

Scheele, B., Legge, S., Blanchard, W., Garnett, S., Geyle, H., Gillespie, G., Harrison, P., Lindenmayer, D., Lintermans, M., Robinson, N., Woinarski, J. (2019) Continental-scale assessment reveals inadequate monitoring for threatened vertebrates in a megadiverse country. *Biological Conservation*. Vol. 235, pp.273-278.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2019.04.023>

© 2019. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0

license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

1 **Title:** Continental-scale assessment reveals inadequate monitoring for threatened vertebrates in a  
2 megadiverse country

3

4 **Running title:** Quantifying species monitoring

5

6 **Authors:** Ben C. Scheele<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Sarah Legge<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Wade Blanchard<sup>1</sup>, Stephen Garnett<sup>4</sup>, Hayley  
7 Geyle<sup>4</sup>, Graeme Gillespie<sup>5,6</sup>, Perter Harrison<sup>7</sup>, David Lindenmayer<sup>1,2</sup>, Mark Lintermans<sup>8</sup>, Natasha  
8 Robinson<sup>1,2</sup>, and John Woinarski<sup>4</sup>

9

10 <sup>1</sup> Fenner School of Environment and Society, The Australian National University, Canberra,  
11 ACT 2601, Australia.

12 <sup>2</sup> Threatened Species Recovery Hub, National Environmental Science Program, Fenner School  
13 of Environment and Society, The Australian National University, Canberra, ACT 2601,  
14 Australia.

15 <sup>3</sup> Threatened Species Recovery Hub, Centre for Biodiversity Conservation Research, University  
16 of Queensland, St Lucia, Queensland 4072, Australia.

17 <sup>4</sup> Threatened Species Recovery Hub, Research Institute for the Environment and Livelihoods,  
18 Charles Darwin University, Darwin, Northern Territory 0909, Australia.

19 <sup>5</sup> Department of Environment and Natural Resources, Palmerston, Northern Territory 0831,  
20 Australia

21 <sup>6</sup> School of Biosciences, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Victoria 3010, Australia.

22 <sup>7</sup> Marine Ecology Research Centre, Southern Cross University, Lismore, NSW 2480, Australia.

23 <sup>8</sup> Institute for Applied Ecology, University of Canberra, Canberra, ACT 2601, Australia.

24 \* Corresponding author: Ben Scheele (ben.scheele@anu.edu.au)  
25 Building 141, Fenner School of Environment and Society, Linnaeus Way, Acton, ACT 2601,  
26 Australia

27

## 28 **Acknowledgements**

29 This research was funded by the Australian Government's National Environmental Science  
30 Program through the Threatened Species Recovery Hub. We thank everyone who helped  
31 compile monitoring information. In particular, the Australian Society for Fish Biology  
32 Threatened Fish Committee and Wayne Robinson helped undertake the fish assessment. BirdLife  
33 Australia and its members, plus numerous experts, provided information on birds. Andrew  
34 Burbidge and many other experts contributed to the mammal assessment.

35

36 **Title:** Continental-scale assessment reveals inadequate monitoring for threatened vertebrates in a  
37 megadiverse country

38

39 **Abstract**

40 Monitoring threatened species is essential for quantifying population trends, understanding  
41 causes of species' declines, and guiding the development and assessment of effective recovery  
42 actions. Here, we provide a systematic, continental-scale evaluation of the extent and quality of  
43 monitoring for threatened species, focussing on terrestrial and freshwater vertebrates in  
44 Australia. We found marked inadequacies: one in four threatened taxa are not monitored at all;  
45 for taxa that are monitored, monitoring quality, as assessed across nine metrics, was generally  
46 low. Higher quality monitoring was associated with policy recognition, in the form of species  
47 recovery plans, and for species having a more imperilled conservation status. Across taxonomic  
48 classes, the proportion of species monitored was highest for mammals and then birds, whereas  
49 monitoring quality was greatest for birds. Improving monitoring quality requires setting clear  
50 objectives, direct integration with management, incorporating explicit management triggers,  
51 long-term resourcing, and better communication and accessibility of monitoring information.  
52 While our results revealed that overall monitoring efforts are inadequate, the positive  
53 relationship between improved monitoring outcomes and national policy support highlights that,  
54 when resources are available, good monitoring outcomes can be achieved. Quality monitoring  
55 programs for threatened species, and biodiversity more generally, should be recognized as vital  
56 measures of a nation's progress, analogous and complementary to more widely-used economic  
57 and human health indicators.

58

59 **Key words:** adaptive management; conservation; conservation policy; extinction, management;  
60 monitoring; threatened species

61

62

63 **Introduction**

64 Monitoring threatened species is crucial to halting biodiversity loss (Legge et al., 2018; Primack,  
65 2006). Information on species population trajectories is essential for assessing extinction risk,  
66 determining species' responses to threatening processes, prioritizing remedial management,  
67 evaluating management effectiveness (Balmford et al., 2005; Legge et al., 2018; Marsh and  
68 Trenham, 2008), and improving understanding and management of threats (Garnett et al., 2018).  
69 In contrast, absence of robust information on species' trajectories can lead to poor allocation of  
70 conservation resources (Campbell et al., 2002; Marsh and Trenham, 2008; Robinson et al.,  
71 2018), sub-optimal conservation outcomes, and potentially leads to preventable extinctions  
72 (Lindenmayer et al., 2013; Woinarski et al., 2017). Aggregation of adequate monitoring data and  
73 synthesis of trends across species is also a pivotal requirement for assessment of policy  
74 performance (Loh et al., 2005; Tittensor et al., 2014).

75         Despite recognition that monitoring is crucial to conservation, it is rarely prioritized in  
76 threatened species management, and may be absent or of poor quality (Field et al., 2007; Legg  
77 and Nagy, 2006; Lindenmayer and Likens, 2018). For example, while endangered species  
78 recovery plans in the United States commonly provide for monitoring of target species'  
79 population trajectories, few consider threat, demographic or habitat trends (Campbell et al.,  
80 2002). Likewise, many monitoring programs have limited power to detect changes in abundance  
81 (Marsh and Trenham, 2008), or are not linked to management actions, resulting in situations  
82 where species are monitored to extinction (Lindenmayer et al., 2013).

83         Frameworks and principles to guide development of effective biodiversity monitoring  
84 programs have been proposed (e.g. Lindenmayer and Likens, 2009; Reynolds et al., 2016;  
85 Robinson et al., 2018). Key recommendations include ensuring monitoring: (1) aims to answer

86 clearly defined questions; (2) has clearly stated objectives and links to policy and management;  
87 (3) is underpinned by rigorous statistical design; and (4) can evolve iteratively in response to  
88 new information, research questions and technology (Lindenmayer and Likens, 2009; Reynolds  
89 et al., 2016; Robinson et al., 2018). Here we provide the first continental-scale systematic  
90 evaluation of the extent to which current monitoring complies with these recommendations for  
91 all threatened terrestrial and freshwater vertebrates in Australia.

92 We focused on Australia for two reasons. First, Australia is a megadiverse continent-  
93 country, with a broad range of species and ecosystems. Second, Australia has a poor track-record  
94 of halting species decline and extinction (Woinarski et al., 2015; Woinarski et al., 2017). Given  
95 the key role of monitoring in threatened species management (Legge et al., 2018), an assessment  
96 of current monitoring against the attributes that characterise high quality monitoring is an  
97 important step towards reversing declines. Our analysis identifies key deficiencies in current  
98 monitoring efforts for threatened species and their consequences, differences in monitoring  
99 extent and quality across taxonomic groups, and factors that are associated with higher quality  
100 monitoring. Building on these insights, we provide recommendations for improving monitoring  
101 for threatened species.

102

## 103 **Material and methods**

### 104 *Framework to assess monitoring extent and quality*

105 We used an assessment framework to consistently score the extent and quality of monitoring  
106 programs for each threatened species (Woinarski 2018; Table 1). The framework comprised nine  
107 metrics, each scored on a 0 (no monitoring) to 5 (optimal monitoring) scale (see Tables S2-S10  
108 for scoring criteria). Monitoring was defined as targeted, repeated survey efforts. Where multiple

109 monitoring programs were identified for a taxon, the evaluation metrics were scored from a  
110 national perspective on the aggregated/combined monitoring effort, so each taxon received a  
111 single monitoring score for each metric. Our assessment of monitoring was undertaken from July  
112 2016 to July 2017.

113

#### 114 *Collating information*

115 We assessed monitoring for all Australian threatened vertebrates, excluding marine fish  
116 and marine mammals, listed as Critically Endangered, Endangered, or Vulnerable under the  
117 Australian Government's *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999*  
118 (EPBCA). We also assessed monitoring for some taxa that are not currently EPBCA-listed, but  
119 are assessed as threatened under State/Territory legislation, or by the International Union for  
120 Nature Conservation (IUCN), or other non-statutory listings. We refer to the conservation status  
121 of these taxa as 'Other'. For example, for fish, 19 taxa were categorised as 'Other'; these taxa  
122 have been assessed by the Australian Society for Fish Biology as nationally threatened, using  
123 IUCN listing criteria. For information on the number of taxa from each taxonomic group in each  
124 EPBCA listing category, and the number of Other taxa assessed, see Table S1.

125 Species in each taxonomic class were assessed by one or more of the authors with  
126 expertise for that class, using published information, personal communications with individuals  
127 involved in management, and information from relevant government agencies and non-  
128 government conservation organizations. Our assessments of monitoring for each taxonomic  
129 group was largely based on information collated during recent reviews of the conservation status  
130 of Australian birds (Garnett et al., 2011), mammals (Woinarski et al., 2014a), reptiles (Chapple  
131 et al., in press), frogs (unpubl.) and fish (unpubl.). These reviews included inputs from all



132 relevant researchers, state agencies and conservation NGOs about population status and trends,  
133 and for older reviews, was updated for this paper. Information was based on monitoring  
134 programs, with the characteristics of these programs described by their practitioners. Where  
135 contributors to these accounts indicated that no trend information was available, we contacted all  
136 relevant experts to confirm the absence of monitoring programs, or for details of any monitoring  
137 programs that were present, but could not provide such trend information. Notwithstanding our  
138 efforts, some monitoring activity for some taxa may have been overlooked, as information on  
139 monitoring is often not published and is sometimes obscure, potentially resulting in  
140 underestimation of monitoring effort. However, we believe it is unlikely that any such missing  
141 information would substantially alter our analyses and conclusions. To ensure consistency in  
142 scoring across taxonomic groups, the assessors thoroughly discussed the assessment framework  
143 before commencing assessment to ensure consistent interpretation and implementation.

144 We also collated information for each taxon's EPBCA recovery plan status. In Australia,  
145 threatened species recovery plans (typically lasting five years) are developed to facilitate and  
146 coordinate the recovery and conservation of threatened taxa. They have legislative powers but  
147 are not automatically mandatory for listed threatened taxa (see Walsh et al., 2013 for an  
148 overview of recovery planning in Australia). Taxa were categorized into three groups: (1)  
149 'current recovery plan', (2) 'lapsed recovery plan' or (3) 'never had a recovery plan'.

150

### 151 *Statistical analysis*

152 First, we quantified the proportion of taxa that receive some form of monitoring. We then  
153 investigated whether presence or absence of monitoring was associated with taxonomic class  
154 (amphibian, bird, fish, mammal and reptile), conservation status (EPBCA listing: Critically

155 Endangered, Endangered or Vulnerable, or ‘Other’), or EPBCA recovery plan status (‘current’,  
156 ‘lapsed’, or ‘none’). Our outcome variable was binary (presence (scores 1-5) or absence of  
157 monitoring (score 0)). We employed Bayesian logistic regression with the main effects of  
158 taxonomic class, conservation status, and recovery plan status as potential predictor variables.  
159 We constructed a set of eight potential models, which were then compared using the Leave-One-  
160 Out-Cross-Validation Information Criteria (LOOIC) (Vehtari et al., 2017). The most  
161 parsimonious model within two LOOIC of the best fitting model was selected as the best model.  
162 We report 95% credible intervals for model estimates and differences between the various levels  
163 of the categorical predictor variables.

164         In the second phase of our analysis, we focused only on taxa that received some form of  
165 monitoring identified in the first stage of our analysis. We investigated which of the above  
166 mentioned predictor variables (class, conservation status, and recovery plan status) influenced  
167 monitoring scores assessed for each of the nine metrics, and the total score summed across the  
168 nine metrics. We modelled scores using Bayesian linear models assuming a Gaussian  
169 distribution, and considered the same set of eight potential models, which were compared using  
170 LOOIC.

171         All analyses were conducted using Bayesian regression models in Stan (brms) package  
172 (Bürkner, 2016) in R (R Development Core Team, 2017). We used default priors (improper flat  
173 prior over the real line) for the regression parameters and a half Student-t with 3 degrees of  
174 freedom for the residual standard deviation in the linear model and Cauchy distribution with  
175 location zero and scale five for the logistic regression model parameters to avoid potential issues  
176 with complete separation. For each model, we ran four Markov Chains for 2000 iterations after

177 discarding the burn-in of 1000 iterations. All chains showed good mixing, as measured by the  
178 Gelman and Rubin convergence diagnostic (Gelman and Rubin, 1992).

179

## 180 **Results**

181 We assessed monitoring for 408 threatened Australian vertebrates (excluding marine mammals  
182 and marine fish), representing ~ 5.5% of the total number of described species in these classes  
183 (~7358: Walsh et al., 2013). We found that 303 (74%) threatened taxa received some monitoring,  
184 with the remainder not monitored at all. The proportion of species monitored was highest among  
185 mammals (89%), then birds (76%), amphibians (75%), reptiles (62%) and fish (53%). For  
186 monitored taxa, the average summed score across the nine metrics was 29 out of 45, with the  
187 highest average score for birds (32), followed by amphibians (31), fish (27), reptiles (25), and  
188 mammals (25). The mean scores for each assessment metric are summarized in Fig. 1.

189

### 190 *Extent and quality of threatened species monitoring*

191 The best ranked model for presence/absence of monitoring contained all three predictor  
192 variables: taxonomic class, conservation status, and recovery plan status (Table S11, Fig. S1).  
193 The predicted probability of monitoring was highest for mammals, followed by birds, reptiles,  
194 amphibians and fish (Fig. 2a). A higher proportion of taxa with current or lapsed recovery plans  
195 were monitored than for taxa that had never had a recovery plan (Fig. 2b). Likewise, Critically  
196 Endangered and Endangered taxa were more likely to be monitored than Vulnerable or Other  
197 taxa (Fig. 2c).

198

199 For taxa that were monitored, the best ranked model for total monitoring score also  
200 contained the three predictor variables: taxonomic class, conservation status, and recovery plan  
201 status (Table S11, Fig. S2). Predicted mean monitoring score was highest for birds, followed by  
202 amphibians, fish, mammals and reptiles (Fig. 3a). Species with lapsed recovery plans had the  
203 highest predicted scores, followed by species with current recovery plans, while scores were  
204 lowest for species with no recovery plan (Fig. 3b). Critically Endangered species had the highest  
205 predicted scores, followed by Other, with Vulnerable taxa having the lowest predicted scores  
206 (Fig. 3c; Fig. S3-S11 for the model predictions for each of the nine metrics).

207

## 208 **Discussion**

209 We conducted the first continental-scale evaluation of monitoring for a diverse array of  
210 threatened taxa, to identify the strengths and weaknesses of current monitoring efforts, and thus  
211 guide key improvements that could be made to prevent species loss. Our assessment revealed  
212 inadequacies in both the extent and quality of threatened species monitoring in Australia. One in  
213 four threatened taxa receives no monitoring. Where monitoring does occur, its quality (as  
214 assessed across nine metrics) is generally poor, with a low overall average score (29, out of a  
215 maximum of 45).

216

### 217 *Key deficiencies and consequences*

218 That one quarter of threatened Australian taxa are not monitored is symptomatic of a  
219 broader ad-hoc approach to threatened species conservation in Australia (Scheele et al., 2018),  
220 and is consistent with inadequate environmental monitoring in Australia (Cresswell and Murphy,  
221 2016). Notably, although not specifically targeting threatened species, the Australian Long Term  
222 Ecological Research Network was decommissioned in 2018 (Lindenmayer, 2017), further

223 eroding Australia’s capacity to accurately assess species trajectories. Without monitoring, we are  
224 unable to assess extinction risk robustly, identify causes of decline, evaluate management  
225 effectiveness, identify species/population trends or trajectories, identify research priorities, or  
226 fully engage stakeholders and the community (Legg and Nagy, 2006; Lintermans, 2013b; Marsh  
227 and Trenham, 2008). Given our results, it is unsurprising that efforts to halt species declines in  
228 Australia have met with idiosyncratic and limited success.

229         Where taxa were being monitored, average scores were relatively low across the nine  
230 assessment metrics. Although scores for each metric were highly variable, four stood out as  
231 having particularly low values: (1) Design quality, meaning that monitoring had limited  
232 statistical power to detect changes in species abundance or site occupancy; (2) Demographic  
233 parameters, meaning that causes of decline, and critical life stages, would be hard to discern; (3)  
234 Data availability, meaning that any information collected was typically not publicly available,  
235 and (4) Management linkage, meaning the monitoring was not integrated with, nor informing  
236 management (Fig. 1). These metrics are those most likely to be severely limited by resource  
237 availability, and/or lack of expertise. Poor quality monitoring fails to deliver detailed knowledge  
238 of threat impacts and how they vary across environmental space and over time; information that  
239 is essential in successful recovery programs (Scheele et al., 2017).

240         We found that there was little publicly available information about, or data from,  
241 monitoring programs funded using public monies. Notwithstanding commitments in Australia’s  
242 national biodiversity strategy (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016), there is no integrated  
243 monitoring program for biodiversity or threatened species in Australia, and no central location  
244 for storing monitoring information, or making such information publicly accessible (Legge et al.,  
245 2018). Consequently, the public has limited awareness of the trajectories of Australian threatened

246 species (typically negative), and hence relatively little reason for engagement and concern. In  
247 stark contrast, monitoring information on the performance of other public programs such as  
248 education or health are increasingly made available to the public, and the absence of monitoring  
249 is viewed as evidence of poor program governance (Lindenmayer et al., 2012).

250 Our assessment also highlights that current EPBCA lists of threatened terrestrial  
251 vertebrates and freshwater fish under-represent the number of taxa requiring  
252 recovery/conservation action (e.g. of the 56 fish considered in this review, only 38 are EPBCA  
253 listed). No or minimal monitoring for many, potentially most, non-listed taxa represents a hidden  
254 threat to biodiversity conservation in Australia. For some taxa with immediate and severe threats  
255 (e.g. >10 unlisted small-bodied galaxiid and rainbowfishes threatened by alien invasive species),  
256 extinction is possible before taxa are listed (Moy et al., 2018; Raadik, 2014). In many other  
257 cases, insufficient data inhibits assessment of conservation status (Walsh et al., 2013; Woinarski  
258 et al., 2014b). To overcome these limitations and provide early warnings of emerging declines,  
259 we also must monitor non-listed taxa (Lindenmayer et al., 2012). In particular, monitoring is  
260 needed for data-deficient species that are likely to be impacted by current or emerging threats.  
261 Citizen science, new technologies, and improved statistical analyses may help meet the challenge  
262 of increasing monitoring coverage for both threatened and non-threatened species (Lahoz-  
263 Monfort and Tingley, 2018).

264

#### 265 *Factors associated with better monitoring*

266 Despite the poor overall monitoring scores in our assessment, we found that some species  
267 (e.g. Tasmanian devil, Leadbeater's possum, western swamp tortoise, orange-bellied parrot, red-  
268 finned blue-eye, orange-bellied frog) had exemplary monitoring for almost all metrics in our

269 framework, demonstrating that good monitoring programs are achievable. National policy and  
270 legislative support was associated with better monitoring: taxa with EPBCA recovery plans  
271 (either current or lapsed) were more likely to be monitored, and that monitoring was likely to be  
272 of higher quality. Taxa with lapsed plans still scored highly for monitoring quality, suggesting an  
273 enduring legacy of recovery planning; or that earlier plans, which were better supported by  
274 Australian government funding (Walsh et al., 2013), incorporated more rigorous monitoring.  
275 Monitoring quality was also higher for species with more imperilled conservation status,  
276 indicating that management and monitoring effort has been focused on species at highest risk of  
277 extinction. The snapshot nature of our assessment means that it is not possible to tease apart  
278 cause and effect between policy support and monitoring. For example, more imperilled species  
279 may elicit better monitoring; or more imperilled species may be easier to monitor (e.g. range-  
280 restricted, fewer to count); or good monitoring programs that provide robust information on  
281 extinction risk may support prompt and accurate listings.

282

### 283 *Variation across taxonomic classes and countries*

284 Mammals and birds are more likely to be monitored, and monitored well, than other  
285 taxonomic groups, especially fish; a similar pattern of monitoring bias exists in Europe  
286 (Schmeller et al., 2009). There are several possible explanations for taxonomic biases. First,  
287 conservation resources and research are unevenly distributed across classes, with biases towards  
288 mammals and birds (Lawler et al., 2006; Walsh et al., 2013). In particular, reptiles and fish are  
289 underrepresented in EPBCA threatened species listings, meaning their monitoring may be under-  
290 resourced (Walsh et al., 2013). Second, some taxonomic classes are easier to monitor than  
291 others. For example, many threatened amphibians (which scored higher, on average, than

292 mammals, fish and reptiles) have restricted distributions and form conspicuous breeding  
293 aggregations, making them easier to monitor. Third, the currency and comprehensiveness of  
294 EPBCA lists varies among classes; for example, one third of fish taxa assessed as threatened by  
295 the Australian Society for Fish Biology are not listed under national legislation, which might  
296 contribute to lack of monitoring in this class (Lintermans, 2013a). Fourth, taxonomic groups  
297 have varying levels of buy-in from the public; birds are especially amenable to monitoring by  
298 community groups and have well-established public involvement in and programs for monitoring  
299 (e.g. Birdlife Australia's Birdata program). Our assessment focused on vertebrates, which are  
300 given disproportionately high attention in conservation management (Walsh et al. 2013): the  
301 status of monitoring for threatened invertebrates is likely to be even more parlous.

302         Comparing monitoring efforts among countries is challenging because publicly available,  
303 synthesised information on monitoring is limited (Schmeller et al., 2009). Notwithstanding,  
304 monitoring efforts for threatened species in Australia fall short of those undertaken in some  
305 countries. For example, in the United Kingdom, *State of Nature* reporting provides publicly  
306 available information on the trajectory of thousands of species (Hayhow et al., 2016). Similarly,  
307 monitoring actions are mandatory in recovery plans for threatened species in the United States  
308 (Campbell et al., 2002). More broadly, a general pattern of inadequate biodiversity monitoring  
309 has been reported across the majority of regions worldwide (Balmford et al., 2005).

310

### 311 *Improving threatened species monitoring*

312         Broad deficiencies in threatened species monitoring in Australia highlight a critically  
313 important and urgent need for a more robust and integrated approach. Improving both the extent  
314 and quality of threatened species monitoring is a necessary first step in efforts to redress



315 Australia's poor conservation record. Globally, under-funding remains an inescapable  
316 conservation challenge (Waldron et al., 2017). This challenge is particularly acute in Australia,  
317 where environmental spending is disproportionately low, with Australia one of only four  
318 developed countries featuring in the top 40 underfunded countries for conservation spending  
319 (Waldron et al., 2013). Further, biodiversity conservation has experienced sharp reductions in  
320 funding over the past decade, receiving less than five cents for every \$100 of Australian  
321 government spending in 2018 (ACF, 2018). To achieve effective conservation outcomes,  
322 Australia must increase spending on biodiversity conservation (Scheele et al., 2018). As long as  
323 recovery plans are the critical mechanism for guiding species recovery, then all recovery plans  
324 should include quality-assured and funded monitoring, as legislated in the United States under  
325 the USA Endangered Species Act (Campbell et al., 2002). The value of investing in monitoring  
326 is clearly demonstrated by the positive association between good-quality monitoring and the  
327 level of understanding and management of threats for threatened species (Garnett et al., 2018).

328         At the scale of individual monitoring programs, there is much that can be done to  
329 increase monitoring extent and quality, despite limited resources. (1) Monitoring needs to be  
330 closely linked with management, with clear objectives, and explicit triggers for responsive  
331 management actions. (2) Specified monitoring objectives should guide the methodological  
332 design of fit-for-purpose monitoring programs (Robinson et al., 2018). (3) Monitoring must be  
333 recognised as a long-term activity with secure resourcing, rather than an occasional ad-hoc  
334 activity undertaken when surplus resources become available, or after it has become apparent  
335 that management actions have failed. This could be achieved by prioritizing and mandating an  
336 adequate monitoring program within any recovery plan or equivalent management document. (4)  
337 Monitoring should be a mechanism for communication and engagement with all stakeholders,

338 with responsible agencies recognising an obligation to provide, interpret and disseminate  
339 monitoring results to all stakeholders, including the broader public. (5) Adequate attention must  
340 be given to data management and metadata collection. (6) A national program to facilitate the  
341 storage, analysis, interpretation of, and public accessibility to, monitoring data, is urgently  
342 needed (Legge et al., 2018). (7) Information from monitoring programs for threatened species,  
343 and biodiversity more generally, should be recognized as a vital measure of a nation's progress,  
344 analogous and complementary to the more widely-used economic and health indicators.

345

346

347

#### 348 **Supplementary material**

349 Table S1. Information on the number of species included in the assessment.

350 Tables S2-S10. Scoring criteria for each of the nine metrics used to assess monitoring quality.

351 Table S11. Leave-One-Out-Cross-Validation Information Criteria for each of the eight models  
352 considered for each of the 11 response variables.

353 Figures S1-S11. Model predictions for: presence/absence of monitoring, total score, and each of  
354 the nine metrics.

355

#### 356 **References**

357 ACF, 2018. Australian Conservation Foundation. Background brief: Environment spending in  
358 Australia. [https://www.acf.org.au/background\\_briefs](https://www.acf.org.au/background_briefs) (visited June 10, 2018).

359 Balmford, A., et al., 2005. The convention on biological diversity's 2010 target. *Science* 307,  
360 212-213.

361 Bürkner, P.C., 2016. brms: An R package for Bayesian multilevel models using Stan. *Journal of*  
362 *Statistical Software* 80, 1-28.

363 Campbell, S.P., Clark, J.A., Crampton, L.H., Guerry, A.D., Hatch, L.T., Hosseini, P.R., Lawler,  
364 J.J., O'Connor, R.J., 2002. An assessment of monitoring efforts in endangered species recovery  
365 plans. *Ecol. Appl.* 12, 674-681.

366 Chapple, D.G., Tingley, R., Mitchell, N.J., Macdonald, S.L., Keogh, J.S., Shea, G.M., Bowles,  
367 P., Cox, N.A., Woinarski, J.C.Z., in press. The action plan for Australian lizards and snakes.  
368 *CSIRO Publishing, Melbourne.*

369 Commonwealth of Australia, 2016. Report on the review of the first five years of Australia's  
370 Biodiversity Conservation Strategy 2010–2030. Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.

371 Cresswell, I., Murphy, H., 2016. Biodiversity. In: Australia state of the environment 2016,  
372 Australian Government Department of the Environment and Energy, Canberra,  
373 <https://soe.environment.gov.au/theme/biodiversity>, DOI 10.4226/94/58b65ac828812.

374 Field, S.A., O'Connor, P.J., Tyre, A.J., Possingham, H.P., 2007. Making monitoring meaningful.  
375 *Austral Ecol.* 32, 485-491.

376 Garnett, S., Szabo, J., Dutson, G., 2011. Action plan for Australian Birds 2010. *CSIRO*  
377 *Publishing, Melbourne.*

378 Garnett, S.T., et al., 2018. Metrics of progress in the understanding and management of threats,  
379 and their application to Australian birds. *Conserv. Biol.* <https://doi.org/10.1111/cobi.13220>.

380 Gelman, A., Rubin, D.B., 1992. Inference from iterative simulation using multiple sequences.  
381 *Statistical Science*, 457-472.

382 Hayhow, D., et al., 2016. State of nature 2016: <http://nora.nerc.ac.uk/id/eprint/516567/>.

383 Lahoz-Monfort, J.J., Tingley, R., 2018. The technology revolution: improving species detection  
384 and monitoring using new tools and statistical methods, In *Monitoring Threatened Species and*  
385 *Ecological Communities.* eds S. Legge, D.B. Lindenmayer, N.M. Robinson, B.C. Scheele, D.M.  
386 Southwell, B.A. Wintle. *CSIRO Publishing, Melbourne.*

387 Lawler, J.J., et al., 2006. Conservation science: a 20-year report card. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* 4,  
388 473-480.

389 Legg, C.J., Nagy, L., 2006. Why most conservation monitoring is, but need not be, a waste of  
390 time. *J. Environ. Manage.* 78, 194-199.

391 Legge, S., Lindenmayer, D.B., Robinson, N.M., Scheele, B.C., Southwell, D.M., Wintle, B.A.  
392 eds., 2018. *Monitoring threatened species and ecological communities.* *CSIRO Publishing,*  
393 *Melbourne.*

394 Lindenmayer, D., 2017. Save Australia's ecological research. *Science* 357, 557-557.

395 Lindenmayer, D.B., et al., 2012. Improving biodiversity monitoring. *Austral Ecol.* 37, 285-294.

396 Lindenmayer, D.B., Likens, G.E., 2009. Adaptive monitoring: a new paradigm for long-term  
397 research and monitoring. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 24, 482-486.

398 Lindenmayer, D.B., Likens, G.E., 2018. *Effective ecological monitoring*. 2nd Edition. CSIRO  
399 Publishing, Melbourne.

400 Lindenmayer, D.B., Piggott, M.P., Wintle, B.A., 2013. Counting the books while the library  
401 burns: why conservation monitoring programs need a plan for action. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* 11,  
402 549-555.

403 Lintermans, M., 2013a. Conservation and management. In, Humphries, P and Walker, K (eds)  
404 *The Ecology of Australian Freshwater Fishes*. CSIRO Publishing, Collingwood., 283-316.

405 Lintermans, M., 2013b. A review of on-ground recovery actions for threatened freshwater fish in  
406 Australia. *Marine and Freshwater Research* 64, 775-791.

407 Loh, J., Green, R.E., Ricketts, T., Lamoreux, J., Jenkins, M., Kapos, V., Randers, J., 2005. The  
408 Living Planet Index: using species population time series to track trends in biodiversity.  
409 *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B* 360, 289-295.

410 Marsh, D.M., Trenham, P.C., 2008. Current trends in plant and animal population monitoring.  
411 *Conserv. Biol.* 22, 647-655.

412 Moy, K.G., Schaffer, J., Lintermans, M., Unmack, P.J., 2018. Conservation introductions of the  
413 Running River rainbowfish into Deception and Puzzle Creeks, Australia. *Global Reintroduction*  
414 *Perspectives: 2018. Case studies from around the globe*, 34-37.

415 Primack, R.B., 2006. *Essentials of conservation biology*. Sunderland, Mass: Sinauer Associates.

416 R Development Core Team, 2017. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*.  
417 Vienna: R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <http://www.R-project.org>.

418 Raadik, T.A., 2014. Fifteen from one: a revision of the *Galaxias olidus* Günther, 1866 complex  
419 (Teleostei, Galaxiidae) in south-eastern Australia recognises three previously described taxa and  
420 describes 12 new species. *Zootaxa* 3898, 1-198.

421 Reynolds, J.H., Knutson, M.G., Newman, K.B., Silverman, E.D., Thompson, W.L., 2016. A road  
422 map for designing and implementing a biological monitoring program. *Environ. Monit. Assess.*  
423 188, 1-25.

424 Robinson, N.M., et al., 2018. How to ensure threatened species monitoring leads to threatened  
425 species conservation. *Ecol. Manage. Restor.* <https://doi.org/10.1111/emr.12335>.

426 Scheele, B.C., Foster, C.N., Banks, S.C., Lindenmayer, D.B., 2017. Niche contractions in  
427 declining species: mechanisms and consequences. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 32, 346-355.

428 Scheele, B.C., Legge, S., Armstrong, D.P., Copley, P., Robinson, N., Southwell, D., Westgate,  
429 M.J., Lindenmayer, D.B., 2018. How to improve threatened species management: An Australian  
430 perspective. *J. Environ. Manage.* 223, 668-675.

431 Schmeller, D.S., et al., 2009. Advantages of volunteer-based biodiversity monitoring in Europe.  
432 *Conserv. Biol.* 23, 307-316.

433 Tittensor, D.P., et al., 2014. A mid-term analysis of progress toward international biodiversity  
434 targets. *Science* 346, 241-244.

435 Vehtari, A., Gelman, A., Gabry, J., 2017. Practical Bayesian model evaluation using leave-one-  
436 out cross-validation and WAIC. *Statistics and Computing* 27, 1413-1432.

437 Waldron, A., Miller, D.C., Redding, D., Mooers, A., Kuhn, T.S., Nibbelink, N., Roberts, J.T.,  
438 Tobias, J.A., Gittleman, J.L., 2017. Reductions in global biodiversity loss predicted from  
439 conservation spending. *Nature* 551, 364.

440 Waldron, A., Mooers, A.O., Miller, D.C., Nibbelink, N., Redding, D., Kuhn, T.S., Roberts, J.T.,  
441 Gittleman, J.L., 2013. Targeting global conservation funding to limit immediate biodiversity  
442 declines. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 110, 12144-12148.

443 Walsh, J.C., Watson, J.E., Bottrill, M.C., Joseph, L.N., Possingham, H.P., 2013. Trends and  
444 biases in the listing and recovery planning for threatened species: an Australian case study. *Oryx*  
445 47, 134-143.

446 Woinarski, J., Burbidge, A., Harrison, P., 2014a. Action plan for Australian mammals 2012,  
447 CSIRO Publishing.

448 Woinarski, J.C., 2018. A framework for evaluating the adequacy of monitoring programs for  
449 threatened species, In *Monitoring Threatened Species and Ecological Communities*. eds S.  
450 Legge, D.B. Lindenmayer, N.M. Robinson, B.C. Scheele, D.M. Southwell, B.A. Wintle, CSIRO  
451 Publishing, Melbourne.

452 Woinarski, J.C., Burbidge, A.A., Harrison, P.L., 2014b. The action plan for Australian mammals  
453 2012. *CSIRO Publishing, Melbourne*.

454 Woinarski, J.C., Burbidge, A.A., Harrison, P.L., 2015. Ongoing unraveling of a continental  
455 fauna: Decline and extinction of Australian mammals since European settlement. Proc. Natl.  
456 Acad. Sci. USA 112, 4531-4540.

457 Woinarski, J.C., Garnett, S.T., Legge, S.M., Lindenmayer, D.B., 2017. The contribution of  
458 policy, law, management, research, and advocacy failings to the recent extinctions of three  
459 Australian vertebrate species. Conserv. Biol. 31, 13-23.

460

461

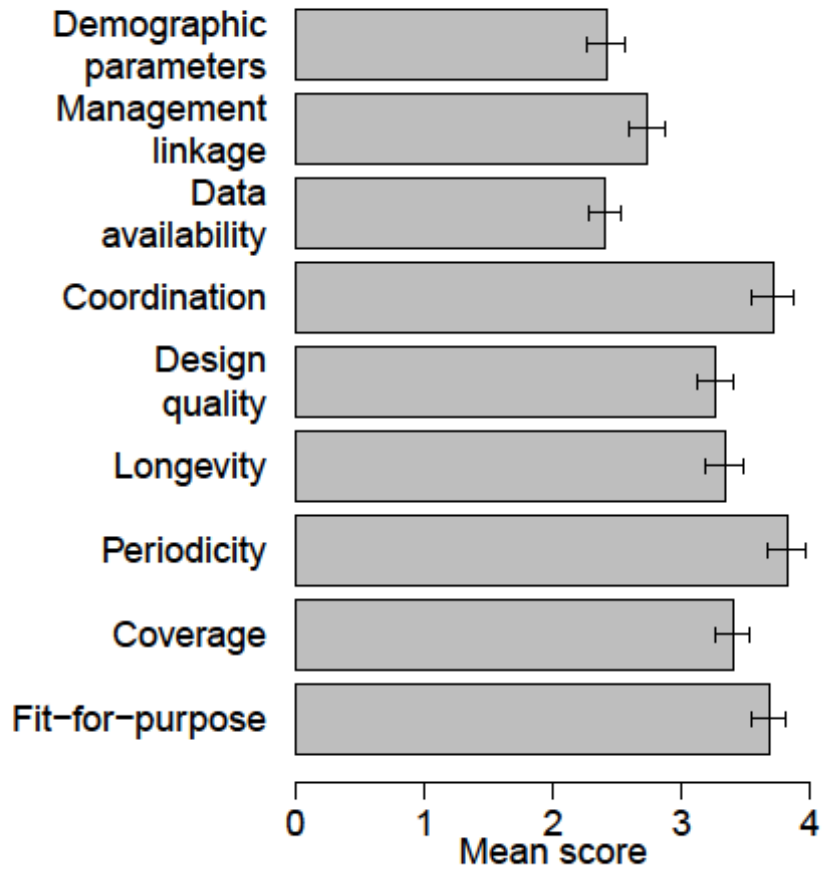
462 **Table**

463 Table 1. Description and rationale for each of the nine metrics used to evaluate the quality of  
 464 threatened taxa monitoring adopted from Woinarski (2018). For each metric, taxa were scored 0-  
 465 5 (see scoring criteria, Tables S2-S10).

<b>Metric</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Rationale</b>
1. Fit-for-purpose	The use of methodologies designed to optimize detection of the target species.	To provide robust information, species-specific methods that consider the ecology and detectability of the target species are needed.
2. Coverage	The spatial extent of monitoring efforts across the target species' distribution.	A species' abundance and threat milieu can vary markedly across its distribution. As such, monitoring across a species distribution is needed to provide representative information on the species' trajectory.
3. Periodicity	Frequency of monitoring.	Timely information on a species' trajectory is needed. Monitoring should be undertaken frequently enough to be able to detect rapid changes and inform management.
4. Longevity	Longevity of monitoring.	Monitoring needs to be undertaken over sufficient timeframes to differentiate short-term variability from longer-term trends. Monitoring also needs to be able to identify small, incremental changes that may not be apparent where monitoring duration is limited.
5. Design quality	The statistical power of monitoring to detect trends in the occupancy/abundance of the target species.	Sufficient replication and detection frequency is needed to identify robust trends in the occupancy/abundance of the target species.
6. Coordination	The coordination of monitoring efforts among relevant jurisdictions and stakeholders.	When monitoring is performed by multiple organizations, its design, analysis and reporting needs to be effectively integrated to ensure comparable data are obtained.
7. Data availability and reporting	The availability and reporting of monitoring information.	For the value of monitoring data to be maximized, it must be readily accessible and well-curated, with adequate metadata and secure long-term storage.
8. Management linkage	Integration of monitoring and management actions.	Monitoring should inform the design and implementation of management, as well as be able to evaluate effectiveness.
9. Demographic parameters	The inclusion of demographic parameters in monitoring efforts.	In most cases, monitoring should involve assessment of critical demographic parameters, rather than just abundance. Information on life-history parameters can provide important ecological insights and help refine management.

466

467

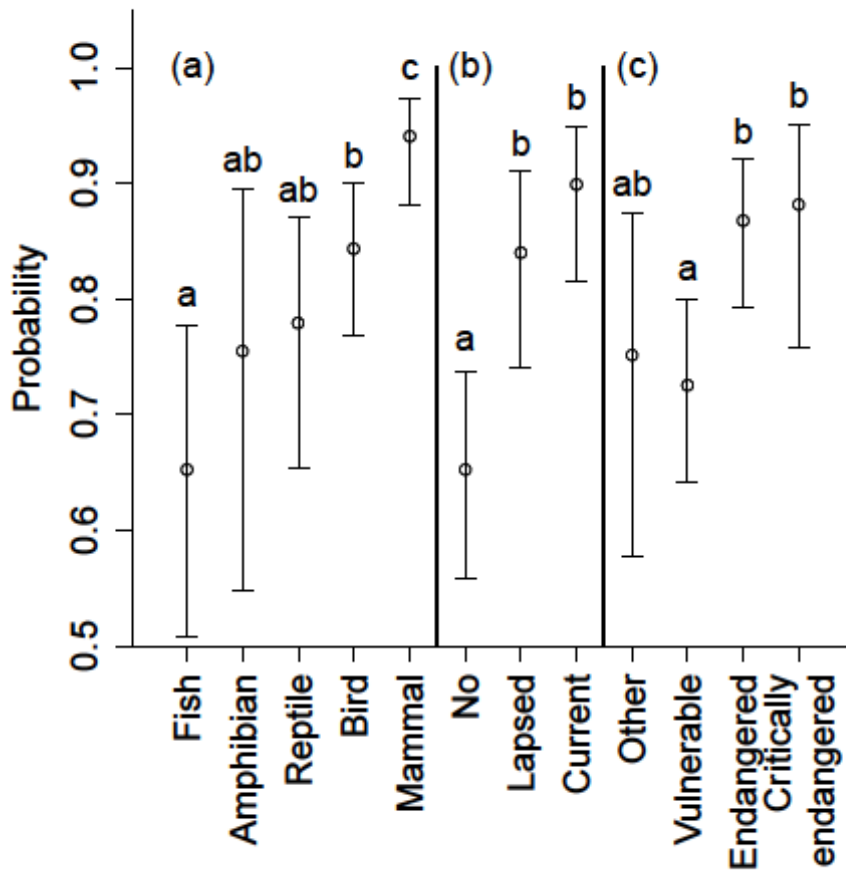


469

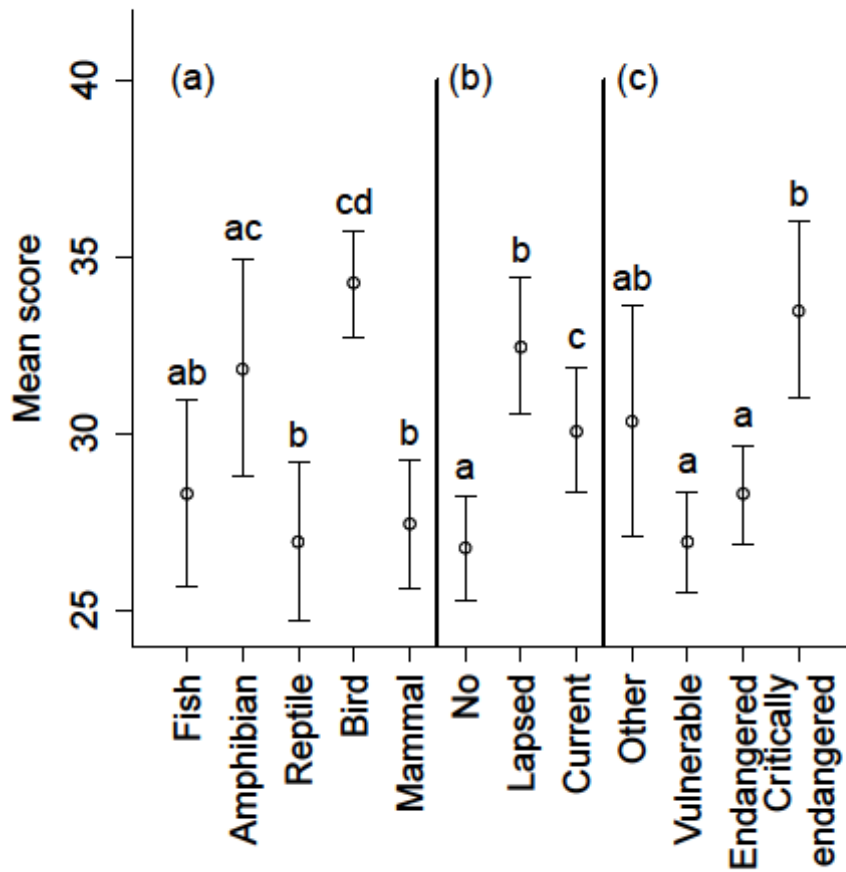
470 Figure 1. Mean scores for each of the nine assessment metrics for monitored taxa. Error bars  
471 show the 95% credible intervals.

472





473  
 474 Figure 2. Probability of presence/absence of monitoring for Australian threatened taxa by (a)  
 475 taxonomic class, (b) recovery plan status, and (c) conservation status. In each case, the  
 476 probability of monitoring was predicted at average values for the other two predictors in the  
 477 model. Different letters (within a panel) indicate significant differences between predicted values  
 478 where the 95% credible interval for the log odds ratio does not cross zero.  
 479



480

481 Figure 3. Predicted mean total score for monitoring quality for Australian threatened taxa by (a)

482 taxonomic class, (b) recovery plan status, and (c) conservation status. In each case, predictions

483 were made at average values for the other two predictors in the model. Different letters (within a

484 panel) indicate significant differences between predicted values where the 95% credible interval

485 for the difference does not cross zero.

486