

1 **The IUCN Red List is not sufficient to protect genetic diversity**

2 Chloé Schmidt\*<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Sean Hoban<sup>4</sup>, Margaret Hunter<sup>5</sup>, Ivan Paz-Vinas<sup>6</sup>, Colin J Garroway<sup>3</sup>

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4 **Affiliations**

5 <sup>1</sup> Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA

6 <sup>2</sup> Center for Biodiversity and Global Change, Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA

7 <sup>3</sup> Department of Biological Sciences, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada

8 <sup>4</sup> The Center for Tree Science, The Morton Arboretum, Lisle, IL, USA

9 <sup>5</sup> U.S. Geological Survey, Wetland and Aquatic Research Center, Gainesville, Florida, USA

10 <sup>6</sup> Laboratoire Evolution et Diversité Biologique (EDB), UMR5174, Université Toulouse 3 Paul  
11 Sabatier, CNRS, IRD, Toulouse, France

12

13 **ORCID**s: CS: 0000-0003-2572-4200; MH: 0000-0002-4760-9302; IPV: 0000-0002-0043-9289;  
14 CJG: 0000-0001-8010-9388

15

16 **Correspondence:**

17 Chloé Schmidt

18 Department of Biological Sciences

19 50 Sifton Road

20 University of Manitoba

21 Winnipeg, MB R3T 2N2

22 email: schmid46@myumanitoba.ca

23

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**Abstract**

The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List is an important and widely used conservation prioritization tool. It uses information about species range size, habitat quality and fragmentation levels, and trends in abundance to assess species extinction risk. Genetic erosion is an additional key factor determining extinction risk, but the Red List was not designed to assess genetic diversity. Declining populations experience stronger effects of genetic drift and higher rates of inbreeding, which can reduce the efficiency of selection, lead to fitness declines, and hinder species' capacities to adapt to environmental change. Given the importance of conserving genetic diversity, several studies have attempted to find relationships between Red List status and genetic diversity. Yet, there is still no general consensus on whether genetic diversity is captured by the current Red List categories in a way that is informative for conservation, likely partly due to assessments using different molecular markers and taxa. Here, we synthesize previous work and re-analyze three datasets using different marker types (mitochondrial DNA, microsatellites, and whole genomes) to assess whether genetic diversity accurately predicts Red List threat status. Consistent with previous work we found that on average, species with higher threat status tended to have lower genetic diversity for all marker types, but the strength of these relationships varied across taxa. However, genetic diversity did not predict threat status well for any taxon or marker type. Our analyses indicate that Red List status is not a useful metric for informing species-specific decisions about the protection of genetic diversity. This is unsurprising because the Red List was not designed for conservation at the genetic level. Our findings clearly indicate a need to develop and incorporate metrics specifically developed to assess genetic diversity into our conservation policy frameworks.

**Keywords:** conservation policy, vertebrates, heterozygosity, genetic drift, molecular markers, data synthesis, mitochondrial DNA, nuclear DNA

## 55 Main text

## 56 Background

57 The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List is a criterion-based  
58 evaluation of species extinction risk that is widely used to prioritize species for conservation.  
59 Specifically, the Red List evaluates demographic threats to species persistence. Species are  
60 placed into one of several categories of extinction risk based on assessments of species-wide  
61 declines in the number of adult individuals (Criterion A); small range sizes, very high levels of  
62 habitat fragmentation, or few populations (Criterion B); a declining population (Criterion C); or a  
63 very small number of individuals (Criterion D). The IUCN also classifies species abundance  
64 trends as *decreasing*, *stable*, or *increasing*. Genetic diversity is not directly incorporated in risk  
65 assessments; however, fragmented, small, and declining populations are susceptible to the  
66 erosion of genetic diversity due to heightened levels of genetic drift. Low genetic diversity can  
67 also lead to reduced population sizes and inbreeding, ultimately resulting in population declines  
68 via an extinction vortex. This has led to an ongoing conversation about the extent to which Red  
69 List risk statuses might also be useful for guiding the protection of genetic diversity (e.g.,  
70 (Garner et al. 2020; Canteri et al. 2021; Petit-Marty et al. 2021). Resolving this question is  
71 important because genetic diversity is not well-integrated into global conservation policy (Hoban  
72 et al. 2020). If Red List status sufficiently captures processes that reduce genetic diversity via  
73 demographic changes in populations, there would be no need to add direct indicators of genetic  
74 diversity to an already complex conservation policy toolbox.

75 Resolving the question of whether Red List status captures genetic diversity in a way that is  
76 useful for species assessments is timely for conservation policy given recent and upcoming  
77 Convention on Biological Diversity post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework talks (Xu et al.  
78 2021). Several studies have addressed the question of whether the Red List is suitable for  
79 assessing extinction risk due to low genetic diversity (Nabholz et al. 2008; Rivers et al. 2014;  
80 Doyle et al. 2015; Willoughby et al. 2015; Li et al. 2016; Brüniche-Olsen et al. 2018, 2021;  
81 Garner et al. 2020; Buffalo 2021; Canteri et al. 2021; Petit-Marty et al. 2021). Relationships  
82 between Red List risk status and genetic diversity are generally—but not consistently—detectable,  
83 and it is often argued that these associations are informative for conservation and management  
84 decisions related to genetic diversity (e.g., Canteri et al. 2021; Petit-Marty et al. 2021). However,  
85 it remains unclear whether these general associative trends between species' Red List risk  
86 status and genetic diversity are useful for identifying species exhibiting genetic erosion (Fig. 1).  
87 Models that capture general trends in data often perform poorly when the goal is prediction.

88 General trends between Red List status and genetic diversity (e.g., Li et al. 2016; Brüniche-  
89 Olsen et al. 2021; Canteri et al. 2021; Petit-Marty et al. 2021) suggest that, on average,  
90 threatened species tend to have lower genetic diversity than non-threatened species. However,  
91 if the models detecting these general relationships have low predictive accuracy, then they will  
92 not be informative for identifying whether individual species in a given threat category are at risk  
93 of genetic erosion (Fig. 1). Thus, our ability to use Red List status as a proxy for genetic  
94 diversity status for specific species hinges on the strength of this relationship and model  
95 predictive accuracy. If the general trends detected to date are deemed useful for conservation  
96 policy, then policymakers could use Red List status to assess genetic diversity in the absence of  
97 genetic data, which is still not available for most species. Additional metrics developed  
98 specifically for assessing genetic diversity status and trends would not be needed (Laike et al.  
99 2020; Hoban et al. 2020, 2021). However, if the relationship between Red List status and

100 genetic diversity is weak and has poor predictive accuracy, relying solely on Red List status  
101 would result in a lack of formal and sufficient protection for genetic diversity in natural  
102 populations. To evaluate the extent to which species' genetic diversity is predictive of Red List  
103 risk status, we reanalyzed three genetic datasets (two previously used for this purpose)  
104 containing estimates of genetic diversity obtained from different markers (mitochondrial gene  
105 sequences, microsatellites, and whole-genome sequences).

106 Our first dataset contained estimates of mtDNA *cytochrome B* diversity from 1036 bird species.  
107 This dataset was compiled by Canteri et al. (2021), who used it to assess the relationship  
108 between Red List risk (threatened or not) and genetic diversity. They concluded that the Red  
109 List species-level conservation criteria capture low levels of genetic diversity. Canteri et al.  
110 obtained *cytochrome B* sequences from GenBank, a genetic sequence database, and  
111 measured genetic diversity at the species level using nucleotide diversity for species with 5  
112 sequences minimum (median = 11 sequences across the data set). Species' Red List statuses  
113 were included with the posted data, and we added population trend classifications for species  
114 using the 'rredlist' package in R (Chamberlain 2020). IUCN population trend assessments were  
115 available for 984 species.

116 Our second dataset consisted of genetic diversity estimates from whole genome sequences  
117 (WGS) for 68 bird species from a dataset compiled by Brüniche-Olsen et al. (2021) from two  
118 sequence databases, EMBL-EBI and NCBI. Genetic diversity was measured with genome-wide  
119 observed heterozygosity estimated from the site frequency spectrum for 1 sequence per  
120 species. With these data, Brüniche-Olsen et al. found that threatened species (Endangered and  
121 Critically Endangered) had lower observed genomic heterozygosity than non-threatened  
122 species. Species Red List categories and population trends were included in this dataset.

123 Finally, our third dataset was the MacroPopGen database (Lawrence et al. 2018, 2019). This  
124 database contains site-level estimates of genetic diversity from microsatellite markers for  
125 vertebrate species (terrestrial vertebrates and freshwater fish) across North and South America  
126 harvested from the literature. We assigned Red List categories and IUCN population trend  
127 classifications to species with rredlist. We were able to assign Red List status to 693 species  
128 (80 amphibians; 215 birds; 143 mammals; 120 reptiles; 134 ray-finned fishes; 1 lamprey). We  
129 chose to use gene diversity (reported as expected heterozygosity in MacroPopGen) as our  
130 metric of genetic diversity because it does not depend strongly on sample size (Charlesworth  
131 and Charlesworth 2010). Gene diversity is the average probability that two randomly selected  
132 alleles in a population are different (Nei 1973). We averaged gene diversity across sample sites  
133 to obtain a species-level measure of genetic diversity comparable to the genetic diversity  
134 estimates in the mtDNA and WGS datasets. Among bird species in our analyses, only 5 species  
135 were present across all three datasets (54 species shared between mtDNA – microsatellite data  
136 sets; 20 mtDNA – WGS; 9 WGS – microsatellite).

137 We modeled general relationships between our measures of genetic diversity (nucleotide  
138 diversity for mtDNA data, observed genome-wide heterozygosity for WGS data, and gene  
139 diversity for microsatellite data) and Red List categories with the same two models fit to each  
140 dataset. The first model type was an ordinal logistic regression implemented in the MASS library  
141 (Venables and Ripley 2002). The dependent variable was threat status ordered by risk (least  
142 concern – LC; near-threatened – NT; vulnerable – VU; endangered – EN; and critically  
143 endangered – CR). Then, to more closely resemble previous work (Brüniche-Olsen et al. 2021;  
144 Canteri et al. 2021), we also tested how well genetic diversity classified broader binary Red List

145 categories, threatened (comprised of CR, EN, and VU categories) vs. non-threatened (NT, LC),  
146 using logistic regressions. All analyses were repeated for mtDNA, microsatellite, and WGS  
147 diversity estimates separately. These models are similar to those used previously, thus we  
148 expected to find similar general trends of a decline in diversity with increasing threat status.

149 We then took the important next step in assessing the policy relevance of these trends by  
150 assessing the ability of our models to accurately categorize individual species' risk status using  
151 genetic information alone. To do this we estimated the predictive accuracy (the proportion of  
152 correctly classified observations) of models using confusion matrices calculated in the 'caret' R  
153 package (Kuhn 2021).

154

### 155 **Genetic diversity does not predict species Red List status**

156 Consistent with previous analyses (Willoughby et al. 2015; Li et al. 2016; Brüniche-Olsen et al.  
157 2021; Canteri et al. 2021; Petit-Marty et al. 2021), we found that the Red List status was  
158 associated with genetic diversity across marker types and all taxa examined except for fishes  
159 (Table 1). Genetic diversity for all markers tended to decrease with higher threat statuses (Fig.  
160 2). We also found general associations between genetic diversity and IUCN population size  
161 trends: microsatellite diversity for birds, mammals, and amphibians tended to increase for  
162 species with positive population size trends. However, diversity decreased for bird mtDNA and  
163 whole genome data, and reptile and fish microsatellite data with positive population trends as  
164 species-level population sizes moved from decreasing, to stable, to increasing (Table 2, Fig. 3).  
165 Our results therefore suggest that genetic diversity is generally statistically related to Red List  
166 status and population trends, although directions of effect are not consistent across taxa.

167 While our models had good predictive accuracy (ordinal regressions: 57-84%; logistic  
168 regressions: 63-90%; Tables 1, 2), these levels of accuracy were achieved by classifying nearly  
169 all species as Least Concern or non-threatened (Figs. S1-S2). This is known as the accuracy  
170 paradox (Fernandes et al. 2010), i.e. when models have low predictive power despite high  
171 accuracy. Most species across all datasets were listed as Least Concern (84% of mtDNA data,  
172 65% of microsatellite data, 69% of whole genome sequences), and this category generally  
173 encapsulated variation in genetic diversity across all other Red List categories for all marker  
174 types. Our tests of predictive accuracy show there is no strong tendency for Critically  
175 Endangered, Endangered, or Vulnerable species to have markedly low genetic diversity, and  
176 that Least Concern species are equally likely to have low genetic diversity (Figs. 1, 2). These  
177 results demonstrate that we cannot predict a species' Red List risk status from species-level  
178 genetic data, nor conversely can Red List status be used as a surrogate for species' risk of  
179 genetic erosion in the absence of genetic data. Therefore, Red List status alone is not useful for  
180 decisions related to the conservation of genetic diversity of individual species.

181

### 182 **Relationships across marker types**

183 Although we tested 3 marker types, we note that biological differences among markers mean  
184 they are not all equally informative for conservation. Mitochondrial genomes are maternally  
185 inherited, behave as a single locus because they do not recombine, and have several protein-  
186 coding genes—meaning they most likely do not evolve neutrally (Galtier et al. 2009).

187 Mitochondrial DNA diversity is generally not correlated with genome-wide diversity or adaptive  
188 potential, two core targets of conservation genetics (Kardos et al. 2021). It is also not strongly  
189 related to population size (Bazin et al. 2006), which is a central component for Red List  
190 assessment. Mitochondrial markers have been strongly criticized as general tools for population  
191 genetics, phylogenetics, and conservation outside of specific contexts (Zink and Barrowclough  
192 2008; Edwards and Bensch 2009; Galtier et al. 2009; Paz-Vinas et al. 2021; Schmidt and  
193 Garraway 2021a).

194 In contrast, microsatellites and whole-genome data both capture genome-wide diversity.  
195 Genetic diversity estimated from ~10 microsatellite loci is well correlated (83%) with genome-  
196 wide diversity (Mittell et al. 2015). We therefore expected relationships between Red List status  
197 and genetic diversity estimated from mitochondrial versus nuclear data to differ, with nuclear  
198 markers being more promising predictors of threat status. Indeed, we did not detect a  
199 correlation between mtDNA and microsatellite markers for the bird species that overlapped in  
200 our data (Fig. 4). However, the general trends we found were in the same direction across all  
201 marker types. We suspect the general, species-level trends captured by our own and previously  
202 published models could be driven by particularly significant declines in abundance or range  
203 extent in some species, which could cause genetic diversity declines in both mitochondrial and  
204 nuclear DNA. The similar trends we detect across marker types suggest that most threatened  
205 species have likely undergone a genetic bottleneck, but not all species with low genetic diversity  
206 are considered threatened. In other words, Least Concern species may be equally likely to have  
207 experienced a decline that caused a reduction in genetic diversity at some point in their history,  
208 but for reasons we discuss in the following section, these low levels of genetic diversity may not  
209 necessarily be of conservation concern. Alternatively, these species could be miscategorized.

210

### 211 **Low versus declining genetic diversity**

212 Many reasons might explain the mismatch between Red List status and species-level genetic  
213 diversity. Declines in genetic diversity can often be difficult to detect due to time lags between  
214 the ecological causes of demographic decline and their evolutionary consequences (Landguth  
215 et al. 2010; Pflüger et al. 2019), and due to non-linear relationships between range loss and  
216 genetic diversity loss (Pflüger et al. 2019). Previous work has shown that genome-wide genetic  
217 diversity is not strongly correlated with IUCN estimates of present abundance (Willoughby et al.  
218 2015). Furthermore, changes in nuclear DNA genetic diversity following habitat disturbance are  
219 variable across taxa. For example, with regard to habitat disturbance related to urbanization,  
220 mammals generally lose diversity in highly urbanized areas, but at different rates depending on  
221 species (DiBattista 2008; Schmidt et al. 2020; Habrich et al. 2021); bird species either lose or  
222 gain genetic diversity in more urban areas (Schmidt et al. 2020); while changes in amphibian  
223 genetic diversity are more idiosyncratic depending on species and location (Schmidt and  
224 Garraway 2021b). Variation in response rate to local and contemporary habitat changes can  
225 obscure the relationship between a species' genetic diversity and its Red List status over time.

226 The inability of our models to accurately identify threatened species also indicates a potential  
227 problem with using species-level estimates of genetic diversity as a criterion to assess  
228 conservation status, because species have variable levels of genetic diversity at mutation-drift  
229 equilibrium. The natural census size of species will also cause variation in equilibrium levels of  
230 genetic diversity at the species level (Eo et al. 2011; Romiguier et al. 2014; Buffalo 2021). For

231 instance, there were many species with relatively low genetic diversity that are classified as  
232 Least Concern (Fig. 2), an observation that has generated suggestions to include genetic  
233 diversity in species risk assessment (Willoughby et al. 2015; Garner et al. 2020). Canteri et al.  
234 note that only a few non-threatened (4%) and threatened (10%) bird species had notably low  
235 genetic diversity. Brüniche-Olsen et al. report that 9 species had heterozygosity  $<9 \times 10^{-4}$  (13th  
236 percentile), 6 of which were listed as threatened.

237 The demographic histories of individual populations can also contribute to variation in genetic  
238 diversity across species, especially for species where only few sites or sequences were  
239 sampled. A species with low contemporary genetic diversity that also has a low long-term  
240 effective population size and stable abundance is not necessarily of high priority for  
241 conservation, at least in terms of genetic vulnerability (e.g., Reed 2010; Fraser et al. 2014). The  
242 data we present suggest that demographically stable species (Least Concern or stable  
243 population trends) have a wide range of genetic diversity levels (Figs. 2, 3). This variability  
244 poses an issue for the possibility of integrating genetic diversity into Red List classifications by  
245 setting thresholds that are determined through interspecific comparisons, because they may not  
246 translate into meaningful conservation gains for the classified species.

247 A pressing conservation issue for population genetic diversity that has been highlighted at the  
248 policy level are recent, ongoing declines in abundance and loss of distinct populations (Hoban  
249 et al. 2021). Declines in genetic diversity are not necessarily cause for alarm; for example, they  
250 might lead to inbreeding and the eventual exposure of phenotypes associated with recessive  
251 alleles in homozygous states. This can cause deleterious alleles to be selectively purged, which  
252 reduces negative effects of inbreeding and enables populations to persist with low levels of  
253 genetic diversity (Mathur and DeWoody 2021; Kardos et al. 2021). While purging deleterious  
254 alleles can help counteract ill effects of inbreeding, it cannot be relied on to do so, especially in  
255 the long term. Many more populations will have gone extinct due to complications associated  
256 with low genetic diversity than those that persist in spite of it (Spielman et al. 2004; Frankham et  
257 al. 2019). Species-level genetic diversity estimates obtained by averaging across population-  
258 level estimates can obscure declines in species with high diversity, especially in unmonitored  
259 and opportunistically sampled populations. Declines are ideally assessed with intraspecific data  
260 sampled over time, but unfortunately, this is difficult to do at scale (but see Leigh et al. 2019).  
261 Repurposing publicly available genetic data can allow us to overcome this to an extent by  
262 substituting space for time (or impact for time) to study environmental factors related to decline  
263 using data from multiple populations per species (Schmidt et al. 2020; Habrich et al. 2021;  
264 Schmidt and Garraway 2021b). Overall, we conclude that continued interspecific comparisons  
265 of Red List rankings and average species genetic diversity are unproductive because the nature  
266 and causes of genetic diversity loss are variable across genetic markers, populations, species,  
267 and species' ranges. Below we list ways in which genetic diversity can be incorporated into  
268 species risk assessments to improve its protection.

269

## 270 **A way forward**

271 Red List rankings are used extensively for conservation planning, often at the species or  
272 regional level, such as prioritizing actions for species at the highest risk levels (Critically  
273 Endangered and Endangered) and identifying at risk regions or Key Biodiversity Areas  
274 (Hoffmann et al. 2008). The Red List process of compiling information from experts also allows

275 analysis of threats to individual species, species in a region, and globally (Rodrigues et al.  
 276 2006). Change in the Red List Index over time is a useful global indicator of biodiversity loss  
 277 (Tittensor et al. 2014; though see Fraixedas et al. 2022 for a critique of other aspects of the Red  
 278 List). It is apparent, however, that these patterns are currently not related to genetic diversity in  
 279 a way that is meaningful for conservation, as has been pointed out previously (Nabholz et al.  
 280 2008; Rivers et al. 2014; Doyle et al. 2015; Willoughby et al. 2015). This is not surprising,  
 281 because the Red List was not developed to assess genetic diversity. Given its focus on  
 282 demographic change, it was important to test whether the Red List might encompass genetic  
 283 diversity and remove the need to further develop tools to assess genetic erosion. The takeaway  
 284 from these extended analyses is that the Red List, on its own, cannot account for the genetic  
 285 diversity patterns of individual species, and is not reliable for conserving and recovering genetic  
 286 diversity. Genetic diversity assessments, in combination with the use of well-verified proxies or  
 287 indicators of genetic diversity (Hanson et al. 2017; Hoban et al. 2020, 2022) and other  
 288 conservation assessment tools, are needed to assess species' vulnerability to genetic erosion.

289 Where do we go from here? To our minds, it is time to shift attention away from policy tools that  
 290 were not designed to capture genetic information when the goal is to conserve genetic diversity  
 291 (Hoban et al. 2022). Nuclear genetic data are increasingly available for a wider variety of  
 292 species (Leigh et al. 2021), enhancing our ability to look more deeply into genetic diversity  
 293 status below the species level (Hoban et al. 2022). Additionally, as more genomes become fully  
 294 sequenced, there are more proposals for assessing genetic erosion status using genome level  
 295 statistics (van Oosterhout 2020, 2021; Bertorelle et al. 2022). The majority of species will lack  
 296 genetic data for the foreseeable future. This highlights the need to develop effective proxies that  
 297 are directly connected to genetic diversity (Hoban et al. 2020, 2021). For example, proxies could  
 298 include the proportion of populations with low effective size (which will slow genetic erosion), or  
 299 the proportion of distinct populations lost (Hoban et al. 2020, 2021, 2022).

300 The rapid collection and use of these genetic, genomic, and proxy metrics in a coordinated way  
 301 across thousands of species is important to help the scientific community advance  
 302 understanding and inform decision making. Producing and aggregating these data, however,  
 303 would require considerable effort. Data would ideally be aggregated in centralized databases  
 304 that can be expanded and updated over time, similar to updates to the Red List. Rather than  
 305 tailoring new data to suit old metrics, the increasing availability of abundant, fine-scale genetic  
 306 data can enable conservation geneticists to develop and adopt improved metrics. Fortunately,  
 307 additional tools are forthcoming. The ongoing development of a suite of genetic Essential  
 308 Biodiversity Variables (Hoban et al. 2022) means that policymakers can begin to move beyond  
 309 the Red List to safeguard genetic diversity in all species.

310

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490

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496

497 **Table 1.** Relationship between Red List categories and genetic diversity. Model summaries for  
 498 ordinal regressions (response variable is all 5 Red List categories ranked 1-LC, 2-NT, 3-VU, 4-  
 499 EN, 5-CR) and logistic regressions (binary response variable, threatened vs non threatened) for  
 500 mtDNA, microsatellite, and whole-genome (WGS) data. Coefficients (beta) are given with  
 501 standard errors (SE) and model accuracy from confusion matrices (Figs. S1-S2) with 95%  
 502 confidence intervals (CI).

503

*ordinal regressions***microsatellites**

taxon	n	accuracy	95% CI	beta	SE
birds	215	0.66	0.60 – 0.73	-3.17	0.89
mammals	143	0.64	0.56 – 0.72	-4.67	1.13
amphibians	80	0.74	0.67 – 0.83	-2.99	1.6
reptiles	120	0.57	0.47 – 0.66	-4.3	1.38
fish	134	0.63	0.55 – 0.72	-0.63	0.91

**mtDNA**

birds	1048	0.84	0.82 – 0.86	-69.75	11.95
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**WGS**

birds	68	0.69	0.57 – 0.80	-748.8	232.9
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*logistic regressions***microsatellites**

birds	0.79	0.73 – 0.84	-3.09	1.02
mammals	0.78	0.71 – 0.85	-6.06	1.45
amphibians	0.81	0.71 – 0.89	-3.59	1.81
reptiles	0.63	0.53 – 0.71	-3.26	1.48
fish	0.68	0.59 – 0.76	-0.65	0.98

**mtDNA**

birds	0.90	0.88 – 0.92	-124.29	21.61
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**WGS**

birds	0.79	0.68 – 0.88	-939.54	338.82
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504

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506

507 **Table 2.** Relationship between IUCN population trend and genetic diversity. Model summaries  
 508 for population trend ordinal regressions (decreasing, D = -1; stable, S = 0; increasing, I = 1) for  
 509 mtDNA, microsatellite, and whole-genome (WGS) data. Coefficients (beta) are given with  
 510 standard errors (SE) and model accuracy from confusion matrices (Fig. S3) with 95%  
 511 confidence intervals (CI).

**microsatellites**

taxon	n	accuracy	95% CI	beta	SE
birds	203	0.47	0.40 – 0.54	1.27	0.90
mammals	126	0.53	0.44 – 0.62	5.65	1.52
amphibians	72	0.67	0.55 – 0.77	0.16	0.10
reptiles	99	0.57	0.46 – 0.67	-2.08	1.51
fish	94	0.65	0.54 – 0.74	-1.62	1.26

**mtDNA**

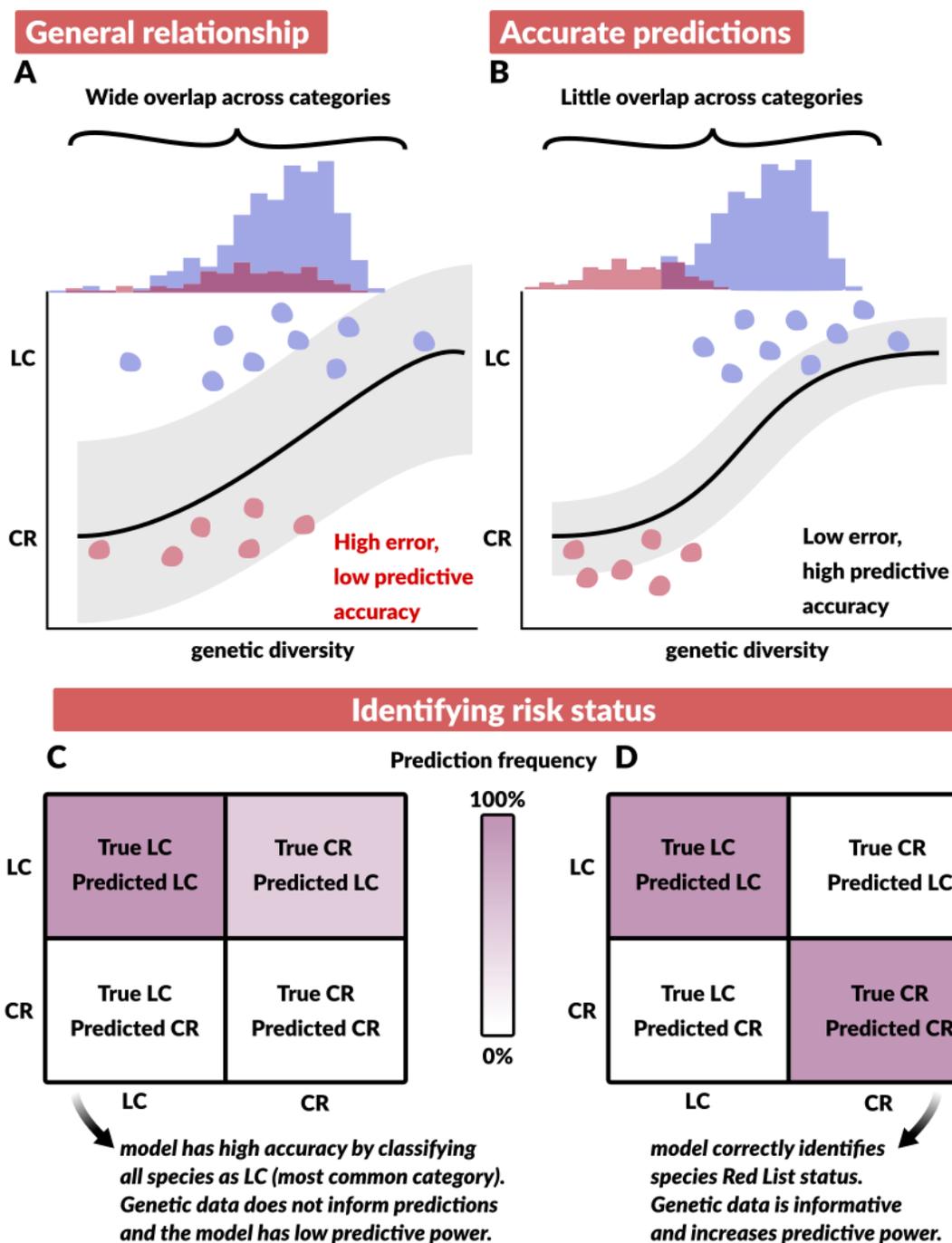
birds	984	0.52	0.49 – 0.55	-14.69	5.02
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**WGS**

birds	67	0.64	0.52 – 0.76	-176.80	146.80
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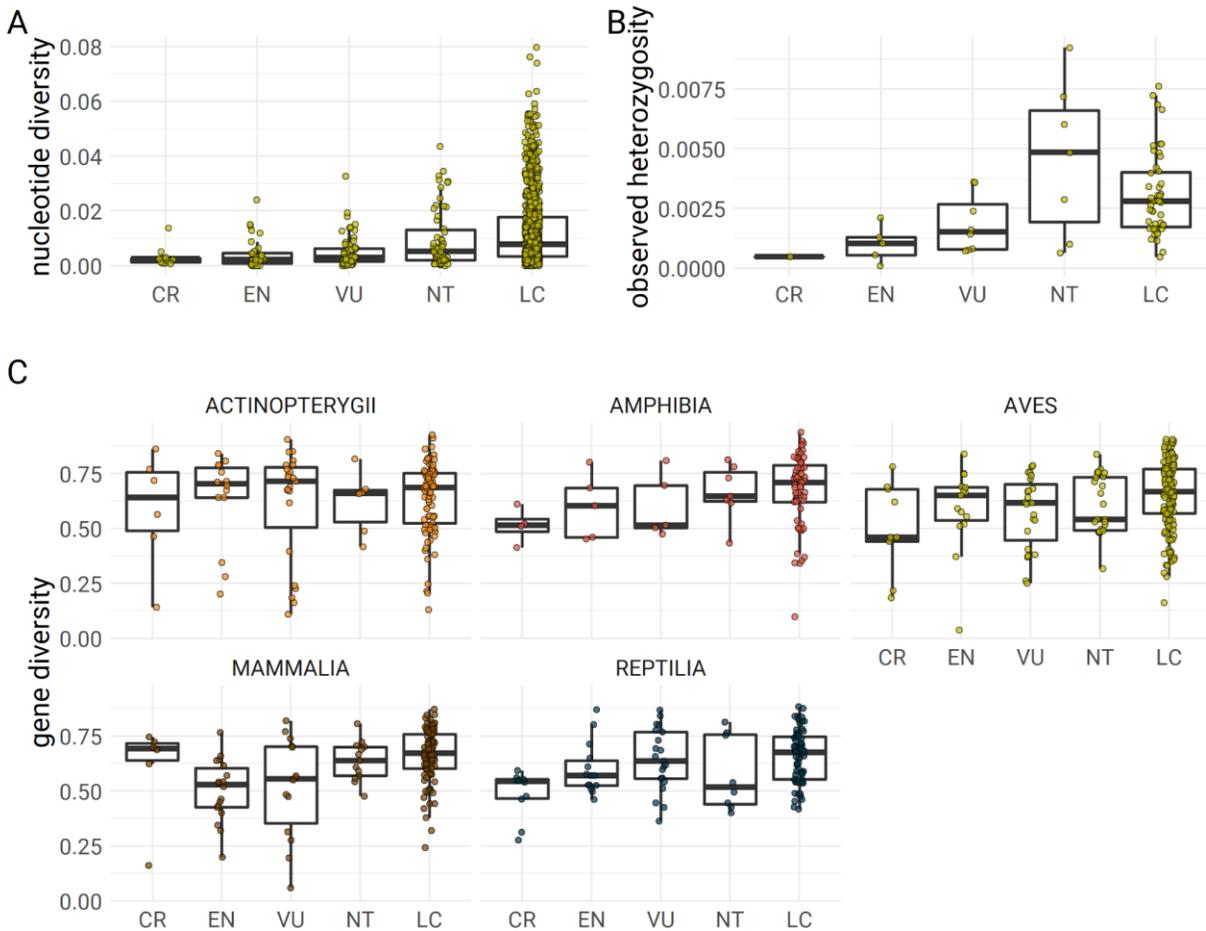
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515 **Figure 1.** A toy comparison of a model that identifies general trends in data but does not make  
 516 accurate predictions (A) and a model that both captures trends and predicts species risk status  
 517 well (B). Models can usefully capture general trends while at the same time having poor  
 518 predictive accuracy (A, C). General relationships between species Red List status and genetic  
 519 diversity have been detected, but to date their predictive accuracy has not been assessed.  
 520 Models need to predict well if they are to be considered good conservation tools. With high  
 521 overlapping levels of genetic diversity between Red List categories (Least Concern, LC, and  
 522 Critically Endangered, CR) models may be able to detect lower genetic diversity in CR than LC  
 523 species, but these models perform poorly when used to predict CR species (confusion matrix,

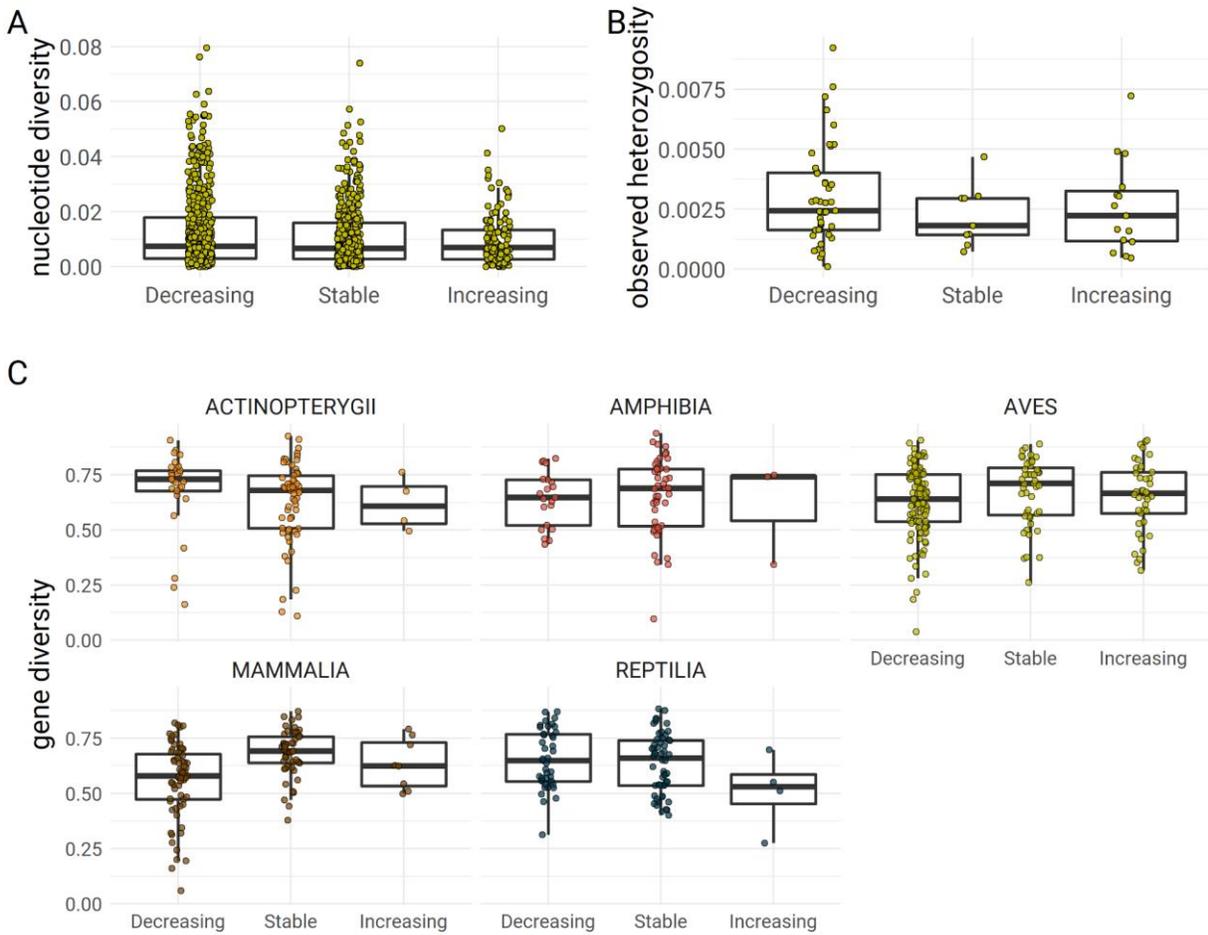
524 C). With less overlap across categories (B), models would be better able to correctly classify  
525 species' risk status (D). The large variance in genetic diversity and prevalence of Least Concern  
526 species suggests that Red List status is not related to genetic diversity in a way that is  
527 informative for conservation policy.



528

529 **Figure 2.** Relationship of avian mitochondrial genetic diversity (a) whole-genome genetic  
 530 diversity (b), and microsatellite genetic diversity (c) to IUCN Red List categories (CR = critically  
 531 endangered; EN = endangered; VU = vulnerable; NT = near-threatened; LC = least concern).  
 532 Most species are classified as Least Concern. The genetic diversity of least concern species is  
 533 extremely variable and generally encompasses the entire range of genetic diversity across all  
 534 Red List categories for all genetic markers.

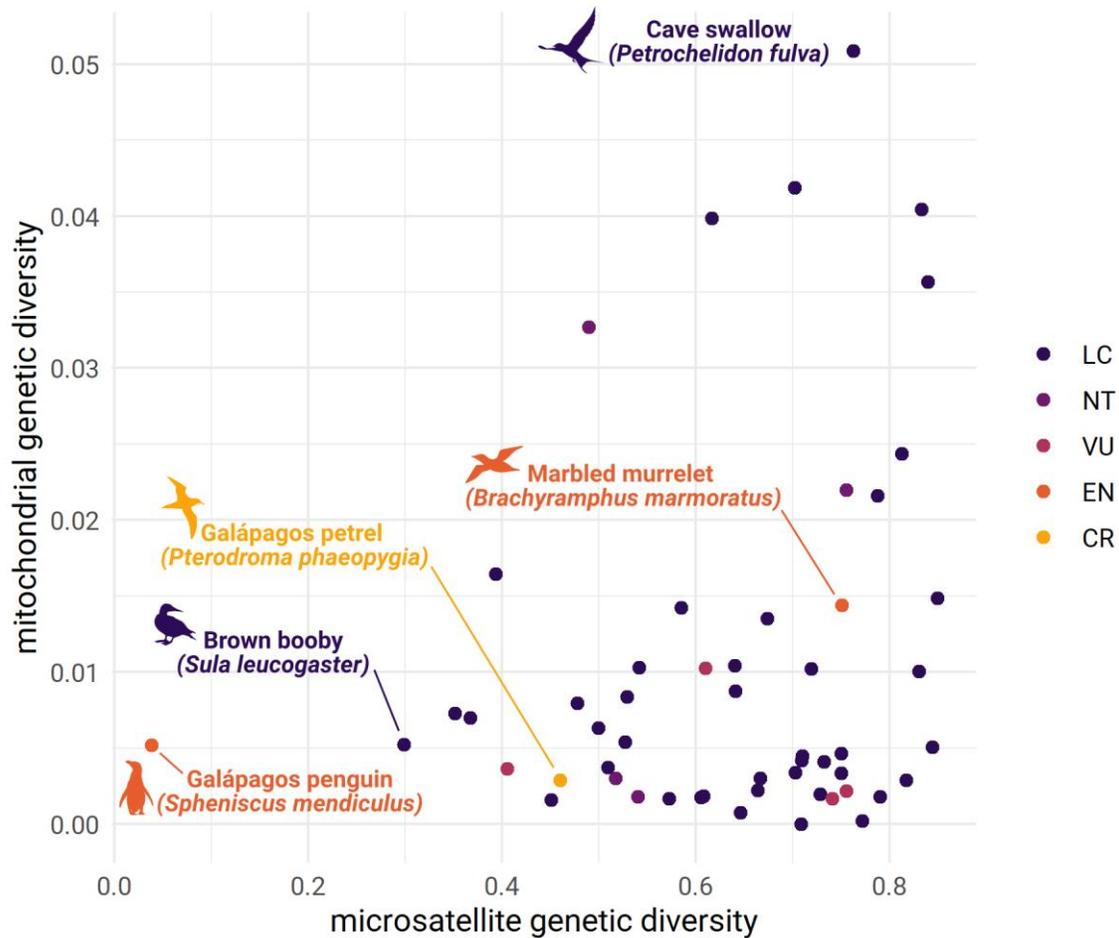
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536

537 **Figure 3.** Relationship of mitochondrial genetic diversity (a), whole-genome genetic diversity  
 538 (b), and microsatellite genetic diversity (c) to IUCN Red List population trend categories. IUCN  
 539 population trends are unrelated to species genetic diversity.

540



541 **Figure 4.** Mitochondrial genetic diversity (nucleotide diversity;  $\pi$ ) and microsatellite diversity  
 542 (gene diversity) in birds are not correlated ( $r = 0.22$ ;  $-0.05 - 0.46$  95% CI;  $n = 54$  species).  
 543 Highlighted species show mismatches between mitochondrial genetic diversity, nuclear genetic  
 544 diversity, and IUCN Red List conservation status. For example, the endangered Galápagos  
 545 penguin has lower nuclear genetic diversity than other species in our data set, but mitochondrial  
 546 diversity comparable to several other species. The Marbled murrelet is also endangered, yet  
 547 has relatively high mitochondrial and nuclear diversity. Mitochondrial genetic diversity is thus not  
 548 a reliable proxy for genome-wide diversity, which is a quantity of interest for conservation.

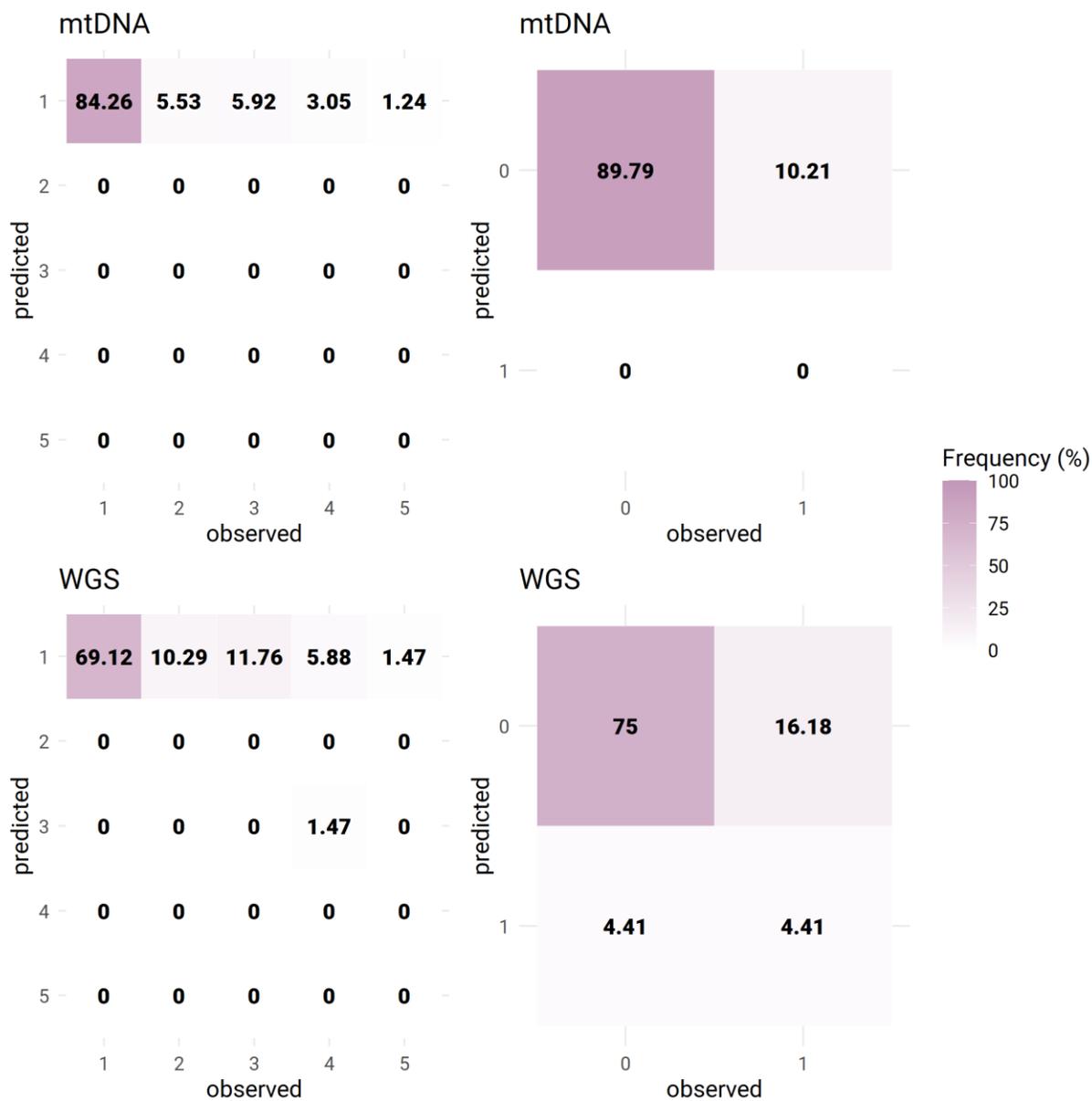
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550

551 **Supplementary information for: The IUCN Red List is not sufficient to protect genetic**  
552 **diversity**

553 Figs. S1-S3

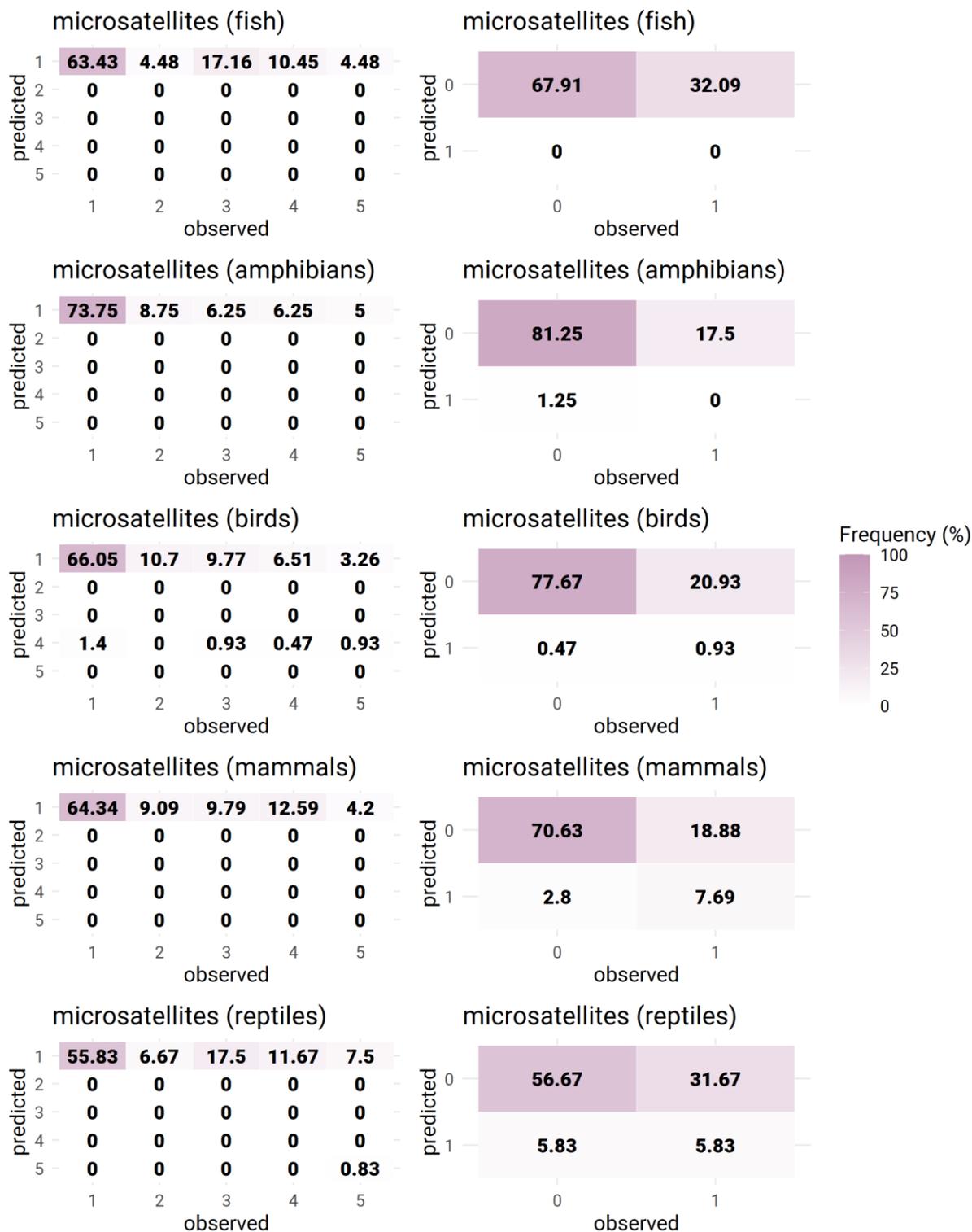
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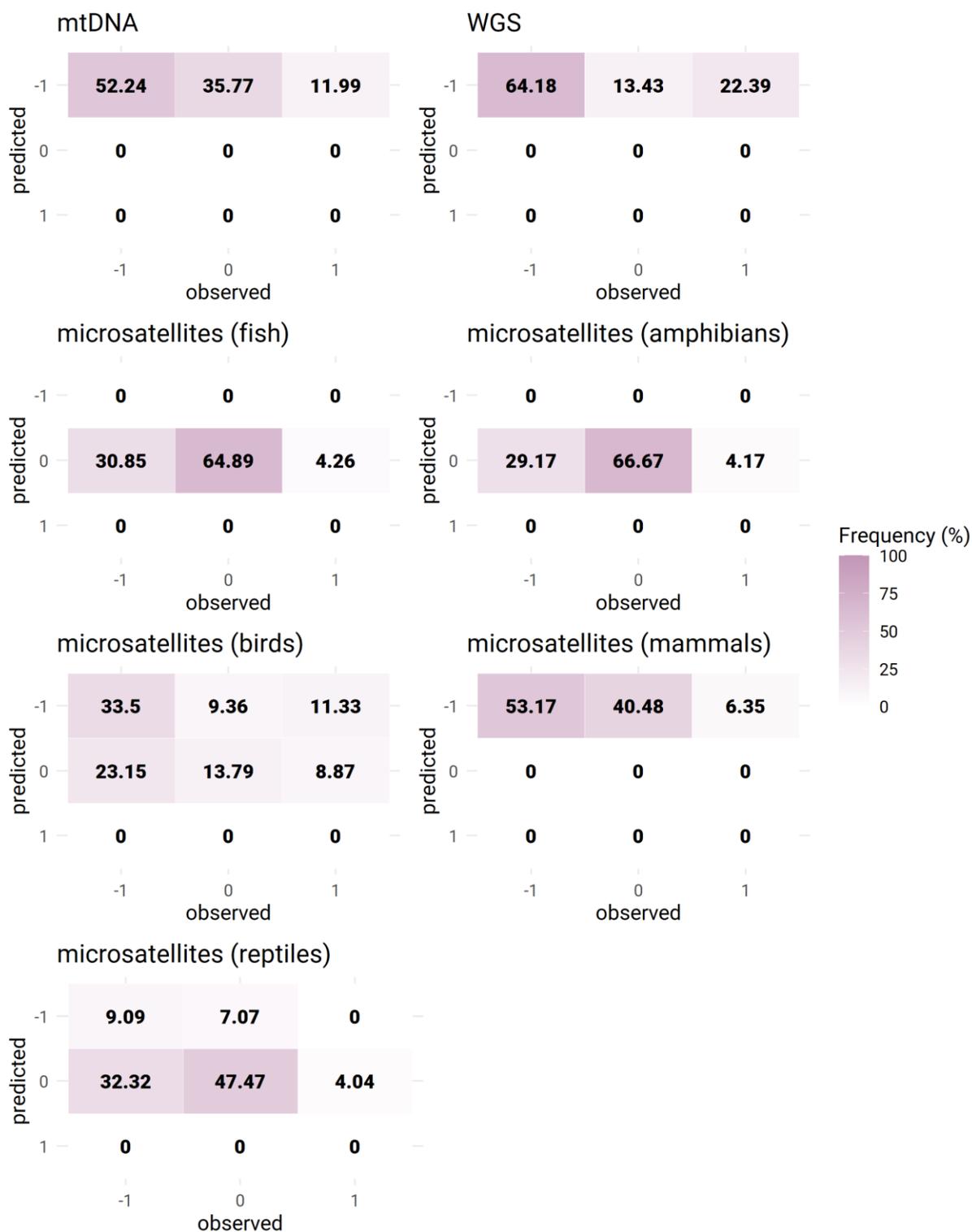
556 **Figure S1.** Confusion matrices for ordinal (left column) and binary (right column) logistic  
 557 regressions for mitochondrial (mtDNA) and whole genome sequence (WGS) data for birds. For  
 558 all models, Least concern (1; left) or non-threatened (0; right) were the best-predicted  
 559 categories.

560



561

562 **Figure S2.** Confusion matrices for ordinal (left column) and binary (right column) logistic  
 563 regressions for microsatellite data. For all models, Least concern (1; left) or non-threatened (0;  
 564 right) were the best-predicted categories.



565

566 **Figure S3.** Confusion matrices for population trend models (Decreasing population trend = -1 ;  
 567 Stable = 0; Increasing = 1). The best predicted classes are the most common ones (mtDNA,  
 568 WGS, mammals, and birds: Decreasing is most common; fish, amphibians, reptiles: Stable).