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# 1 **Climate suitability as a predictor of conservation translocation failure**

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## 8 **Abstract**

9

10 The continuing decline and loss of biodiversity has caused an increase in the use of interventionist  
11 conservation tools such as translocation. However, many translocation attempts fail to establish  
12 viable populations, with poor release site selection often flagged as an inhibitor of success. We used  
13 species distribution models (SDMs) to predict the climate suitability of 102 release sites for  
14 amphibians, reptiles and terrestrial insects and compared suitability predictions between successful  
15 and failed attempts. We then quantified the importance of climate suitability relative to five other  
16 variables frequently considered in the literature to be important determinants of translocation  
17 success: number of release years, number of individuals released, life stage released, origin of the  
18 source population and position of the release site relative to the species' range. We found that the  
19 probability of translocation success increased with predicted climate suitability and this effect was  
20 the strongest amongst the variables considered in our analysis, accounting for 48.3% of the variation  
21 in translocation outcome. These findings should encourage greater consideration of climate  
22 suitability when selecting release sites for conservation translocations and we advocate the use of  
23 SDMs as an effective way of doing this.

24

## 25 **Introduction**

26

27 Threatened species management is increasingly involving more interventionist forms of conservation  
28 action to secure viable metapopulations and reverse local extinctions (Hobbs et al. 2011).

29 Conservation translocation, defined as the intentional human-mediated movement of organisms  
30 from one location to another for conservation purposes (IUCN 2013), represents one such approach.

31 In recent decades, there has been a global proliferation in the number of translocation-related  
32 studies (Seddon et al. 2007; Taylor et al. 2017). However, many translocations fail to establish viable  
33 populations (Fischer & Lindenmayer 2000; Cochran-Biederman et al. 2015). Attempts to improve  
34 translocation practice have identified a number of influential factors, such as the origin of the source  
35 population (Cayuela et al. 2019), the length of supplementary feeding (White et al. 2012), the life  
36 stage of individuals released (Muths et al. 2014) and the overall habitat suitability of the release site  
37 (Cochran-Biederman et al. 2015). Climate constitutes a fundamental component of overall habitat  
38 suitability but has received little attention in the literature, with very few translocation projects  
39 explicitly citing the use of techniques to estimate climate suitability (but see Brooker et al. 2018).  
40 Instead, past attempts have often relied on previous occupancy and the intuition of involved parties  
41 to select release sites (Osborne & Seddon 2012).

42

43 Poor release site selection has been flagged as an impediment to translocation success (Osborne &  
44 Seddon 2012). To mitigate the risk of poor release site selection, the updated Guidelines for  
45 Reintroductions and Other Conservation Translocations (IUCN 2013) recommend that “the climate  
46 requirements of the focal species should be understood and matched to current and/or future  
47 climate at the destination site”. Species distribution models (SDMs) represent the most widely  
48 advocated approach for dealing with the challenge of selecting climatically suitable release sites  
49 (Osborne & Seddon, 2012; IUCN, 2013; but see White et al. 2015). SDMs identify statistical  
50 relationships between species occurrence and environmental descriptors. However, SDMs have  
51 recognized weaknesses such as the potential for disequilibrium between range and niche due to

52 dispersal limitations and biotic interactions (Svenning & Sandel 2013). Furthermore, examples of  
53 translocation projects explicitly outlining the use of SDMs to guide management decisions are scarce  
54 (Guisan et al. 2013; but see Brooker et al. 2018; Maes et al. 2019).

55

56 Ectothermic species are particularly sensitive to climate (Angilletta et al. 2004). Temperature  
57 regulates the metabolism and physiology of ectotherms, which in turn affects the demographic  
58 performance of ectothermic populations through controls on their development, growth,  
59 reproduction, overwinter survival and behaviour. Precipitation also affects many of these  
60 parameters (Saenz et al. 2006), not as directly as temperature, but in some cases with  
61 equal/increased severity (Ficetola & Maiorano 2016). The metabolic and physiological controls  
62 imposed by temperature and precipitation on ectotherms mean that the performance of  
63 translocated populations is strongly influenced by exposure to climatic conditions present at release  
64 sites. Therefore, it is unsurprising that for a number of failed translocation projects involving  
65 ectotherms, the authors proposed that unfavourable temperature and precipitation regimes  
66 impeded population establishment (e.g. Cook in prep; Dempster & Hall 1980; Kuussaari et al. 2015).

67

68 In this paper, we analysed data extracted from the available literature on the outcomes of  
69 amphibian, reptile and terrestrial insect translocations from a range of biogeographical regions. We  
70 constructed global SDMs for each species to compare the predicted climate suitability between sites  
71 of successful and failed translocation projects and then quantified the importance of climate  
72 suitability as a predictor of translocation success relative to five other variables commonly reported  
73 in the literature. These include how many individuals were released (Germano & Bishop 2009; Bellis  
74 et al. 2019), the duration of releases (Griffith et al. 1989), the life stage of individuals released  
75 (Muths et al. 2014; Cayuela et al. 2019), whether the source population was captive-bred or wild-  
76 caught (Rummel et al. 2016) and the position of the release site relative to the species' range  
77 (Griffith et al. 1989). We hypothesized *a priori* that translocations have a higher probability of

78 success at sites with higher predicted climate suitability (Lee-Yaw et al. 2016). Our study represents  
79 the first global comparative analysis on the importance of climate suitability in determining  
80 translocation outcome and the usefulness of SDMs as a conservation tool for aiding the selection of  
81 release sites.

82

## 83 **Methods**

84

### 85 **Literature search**

86

87 We applied a range of approaches to find translocation case studies useful for quantifying the  
88 relative importance of climate suitability as a predictor of translocation success. As translocation  
89 reviews have already been published for herpetofauna (Dodd & Seigel 1991; Germano & Bishop  
90 2009) and terrestrial insects (Bellis et al. 2019), we began by capitalizing on the case studies found in  
91 these reviews. The herpetofauna reviews only covered literature up until 2006, thus, for relevant  
92 literature published post-2006 (until 2018) we performed our own search on the 'Thomson Reuters  
93 Web of Science'. We used the following advanced search criteria: TS=((reintro\* OR re-intro\* OR  
94 translocat\* OR conservation translocat\* OR reinforce\* OR re-inforce\* OR reenforce\* OR re-enforce\*  
95 OR assisted migration OR assisted colonization OR assisted colonisation OR conservation  
96 introduction OR ecological replacement OR augment\* OR restor\* OR restock\* OR re-stock\* OR  
97 reseed\* OR re-seed\* OR managed relocation) AND (amphibian OR reptile)). The search retrieved  
98 1,419 results. We then imported all of the resulting papers into EndNote referencing software and  
99 manually screened each record to verify its relevance to amphibian and reptile translocation (see  
100 Supporting Information for full inclusion criteria). We screened the reference sections of each  
101 relevant paper to find additional studies of relevance. We also included translocation projects that  
102 were found via personal communication with authors. For terrestrial insects, as well as using the  
103 case studies found in Bellis et al. (2019), which covered the published literature up until the time of

104 the current study, we also included translocation projects found through personal communication  
105 with authors. For every conservation translocation, we collected data on five predictor variables in  
106 addition to climate suitability (Table 1; Supporting Information).

107

### 108 **Defining translocation success**

109

110 There is no broadly accepted definition of translocation success (Robert et al. 2015) and this was  
111 reflected in the variability of definitions adopted in the translocation projects that we found. For the  
112 purposes of this study, we adopted our own standardized definition of translocation success, but  
113 note that alternative metrics such as a translocated population's finite rate of increase (growth rate  
114 predicted when the sex and age distribution stabilizes) have been used (Armstrong & Reynolds  
115 2012). We defined translocations as successful if they met the following three criteria: i)  $\geq 10$  years  
116 had elapsed between the time of most recent release and most recent monitoring, ii) the period  
117 between the most recent release and most recent monitoring exceeded the generation time of the  
118 species, and iii) the results of the most recent monitoring indicated individuals were still present. We  
119 applied a 10-year minimum threshold in order to reduce the potential for abnormally favourable  
120 conditions following release to have temporarily benefitted the translocated species. Enforcing  
121 criterion ii led to the omission of seven translocations, all of which involved turtle or tortoise species  
122 with generation times exceeding 15 years. A translocation project was only considered to have failed  
123 if monitoring indicated that the species was no longer present at the site. Translocation projects that  
124 could not be categorized as a success or failure were not considered for analysis. In total, 102  
125 translocation projects covering 50 different species were eligible for statistical analysis (see  
126 Supporting Information for full eligibility criteria).

127

### 128 **Species distribution models**

129

130 Species and climate data

131

132 We downloaded species occurrence data from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF). As  
133 occurrences were very limited for endemic New Zealand species, we supplemented the GBIF data  
134 with records from the New Zealand Department of Conservation. For all species, we considered their  
135 global range in order to model the full extent of their climatic niche (Barbet-Massin et al. 2010; Raes  
136 2012). We quality control checked each species occurrence dataset and reduced spatial bias caused  
137 by unequal sampling (Supporting Information). We downloaded current climate data from the  
138 WorldClim Database at a 30 arc-second resolution (Fick & Hijmans 2017) for eight standard  
139 bioclimate predictors known/presumed to be important in structuring the distributions of  
140 ectotherms (Wiens et al. 2006; Kozak & Wiens 2007; Clusella-Trullas et al. 2011), describing annual  
141 averages, seasonality and highest/lowest monthly values of temperature and precipitation. Based on  
142 recommendations made in Barbet-Massin et al. (2012), pseudo-absences were sampled at random  
143 from the background extent for each species, weighted to reach an equal prevalence with presence  
144 records (see Supporting Information for more details).

145

146 Modeling approach

147

148 We used an ensemble of species distribution model algorithms in order to minimise the uncertainty  
149 associated with single modeling techniques (Buisson et al. 2010). Our ensemble consisted of  
150 Random Forests (RF), Generalized Boosted Models (GBM) and MaxEnt and was implemented in the  
151 *biomod2* package (v. 3.3-7) (Thuiller et al. 2016) in R v. 3.5.1 (R Core Team 2018). We evaluated  
152 model performance using the receiver operating characteristic to determine an area under the curve  
153 (AUC) (Supporting Information). In order to make SDM predictions comparable across species, we  
154 standardized the predicted climate suitability values to range between 0 and 1 with the following  
155 formula:  $(x - \min) / (\max - \min)$ . Using the standardized outputs, we extracted the climate suitability

156 values for the 1 x 1 km grid cell(s) corresponding to the location of each translocated population  
157 (Supporting Information).

158

### 159 **Statistical analysis**

160

161 We fitted a binomial multivariate generalized linear model with mixed effects (GLMM) to test how  
162 translocation outcome (binary success/failure) depends on climate suitability and five other  
163 predictor variables commonly considered in comparative analyses of translocation outcomes (see  
164 Table 1 and Supporting Information). These five variables were treated as fixed effects in the GLMM.  
165 As the three continuous variables (climate suitability, number of release years and number of  
166 individuals released) were on very different scales, we standardized them for easier interpretation of  
167 model outputs. To account for evolutionary differences between the three taxonomic groups when  
168 submitted to a translocation, we included Class as a random effect in the model. We tested for  
169 multicollinearity amongst the predictor variables using the Variation Inflation Factor (VIF),  
170 implemented in R with the package *car* (v. 3.0-2) (Fox et al. 2019). Each predictor variable had a VIF  
171 of <2, indicating minimal correlation between the predictors (Quinn & Keough 2002). The global  
172 model, including all five predictor variables and taxonomic Class, was implemented in R with the  
173 package *lme4* (v. 1.1-19) (Bates et al. 2019).

174

175 Hierarchical partitioning (Chevan & Sutherland 1991) was employed to identify the predictor  
176 variables that best accounted for variation in translocation outcome. This method calculates  
177 goodness-of-fit measures for the entire hierarchy of regression models using all two-way  
178 combinations of predictor variables to obtain the average independent contribution of each  
179 predictor to translocation outcome. Statistical significance of the independent contribution of each  
180 predictor variable was determined using a randomization approach with 1000 iterations and a  
181 significance level of 0.05 (Mac Nally 2002). Hierarchical partitioning and associated randomization



182 tests were executed in R with the package *hier.part* (v. 1.0-4) (Walsh & Mac Nally 2013).

183

## 184 **Results**

185

186 The definition of translocation success adopted for this study resulted in the categorization of 61  
187 successful translocations and 41 failures. The majority of translocation projects were carried out on  
188 the European (61%) and North American continents (35%), with a limited number of projects  
189 originating from Oceania (3%) and a single project from Asia.

190

191 The SDMs of the final species set were generally of high quality (Area Under the Curve; mean  $\pm$  S.E. =  
192  $0.935 \pm 0.003$ ), indicating good predictive power.

193

194 There was a positive relationship between the SDM-based predicted climate suitability and the  
195 probability of conservation translocation success (Figure 1; Table 2). The average climate suitability  
196 was higher at sites where conservation translocations were successful (mean  $\pm$  S.E. =  $0.576 \pm 0.030$ )  
197 compared to sites where translocations failed ( $0.365 \pm 0.037$ ). This was consistent across amphibians  
198 (successful =  $0.741 \pm 0.048$ ; failed =  $0.433 \pm 0.092$ ), reptiles (successful =  $0.538 \pm 0.048$ ; failed =  $0.356$   
199  $\pm 0.123$ ) and terrestrial insects (successful =  $0.533 \pm 0.045$ ; failed =  $0.329 \pm 0.034$ ).

200

201 When comparing the variation in translocation outcome explained by each of the variables, climate  
202 suitability came out on top (48.3%) (Figure 2). Life stage released and number of release years  
203 accounted for the second (21.3%) and third (15.3%) most variation, respectively (Figure 2). The  
204 independent effect of each of these three variables was significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) but this was not the  
205 case for origin, number of individuals released or the position of the release site. For the life stage  
206 released variable, releasing a mixture of life stages proved to be the most successful approach  
207 among the three categories considered (Table 2; Supporting Information). When considering the

208 number of years to release individuals at a site, the probability of success increased with the number  
209 of release years (Table 2; Supporting Information).

210

## 211 **Discussion**

212

213 Climate suitability predicted from SDMs was higher at sites of successful translocation. When  
214 comparing the strength of this effect against five other variables commonly considered in  
215 comparative analyses of translocation outcomes, climate suitability explained the most variation in  
216 translocation outcome. Using real-life case studies with known outcomes, our findings provide the  
217 first evidence-based support for the use of SDMs to select suitable release sites (as recommended in  
218 Osborne & Seddon 2012; IUCN 2013). These findings both highlight the importance of climate as a  
219 key influencer of translocation outcome, as well as validating the usefulness of SDMs as a tool to aid  
220 release site selection.

221

### 222 **Climate-driven translocation failure**

223

224 Explicit consideration of release site climate suitability is rarely reported in the translocation  
225 literature (though see Brooker et al. 2018), but our results indicate that it is important to the  
226 outcome of conservation translocations. This supports the findings of a recent review of terrestrial  
227 insect translocations, where weather and climate related factors were the most frequently reported  
228 causes of failure (Bellis et al. 2019). We suspect that most managers do not explicitly consider the  
229 climate suitability of release sites because the majority of translocation projects involve the release  
230 of organisms into their indigenous range (definition as per IUCN 2013), i.e. reintroduction (97% of  
231 our sample were reintroductions). The failure to assess climate suitability might be excusable given  
232 the constraints facing conservation workers on the ground, however, the frequent concordance  
233 between predicted climate suitability and translocation outcome observed in our study shows that

234 climate warrants consideration.

235

236 Climate change offers one potential explanation for why areas within the indigenous range fail to  
237 support the establishment of translocated populations, as areas that once met the climatic niche  
238 requirements of species may no longer be able to support viable populations (Wiens 2016). Some  
239 reintroductions in our sample took place many decades after the species' initial extirpation (e.g.  
240 Knisley et al. 2006; Fred & Brommer 2015) potentially allowing for considerable climate alteration at  
241 their release sites. The longer the time between initial extirpation and the planned release, the less  
242 likely the site will have retained its climatic suitability (Dalrymple & Broome 2010) and the greater  
243 the need to apply tools such as SDMs to assess the current suitability (Osborne & Seddon 2012).

244

245 An interactive effect of climate with other limiting factors not considered in our analysis offers  
246 another potential cause of climate-driven translocation failure. A substantial proportion of the  
247 release sites in our sample received climate suitability predictions of between 0.3 and 0.5 (Figure 1)  
248 and there was a relatively even mixture of successes ( $n = 16$ ) and failures ( $n = 14$ ) within this range.  
249 When examining the authors' perceived causes of failure, sub-optimal climate conditions in addition  
250 to other factors such as predation, competition and disease were frequently reported to have  
251 constrained population establishment (e.g. Harvey et al. 2014; Fred & Brommer 2015; Kuussaari et  
252 al. 2015). Behavioural alterations in response to sub-optimal climates (e.g. altered activity patterns)  
253 may diminish the effectiveness of an organism's anti-predator strategy (Mori & Burghardt 2004) or  
254 its ability to forage (Traniello et al. 1984), thus reducing its fitness. This suggests that sites with low-  
255 intermediate climate suitability (0.3 – 0.5) may require more detailed assessments of other  
256 potentially limiting factors (e.g. density of predators) before they are designated for translocation.

257

258 There were some instances of inconcordance between SDM predictions and translocation outcome  
259 in our sample (Figure 1). Local-scale processes (e.g. habitat type, biotic interactions and

260 environmental disturbances) in addition to the global macroclimate influence the overall habitat  
261 suitability of individual sites (Louthan et al. 2015). If local interactions dominate species distributions  
262 in suitable climates then the the population dynamics of translocated populations may be decoupled  
263 from macroclimatic suitability. For example, in areas of high predicted climate suitability,  
264 populations might perform poorly due to intense competition, or in response to a temporary period  
265 of unfavourable weather (Fancourt et al. 2015; Louthan et al. 2015). The same counterintuitive trend  
266 may be observed in areas of low predicted climate suitability, with populations performing well  
267 through confinement to suitable microclimates (Dullinger et al. 2012; Dahlberg et al. 2014).  
268 However, local-scale processes may also be influenced by the global macroclimate (Louthan et al.  
269 2015) and our results suggest that generalizations about habitat suitability can be made with global  
270 SDMs.

271

### 272 **Using SDMs for release site selection**

273

274 Several authors have examined potential links between climate suitability estimated from SDMs and  
275 measures of demographic performance (Thuiller et al. 2014; Lee-Yaw et al. 2016; Csergő et al. 2017).  
276 Lee-Yaw et al. (2016) used SDMs and transplant experiments to uncover the positive relationship  
277 between predicted climate suitability and the short-term individual fitness of plant and invertebrate  
278 species. The frequent concordance between climate suitability and the translocation outcome of the  
279 three ectothermic groups considered in our study provides fresh support for the use of SDMs to  
280 infer measures of demographic performance.

281

282 Our results indicate that the decision to select release sites based on SDM predictions of climate  
283 suitability influences translocation outcome more than other decisions frequently identified as  
284 important in the literature, such as how many individuals should be released (Germano & Bishop  
285 2009; Bellis et al. 2019), the duration of releases (Griffith et al. 1989), the life stage of individuals

286 released (Muths et al. 2014; Cayuela et al. 2019), whether to source from captive-bred or wild-  
287 caught stock (Rummel et al. 2016), or the position of the release site relative to the species' range  
288 (Griffith et al. 1989). There are many examples of translocation projects devoting resources to the  
289 construction of population models for making recommendations on the optimum number of animals  
290 to be released (e.g. Wagner et al. 2005; Tocher et al. 2006; Unger et al. 2013; Heikkinen et al. 2015).  
291 In contrast, none of the translocation projects included in our analyses cited the use of SDMs for  
292 making recommendations on the optimum site for release.

293

294 The limited uptake of SDMs to guide conservation management decisions was noted by Guisan et al.  
295 (2013). Based on personal experiences with managers involved in translocation projects, we believe  
296 the lack of uptake may partly be resulting from a general assumption that parameterising and  
297 running SDMs requires advanced statistical and coding expertise. Although we chose an ensemble  
298 modeling approach that requires the use of coding software, one of the individual modeling  
299 techniques that contributed to our ensemble, MaxEnt, can be run through a standalone software  
300 package with a graphical user interface (Phillips et al. 2006). MaxEnt represents one of the most  
301 popular SDM techniques and can achieve high levels of predictive performance (Elith & Graham  
302 2009; Merow et al. 2013). Our model evaluation results support this (Area Under the Curve; mean  $\pm$   
303 S.E. =  $0.849 \pm 0.007$ ), as do the climate suitability predictions, which also indicate an overall contrast  
304 between successful ( $0.579 \pm 0.033$ ) and failed ( $0.398 \pm 0.040$ ) translocations. Moreover, these  
305 outputs were generated with MaxEnt's default configurations (though see Merow et al. 2013 for  
306 potential shortfalls of retaining the default configurations). These results should encourage wider  
307 uptake of SDMs by the translocation community, irrespective of statistical and coding expertise.

308

### 309 **Limitations**

310

311 Although there was frequent concordance between predicted climate suitability and translocation

312 failure, it should be noted that failures were not always equally represented in the dataset.  
313 Specifically, due to a skewed success:failure ratio (26:5) of reptile translocations, our findings  
314 potentially carry less relevance for this group. The paucity of failed reptile translocations is not  
315 necessarily indicative of a high success rate, but instead may be explained by the greater likelihood  
316 of reporting a successful project (see Miller et al. 2014 for a review of publication rates according to  
317 translocation outcome). The large number of successful reptile translocations also provides an  
318 explanation for the unexpected negative effect of number of individuals released on translocation  
319 outcome (Table 2), which contrasts with findings from previous reviews of insect and herpetofauna  
320 translocations (Germano & Bishop 2009; Bellis et al. 2019). In our dataset, reptile translocations  
321 contributed the greatest number of successes but on average released far fewer individuals than  
322 projects involving amphibians or insects. This likely results from the fewer offspring per annum that  
323 are produced by reptiles, thus constraining the number of individuals available for release. As our  
324 sample was of an insufficient size to split by taxonomic Class, the number of individuals released  
325 variable may have been less informative than in the previous review papers.

326

327 Using correlative SDMs fitted with macroclimatic data to estimate the suitability of potential release  
328 sites may be hindered by their known weaknesses. A source of uncertainty may arise from not  
329 incorporating physiologically meaningful climate variables for all species or meaningful interactions  
330 between variables (Mod et al. 2016). AUC represents one of the most widely used evaluation metrics  
331 for SDMs, but has been criticized for its ability to assess the biological significance of models based  
332 on the set of predictor variables used (Fourcade et al. 2018). We applied a standardized approach to  
333 predict the suitability of translocation release sites by selecting eight climate variables  
334 known/presumed to be important in structuring the distributions of ectotherms (Wiens et al. 2006;  
335 Kozak & Wiens 2007; Clusella-Trullas et al. 2011), thereby conferring biological realism to the  
336 models. However, when planning for a translocation, it is advisable to adopt a more detailed  
337 species-specific variable selection protocol according to the known eco-physiology of the species of

338 interest (Austin & Van Niel 2011).

339

340 Correlative macroclimatic SDMs may also be less informative for species with few occurrence  
341 records, such as rare or data-deficient species. For rare species, the geographical range limit may be  
342 controlled by other factors such as dispersal capacity and biotic interactions (Svenning & Sandel  
343 2013), whereas data-deficiency is often an artefact of reporting mechanisms and therefore strongly  
344 dependent on the location of the species (e.g. species in the tropics, Feeley & Silman 2011). We  
345 excluded species with fewer than 30 spatially distinct occurrences as accuracy has been shown to  
346 decline severely beyond this threshold (Wisz et al. 2008). However, rare species are often the focus  
347 of translocation projects and for managers considering the movement of these species, alternative  
348 SDM methods such as the calibration of an ensemble of bivariate models (Breiner et al. 2015) or the  
349 construction of more complex mechanistic models (Kearney & Porter 2009) could be explored.

350

## 351 **Conclusions**

352

353 The effects of management decisions in conservation translocations are inherently uncertain and the  
354 fundamental step of selecting the release site is no exception (Osborne & Seddon 2012). By  
355 conducting the first global comparative analysis on the importance of climate suitability in  
356 determining translocation outcome, we provide evidence to suggest that climatic SDMs can help to  
357 reduce uncertainty in translocation projects by locating release sites with a higher probability of  
358 success. Furthermore, climate suitability explains more variation in translocation outcome than five  
359 other management-related variables that have received more attention in the literature. These  
360 findings should encourage wider adoption of SDMs by the translocation community, as they  
361 represent a useful predictive tool capable of reducing uncertainty in the planning and  
362 implementation of future translocation projects.

363

364 **Supporting Information**

365

366 Inclusion criteria and predictor variable data extraction (Appendix S1), species and climate data  
367 (Appendix S2), modeling and climate suitability extraction approach (Appendix S3), data summary  
368 (Appendix S4) and results with all failures included (Appendix S5). The authors are solely responsible  
369 for the content and functionality of these materials. Queries (other than absence of the material)  
370 should be directed to the corresponding author.

371

372 **Literature Cited**

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**Table 1.** Predictor variables used in generalized linear model with mixed effects to identify factors relating to translocation success.

<b>Variable abbreviation</b>	<b>Variable description (levels)</b>
ClimSuit	Predicted climate suitability of release site

NRelYears	Total number of release years
NumRel	Total number of individuals released
LifeStageRel	Life stage released (Adults, Immatures or Mixed)
Origin	Origin of source population (Wild or Captive-bred)
Position	Position of release site relative to the species' range (Core or Edge)

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**Table 2.** Generalized Linear Mixed Model results used to assess the effect of each parameter on translocation outcome for amphibians, reptiles and terrestrial insects. Variable abbreviations are described in Table 1.

Parameter	$\beta$	$\beta$ SE
(Intercept)	1.008	0.852
ClimSuit	1.161 ***	0.337
NRelYears	0.764 *	0.419
NumRel	-0.083	0.383
LifeStageRel (Immature) <sup>a</sup>	-0.892	0.719
LifeStageRel (Mixed) <sup>b</sup>	-0.267	0.876
Origin (Captive) <sup>c</sup>	-0.940	0.631
Position(Edge) <sup>d</sup>	0.827	0.585

<sup>a</sup> Estimates for LifeStageRel = Immature versus Adult

<sup>b</sup> Estimates for LifeStageRel = Mixed versus Adult

<sup>c</sup> Estimates for Origin = Captive-bred versus Wild-caught

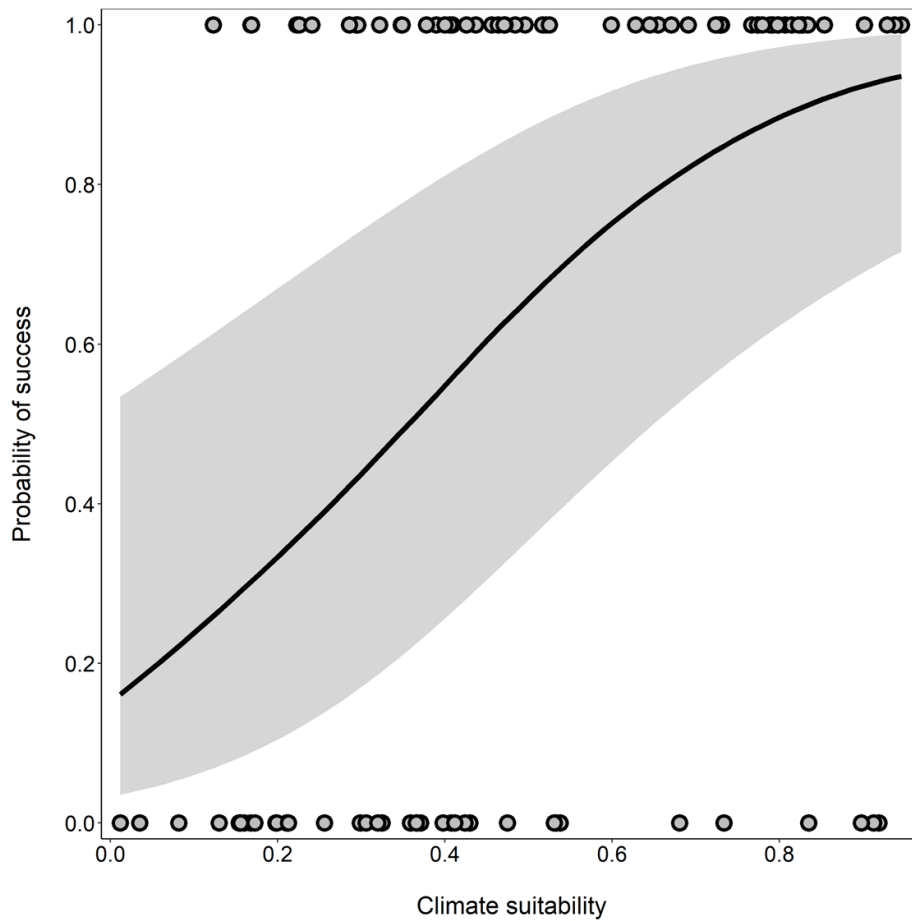
<sup>d</sup> Estimates for Position = Edge versus Core

\* Significance at 0.1 level

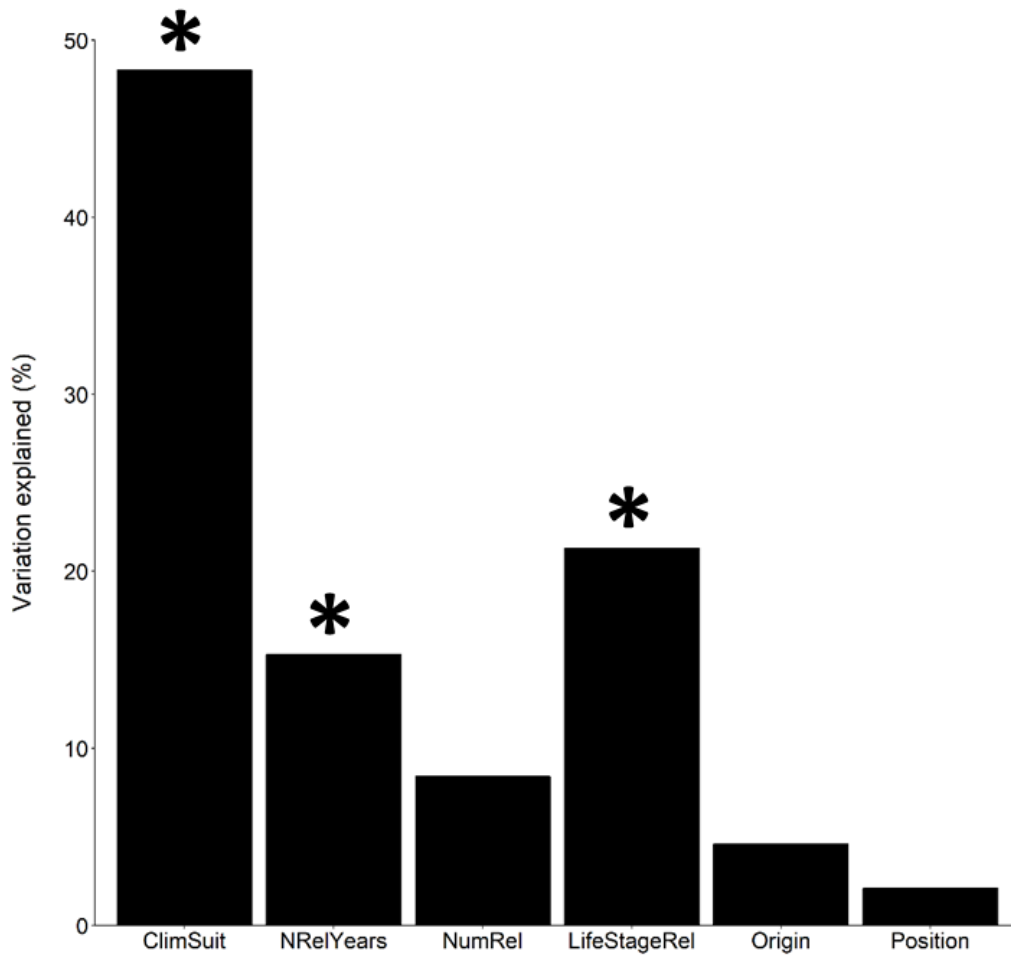
\*\*\* Significance at 0.001 level

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**Figure 1.** Effect of predicted climate suitability on model-based probabilities of translocation success for amphibians, reptiles and terrestrial insects. The shaded area indicates 95% confidence intervals.



**Figure 2.** The percentage independent contribution of each predictor variable derived by hierarchical partitioning to translocation outcome for amphibians, reptiles and terrestrial insects. Predictor variables with significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) independent contributions to translocation outcome are denoted with an asterisk. Variable abbreviations are described in Table 1.

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