria.
- PIENAAR, U. DE V., HAACKE, W.D. & JACOBSEN, N.H.G. 1983. The Reptiles of the Kruger National Park. National Parks Board, Pretoria.
- PIMENTEL, D., ZUNIGA, R. & MORRISON, D. 2005. Update on the environmental and economic costs associated with alieninvasive species in the United States. *Ecological Economics* 52: 273–288.
- PIRAS, P., COLANGELO, P., ADAMS, D.C., BUSCALIONI, A., CUBO, J., KOTSAKIS, T., MELORO, C., et al. 2010. The Gavialis-Tomistoma debate: The contribution of skull ontogenetic allometry and growth trajectories to the study of crocodilian relationships. Evolution & Development 12(6): 568–579.
- PISO, W. 1658. Historiae Naturalis & Medicae Indiae Occidentalis. Libri Quinque. *De Indiae Utriusque re naturali et medica. Libri Quat ordecim.* Amstelaedami [Amsterdam].
- POOK, C.E., FRY, B.G., LAMBERT, M., FAVREAU, P., DOLJAN-SKY, Y. & WÜSTER, W. 2005. A phylogeny of *Dendroaspis* (Elapidae), according to mitochondrial DNA and toxin amino acid sequence data. *Book of Abstracts, 5th World congress* of *Herpetology; 19–24 June 2005 Stellenbosch:* 82. Stellenbosch.
- POOLEY, A.C. 1982. Further observations on the Nile Crocodile *Crocodylus niloticus* in the St Lucia Lake System. In R.H. Taylor (ed.), *St Lucia Research Review*: 144–161. Natal Parks Board.
- POOLEY, A.C., POOLEY, E., HADLEY, W.F. & GANS, C. 1973. Ecological aspects of the distribution of subsoil herpetofauna in Ndumu Game Reserve. *Annals of the Carnegie Museum* 44: 103–115.
- PORTIK, D. 2009. Comparative Phylogeography of Two Skink Species in Southern Africa. M.Sc. thesis, Villanova University, Villanova.
- PORTIK, D.M. & PAPENFUSS, T.J. 2012. Monitors cross the Red Sea: The biogeographic history of Varanus yemenensis. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 62(1): 561–565.
- PORTIK, D.[M.], BAUER, A.M. & JACKMAN, T.R. 2010. The phylogenetic affinities of *Trachylepis sulcata nigra* and the intraspecific evolution of coastal melanism in the western rock skink. *African Zoology* 45: 147–159.
- PORTIK, D.M., BAUER, A.M. & JACKMAN, T.R. 2011. Bridging the gap: western rock skinks (*Trachylepis sulcata*) have a short history in South Africa. *Molecular Ecology* 20: 1744– 1758.

- POWER, J.H. 1931. On the herpetological fauna of the Lobatsi-Linokana area. Part II—Linokana. *Transactions of the Royal Society of South Africa* 20: 39–49.
- PRITCHARD, P.C.H. 1979. *Encyclopedia of Turtles*. T.F.H. Publications, Neptune City.
- PUENTE, M., THOMAS, M. & VENCES, M. 2005. Phylogeny and biogeography of Malagasy dwarf geckos, *Lygodactylus* Gray, 1864: Preliminary data from mitochondrial DNA sequences (Squamata: Gekkonidae). In B.A. Huber, B.J. Sinclair & K-H. Lampe (eds), *Biodiversity: Molecules, Organisms, Ecosystems*: 229–235. Proceedings of the 5th International Symposium of Tropical Biology, Museum Koenig, Bonn, Germany.
- PYRON, R.A., BURBRINK, F.T., COLLI, G.R., MONTES DE OCÁ, A.N., VITT, L.J., KUCZYNSKI, C.A. & WIENS, J.J. 2011. The phylogeny of advanced snakes (Coluroidea), with discovery of a new subfamily and comparison of support methods for likelihood trees. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 58(2): 329–342.
- RAKOTONIRINA, B. & COOKE, A. 1994. Sea turtles of Madagascar—their status, exploitation and conservation. *Oryx* 28: 51–61.
- RALL, M. & FAIRALL, N. 1993. Diets and food preferences of two South African tortoises Geochelone pardalis and Psammobates oculifer. South African Journal of Wildlife Research 23: 63–70.
- RASMUSSEN, J.B. 1989. On the taxonomic status of *Dipsadoboa aulica aulica* Gunther and *D. aulica flavida* Broadley & Stevens, with the description of a new subspecies of *D. flavida* Broadley & Stevens (Boiginae, Serpentes). *Amphibia-Reptilia* 10: 35–62.
- RASMUSSEN, J.B. 2005. On the identification and distribution of the Two-Striped Night Adder (*Causus bilineatus*) and related forms. *African Journal of Herpetology* 54(1): 1–15.
- RAU, R. 1971. Weitere Angaben über die Geometrische Landschildkröte, *Testudo geometrica*. Salamandra 7(3–4): 123– 136.
- RAW, L.R.G. 1973. A review of the Dusky-bellied Water Snake, Lycodonomorphus laevissimus (Gunther), with descriptions of two new subspecies. Annals of the Natal Museum 21(3): 713–718.
- RAW, L.G.R. 1978. A further new dwarf chameleon from Natal, South Africa (Chamaelonidae: Sauria). Durban Museum Novitates 11(15): 265–269.
- RAW, L.R.G. 1995. Biodiversity, biogeography and conservation of South Africa's endemic dwarf chameleons. *Institute of Natural Resources Investigational Report No. 177.* Institute of Natural Resources, Scottsville.
- RAW, L.R.G. 2001. *Revision of some Dwarf Chameleons (Sauria: Chamaeleonidae: Bradypodion) from Eastern South Africa.* M.Sc. thesis, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg.
- RAW, L.R.G. & BROTHERS, D.J. 2008. Redescription of the South African dwarf chameleon, *Bradypodion nemorale* Raw 1978 (Sauria: Chamaeleonidae), and description of two new species. *ZooNova* 1(1): 1–7.
- RAWLINGS, L.H. & DONNELLAN, S.C. 2003. Phylogeographic analysis of the green python, *Morelia viridis*, reveals cryptic diversity. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 27: 36–44.
- RAWLINGS, L.H., RABOSKY, D.L., DONNELLAN, S.C. & HUTCH-INSON, M.N. 2008. Python phylogenetics: Inference from morphology and mitochondrial DNA. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 93: 603–619.
- READING, C.J., LUISELLI, L.M., AKANI, G.C., BONNET, X., AMORI, G., BALLOUARD, J.M., FILIPPI, E., *et al.* 2010. Are snake populations in widespread decline? *Biology Letters* 6: 777–780.
- REBELO, A.G., BOUCHER, C., HELME, N., MUCINA, L. & RU-THERFORD, M.C. 2006. Fynbos Biome. In L. Mucina & M.C. Rutherford (eds), The Vegetation of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. Strelitzia 19: 52–219. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- REED, S.E. & MERENLENDER, A.M. 2008. Quiet, nonconsumptive recreation reduces protected area effectiveness. *Conser*vation Letters 1: 146–154.
- REICHART, H.A. 1993. Synopsis of Biological Data on the Olive Ridley Sea Turtle Lepidochelys olivacea (Eschscholtz, 1829) in the Western Atlantic. NOAA Technical Memorandum 336, National Marine Fisheries Service, Miami.

- REMIE, S. & MORTIMER, J.A. 2007. First records of Olive Ridley Turtles (*Lepidochelys olivacea*) in Seychelles. *Marine Turtle Newsletter* 117: 9.
- REYNOLDS, R.G., BOOTH, W., SCHUETT, G.W., FITZPATRICK, B.M. & BURGHARDT, G.M. 2012. Successive virgin births of viable male progeny in the checkered gartersnake, *Thamnophis marcianus. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 107(3): 566–572.
- RICHARDSON, D.M. & VAN WILGEN, B.W. 2004. Invasive alien plants in South Africa: How well do we understand the ecological impacts? South African Journal of Science 100(1/2): 45–52.
- ROBERTS, M.A., SCHWARTZ, T.S. & KARL, S.A. 2004. Global population genetic structure and male mediated gene flow in the green sea turtle (*Chelonia mydas*): Analysis of microsatellite loci. *Genetics* 166: 1857–1870.
- ROCHA, S., CARRETERO, M.A. & HARRIS, D.J. 2005. Diversity and phylogenetic relationships of *Hemidactylus* geckos from the Comoro islands. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 35: 292–299.
- ROCHA, S., CARRETERO, M.A., VENCES, M., GLAW, F. & HAR-RIS, D.J. 2006. Deciphering patterns of transoceanic dispersal: The evolutionary origin and biogeography of coastal lizards (*Cryptoblepharus*) in the Western Indian Ocean Region. *Journal of Biogeography* 33(1): 13–22.
- ROCHA, S., ROSLER, H., GEHRING, P.-S, GLAW, F., POSADA, D., HARRIS, D.J. & VENCES, M. 2010. Phylogenetic systematics of day geckos, genus *Phelsuma*, based on molecular and morphological data (Squamata: Gekkonidae). *Zootaxa* 2429: 1–28.
- RODRIGUES, A.S.L., GRAY, C.L., CROWTER, B.J., EWERS, R.M., STUART, S.N., WHITTEN, T. & MANICA, A. 2010. A global assessment of amphibian taxonomic effort and expertise. *Bioscience* 60: 798–806.
- RÖLL, B. 1999. Biochemical and morphological aspects of the relationship of the Namaqua day gecko to *Phelsuma* and *Rhoptropus* (Reptilia, Gekkonidae). *Zoology—Analysis of Complex Systems* 102: 50–60.
- ROOS, J., AGGARWAL, R.K. & JANKE, A. 2007. Extended mitogenomic phylogenetic analyses yield new insight into crocodylian evolution and their survival of the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 45: 663– 673.
- ROUGET, M., JONAS, Z., COWLING, R.M., DESMET, P.G., DRIV-ER, A., MOHAMED, B., MUCINA, L., et al. 2006. Ecosystem status and protection levels of vegetation types. In L.. Mucina & M.C. Rutherford (eds), The Vegetation of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. Strelitzia 19: 725–737, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria.
- ROUGET, M., RICHARDSON, D.M., COWLING, R.M., LLOYD, J.W. & LOMBARD, A.T. 2003. Current patterns of habitat transformation and future threats to biodiversity in terrestrial ecosystems of the Cape Floristic Region, South Africa. *Biological Conservation* 112: 63–85.
- ROUGET, M., RICHARDSON, D.M., NEL, J.L., LE MAITRE, D.C., EGOH B. & MGIDI, T. 2004. Mapping the potential ranges of major plant invaders in South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland using climatic suitability. *Diversity and Distributions* 10: 475–484.
- ROUX, J. 1907. Beiträge zur Kenntnis der Fauna von Süd-Afrika.
 Ergebnisse einer Reise von Prof. Max Weber im Jahre 1894.
 VII. Lacertilia (Eidechsen). Zoologische Jahrbücher, Abteilung für Systematik, Geographie und Biologie der Tiere 25: 403–444.
- ROWE, G., BEEBEE T.J.C. & BURKE, T. 1999. Microsatellite heterozygosity, fitness, and demography in natterjack toads *Bufo calamita*. *Animal Conservation* 2: 85–92.
- RUDOLPH, D.C., BURGDORF, S.J., CONNER, R.N. & SCHAEFER, R.R. 1999. Preliminary evaluation of the impact of roads and associated vehicular traffic on snake populations in eastern Texas. In G.L. Evink, P. Garrett & D. Ziegler (eds.), Proceedings of the Third International Symposium on Wildlife Ecology and Transportation: 129–136. Florida Department of Transportation, Tallahassee, FL. Report No. FL-ER-73-99.
- RUSSELL, A.P. 1972. *The Foot of Gekkonid Lizards: A Study in Comparative and Functional Anatomy.* Ph.D. Dissertation, University of London, London.

- RUSSELL, A.P. 1976. Some comments concerning interrelationships amongst gekkonine geckos. In A, d'A. Bellairs & C.B. Cox (eds), *Morphology and Biology of Reptiles*: 217–244. Academic Press, London.
- RUSSELL, A.P. 1977. The genera *Rhoptropus* and *Phelsuma* (Reptilia Gekkonidae) in southern Africa: a case of convergence and a reconsideration of the biogeography of *Phelsuma*. *Zoologica Africana* 12: 393–408.
- RUSSELL, A.P. & BAUER, A.M. 1990. Hypertrophied phalangeal chondroepiphyses in the gekkonid lizard genus *Phelsuma*: Their structure and relation to the adhesive mechanism. *Journal of Zoology, London* 221: 205–217.
- SAIFF, E.I. 1970. Geographical variation in the genus *Zygaspis* (Amphisbaenia: Reptilia). *Herpetologica* 26: 86–119.
- SAINT, K.M., AUSTIN, C.C., DONNELLAN, S.C. & HUTCHIN-SON, M.N. 1998. C-mos, a nuclear marker useful for squamate phylogenetic analysis. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 10: 259–263.
- SALAFSKY, N., SALZER, D., STATTERSFIELD, A.J., HILTON-TAY-LOR, C., NEUGARTEN, R., BUTCHART, S.H.M., COLLEN, B., et al. 2008. A standard lexicon for biodiversity conservation: Unified classifications of threats and action. *Conservation Biology* 22: 897–911.
- SALE, A., LUSCHI, P., MENCACCI, R., HUGHES, G.R., LUTJE-HARMS, J.R.E. & PAPI, F. 2006. Long-term monitoring of leatherback turtle diving behaviour during oceanic movements. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 328: 197–210.
- SALVI, D., BOMBI, P. & VIGNOLI, L. 2011. Phylogenetic position of the southern rock lizard Australolacerta australis within the Lacertidae radiation. African Journal of Herpetology 60(1): 60–69.
- SALVIDIO, S., MENEGON, M., SINDACO, R. & MOYER, D. 2004. A new species of elongate seps from Udzungwa grasslands, southern Tanzania (Reptilia, Gerrhosauridae, *Tetradactylus* Merrem, 1820). *Amphibia-Reptilia* 25(1): 19–27.
- SANDERS, K.L., LEE, M.S.Y., MUMPUNI, BERTOZZI, T. & RAS-MUSSEN, A.R. 2012. Multilocus phylogeny and recent rapid radiation of the viviparous sea snakes (Elapidae: Hydrophiinae). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 66 (3): 575– 591
- SAVAGE, J.A. 2003. Lacepéde, B.G.É. de la V., 1788, Histoire Naturelle des Quadrupédes Ovipares: Proposed rejection as a non-binomial work. *Bulletin of Zoological Nomenclature* 60 (2): 138.
- SAWAI, Y., HONMA, M., KAWAMURA, Y., SAKI, A. & HATSUSE, M. 2002. *Rhabdophis tigrinus* in Japan: Pathogenesis of envenomation and production of antivenom. *Journal of Toxicol*ogy; *Toxin Reviews* 21(1–2): 181–201.
- SCHÄTTI, B. & CHARVET, C. 2003. Systematics of *Platyceps brevis* (Boulenger 1895) and related East African racers (Serpentes Colubrinae). *Tropical Zoology* 16: 93–111.
- SCHÄTTI, B. & TRAPE, J.-F. 2008: Bamanophis, a new genus for the West African colubrid Periops dorri Lataste, 1888 (Reptilia: Squamata: Colubrinae). Revue Suisse de Zoologie 115(4): 595–615.
- SCHAEFER, N. 1970. A new species of House Snake from Swaziland, with notes on the status of the two genera Lamprophis and Boaedon. Annals of the Cape Provincial Museums (Natural History) 8(14): 205–208.
- SCHLEIP, W.D. 2008. Revision of the genus *Leiopython* Hubrecht 1879 (Serpentes: Pythonidae) with the redescription of taxa recently described by Hoser (2000) and the description of new species. *Journal of Herpetology* 42(4): 645–667.
- SCHLEIP, W.D. & O'SHEA, M. 2010. Annotated checklist of the recent and extinct pythons (Serpentes, Pythonidae), with notes on nomenclature, taxonomy, and distribution. *ZooKeys* 66: 29–79.
- SCHMIDT, A. 2004. Mimikry zwischen Eidechsen und Laufkäfern. Edition Chimaira, Frankfurt.
- SCHMIDT, K.P. 1933. The reptiles of the Pulitzer Angola expedition. Annals of the Carnegie Museum 22(1): 1–15.
- SCHMIDT-NIELSEN, K. & FANGE, R. 1958. Salt glands in marine reptiles. *Nature* 182 (4638): 783–785.
- SCHMITZ, A., BRANDLEY, M.C., MAUSFELD, P., VENCES, M., GLAW, F., NUSSBAUM R.A. & REEDER, T.W. 2005b. Opening the black box: Phylogenetics and morphological evolution

of the Malagasy fossorial lizards of the subfamily "Scincinae". *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 34: 118–133.

- SCHMITZ, A., INEICH, I. & CHIRIO, L. 2005a. Molecular review of the genus *Panaspis sensu lato* (Reptilia: Scincidae) in Cameroon, with special reference to the status of the proposed subgenera. *Zootaxa* 863: 1–28.
- SCHMITZ, A., MANSFELD, P., HEKKALA, E., SHINE, T., NICKEL, H., AMATO, G. & BÖHME, W. 2003. Molecular evidence for species level divergence in African Nile Crocodiles Crocodylus niloticus (Laurenti, 1786). Comptes Rendus Palevol 2: 703–712.
- SCHMITZ, A., MAUSFELD, P. & EMBERT, D. 2004. Molecular studies on the genus *Eumeces* Wiegmann, 1834: Phylogenetic relationships and taxonomic implications. *Hamadryad* 28: 73–89.
- SCHNEIDER, V. & BAUER, A.M. 2009. *Typhlosaurus jappi* Broadley, 1968, a valid species of acontine skink. *African Journal of Herpetology* 58: 56–58.
- SCLATER, W.L. 1898. List of the reptiles and amphibians of South Africa, with descriptions of new species. *Annals of the South African Museum* 1: 95–111.
- SCOTT, I.A.W., KEOGH, J.S. & WHITING, M.J. 2004. Shifting sands and shifty lizards: Molecular phylogeny and biogeography of African flat lizards (*Platysaurus*). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 31: 618–629.
- SCOTT, P., BRUTON, J.A. & FITTER, R. 1987. Red Data Books: The historical background. In R. Fitter & M. Fitter (eds), *The Road to Extinction: Problems of Categorizing the Status of Taxa Threatened with Extinction*: 1–5. IUCN and UNEP, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- SCOTT, T., BAUER, A.M. & JACKMAN, T. 2012. Diversification of an African dwarf: Molecular phylogenetics, species limits, and historical biogeography of southern African dwarf geckos (Gekkonidae: *Lygodactylus*). Seventh World Congress of Herpetology, Vancouver, Canada, 8–14 August 2012 (www.wch-2012vancouver.com/abstractdownload; see also *African Herp News* 58: 76, 2012).
- SEMINOFF, J.A. 2004. 2004 Global Status Assessment: Green turtle (Chelonia mydas). Marine Turtle Specialist Group Review, Red List Programme, Species Survival Commission, World Conservation Union (IUCN), Gland.
- SEMLITSCH, R.D. 2000. Size does matter: The value of small isolated wetlands. *National Wetlands Newsletter* 22: 5–7. Environmental Law Institute, Washington DC.
- SHINE, R. & WEBB, J.K. 1990. Natural history of Australian typhlopid snakes. *Journal of Herpetolology* 24: 357–363.
- SHINE, R., BRANCH, W.R., HARLOW, P.S., WEBB, J.K. & SHINE, T. 2006. Biology of burrowing asps (Atractaspididae) from southern Africa. *Copeia* 2006(1): 103–115.
- SHINE, R., HARLOW, P.S., BRANCH, W.R. & WEBB, J.K. 1996. Life on the lowest branch: Sexual dimorphism, diet and reproductive biology of an African Twig Snake, *Thelotornis capensis* (Serpentes, Colubridae). *Copeia* 1996(2): 290–299.
- SHUTTLEWORTH, C. 2006. *Ecological Relationships between the Armadillo Lizard* Cordylus cataphractus *and the Southern Harvester Termite* Microhodotermes viator. M.Sc. thesis, Stellenbosch University, Stellenbosch.
- SHUTTLEWORTH, C., MOUTON, P. LE F.N. & VAN WYK, J.H. 2008. Group size and termite consumption in the armadillo lizard, Cordylus cataphractus. Amphibia-Reptilia 29: 171– 176.
- SILVA, A., ROCHA, S., GERLACH, J., ROCAMORA, G., DUFREN-NE, A. & HARRIS, D.J. 2010. Assessment of mtDNA genetic diversity within the terrapins *Pelusios subniger* and *Pelusios castanoides* across the Seychelles islands. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 31(4): 583–588(6).
- SINERVO, B., MENDEZ-DE LA CRUZ, F., MILES, D.B., HEULIN, B., BASTIAANS, E., VILLAGRAN-SANTA CRUZ, M., LARA-RESENDIZ, R., et al. 2010. Erosion of lizard diversity by climate change and altered thermal niches. Science 328: 894–899.
- SINDACO, R., METALLINOU, M., PUPIN, F. FASOLA, M. & CAR-RANZA, S. 2012. Forgotten in the ocean: systematics, biogeography and evolution of the *Trachylepis* skinks of the Socotra Archipelago. *Zoologica scripta* 41(4): .346–362, App. 1–8.
- SLOWINSKI, J.B. & KEOGH, J.S. 2000. Phylogenetic relationships of elapid snakes based on cytochrome b mtDNA se-

quences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 15(1): 157–164.

- SLOWINSKI, J.B. & LAWSON, R. 2002. Snake phylogeny: Evidence from nuclear and mitochondrial genes. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 24: 194–202.
- SMART, R., WHITING, M.J. & TWINE, W. 2005. Lizards and landscapes: integrating field surveys and interviews to assess the impact of human disturbance on lizard assemblages and selected reptiles in a savanna in South Africa. *Biological Conservation* 122: 23–31.
- SMITH, A. 1838–1847. Illustrations of the Zoology of South Africa; consisting chiefly of figures and descriptions of the objects of natural history collected during an expedition to the interior of South Africa in 1834–1836. Smith, Elder & Co., London.
- SMITH, M.A. 1937. A review of the genus *Lygosoma* (Scincidae: Reptilia) and its allies. *Records of the Indian Museum* 39: 213–234.
- SNOW, R.W., KRYSKO, K.L., ENGE, K.M., OBERHOFER, L., WARREN-BRADLEY, A. & WILKINS, L. 2007. Introduced populations of *Boa constrictor* (Boidae) and *Python molurus bivitattus* (Pythonidae) in southern Florida. In R.W. Henderson & R. Powell (eds), *The Biology of Boas and Pythons*: 417–438. Eagle Mountain Publishers, Eagle Mountain.
- SOUND, P., KOSUCH, J., VENCES, M., SEITZL, A. & VEITH, M. 2006. Preliminary molecular relationships of Comoran day geckos (*Phelsuma*). In M. Vences, J. Köhler, T. Ziegler & W. Böhme (eds), *Herpetologia Bonnensis II. Proceedings of the 13th Congress of the Societas Europaea Herpetologica*: 175–179. Zoologisches Forschungsmuseum A. Koenig and Societas Europaea Herpetologica, Bonn, Germany.
- SOUTHWOOD, A.L., ANDREWS, R.D., LUTCAVAGÉ, M.E., PA-LADINO, F.V., WEST, N.H., GEORGE, R.H. & JONES, D.R. 1999. Heart rates and diving behaviour of leatherback sea turtles in the eastern Pacific Ocean. *Journal of Experimental Biology* 202: 1115–1125.
- SPAWLS, S. & BRANCH, B.[W.R] 1995. The Dangerous Snakes of Africa. Southern Book Publishers, Halfway House.
- SPAWLS, S., HOWELL, K., DREWES, R. & ASHE, J. 2002. *A Field Guide to the Reptiles of East Africa.* Academic Press, London and San Diego.
- SPEYBROEK, J., HEUKĚMA, W. & CROCHET, P.-A. 2010. A tentative species list of the European herpetofauna (Amphibia and Reptilia) – an update. *Zootaxa* 2492: 1–27.
- STANLEY, E.L., BAUER, A.M., JACKMAN, T.R., BRANCH, W.R. & MOUTON, P. LE F.N. 2011. Between a rock and a hard polytomy: Rapid radiation in the rupicolous Girdled Lizards (Squamata: Cordylidae). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 58(1): 53–70.
- STEENKAMP, Y., VAN WYK, A.E., VICTOR, J.E., HOARE, D., SMITH, G., DOLD, T. & COWLING, R. 2004. Maputaland-Pondoland-Albany. In R.A. Mittermeier, P. Robles-Gil, M. Hoffmann, J.D. Pilgrim, T.M. Brooks, C.G. Mittermeier & G.A.B. Fonseca (eds), *Hotspots revisited: Earth's biologically richest* and most endangered terrestrial ecoregions: 218–229. CE-MEX, Mexico City.
- STERNFELD, R. 1910. Zur Schlangenfauna Deutsch-Südwestafrikas. Mitteilungen aus dem Zoologischen Museum in Berlin 5(1): 67–70.
- STEWART, G. 2001. The Maloti-Drakensberg Mountains; conservation challenges in a region of international significance. *The Journal of the Mountain Club of South Africa* 2000: 146–159.
- STONER, D. 1925. The toll of the automobile. Science 61: 56–58.
- STUART, S.N., CHANSON, J.S., COX, N.A., YOUNG, B.E., RO-DRIGUES, A.S.L., FISCHMAN, D.L. & WALLER, R.W. 2004. Status and trends of amphibian declines and extinctions worldwide. *Science* 306: 1783–1786.
- SWANEPOEL, S.-M. 2010. Geographical distribution: *Meizodon* semiornatus semiornatus. African Herp News 50: 40–41.
- SWART, B.L., TOLLEY, K.A. & MATTHEE, C.A. 2009. Climate change drives speciation in the southern rock agama (Agama atra) in the Cape Floristic Region, South Africa. Journal of Biogeography 36(1): 78–87.
- THOMAS, G.D. 2006. Human-crocodile conflict (Nile crocodile: Crocodylus niloticus) in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. M.Sc. thesis, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.

- THOMAS, R. & HEDGES, B.S. 2007. Eleven new species of snakes of the genus *Typhlops* (Serpentes: Typhlopidae) from Hispaniola and Cuba. *Zootaxa* 1400: 1–26.
- TILBURY, C.[R.] 2010. Chameleons of Africa: An Atlas including the Chameleons of Europe, the Middle East and Asia. Frankfurt Contributions to Natural History Vol. 37. Edition Chimaira, Frankfurt.
- TILBURY, C.R. & BRANCH, W.R. 1989. Observations on the bite of the southern burrowing asp (*Atractaspis bibronii*) in Natal. *South African Medical Journal* 75: 327–331.
- TILBURY, C.R. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2009a. A re-appraisal of the systematics of the African genus *Chamaeleo* (Reptilia: Chamaeleonidae). *Zootaxa* 2079: 57–68.
- TILBURY, C.R. & TOLLEY, K.A. 2009b. A new species of dwarf chameleon (Sauria; Chamaeleonidae, *Bradypodion* Fitzinger) from KwaZulu Natal South Africa with notes on recent climatic shifts and their influence on speciation in the genus. *Zootaxa* 2226: 43–57.
- TILBURY, C.R., TOLLEY, K.A. & BRANCH, W.R. 2006. A review of the systematics of the genus *Bradypodion* (Sauria: Chamaeleonidae), with the description of two new genera. *Zootaxa* 1363: 23–38.
- TOLLEY, K.A. & BURGER, M. 2004b. Geographical distribution: Bradypodion gutturale. African Herp News 37: 29–32.
- TOLLEY, K.A. & BURGER, M. 2004a. Distribution of Bradypodion taeniabronchum (Smith 1831) and other dwarf chameleons in the eastern Cape Floristic Region of South Africa. African Journal of Herpetology 52(2): 123–133.
- TOLLEY, K.A. & BURGER, M. 2007. Chameleons of Southern Africa. Struik, Cape Town.
- TOLLEY, K.A. & MEASEY, G.J. 2007. Chameleons and vineyards in the Western Cape of South Africa: Is automated grape harvesting a threat to the Cape Dwarf Chameleon (*Bradypodion pumilum*)? African Journal of Herpetology 56(1): 85–89.
- TOLLEY, K.A., BURGER, M., TURNER, A.A. & MATTHEE, C.A. 2006. Biogeographic patterns and phylogeography of dwarf chameleons (*Bradypodion*) in an African biodiversity hotspot. *Molecular Ecology* 15: 781–793.
- TOLLEY, K.A., CHASE, B.M. & FOREST, F. 2008. Speciation and radiations track climate transitions since the Miocene Climatic Optimum: A case study of southern African chameleons. *Journal of Biogeography* 35: 1402–1414.
- TOLLEY, K.A., MAKOKHA, J.S., HOUNIET, D.T., SWART, B.L. & MATTHEE, C.A. 2009. The potential for predicted climate shifts to impact genetic landscapes of lizards in the South African Cape Floristic Region. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 51: 120–130.
- TOLLEY, K.A., TILBURY, C.R., BRANCH, W.R. & MATTHEE, C.A. 2004. Phylogenetics of the southern African dwarf chameleons, *Bradypodion* (Squamata: Chamaeleonidae). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 30: 354–365.
- TOWNSEND, T.[M.] & LARSON, A. 2002. Molecular phylogenetics and mitochondrial genomic evolution in the Chamaeleonidae (Reptilia, Squamata). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 23(1): 22–36.
- TOWNSEND, T.M., LARSON, A., LOUIS, E. & MACEY, J.R. 2004. Molecular phylogenetics of Squamata: The position of snakes, amphisbaenians, and dibamids, and the root of the squamate tree. Systematic Biology 53: 735–757.
- TOWNSEND, T.M., TOLLEY, K.A., GLAW, F., BÖHME, W. & VENCES, M. 2011. Eastwards from Africa: Palaeocurrentmediated chameleon dispersal to the Seychelles islands. *Biol*ogy Letters 7: 225–228.
- TRAPE, J.-F. & MANÉ, Y. 2006. Le genre Dasypeltis Wagler (Serpentes : Colubridae) en Afrique de l'Ouest : description de trois espèces et d'une sous-espèce nouvelles. Bulletin de la Société Herpétologique de France 119: 27–56.
- TRAVERS, S.L. 2012. Molecular phylogenetics, species limits, and historical biogeography of southern African dwarf geckos, Lygodactylus Gray 1864 (Squamata: Gekkonidae). M.Sc. dissertation, Villanova University, Villanova.
- TROËNG, S. & DREWS, C. 2004. Money Talks: Economic Aspects of Sea Turtle Use and Conservation. WWF-International, Gland.
- TURNER, A.A., DE VILLIERS, A.L. & BAARD, E.H.W. 2007. Reptiles. In A.A. Turner (ed.), Western Cape Province. State of Biodiversity 2007: 55–74. CapeNature Scientific Services, Cape Town.

- TURTLE TAXONOMY WORKING GROUP [RHODIN, A.G.J., VAN DIJK, P.P., IVERSON, J.B., AND SHAFFER, H.B.]. 2010. Turtles of the world, 2010 update: annotated checklist of taxonomy, synonymy, distribution, and conservation status. In A.G.J. Rhodin, P.C.H. Pritchard, P.P. van Dijk, R.A. Saumure, K.A. Buhlmann, J.B. Iverson & R.A. Mittermeier (eds), Conservation Biology of Freshwater Turtles and Tortoises: A Compilation Project of the IUCN/SSC Tortoise and Freshwater Turtle Specialist Group. *Chelonian Research Monographs* 5: 000.85–000.164.
- UETZ, P. 2000. How many Reptile Species? *Herpetological Review* 31(1): 13–15.
- UETZ, P. 2010. The original descriptions of reptiles. *Zootaxa* 2334: 59–68.
- UETZ, P. 2011. The Reptile Database. http://www.reptile-database.org/.
- UETZ, P. 2012. (ed.). *The Reptile Database*. http://www.reptiledatabase.org/.
- ULBER, T.M. 1999. Sir Andrew Smith's "Illustrations of the Zoology of South Africa" An annotated Table of Contents for the "Reptilia" Volume. Smithsonian Herpetological Information Service. No 129: 1–17.
- UNDERWOOD, G. 1968. On the status of some South African vipers. Annals of the Cape Provincial Museum 6(9): 81–85.
- UNDERWOOD, G. & KOCHVA, E. 1993. On the affinities of the burrowing asps Atractaspis (Serpentes: Atractaspididae). Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society 107: 3–64.
- UNDERWOOD, G. & STIMSON, A.F. 1990. A classification of pythons (Serpentes, Pythoninae). *Journal of Zoology, London* 221: 565–603.
- VALLAN, D. 2002. Effects of anthropogenic environmental changes on amphibian diversity in the rain forests of eastern Madagascar. *Journal of Tropical Ecology* 18: 725–742.
- VAN DAM, G.P.F. 1921. Description of a new variety of a South African lizard of the family Gekkonidae. Annals of the Transvaal Museum 7(4): 244.
- VAN DOORN, A.C. 2009. The interface between socioecology and management of Chacma baboons (*Papio ursinus*) in the Cape Peninsula, South Africa. PhD thesis, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.
- VAN DER MEER, M.J., WHITING, M.J. & BRANCH, W.R. 2010. Ecology of Southern African Sandveld Lizards (Lacertidae, *Nucras*). *Copeia* 2010(4): 568–577.
- VAN RENSBURG, B.J., WEYL, O.L.F., DAVIES, S.J., VAN WILGEN, L.J., PEACOCK, D.S., SPEAR, D. & CHIMIMBA, C.T. 2011. In D. Pimentel (ed.), Invasive Vertebrates of South Africa. In: *Biological Invasions: Economic and Environmental Costs of Alien Plant, Animal, and Microbe Species*: 326– 378. CRC Press, Boca Raton.
- VAN WILGEN, B.W., RICHARDSON, D.M., KRUGER, F.J. & VAN HENSBERGEN, H.J. (eds) 1992. Fire in South African Mountain Fynbos: Species, Community and Ecosystem Response in Swartboskloof. Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg.
- VAN WILGEN, N.J., RICHARDSON, D.M. & BAARD, E.H.W. 2008. Alien reptiles and amphibians in South Africa: Towards a pragmatic management strategy. South African Journal of Science 104: 13–20.
- VAN WILGEN, N.J., WILSON, J.R.U., ELITH, J., WINTLE, B.A. & RICHARDSON, D.M. 2010. Alien invaders and reptile traders: What drives the live animal trade in South Africa? *Animal Conservation* 13, Suppl. 1: 24–32.
- VAN WYK, J.H. 1988. Cordylus giganteus: species account. In W.R. Branch (ed.), South African Red Data Book—Reptiles and Amphibians: 77–80. South African National Programme Report No. 151. CSIR, Pretoria.
- VAN WYK, J.H. 1991. Biennial reproduction in the female viviparous lizard, *Cordylus giganteus*. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 12: 329–342.
- VAN WYK, J.H. 1995. The male reproductive cycle of the viviparous lizard, *Cordylus giganteus* (Sauria: Cordylidae). *Journal* of *Herpetology* 29: 522–535.
- VARGAS-RAMÍREZ, M., VENCES, M., BRANCH, W.R., DAN-IELS, S.R., GLAW, F., HOFMEYR, M.D., KUCHLING, G., et al. 2010. Deep genealogical lineages in the widely distributed African helmeted terrapin: Evidence from mitochondrial and nuclear DNA (Testudines: Pelomedusidae: Pelomedusa subrufa). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 56: 428–440.

- VENCES, M., WANKE, S., VIEITES, D.R., BRANCH, W.R., GLAW, F. & MEYER, A. 2004. Natural colonization or introduction? Phylogeographical relationships and morphological differentiation of house geckos (*Hemidactylus*) from Madagascar. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 83: 115–130.
- VIDAL, N. & HEDGES, S.B. 2002. Higher-level relationships of caenophidian snakes inferred from four nuclear and mitochondrial genes. *Comptes Rendus Biologies* 325: 987–995.
- VIDAL, N. & HEDGES, S.B. 2004. Molecular evidence for a terrestrial origin of snakes. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B* 271 (Supplement): 226–229.
- VIDAL, N. & HEDGES, S.B. 2005. The phylogeny of squamate reptiles (lizards, snakes, and amphisbaenians) inferred from nine nuclear protein-coding genes. *Comptes Rendus Biologies* 328: 1000–1008.
- VIDAL, N. & HEDGES, S.B. 2009. The molecular evolutionary tree of lizards, snakes, and amphisbaenians. *Comptes Rendus Biologies* 332(2–3): 129–139.
- VIDAL, N., AZVOLINSKY, A., CRUAUD, C. & HEDGES, S.B. 2008b. Origin of tropical American burrowing reptiles by transatlantic rafting. *Biology Letters* 4: 115–118.
- VIDAL, N., BRANCH, W.R., PAUWELS, O.S.G., HEDGES, S.B., BROADLEY, D.G., WINK, M., CRUAUD, C., et al. 2008a. Dissecting the major African snake radiation: A molecular phylogeny of the Lamprophiidae Fitzinger (Serpentes, Caenophidia). Zootaxa 1945: 51–66.
- VIDAL, N., DELMAS, A.-S. & HEDGES, S.B. 2007b. The higher-level relationships of alethinophidian snakes inferred from seven nuclear and mitochondrial genes. In R.W. Henderson & R. Powell (eds), *Biology of the Boas and Pythons*: 27–33. Eagle Mountain Publishing, Eagle Mountain.
- VIDAL, N., DELMAS, A.-S., DAVID, P., CRUAUD, C., COULOUX, A. & HEDGES, S.B. 2007a. The phylogeny and classification of caenophidian snakes inferred from seven nuclear proteincoding genes. *Comptes Rendus Biologies* 330: 182–187.
- VIDAL, N., DEWYNTER, M. & GOWER, D.J. 2010. Dissecting the major American snake radiation: a molecular phylogeny of the Dipsadidae Bonaparte (Serpentes, Caenophidia). *Comptes Rendus Biologies* 333: 48–55.
- VIDAL, N., MARIN, J., MORINI, M., DONNELLAN, S., BRANCH, W.R., THOMAS, R., VENCES, M., et al. 2010. Blindsnake evolutionary tree reveals long history on Gondwana. *Biology Letters* 6(4): 558–561.
- VIDAL, N., MARIN, J., SASSI, J., BATTISTUZZI, F.U., DONNEL-LAN, S., FITCH, A.J., FRY, B.J. et al. 2012. Molecular evidence for an Asian origin of monitor lizards followed by Tertiary dispersals to Africa and Australasia. *Biology Letters* 8: 853–855.
- VISSER, J. 1979. Notes on two rare House Snakes—Part 2. The generic status of *Lamprophis fiskii* Boulengeri (1887) and *Lamprophis swazicus* Schaefer (1970). *Journal of the Herpetological Association of Africa* 21: 31–37.
- VISSER, J. 1984a. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika 14. Diksterte sukkel nie met blyplek. *Landbouweekblad* 22 June 1984: 60–61, 63.
- VISSER, J. 1984b. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika 16. Blaartone se spore lê in baie lande. *Landbouweekblad* 6 July 1984: 48–49, 51–52.
- VISSER, J. 1984c. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika 7. Kalahari-geitje kan ook warm kry! *Landbouweekblad* 4 May 1984: 48–49, 51.
- VISSER, J. 1984d. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika 2. Gevlekte geitjies is lief vir die grond. *Landbouweekblad* 30 March 1984: 48–49, 51, 53.
- VISSER, J. 1984e. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika 4. Die skrikwekkende skurwe geitjie. *Landbouweekblad* 13 April 1984: 46–47, 49.
- VISSER, J. 1984f. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika. 33. Akkedisfamilie van die Ou Wêreld. Landbouweekblad 2 November 1984: 64–65, 67, 69.
- VISSER, J. 1984g. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika 32. Gepantserde akkedisse—geslepe klein bloustert 'n kulkunstenaar. Landbouweekblad 26 October 1984: 72–73, 75.
- VISSER, J. 1984h. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika 31. Gepantserde Akkedisse: Net dinamiet sal dié kêrel laat roer. *Landbouweekblad* 19 October 1984: 66–67, 69, 71.

- VISSER, J. 1984i. Akkedisse van Suider-Afrika 24. Stekel-koggelmanders boer maklik ondergronds. *Landbouweekblad* 31 August 1984: 58–59, 61, 63.
- VISSER, J. 1987. A new *Homopholis* (Sauria: Gekkonidae) from the northern Transvaal with a discussion of some generic characters. South African Journal of Zoology 22(2): 110–114.
- VISSER, J. 2010. Variation in hemipenes of different colour phases of *Pseudaspis cana* (Linnaeus) warrants re-evaluation of the species. *African Herp News* 51: 2–3.
- VITT, L.J. & CALDWELL, J.P. 2009. *Herpetology*. Academic Press, New York.
- VONK, F.J., ADMIRAAL, J.F., JACKSON, K., RESHEF, R., DE BAKKER, M.A.G., VANDERSHOOT, K., VAN DEN BERGE, I., et al. 2008. Evolutionary origin and development of snake fangs. Nature 454: 630–633.
- WAGNER, P. & BAUER, A.M. 2012. Out of the blue: a preliminary review of the African whorl-tailed agamas (Agamidae: *Acanthocercus*). Abstract: Seventh World Congress of Herpetology, Vancouver, Canada, 8-14 August 2012 (www.wch-2012vancouver.com/abstractdownload; see also *African Herp News* 58: 79, 2012).
- WAGNER, P., BÖHME, W., PAUWELS, O.S.G. & SCHMITZ, A. 2009. A review of the African red-flanked skinks of the Lygosoma fernandi (BURTON, 1836) species group (Squamata: Scincidae) and the role of climate change in their speciation. Zootaxa 2050: 1–30.
- WAGNER, P., BROADLEY, D.G. & BAUER, A.M. 2012a. A New Acontine Skink from Zambia (Scincidae: Acontias Cuvier, 1817). Journal of Herpetology 46: 494–502.
- WAGNER, P., GREENBAUM, E. & BAUER, A.M. 2012b. A new species of the Acanthocercus atricollis complex (Squamata: Agamidae) from Zambia. Salamandra 48(1): 21-30.
- WAKE, D.B. 1991. Declining amphibian populations. *Science* 253: 860.
- WALKER, R.C.J., ROBERTS, E. & FANNING, E. 2004. The trade of marine turtles in the Toliara region, South West Madagascar. *Marine Turtle Newslettter* 106: 7–10.
- WALLACE, K.M. & LESLIE, A.J. 2008. Diet of the Nile Crocodile (*Crocodylus niloticus*) in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Journal of Herpetology* 42(2): 361–368.
- WALLACH, V. 1998. The lungs of snakes. In C. Gans & A.S. Gaunt (eds), *Biology of the Reptilia. Volume 19 (Morphology G). Visceral Organs*: 93–295. Society for the Study of Amphibians and Reptiles, Ithaca.
- WALLACH, V., WÜSTER, W. & BROADLEY, D.G. 2009. In praise of subgenera: Taxonomic status of cobras of the genus Naja Laurenti (Serpentes: Elapidae). Zootaxa 2236: 26–36.
- WALLIN, L. 1977. The Linnaean type-specimen of Testudo geometrica. Zoon 5: 77–78.
- WARNER, J.K. 2009. Conservation Biology of the Gaboon Adder (Bitis gabonica) in South Africa. M.Sc. thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.
- WATTS, P.C., BULEY, K.R., SANDERSON, S., BOARDMAN, W., CIOFI, C. & GIBSON, R. 2006. Parthenogenesis in Komodo Dragons. *Nature* 444(7122): 1021–1022.
- WEBB, J.K. & SHINE, R. 1993. Prey-size selection, gape limitation and predator vulnerability in Australian blindsnakes (Typhlopidae). *Animal Behaviour* 45: 1117–1126.
- WEBB, J.K., BRANCH, W.R. & SHINE, R. 2001. Dietary habits and reproductive biology of typhlopid snakes from southern Africa. *Journal of Herpetology* 35: 558–567.
- WEBB, J.K., SHINE, R., BRANCH, W.R. & HARLOW, P.S. 2000a. Life underground: Food habits and reproductive biology of two amphisbaenian species from southern Africa. *Journal of Herpetology* 34: 510–516.
- WEBB. J.K., SHINE, R., BRANCH, W.R. & HARLOW, P.S. 2000b. Life history strategies in basal snakes: reproduction and dietary habits of the African thread snake, *Leptotyphlops scutifrons* (Serpentes, Leptotyphlopidae). *Journal of Zoology, London* 250: 321–327.
- WELCH, K.R.G. 1982a. Herpetology of the Old World II. Preliminary comments on the classification of skinks (Family Scincidae) with specific reference to those genera found in Africa, Europe and Southwest Asia. *Herptile* 7(4): 25–27.
- WELCH, K.R.G. 1982b. Herpetology of Africa: A Checklist and Bibliography of the Orders Amphisbaenia, Sauria and Serpentes. Robert E. Krieger Publishing Company, Malabar.

- WERMUTH, H. 1965. Liste der rezenten Amphibien und Reptilien, Gekkonidae, Pygopodidae, Xantusiidae. Das Tierreich 80: 1–246.
- WERMUTH, H. 1968. Liste der rezenten Amphibien und Reptilien. Cordylidae (Subfam. Cordylinae et Gerrhosaurinae). Das Tierreich 87: viii–x, 1–30.
- WERNER, Y.L. 1972. Observations on eggs of eublepharid lizards, with comments on the evolution of the Gekkonoidea. *Zoologische Mededelingen* 47: 211–224, pl. 1.
- WHITING, M.J. & GREEFF, J.M. 1997. Facultative frugivory in the Cape flat lizard, *Platysaurus capensis* (Sauria: Cordylidae). *Copeia* 1997(4): 811–818.
- WHITING, A.S., BAUER, A.M. & SITES, J.W. Jr. 2003. Phylogenetic relationships and limb loss in sub-Saharan African scincine lizards (Squamata: Scincidae). *Molecular Phylogenetics* and Evolution 29: 582–598.
- WHITING, A.S., SITES J.W. Jr & BAUER, A.M. 2004. Molecular phylogenetics of Malagasy skinks (Squamata: Scincidae). African Journal of Herpetology 53(2): 135–146.
- WHITING, M.J., LAILVAUX, S.P., REANEY, L.T. & WYMANN, M. 2003. To run or hide? Age-dependent escape behaviour in the common flat lizard (*Platysaurus intermedius wilhelmi*). Journal of Zoology, London 260: 123–128.
- WHITING, M.J., WILLIAMS, V.L. & HIBBITTS, T.J. 2011. Animals traded for traditional medicine at the Faraday market in South Africa: species diversity and conservation. *Journal of Zoology* 283: 1–13.
- WHITING, M.J., STUART-FOX, D.M., O'CONNOR, D., FIRTH, D., BENNETT, N.C. & BLOMBERG, S.P. 2006. Ultraviolet signals ultra-aggression in a lizard. *Animal Behaviour* 72: 353–363.
- WHITTINGTON-JONES, C., WEST, S., MATABANE, A., KOKO, R., MOLABA, W., MOTSAMAI, J., MAKOLA, J., et al. 2008. The Herpetofauna of Gauteng: Volume 1: Distribution and Status of Reptiles. Fauna Unit, Directorate of Nature Conservation, Gauteng Provincial Government, Johannesburg.
- WIEGMANN, A.F.A. 1828. Beyträge zur Amphibienkunde. Isis von Oken 21: columns 364–383.
- WIENS, J.J., BRANDLEY, M.C. & REEDER, T.W. 2006. Why does a trait evolve multiple times within a clade? Repeated evolution of snake-like body form in squamate reptiles. *Evolution* 60: 123–141.
- WIENS, J.J., HUTTER, C.R., MULCAHY, D.G., NOONAN, B.P., TOWNSEND, T.M., SITES, J.W. & REEDER, T.W. 2012. Resolving the phylogeny of lizards and snakes (Squamata) with extensive sampling of genes and species. *Biology Letters* 8: 1043–1046.
- WILCOX, T.P., ZWICK, D.J., HEATH, T.A. & HILLIS, D.M. 2002. Phylogenetic relationships of the dwarf boas and a comparison of Bayesian and bootstrap measures of phylogenetic support. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 25: 361–371.
- WILLIS, R.E., MCALILEY, L.R., NEELEY, E.D. & DENSMORE, L.D. 2007. Evidence for placing the false gharial (*Tomistoma schlegelii*) into the family Gavialidae: Inferences from nuclear gene sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 43(3): 787–794.
- WITBERG, M. & VAN ZYL, R. 2008. Geographical Distribution: Lygodactylus capensis capensis. African Herp News 46: 23– 24.

- WITHERINGTON, B.E. & MARTIN, R.E. 1996. Understanding, assessing, and resolving light-pollution problems on sea turtle nesting beaches. Florida Marine Research Institute Technical Report TR-2, Florida Marine Research Institute, St. Petersburg.
- WITZELL, W.N. 1983. Synopsis of biological data on the hawksbill turtle Eretmochelys imbricata (Linnaeus, 1766). FAO Fisheries Synopsis No. 137, Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, Rome.
- WOLTZ, H.W., GIBBS, J.P. & DUCEY, P.K. 2008. Road crossing structures for amphibians and reptiles: Informing design through behavioral analysis. *Biological Conservation* 141(11): 2745–2750.
- WONGTSCHOWSKI, B. 1990. Between Woodbush and Wolkberg: Googoo Thompson's Story. B.E.H. Wongtschowski, Haenertsburg.
- WÜSTER, W. & BROADLEY, D.G. 2003. A new species of spitting cobra (*Naja*) from north-eastern Africa (Serpentes: Elapidae). *Journal of Zoology, London* 259: 345–359.
- WÜSTER, W. & BROADLEY, D.G. 2007. Get an eyeful of this: A new species of giant spitting cobra from eastern and north-eastern Africa (Squamata: Serpentes: Elapidae: Naja). Zootaxa 1532: 51–68.
- WÜSTER, W., CROOKES, S., INEICH, I., MANÉ, Y., POOK, C.E., TRAPE, J.-F. & BROADLEY, D.G. 2007. The phylogeny of cobras inferred from mitochondrial DNA sequences: Evolution of venom spitting and the phylogeography of the African spitting cobras (Serpentes: Elapidae: *Naja nigricollis* complex). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 45: 437–453.
- WÜSTER, W., PEPPIN, L., POOK, C.E. & WALKER, D.E. 2008. A nesting of vipers: Phylogeny and historical biogeography of the Viperidae (Squamata: Serpentes). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 49: 445–459.
- ZAHER, H. 1999. Hemipenial morphology of the South American xenodontine snakes, with a proposal for a monophyletic Xenodontinae and a reappraisal of colubroid hemipenes. *Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History* 240: 1–168.
- ZAHER, H., GRAZZIOTIN, F.G., CADLE, J.E., MURPHY, R.W., MOURA-LEITE, J.C.D. & BONATTO, S.L. 2009. Molecular phylogeny of advanced snakes (Serpentes, Caenophidia) with an emphasis on South American Xenodontines: A revised classification and descriptions of new taxa. *Papéis Avulsos de Zoologia (São Paulo)* 49: 115–153.
- ZANRE, R. 2005. Report on Watamu Turtle Watch's Sea Turtle Bycatch Release Programme, Watamu, Kenya: April 1998— May 2004. Unpublished report. www.watamuturtles.com/reports.htm.
- ZHANG, M., WANG, Y., YAN, P. & WU, X. 2011. Crocodilian phylogeny inferred from twelve mitochondrial protein-coding genes, with new complete mitochondrial genomic sequences for Crocodylus acutus and Crocodylus novaeguineae. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 60: 62–67.
- ZUG, G.Ř. & PARHAM, J.F. 1996. Age and growth in the leatherback turtles, *Dermochelys coriacea* (Testudines: Dermochelyidae): A skeletochronological analysis. *Chelonian Conservation* and Biology 2(2): 244–249.

Abbreviations and Glossary

Compiled by Graham J. Alexander

Abbreviations

- ADU—Animal Demography Unit, University of Cape Town
- AOO—Area of occupancy, used in IUCN Conservation Assessments and defined as the area within the extent of occurrence (EOO, see below) which is occupied by a taxon.
- BMP-S—Biodiversity Management Plan for Species
- CITES—An acronym for the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora, an international agreement between governments; South Africa is a signatory.
- CMS—Convention on Migratory Species
- EOO—Extent of occurrence, used in IUCN Conservation Assessments and defined as the minimum convex hull that includes all current distribution records (excluding records of vagrants) of a taxon.
- GPS—Geographic positioning system
- HAA—Herpetological Association of Africa
- IAS—Invasive Alien Species
- ICZN—International commission on Zoological Nomenclature
- in prep.—in preparation, not yet submitted to a journal for peer review.
- IOSEA—Indian Ocean South-East Asian Marine Turtle Memorandum of Understanding
- IOTC—Indian Ocean Tuna Commission
- IUCN—International Union for Conservation of Nature

- MoU—Memorandum of Understanding
- pers. comm.-personal communication
- pers. obs.-personal observation
- PHVA—Population and Habitat Viability Assessment
- QDGC—quarter-degree grid cell. In southern Africa, a QDGC has an area of approximately 676 km² on average, but this varies with latitude.
- RDB—Red Data Book
- SABIF—South African Biodiversity Information Facility
- SAFAP—Southern African Frog Atlas Project
- SANBI—South African National Biodiversity Institute
- SARCA—Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment
- sp.—species (singular)
- spp.—species (plural)
- TED—Turtle Excluder Device
- TSP—Transvaal Snake Park
- UCT—University of Cape Town
- unpubl. data-unpublished data
- unpubl. obs.-unpublished observation
- VM—Virtual Museum
- WIO-Western Indian Ocean
- Wits—University of the Witwatersrand

Glossary

А

- Active foraging—a hunting strategy that relies primarily on active searching for prey.
- Aeolian—produced or carried by the wind. Aeolian sands have been transported and deposited by wind.
- Allopatric—having geographically separate populations, usually of the same species.
- Alpha taxonomy—the science of finding, describing and naming species.

Anterior-the front.

Aquatic—living in water.

Arboreal—living in trees.

Autotomy—self-induced releasing of a body part (e.g. tail).

В

Biodiversity hotspot—an area high in species richness and endemism.

Biogeography—the study of the distribution of organisms.

Biome—a major biological community characterised by distinctive plant and animal species and maintained under the climatic and other environmental conditions of the region.

С

- Carapace—the dorsal half of a tortoise, terrapin or turtle shell.
- Casque—anatomical structure on the head suggestive of a helmet.

Caudal-with reference to the tail.

- Cline—a geographically-based gradient in the morphology, physiology or genetics of a species.
- Cloaca—the chamber through which the urine, faeces and reproductive cells pass from the body of a reptile.
- Commensal—usually in reference to animals occurring in association with humans.
- Communal—living together or sharing a rescource such as a nesting site.
- Conservation Assessment—an evaluation process conducted using the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria to ascertain the level of extinction risk to a taxon.

Conspecific—of, or belonging to, the same species.

Crepuscular—active at dusk and dawn.

Critically Endangered—the most severe threat level for a threatened taxon, defined by the IUCN as "facing an extremely high risk of extinction in the wild".

Cryptic—well hidden and difficult to detect.

- Cryptic species—a species that is morphologically similar to one or more other species.
- Cytotoxic—a venom that is damaging to tissue.

D

- Data Deficient—a category used by the IUCN for a taxon for which inadequate information exists to make a direct or indirect assessment of its risk of extinction.
- Disjunct—separate, usually with reference to allopatric populations.
- Diurnal—active during the day.
- Dorsal-the upper surface.
- Dorsolateral—the sides of the upper surface; between the vertebral region and the flanks.
- Dorsum—the back of the animal.

Ε

- Ecomorph—a local variety of a species whose appearance is influenced by local conditions.
- Ecotone—a zone or edge between two ecosystems or biomes which has elements of both.
- Endangered—a specific threat level for a threatened taxon, defined by the IUCN as "facing a very high risk of extinction in the wild".

Endemic—limited in distribution to a particular area.

Extinct—a specific threat category defined by the IUCN for a taxon where "no reasonable doubt exists that the last individual has died".

Extrinsic—originating from the outside.

F

Family-taxonomic group of related genera.

- Flagship species—a species that represents an environmental cause, such as the conservation of a particular ecosystem.
- Fossorial—living underground, often able to burrow.

G

- Genus (plural genera)—a taxonomic group of closely related species.
- Gondwana—a once contiguous landmass of the southern continents, composed of current-day South America, Africa, Madagascar, India, Australia, Antarctica, New Zealand, New Caledonia and New Guinea.

Gular—relating to the throat.

Н

- Haemotoxic—a venom that adversely affects the blood.
- Heliothermic—regulating body temperature primarily by means of heat gain from direct solar radiation.
- Hemipenes—the paired copulatory organs of male squamate reptiles.

Incertae sedis—of uncertain placement (in a taxonomic category).

Insectivorous-feeding primarily on insects.

L

Lepidosis—the character and arrangement of scales.

Loreal scale—a scale between the nasal and preocular scales.

Μ

- Maxillary bone—a bone in the upper jaw which, in venomous snakes, carries the fangs.
- Melanism—excessive development of dark pigment in the skin.

Mesic-moderately moist.

- Monitoring—measuring the state of a system.
- Monophyletic—an inclusive group of taxa that evolved from a common ancestor.
- Monospecific or monotypic—a taxon that contains only one representative (e.g. a genus with one species; a species without subspecies).
- Myotoxic—a venom that adversely affects the muscles.

Ν

Near Threatened—a category defined by the IUCN for a taxon that does not qualify as threatened, but is close to qualifying or is likely to qualify in the future.

Neurotoxic—a venom that adversely affects the nerves.

Nocturnal—active during the night.

0

Occipital-referring to an area near the back of the head.

Occurrant-occurs in an area.

Osteoderm—bony deposits forming plates or other structures in the dermal layers of the skin.

Oviparous—lays eggs.

Ρ

- Parapatric—where the geographical ranges of two or more populations or species abut one another.
- Paraphyletic—pertaining to a taxon which contains an ancestral species together with some, but not all, of its descendants.
- Parthenogenetic—form of reproduction where an egg develops into a new individual without the need for a male gamete; copulation does not occur and all offspring are clones of the mother.
- Phylogenetic-of, or relating to, phylogeny.
- Phylogeny—the evolutionary relationships between organisms.
- Plastron—the lower surface of a tortoise, terrapin or turtle shell.
- Polymorphic—two or more forms within a species or population.
- Polytypic—a taxonomic unit with two or more subgroups.

Posterior—the rear.

- Postocular—behind the eye.
- Prehensile—capable of grasping.
- Prenuptial-existing or occurring before mating.
- Preocular-in front of the eye.

R

- Refugium (plural refugia)—an area that has escaped ecological changes, thereby providing an enclave where populations may persist.
- Relict—a remnant of a species or population.
- Robust-stout, having a strong physique.
- Rostrum—a scale and/or beak-like projection on the anterior part of the head.
- Rugose-wrinkled or rough.
- Rupicolous—rock-living, sometimes also referred to as saxicolous.

S

Scansorial—specialised for climbing.

Scute—scale.

Serpentine—snake-like.

- Sexual dichromatism—a phenomenon where males and females differ in terms of colour.
- Sibling species—two species that are very similar in appearance, behaviour and other characteristics, but that cannot (or seldom) interbreed.
- Sit-and-wait foraging (ambush foraging)—a hunting strategy that relies primarily on ambush of prey.
- Species—a genetically distinct group of interbreeding individuals.

Species richness—the number of species in a given area.

Speciose—having many species.

Spinous—spiny.

Subcaudal—beneath the tail.

Subdigital lamellae—the scansors or pads beneath the toes of many geckos.

Supraciliary—above the eye.

Sylvicolous—inhabiting forest.

Sympatric-two or more species whose ranges overlap.

Syntopic—occurring in the same habitat within an area of sympatry.

Systematics—biological classification and the study of relationships between organisms.

Т

- Taxon (plural taxa)—any monophyletic taxonomic unit (e.g. subspecies, species, genus, family, order, class).
- Taxonomy—the study of classification, including the delineation and description of species.
- Termitarium (plural termitaria)—a mound-like, and/or subterranean, termite nest.

Terrestrial—living on the ground.

- Threatened—a category defined by the IUCN that comprises Critically Endangered, Endangered and Vulnerable threat levels. This term is also used to describe a taxon that is of conservation concern.
- Torpor—a state of dormancy that is usually associated with decreased body temperature.
- Translocate—to move an individual from one location to another.
- Tubercle—a small protuberance, often used to describe enlarged granular scales on the skin of a reptile.

V

Vagile—disperses easily.

Venom—a toxic secretion of an animal.

Ventrum/venter-the underside.

Viviparous-gives birth to young.

Vulnerable—a specific threat level for a threatened taxon, defined by the IUCN as "facing a high risk of extinction in the wild".

APPENDIX 1

IUCN Red List definitions and Categories and Criteria

1.1 IUCN Red List definitions (reproduced courtesy of IUCN, from IUCN 2012a)

1. Population and Population Size (Criteria A, C and D)

The term 'population' is used in a specific sense in the Red List Criteria that is different to its common biological usage. Population is here defined as the total number of individuals of the taxon. For functional reasons, primarily owing to differences between life forms, population size is measured as numbers of mature individuals only. In the case of taxa obligately dependent on other taxa for all or part of their life cycles, biologically appropriate values for the host taxon should be used.

2. Subpopulations (Criteria B and C)

Subpopulations are defined as geographically or otherwise distinct groups in the population between which there is little demographic or genetic exchange (typically one successful migrant individual or gamete per year or less).

3. Mature individuals (Criteria A, B, C and D)

The number of mature individuals is the number of individuals known, estimated or inferred to be capable of reproduction. When estimating this quantity, the following points should be borne in mind:

- Mature individuals that will never produce new recruits should not be counted (e.g. densities are too low for fertilisation).
- In the case of populations with biased adult or breeding sex ratios, it is appropriate to use lower estimates for the number of mature individuals, which take this into account.
- Where the population size fluctuates, use a lower estimate. In most cases this will be much less than the mean.
- Reproducing units within a clone should be counted as individuals, except where such units are unable to survive alone (e.g. corals).
- In the case of taxa that naturally lose all or a subset of mature individuals at some point in their life cycle, the estimate should be made at the appropriate time, when mature individuals are available for breeding.
- Re-introduced individuals must have produced viable offspring before they are counted as mature individuals.

4. Generation (Criteria A, C and E)

Generation length is the average age of parents of the current cohort (i.e. newborn individuals in the population). Generation length therefore reflects the turnover rate of breeding individuals in a population. Generation length is greater than the age at first breeding and less than the age of the oldest breeding individual, except in taxa that breed only once. Where generation length varies under threat, the more natural, i.e. pre-disturbance, generation length should be used.

5. Reduction (Criterion A)

A reduction is a decline in the number of mature individuals of at least the amount (%) stated under the criterion over the time period (years) specified, although the decline need not be continuing. A reduction should not be interpreted as part of a fluctuation unless there is good evidence for this. The downward phase of a fluctuation will not normally count as a reduction.

6. Continuing decline (Criteria B and C)

A continuing decline is a recent, current or projected future decline (which may be smooth, irregular or sporadic) which is liable to continue unless remedial measures are taken. Fluctuations will not normally count as continuing declines, but an observed decline should not be considered as a fluctuation unless there is evidence for this.

7. Extreme fluctuations (Criteria B and C)

Extreme fluctuations can be said to occur in a number of taxa when population size or distribution area varies widely, rapidly and frequently, typically with a variation greater than one order of magnitude (i.e. a tenfold increase or decrease).

8. Severely fragmented (Criterion B)

The phrase 'severely fragmented' refers to the situation in which increased extinction risk to the taxon results from the fact that most of its individuals are found in small and relatively isolated subpopulations (in certain circumstances this may be inferred from habitat information). These small subpopulations may go extinct, with a reduced probability of recolonisation.

9. Extent of occurrence (Criteria A and B)

Extent of occurrence is defined as the area contained within the shortest continuous imaginary boundary, which can be drawn to encompass all the known, inferred or projected sites of present occurrence of a taxon, excluding cases of vagrancy (see Figure 1). This measure may exclude discontinuities or disjunctions within the overall distributions of taxa (e.g. large areas of obviously unsuitable habitat) (but see 'area of occupancy', point 10 below). Extent of occurrence can often be measured by a minimum convex polygon (the smallest polygon in which no internal angle exceeds 180 degrees and which contains all the sites of occurrence).

10. Area of occupancy (Criteria A, B and D)

Area of occupancy is defined as the area within its 'extent of occurrence' (see point 9 above) which is occupied by a taxon, excluding cases of vagrancy. The measure reflects the fact that a taxon will not usually occur throughout the area of its extent of occurrence, which may contain unsuitable or unoccupied habitats. In some cases (e.g. irreplaceable colonial nesting sites, crucial feeding sites for migratory taxa) the area of occupancy is the smallest area essential at any stage to the survival of existing populations of a taxon. The size of the area of occupancy will be a function of the scale at which it is measured, and should be at a scale appropriate to relevant biological aspects of the taxon, the nature of threats and the available data. To avoid inconsistencies and bias in assessments caused by estimating area of occupancy at different scales, it may be necessary to standardise estimates by applying a scalecorrection factor. It is difficult to give strict guidance on how standardisation should be done because different types of taxa have different scale-area relationships.

11. Location (Criteria B and D)

The term 'location' defines a geographically or ecologically distinct area in which a single threatening event can rapidly affect all individuals of the taxon present. The size of the location depends on the area covered by the threatening event and may include part of one or many subpopulations. Where a taxon is affected by more than one threatening event, location should be defined by considering the most serious plausible threat.

12. Quantitative analysis (Criterion E)

A quantitative analysis is defined here as any form of analysis which estimates the extinction probability of a taxon based on known life history, habitat requirements, threats and any specified management options. Population viability analysis (PVA) is one such technique. Quantitative analyses should make full use of all relevant available data. In a situation in which there is limited information, such data as are available can be used to provide an estimate of extinction risk (for instance, estimating the impact of stochastic events on habitat). In presenting the results of quantitative analyses, the assumptions (which must be appropriate and defensible), the data used and the uncertainty in the data or quantitative model must be documented.

For further guidance on the terms above please see the *Guidelines for Using the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria* produced by the IUCN Standards and Petitions Subcommittee (2013) (http://www.iucnredlist.org/documents/RedListGuidelines.pdf).

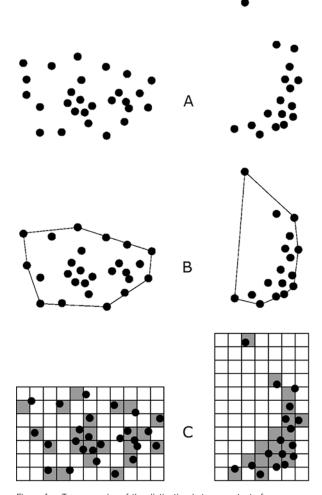


Figure 1.—Two examples of the distinction between extent of occurrence and area of occupancy. (A) is the spatial distribution of known, inferred or projected sites of present occurrence. (B) shows one possible boundary to the extent of occurrence, which is the measured area within this boundary. (C) shows one measure of area of occupancy which can be achieved by the sum of the occupied grid cells.

1.2 IUCN Red List Categories (reproduced courtesy of IUCN, from IUCN 2012a)

EXTINCT (EX)

A taxon is Extinct when there is no reasonable doubt that the last individual has died. A taxon is presumed Extinct when exhaustive surveys in known and/or expected habitat, at appropriate times (diurnal, seasonal, annual), throughout its historic range have failed to record an individual. Surveys should be over a time frame appropriate to the taxon's life cycle and life form.

EXTINCT IN THE WILD (EW)

A taxon is Extinct in the Wild when it is known only to survive in cultivation, in captivity or as a naturalised population (or populations) well outside the historic range. A taxon is presumed Extinct in the Wild when exhaustive surveys in known and/or expected habitat, at appropriate times (diurnal, seasonal, annual), throughout its historic range have failed to record an individual. Surveys should be over a time frame appropriate to the taxon's life cycle and life form.

CRITICALLY ENDANGERED (CR)

A taxon is Critically Endangered when the best available evidence indicates that it meets any of the criteria A to E for Critically Endangered, and it is therefore considered to be facing an extremely high risk of extinction in the wild.

ENDANGERED (EN)

A taxon is Endangered when the best available evidence indicates that it meets any of the criteria A to E for Endangered, and it is therefore considered to be facing a very high risk of extinction in the wild.

VULNERABLE (VU)

A taxon is Vulnerable when the best available evidence indicates that it meets any of the criteria A to E for Vulnerable, and it is therefore considered to be facing a high risk of extinction in the wild.

NEAR THREATENED (NT)

A taxon is Near Threatened when it has been evaluated against the criteria but does not qualify for Critically Endangered, Endangered or Vulnerable now, but is close to qualifying for or is likely to qualify for a threatened category in the near future.

LEAST CONCERN (LC)

A taxon is Least Concern when it has been evaluated against the criteria and does not qualify for Critically Endangered, Endangered, Vulnerable or Near Threatened. Widespread and abundant taxa are included in this category.

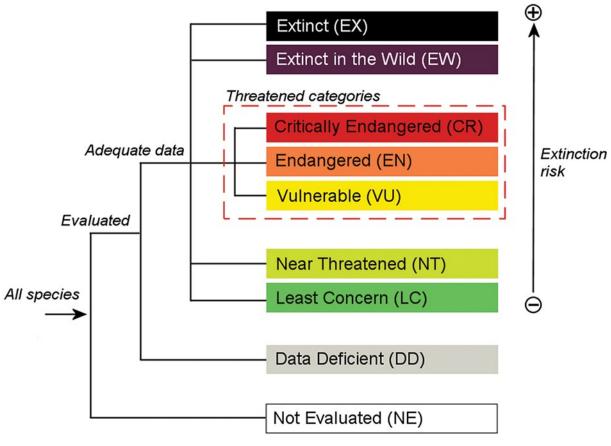
DATA DEFICIENT (DD)

A taxon is Data Deficient when there is inadequate information to make a direct, or indirect, assessment of its risk of extinction based on its distribution and/or population status. A taxon in this category may be well studied, and its biology well known, but appropriate data on abundance and/or distribution are lacking. Data Deficient is therefore not a category of threat. Listing of taxa in this category indicates that more information is required and acknowledges the possibility that future research will show that threatened classification is appropriate. It is important to make positive use of whatever data are available. In many cases great care should be exercised in choosing between Data Deficient and a threatened status. If the range of a taxon is suspected to be relatively circumscribed, and a considerable period of time has elapsed since the last record of the taxon, threatened status may well be justified.

NOT EVALUATED (NE)

A taxon is Not Evaluated when it has not yet been evaluated against the criteria.

1.3 Structure of the IUCN Red List Categories (reproduced courtesy of IUCN, from IUCN 2012a)



The Red List Categories is summarised in Figure 2.

Figure 2.—Structure of IUCN categories.

1.4 Summary of the Red List Criteria (Table 1; reproduced courtesy of IUCN, from IUCN 2012a)

Summary of the five criteria (A–E) used to evaluate if a taxon belongs in an IUCN Red List threatened category (Critically Endangered, Endangered or Vulnerable)¹

| A. Po | pulation size reduction. Population reduction (measured over t | he longer of 10 years of | r 3 generations) | based on any of A1 to A4 |
|-------|---|--------------------------------------|---------------------|--|
| | | Critically Endangered | Endangere | d Vulnerable |
| A1 | | ≥ 90% | ≥ 70% | ≥ 50% |
| A2, / | A3 & A4 | ≥ 80% | ≥ 50% | ≥ 30% |
| A1 | Population reduction observed, estimated, inferred, or susp where the causes of the reduction are clearly reversible AND have ceased. | | | (a) direct observation [<i>except A3</i>](b) an index of abundance appropriate to the taxon |
| A2 | Population reduction observed, estimated, inferred, or susp where the causes of reduction may not have ceased OR may OR may not be reversible. | | based on any of the | (c) a decline in area of occupancy (AOO), extent of occurrence (EOO) and/or habitat quality |
| A3 | Population reduction projected, inferred or suspected to be (up to a maximum of 100 years). [(a) cannot be used for AS | | following: | (d) actual or potential levels of exploitation |
| A4 | An observed, estimated, inferred, projected or suspected p tion where the time period must include both the past and t max. of 100 years in future), and where the causes of reduct ceased OR may not be understood OR may not be reversible | he future (up to a tion may not have | | (e) effects of introduced taxa, hy- bridization, pathogens, pollutants, competitors or parasites |

| B. Geographic range in the form of either B1 (extent of oc | currence) AND/OR B2 (area of o | ccupancy) | |
|--|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| | Critically Endangered | Endangered | Vulnerable |
| B1. Extent of occurrence (EOO) | < 100 km ² | < 5 000 km ² | < 20 000 km ² |
| B2. Area of occupancy (AOO) | < 10 km ² | < 500 km ² | < 2 000 km ² |
| AND at least 2 of the following 3 conditions: | | | |
| (a) Severely fragmented OR Number of locations | = 1 | ≤ 5 | ≤ 10 |
| (b) Continuing decline channed estimated informed or proje | stad in any of (i) sytembol af assume | unnes (iii) avea of acc | unanau (iii) area autant and |

(b) Continuing decline observed, estimated, inferred or projected in any of: (i) extent of occurrence; (ii) area of occupancy; (iii) area, extent and/ or quality of habitat; (iv) number of locations or subpopulations; (v) number of mature individuals

(c) Extreme fluctuations in any of: (i) extent of occurrence; (ii) area of occupancy; (iii) number of locations or subpopulations; (iv) number of mature individuals

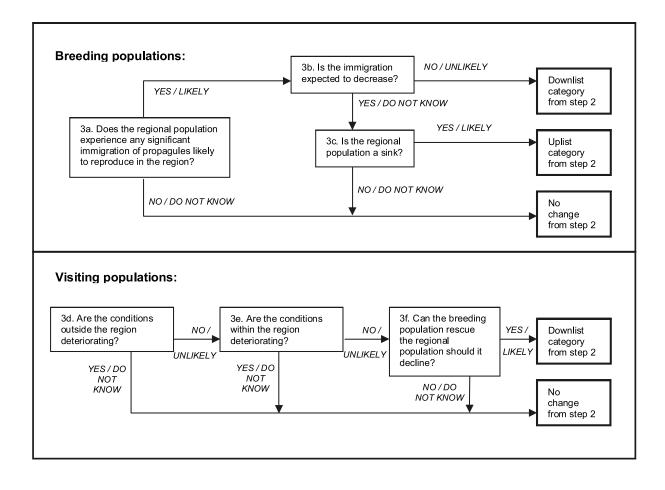
| C. Small population size and decline | | | |
|--|--|---|--|
| | Critically Endangered | Endangered | Vulnerable |
| Number of mature individuals | < 250 | < 2 500 | < 10 000 |
| AND at least one of C1 or C2: | | | |
| C1. An observed, estimated or projected continuing decline of at least (up to a max. of 100 years in future): | 25% in 3 years or 1 generation (whichever is longer) | 20% in 5 years or 2 generations (whichever is longer) | 10% in 10 years or 3 generations (whichever is longer) |
| C2. An observed, estimated, projected or inferred continuing decline AND at least 1 of the following 3 conditions: | | | |
| (a) (i) Number of mature individuals in each subpopulation: | ≤ 50 | ≤ 250 | ≤ 1 000 |
| (ii) % of mature individuals in one subpopulation =(b) Extreme fluctuations in the number of mature individuals | 90–100% | 95–100% | 100% |

| | Critically Endangered | Endangered | Vulnerable |
|---|-----------------------|------------|--|
| D. Number of mature individuals | < 50 | < 250 | < 1 000 |
| D2. Only applies to the VU category Restricted area of occupancy or number of locations with a plau- sible future threat that could drive the taxon to CR or EX in a very short time. | | - | D2. typically: AOO < 20 km ² or number of locations ≤ 5 |

| E. Quantitative analysis | | | |
|---|---|------------|-------------------------|
| | Critically Endangered | Endangered | Vulnerable |
| Indicating the probability of extinction in the wild to be: | \geq 50% in 10 years or 3 generations, whichever is longer (100 years max.) | | \geq 10% in 100 years |

¹ Use of this summary sheet requires full understanding of the *IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria*, and *Guidelines for Using the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria*. Please refer to both documents for explanations of terms and concepts used here.

1.5 Conceptual scheme for adjusting the preliminary IUCN Red List Category to the final regional Red List Category (reproduced courtesy of IUCN, from IUCN 2012b)



APPENDIX 2

Current and past conservation status of select reptile taxa assessed, including all taxa of conservation concern

Compiled by William R. Branch & Michael F. Bates



THE IUCN RED LIST OF THREATENED SPECIES™

Black

0

0

Extinct (EX)

Note: The Lower risk/conservation dependent (LR/cd) category is not to be used. If there is ever any need to include LR/cd then it should be portrayed as NT and be accompanied by an explanation in a footnote.

The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species is a trade mark of IUCN, International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources

0

#000000

| Group | Species | Scope | SARCA | IUCN 2009 | SA RDB 1988 | Swaziland RDB 2003 | CITES | Endemic* and Near-endemic** |
|-----------|----------------------------------|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|-------------|--------------------------------|
| Lizards | Scelotes guentheri | GLOBAL | Extinct | Vulnerable | Rare | | | Endemic |
| | Tetradacty/us eastwoodae | GLOBAL | Extinct | Extinct | Extinct | | | Endemic |
| Chelonia | Psammobates geometricus | GLOBAL | Critically Endan- gered | Endangered | Endangered | | Appendix I | Endemic |
| Lizards | Cryptactites peringueyi | GLOBAL | Critically Endan- gered | Data Deficient | Indeterminate | | | Endemic |
| | Pachydactylus rangei | REGIONAL | Critically Endan- gered | | Peripheral | | | |
| | Scelotes inornatus | GLOBAL | Critically Endan- gered | | | | | Endemic |
| Snakes | Bitis albanica | GLOBAL | Critically Endan- gered | | | | | Endemic |
| Chelonia | Dermochelys coriacea | REGIONAL | Endangered ^A | Critically Endan- gered | Endangered | | Appendix I | |
| Lizards | Bradypodion caeruleogula | GLOBAL | Endangered | | | | | Endemic |
| | Bradypodion caffer | GLOBAL | Endangered | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Bradypodion taeniabronchum | GLOBAL | Endangered | Critically Endan- gered | Endangered | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Platysaurus intermedius inopinus | GLOBAL | Endangered | | | | | Endemic |
| | Platysaurus monotropis | GLOBAL | Endangered | | | | | Endemic |
| | Acontias poecillus | GLOBAL | Endangered | | | | | Endemic |
| | Acontias riepelli | GLOBAL | Endangered | Vulnerable | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| | Cryptoblepharus africanus | REGIONAL | Endangered | | Vulnerable | | | |
| Snakes | Bitis inornata | GLOBAL | Endangered | Vulnerable | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Chelonia | Pelusios rhodesianus | REGIONAL | Vulnerable | | Peripheral | | Appendix II | |
| | Caretta caretta | REGIONAL | Vulnerable ^A | Endangered | Vulnerable | | Appendix I | |
| | Homopus signatus | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | Near Threatened | Restricted | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Crocodile | Crocodylus niloticus | REGIONAL | Vulnerable | Near Threatened | Vulnerable | Vulnerable | Appendix II | |
| Lizards | Chirindia langi occidentalis | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | | | | | Endemic |
| | Bradypodion kentanicum | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Bradypodion melanocephalum | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Bradypodion pumilum | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Bradypodion thamnobates | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | Near Threatened | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Hemicordylus nebulosus | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | Vulnerable | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Smaug giganteus | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | Vulnerable | Vulnerable | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Afroedura multiporis multiporis | GLOBAL | Vulnerable | | Restricted | | | Endemic |

| eni onsi ceps ni ata ontanum onse | Vulnerable Vulnerable | Near Threatened Vulnerable | Restricted Vulnerable | | | Endemic |
|---|---|-------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|-------------|--------------|
| шпи | | Vulnerable | Vulnerable | | | |
| шпи | | | | | | Endemic |
| шли | | | | | | Endemic |
| | | | Rare | | | Endemic |
| шпи | | | | | | Endemic |
| шпи | | | Rare | | | Endemic |
| шпи | | | | | | |
| шпи | | | Vulnerable | | | Endemic |
| шпи | | | | | | Endemic |
| шти | | Endangered | Vulnerable | | Appendix I | ***** |
| шпи | | Critically Endan- gered | Vulnerable | | Appendix I | |
| шли | Near Threatened | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Near Threatened | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Near Threatened | Near Threatened | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Chamaesaura aenea GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | Near Threatened | | Endemic |
| Chamaesaura macrolepis GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Near-endemic |
| Cordylus imkeae GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Cordylus macropholis GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Cordylus niger GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Cordylus oelofseni GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Platysaurus orientalis fitzsimonsi GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Pseudocordylus langi GLOBAL | Near Threatened | Near Threatened | Restricted | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Pseudocordylus spinosus GLOBAL | Near Threatened | Near Threatened | Restricted | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Pseudocordylus transvaalensis GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Afroedura hawequensis GLOBAL | Near Threatened | Near Threatened | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Afroedura major GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | Near Threatened | | Endemic |
| Goggia braacki GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Goggia gemmula GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Near-endemic |
| Lygodactylus graniticolus GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Lygodactylus ocellatus soutpansbergensis GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Lygodactylus waterbergensis GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Australolacerta rupicola GLOBAL | Near Threatened | Near Threatened | Restricted | | | Endemic |

| Nucras taeniolata | | | | | 2003 | | Near-endemic** |
|---|----------|-----------------------------|-----------------|------------|-----------------|-------------|----------------|
| | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Tropidosaura cottrelli | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Acontias richardi | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Scelotes gronovii | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | Near Threatened | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Scelotes kasneri | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | Vulnerable | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Scelotes limpopoensis albiventris | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Scelotes montispectus | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Typhlosaurus lomiae | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | Vulnerable | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Homoroselaps dorsalis | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | Near Threatened | Rare | Data Deficient | | Endemic |
| Macrelaps microlepidotus | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | Endemic |
| Lycophidion pygmaeum | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | |
| Leptotyphlops telloi | GLOBAL | Near Threatened | | | | | |
| Bitis gabonica | REGIONAL | Near Threatened | | Vulnerable | | | |
| Lepidochelys olivacea | REGIONAL | Data Deficient ^A | Vulnerable | Vulnerable | | Appendix I | |
| Lygodactylus nigropunctatus incognitus | GLOBAL | Data Deficient | | | | | Endemic |
| Lygodactylus nigropunctatus montiscaeruli | GLOBAL | Data Deficient | | | | | Endemic |
| Acontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus | GLOBAL | Data Deficient | | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Leptotyphlops sylvicolus | GLOBAL | Data Deficient | | | | | Endemic |
| Montaspis gilvomaculata | GLOBAL | Data Deficient | | | | | Endemic |
| Pelusios castanoides | REGIONAL | Least Concern ^B | | Peripheral | | Appendix II | |
| Kinixys natalensis | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Near Threatened | Rare | Near Threatened | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Bradypodion setaroi | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Endangered | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Chamaesaura anguina anguina | GLOBAL | Least Concern | | | Near Threatened | | Endemic |
| Cordylus mclachlani | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Vulnerable | | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Ouroborus cataphractus | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Vulnerable | Vulnerable | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Namazonurus lawrenci | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Near Threatened | Restricted | | Appendix II | Endemic |
| Platysaurus relictus | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Near Threatened | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Afroedura multiporis haackei | GLOBAL | Least Concern | | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Goggia microlepidota | GLOBAL | Least Concern | | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Phelsuma ocellata | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Near Threatened | Restricted | | Appendix II | Near-endemic |
| Gerrhosaurus typicus | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Near Threatened | Rare | | | Endemic |
| Australolacerta australis | GLOBAL | Least Concern | | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| Nucras Ialandii | GLOBAL | Least Concern | | | Near Threatened | | Endemic |

SURICATA 1 (2014)

| SnakesRhincNamiNamiNamiNamiPythoPythoAmblAmblAmblAmblAmblAmblAmblPytho | Rhinotyphlops schinzi Namibiana occidentalis Python natalensis Zenocalamus transvaalensis Amblyodipsas microphthalma migra Amblyodipsas microphthalma nigra Lamprophis fiskii Lamprophis fiskii Lamprophus obscuriventris Lycoophidion variegatum Prosymna frontalis Prosymna janii Pasymophis jallae Dasypeltis inornata | REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL REGIONAL REGIONAL REGIONAL REGIONAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL | Least Concern Least Concern | Data Deficient Vulnerable | Peripheral Peripheral | | | |
|---|--|--|--|------------------------------|--------------------------|---|-------------|--------------|
| | ibiana occidentalis on natalensis on natalensis cealamus transvaalensis lyodipsas microphthalma microphthalma lyodipsas microphthalma nigra orophis fiskii orophis fiskii orophis fuscus donomorphus obscuriventris donomorphus obscuriventris donomorphus obscuriventris donomorphus obscuriventris ea swazicus twara frontalis ymna fanii nmophis jallae peltis inonata | GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL REGIONAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL GLOBAL REGIONAL | east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern | Data Deficient Vulnerable | Peripheral | | | |
| | on natalensis calamus transvaalensis lyodipsas microphthalma microphthalma lyodipsas microphthalma nigra prophis fiskii orophis fuscus orophis fuscus donomorphus obscuriventris donomorphus obscuriventris ea swazicus donomorphus obscuriventris vmna frontalis vmna frontalis vmna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | REGIONAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL REGIONAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL | east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern | Data Deficient Vulnerable | <u> </u> | *************************************** | Annondiv II | |
| | ccalamus transvaalensis lyodipsas microphthalma microphthalma lyodipsas microphthalma nigra orophis fiskii orophis fuscus donomorphus obscuriventris ka swazicus ohidion variegatum ymna frontalis ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL REGIONAL REGIONAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL | east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern | Data Deficient Vulnerable | vuinerable | Vulnerable | | |
| | lyodipsas microphthalma microphthalma lyodipsas microphthalma nigra orophis fiskii orophis fuscus donomorphus obscuriventris ka swazicus ohidion variegatum ymna frontalis ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL REGIONAL GLOBAL | east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern | Vulnerable | Rare | | | Near-endemic |
| | lyodipsas microphthalma nigra prophis fiskii prophis fuscus donomorphus obscuriventris donomorphus obscuriventris donomorphus obscuriventris ka swazicus ta swazic | AL | east Concern Least Concern Least Concern Least Concern Least Concern Least Concern | Vulnerable | Peripheral | | | |
| | orophis fiskii brophis fuscus donomorphus obscuriventris ka swazicus phidion variegatum ymna frontalis ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | AL | east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern | Vulnerable | Restricted | | | Endemic |
| | orophis fuscus donomorphus obscuriventris ka swazicus ohidion variegatum ymna frontalis ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | AL | east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern east Concern | | Rare | | | Endemic |
| | donomorphus obscuriventris ka swazicus ohidion variegatum ymna frontalis ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | AL | Least Concern Least Concern Least Concern Least Concern | Ivear Inreatened | Rare | Data Deficient | | Endemic |
| | ka swazicus ohidion variegatum ymna frontalis ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | AL | _east Concern _east Concern _east Concern | | Peripheral | Near Threatened | | |
| | ohidion variegatum ymna frontalis ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | AL | _east Concern _east Concern | Near Threatened | Rare | Data Deficient | | Endemic |
| | ymna frontalis ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | AL | _east Concern | | Peripheral | Data Deficient | | |
| | ymna janii nmophis jallae peltis inornata | AL | | | Peripheral | | | |
| | nmophis jallae peltis inornata | AL | Least Concern | | Peripheral | | | |
| | peltis inornata | | Least Concern | | Peripheral | | | |
| | | | Least Concern | | | Near Threatened | | Endemic |
| | Dasypeltis medici medici | REGIONAL | Least Concern | | Peripheral | | | |
| | Meizodon semiornatus semiornatus | REGIONAL | Least Concern | | Peripheral | Near Threatened | | |
| | Philothamnus angolensis | REGIONAL | Least Concern | | Peripheral | | | |
| | Natriciteres sylvatica | REGIONAL | Least Concern | | Peripheral | | | |
| | Naja melanoleuca | REGIONAL | Least Concern | | Peripheral | | | |
| | Naja nigricincta woodi | REGIONAL | Least Concern | | Rare | | | |
| | Bitis schneideri | GLOBAL | Least Concern | Vulnerable | Vulnerable | | | |
| | Bitis xeropaga | GLOBAL | Least Concern | | Peripheral | | | |
| Dram | Psammobates tentorius trimeni | | NOT ASSESSED ^c | | | | | Near-endemic |
| LOGIN | Psammobates tentorius verroxii | | NOT ASSESSED c | | | | _ | |
| Lizards Mono | Monopeltis leonhardi | | NOT ASSESSED ^D | | | | | |
| Zygas | Zygaspis vandami arenicola | | NOT ASSESSED ^c | | | | | |
| Chon | Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | | NOT ASSESSED ^D | | | | | |
| Gerrh | Gerrhosaurus auritus | | NOT ASSESSED ^D | | | | | |
| Nucr | Nucras caesicaudata | | NOT ASSESSED ^D | | Peripheral | | | |
| Tropiu | Tropidosaura montana natalensis | | NOT ASSESSED ^c | | | | | Endemic |
| Tropiu | Tropidosaura montana rangeri | | NOT ASSESSED ^c | | | | | Endemic |
| Snakes Lepto | Leptotyphlops scutifrons conjunctus | | NOT ASSESSED ^c | | | | | Endemic |
| Ramµ | Ramphotyphlops braminus | | NOT ASSESSED ^E | | | | | |

466

APPENDIX 3

Endemic and near-endemic reptile taxa in the Atlas region

Compiled by Michael F. Bates & William R. Branch

Endemic (190) and near-endemic (38) species and subspecies in the *Atlas* region based on SARCA maps and literature cited in species accounts. Taxa are listed alphabetically within families and subfamilies according to their appear-

ance in the *Atlas*. Endemic: entire natural range within *Atlas* region (South Africa, Lesotho, Swaziland), Near-endemic: estimated 90% or more of natural range within *Atlas* region. * = Assessed at species level in the *Atlas*.

| GENUS | SPECIES | SUBSPECIES | ENDEMISM | ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. | NEAR-ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. |
|--------------|---|---|--------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| CHELONIANS | | | | 6 | 4 |
| Testudinidae | ••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••• | ••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••• | | 6 | 4 |
| Chersina | angulata | | Near-endemic | | |
| Homopus | areolatus | | Endemic | | |
| Homopus | boulengeri | | Endemic | | |
| Homopus | femoralis | • | Endemic | | |
| Homopus | signatus | | Endemic | | |
| Kinixys | lobatsiana | • | Near-endemic | | |
| Kinixys | natalensis | | Near-endemic | | |
| Psammobates | geometricus | • | Endemic | | |
| *Psammobates | tentorius | tentorius | Endemic | | |
| *Psammobates | tentorius | trimeni | Near-endemic | | |
| LIZARDS | | | | 155 | 24 |
| Gekkonidae | - | • | | 42 | 8 |
| Afroedura | africana | namaquensis | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | amatolica | • | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | halli | | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | hawequensis | • | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | karroica | | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | langi | • | Near-endemic | | |
| Afroedura | major | | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | marleyi | | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | multiporus | multiporus | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | multiporus | haackei | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | nivaria | | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | pondolia | | Endemic | | |
| Afroedura | tembulica | | Endemic | | |
| Afrogecko | porphyreus | | Endemic | | |
| Afrogecko | swartbergensis | | Endemic | | |
| Cryptactites | peringueyi | | Endemic | | |
| Goggia | braacki | | Endemic | | |
| Goggia | essexi | | Endemic | | |
| Goggia | gemmula | | Near-endemic | | |
| Goggia | hewitti | | Endemic | | |
| Goggia | hexapora | | Endemic | | |
| Goggia | lineata | | Near-endemic | | |

| GENUS | SPECIES | SUBSPECIES | ENDEMISM | ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. | NEAR-ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. |
|-----------------|----------------|-------------------|--------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Goggia | microlepidota | | Endemic | | |
| Goggia | rupicola | | Endemic | | |
| Homopholis | mulleri | | Endemic | | |
| Lygodactylus | graniticolus | | Endemic | | |
| Lygodactylus | methueni | ••••••• | Endemic | | |
| Lygodactylus | nigropunctatus | nigropunctatus | Endemic | | |
| Lygodactylus | nigropunctatus | incognitus | Endemic | | |
| Lygodactylus | nigropunctatus | montiscaeruli | Endemic | | |
| Lygodactylus | ocellatus | ocellatus | Endemic | | |
| Lygodactylus | ocellatus | soutpansbergensis | Endemic | | |
| Lygodactylus | waterbergensis | 1 0 | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | affinis | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | amoenus | •••••• | Endemic | | <u>.</u> |
| Pachydactylus | austeni | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | barnardi | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | formosus | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | geitje | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | goodi | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | kladaroderma | | Endemic | | |
| | labialis | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | | | | | |
| Pachydactylus | macrolepis | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | maculatus | | Near-endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | mariquensis | •••••• | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactulus | namaquensis | | Near-endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | oculatus | | Endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | vansoni | | Near-endemic | | |
| Pachydactylus | weberi | | Near-endemic | | |
| Phelsuma | ocellata | | Near-endemic | | |
| Amphisbaenidae | | | | 2 | 2 |
| Chirindia | langi | langi | Near-endemic | | |
| Chirindia | langi | occidentalis | Endemic | | |
| Monopeltis | capensis | | Near-endemic | | |
| *Zygaspis | vandami | vandami | Endemic | | |
| Lacertidae | | • | | 13 | 2 |
| Australolacerta | australis | | Endemic | | |
| Meroles | knoxii | •••••• | Near-endemic | | |
| Nucras | lalandii | | Endemic | | |
| Nucras | livida | | Endemic | | |
| Nucras | taeniolata | | Endemic | | |
| Pedioplanis | burchelli | •••••• | Endemic | | |
| Pedioplanis | laticeps | | Endemic | | |
| Pedioplanis | lineoocellata | pulchella | Near-endemic | | |
| Tropidosaura | cottrelli | pulcilla | Endemic | | |
| Tropidosaura | essexi | | Endemic | | |
| Tropidosaura | gularis | | Endemic | | |
| Tropidosaura | | montono | Endemic | | |
| • | montana | montana | | | |
| *Tropidosaura | montana | natalensis | Endemic | | |
| *Tropidosaura | montana | rangeri | Endemic | | |
| Vhembelacerta | rupicola | | Endemic | 40 | |
| Cordylidae | | | | 42 | 5 |
| Cordylinae | | | | 30 | 4 |
| Chamaesaura | aenea | | Endemic | | <u>-</u> |
| Chamaesaura | anguina | anguina | Endemic | | |
| Chamaesaura | macrolepis | | Near-endemic | | |
| Cordylus | aridus | | Endemic | | |

| GENUS | SPECIES | SUBSPECIES | ENDEMISM | ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. | NEAR-ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. |
|----------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Cordylus | cloetei | | Endemic | | |
| Cordylus | cordylus | | Endemic | | |
| Cordylus | imkeae | | Endemic | | |
| Cordylus | macropholis | | Endemic | | |
| Cordylus | mclachlani | | Endemic | | |
| Cordylus | minor | | Endemic | | |
| Cordylus | niger | | Endemic | | |
| Cordylus | oelofseni | | Endemic | | |
| Cordylus | vittifer | | Near-endemic | | |
| Hemicordylus | capensis | | Endemic | | |
| Hemicordylus | nebulosus | | Endemic | | |
| Karusasaurus | polyzonus | | Near-endemic | | |
| Namazonurus | lawrenci | •••••• | Endemic | • | |
| Namazonurus | peersi | • | Endemic | | |
| Ninurta | coeruleopunctatus | 3 | Endemic | • | •••••• |
| Ouroborus | cataphractus | | Endemic | | |
| Pseudocordylus | langi | | Endemic | | |
| Pseudocordylus | melanotus | melanotus | Endemic | | |
| Pseudocordylus | melanotus | subviridis | Endemic | | |
| Pseudocordylus | microlepidotus | microlepidotus | Endemic | | |
| Pseudocordylus | microlepidotus | fasciatus | Endemic | | |
| Pseudocordylus | microlepidotus | namaquensis | Endemic | | |
| Pseudocordylus | spinosus | 1 | Endemic | | |
| Pseudocordylus | transvaalensis | ••••••• | Endemic | •••••• | |
| Smaug | breyeri | | Endemic | | |
| Smaug | giganteus | • | Endemic | | • |
| Smaug | vandami | | Endemic | | |
| Smaug | warreni | warreni | Near-endemic | | |
| Smaug | warreni | barbertonensis | Endemic | | |
| Smaug | warreni | depressus | Endemic | • | |
| Platysaurinae | warren | ucpressus | Endernie | 12 | 1 |
| Platysaurus | broadleyi | | Endemic | 12 | 1 |
| Platysaurus | guttatus | | Endemic | | |
| | intermedius | intermedius | Endemic | • | |
| Platysaurus Platysaurus | intermedius | inopinus | Endemic | | |
| Platysaurus | intermedius | natalensis | Endemic | • | |
| Platysaurus | intermedius | • | Endemic | | |
| | intermedius | parvus wilhelmi | Endemic | | ••••• |
| Platysaurus | lebomboensis | WIIIIEIIIII | Near-endemic | | |
| Platysaurus | minor | | Endemic | | ••••• |
| Platysaurus | | | | | |
| Platysaurus | monotropis | | Endemic | | |
| Platysaurus | orientalis | orientalis | Endemic | | |
| Platysaurus | orientalis | fitzsimonsi | Endemic | | |
| Platysaurus | relictus | | Endemic | ~ | |
| Gerrhosauridae | · · | | | 7 | 0 |
| Gerrhosaurus | typicus | •••••• | Endemic | | |
| Tetradactylus | africanus | | Endemic | | |
| Tetradactylus | breyeri | | Endemic | | |
| Tetradactylus | eastwoodae | | Endemic | | |
| Tetradactylus | fitzsimonsi | | Endemic | | |
| Tetradactylus | seps | | Endemic | | |
| Tetradactylus | tetradactylus | | Endemic | | |
| Scincidae | | | | 32 | 4 |
| Acontinae | | | | 17 | 1 |
| Acontias | breviceps | | Endemic | | |

| GENUS | SPECIES | SUBSPECIES | ENDEMISM | ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. | NEAR-ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. |
|----------------|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Acontias | cregoi | | Near-endemic | | |
| Acontias | fitzsimonsi | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | gracilicauda | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | grayi | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | kgalagadi | subtaeniatus | Endemic | •••••• | |
| Acontias | lineicauda | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | litoralis | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | meleagris | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | namaquensis | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | orientalis | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | poecilus | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | richardi | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | rieppeli | | Endemic | | |
| Acontias | tristis | | Endemic | | |
| Typhlosaurus | caecus | | Endemic | | |
| Typhlosaurus | lomiae | | Endemic | | |
| Typhlosaurus | vermis | | Endemic | | |
| Lygosominae | Vennis | | LINGING | 1 | 0 |
| Trachylepis | homolooonholo | | Endemic | 1 | 0 |
| Scincinae | homalocephala | | Ellueillic | 14 | 3 |
| •••••• | | | Fadam: | 14 | 3 |
| Scelotes | anguineus | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | bidigittatus | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | bipes | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | bourquini | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | caffer | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | fitzsimonsi | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | gronovii | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | guentheri | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | inornatus | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | kasneri | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | limpopoensis | limpopoensis | Near-endemic | | |
| Scelotes | limpopoensis | albiventris | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | mirus | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | montispectus | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | mossambicus | | Near-endemic | | |
| Scelotes | sexlineatus | | Endemic | | |
| Scelotes | vestigifer | | Near-endemic | | |
| Chamaeleonidae | | | | 16 | 1 |
| Bradypodion | atromontanum | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | caeruleogula | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | caffer | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | damaranum | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | dracomontanum | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | gutturale | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | kentanicum | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | melanocephalum | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | nemorale | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | ngomeense occidentale | | Endemic | | |
| | * | <u>-</u> | | | |
| Bradypodion | pumilum | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | setaroi | | Near-endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | taeniabronchum | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | thamnobates | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | transvaalense | | Endemic | | |
| Bradypodion | ventrale | | Endemic | | |

| GENUS | SPECIES | SUBSPECIES | ENDEMISM | ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. | NEAR-ENDEMIC SP. & SSP. |
|------------------------------|----------------|--------------|---------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Agamidae | | | | 1 | 2 |
| Agama | aculeata | distanti | Endemic | | |
| Agama | atra | | Near-endemic | | |
| Agama | hispida | | Near-endemic | | |
| SNAKES | | | | 29 | 10 |
| Typhlopidae | | | | | 1 |
| Afrotyphlops | bibronii | • | Near-endemic | | |
| Leptotyphlopidae | | | | 4 | 2 |
| Leptotyphlops | distanti | •••••• | Near-endemic | | •••••• |
| Leptotyphlops | jacobseni | | Endemic | | |
| Leptotyphlops | nigricans | • | Endemic | | • |
| *Leptotyphlops | scutifrons | conjunctus | Endemic | | |
| Leptotyphlops | sylvicolus | | Endemic | | |
| Namibiana | gracilior | | Near-endemic | | |
| Viperidae | 8.001101 | | | 4 | 1 |
| Bitis | albanica | | Endemic | | L |
| Bitis | armata | | Endemic | | |
| Bitis | atropos | | Near-endemic | | |
| Bitis | inornata | | Endemic | | |
| | • | | • | | |
| Bitis | rubida | | Endemic | 1.0 | |
| Lamprophiidae | <u>.</u> | | | 16 | 5 |
| Atractaspidinae | | | | 6 | 1 |
| Amblyodipsas | concolor | | Endemic | | |
| Amblyodipsas | microphthalma | nigra | Endemic | | |
| Homoroselaps | dorsalis | | Endemic | | |
| Homoroselaps | lacteus | | Endemic | | |
| Macrelaps | microlepidotus | | Endemic | | |
| Xenocalamus | bicolor | australis | Endemic | | |
| Xenocalamus | transvaalensis | | Near-endemic | | |
| Lamprophiinae | | | | 7 | 1 |
| Inyoka | swazicus | | Endemic | | |
| Lamprophis | aurora | | Endemic | | |
| Lamprophis | fiskii | | Endemic | | |
| Lamprophis | fuscus | •••••• | Endemic | | •••••• |
| Lamprophis | guttatus | | Near-endemic | | |
| Lycodonomorphus | inornatus | | Endemic | | |
| Lycodonomorphus | laevissimus | | Endemic | | |
| Lycophidion | pygmaeum | | Endemic | | |
| Pseudoxyrhophiinae | 1.70 | | | 2 | 1 |
| Amphlorhinus | multimaculatus | | Near-endemic | _ | - |
| Duberria | lutrix | lutrix | Endemic | | |
| | • | | Endemic | | |
| Montaspis | gilvomaculata | | LIUCIIIIC | 1 | 1 |
| Psammophiinae | crucifer | | Noor ondersia | 1 | 1 |
| Psammophis | • | | Near-endemic | | |
| Psammophis | leightoni | | Endemic | | 1 |
| Lamprophiidae incertae sedis | , | | NI | | 1 |
| Prosymna | sundevallii | | Near-endemic | | 1 |
| Elapidae | | - | | 3 | 1 |
| Aspidelaps | scutatus | intermedius | Endemic | | |
| *Elapsoidea | sundevallii | media | Endemic | | |
| *Elapsoidea | sundevallii | sundevallii | Endemic | | |
| Hemachatus | haemachatus | | Near-endemic | | |
| Colubridae | | | | 2 | |
| Dasypeltis | inornata | | Endemic | | |
| Philothamnus | natalensis | occidentalis | Endemic | • | • |
| | | | | | • |

APPENDIX 4

Alien reptiles recorded in the wild in the *Atlas* region

(None are known to represent established breeding populations)

Compiled by William R. Branch

| SPECIES | SCIENTIFIC NAME DATE | DATE | QDGC | LOCATION | Observer | CONTACT | SIGHTING | Fate | Voucher | Length (mm) |
|--|------------------------------|------------|--------|---|---|-------------------------|--|---|-------------------------|----------------|
| LIZARDS | | | | | | | | | | |
| Common Agama | Agama agama | 2004/06/29 | 3318CD | Cape Town harbour, Western Cape | E.H.W. Baard | A. Turner | Captured in docks | Killed | Specimen | |
| Namibian Rock Agama | Agama planiceps | 2000/01/01 | 3318BB | Porterville, Western Cape | J. van Deventer | A. Turner | Jumped off a vehicle carrying wood from Namibia | | Specimen | |
| Asian Gecko | Gekko monarchus | 2002/07/01 | 3325DC | Port Elizabeth harbour, Eastern Cape | W.R. Branch | W.R. Branch | Captured in warehouse | Killed | Specimen (PEM R5412) | |
| Angulate Dwarf Gecko Lygodactylus angularis | Lygodactylus angularis | 1992/08/10 | 3325DC | Main street, Walmer, Port Eliza- beth, Eastern Cape | G. Craig | W.R. Branch | On townhouse | Killed | Specimen (PEM R7337) | |
| Bearded Dragon | Pogona vitticeps | c. 2011 | 2628AA | Melville Koppies, Johannesburg, Gauteng | | G.J. Alexander | G.J. Alexander Identified from a photo | Fate unknown, specimen not captured | Photo | |
| Bearded Dragon | Pogona vitticeps | 2011 | 2628AA | Germiston, Gauteng | | G.J. Alexander | Captured gravid female | Retained in captivity, now in pet trade | | |
| Green Iguana | Iguana iguana | c. 2005 | 2628AA | Melville Koppies, Johannesburg, Gauteng | | G.J. Alexander Captured | Captured | Kept in captiv- ity, died two years later | | |
| SNAKES | | | | | | | | | | |
| Boa Constrictor | Boa constrictor | 2010/02/19 | 3227DD | East London beach, Bonza Bay to Danger Point, Eastern Cape | C. Vernon | C. Vernon | Dead on beach | Dead | Photo | |
| Boa Constrictor | Boa constrictor | 2007/07/21 | 3418AB | 28 Hancock Road, Plumstead, Cape Town, Western Cape | M. Witberg | M. Witberg | | Retained in captivity | | I |
| Boa Constrictor | Boa constrictor | | 2628AA | Primrose, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | | | 2 000 |
| Burmese Python | Python molurus bivittatus | 2012/03/29 | 2931CA | Verulam, north of Durban, KwaZulu-Natal | http://www. news24.com/ SouthAfrica/News/ Durban-guards- nab-3m-long-py- thon-20120329 | J. Marais | In garage and reported to have been around for three years | Released in adjacent bush | Photo | 3 000 |
| Burmese Python | Python molurus bivittatus | 1997/04/01 | 3030DA | Southport, South Coast, KwaZulu-Natal | South Coast Herald, April 4, 1997, p. 8 | W.R. Schmidt | Caught in garage | Released at Oribi Gorge | Newspaper article | Small adult |
| | | | | | | | | | | |

| SPECIES | SCIENTIFIC NAME DATE | DATE | QDGC | LOCATION | Observer | CONTACT | SIGHTING | Fate | Voucher | Length (mm) |
|---------------------------|--|------------|--------|---|---|--------------|--|---|-------------|---------------------------------|
| Reticulated Python | Python reticulatus | 2012/03/28 | 2628AA | Sandton, Johannesburg, Gauteng | http://www. news24.com/ SouthAfrica/News/ Two-large-pythons- on-the-loose-in- Sandton-20120328 | | Escaped from house | Fate unknown | News report | Two large albino captives |
| Californian King Snake | Lampropeltis californiae | 2008/04/11 | 3325DC | 69 Forest Hill Drive, Forest Hill, Port Elizabeth, Eastern Cape | | W. Conradie | | Fate unknown | M. Marshall | |
| Californian King Snake | Lampropeltis californiae | 2010/02/23 | 3325CD | Plot 55, Seaview Road, Little Chelsea, Port Elizabeth, Eastern Cape | | W. Conradie | Albino | Fate unknown | M. Marshall | |
| Californian King Snake | Lampropeltis californiae | 1996/10/22 | 2628AA | Kensington, Johannesburg, Gauteng | W.R. Schmidt | W.R. Schmidt | Banded, black, caught in postbox | Transvaal Snake Park | Photograph | Juvenile |
| Californian King Snake | Lampropeltis californiae | 2008/10/22 | 2628AA | 31 Osten Road, Delville, Ger- miston, Gauteng | W.R. Schmidt | W.R. Schmidt | Albino, caught in garden dur- ing the day in residential area | Kept in captiv- ity for two years, then donated to reptile keeper | Photograph | Male, 800 |
| Sinaloan king Snake | Lampropeltis triangulum sinaloae | | 2628AC | Rosettenville, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Sinaloan king Snake | Lampropeltis triangulum sinaloae | | 2628AA | Fourways, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Sinaloan king Snake | Lampropeltis triangulum sinaloae | 1995/11/24 | 2628AA | Edenvale, Gauteng | W.R. Schmidt | W.R. Schmidt | Caught bask- ing on garden water feature | Donated to Transvaal Snake Park | Photograph | |
| Taiwanese Rat Snake | Orthriophis taeniurus freisei | 2009/03 | 3318DC | 35 Grieve Street, Durbanville, Western Cape | R. Albertyn | M. Witberg | | Killed in garden | | 2 160 |
| Taiwanese Rat Snake | Orthriophis taeniurus freisei | 1993/11/30 | 2628AA | Highlands North, Johannesburg, Gauteng | W.R. Schmidt | W.R. Schmidt | Caught in avi- ary in garden feeding on exotic birds | Kept in captiv- ity for several years | Photograph | Adult |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | 2007/05/29 | 3318CD | 67 Regent Road, Seapoint, Cape Town, Western Cape | M. Witberg | A. Turner | | Fate unknown | Photograph | |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | 2010/11/14 | 2528CD | Menlo Park, Pretoria, Gauteng | L. Pretorius | M. Burger | Striped colour morph | Released in wild | Photograph | |

| SPECIES | SCIENTIFIC NAME DATE | DATE | QDGC | LOCATION | Observer | CONTACT | SIGHTING | Fate | Voucher | Length (mm) |
|-------------------|--------------------------------|------------|--------|--|--|--------------|---|--|------------|----------------|
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | 2010/11/04 | 3326DB | Port Alfred, Eastern Cape | F. Fouche | W. Conradie | Xanthic colour morph | Handed live to Nature Conservation and donated to Bayworld Snake Park | Specimen | 300 |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | 2010/11 | 3318DD | Pniel area, Western Cape | M. Witberg | M. Witberg | | Killed in garden | | ı |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | 2007/09 | 3418BB | Somerset West, Western Cape | Handed in by N. Wilson (Cape Nature) | M. Witberg | | Not released | | 1 050 |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | 2007/05 | 3318CD | 67 Regent Road, Seapoint, Cape Town, Western Cape | Morris | M. Witberg | | Not released | | |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | 2009 | 3030BB | Amanzimtoti, KwaZulu-Natal | R. Deans | R. Deans | | Donated to reptile keepers | Specimen | Mature |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | | 2628AB | Brakpan, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | | 2628AA | Primrose, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Corn Snake | Pantherophis guttatus | | 2628AC | Rosettenville, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Yellow Rat Snake | Pantherophis obsoletus | | 2628AA | Fourways, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Yellow Rat Snake | Pantherophis obsoletus | | 2628AB | Benoni, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Eastern Rat Snake | Pantherophis alleghaniensis | 2005/12/24 | 2628AA | Anitahof Townhouse Complex, Vosloo Street, Birchleigh, Kemp- ton Park, Gauteng | W.R. Schmidt | W.R. Schmidt | Caught in aviary feeding on caged birds | Donated to responsible keeper | Photograph | Male: 985 |
| Eastern Rat Snake | Pantherophis alleghaniensis | 2011/12/15 | 2628AA | 18 Croton Road, Primrose, Germiston, Gauteng | W.R. Schmidt | W.R. Schmidt | Caught on garage roof in crevice along- side house | Donated to responsible keeper | Photograph | 1 400 |
| Pine Snake | Pituophis melanoleucus | | 2930DD | Umbilo, Durban, KwaZulu-Natal | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Forest Cobra | Naja melanoleuca | 2010/03/31 | 3418AB | Cape Town harbour, Western Cape | | M. Burger | In shipment of tree trunks from West Africa | Kept in captiv- ity | Photo | |

| SPECIES | SCIENTIFIC NAME DATE | DATE | QDGC | LOCATION | Observer | CONTACT | SIGHTING | Fate | Voucher | Length (mm) |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|--------|--|--------------|--------------|---|------------------------------------|------------|----------------|
| CHELONIANS | | | | | | | | Fate unknown | | |
| Common Snapping Turtle | Chelydra serpentina | 2002/09/27 | 3322CD | George Crocodile Farm, George, Western Cape | E.H.W. Baard | A. Turner | Donated to Cango Wildlife Ranch | Fate unknown | Photograph | |
| Common Snapping Turtle | Chelydra serpentina | 2005/10/01 | 3322CA | Downstream in river below Cango Wildlife Ranch, Oudt- shoorn, Western Cape | E.H.W. Baard | A. Turner | Same individ- ual as in previ- ous record. Returned to reptile park | Fate unknown | Photograph | |
| Chinese Soft-shelled Terrapin | Pelodiscus sinensis | | 2528CC | Midrand, Gauteng | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Red-eared Terrapin | Trachemys scripta | 2009/04/01 3318CD | 3318CD | In garden stream, 30 Oak Avenue, Kenilworth, Cape Town, Western Cape | Z. Khan | A. Turner | Adult. Sent to SAM | Fate unknown Specimen | Specimen | |
| Red-eared Terrapin | Trachemys scripta | 2005/07/02 3030BB | | Clansthal, Umkomaas area, South Coast, KwaZulu-Natal | | J. Marais | | Killed | Specimen | |
| Red-eared Terrapin | Trachemys scripta | | 3030BB | Bird Park, Umkomaas, South Coast, KwaZulu-Natal | | J. Marais | | Fate unknown | | |
| Ornate Box Turtle | Terrapene ornata | 1995 | 2628AA | Greenside/Emmerentia area, Johannesburg, Gauteng | W.R. Schmidt | W.R. Schmidt | W.R. Schmidt Found walking on pavement | Transvaal Snake Park captive | Photograph | Adult |
| | | | | | | | | | | |

Index to scientific names

| Acanthocercus | .308 |
|---|--|
| Acanthocercus atricollis atricollis | .308 |
| Acontias | .238 |
| Acontias breviceps | .238 |
| Acontias cregoi | .239 |
| Acontias fitzsimonsi | .239 |
| Acontias gariepensis | .240 |
| Acontias gracilicauda | .240 |
| Acontias grayi | |
| Acontias kgalagadi kgalagadi | .242 |
| Acontias kgalagadi subtaeniatus | |
| Acontias lineatus | |
| Acontias lineicauda | |
| Acontias litoralis. | .245 |
| Acontias meleagris | |
| Acontias namaquensis | |
| Acontias occidentalis | .247 |
| Acontias orientalis | |
| Acontias parietalis | |
| Acontias plumbeus | 249 |
| Acontias poecilus | |
| Acontias richardi | |
| Acontias riepelli | |
| Acontias tristis | 252 |
| | |
| Afroablepharus | |
| Afroablepharus maculicollis. | |
| Afroablepharus wahlbergii | .257 |
| Afroedura | 90 |
| Afroedura africana namaquensis | |
| Afroedura amatolica | |
| Afroedura halli | 91 |
| Afroedura hawequensis | 92 |
| Afroedura karroica | |
| Afroedura langi | |
| Afroedura major | . 94 |
| | |
| Afroedura marleyi | 95 |
| Afroedura marleyi Afroedura multiporis haackei | |
| Afroedura marleyi Afroedura multiporis haackei Afroedura multiporis multiporis | 95 96 95 |
| Afroedura marleyi Afroedura multiporis haackei Afroedura multiporis multiporis | 95 96 95 |
| Afroedura marleyi Afroedura multiporis haackei Afroedura multiporis multiporis Afroedura nivaria | 95 96 95 97 |
| Afroedura marleyi Afroedura multiporis haackei Afroedura multiporis multiporis Afroedura nivaria Afroedura pondolia | 95 96 95 97 97 |
| Afroedura marleyi Afroedura multiporis haackei Afroedura multiporis multiporis Afroedura nivaria Afroedura pondolia Afroedura tembulica | 95 96 95 97 97 98 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalica | 95 96 95 97 97 98 98 |
| Afroedura marleyi | 95 96 97 97 97 98 98 99 .100 |
| Afroedura marleyi . Afroedura multiporis haackei . Afroedura multiporis multiporis . Afroedura nivaria . Afroedura pondolia . Afroedura tembulica . Afroedura transvaalica . Afrogecko . Afrogecko porphyreus . | 95 96 95 97 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 |
| Afroedura marleyi . Afroedura multiporis haackei . Afroedura multiporis multiporis . Afroedura nivaria . Afroedura pondolia . Afroedura tembulica . Afrogecko . Afrogecko porphyreus . Afrogecko swartbergensis . | 95 96 95 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 |
| Afroedura marleyi | 95 96 95 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 .311 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibronii | 95 96 95 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 .311 .311 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAfrotyphlops fornasinii | 95 96 97 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama | 95 96 97 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeata | 95 96 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .303 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogeckoAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama aculeata distanti | 95 96 95 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .303 .304 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama anchietae | 95 96 95 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 .311 .311 .311 .312 .303 .303 .304 .304 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama armata | 95 96 95 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .304 .304 .304 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata distantiAgama armataAgama atraAgama atra | 95 96 97 97 98 99 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 303 304 304 304 305 306 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama atraAgama atraAgama hispida | 95 96 97 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 311 311 312 303 303 304 304 305 306 307 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama atraAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas | 95 96 97 97 97 98 99 .100 .100 .101 311 312 303 303 304 304 305 306 307 343 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama atraAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas concolor | 95 96 97 97 97 99 90 00 100 101 311 311 312 303 304 305 306 307 343 343 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama atraAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalma | 95 96 97 97 97 99 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogeckoAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama atraAgama atraAgama atraAgama atraAgama atraAgama mispidaAmblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalmaAmblyodipsas microphthalma nigra | 95 96 97 97 97 99 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas microphthalma migraAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepis | 95 96 97 97 97 98 99 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .303 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 .345 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalmaAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepis | 95 96 97 97 97 98 99 100 00 101 311 311 312 303 303 304 305 304 345 345 345 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama atraAgama atraAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinus | 95 96 97 97 97 99 90 .100 .101 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 .345 .384 .384 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama atraAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmplorhinusAmplorhinus multimaculatusAparallactus | 95 96 97 97 97 97 99 .100 .101 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 .345 .384 .384 .384 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama atraAgama atraAgama atraAgama bipidaAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas microphthalma nigraAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplactusAparallactus <t< td=""><td>95 96 97 97 97 97 99 90 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 .344 .384 .384 .384 .384 .384 .384 .384</td></t<> | 95 96 97 97 97 97 99 90 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 .344 .384 .384 .384 .384 .384 .384 .384 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama armataAgama armataAgama armataAgama atraAmblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalmaAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas capensisAmblyodipsas capensisAmblyodipsas microphthalma nigraAmblyodipsas capensisAmblyodipsas capensisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyclipsas polylepisAmblyclipsas polylepisAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactu | 95 96 97 97 97 98 .100 .101 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 .344 .345 .344 .345 .345 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama aculeata distantiAgama atraAgama atraAgama atraAmblyodipsas microphthalma migraAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas capensisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepisAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparlalactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparlactusAparlactusAparlactusAparallactusAparlactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAppidelaps | 95 96 97 97 97 99 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 .345 .345 .345 .345 .345 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama aculeata distantiAgama atraAgama atraAgama atraAgama atraAmblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalmaAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmplorhinusAmallactusAparallactusAparallactusAparlalctusAparlalctusAparlalactus lunulatusAspidelapsA | 95 96 97 97 97 99 .100 .101 .311 .312 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .345 .345 .345 .344 .345 .344 .345 .344 .344 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko swartbergensisAfrotyphlops.Afrotyphlops fornasiniiAgama aculeata aculeataAgama armataAgama armataAgama armataAgama armataAgama inspidaAmblyodipsas microphthalma nigraAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmblyodipsas polylepis polylepisAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelaps scutatus intermedius | 95 96 97 97 97 98 99 .100 .101 .311 .312 .303 .304 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .344 .3445 .344 .3445 .344 .3445 .344 .344 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama anchietaeAgama armataAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalmaAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelaps scutatus intermediusAspidelaps scutatus intermediusAspidelaps scutatus scutatus | 95 96 97 97 97 97 99 .100 .101 .311 .311 .312 .303 .303 .304 .305 .306 .307 .343 .345 .345 .345 .384 .347 .348 .394 .395 .395 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAfrotyphlops fornasiniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama anchietaeAgama armataAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalmaAmblyodipsas polylepisAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAmplorhinusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactusAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAspidelapsAtractaspis. | 95 96 97 97 97 97 99 100 .101 .311 .312 303 304 303 304 305 304 345 345 345 344 394 395 395 395 349 |
| Afroedura marleyiAfroedura multiporis haackeiAfroedura multiporis multiporisAfroedura nivariaAfroedura pondoliaAfroedura tembulicaAfroedura transvaalicaAfrogeckoAfrogecko porphyreusAfrotyphlopsAfrotyphlops bibroniiAgamaAgama aculeata aculeataAgama anchietaeAgama armataAgama atraAgama hispidaAmblyodipsas microphthalma microphthalmaAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblyodipsas concolorAmblyodipsas polylepisAmblorinus multimaculatusAparallactusAparallactusAparallactus lunulatus lunulatusAspidelapsAspidelaps scutatus intermediusAspidelaps scutatus intermediusAspidelaps scutatus scutatusAspidelaps scutatus scutatusAspidelaps scutatus scutatus | 95 96 97 97 97 97 99 100 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 00000 00000 000000 |

| Australolacerta | 159 |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| Australolacerta australis | 150 |
| | |
| Bitis | |
| Bitis albanica | 330 |
| Bitis arietans arietans | 331 |
| Bitis armata | |
| Bitis atropos. | |
| | |
| Bitis caudalis | |
| Bitis cornuta | |
| Bitis gabonica | 335 |
| Bitis inornata | 336 |
| Bitis rubida | |
| Bitis schneideri | |
| Bitis xeropaga | |
| | |
| Boaedon | |
| Boaedon capensis | |
| Bradypodion | 286 |
| Bradypodion atromontanum | |
| Bradypodion caeruleogula | |
| Bradypodion caffer | |
| Dradypoulon carrer | 200 |
| Bradypodion damaranum | 200 |
| Bradypodion dracomontanum | |
| Bradypodion gutturale | 290 |
| Bradypodion kentanicum | 290 |
| Bradypodion melanocephalum | . 291 |
| Bradypodion nemorale | |
| Bradypodion ngomeense | 2.52 |
| | |
| Bradypodion occidentale | 293 |
| Bradypodion pumilum | 294 |
| Bradypodion setaroi | 295 |
| Bradypodion taeniabronchum | . 296 |
| Bradypodion thamnobates | |
| Bradypodion transvaalense | 257 |
| | |
| Bradypodion ventrale | |
| Broadleysaurus | |
| Broadleysaurus major | 225 |
| Caretta | |
| Caretta caretta | |
| Causus | |
| | |
| Causus defilippii | |
| Causus rhombeatus | |
| Chamaeleo | 300 |
| Chamaeleo dilepis dilepis | 300 |
| Chamaeleo namaquensis | |
| Chamaesaura | |
| | |
| Chamaesaura aenea | |
| Chamaesaura anguina anguina | 184 |
| Chamaesaura macrolepis | 185 |
| Chelonia | 61 |
| Chelonia mydas | |
| Chersina | |
| Chersina angulata | |
| | |
| Chirindia | |
| Chirindia langi langi | |
| Chirindia langi occidentalis | 150 |
| Chondrodactylus | 102 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer angulifer | |
| | 102 |
| | |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 105 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 105 226 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 105 226 226 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 105 226 226 186 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 105 226 226 186 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 105 226 226 186 186 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 226 226 186 186 187 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 226 226 186 186 187 187 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 226 226 186 186 187 187 187 |
| Chondrodactylus angulifer namibensis | 103 103 104 105 105 226 226 186 186 187 187 187 188 189 |

| Cordylus mclachlani | Hydrophis platurus |
|---|---|
| Cordylus minor | Ichnotropis |
| Cordylus niger | Ichnotropis capensis |
| Cordylus oelofseni | Inyoka |
| Cordylus vittifer | Inyoka swazicus |
| Crocodylus | Karusasaurus |
| Crocodylus niloticus | Karusasaurus polyzonus |
| Crotaphopeltis | Kinixys |
| Crotaphopeltis hotamboeia | Kinixys lobatsiana |
| Cryptactites | Kinixys notalensis |
| Cryptactites peringueyi | Kinixys spekii |
| Cryptoblepharus | Kinixys zombensis |
| | |
| Cryptoblepharus africanus | Lamprophis |
| Dalophia | Lamprophis aurora |
| Dalophia pistillum | Lamprophis fiskii |
| Dasypeltis | Lamprophis fuscus |
| Dasypeltis inornata | Lamprophis guttatus |
| Dasypeltis medici medici | Lepidochelys |
| Dasypeltis scabra | Lepidochelys olivacea |
| Dendroaspis | Leptotyphlops |
| Dendroaspis angusticeps | Leptotyphlops distanti |
| Dendroaspis polylepis | Leptotyphlops incognitus |
| Dermochelys | Leptotyphlops jacobseni |
| Dermochelys coriacea | Leptotyphlops nigricans |
| Dipsadoboa | Leptotyphlops scutifrons |
| Dipsadoboa aulica | Leptotyphlops sylvicolus |
| Dipsina | Leptotyphlops telloi |
| Dipsina multimaculata | Lycodonomorphus |
| Dispholidus | Lycodonomorphus inornatus |
| Dispholidus typus | Lycodonomorphus laevissimus |
| Duberria | Lycodonomorphus obscuriventris |
| Duberria lutrix lutrix | Lycodonomorphus rufulus |
| Duberria variegata | Lycophidion |
| Elapsoidea | Lycophidion capense capense |
| Elapsoidea boulengeri | Lycophidion pygmaeum |
| Elapsoidea sundevallii | Lycophidion variegatum |
| Eretmochelys | Lygodactylus |
| Eretmochelys imbricata | Lygodactylus bradfieldi |
| Gerrhosaurus | Lygodactylus capensis capensis |
| Gerrhosaurus auritus | Lygodactylus graniticolus |
| Gerrhosaurus flavigularis | Lygodactylus methueni |
| Gerrhosaurus intermedius | Lygodactylus nigropunctatus incognitus |
| Gerrhosaurus typicus | Lygodactylus nigropunctatus montiscaeruli |
| <i>Goggia</i> | Lygodactylus nigropunctatus nigropunctatus |
| Goggia braacki | Lygodactylus ocellatus ocellatus |
| Goggia essexi | Lygodactylus ocellatus soutpansbergensis |
| Goggia gemmula | Lygodactylus stevensoni |
| Goggia hewitti | Lygodactylus waterbergensis |
| Goggia hexapora | Macrelaps |
| Goggia lineata | Macrelaps microlepidotus |
| Goggia microlepidota | Matobosaurus |
| Goggia rupicola | Matobosaurus validus |
| Gonionotophis | Megatyphlops |
| Gonionotophis capensis capensis | Megatyphlops mucruso |
| Gonionotophis nyassae | Megatyphlops schlegelii |
| Heliobolus | Meizodon |
| Heliobolus lugubris | Meizodon semiornatus semiornatus |
| Hemachatus | Meroles |
| Hemachatus haemachatus | Meroles ctenodactylus |
| Hemicordylus | Meroles cuneirostris |
| Hemicordylus capensis | Meroles knoxii |
| Hemicordylus nebulosus | Meroles squamulosus |
| Hemidactylus | Meroles suborbitalis |
| Hemidactylus mabouia | Mochlus |
| Hemirhagerrhis | Mochlus sundevallii sundevallii |
| User interretie astronomia | |
| Hemirhagerrhis nototaenia | Monopeltis |
| | Monopeltis. 152 Monopeltis capensis 152 |
| Homopholis | |
| Homopholis | Monopeltis capensis |
| Homopholis | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153Monopeltis leonhardi154 |
| Homopholis.115Homopholis mulleri115Homopholis wahlbergii.116 | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153Monopeltis leonhardi154Monopeltis mauricei155 |
| Homopholis.115Homopholis mulleri115Homopholis wahlbergii.116Homopus.72 | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153 |
| Homopholis115Homopholis mulleri.115Homopholis wahlbergii116Homopus72Homopus areolatus72 | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153Monopeltis leonhardi154Monopeltis mauricei155Monopeltis sphenorhynchus155Montaspis387 |
| Homopholis115Homopholis mulleri.115Homopholis wahlbergii116Homopus72Homopus areolatus72Homopus boulengeri.73 | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153Monopeltis leonhardi154Monopeltis mauricei155Monopeltis sphenorhynchus155 |
| Homopholis115Homopholis mulleri.115Homopholis wahlbergii116Homopus72Homopus areolatus72Homopus boulengeri.73Homopus femoralis.74 | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153Monopeltis leonhardi154Monopeltis mauricei155Monopeltis sphenorhynchus155Montaspis387Montaspis gilvomaculata324 |
| Homopholis115Homopholis mulleri.115Homopholis wahlbergii116Homopus.72Homopus areolatus.72Homopus boulengeri.73Homopus femoralis.74Homopus signatus74 | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153Monopeltis leonhardi154Monopeltis mauricei155Monopeltis sphenorhynchus155Montaspis387Myriopholis324 |
| Homopholis115Homopholis mulleri.115Homopholis wahlbergii116Homopus.72Homopus areolatus.72Homopus boulengeri.73Homopus femoralis.74Homopus signatus74Homoroselaps351 | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153Monopeltis leonhardi154Monopeltis mauricei155Monopeltis sphenorhynchus155Montaspis387Montaspis gilvomaculata387Myriopholis324Myriopholis longicauda324Naja403 |
| Homopholis115Homopholis mulleri.115Homopholis wahlbergii116Homopus72Homopus areolatus72Homopus boulengeri.73Homopus femoralis.74Homoroselaps351Homoroselaps dorsalis351 | Monopeltis capensis152Monopeltis decosteri153Monopeltis infuscata153Monopeltis leonhardi154Monopeltis mauricei155Monopeltis sphenorhynchus155Montaspis387Myriopholis324 |

| Naja melanoleuca | Platysaurus |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Naja mossambica | Platysaurus bro |
| Naja nigricincta woodi | Platysaurus ca |
| Naja nivea | Platysaurus gu Platysaurus int |
| Namazonurus lawrenci | Platysaurus int |
| Namazonurus peersi | Platysaurus int |
| Namibiana | Platysaurus int |
| Namibiana gracilior | Platysaurus int |
| Namibiana occidentalis | Platysaurus int |
| Natriciteres | Platysaurus let |
| Natriciteres olivacea | Platysaurus mi Platysaurus mo |
| Ninurta | Platysaurus ori |
| Ninurta coeruleopunctatus | Platysaurus ori |
| Nucras | Platysaurus rel |
| Nucras caesicaudata | Prosymna |
| Nucras holubi | Prosymna bivit |
| Nucras intertexta | Prosymna fron |
| Nucras lalandii | Prosymna janii Prosymna linea |
| Nucras ornata | Prosymna stuh |
| Nucras taeniolata | Prosymna sund |
| Nucras tessellata | Psammobates. |
| Ouroborus | Psammobates |
| Ouroborus cataphractus | Psammobates |
| Pachydactylus | Psammobates |
| Pachydactylus affinis | Psammophis . Psammophis a |
| Pachydactylus atorquatus | Psammophis b |
| Pachydactylus austeni | Psammophis c |
| Pachydactylus barnardi | Psammophis ja |
| Pachydactylus capensis | Psammophis le |
| Pachydactylus carinatus | Psammophis n |
| Pachydactylus formosus | Psammophis n |
| Pachydactylus geitje | Psammophis n Psammophis s |
| Pachydactylus goodi | Psammophis t |
| Pachydactylus kladaroderma | Psammophis t |
| Pachydactylus labialis | Psammophyla |
| Pachydactylus latirostris | Psammophyla |
| Pachydactylus macrolepis | Psammophylax |
| Pachydactylus maculatus | Pseudaspis |
| Pachydactylus mariquensis | Pseudaspis ca |
| Pachydactylus monicae | Pseudocordylu Pseudocordylu |
| Pachydactylus namaguensis | Pseudocordylu |
| Pachydactylus oculatus | Pseudocordylu |
| Pachydactylus punctatus | Pseudocordylu |
| Pachydactylus purcelli | Pseudocordylu |
| Pachydactylus rangei | Pseudocordylu |
| Pachydactylus rugosus | Pseudocordylu Pseudocordylu |
| Pachydactylus tigrinus | Ptenopus |
| Pachydactylus visseri | Ptenopus garri |
| Pachydactylus weberi | Ptenopus garri |
| Pedioplanis | Python |
| Pedioplanis burchelli | Python nataler |
| Pedioplanis inornata | Ramphotyphlo |
| Pedioplanis laticeps | Ramphotyphlo Rhamphiophis |
| Pedioplanis lineoocellata pulchella | Rhamphiophis |
| Pedioplanis namaquensis | Rhinotyphlops |
| Pelomedusa | Rhinotyphlops |
| Pelomedusa subrufa | Rhinotyphlops |
| Pelusios | Scelotes |
| Pelusios castanoides | Scelotes angui |
| Pelusios rhodesianus | Scelotes areni Scelotes bidig |
| Pelusios subniger | Scelotes bipes |
| Phelsuma | Scelotes bourd |
| Phelsuma ocellata | Scelotes caffe |
| Philothamnus | Scelotes caper |
| Philothamnus angolensis | Scelotes fitzsi |
| Philothamnus hoplogaster | Scelotes grond |
| Philothamnus natalensis natalensis | Scelotes guent |
| | Scelotes inorna Scelotes kasne |
| Philothamnus semivariegatus418 | SCEIDLES KASN |
| | |

| Platysaurus broadley | |
|---|---|
| Platysaurus broadley Platysaurus capensi | |
| Platysaurus canensi | yi |
| | s |
| Platysaurus guttatus | |
| Platysaurus interme | dius inopinus |
| Diatusaurus interme | dius intermedius |
| | |
| | dius natalensis2 |
| Platysaurus interme | dius parvus |
| Platysaurus interme | dius rhodesianus |
| Platysaurus interme | dius wilhelmi2 |
| Platysaurus lehomhu | Densis |
| | |
| Fiatysaurus IIIIIOI | |
| Platysaurus monotro | ppis |
| Platysaurus orientalı | is fitzsimonsi |
| Platysaurus orientali | is orientalis |
| | |
| | |
| Droovmaa hivittata | |
| | |
| | |
| Prosymna janii | |
| | |
| | nii |
| Fiosynnia stunnan | |
| | <i>ii .</i> |
| | |
| Psammobates geom | etricus |
| Psammohates oculif | fer |
| | rius |
| | |
| | |
| Psammophis angole | nsis |
| Psammophis breviro | stris |
| | er |
| | |
| | |
| | ni |
| Psammophis mossar | mbicus |
| Psammophis namibe | ensis |
| | ctus |
| | niatus |
| | |
| Psammophis trigram | nmus |
| Psammophis trinasa | lis |
| Psammophylax | |
| Psammonhylax rhom | nbeatus rhombeatus |
| Pearmonhulay trita | eniatus |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| Pseudocordylus | |
| Pseudocordvlus lang | gi |
| Pseudocordvlus mela | anotus melanotus |
| Pseudocordylus mel | anotus subviridis |
| Desudes endulus mis | rolepidotus fasciatus |
| | |
| | rolepidotus microlepidotus |
| Pseudocordylus mici | rolepidotus namaquensis |
| Pseudocordylus spin | nosus |
| Pseudocordvlus tran | svaalensis |
| | |
| | |
| Ptenopus | |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus g Ptenopus garrulus m Python Python natalensis | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus g Ptenopus garrulus n Python Python natalensis Ramphotyphlops | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus g Ptenopus garrulus n Python Python natalensis Ramphotyphlops Ramphotyphlops bra | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus n Python | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus n Python | arrulus |
| Ptenopus P Ptenopus garrulus g Ptenopus garrulus n Python natalensis Ramphotyphlops Ramphotyphlops bra Rhamphiophis rostra | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 33 33 aminus 33 atus 36 atus 38 atus 38 |
| Ptenopus P Ptenopus garrulus g Ptenopus garrulus m Python natalensis Ramphotyphlops Ramphotyphlops bra Rhamphiophis Rhamphiophis rostra Rhinotyphlops lalanu Rhinotyphlops schin Scelotes | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus P Ptenopus garrulus g Ptenopus garrulus m Python natalensis Ramphotyphlops Ramphotyphlops bra Rhamphiophis Rhamphiophis rostra Rhinotyphlops lalanu Rhinotyphlops schin Scelotes | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus n Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus n Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus P Ptenopus garrulus g Ptenopus garrulus n Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus P Ptenopus garrulus ge Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus P Ptenopus garrulus ge Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus P Ptenopus garrulus g Ptenopus garrulus n Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |
| Ptenopus Ptenopus garrulus ga Ptenopus garrulus m Python | arrulus 14 naculatus 14 |

| Scelotes limpopoensis albiventris | Trachylepis occidentalis |
|--|---|
| Scelotes limpopoensis limpopoensis | Trachylepis punctatissima |
| Scelotes mirus | Trachylepis punctulata |
| Scelotes montispectus | Trachylepis sparsa |
| Scelotes mossambicus | Trachylepis spilogaster |
| Scelotes sexlineatus | Trachylepis striata |
| Scelotes vestigifer | Trachylepis sulcata sulcata |
| Smaug | Trachylepis varia |
| Smaug breyeri | Trachylepis variegata |
| Smaug giganteus | Tropidosaura |
| Smaug vandami | Tropidosaura cottrelli |
| Smaug warreni barbertonensis | Tropidosaura essexi |
| Smaug warreni depressus | Tropidosaura gularis |
| Smaug warreni warreni | Tropidosaura montana |
| Stigmochelys | 1 |
| Stigmochelys pardalis | Typhlosaurus |
| Telescopus | Typhlosaurus caecus |
| Telescopus beetzii | Typhlosaurus Iomiae |
| Telescopus semiannulatus polystictus | Typhlosaurus meyeri |
| Telescopus semiannulatus semiannulatus | Typhlosaurus vermis |
| Tetradactylus | Varanus |
| Tetradactylus africanus | Varanus albigularis albigularis |
| Tetradactylus breyeri | Varanus niloticus |
| Tetradactylus eastwoodae | Vhembelacerta |
| Tetradactylus fitzsimonsi | Vhembelacerta rupicola |
| Tetradactylus seps | Xenocalamus |
| Tetradactylus tetradactylus | Xenocalamus bicolor australis |
| Thelotornis | Xenocalamus bicolor bicolor |
| Thelotornis capensis capensis | Xenocalamus bicolor lineatus |
| Trachylepis | Xenocalamus sabiensis |
| Trachylepis capensis | Xenocalamus transvaalensis |
| Trachylepis depressa | Zygaspis |
| Trachylepis homalocephala | Zygaspis quadrifrons |
| Trachylepis margaritifer | Zygaspis vandami |
| , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , | ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,, |

Index to common names

| African Coral Rag Skink | |
|---|---|
| Albany Adder | .330 |
| Albany Sandveld Lizard | |
| Algoa Dwarf Burrowing Skink | .269 |
| Algoa Legless Skink | .224 |
| Amatola Flat Gecko | |
| Anchieta's Agama | |
| Angola Green Snake | .416 |
| Angulate Tortoise | 71 |
| Armadillo Girdled Lizard | .200 |
| Armadillo Lizard | .200 |
| Augrabies Flat Lizard | |
| Augrabies Gecko | .126 |
| Aurora House Snake | .363 |
| Aurora Snake | .363 |
| Austen's Gecko | 127 |
| Austen's Thick-toed Gecko | 127 |
| Barberton Dragon Lizard | |
| Barberton Girdled Lizard | 211 |
| | |
| Barnard's Gecko | |
| Barnard's Rough Gecko | |
| Beaked Burrowing Asp | |
| Beaked Stiletto Snake | |
| Beetz's Tiger Snake | .420 |
| Berg Adder | |
| Bibron's Blind Snake | .311 |
| Bibron's Burrowing Asp | |
| Bibron's Gecko | |
| Bibron's Stiletto Snake | |
| Bibron's Tubercled Gecko | .103 |
| Bicoloured Quill-snouted Snake | .354 |
| Black File Snake | |
| Black Girdled Lizard | |
| Black House Snake | |
| Black Mamba | |
| Black Spitting Cobra | |
| | |
| Black Thread Snake | 321 |
| Black Thread Snake | .321 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater | .345 .321 .347 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon | .345 .321 .347 .291 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .308 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .308 .120 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Black-spotted Lizard | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Blouberg Flat Lizard Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Blouberg Flat Lizard Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink Blue-spotted Girdled Lizard | .345 .321 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Blouberg Flat Lizard Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink Blue-spotted Lizard Blue-spotted Lizard | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .199 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Blouberg Flat Lizard Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink Blue-spotted Lizard Blue-spotted Lizard Blue-tailed Sandveld Lizard | .345 .321 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .199 .166 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Blouberg Flat Lizard Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink Blue-spotted Lizard Blue-spotted Lizard | .345 .321 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .199 .166 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Blouberg Flat Lizard Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink Blue-spotted Lizard Blue-spotted Lizard Blue-tailed Sandveld Lizard | .345 .321 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .199 .166 .151 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Blouberg Flat Lizard Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink Blue-spotted Girdled Lizard Blue-spotted Lizard Blue-spotted Worm Lizard Blunt-tailed Worm Lizard Bowlang Boulenger's Blind Legless Skink | .345 .321 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .166 .151 .414 .255 |
| Black White-lipped Snake Black Worm Snake Black-headed Centipede-eater Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon Black-lined Plated Lizard Black-necked Agama Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko Blouberg Flat Lizard Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink Blue-spotted Girdled Lizard Blue-spotted Lizard Blue-spotted Worm Lizard Blunt-tailed Worm Lizard Bowlang Boulenger's Blind Legless Skink | .345 .321 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .166 .151 .414 .255 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .199 .166 .151 .414 .255 .399 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .166 .151 .414 .255 .399 73 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .166 .151 .414 .255 .399 .73 .272 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .308 .120 .218 .278 .199 .169 .151 .414 .255 .399 .73 .272 .108 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .3455 .3211 .228 .308 .1200 .2188 .1200 .2188 .1999 .1610 .1511 .414 .2555 .3999 733 .2722 .1088 .108 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .3455 .3211 .2281 .2288 .1200 .2188 .1200 .2188 .1299 .1660 .1511 .4144 .2555 733 .2722 .1088 .1081 .1081 .117 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .3455 .3211 .2281 .2282 .1200 .2283 .1200 .2182 .1200 .2183 .1299 .1660 .1511 .4144 .2555 .3999 733 .2722 .1088 .1177 .315 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .3455 .3211 .2281 .2281 .2283 .1200 .2188 .1200 .2188 .1200 .2188 .1200 .1211 .1211 .1211 .1211 .2255 .3999 733 .2722 .1088 .117 .3155 .2322 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .228 .120 .218 .120 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .228 .308 .120 .121 .121 .121 .122 .128 .120 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .228 .308 .120 .218 .120 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 .125 .329 73 .272 .108 .108 .117 .315 .358 .368 .173 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .3455 .3211 .2283 .3083 .1200 .2183 .1203 .1203 .1213 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .3455 .3211 .2283 .3083 .1200 .2183 .1203 |
| Black White-lipped Snake . Black Worm Snake . Black-headed Centipede-eater . Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon . Black-lined Plated Lizard . Black-necked Agama . Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko . Blouberg Flat Lizard . Blouberg strand Dwarf Burrowing Skink . Blue-spotted Girdled Lizard . Blue-spotted Lizard . Blue-spotted Lizard . Blue-tailed Sandveld Lizard . Blue-tailed Worm Lizard . Boulenger's Blind Legless Skink . Boulenger's Garter Snake . Boulenger's Padloper . Bourquin's Dwarf Burrowing Skink . Braack's Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko . Braack's Pygmy Gecko . Braack's Pygmy Gecko . Brahminy Blind Snake . Brown House Snake . Brown Water Snake . Burchell's Sand Lizard . Bushveld Lizard . Bushveld Lizard . Cape Centipede-eater . Cape Cliff Lizard . | .345 .321 .228 .308 .120 .120 .121 .121 .122 .128 .129 .120 .120 .121 .121 .121 .125 .122 .125 .123 .120 .121 .121 .125 .125 .125 .125 .125 .125 |
| Black White-lipped Snake . Black Worm Snake . Black-headed Centipede-eater . Black-headed Dwarf Chameleon . Black-lined Plated Lizard . Black-necked Agama . Black-spotted Dwarf Gecko . Blouberg Flat Lizard . Bloubergstrand Dwarf Burrowing Skink . Blue-spotted Girdled Lizard . Blue-spotted Lizard . Blue-tailed Sandveld Lizard . Blue-tailed Worm Lizard . Bounger's Blind Legless Skink . Boulenger's Garter Snake . Boulenger's Dwarf Burrowing Skink . Braack's Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko . Braack's Pygmy Gecko . Bradfield's Dwarf Gecko . Brahminy Blind Snake . Breyer's Long-tailed Seps . Brown House Snake . Brown Water Snake . Burchell's Sand Lizard . Burchell's Sand Lizard . Burchell's Sand Lizard . Burchell's Sand Lizard . Bushveld Lizard . Cape Centipede-eater . Cape Cobra . | .3455 .3211 .2281 .2283 .1200 .1201 .2183 .1202 .1203 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .3455 .3211 .2283 .1200 .2188 .1200 .2188 .1200 .2188 .1200 .2188 .1200 .1218 .1200 .1218 .1200 .1218 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .228 .120 .218 .120 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 .121 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .345 .321 .347 .291 .228 .120 .218 .120 .218 .120 .121 .121 .125 .399 73 .272 .108 .107 .108 .117 .315 .358 .368 .173 .358 .368 .160 .347 .194 .225 .358 .368 .120 .347 .222 .358 .368 .222 .224 |
| Black White-lipped Snake | .3455 .3211 .3477 .2911 .2288 .3088 .1200 .2188 .1200 .1211 .4144 .2555 .3999 733 .2722 .1088 .107 .3155 .3588 .1083 .1173 .1600 .3477 .1944 .2033 .2722 .2944 .118 |

| Cape Flat Lizard | .214 |
|---|----------------------|
| Cape Gecko | |
| Cape Girdled Lizard | |
| Cape Grass Lizard | |
| Cape Legless Skink | |
| Cape Many-spotted Snake | 384 |
| Cape Mountain Lizard | |
| Cape Rough-scaled Lizard | .161 |
| Cape Sand Lizard | |
| Cape Sand Snake | .376 |
| Cape Skink. | |
| Cape Spade-snouted Worm Lizard. | |
| Cape Spiny Agama | .307 |
| Cape Thick-toed Gecko | .128 376 |
| Cape Wolf Snake. | |
| Cape Worn Lizard. | |
| Cederberg Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko | |
| Cederberg Pygmy Gecko | .111 |
| Cloete's Girdled Lizard | .187 |
| Coastal Dwarf Burrowing Skink | .280 |
| Coastal Dwarf Legless Skink | .245 |
| Coastal Legless Skink | |
| Common Banded Gecko | |
| Common Crag Lizard | |
| Common Dwarf Gecko. | |
| Common Egg-eater | |
| Common File Snake | |
| Common Flap-neck Chameleon | .300 |
| Common Flat Lizard | |
| Common Giant Gecko | |
| Common Giant Plated Lizard | |
| Common Girdled Lizard | |
| Common Ground Agama | |
| Common Mountain Lizard | |
| Common Night Adder | |
| Common Padloper. | |
| Common Purple-glossed Snake | |
| Common Rough Gecko | .141 |
| Common Rough-scaled Lizard | |
| Common Sand Lizard | |
| Common Shield Cobra | |
| Common Slug-eater Common Tropical House Gecko | |
| Common Water Snake | |
| Coppery Grass Lizard. | .183 |
| Coral Shield Cobra | |
| Coral Snake | .394 |
| Cottrell's Mountain Lizard | |
| Cream-spotted Mountain Snake | |
| Cregoi's Legless Skink | |
| Cross-marked Grass Snake | |
| Cryptic Dwarf Gecko | |
| De Coster's Worm Lizard | |
| De Coster's Spade-snouted Worm Lizard | |
| Delalande's Beaked Blind Snake | .316 |
| Delalande's Sandveld Lizard | .168 |
| Desert Mountain Adder | |
| Distant's Ground Agama | |
| Distant's Thread Snake | |
| Distant's Worm Snake | |
| Drakensberg Crag Lizard Drakensberg Dwarf Chameleon | |
| Drakensberg Flat Gecko | .∠09 |
| Duerden's Stiletto Snake | 97 |
| | |
| Durban Dwarf Burrowing Skink. | .350 .275 |
| | .350 .275 .153 |

| Dusky-bellied Water Snake | 366 | Hewitt's Pygmy Gecko | .110 |
|--|--|---|--|
| Dwarf Beaked Snake | | Holub's Sandveld Lizard | 167 |
| Dwarf Cliff Lizard | 195 | Horned Adder | |
| Dwarf Crag Lizard | | Incognito Thread Snake | 320 |
| Dwarf Flat Lizard | 215 | Incognito Worm Snake | |
| Dwarf Girdled Lizard | 190 | Jacobsen's Thread Snake | 320 |
| Dwarf Karoo Girdled Lizard | 186 | Jacobsen's Worm Snake | 320 |
| Dwarf Plated Lizard. | | Jalla's Sand Snake | |
| Dwarf Sand Snake | | Jan's Shovel-snout | |
| East African Egg-eater | | Jones' Girdled Lizard | |
| East African Shovel-snout. | | Kalahari Dwarf Worm Lizard | |
| Eastern Bark Snake | | Kalahari Ground Gecko | |
| Eastern Black-lined Plated Lizard | | Kalahari Plated Lizard | |
| Eastern Cape Dwarf Chameleon | | Kalahari Round-headed Worm Lizard | |
| Eastern Cape Legless Skink | | Kalahari Sand Snake | 380 |
| Eastern Dwarf Girdled Lizard | | Kalahari Spade-snouted Worm Lizard | |
| Eastern Green Mamba | | Kalahari Tent Tortoise | |
| Eastern Ground Agama | | Kalahari Tree Skink | |
| Eastern Hinged-back Tortoise | | Karasburg Tree Skink. | |
| Eastern Natal Green Snake. | | Karoo Crag Lizard | |
| Eastern Purple-glossed Snake. | | Karoo Dwarf Tortoise | |
| Eastern Sand Skink | | Karoo Flat Gecko | |
| Eastern Striped Skink | | Karoo Gecko | |
| Eastern Tiger Snake. | | Karoo Girdled Lizard | |
| Eastwood's Long-tailed Seps | | Karoo Padloper | |
| Elandsberg Dwarf Chameleon. | | Karoo Plated Lizard | |
| Essex's Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko | | Karoo Sand Lizard. | |
| Essex's Mountain Lizard. | | Karoo Sand Snake. | |
| Essex's Pygmy Gecko | | Karoo Sandveld Lizard | |
| Fisk's House Snake | | Karoo Whip Snake | 378 |
| Fisk's Snake | 363 | Kasner's Dwarf Burrowing Skink | 276 |
| FitzSimons' Dwarf Burrowing Skink | 274 | Kentani Dwarf Chameleon | 290 |
| FitzSimons' Flat Lizard | | Kgalagadi Legless Skink | |
| FitzSimons' Legless Skink | 239 | Knox's Desert Lizard | |
| FitzSimons' Long-tailed Seps | 234 | Knysna Dwarf Chameleon | |
| Flat Dragon Lizard | 211 | KwaZulu Dwarf Chameleon | |
| Flat Girdled Lizard. | | KwaZulu-Natal Black Snake | |
| Floodplain Water Snake | 367 | KwaZulu-Natal Flat Lizard | |
| Flowerpot Snake | 315 | KwaZulu-Natal Hinged-back Tortoise | |
| | | | |
| Forest Cobra. | 404 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake | |
| Forest Marsh Snake. | 404 425 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake | 201 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake | .201 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. | .201 93 .149 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. | 201 93 .149 .149 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko | 201 .93 149 149 134 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard | 201 .93 .149 .149 .134 .189 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard | 201 93 .149 .149 .134 .134 .189 .185 |
| Forest Marsh Snake Forest Thread Snake Fork-marked Sand Snake Fornasini's Blind Snake Gaboon Adder Gaboon Viper Geometric Tortoise Giant Desert Lizard | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard | 201 .93 .149 .149 .134 .134 .189 .185 .197 |
| Forest Marsh Snake Forest Thread Snake Fork-marked Sand Snake Fornasini's Blind Snake Gaboon Adder Gaboon Viper Geometric Tortoise Giant Desert Lizard Giant Dragon Lizard | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 80 162 209 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard | 201 .93 .149 .149 .134 .134 .189 .185 .197 |
| Forest Marsh Snake Forest Thread Snake Fork-marked Sand Snake Fornasini's Blind Snake Gaboon Adder Geometric Tortoise Giant Desert Lizard Giant Dragon Lizard Giant Girdled Lizard | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 80 162 209 209 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle | 201 .93 149 134 134 189 185 197 197 .68 |
| Forest Marsh Snake Forest Thread Snake Fork-marked Sand Snake Fornasini's Blind Snake Gaboon Adder Gaboon Viper Geometric Tortoise Giant Desert Lizard Giant Dragon Lizard Giant Girdled Lizard Giant Ground Gecko | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 80 162 209 209 102 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard | 201 .93 149 134 134 189 185 197 .68 220 |
| Forest Marsh Snake Forest Thread Snake Fork-marked Sand Snake Fornasini's Blind Snake Gaboon Adder Geometric Tortoise Giant Desert Lizard Giant Dragon Lizard Giant Girdled Lizard | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 80 162 209 209 209 102 249 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Leopard Tortoise | 201 .93 149 149 134 189 185 197 .197 .68 220 .84 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 162 209 209 209 209 209 209 209 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Lipopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. | 201 .93 149 149 134 189 185 197 .68 220 .84 277 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 209 209 249 230 94 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Leopard Tortoise Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon | 201 .93 .149 .149 .134 .189 .185 .197 .68 .220 .84 .277 .390 .290 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 209 209 227 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large's Caled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Leatherback Turtle Leopard Tortoise Limpop Dwarf Burrowing Skink. | 201 .93 .149 .149 .134 .189 .185 .197 .68 .220 .84 .277 .390 .290 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 320 162 209 209 209 209 229 249 227 138 138 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle | 201 .93 149 134 189 185 197 197 .68 220 .84 227 390 290 .76 .59 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 320 162 209 209 209 209 229 249 227 138 138 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lind Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Lobatse Hinged-back Skink. | 201 .93 149 134 189 185 197 197 .68 220 .84 227 390 290 59 254 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 209 162 209 209 209 209 229 230 249 230 249 227 138 131 134 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large Scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leebombo Flat Lizard Leopard Tortoise Limed Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loggerhead Turtle Loggershead Turtle Lomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Thread Snake. | 201 .93 149 149 134 185 197 .68 220 .84 277 390 .290 .76 .59 254 324 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 209 209 209 209 209 229 229 230 249 230 94 231 38 331 138 131 194 118 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Linted Shovel-snout Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Thread Snake. Long-tailed Worm Snake | 201 .93 149 149 134 185 197 .68 220 .84 277 390 .76 .59 254 324 324 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 209 209 209 209 249 230 249 230 94 230 138 138 138 138 131 194 118 241 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Leopard Tortoise Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowrend Towr Snake Lowrend Towr Snake | 201 .93 149 149 134 185 197 .68 220 .84 2277 390 290 .76 .59 254 324 227 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 209 209 209 230 94 230 94 230 94 138 138 131 194 118 241 74 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large Scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Leopard Tortoise Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Long-tailed Thread Snake. Long-tailed Worm Snake. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink. | 201 .93 149 149 134 189 185 197 .68 220 .84 277 390 290 .76 .59 254 324 270 .93 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 209 209 209 209 230 241 238 138 131 194 118 241 74 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leebombo Flat Lizard Leopard Tortoise Limopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Worm Snake Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink Lowyeld Flat Gecko. | 201 .93 149 149 189 185 197 .68 220 .84 2277 390 2290 .59 2254 324 277 .59 324 324 270 .93 340 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 102 294 230 94 227 138 131 194 118 118 74 74 74 74 397 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Worm Snake. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink . Lowveld Flat Gecko. | 201 .93 149 134 189 185 197 .68 220 .84 277 390 290 .76 .59 254 324 324 270 .93 404 121 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 329 162 209 207 138 131 744 744 744 744 744 744 397 61 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leetherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Worm Snake. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink . Lowveld Flat Gecko. Makgabeng Dwarf Gecko. Many-horned Adder. | 201 .93 149 134 189 185 197 .68 220 .84 277 390 290 .76 .59 254 324 324 324 324 .93 340 .93 340 404 121 335 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 209 102 209 209 209 209 229 227 138 227 138 131 194 118 241 74 74 397 61 417 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large Scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leetherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Lomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink . Lowveld Flat Gecko. M'fezi Makgabeng Dwarf Gecko. Many-horned Adder. Many-spotted Snake | 201 .93 149 134 185 197 .68 2200 68 2290 2.76 59 2254 324 270 93 324 270 93 324 270 93 324 270 93 384 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 .425 .322 .380 .312 .335 .335 .335 .335 .209 .162 .209 .209 .102 .249 .227 .249 .227 .249 .227 .138 .131 .124 .138 .131 .194 .221 .397 74 .397 61 .417 .274 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Kound-headed Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Siddled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leetherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Leopard Tortoise Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Lomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink Lowveld Flat Gecko. M'fezi Makgabeng Dwarf Gecko. Many-horned Adder. Many-horned Adder. Maputaland Legless Skink | 201 .93 149 149 134 185 197 .68 220 .76 .59 254 324 270 59 254 324 2270 93 340 404 121 335 384 248 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 209 162 209 209 209 209 209 209 229 230 249 227 138 131 138 131 194 138 131 194 74 74 74 397 61 274 275 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Kound-headed Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leebombo Flat Lizard Leopard Tortoise Limed Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Lomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink Lowveld Flat Gecko. Makgabeng Dwarf Gecko Makgabeng Dwarf Burowing Skink Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowveld Flat Gecko. Mary-horned Adder. Many-spotted Snake Maputaland Legless Skink | 201 .93 149 134 189 185 197 .68 220 .84 277 390 290 .59 254 324 270 .93 24 270 .93 24 270 324 270 324 225 324 324 210 121 121 254 335 404 121 133 53 240 121 107 107 107 107 107 107 107 107 107 10 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 209 209 209 209 249 230 94 230 94 230 94 231 138 271 74 74 74 274 275 96 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Leopard Tortoise Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loog-tailed Thread Snake. Looweld Dwarf Burrowing Skink Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowyeld Dwarf Gecko. Makgabeng Dwarf Gecko. Many-horned Adder. Many-spotted Snake Maputaland Legless Skink Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko | 201 .93 149 149 185 197 197 .68 2200 .84 2277 390 254 324 270 .93 324 254 324 270 .93 3404 121 335 384 228 100 100 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 209 209 209 209 230 249 230 94 230 94 230 94 231 138 138 131 194 118 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 275 96 131 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Leopard Tortoise Limed Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Long-tailed Turtle Looggerhead Turtle Looggerhead Turtle Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Long-tailed Worm Snake Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowveld Flat Gecko Marbaen Dwarf Gecko Mary-horned Adder. Many-spotted Snake Maputaland Legless Skink Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko | 201 .93 149 149 185 197 197 .68 2200 .24 290 .76 320 254 324 324 2270 .93 3404 121 335 384 424 100 100 413 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 102 249 230 94 230 94 230 94 230 94 230 94 231 94 74 96 96 131 96 131 131 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko. Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leetherback Turtle Leopard Tortoise. Limopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lind Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Lomi's Blind Legless Skink. Lomy-tailed Worm Snake Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lowyeld Flat Gecko. Mary-horned Adder. Many-spotted Snake Many-horned Adder. Many-horned Adder. Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled Tree Snake. | 201 .93 149 149 134 185 197 197 .68 220 .84 2277 390 290 .76 .59 2254 324 324 324 324 324 324 324 270 .93 340 404 121 335 384 2100 .100 .100 .100 .101 .101 .101 .101 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 102 294 230 94 227 138 131 194 75 90 131 91 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Lang's Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko. Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leebombo Flat Lizard Leopard Tortoise Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Lomi's Blind Legless Skink. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lomy's Blind Legless Skink. Lowveld Flat Gecko. Mary-spotted Snake. Lowveld Flat Gecko. Many-horned Adder. Many-spotted Snake. Maputaland Legless Skink Marbied African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbied Tiree Snake. Marbied African Leaf-toed Gecko. Marbied Tree Snake. Marbied Zecko. Marbied Tree Snake. Marbied Tree Snake. Marbied African Leaf-toed Gecko. Marbied Tree Snake. Marbied Tree Snake. Marbied Tree Snake. | 201 .93 149 149 134 189 185 197 197 .68 220 .84 2277 .59 2254 324 2270 .76 .59 2254 324 2270 .93 344 121 335 384 120 100 413 135 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 80 162 209 380 381 381 381 194 744 744 744 275 397 311 131 274 275 391 311 131 274 275 391 311 131 274 275 391 311 311 274 397 311 321 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large Scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leetherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Limopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Lomi's Blind Legless Skink. Lomg-tailed Worm Snake. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink Lowveld Flat Gecko. Makgabeng Dwarf Gecko Many-horned Adder. Many-spotted Snake Maputaland Legless Skink Marico Gecko. Marico Gecko. Marico Thick-toed Gecko Marico Thick-toed Gecko Marico Thick-toed Gecko | 201 .93 149 149 185 197 .68 2200 .76 .59 2254 324 277 .59 2254 324 2770 .93 34 404 121 3355 384 2270 .93 35 404 121 335 384 228 100 100 100 135 5 .95 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 329 209 209 209 209 209 209 209 209 209 229 230 94 227 138 131 194 118 241 74 74 74 397 61 274 275 96 131 91 92 92 92 92 92 91 92 92 91 91 92 92 92 92 94 74 74 74 75 96 131 91 92 92 92 92 92 94 74 74 74 97 91 91 92 92 92 92 94 74 74 74 97 96 131 91 92 92 92 94 74 74 74 74 75 96 91 92 92 92 94 74 74 74 75 96 91 92 92 92 92 94 74 74 74 74 91 92 63 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Leopard Tortoise Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loong-tailed Thread Snake. Long-tailed Worm Snake Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowveld Flat Gecko. Makgabeng Dwarf Gecko Many-horned Adder. Many-horned Adder. Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled Tree Snake. Marico Gecko Marico Thick-toed Gecko. Marico Thick-toed Gecko. Marico Thick-toed Gecko. Mariey's Flat Gecko. Marley's Flat Gecko. Marley's Flat Gecko. Marley's Flat Gecko. < | 201 .93 1499 134 185 197 197 .68 2200 .84 2277 390 254 324 2200 .59 254 324 270 .93 324 404 121 335 384 404 121 335 384 404 121 335 384 404 125 .95 .55 6 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 335 320 162 209 209 209 209 209 209 229 227 138 227 138 131 194 118 241 74 74 74 397 61 91 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 92 91 91 91 92 91 91 91 91 92 92 92 92 92 93 94 94 94 94 94 94 94 94 94 97 96 97 96 92 92 96 92 96 97 96 91 92 54 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large-scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Grass Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leatherback Turtle Leopard Tortoise Limpopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Loong-tailed Thread Snake. Long-tailed Worm Snake Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink Long-tailed Thread Snake. Lowveld Flat Gecko. Makgabeng Dwarf Gecko Many-horned Adder. Many-horned Adder. Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled Tree Snake. Marico Gecko Marico Thick-toed Gecko. Marico Thick-toed Gecko. Marico Thick-toed Gecko. Mariey's Flat Gecko. Marley's Flat Gecko. Marley's Flat Gecko. Marley's Flat Gecko. < | 201 .93 1499 134 185 197 197 .68 2200 .84 2277 390 254 324 2200 .59 254 324 270 .93 324 404 121 335 384 404 121 335 384 404 121 335 384 404 125 .95 .55 6 |
| Forest Marsh Snake | 404 425 322 380 312 335 335 335 80 162 209 102 209 209 209 209 230 249 230 94 230 94 230 94 231 94 138 138 138 131 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 97 91 92 92 92 92 92 96 91 91 91 54 54 54 54 409 | KwaZulu-Natal Purple-glossed Snake. Lang's Crag Lizard. Lang's Flat Gecko Lang's Round-headed Worm Lizard. Large Scaled Banded Gecko Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Large-scaled Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Girdled Lizard Lawrence's Nama Lizard Leetherback Turtle Lebombo Flat Lizard Limopo Dwarf Burrowing Skink. Lined Shovel-snout Little Karoo Dwarf Chameleon Lobatse Hinged-back Tortoise. Loggerhead Turtle Lomi's Blind Legless Skink. Long-tailed Worm Snake. Lowveld Dwarf Burrowing Skink . Lowveld Flat Gecko. Margabeng Dwarf Gecko. Many-horned Adder. Mary-spotted Snake Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled Tree Snake. Marbled Tree Snake. Marbled Tree Snake. Marbled Tree Snake. Marbled Skink Marbled African Leaf-toed Gecko Marbled Tree Snake. Marbled Tree Snake. Marbled Tree Snake. | 201 .93 1499 134 185 197 197 .68 2200 .84 2277 3900 254 324 2200 .93 324 2254 324 2200 .93 324 2254 324 2200 .93 324 121 335 384 404 121 335 3384 100 100 413 135 5.95 .54 .56 155 |

| McLachlan's Girdled Lizard | Pyg |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| Methuen's Dwarf Gecko | Qua |
| Meyer's Blind Legless Skink | Qud |
| Midlands Dwarf Chameleon | Rair |
| Mier Kalahari Legless Skink | Red |
| Mole Snake | Red |
| Monica's Gecko | Red |
| Montane Dwarf Burrowing Skink | Red |
| Montane Grass Snake | Reti |
| Montane Speckled Skink | Rho |
| Mopane Snake | Rho |
| Moreau's Tropical House Gecko | Rich Rich |
| Mountain Flat Gecko | Rich |
| Mountain for torse | Rich |
| Mozambique Dwari Burrowing Skink | Rinl |
| Mozambique Spitting Cobra | Rob |
| Muller's Velvet Gecko | Roc |
| Namaqua Banded Gecko | Roo |
| Namaqua Chameleon | Rou |
| Namaqua Day Gecko | Rou |
| Namaqua Dwarf Adder | Rufe |
| Namaqua Dwarf Chameleon | Salt |
| Namaqua Flat Gecko | Sav |
| Namaqua Flat Lizard | Sav |
| Namaqua Gecko | Sav |
| Namaqua Mountain Gecko | Sch |
| Namaqua Plated Lizard | |
| Namaqua Pygmy Gecko | Sch |
| Namaqua Sand Lizard | Sek |
| Namaqua Thick-toed Gecko | Serr |
| Namaqualand Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko | Serr Serr |
| Namaqualand Legless Skink | |
| Namib Dune Gecko | Seta |
| Namib Giant Gecko | Sho |
| Namib Sand Snake | Sho |
| Namib Web-footed Gecko | Sho |
| Namib Whip Snake | Silv |
| Natal Midlands Dwarf Chameleon | Sler |
| Ngome Dwarf Chameleon | Sler |
| Nile Crocodile | Sler |
| Nile Monitor | Sler |
| Northern Crag Lizard | |
| Northern Dwarf Chameleon | |
| Northern Ground Agama | Smi |
| Nuweveldberg Crag Lizard | Smi |
| Ocellated Gecko | Smi |
| Ocellated Thick-toed Gecko | Sno |
| Oelofsen's Girdled Lizard | Sno Sou |
| Olive Ground Snake | Sou |
| Olive House Snake | Sou |
| Olive Marsh Snake | Sou |
| Olive Ridley Turtle | Sou |
| Orange-throated Flat Lizard | Sou |
| Ornate Rough-scaled Lizard161 | Sou |
| Ornate Sandveld Lizard | Sou |
| Ouvolk | Sou |
| Pan Hinged Terrapin | Sou |
| Parrot-beaked Dwarf Tortoise | Sou |
| Peers' Girdled Lizard | Sou |
| Peers' Nama Lizard | Sou |
| Péringuey's Coastal Leaf-toed Gecko | Sou |
| Pestle-tailed Worm Lizard | Sou |
| Peters' Ground Agama | Sou Sou |
| Peters' Thread Snake | Sou Sou |
| Pink Blind Legless Skink | Sou |
| Plain Mountain Adder | Sou |
| Plain Sand Lizard | Sou |
| Plumbeous Centipede-eater | Sou |
| Pondo Dwarf Chameleon | Sou |
| Pondo Flat Gecko | Sou |
| Puff Adder | Sou |
| Purcell's Gecko | Sou |
| Purcell's Thick-toed Gecko | Spe |
| Pygmy Sand Snake | Spe |
| | |

| Pygmy Wolf Snake | | |
|--|---------|--|
| | • • • | 3/0 |
| Quartz Gecko | | 133 |
| Qudeni Dwarf Chameleon | | 292 |
| Rainbow Skink | | |
| Red Adder | | |
| | | |
| Red Padloper | | |
| Red-lipped Snake | | 409 |
| Red-sided Skink | | 261 |
| Reticulated Centipede-eater | ••• | 210 |
| | | |
| Rhombic Egg-eater | | |
| Rhombic Night Adder | | 341 |
| Richard's Legless Skink | | |
| Richtersveld Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko | • • • | 100 |
| | | |
| Richtersveld Gecko | | |
| Richtersveld Pygmy Gecko | | 109 |
| Rinkhals | | |
| | | |
| Robertson's Dwarf Chameleon | | |
| Rock Monitor | | |
| Rooiberg Girdled Lizard | | 188 |
| Rough Gecko | | 1/1 |
| | • • • | 141 |
| Rough-scaled Plated Lizard | | |
| Rufous Beaked Snake | | 383 |
| Salt Marsh Gecko | | 107 |
| Savanna Legless Skink. | | |
| | • • • | |
| Savanna Lizard | • • • | 164 |
| Save Quill-snouted Snake | | 356 |
| Schinz's Beaked Blind Snake | | |
| Schlegel's Beaked Blind Snake | ••• | 212 |
| | • • • | 513 |
| Schlegel's Giant Blind Snake | | |
| Sekhukhune Flat Lizard | | 222 |
| Semiornate Snake | | 417 |
| | | |
| Serrated Hinged Terrapin | • • • | 90 |
| Serrated Tent Tortoise | | 81 |
| Setaro's Dwarf Chameleon | | 295 |
| Shield-nose Snake | | 395 |
| Chart baadad Laglage Clink | • • • | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · |
| Short-headed Legless Skink | • • • | 230 |
| Short-legged Seps | | 234 |
| Short-snouted Grass Snake | | 374 |
| Silvery Dwarf Burrowing Skink | | 271 |
| Slender Spade-snouted Worm Lizard | • • • | 166 |
| | | |
| Slender Thread Snake | | 325 |
| | | |
| Slender Worm Lizard | | |
| | | 155 |
| Slender Worm Snake | | 155 325 |
| Slender Worm Snake | ••• | 155 325 112 |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard | · · · · | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink | · · · · | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon | · · · · | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra | · · · · | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon | · · · · | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder | · · · · | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama | · · · · | 155 325 112 112 162 275 296 296 306 |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama | | 155 325 112 112 162 275 296 340 340 385 |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake | | 155 325 112 162 275 296 403 340 306 385 417 |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama | | 155 325 112 162 275 296 403 340 306 385 417 |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake South-eastern Savanna Vine Snake | | 155 325 112 162 275 296 403 340 306 385 417 423 |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake South-eastern Savanna Vine Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake South-eastern Savanna Vine Snake Southern Adder Southern African Python | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South-eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink | | 155 325 112 112 162 275 296 403 306 306 332 328 328 328 |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Dwarf Chameleon | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Smilh-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake | | 155 325 112 112 162 275 296 306 385 417 423 328 328 253 410 299 425 |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Dwarf Chameleon Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Dwarf Chameleon Southern Brown Seg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Smilh-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern Adder. Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Dwarf Chameleon Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Dwarf Chameleon Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Karusa Lizard Southern Rock Agama | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Dwarf Chameleon Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Karusa Lizard Southern Rock Agama | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Cobra South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern Adder. Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Lizard | | 155 325 112 112 162 276 296 403 306 385 417 423 326 328 328 253 410 299 425 328 338 338 338 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 3488 34888 34888 34888 348888 3488888888888888888888888888888888888 |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Komitor Southern Rough Gecko | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Small-scaled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Komitor Southern Rough Gecko | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern Adder. Southern African Python Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rough Gecko Southern Spiny Agama | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater Souther Adder. Southern Adder. Southern Bind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rough Gecko Southern Spiny Agama Southern Stiletto Snake | | 155 325 112 112 162 276 296 340 340 340 340 326 417 423 326 417 423 326 410 299 425 410 299 425 326 327 326 327 327 326 327 326 327 327 327 327 |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Souther Adder. Southern African Python Southern Bind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rough Gecko Southern Spiny Agama Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Smilh's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern Adder. Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Dwarf Chameleon Southern Rock Morins Snake Southern Rown Egg-eater Southern Brown Legless Skink Southern Rown Egg-eater Southern Rown Egg-eater Southern Rown Kagama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rough Gecko Southern Spiny Agama Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Twig Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Smilh's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern Adder. Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Dwarf Chameleon Southern Rock Morins Snake Southern Rown Egg-eater Southern Brown Legless Skink Southern Rown Egg-eater Southern Rown Egg-eater Southern Rown Kagama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rough Gecko Southern Spiny Agama Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Twig Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Smilh's Desert Lizard Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake South-eastern Savanna Vine Snake Southern Adder. Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rough Gecko Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tiee Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Twig | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Cobra South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rough Gecko Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Twig Snake Southern Twig Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Smilh's Cleart Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Cobra South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder. Southern African Python Southern Blind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Lizard Southern Rock Monitor Southern Spiny Agama Southern Time Snake Southern Time Agama Southern Time Agama Southern Time Snake Southern Time Agama Southern Time Agama | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Bind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rock Monitor Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Shovel-snout Soutpansberg Dwarf Gecko Soutpansberg Purple-glossed Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern Bind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rock Monitor Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Shovel-snout Soutpansberg Dwarf Gecko Soutpansberg Purple-glossed Snake | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern African Python Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rock Monitor Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Tig Snake Southern Tig Snake Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shovel-snout Southern Rough Gecko Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shov | | |
| Slender Worm Snake. Small-scaled Gecko. Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko. Smith's Desert Lizard Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama. South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake South-eastern Savanna Vine Snake Southern Adder. Southern African Python Southern Bind Legless Skink Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rock Monitor Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Tig Snake Southern Tig Snake Southern Twig Snake Southern Twig Snake Southern Tig Snake Southern Tig Snake Southeren Shovel-snout | | |
| Slender Worm Snake Small-scaled Gecko Smilh's Caled Leaf-toed Gecko Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Burrowing Skink Smith's Dwarf Chameleon Snouted Cobra Snouted Night Adder South African Rock (or Mountain) Agama South African Slug-eater South Eastern Green Snake Southern Adder Southern Adder Southern African Python Southern African Python Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Brown Egg-eater Southern Forest Marsh Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Forest Worm Snake Southern Rock Agama Southern Rock Monitor Southern Rock Monitor Southern Spiny Agama Southern Tree Agama Southern Tig Snake Southern Tig Snake Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shovel-snout Southern Rough Gecko Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shovel-snout Southern Shov | | |

| Speckide Padloper. 7.4 Tumer's Tubercied Gecko. 104 Speckide Mark Toortale Shake. 357 Two striped Showle-shout. 388 Speckide Gock Skink. 264 Unklazi Dwart Chameleon. 287 Speckid Sand Skink. 264 Unklazi Dwart Chameleon. 287 Speckid Sand Skink. 264 Uncorected Fill Lizard. 210 Speckid Sand Gocko. 142 210 210 Spotted Barking Gecko. 142 210 210 Spotted Deart Lizard 165 Variable Hinged Terrapin 5.6 Spotted Deart Lizard 165 Variable Hinged Skink. 249 Spotted Deart Cacko 334 Variable Hunged Skink. 260 Spotted Rock Snake 350 Variable Kung Intrike. 260 Spotted Rock Snake 350 Variable Ligets Skink. 261 Spotted Rock Snake. 360 Variable Ligets Skink. 266 Spotted Rock Snake. 360 Variable Ligets Skink. 261 Spotted Rock Snake. 360 Variable Ligets Skink. 263 <th></th> <th></th> | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Speckled Rock Skink. .263 utMalazi Dwart Chameleon. .287 Speckled Trick-toed Gecko .138 Van Dam's Dragon Lizard. .216 Speckled Trick-toed Gecko .138 Van Dam's Dragon Lizard. .210 Spirut Daring Gecko .146 Van Dam's Grafelle Lizard. .210 Sported Baring Gecko .146 Van Son's Gecko .142 Sported Baring Gecko .142 Van Son's Gecko .142 Sported Baring Gecko .124 Variable Hinge Ilerapin .569 Sported Ocko .124 Variable Minge Ilerapin .569 Sported Ocko .124 Variable Minge Ilerapin .569 Sported Hock Snake .365 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Hock Snake .365 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Rock Snake .365 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Rock Snake .365 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Rock Snake .366 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Rock Snake .360 Variagized Skink .267 | | Turner's Tubercled Gecko |
| Speckled Rock Skink. .263 utMalazi Dwart Chameleon. .287 Speckled Trick-toed Gecko .138 Van Dam's Dragon Lizard. .216 Speckled Trick-toed Gecko .138 Van Dam's Dragon Lizard. .210 Spirut Daring Gecko .146 Van Dam's Grafelle Lizard. .210 Sported Baring Gecko .146 Van Son's Gecko .142 Sported Baring Gecko .142 Van Son's Gecko .142 Sported Baring Gecko .124 Variable Hinge Ilerapin .569 Sported Ocko .124 Variable Minge Ilerapin .569 Sported Ocko .124 Variable Minge Ilerapin .569 Sported Hock Snake .365 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Hock Snake .365 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Rock Snake .365 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Rock Snake .365 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Rock Snake .366 Variagized Skink .267 Sported Rock Snake .360 Variagized Skink .267 | Speckled Quill-snouted Snake | Two-striped Shovel-snout |
| Speckide Sand Skink | | |
| Speekley Hingk-back Tortoise | | |
| Speke's Hinged-back Torbise .78 Van Dam's Dwarf Worm Lizard .157 Spotted Barking Gesko .146 Van Dam's Girled Lizard .210 Spotted Barking Gesko .146 Van Son's Gacko .142 Spotted Desert Lizard .165 Vansbulle Hingged Ierrapin .56 Spotted Desert Lizard .165 Vanable Ligges Skink. .249 Spotted Gesko .134 Vanable Kink. .267 Spotted Gars Snake .381 Vanable Kink. .266 Spotted Gars Snake .381 Vanable Skink. .267 Spotted Sand Lizard .365 Vanegated Skink. .267 Spotted Sand Lizard .367 Vanegated Skink. .379 Spotted Sand Lizard .367 Variagraf Sanke. .370 Spotted Sand Lizard .210 Variagraf Sanke. .240 Spotted Thick Leed Gesko .341 Warren's Graden Lizard .210 Spotted Thick Leed Gesko .341 Warren's Graden Lizard .220 Spotted Thick Leed Gesko .341 Waterbarg Davin Gesko | | |
| Spinty Grag Lizard | | Van Dam's Duagon Lizard |
| Spotted Barking Gecko | | Van Dam's Cirdled Lizerd |
| Spotted Bush Snake 418 Van Son's Thick-tood Gecko. 142 Spotted Devarf Gecko. 122 Variable Ingel Gerapin 5.6 Spotted Gecko 134 Variable Mingel Gerapin 5.6 Spotted Grass Snake 361 Variable Mul Turtle. 5.6 Spotted House Snake 365 Variegated Skink. 267 Spotted Sand Lizard 175 Visser's Gecko 143 Spotted Skapsteker 381 Wahlberg's Snake-eyed Skink. 257 Spotted Skapsteker 381 Wahlberg's Snake-eyed Skink. 257 Spotted Gecko 123 Waren's Dargon Lizard 210 Spotted Gecko 124 Waren's Dargon Lizard 210 Spotted House Iskink 243 Waterberg Dragon Lizard 220 Stripee Diard 124 Waterberg Dragon Lizard 208 Striped Dwarf Burowing Skink 243 Waterberg Quill-snotted Snake. 208 Striped Dwarf Legless Skink 243 Waterberg Quill-snotted Snake. 365 Striped Dwarf Legless Skink. 244 Waterberg Qu | | |
| Spottel Desert Lizard | | |
| Spotted Gecko | | Van Son's Thick-toed Gecko |
| Spotted Gecko .134 Variable Mud Turtle. .56 Spotted Harlequin Snake .352 Variagated Skink. .267 Spotted Harlequin Snake .365 Variegated Skink. .268 Spotted Hock Snake .365 Variegated Skink and Stake .379 Spotted Sand Lizard .175 Variegated Skink and Stake .267 Spotted Sandveld Lizard .167 Variegated Skink and Stake .213 Spotted Subgesteer .386 Waring's Vaeke Gecko .116 Spotted Subgesteer .386 Waren's Dragon Lizard .210 Spotted Harlequin Snake .256 Waren's Dragon Lizard .210 Spotted Harlequin Snake .243 Waterberg Dragon Lizard .220 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko .111 Waterberg Gradin Lizard .220 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko .105 Waterberg Guila Lizard .220 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko .105 Waterberg Guila Lizard .220 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko .105 Waterberg Gurld Gilz Lizard .220 Striped Cr | • | |
| Spotted Hargen381Variable Skink.267Spotted House Snake.365Variegated Skink.268Spotted House Snake.365Variegated Skink.268Spotted Sand Lizard.167Vissar's Gecko.143Spotted Sandveld Lizard.167Vissar's Gecko.161Spotted Sandveld Lizard.167Wahlberg's Snake-eyed Skink.257Spotted Sandveld Lizard.161Wahlberg's Valvet Gecko.116Spotted Sandveld Lizard.210Warren's Dragen Lizard.210Spotted-Ineck Snake-eyed Skink.243Water Monitor.283Spotted-Ineck Snake-eyed Skink.243Waterberg Dragen Lizard.208Stripe-belled Ligelss Skink.243Waterberg Dragen Lizard.208Stripe Doard Eugless Skink.243Waterberg Guillsnotted Snake355Striped Dwarf Legiess Skink.243Waterberg Guillsnotted Snake355Striped Ground Gecko.143Waterberg Guillsnotted Snake355Striped Ground Gecko.143Waterberg Guillsnotted Snake335Striped Sandveld Lizard.105Weber's Gecko.143Striped Skink.243Western Cape Gecko.133Striped Sandveld Lizard.170Western Cape Gecko.133Striped Skink.243Western Ground Agama.302Striped Skink.244.344Western Ground Agama.303Striped Skink.245Western Ground Agama.303Striped Skink.243 <td< td=""><td></td><td>Variable Legless Skink</td></td<> | | Variable Legless Skink |
| Spotted Hardsen .381 Variable Skink. .267 Spotted House Snake .365 Variegated Skink. .268 Spotted House Snake .365 Variegated Skink. .268 Spotted Sand Lizard .175 Visser's Gecko .143 Spotted Sandveld Lizard .167 Visser's Gecko .143 Spotted Sandveld Lizard .161 Wahlberg's Snake-ayed Skink. .257 Spotted Thick-toed Gecko .134 Warren's Girdled Lizard .210 Spotted -neck Snake-eyed Skink .243 Waterbarg Dragon Lizard .208 Stripe-bellic Legless Skink .243 Waterbarg Duard Gecko .124 Striped Dwarf Legless Skink .243 Waterbarg Girdled Lizard .208 Striped Orus Snake .355 Waterbarg Girdled Lizard .208 Striped Ground Gecko .143 Waterbarg Girdled Lizard .208 Striped Ground Gecko .143 Weber's Gecko .143 Striped Ground Gecko .143 Weber's Gecko .133 Striped Ground Gecko .133 Web | | Variable Mud Turtle |
| Spotted Harlequin Snake .352 Variegated Skink .268 Spotted Hock Snake .365 Variegated Wolf Snake .370 Spotted Sand Lizard .175 Variegated Wolf Snake .370 Spotted Sand Lizard .167 Variegated Wolf Snake .370 Spotted Sandveld Lizard .167 Valiberg's Snake-ayed Skink .263 Spotted Slug-eater. .386 Warner's Dragon Lizard .210 Spotted Tok-toed Gecko .124 Warren's Dragon Lizard .210 Stripe-Dowarf Leaf-toed Gecko .124 Water Monitor .228 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko .111 Waterberg Dragn Lizard .220 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko .111 Waterberg Girdled Lizard .220 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko .101 Waterberg Girdled Lizard .208 Striped Crass Snake .322 Waterberg Girdled Lizard .208 Striped Varf Legiess Skink .243 Waterberg Girdled Lizard .208 Striped Varf Leaf-toed Gecko .103 Waterberg Girdled Lizard .209 | Spotted Grass Snake | |
| Spottel House Snake .365 Variegated Slug-eater. .386 Spottel Rock Snake .370 Variegated Wolf Snake. .370 Spotted Sand Lizard .175 Visser's Gecko .143 Spotted Snakeled Lizard .167 Wahlberg's Snake-ayed Skink. .257 Spotted Snapsteker .381 Wahlberg's Snake-ayed Skink. .210 Spotted Thick-toed Gecko .134 Warren's Girdled Lizard .210 Spotted -neck Snake-ayed Skink .243 Waterberg Dingon Lizard .208 Stripe-bellic Legless Skink .243 Waterberg Dingon Lizard .200 Striped Dwarf Legless Skink .243 Waterberg Girdled Lizard .2020 Striped Ground Gecko .111 Waterberg Girdled Lizard .2020 Striped Ground Gecko .143 Waterberg Girdled Lizard .203 Striped Ground Gecko .143 Waterberg Gecko .143 Striped Carund Gecko .143 Weber's Gecko .143 Striped Carund Gecko .133 Weber's Gecko .143 Striped Carund Gecko | Spotted Harlequin Snake | |
| Spottel Rock Snake | Spotted House Snake | |
| Spottel Sand Lizard | Spotted Rock Snake | |
| Spottel Sandveld Lizard 167 Wahlberg's Vehet Gecko 116 Spottel Skapsteker | Spotted Sand Lizard 175 | |
| Spotted Skapeteker | Spotted Sandveld Lizard | |
| Spotted Slug-eater386Warren's Gragen Lizard.210Spotted Thick-bed Gecko.134Warren's Girdled Lizard.210Stripe-bellied Legless Skink.223Waterborg Dragon Lizard.208Stripe-bellied Legless Skink.243Waterborg Dragon Lizard.208Striped Dwarf Led-Ibed Gecko.111Waterborg Gecko.224Striped Dwarf Legless Skink.243Waterborg Guill-snouted Snake.355Striped Dwarf Legless Skink.243Waterborg Guill-snouted Snake.355Striped Ground Gecko.105Weber's Gecko.143Striped Quill-snouted Snake.351Weber's Gecko.133Striped Quill-snouted Snake.355Western Cape Gecko.133Striped Quill-snouted Snake.355Western Cape Gecko.133Striped Quill-snouted Snake.355Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko.133Striped Skapsteker.266Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko.133Striped Skapsteker.266Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko.133Striped Skink.273Western Cape Ground Agama.303Sundevall's Garter Snake.400Western Round Agama.303Sundevall's Wirthing Skink.267Western Snad Snake.379Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko.111Western Snad Snake.379Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko.111Western Snad Snake.379Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko.111Western Snad Snake.379Swartberg Skink.267 <t< td=""><td>Spotted Skaapsteker 381</td><td></td></t<> | Spotted Skaapsteker 381 | |
| Spotted Thick-teed Gecko 134 Warren's Gircled Lizard 210 Stripes Shake-eyed Skink 266 Water Monitor 283 Stripes Dwarf Berrowing Skink 243 Waterberg Dwarf Gecko 124 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko 111 Waterberg Fial Lizard 2020 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko 111 Waterberg Girdled Lizard 203 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko 111 Waterberg Girdled Lizard 203 Striped Grass Snake 382 Weber's Gecko 143 Striped Grand Gecko 105 Weber's Thick-toed Gecko 143 Striped Prigmy Gecko 114 Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Snapsteker 382 Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Snapsteker 382 Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Snapsteker 382 Western Maart Chameleon 293 Striped Snapsteker 382 Western Maart Chameleon 293 Striped Snapsteker 382 Western Maart Chameleon 293 Sundevall's Strike < | | |
| Spotted-neck Snake-eyed Skink | | |
| Stevenson's Dwarf Gecko. 123 Waterborg Dragon Lizard 206 Stripe-Billed Legless Skink. 243 Waterborg Dwarf Gecko. 124 Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko. 111 Waterborg Girdled Lizard .220 Striped Dwarf Legless Skink. 243 Waterborg Girdled Lizard .208 Striped Oras Snake 382 Weber's Thick-toed Gecko. .143 Striped Parleguin Snake .355 .355 .355 Striped Harleguin Snake .351 Weber's Thick-toed Gecko. .143 Striped Pygmy Gecko. .111 Western Cape Gecko. .133 Striped Sandveld Lizard. .700 Western Dwarf Gridle Lizard. .293 Striped Skink .266 Western Dwarf Gridle Lizard. .903 Sundevall's Shovel-snout .391 Western Dwarf Gridle Lizard. .903 Sundevall's Shovel-snout .391 Western Matal Green Snake. .400 Swarberg Arican Leaf-toed Gecko .101 Western Sand Snake. .379 Sundevall's Shovel-snout .391 Western Sand Snake. .379 Swarberg Dwarf Chameleon .266 Western Snake. .379 | | Warren's Girdled Lizard |
| Stripe Dellied Legless Skink 243 Waterberg Dwarf Gecko 124 Striped Dwarf Legless Skink 280 Waterberg Guill-snouted Snake 220 Striped Dwarf Legless Skink 243 Waterberg Guill-snouted Snake 220 Striped Grass Snake 382 Weber's Gecko 143 Striped Ground Gecko 105 Weber's Gecko 143 Striped Legless Skink 243 Waterberg Guill-snouted Snake 351 Striped Legless Skink 244 Weber's Gecko 143 Striped Legless Skink 243 Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Quill-snouted Snake 355 Western Dwarf Charneleon 293 Striped Skink 266 Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard 190 Striped Skink 266 Western Natal Green Snake 418 Sundevall's Garter Snake 209 Western Round-headed Worn Lizard 190 Swarberg Dwarf Charneleon 267 Western Snake 373 Swarberg Dwarf Charneleon 266 Western Snake 379 Swarberg Dwarf Charneleon | Spotted-neck Snake-eyed Skink | Water Monitor |
| Stripe Dellied Legless Skink | | Waterberg Dragon Lizard |
| Striped Dwart Eurowing Skink. 280 Waterberg Flat Lizard 220 Striped Dwart Legless Skink. 243 Waterberg Girided Lizard 208 Striped Ground Gecko 105 Weber's Gecko 143 Striped Ground Gecko 143 Weber's Gecko 143 Striped Handequin Snake 351 Weber's Gecko 143 Striped Pygmy Gecko 111 Western Cape Gecko 133 Striped Sandveld Lizard 170 Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Sandveld Lizard 170 Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Skink 266 Western Coren Snake 303 Striped Skink 266 Western Snake 418 Sundevall's Garter Snake 400 Western Snake 418 Sundevall's Shovel-snout 391 Western Round-haedd Worn Lizard 150 Swarberg African Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Snake 379 Swarberg Mirican Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Snake 379 Swarberg Dwar Chameleon 266 Western Snake | | Waterberg Dwarf Gecko |
| Striped Dwarl Legiess Skink. 243 Striped Grass Snake 382 Striped Grass Snake 382 Striped Grass Snake 382 Striped Grass Snake 365 Striped Harlequin Snake 361 Striped Flored Grass Snake 243 Wedge-snouted Desert Lizard 163 Striped Quill-snouted Snake 355 Striped Quill-snouted Snake 355 Striped Quill-snouted Snake 355 Striped Quill-snouted Snake 355 Striped Snapsteker. 382 Striped Skapsteker. 382 Striped Skink 263 Sundevall's Garter Snake 400 Western Natal Green Snake 418 Sundevall's Writhing Skink 265 Swarberg African Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Snake 379 Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Snake 379 Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Snake 379 Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko 101 < | Striped Dwarf Burrowing Skink | |
| Striped Dwart Legiess Skink 24-3 Waterberg Quill-snouted Snake 365 Striped Ground Gecko 105 Weber's Gecko 143 Striped Harlequin Snake 351 Weber's Thick-toed Gecko 143 Striped Harlequin Snake 351 Weber's Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Pygmy Gecko 111 Western Cape Gecko 133 Striped Snake 355 Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Sandveld Lizard 170 Western Dwarf Burrowing Skink 273 Striped Shaapsteker. 382 Western Tourd Chameleon 293 Striped Shapsteker. 286 Western Ground Agama 303 Sundevall's Shovel-snout 391 Western Round-headed Worm Lizard 190 Sundevall's Shovel-snout 391 Western Sandveld Lizard 171 Swartberg Mrican Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Sandveld Lizard 171 Swartberg Mrican Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Sandveld Lizard 379 Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Sandveld Lizard 379 Swart F | Striped Dwarf Leaf-toed Gecko | |
| Striped Grass Snake | Striped Dwarf Legless Skink | |
| Striped Ground Gecko 105 Weber's Thick-bed Gecko 143 Striped Legless Skink. 243 Wedge-snouted Desert Lizard 163 Striped Pygmy Gecko 111 Western Cape Gecko 133 Striped Pygmy Gecko 113 Western Cape Gecko 133 Striped Sandveld Lizard 170 Western Dwarf Burrowing Skink 273 Striped Skink 266 Western Dwarf Chameleon 293 Striped Skink 266 Western Dwarf Graded Lizard 190 Sundevall's Garter Snake 400 Western Rock Skink 267 Sundevall's Shovel-snout 391 Western Rock Skink 267 Sundevall's Shovel-snout 290 Western Rock Skink 267 Swartberg African Leaf-bed Gecko 101 Western Sandveld Lizard 171 Swartberg Maria Leaf-bed Gecko 101 Western Sandveld Lizard 171 Swartberg Maria Leaf-bed Gecko 101 Western Sandveld Lizard 171 Swartberg Maria Leaf-bed Gecko 101 Western Thread Snake 379 Swari Rock Shake | Striped Grass Snake | |
| Striped Harlequin Snake351Weber S InterNote Gecko14-5Striped Legless Skink.243Western Cape Gecko133Striped Quill-snouted Snake355Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko133Striped Akapsteker.382Western Dwarf Burrowing Skink.273Striped Skink266Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard190Sundevall's Garter Snake400Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard.190Sundevall's Garter Snake400Western Rock Skink266Sundevall's Shovel-snout391Western Rock Skink267Sundevall's Writhing Skink.259Western Rourd-headed Worm Lizard.150Swartberg Mart Chameleon286Western Rourd-headed Worm Lizard.150Swartberg Dwarf Chameleon286Western Snake379Swartberg Chard Gecko101Western Stripe-Biled Sand Snake379Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Thread Snake326Swart Brid Gecko362Western Weing Snake326Fiello's Thread Snake323Western Wing Snake379Tiello's Worm Snake323Western Worm Snake379Tembu Flat Gecko382Western Worm Snake379Tent Ortoise327Western Worm Snake273Thin-skinned Gecko32Withe Holide Sand Snake379Tinis-kinned Gecko32Wither Monitor273Tinis-skined Gecko34Western Snake326Tinis-kinned Gecko32Witherbeilied Dwarf Bur | | Weber's Gecko |
| Striped Legless Skink. 243 Wedge-should beent Lizard 115 Striped Pygmy Gecko. 111 Western Cape Gecko. 133 Striped Sandveld Lizard. 170 Western Dwarf Burrowing Skink. 273 Striped Skapsteker. 382 Western Dwarf Chameleon. 293 Striped Skapsteker. 382 Western Dwarf Chameleon. 293 Striped Skapsteker. 382 Western Ground Agama. 303 Sundevall's Gater Snake 400 Western Round-headed Worm Lizard. 150 Sundevall's Shovel-snout 391 Western Round-headed Worm Lizard. 150 Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko. 101 Western Stripe-bellied Sand Snake. 379 Swartberg Dwarf Chameleon 286 Western Thread Snake. 379 Swart berg Leaf-toed Gecko. 101 Western Thread Snake. 379 Swart Rock Snake. 362 Western Whip Snake 379 Swart Rock Snake. 323 Western Whip Snake 379 Tert Go Gecko. 94 Western Whip Snake 379 Fielo's Norm Snake 323 Western Whip Snake 379 Te | | Weber's Thick-toed Gecko |
| Striped Pygmy Gecko. 111 Western Cape Thick-toed Gecko 133 Striped Quill-snouted Snake 355 Western Dwarf Chameleon. 273 Striped Skapsteker. 382 Western Dwarf Chameleon. 293 Striped Skink 266 Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard 190 Sundevall's Garter Snake 400 Western Rourd Agama 303 Sundevall's Shovel-snout 391 Western Rock Skink 267 Sundevall's Shovel-snout 391 Western Rock Skink 267 Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Sand Snake 379 Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko 101 Western Stripe-Dellied Sand Snake 379 Swart Flat Gecko .01 Western Thread Snake .326 Swart Rock Snake .326 Western Whip Snake .326 Swart Rock Snake .326 Western Worm Snake .326 Swart Rock Snake .326 Western Worm Snake .326 Teilo's Worm Snake .326 Western Worm Snake .326 Teilo 's Worm Snake .326 Western Worm Snake .326 Teint Tortoise | | |
| Striped Quill-snouted Snake355Western Dwarf Burrowing Skink173Striped Sandveld Lizard170Western Dwarf Garder Snake273Striped Skink382Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard190Sundevall's Garter Snake400Western Ground Agama303Sundevall's Shovel-snout391Western Round Agama303Sundevall's Writhing Skink259Western Round Agama150Sundevall's Writhing Skink269Western Round Headed Worm Lizard150Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sandveld Lizard171Swartberg Duarf Chameleon286Western Stripe-bellied Sand Snake379Swartberg Duarf Chameleon286Western Stripe-bellied Sand Snake326Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Three-striped Skink263Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Three-striped Skink263Swazi Rock Snake.323Western Whip Snake379Fello's Worm Snake323Western Whip Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Yellow-bellied Sand Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Yellow-bellied Sand Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko132Wihet-bruted Dwarf Burrowing Skink273Tembo Flat Gecko132Wihet-bruted Dwarf Burrowing Skink273Tembo Flat Gecko132Wihet-bruted Dwarf Burrowing Skink274Tim-skinned Thrick-toed Gecko132Wihet-bruted Snake379Tigre Thick-toed Gecko132Wihet-brute | | |
| Striped Sandveld Lizard.170Western Dwarf Chameleon.293Striped Skapsteker.382Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard.190Sundevall's Garter Snake.400Western Marl Girdled Lizard.190Sundevall's Garter Snake.400Western Natal Green Snake.418Sundevall's Shovel-snout.391Western Round Agama | | |
| Striped Skiapsteker.382Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard.293Striped Skink | | |
| Striped Skink266Western Ground Agama303Sundevall's Garter Snake400Western Ground Agama303Sundevall's Shovel-snout391Western Rock Skink267Sungazer209Western Rock Skink267Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Rourd-headed Worm Lizard150Swartberg Dwart Chameleon286Western Sandveld Lizard171Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sandveld Lizard171Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko94Western Thread Snake326Swazi Rock Snake362Western Snake363Flal Gecko94Western Three-striped Skink263Swazi Rock Snake362Western Whip Snake379Tello's Worm Snake323Western Whip Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Worm Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Worm Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Worm Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko132Wilte-bellied Daard Burrowing Skink277Tent Tortoise132Wilte-throated Monitor283Thin-skinned Gecko132Wolkberg Dwarf Chameleon298Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Sanke364Transval Crag Lizard298Yellow-bellied House Snake364Transval Crag Lizard298Yellow-bellied House Snake364Transval Gecko125Zambezi Ganter Snake364Transval Grage Lizard <t< td=""><td>Striped Skaansteker 382</td><td>Western Dwarf Chameleon</td></t<> | Striped Skaansteker 382 | Western Dwarf Chameleon |
| Sundevall's Garter Snake400Western Natal Green Snake303Sundevall's Writhing Skink259Western Notal Green Snake418Sundevall's Writhing Skink267Western Round-headed Worm Lizard150Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sand Snake379Swartberg Dwarf Chameleon286Western Sandveld Lizard171Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sandveld Lizard171Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sandveld Lizard263Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Thread Snake326Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Thread Snake263Swazi Rock Snake322Western Whip Snake263Tello's Thread Snake323Western Worm Snake379Tello's Morm Snake323Western Wolm Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Worm Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Worm Snake379Tent Tortoise82White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink277Tent Tortoise82White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink271Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Woodbush Flat Gecko95Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Flat Gecko95Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Woodbush Flat Gecko96Transvaal Crag Lizard206Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transvaal Grabu Lizard218Yellow-bellied Snake364Transvaal Girdbe Lizard228Yellow-bellied Snake <td></td> <td>Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard</td> | | Western Dwarf Girdled Lizard |
| Sundevall's Shovel-snout.391Western Natal Green Snake418Sundevall's Writhing Skink259Western Rock Skink267Sungazer209Western Rock Skink150Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sand Snake379Swartberg Dwarf Chameleon286Western Sand Snake379Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Stripe-bellied Sand Snake379Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko94Western Three-striped Skink263Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Three-striped Skink263Swazi Rock Snake362Western Three-striped Skink263Tello's Worm Snake323Western Whip Snake379Tello's Worm Snake323Western Wolp Snake326Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Wolp Snake327Tent Tortoise82White-throated Monitor283Thin-skinned Gecko132Wilhelm's Flat Lizard219Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko141Woodbush Flat Gecko98Tiger Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon288Yellow-bellied Gecko364Transvaal Crag Lizard206Yellow-bellied Snake364Transvaal Flat Gecko99Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon288Yellow-bellied Gecko364Transvaal Flat Gecko99Yellow-bellied Snake364Transvaal Flat Gecko99Yellow-bellied Snake3 | | Western Ground Agama |
| Sundevall's Writhing Skink259Western Rock Skink267Sungazer209Western Round-headed Worm Lizard.150Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sand Snake379Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sandveld Lizard171Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Stripe-bellied Sand Snake379Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Thread Snake326Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Thread Snake326Swazi Rock Snake362Western Whip Snake379Tello's Thread Snake323Western Whip Snake326Tello's Worm Snake323Western Whip Snake379Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Yellow-bellied Sand Snake379Tembu Flat Gecko98White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink277Tent Tortoise82Wihite-throated Monitor288Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko132Wilkerg Dwarf Chameleon298Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Tiger Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon298Yellow-bellied Sanake364Transvaal Crag Lizard206Yellow-bellied Sanake364Transvaal Flat Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313Transvaal Grag Lizard298Yellow-bellied Sanake364Transvaal Grad Lizard298Yellow-bellied Sanake364Transvaal Girdled Lizard298 <td></td> <td>Western Natal Green Snake</td> | | Western Natal Green Snake |
| Sundavar209Western Round-headed Worn Lizard.150Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Sand Snake379Swartberg Dwarf Chameleon286Western Sand Snake379Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Western Thread Snake379Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Thread Snake326Swazi Rock Snake362Western Three-striped Skink263Stern Vorm Snake323Western Worm Snake379Tello's Thread Snake323Western Worm Snake379Tello's Thread Snake323Western Worm Snake326Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Worm Snake326Tembu Flat Gecko98White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink277Tent Tortoise82White-throated Monitor283Thin-skinned Gecko132Woldbush Legless Skink261Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Legless Skink251Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon298Yellow-bellied House Snake364Transvaal Flat Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake364Transvaal Flat Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Garter Snake364Transvaal Grided Lizard125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313Transvaal Grided Lizard125Zambezi Garter Snake313 </td <td></td> <td>Western Rock Skink</td> | | Western Rock Skink |
| Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko101Swartberg Dwarf Chameleon286Western Sandveld Lizard171Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko94Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko94Swart Flat Gecko94Swart Flat Gecko94Western Thread Snake326Swazi Flat Gecko94Western Three-striped Skink263Tello's Thread Snake323Tello's Worm Snake323Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Winj Snake326Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Vellow-bellied Sand Snake379White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink277Tent Tortoise82Thin-skinned Gecko132White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink219Thin-skinned Gecko132Wodbush Flat Gecko95Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Flat Gecko95Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Flat Gecko95Transvaal Crag Lizard206Yellow-bellied House Snake364Transvaal Flat Gecko122Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake364Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313Transvaal Girdled Lizard128Zambezi Garter Snake313Transvaal Girdled Lizard129Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313< | | Western Round-headed Worm Lizard. |
| Swartberg Dwarf Chameleon101Swartberg Dwarf Chameleon286Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko101Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko94Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko94Swartberg Leaf-toed Gecko94Swart Rock Snake362Swazi Rock Snake362Western Three-striped Skink263Swart Rock Snake323Tello's Thread Snake323Western Worm Snake323Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Worm Snake326Tembo Flat Gecko98White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink277Tent Tortoise82Thin-skinned Gecko132Thin-skinned Gecko132Winte-bellied Dwarf Chameleon298Thin-skined Legless Skink240Woodbush Legless Skink251Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Legless Skink251Transkei Dwarf Chameleon288Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transvaal Crag Lizard206Yellow-bellied Snake364Transvaal Flat Gecko125Zambezi Garter Snake313Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Garter Snake313Transvaal Gras Lizard183Zambezi Garter Snake313Transvaal Gras Lizard183Zambezi Garter Snake313Transvaal Gras Lizard218Transvaal Gras Lizard219Transvaal Gras Lizard212Transvaal Gras Lizard329 <tr< td=""><td></td><td></td></tr<> | | |
| Swartberg Dual of the off decko1200Swartberg Dual of decko101Western Stripe-bellied Sand Snake379Swazi Flat Gecko94Swazi Rock Snake362Swazi Rock Snake362Tello's Thread Snake323Western Three-striped Skink263Tello's Worm Snake323Western Worm Snake326Tembo Flat Gecko98Tembu Flat Gecko98Western Yellow-bellied Sand Snake379Temto Totoise98Thin-skinned Gecko132Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko132Wilte-Intoated Monitor283Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko132Woodbush Legless Skink240Woodbush Legless Skink251Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin.55Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Sanke.364Transkei Dwarf Chameleon.298Yellow-bellied Sanke.364Transvaal Crag Lizard.206Yellow-bellied Sanke.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Sanke.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Sanke.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Sanke.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Sanke.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Sanke.313Transvaal Gecko.228Transvaal Gecko.228 <t< td=""><td>Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko</td><td></td></t<> | Swartberg African Leaf-toed Gecko | |
| Swazi Rock Snake | Swartberg Dwart Chameleon | |
| Swazi Rock Snake.362Tello's Thread Snake.362Tello's Thread Snake.323Tello's Worm Snake.323Western Whip Snake.326Tembo Flat Gecko.98Western Wellow-bellied Sand Snake.379Western Vellow-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink.379Tembo Flat Gecko.98White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink.277White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink.277White-bellied Dewarf Burrowing Skink.219Thin-skinned Gecko.132Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko.132Wilhelm's Flat Lizard.219Thin-tailed Legless Skink.240Woodbush Flat Gecko.95Tiger Gecko.141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon.288Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transvaal Crag Lizard206Yellow-bellied Snake364Transvaal Flat Gecko.125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake.364Transvaal Grads Lizard.125Transvaal Grads Lizard.125Transvaal Grads Lizard.125Transvaal Grads Lizard.125Transvaal Grads Lizard.126Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake.313Transvaal Grads Lizard.313Transvaal Guill-snake357Timasvaal Guill-snake357Timasvaal Guill-snake313Transvaal Guill-snake357Timasvaal Guill-snake313Transvaal Guill-snake357 | | |
| Sind ProceedingSolution | | |
| Teilo's Worm Snake323Western Worm Snake326Tembo Flat Gecko98Western Yellow-bellied Sand Snake379Tembu Flat Gecko98White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink277Tent Tortoise82White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink277Tent Tortoise82White-bellied Dwarf Burrowing Skink277Thin-skinned Gecko132Wilhelm's Flat Lizard219Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko132Wolkberg Dwarf Chameleon298Thin-tailed Legless Skink240Woodbush Flat Gecko95Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Legless Skink251Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon298Yellow-bellied House Snake364Transvaal Crag Lizard206Yellow-bellied Sanke364Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313Transvaal Grass Lizard192Zambezi Garter Snake399Transvaal Guill-snouted Snake357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko125Zimbabwe Flat Gecko218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko218Zambezi Gaint Blind Snake313Transvaal Grass Lizard357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko125Zimbabwe Flat Gecko218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko225Zimbabwe Flat Gecko218Transvaal Grass Lizard308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink270 | | |
| Tembo Flat Gecko.98Tembo Flat Gecko.98Tembu Flat Gecko.98Tent Tortoise.98Thin-skinned Gecko.132Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko.132Wilte-throated Monitor298Wolkberg Dwarf Chameleon298Tiger Gecko141Wellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin55Tiger Thick-toed Gecko.141Yellow-bellied House Snake364Transvaal Crag Lizard206Yellow-bellied Snake364Transvaal Flat Gecko125Zambezi Gacko298Yellow-bellied Snake364Transvaal Grag Lizard298Yellow-bellied Snake364Transvaal Grag Lizard125Zambezi Gacko125Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Garter Snake313Transvaal Grags Lizard183Transvaal Grags Lizard183Transvaal Guill-snouted Snake313Transvaal Guill-snouted Snake357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko125Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko228Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko228Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko228Transvaal Guill-snouted Snake357Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko228Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko228Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko228Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko257T | | |
| Tembu Flat Gecko | Tello's Worm Snake | |
| Tent Tortoise82White-throated Monitor.283Thin-skinned Gecko.132Wilhelm's Flat Lizard219Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko.132Wolkberg Dwarf Chameleon.298Thin-tailed Legless Skink.240Woodbush Flat Gecko.95Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Flat Gecko.95Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin.55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon.288Yellow-bellied House Snake.364Transvaal Crag Lizard.206Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Flat Gecko.99Yellow-bellied Snake.313Transvaal Gecko.125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake.313Transvaal Girdled Lizard.183Zambezi Garter Snake.313Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake.357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.125Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.228Zimbabwe Flat Lizard.99Tree Agama.308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink270 | Tembo Flat Gecko | |
| Thin-skinned Gecko.132Wilhelm's Flat Lizard.219Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko.132Wolkberg Dwarf Chameleon.298Thin-tailed Legless Skink240Woodbush Flat Gecko95Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Legless Skink.251Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin.55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon.288Yellow-bellied House Snake.364Transvaal Crag Lizard.206Yellow-bellied Snake.407Transvaal Dwarf Chameleon.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Flat Gecko.99Yellow-bellied Snake.313Transvaal Girdled Lizard.125Zambezi Garter Snake.313Transvaal Girdled Lizard.183Zambezi Garter Snake.313Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake.357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.125Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.228Zimbabwe Flat Lizard.99Tree Agama.308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink270 | Tembu Flat Gecko | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · |
| Thin skinned Thick-toed Gecko.132Wolkberg Dwarf Chameleon298Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko.141Wolkberg Dwarf Chameleon.95Tiger Gecko.141Woodbush Flat Gecko.95Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin.55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon.288Yellow-bellied House Snake.364Transvaal Crag Lizard.206Yellow-bellied Saake.407Transvaal Dwarf Chameleon.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Flat Gecko.99Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Girdled Lizard.125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake.313Transvaal Grass Lizard.183Zambezi Garter Snake.313Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake.357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.25Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Grass Lizard.308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink270 | Tent Tortoise | |
| Thin-tailed Legless Skink | Thin-skinned Gecko | |
| Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Legless Skink | Thin-skinned Thick-toed Gecko | Wolkberg Dwarf Chameleon |
| Tiger Gecko141Woodbush Legless Skink.251Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin.55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon.288Yellow-bellied House Snake.364Transvaal Crag Lizard.206Yellow-bellied Boake.407Transvaal Dwarf Chameleon.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Flat Gecko.99Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gidled Lizard.206Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gidled Lizard.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gidled Lizard.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gecko.298Yellow-bellied Snake.313Transvaal Gecko.125Zambezi Garter Snake.313Transvaal Grass Lizard.183Zambezi Giant Blind Snake.313Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake.357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.125Zimbabwe Flat Lizard.99Tree Agama.308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink270 | Thin-tailed Legless Skink | Woodbush Flat Gecko |
| Tiger Thick-toed Gecko141Yellow-bellied Hinged Ierrapin.55Transkei Dwarf Chameleon.288Yellow-bellied House Snake.364Transvaal Crag Lizard.206Yellow-bellied Saake.407Transvaal Dwarf Chameleon.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Flat Gecko.99Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gecko.125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake.313Transvaal Girdled Lizard.192Zambezi Garter Snake.313Transvaal Grass Lizard.183Zambezi Giant Blind Snake.313Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.215Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.25Zimbabwe Flat Lizard.99Tree Agama.308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink270 | | Woodbush Legless Skink |
| Transkei Dwarf Chameleon288Yellow-bellied House Snake.364Transvaal Crag Lizard.206Yellow-bellied Sea Snake.407Transvaal Dwarf Chameleon.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Flat Gecko.99Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Gecko.125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake.313Transvaal Gridled Lizard.192Zambezi Garter Snake.313Transvaal Garss Lizard.183Zambezi Garter Snake.313Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake.357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.125Zimbabwe Flat Lizard.99Tree Agama.308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink270 | | Yellow-bellied Hinged Terrapin |
| Transvaal Crag Lizard | | |
| Transvaal Dwarf Chameleon.298Yellow-bellied Snake.364Transvaal Flat Gecko.99Yellow-throated Plated Lizard.228Transvaal Gecko.125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake.313Transvaal Girdled Lizard.192Zambezi Garter Snake.399Transvaal Garss Lizard.183Zambezi Giant Blind Snake.313Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake.357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko.218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko.125Zimbabwe Flat Lizard.99Tree Agama.308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink.270 | | |
| Transvaal Flat Gecko99Yellow-throated Plated Lizard228Transvaal Gecko125Zambezi Beaked Blind Snake313Transvaal Girdled Lizard192Zambezi Garter Snake399Transvaal Grass Lizard183Zambezi Giant Blind Snake313Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake357Zimbabwe Flat Gecko218Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko125Zimbabwe Flat Lizard99Tree Agama308Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink270 | | |
| Transvaal Gecko | | |
| Transvaal Girdled Lizard.192Zambezi Garter Snake | | |
| Transvaal Grass Lizard183Zambezi Giant Blind Snake313Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake | | |
| Transvaal Quill-snouted Snake | | |
| Transvaal Thick-toed Gecko125Zimbabwe Flat Lizard99Tree Agama | | |
| Tree Agama Skink 308 Zululand Dwarf Burrowing Skink | | |
| | | |
| Iurner's Gecko | | |
| | Iurner's Gecko | Zululand Dwart Chameleon |
| | | |

SURICATA

1. Atlas and Red List of the Reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland. 2014. M.F. Bates, W.R. Branch, A.M. Bauer, M. Burger, J. Marais, G.J. Alexander & M.S. de Villiers. ISBN 978-1-919976-84-6. Also available on CD: ISBN 978-1-919976-96-9.

ENQUIRIES:

SANBI Bookshop, South African National Biodiversity Institute, Private Bag X101, Pretoria, 0001 South Africa. Tel. +27 12 843 5000 • Fax +27 12 804 3211 E-mail: bookshop@sanbi.org.za • Website: www.sanbi.org

Summary of the Red List Criteria (Reproduced courtesy of IUCN, from IUCN 2012a)

Summary of the five criteria (A–E) used to evaluate if a taxon belongs in an IUCN Red List threatened category (Critically Endangered, Endangered or Vulnerable)¹

| | | Critically Endangered | Endangere | d Vulnerable |
|-----|---|--|---------------------|--|
| A1 | | ≥ 90% | ≥ 70% | ≥ 50% |
| A2, | A3 & A4 | ≥ 80% | ≥ 50% | ≥ 30% |
| A1 | Population reduction observed, estimated, inferred, where the causes of the reduction are clearly reversi have ceased. | | | (a) direct observation [except A3] (b) an index of abundance appropriate to the taxon |
| A2 | Population reduction observed, estimated, inferred, where the causes of reduction may not have ceased (OR may not be reversible. | | based on any of the | (c) a decline in area of occupancy (AOO), extent of occurrence (EOO) and/or habitat quality |
| A3 | Population reduction projected, inferred or suspected (up to a maximum of 100 years). [(a) cannot be use | 승규가 잘 만든 것 같은 것을 만든 것을 가지 않는 것 같아요. 그는 것은 것은 것은 것을 가지 않는 것 같아. | following: | (d) actual or potential levels of exploitation |
| A4 | An observed, estimated, inferred, projected or sus tion where the time period must include both the pa max. of 100 years in future), and where the causes ceased OR may not be understood OR may not be re | ast and the future (up to a of reduction may not have | | (e) effects of introduced taxa, hy- bridization, pathogens, pollutants, competitors or parasites |

| upancy) | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Endangered | Vulnerable |
| < 5 000 km ² | < 20 000 km ² |
| < 500 km ² | < 2 000 km ² |
| | |
| ≤ 5 | ≤ 10 |
| ≤ | 5 |

(b) Continuing decline observed, estimated, inferred or projected in any of: (i) extent of occurrence; (ii) area of occupancy; (iii) area, extent and/ or quality of habitat; (iv) number of locations or subpopulations; (v) number of mature individuals

(c) Extreme fluctuations in any of: (i) extent of occurrence; (ii) area of occupancy; (iii) number of locations or subpopulations; (iv) number of mature individuals

| C. Small population size and decline | | | | |
|---|--|---|--|--|
| | Critically Endangered | Endangered | Vulnerable | |
| Number of mature individuals AND at least one of C1 or C2: | < 250 | < 2 500 | < 10 000 | |
| C1. An observed, estimated or projected continuing decline of at least (up to a max. of 100 years in future): | 25% in 3 years or 1 generation (whichever is longer) | 20% in 5 years or 2 generations (whichever is longer) | 10% in 10 years or 3 generations (whichever is longer) | |
| C2. An observed, estimated, projected or inferred continuing decline AND at least 1 of the following 3 conditions: | | | | |
| (a) (i) Number of mature individuals in each subpopulation: | ≤ 50 | ≤ 250 | ≤ 1 000 | |
| (ii) % of mature individuals in one subpopulation = (b) Extreme fluctuations in the number of mature individuals | 90–100% | 95–100% | 100% | |

| | Critically Endangered | Endangered | Vulnerable |
|---|-----------------------|------------|--|
| D. Number of mature individuals | < 50 | < 250 | < 1 000 |
| D2. Only applies to the VU category Restricted area of occupancy or number of locations with a plau- sible future threat that could drive the taxon to CR or EX in a very short time. | | 053 | D2. typically: AOO < 20 km ² or number of locations ≤ 5 |

| | Critically Endangered | Endangered | Vulnerable |
|---|--|---|-------------------------|
| Indicating the probability of extinction in the wild to be: | ≥ 50% in 10 years or 3 generations, whichever is longer (100 years max.) | ≥ 20% in 20 years or 5 generations, whichever is longer (100 years max.) | \geq 10% in 100 years |

¹ Use of this summary sheet requires full understanding of the *IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria*, and *Guidelines for Using the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria*. Please refer to both documents for explanations of terms and concepts used here.





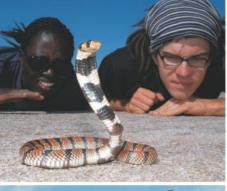
























MMSH

























1日 GOOD FYEAR





新













This **Atlas and Red List** details the outcomes of the Southern African Reptile Conservation Assessment (SARCA), the most thorough reptile assessment project ever conducted in Africa. The conservation status of the 422 recognised species and subspecies of reptiles of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland was evaluated against IUCN guidelines, based on detailed distribution maps, published literature and the collective expertise of leading herpetologists. Maps were based on records from museums, conservation agencies, published literature, targeted fieldwork, and an online virtual museum.

The assessment revealed that one-fifth of all species and subspecies are of conservation concern, mainly because of habitat alteration. Two species are now extinct, whereas 36 are classified as threatened (five Critically Endangered, 10 Endangered and 21 Vulnerable). As much as 45% of the region's 421 indigenous taxa are endemic, including most taxa of conservation concern.

This important publication includes, for the first time, colour photographs of all snakes, lizards, tortoises, terrapins, turtles and crocodiles of the region, as well as detailed maps illustrating their ranges. Accounts for each taxon also include details on taxonomic and conservation status, habitat, and threats. Introductory chapters discuss project design, data management, taxonomy, evolutionary relationships, conservation status, endemism, threats, and diversity hotspots.

The **Atlas** will appeal not only to herpetologists, but also to other biologists, naturalists, conservation planners and managers, environmental consultants, legislators, and members of the public.





