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A Snapshot of Online Wildlife Trade: Australian e-commerce trade of native and non-native pets --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>The international trade of non-domesticated pets impacts both conservation and biosecurity via the harvest and release of live animals beyond their native distributions. The extent to which individual countries mitigate these impacts via regulation of trade is inconsistent, as is their capacity to monitor internet facilitated trade. We investigated the online trade of vertebrate pets within Australia, a country with a reputation for relatively stringent pet-importation regulations and world-class border biosecurity. Using semi-automated data mining (i.e., webscraping) techniques, we collected online pet trade data over the course of 14 weeks from 12 Australian e-commerce platforms selected using an a priori set of search terms. We analysed spatial, temporal and taxonomic biases in trade and identified instances of high rates of trade in: (i) threatened species, (ii) non-native species, (iii) and species not permissible for live import. We identified over 100 000 individual live animals across 1192 species, including: 667 non-native species for sale within Australia from 03/12/2019 – 20/03/2020 (mammals were excluded from our analysis). Our findings constitute a much greater scale (in terms of abundance and richness) of non-native species trade than previously recorded in Australia. Substantial changes to legislative control of domestically traded pets are needed at the national level to reduce the volume of non-native pets that may contribute to the establishment of invasive species in Australia. We suggest that contemporary examples of permit systems applied to native taxa may provide a valuable template for the implementation of such changes.</p>
Suggested Reviewers:	Benjamin Michael Marshall University of Stirling benjaminmichaelmarshall@gmail.com This reviewer has published multiple relevant studies on the online trade of reptiles and the potential resulting threats.

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30 **Keywords**

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1. Introduction

The international wildlife trade, particularly the trade of live animals as non-domesticated pets, has garnered growing research interest across the last decade (e.g., Mohanty and Measey 2019; Marshall et al. 2020); primarily due to the conservation, criminological and biosecurity threats posed by unsustainable trade practices (Warwick et al. 2018; Lockwood et al. 2019). Contemporary investigation of wildlife trade has largely focused on the cross-border movement and trade of species by utilising import/export permit recording systems such as for CITES-listed species or the US wildlife import-export recording system (Harfoot et al. 2018; Watters et al. 2022). Documentation of illegal components of the international pet trade have relied on seizure data compiled by various border-security agencies of a wide variety of nations (Ribeiro et al. 2019; Hitchens and Blakeslee 2020), although this data is rarely collected on a consistent basis subject to an international standard (e.g., Nijman and Shepherd 2021). Such sources of data have nonetheless provided substantial improvements in our understanding of pet trade trends and spatio-temporal dynamics (Harfoot et al. 2018; Andersson et al. 2021). However, a considerable (yet not fully quantified) proportion of trade of internationally-sourced species takes place within the domestic borders of individual nations (de Magalhães and São-Pedro 2012; Papavlasopoulou et al. 2014; Janssen and Leupen 2019). Regulation and documentation of such domestic trade is conducted on a case-by-case basis by individual nations (if at all) and is often subject to taxonomic biases (as identified in Fukushima et al. 2020).

Australia is a country widely regarded as having highly stringent border security policies, which strictly controls the importation (and exportation) of most live animals for commercial purposes (Whittington and Chong 2007; Schneider et al. 2018). These regulations, implemented by the Commonwealth government, go far beyond Australia's obligations as a signatory to CITES (UNEP-WCMC 2022). However, non-native species are nonetheless present in Australia, many of which were imported prior to the implementation of such policies. There is also a shortage of documentation for the domestic trade of both native and non-native species taking place within Australia (Valllosera and Cassey 2017c; Woolnough et al. 2020; Millington et al. 2022a). Australia is federated into six States and eight Territories (two mainland and six external), and while Commonwealth-wide regulations are in place for some taxa (e.g., the trade and private possession of non-native reptiles is universally prohibited across Australia; see Toomes et al. (2019)), most regulations pertaining to the pet trade are managed and enforced at the individual State/Territory jurisdiction (see Toomes et al (2022) and Woolnough et al (2020) for specific examples). This jurisdiction-specific management ranges from simple prohibited lists to more complex permit systems that would-be traders need to acquire before buying specific taxa. As such, Australia does not consistently document the trade of live pets across all taxa and jurisdictions, allowing an unknown proportion of trade to occur without guarantee of sustainable or ethical practice.

Such lack of oversight in wildlife trade is concerning for several biosecurity and conservation-related reasons. From a biosecurity perspective, non-native species, including species that are invasive elsewhere in the world, are known to be illegally smuggled into Australia, held in private captivity and escape into Australian ecosystems (Toomes et al. 2019). There is also public desire to possess other highly invasive species as non-domesticated pets in Australia (Toomes et al. 2020), and non-native species that were brought into Australia prior to importation bans are known to be widely (and legally) traded and bred domestically (Woolnough et al. 2020). From a conservation perspective, Australian native species are highly desirable and valuable on the international pet market

85 (Vall-Iloera and Cassey 2017a; Marshall et al. 2020; Heinrich et al. 2021) and there is a
86 known domestic trade of threatened native species (Toomes et al. 2022). While the trade of
87 some Australian species can be supplied by captive breeding, the slow life history traits
88 and restricted distributions of many Australian native (particularly endemic) taxa leave
89 them vulnerable to trade-incentivised harvesting of wild populations (e.g., *Holocephalus*
90 *bungaroides*; Jolly et al. (2020)). When such biosecurity and conservation concerns are
91 considered alongside additional threats such as the transmission of pathogens (Norval et al.
92 2020) and animal welfare concerns associated with captive keeping/breeding (Wyatt et al.
93 2022), there is a clear need to monitor and quantify the risk of domestic trade to ensure that
94 wildlife trade occurs sustainably and ethically, Yet, to date, no systematic method of
95 monitoring trade has been implemented by Australian Commonwealth and State/Territory
96 governments.

97
98 Throughout a complex legal landscape, the pet trade (and wildlife trade more broadly) has
99 undergone a rapid transition from traditional brick-and-mortar marketplaces (e.g., pet
100 stores) to online e-commerce platforms over the last decade (Siriwat and Nijman 2018,
101 2020; Fink et al. 2021). Such online platforms include direct business-to-consumer sites
102 (e.g., online pet stores) as well as more centralised community-based sites (e.g., large
103 classifieds) (Stringham et al. 2021). The ease-of-access, potential anonymity and large
104 consumer base afforded by e-commerce has increased both the scale and diversity of pet
105 trade (Paul et al. 2020; Atoussi et al. 2022). Fortunately, this also provides researchers with
106 an opportunity for large-scale surveillance of trade activity, assisted by the development of
107 open-source data mining (a.k.a. webscraping) resources. Such tools have recently been
108 used to rapidly collect large quantities of trade data beyond the capabilities of traditional
109 manual surveillance (e.g., Marshall et al. (2020); Hughes et al. (2021); Marshall et al.
110 (2022)) and can facilitate the analysis of taxonomic, spatial and temporal wildlife trade
111 dynamics in lieu of formal trade monitoring and regulation.

112
113 Here, we took advantage of the increasing abundance of online data to glean insights into
114 the Australian vertebrate pet trade. We identified Australia as a suitable candidate for the
115 implementation of data mining-based surveillance of the online pet trade due to the
116 aforementioned lack of consistent monitoring and the clear biosecurity and conservation
117 concerns. We developed fit-for-purpose data mining tools to provide a near-comprehensive
118 snapshot of advertised pets for sale across major Australian surface-web e-commerce
119 platforms (see Stringham et al. (2020) for descriptions of surface and deep web). Our
120 objective was to simultaneously use Australia as a case study to highlight domestic trade as
121 a crucial yet understudied facet of international pet trade, while also assisting relevant
122 Australian biosecurity and conservation stakeholders by identifying trade of key species.
123 Specifically, we aimed to quantify not only the diversity of pets traded in Australia but also
124 the relative quantity of individuals possessed, in order to examine the proportion of trade
125 that involves non-native and threatened taxa.

126 2. Methods

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128 2.1. Surface Web E-commerce

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130 To identify relevant surface web e-commerce platforms (i.e., websites) that trade live
131 animals as pets, we followed the framework developed in Stringham et al. (2021).
132 Specifically, we defined a series of search phrases centred around our taxa of interest
133 (freshwater aquarium fishes, marine aquarium fishes, pet reptiles, pet amphibians, and pet
134 birds) and type of websites (pet stores, classifieds or forums) within Australia. We limited
135 the taxonomic scope of our study to vertebrates as they are the most commonly recorded
136 taxa in trade, and because there are (relatively) strongly resolved taxonomic databases that
137 would facilitate identification of advertised pets on a sufficiently large scale for the
138 quantity of data collected. We did not search for mammalian pets due to the very high
139 quantity of e-commerce sites dedicated to the trade of highly domesticated mammals (e.g.,
140 dogs, cats, rabbits, hamsters). In total, we created 105 search phrases (see Appendix A for
141 full list), which we used to search for candidate websites using the Google search engine
142 during August 2019. For each search, we recorded the first 50 results (i.e., 5 pages of
143 results with 10 URLs per page) and retrieved Alexa web ranking, the number of page visits
144 per month and the number of new listings posted in August 2019 (if available; see
145 Stringham et al. (2021) for further details of web traffic statistics). In total this resulted in
146 the selection of 12 websites (eight pet stores, three classifieds and one forum).

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149 2.2. Webscraping Trade Data

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151 Once candidate websites were identified, we developed fit-for-purpose webscraping code
152 in the Python programming language (Sheridan 2016) using the Selenium Webdriver,
153 BeautifulSoup and Requests modules (Patel 2020), to acquire pet trade data (i.e., instances
154 of pets being advertised for sale online). Further details of this procedure are provided in
155 Appendix B. We recorded the following attributes, where available, from each listing of all
156 platforms (see Appendix C): scientific name, common/trade names, quantity, price,
157 location (at either State/Territory or suburb level), listing date. We also collected image
158 URLs to assist with species identification in cases where scientific names were not present
159 and taxa could not be reasonably derived from free-form listing text. We generated unique
160 identification codes for each listing based on a combination of the listing text and website-
161 specific identifier, where available. If platforms did not provide a date of listing creation,
162 we assumed this to be the first date that data was collected. Webscrapers were constructed
163 in a manner that did not unduly impact the selected platforms and were compliant with the
164 University of Adelaide HREC approval (Projects H-2020-184 and H-2020-256). We
165 determined the frequency of sampling (daily, weekly or fortnightly) based on the
166 frequency of trade occurring on each individual platform to ensure we did not miss new
167 advertisements. Although our webscrapers also recorded 'wanted ads' i.e., listings where
168 potential buyers express an interest in a product, we limited our analysis to advertisements
169 where pets were being offered for sale. We identified wanted ads based on the presence of
170 the text strings 'wanted' or 'wtb' (meaning wanted to buy) in listing descriptions, as most
171 websites did not distinguish between wanted ads and normal advertisements.

172

173 2.3. Generating a List of Taxa Names

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175 We compiled a list of the scientific names of advertised pets and manually standardised
176 them to the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF 2021). Where a hybrid was
177 advertised for sale, we recorded the hybrid status and GBIF identification of both parent

178 taxa, if known. Additionally, we included as synonyms for each unique GBIF record any
179 terms frequently used by the community of online pet traders and keepers that are context
180 specific, including common names, incorrect/outdated scientific names and ‘trade names’.
181 Outdated scientific names were matched to current scientific names by manually cross
182 referencing advertised names against GBIF. Informal trade names were matched to
183 scientific names using hobby-specific knowledge from naturalist and trade forums, as well
184 as the authors own knowledge of Australian trade. For example, ‘IRN’ is used in trade to
185 refer to the Indian ringneck parrot (*Psittacula krameri*).

186
187 Although we did not use data from ‘wanted ads’ in our analysis, we did inspect the text of
188 these listings in order to assist with the compilation of standardised taxa names and
189 synonyms used to search for taxa that may be advertised for sale. In total we generated a
190 library of 1583 scientific names, 1408 common names and 2743 trade names for a total of
191 1381 species, 42 subspecies and 44 hybrids, with additional taxa only identifiable to genus
192 ($n = 79$), family ($n = 25$) or higher ($n = 8$) level. While we have taken every effort to
193 reduce the chances of non-target character string matches occurring, we do acknowledge
194 that this may occur and lead to an overestimation of the frequency of trade in some species.
195 However, scientific, common and trade names were only included in our library and used
196 in string matching if they had been encountered for sale or in wanted ads at least once
197 during our preliminary analysis. As such, we anticipate false matches to be infrequent.

198 199 2.4. Curation and analysis of advertised listings

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201 All data curation and analyses were conducted in the R statistical software version 4.0.3 (R
202 Core Team 2022), using base functions unless otherwise specified. All data visualisation
203 was generated using the ggplot2 package (Wickham 2016). We extracted webscraped data
204 for a 14-week snapshot: 3rd December 2019 – 20th March 2020. This study period was
205 selected based on the date at which all our webscrapers became operational until the date
206 that Australia closed its borders to non-resident human travel. Australia was not entirely
207 unaffected by COVID prior to 20th March 2020 (e.g., air traffic was reduced when other
208 nations closed their borders earlier in 2020) and therefore it is impossible to capture
209 circumstances that entirely represent pre-COVID trade conditions. However, to the best of
210 our knowledge, no other research or government entity was systematically collecting
211 online trade data in Australia across this many platforms prior to Australia closing its
212 borders. Therefore, we believe our dataset to be the best available representation of pre-
213 COVID conditions and is referred to as a pre-COVID snapshot hereafter.

214
215 We used literal character string (i.e., letter and number) matching with the stringr package
216 (Wickham 2022) to identify listing titles or text that contained scientific, common and
217 trade names (in that respective order of priority) from our reference library, at the
218 taxonomic resolution of species and subspecies. For the remaining unmatched listings, we
219 performed fuzzy string matching with the same list of names using a Levenshtein edit
220 distance of two (i.e., matches any string within any combination of two-character
221 additions, deletions or substitutions), excluding names of six or fewer characters in length.
222 We also manually inspected cases where a fuzzy-string match yielded a notably higher
223 number of listings and excluded this string if matches did not contain the target taxa.
224 Finally, we repeated this process for unmatched listings against names at the resolution of
225 family and genera. For listings that failed to match any literal or fuzzy string, we omitted
226 them based on a pre-defined list of exclusion terms (Appendix D) and manually inspected
227 the remaining unidentified listing text to determine if any pet was advertised for sale. If
228 one or more pets were advertised for sale, we manually assigned them to the most specific
229 taxonomic rank possible. In some instances, a pet was advertised that had not yet been

230 taxonomically described yet is present in trade and referred to using hobby-specific
231 terms/jargon (e.g., undescribed catfish). In such instances, we recorded taxonomy at a
232 coarser level (genus, family or order, where possible).

233

234 For listings that matched multiple names, we manually inspected the text and recorded
235 each unique taxon that was advertised for sale, ensuring that the unique listing identifier
236 was recorded for each taxon. We omitted highly domesticated taxa from our analysis,
237 namely pigeons (*Columba livia*) and chickens (*Gallus gallus*). We generated species
238 accumulation curves by randomly sampling listings without replacement and plotted the
239 number of species detected against sampling effort.

240

241 For websites that provided a unique listing identifier, we used this to distinguish between
242 unique listings, otherwise we used the unique combination of listing title and text to
243 distinguish between unique listings. However, this does not account for the possibility that
244 the same product may be advertised multiple times in different listings that have small
245 differences in text description. Due to the considerable quantity of listings selling pets
246 (62 584, not including listings selling pet products), we deemed it logistically infeasible to
247 manually verify the uniqueness of listings or to manually establish additional information
248 such as the quantity of pets for sale. If listings specified a ‘pair’ or ‘trio’ of animals,
249 quantity was assumed to be two or three respectively. Listings referring to animals using a
250 plural term (e.g., dragons, parrots) were assumed to be advertising two individuals, noting
251 that the actual number may be higher. Listings that referred to a ‘colony’ or other
252 collective terms were conservatively assumed to be advertising five individuals. We did
253 not determine listing quantity based on the presence of numerical character strings (i.e.,
254 digits) due to the prevalence of information in free form text that contained digits yet was
255 unrelated to quantity (e.g., addresses, phone numbers). Given the diversity of platforms,
256 taxa and locations covered by our online surveillance, as well as human ethical
257 considerations of contacting pet traders directly, we were unable to manually verify the
258 veracity of advertisements.

259

260 We collated International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) threat status of all
261 traded species, and Global Invasive Species Database (GISD) records of invasive species,
262 to categorise advertised pets based on their conservation status and history of invasions
263 respectively. For birds we also compared the species identified for sale with the offline
264 aviculture records previously collated by Vall-Ilosera and Cassey (2017c). We cross
265 referenced scientific names and, where necessary, upstream taxonomy against the
266 Australian Commonwealth ‘List of Specimens Taken to be Suitable for Live Import’ (Live
267 Import List hereafter). For the subset of listings that were identified to species level and
268 contained a specified location, we determined the rate of trade per region (i.e., city, town or
269 municipality). The native/non-native status of reptile and bird species were determined by
270 visually inspecting the distribution records listed in GBIF (2021), excluding introduced
271 populations. Due to the large diversity of fish taxa detected, we cross-referenced scientific
272 names against the Australian Faunal Directory (AFD) list of native species, including
273 scientific name synonyms, in order to determine native/non-native status (AFD 2022).
274 Similarly, we also identified non-native species that are known to be introduced using the
275 AFD list.

3. Results

We have recorded a notable diversity of non-domesticated pets traded online in Australia, with 1192 species detected, including 667 non-native species (56.0%). Species accumulation curves reveal a plateau in new bird species throughout our 14-week sampling period. Notably, fish and reptile species continued to accumulate without plateaux (Fig. 1). We detected a total of 62 584 listings advertising at least 109 056 live animals (52 409 non-native; 47.6%) at the species level, including a minimum of 66 894 individual birds (24 899 non-native; 37.2%), 30 343 fish (27 455 non-native; 90.5%), 11 603 reptiles (all native), and 216 amphibians (55 non-native; 25.5%). For listings that contained location information, most trade occurred in highly populous cities, namely Sydney (22 797 animals), Melbourne (13 866 animals), Brisbane (10 424 animals) and Perth (9854 animals). The highest volume of trade was concentrated in the most populous Australian States, namely New South Wales (35 181 animals), Queensland (26 781 animals), and Victoria (17 188 animals) (see Appendix E for summaries of trade frequency per region). The vast majority of trade took place on classifieds sites (60 306 listings; 96.4%), followed by pet stores (2 089 listings; 3.34%) and forums (189 listings; 0.302%). There was a high diversity of species that were not found on more than one website (600 species, 50.3%), implying a high level of e-commerce specialisation catering to specific hobbies or consumer types.

Fish were the most species-rich taxon traded with 885 distinct taxa – 805 species, one subspecies and eight hybrids, including taxa that could only be identified at the level of genus ($n = 53$), family ($n = 15$), and order ($n = 3$). 553 of identified species are non-native (62.5%; constituting 18 850 listings). A total of 279 non-native fish species are illegal to import into Australia based on the Live Import List yet were detected in our trade snapshot. Perciformes were the most species-rich order of fish in trade (perch and relatives, 483 species), followed by Siluriformes (catfishes, 88 species), Characiformes (characins, 57 species) and Cypriniformes (carp and relatives, 56 species), which collectively account for 85.0% of identified fish species richness (Fig. 2).

We detected 228 distinct taxa of birds – 184 species, 11 subspecies, nine hybrids and two domesticated breeds, including taxa that could only be identified at the level of genus ($n = 18$) and family ($n = 4$). 113 of identified species are non-native species (61.4%; constituting 16 345 listings). The most species-rich bird order in trade was Psittaciformes (parrots, 99 species), followed by Passeriformes (passerines, 48 species) and Galliformes (fowl and relatives, 16 species). The native red-collared lorikeet (*Trichoglossus rubritorquis*) and four species of non-native birds were not already listed on the 2007 inventory of known bird species traded in Australia, implying that they have been newly introduced into the trade since this inventory was created (DAWE 2021). While the updated classification of *T. rubritorquis* (previously the rainbow lorikeet (*Trichoglossus moluccanus*)), may have obscured their trade in this earlier inventory, there is no such explanation for the non-native Pacific parrotlet (*Forpus coelestis*), olive-headed lorikeet (*Trichoglossus euteles*), yellow-fronted canary (*Crithagra mozambica*) or orange-breasted waxbill (*Amandava subflava*). Of the 197 non-native bird species previously identified by Vall-Ilosera and Cassey (2017c), 91 species were not detected in our online surveillance.

We detected 237 distinct taxa of reptiles - 186 species, 25 subspecies and 14 hybrids, including taxa that could only be identified at the level of genus ($n = 7$), family ($n = 3$), suborder ($n = 1$), and order ($n = 1$). All detected species were native, although we did detect two expressions of interest (i.e., ‘wanted’ advertisements) for the prohibited non-native corn snake (*Pantherophis guttatus*). Lizards (122 species) were the most species-

328 rich reptile taxa in trade, followed by Serpentes (snakes, 44 species), Testudines (turtles,
329 18 species) and Crocodylians (crocodiles, 2 species).

330

331 Amphibian trade was relatively sparse, with 18 distinct taxa detected, including 17 species,
332 one of which is non-native (5.88%; constituting 55 listings). Frogs (Anura) were most
333 species-rich taxa in trade, with 16 species. The only other amphibian species was the
334 axolotl (*Ambystoma mexicanum*), the sole non-native amphibian. There was a low diversity
335 and abundance of native amphibians relative to reptiles in Australia, with the magnitude of
336 the disparity between taxa not represented in other studies (Hughes et al. 2021). This may
337 be due to the low diversity of Australian amphibian fauna (247 species of anurans
338 compared to 1034 species of reptile; AmphibiaWeb 2023; Melville 2021).

339

340 Twenty of the traded non-native pet species identified here are invasive elsewhere in the
341 world, according to GISD (Appendix F). In addition, a total of 22 traded non-native fish
342 species have introduced populations in Australia, including species that are invasive
343 elsewhere such as jaguar cichlids (*Parachromis managuensis*) (Holmes et al. 2020) and
344 species whose invasion potential has yet to be realised, such as Siamese fighting fish (*Betta*
345 *splendens*) (Hammer et al. 2019). Of the 1192 species identified in our trade snapshot, 81
346 were classified by the IUCN as threatened (12 Critically Endangered, 35 Endangered, 34
347 Vulnerable), and 35 classified as Near Threatened. Most taxa were classified as Least
348 Concern (797), with the remaining taxa classified as Data Deficient (38) or simply Not
349 Listed (241). Many examples of species not listed, such as *Peckoltia compta* and
350 *Symphysodon discus*, have highly restricted known range sizes and it is possible that their
351 eventual assessment will categorise them as Threatened.

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4. Discussion

4.1. Scale of the non-native pet trade

Our online surveillance has captured a considerable richness of traded non-native pets (667 species) and, to the best of our knowledge, provided the only contemporary and systematic survey of online pet trade frequency in Australia. While there are existing audits of non-native species such as compiled avicultural records (197 bird species; Vall-Ilosera and Cassey 2017c) and a species inventory compiled by the Australian government in collaboration with the ornamental fish industry (447 fish species; Millington et al. 2022b), our online surveillance reveals that contemporary understanding of the domestic non-native pet trade is far from comprehensive. The lack of saturation in the accumulation of new species (for fish and reptiles) despite extensive sampling of tens of thousands of advertisements suggests that the true diversity of non-native taxa traded in Australia has yet to be determined and implies that the biosecurity threat posed by the pet-release pathway continues to be underestimated. This is further evidenced by our surveillance failing to detect 91 species identified from offline aviculture records (Vall-Ilosera and Cassey 2017c). Additional trade may be taking place across the deep web, namely social media platforms (see Appendix G for considerations of Deep Web surveillance).

Further temporal sampling is underway to facilitate analysis of greater quantities of data taking place across multiple years. However, the immediate and long-term effects of COVID-19 on the Australian pet trade have yet to be investigated, which may frustrate efforts to exhaustively quantify the full suite of traded taxa if online trade is occurring less frequently than previously. Most e-commerce platforms provide user feedback metrics as a proxy for online reputation, meaning there is incentive for traders to advertise pets accurately (Bojang et al. 2017). Nonetheless, we acknowledge that the advertised information does not necessarily accurately reflect the attributes of the pet for sale, and that some fake/misleading advertisements may be present within our dataset.

Although our research focused on the trade and regulation of non-native species nationally in Australia, we also note that the majority of the 667 traded non-native species are not regulated at a State/Territory level. Even high-risk species that are regulated or prohibited are not done so uniformly across jurisdictions. For example, *P. krameri* is prohibited in Tasmania and Western Australia yet can be traded without regulation or permits in other States (Woolnough et al. 2020). Such inconsistent regulation is rarely successful; rather creating opportunities for subversion of trade via other jurisdictions (e.g., Raghavan et al. 2013). We recommend that State/Territory governments use our collected data to cross-reference against their jurisdiction-specific regulations and identify non-compliant trade. Alternatively, we recommend that research and government authorities work collaboratively to collate all legislation pertaining to the domestic keeping and trading of pets across all Australian jurisdictions, in order to provide a resource that can be readily cross-examined against trade data analogous to the data collected in our research.

The lack of regulation not only hinders the ability of Australian biosecurity authorities to control the trade of high-risk species, such as well-known invasive species listed in GISD, but it also deprives those authorities of a systematic means of recording data pertaining to trade and escapes. For example, South Australia's permit system for the keeping of native species obligates permit holders to keep a record of the number of individuals that have been sold, bred and escaped over a given reporting period, yet no equivalent system is in place for non-native species. As such, the trade-related propagule pressure remains unquantified for hundreds of non-native species. The findings of Toomes et al. (2022)

404 suggest that, for native pets, propagule pressure is proportional to the quantity of
405 possession. Assuming this pattern extends to non-native species, our surveillance data
406 provides a proxy measure of relative propagule pressure and may assist with the creation of
407 priority lists for future management strategies/interventions.

408

409 4.2. Comparison with illegal seizures

410

411 The 111 species of non-native reptile detected during smuggling attempts or from illegal
412 captivity in Australia (Toomes et al. 2019) were not detected in our surface web
413 surveillance. Recent investigation of illicit e-commerce suggest that illegal pet trade is
414 similarly rare on dark web platforms (Harrison et al. 2016; Stringham et al. 2022), though
415 deep web (i.e., social media) trade warrants further investigation (see Section 4.3).

416

417 In contrast to the paucity of nationally prohibited species recorded here, non-uniformly
418 prohibited species (e.g., *P. krameri* in Western Australia and Tasmania) were routinely
419 recorded in prohibited jurisdictions, albeit in lower abundances than permitted
420 jurisdictions. While part of this trade may be due to a lack of awareness surrounding the
421 specific and varying trade regulations in different jurisdictions, their availability may
422 instead illustrate the blatant disregard for trade regulations. Future communication with the
423 traders responsible for infringements may reveal the extent to which taxa are traded
424 knowingly. Regardless, our results show a clear parallel between Australia's policy
425 regarding domestic trade of non-native species and both the quantity and diversity of
426 contemporary trade. Non-native fish and birds, while mostly illegal to import, are legal to
427 trade without quota or documentation unless specifically declared as prohibited (usually
428 via the Biosecurity Act 2015 (DAWR 2019)) by a State or Territory. In contrast, all non-
429 native reptiles are prohibited except for non-commercial purposes. This inconsistency in
430 policy is worthy of further interrogation because there is no evidence that biosecurity threat
431 posed by reptile and non-reptile taxa are fundamentally different, as evidenced by the
432 number of introduced and known invasive vertebrates currently present in Australia (Vall-
433 llosera and Cassey 2017b). Additionally, educating the public and the pet supply chain on
434 trade regulations specific to each State and Territory may aid in reducing the incidence of
435 non-uniformly prohibited species advertisements in prohibited jurisdictions.

436

437 4.3. Trade of threatened taxa

438

439 The impacts of wildlife trade, be they biosecurity, animal welfare or conservation related,
440 are often difficult to identify (Morton et al. 2021). Many threatened taxa are traded
441 globally, yet trade is not a threatening process if conducted sustainably (i.e., via captive
442 breeding (Tensen 2016)). We found examples of both native and non-native species in our
443 analysis that are known to be threatened by wild harvest, including the broad-headed snake
444 (*Hoplocephalus bungaroides*; Jolly et al. 2020) and Lake Malawi cichlids (Cichlidae;
445 Msukwa et al. 2021). However, we cannot estimate the proportion of trade recorded in our
446 analysis that was captive-bred versus wild-caught, as most traders did not provide this
447 information. Indeed, there is no onus to provide traded pet species origin information in
448 Australia despite calls for green certification (Millington et al. 2022a), which would
449 simultaneously educate the general public and allow potential consumers to make an
450 informed decision to purchase pets based on sustainability. One measure to ensure that the
451 pet trade is not a driver of unsustainable trade is the use of a permit system to regulate the
452 trade of threatened taxa (e.g., by issuing permit quotas or by requiring proof of captive-
453 bred provenance). Currently, permit systems only exist in some Australian jurisdictions for
454 certain taxa, such as in South Australia (Toomes et al. 2022). Various State and Territory
455 departments tasked with wildlife management could use South Australia's system as a

456 template, with the decision to control or reduce trade based on species' life history traits
457 and rate-of-trade data.

458

459 4.4. Taxonomy and trade

460

461 Pet traders are often abreast of contemporary taxonomy, however there are inevitably
462 instances whereby outdated taxonomy is used when advertising pets for sale. There are
463 also instances where a trade/hobby community acknowledge a taxonomic revision yet
464 continue to use a longstanding yet outdated scientific synonyms, for example 'Nephurus
465 mili' is often used to refer to barking geckos (*Underwoodisaurus mili*). Many hybrids are
466 also commonly traded, yet the origin species that constitute the hybrid are not always
467 conclusively known. This is exemplified by the popular flowerhorn cichlid (see Fig. 3),
468 which is believed to originate from a multi-generation hybrid of several *Cichlasoma*
469 species with *Vieja synspila* (Nico et al. 2007). Other examples include red Texas cichlids
470 (*Cichlidae* sp.), lemon bristlenose catfish (*Ancistrus* sp.) and pigeon blood discus
471 (*Symphysodon* sp.). Such instances need to be considered during future efforts to monitor
472 online trade, and synonyms should be considered wherever possible when querying
473 character strings against large volumes of trade data.

474

475 There were many ornamental fish that have not been formerly described and yet are
476 nonetheless widely known and traded both in previous research and during our surveillance
477 (Tan and Armbruster 2016). This lack of taxonomic resolution stifles efforts to evaluate
478 both the biosecurity threat of traded fish, as well as the risk trade poses to their
479 conservation. For example, there are several undescribed cichlid fish from Lake Malawi
480 that are known only as captive-bred colour morphs (Msukwa et al. 2022). Similarly, there
481 are a diversity of catfish that can only be identified to genus level yet are partitioned into
482 'pseudo' taxonomic units by traders using so-called 'L numbers' (Glaser and Glaser 1995),
483 representing as-yet undescribed taxa within the family Loricariidae that do not necessarily
484 map to distinct species (Cardoso et al. 2016).

485

486 Undescribed and/or hybrid fish are nonetheless known to be introduced (Maciaszek et al.
487 2019) or invasive (Herder et al. 2012) elsewhere in the world. Similarly, undescribed
488 species can still face conservation threats: approximately 28 000 individual fish are
489 harvested from Lake Malawi each year to supply the ornamental trade, the majority of
490 which are undescribed, which limits capacity to understand whether overharvesting is
491 occurring (Msukwa et al. 2021). Considerable effort is therefore required to keep abreast of
492 hobbyist naming conventions, particularly if future taxonomic resolution occurs (e.g.,
493 recent scientific description of *Geophagus* sp. "Tapajos Red head" as *Geophagus*
494 *pyrocephalus* (Chuctaya et al. 2022)). To this end, the work conducted by Novák et al.
495 (2022) provides a useful template of how hobbyist pseudo-taxonomic units such as L
496 numbers can be matched (in some cases) to current taxonomy.

497 **5. Conclusion**

498

499 Australia's biosecurity priorities are commendable, yet its management of non-native pets
500 falls short of a system that comprehensively reduces known and/or identifiable risks. We
501 have provided the first instance of a systematic survey identifying a large diversity of non-
502 native taxa including the first known systematic record of the frequency of online trade in
503 Australia. Our results include undescribed taxa as well as hybrids with poorly documented
504 provenance. A high diversity of threatened taxa are also traded, though the sustainability of
505 trade is difficult to verify considering the paucity of information regarding captive-bred
506 status. We recommend continued online surveillance in lieu of the lack of the saturation in
507 species accumulation, as well as an expansion of this methodology to deep web platforms,
508 as we likely did not detect all species in the trade. Ultimately such surveillance can support
509 evidence-informed policy changes to more closely align the trade of non-native pets with a
510 nation's biosecurity priorities.

511

512 **Declaration of Competing Interests**

513

514 We declare no conflicts of interest.

515 **References**

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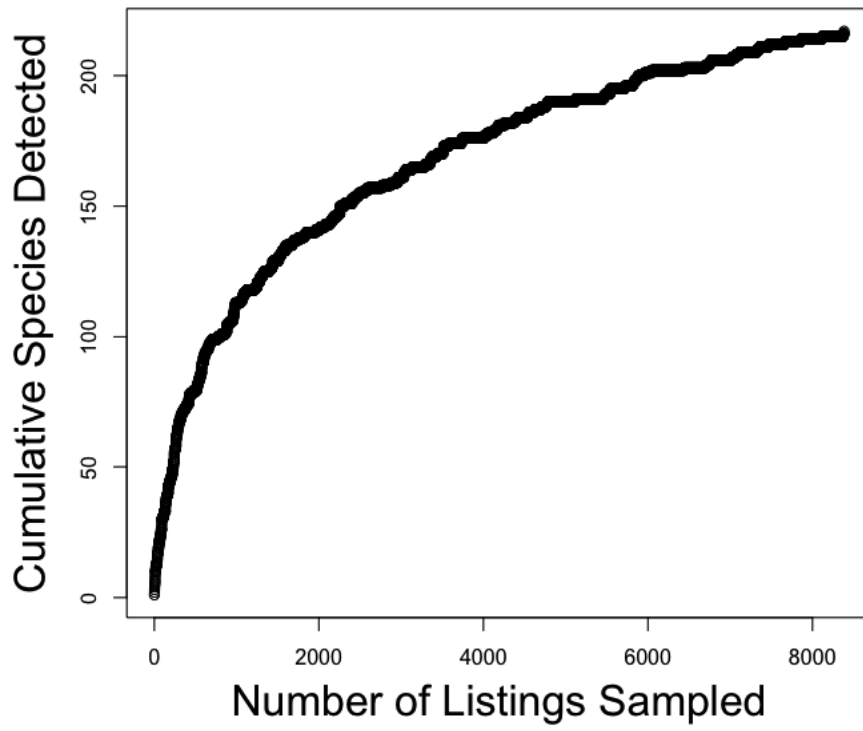
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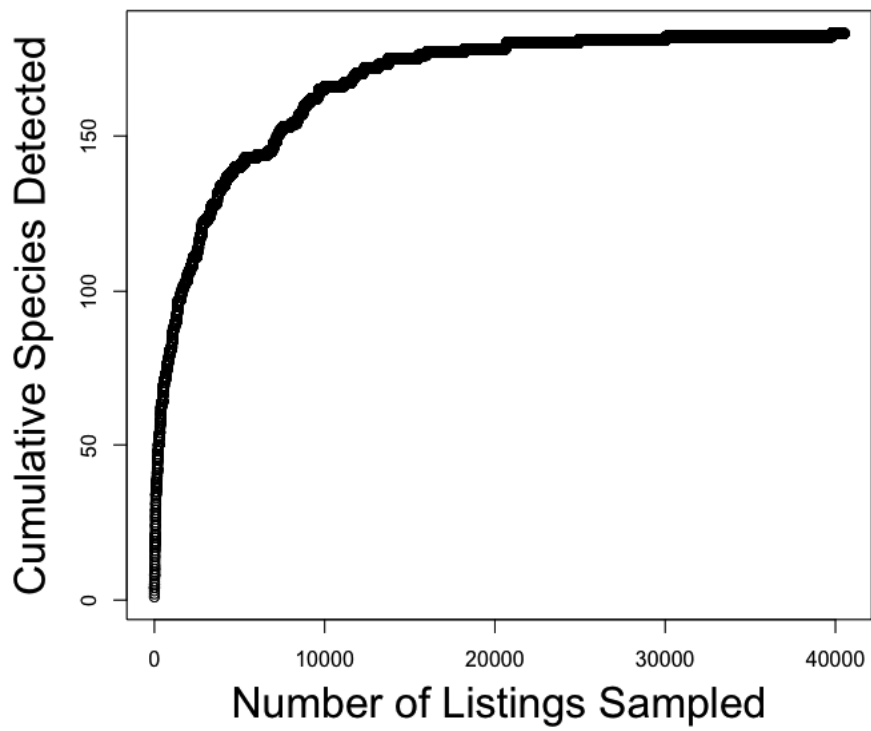
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Reptiles

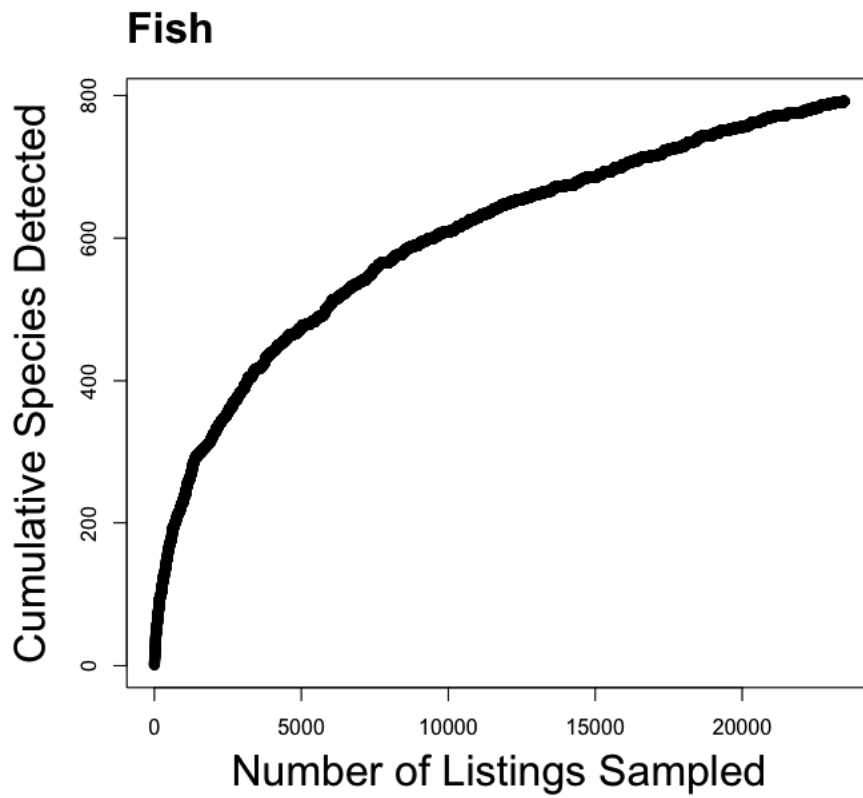


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Birds

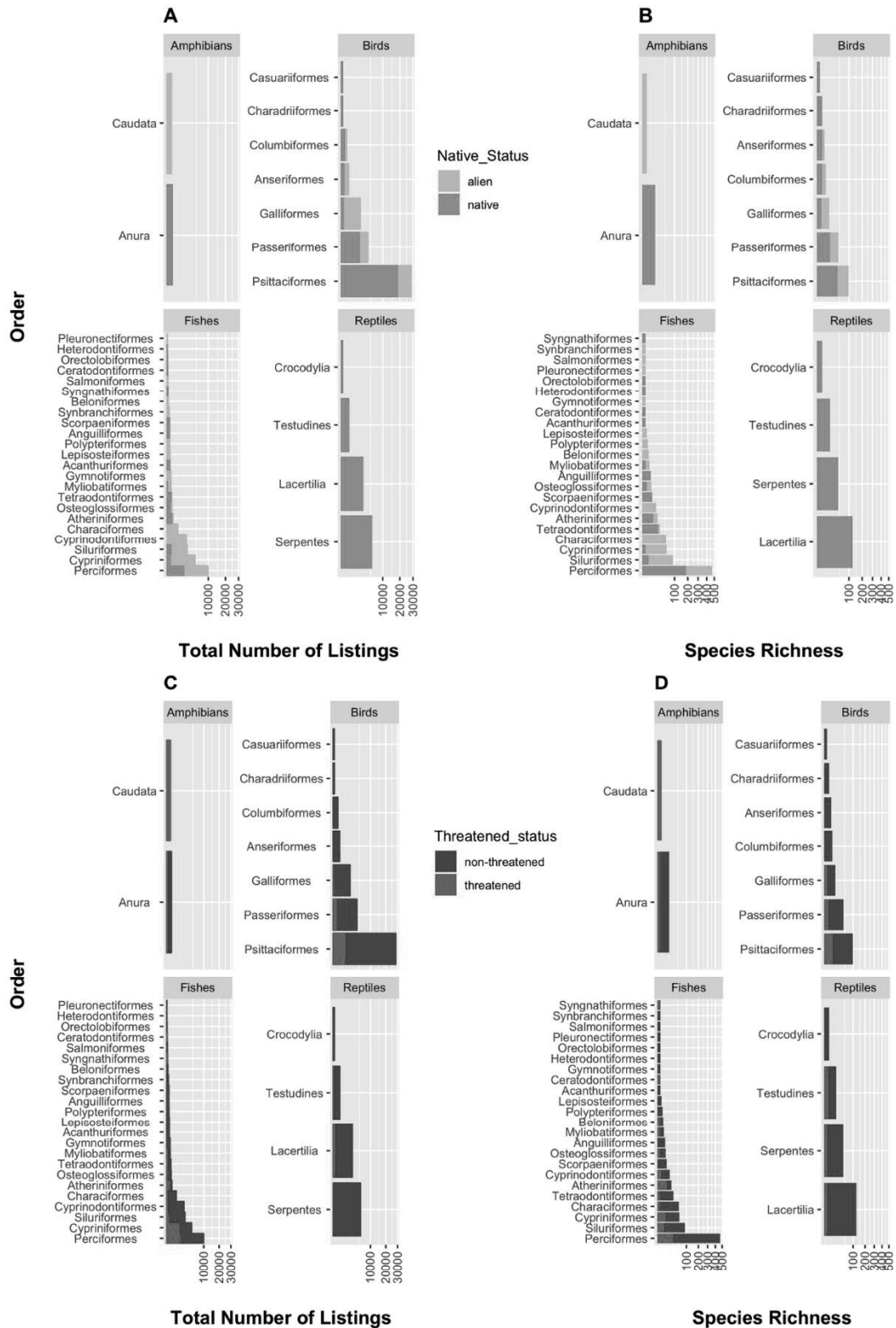


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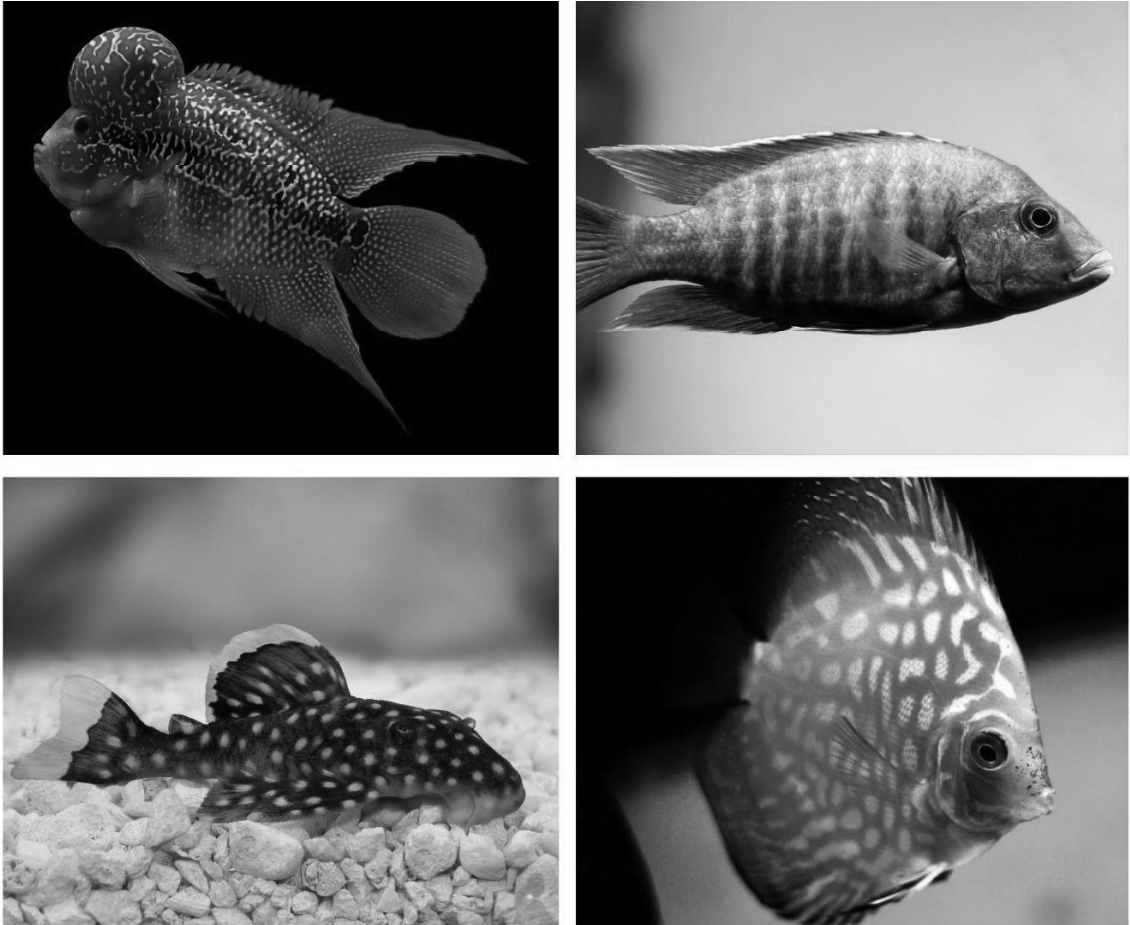
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718 **Fig. 1.** Species accumulation curve for reptile, bird and fish taxa detected in Australian e-
719 commerce trade. Raw data is displayed after randomly sampling species without
720 replacement from all listings.



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Fig. 2. Total number of listings (A and C) and species richness (B and D) of e-commerce trade by taxonomic order for native and non-native species (A and B), and for threatened and non threatened species (C and D), displayed on a square-root scale. Threat status was determined based on the IUCN Red List, with the Endangered, Critically Endangered and Vulnerable categories being classed as threatened.



728
 729 **Fig. 3.** Examples of traded pet fish that are difficult to taxonomically identify yet are
 730 nonetheless referred to by traders using pseudo-taxonomic units. Clockwise from top-left:
 731 flowerhorn cichlid (multi-species hybrid of *Cichlasoma* species with *Vieja synspila*); hongi
 732 (undescribed *Labidochromis* sp. erroneously referred to as *Labidochromis hongii*); pigeon
 733 blood discus (captive-bred colour morph of unknown *Symphysodon* sp.); gold nugget pleco
 734 (*Baryancistrus xanthellus*, previously referred to as L018 and L085 before being formerly
 735 described in 2011 (Py-Daniel *et al.* 2011)). Image credit, clockwise from top-left:
 736 patanasak (Getty Images); ArtEvent ET (Getty Images); vojce (Getty Images);
 737 Mirko_Rosenau (Getty Images).

Highlights

- We interrogated dynamics of the online vertebrate pet trade in Australia from both conservation and biosecurity risk perspectives, as an example of a jurisdiction with strict import laws, but inconsistent domestic trade regulations.
- We use semi-automated webscraping to collect vertebrate pet trade data from 12 Australian e-commerce platforms over a 14-week period prior to Australia's COVID-19 border closures.
- We found 1192~~0~~ species being traded domestically as pets within Australia, including 6674~~1~~ non-native species and 81~~8~~ threatened species. The trade in non-native pets is highly unregulated, including 279~~8~~ species traded domestically that are illegal to import live.
- Trade of undescribed or taxonomically unresolved taxa was widespread, with 'pseudo-taxonomic' naming conventions employed by hobbyists in lieu of scientific or common names.
- Taxonomically coarse classifications of importable taxa allow for the inclusion of as-yet undescribed taxa with unknown biosecurity risk. Australia's domestic trade is not subject to the same scrutiny as border-level transport of non-native species, providing a loophole for the high-frequency trade of already-present invasive non-native pets.

A snapshot of online wildlife trade: Australian e-commerce trade of native and non-native pets

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CRedit Author Contribution Statement

Adam Toomes: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing – Original Draft

Steph Moncayo: Methodology, Validation, Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Oliver C. Stringham: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Software, Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Charlotte Lassaline: Validation, Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Lisa Wood: Validation, Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Mariah Millington: Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Charlotte Drake: Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Charlotte Jense: Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Ashley Allen: Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Katherine G.W. Hill: Validation, Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing

Pablo García- Díaz: Conceptualisation, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision

Lewis Mitchell: Conceptualisation, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision

Phill Cassey: Conceptualisation, Resources, Funding Acquisition, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision

Data Availability

As our data contains potentially identifiable or re-identifiable information, we have chosen not to publish it in any publicly available archive. However, we have published a dataset summarising the rate of trade for native and non-native species within Australia, which can be found at: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.20956339.v1>.

Declaration of Competing Interests

We declare no conflicts of interest.

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Supplementary Material

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