

1 **Best practices, errors and perspectives of half a century of plant translocation in Italy**

2

3 **Abstract**

4 Conservation translocations are becoming common conservation practice, so there is an
5 increasing need of understanding the drivers of plant translocation performance through reviews of
6 cases at global and regional levels. The establishment of the Italian Database of Plant Translocation
7 (IDPlanT) provides the opportunity to review the techniques used in 186 plant translocation cases
8 performed in the last fifty years in the heart of the Mediterranean Biodiversity Hotspot.

9 In this study, we describe techniques and information available in IDPlanT and use these data
10 to identify drivers of translocation outcomes. To this end, we tested the effect of 15 variables on
11 survival translocated propagules at the last monitoring date, using Binary Logistic Mixed Effect
12 Models.

13 The analysis revealed that 11 variables significantly affected survival of transplants, namely:
14 life form, site protection, material source, number of source populations, propagation methods,
15 propagule life stage, planting methods, habitat suitability assessment, site preparation, aftercare and
16 costs.

17 Plant translocations in Italy and in the Mediterranean area should consider the complexity of
18 speciation, gene flow and plant migrations that has led to local adaptations with important
19 implications on the choice and constitution of source material. The integration of vegetation studies
20 for the selection of suitable planting sites can significantly increase the success of translocation
21 efforts. Whilst post-translocation watering has a general positive effects on traslocation outcome,
22 other aftercare techniques do not always increase transplant survival. Finally, we found that how
23 funds are spent appears to be more important than their actual amount.

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25 **Introduction**

26 Conservation translocations (translocation hereafter) are intentional movements of plant and
27 animal individuals for conservation purposes including population reinforcement (augmentation of
28 an existing population), reintroduction (release of an organism in a site from which it has
29 disappeared) and conservation introduction (release of an organisms outside its natural range;
30 IUCN, 2013). Whilst translocations remain high-risk and high-cost conservation practices (Fenu et
31 al., 2016), their importance in conservation biology is increasing worldwide, as demonstrated by
32 some successful projects (Maunder et al., 2000; Colas et al., 2008; Draper Munt et al., 2016;
33 Holzapfel et al., 2016; Soorae, 2021).

34 With translocation becoming a common conservation practice (Swan et al., 2018), reviews are
35 important to define the drivers of performance in plant translocation and the future advances in the
36 field. However, most translocation cases are not published in the scientific literature, either because
37 they are confined to the grey literature or because they are not published at all; recent studies on
38 both animals and plants have provided interesting information on drivers of performance in
39 translocation (Brichieri-Colombi & Moehrenschrager, 2016; Bubac et al., 2019; Silcock et al., 2019;
40 Diallo et al., 2023). In plants, translocation success in terms of transplant survival and recruitment is
41 typically related to the planting of a high number of juvenile or adult individuals from mixed source
42 populations with stable demographic trends (Godefroid et al., 2011; Dalrymple et al., 2012). Site
43 preparation, management and protection also increase the chance of better performance (Godefroid
44 et al., 2011; Whitehead et al., 2023).

45 In addition, reviews at the regional or national level have highlighted additional cues of
46 translocation success that could be useful to design specific guidelines and best practices. For
47 instance, Liu et al. (2015) showed that plant translocation performance in China was related to the
48 plant life form and to the type of plant materials used, with herbs and juvenile plants best
49 performing in terms of percentage survival. Moreover, higher flowering and fruiting performance
50 was observed among herbs propagated vegetatively, and for introductions compared to
51 reinforcements and reintroductions (Liu et al., 2015). Silcock et al. (2019) found that species life
52 form and habitat could affect translocation performance in Australia.

53 Italy is placed in the Mediterranean mega-hotspot and hosts a rich native flora of 8,249
54 vascular plant species and subspecies, including 1,739 endemic taxa (Cañadas et al., 2014; Peruzzi
55 et al., 2014; Bartolucci et al., 2018; Bartolucci et al., 2021) and high evolutionary distinct taxa
56 (Carta et al., 2019). A recent red listing initiative on about 2,400 taxa (incl. vascular and non-
57 vascular plants and lichens) highlighted that 24.3% of the assessed taxa are listed in one of the
58 IUCN threat categories (i.e., Vulnerable, Endangered or Critically Endangered; Orsenigo et al.,
59 2021), and 22.4% of the threatened taxa are Italian endemic taxa (Orsenigo et al., 2018), with 54
60 taxa already extinct or possibly extinct in the wild (Orsenigo et al., 2021). Moreover, the IV Italian
61 report on the conservation status of the 115 Italian plants listed in the European Union Directive
62 92/43/EEC “Habitats” showed that 54% are in an “unfavourable – inadequate” or “unfavourable –
63 bad” status (Fenu et al., 2021). Overall, a considerable proportion of the Italian flora requires
64 conservation action and translocations represent an effective tool to halt or reduce the risk of
65 extinction of threatened plant species.

66 In Italy the first documented plant translocation involved the iconic species *Pinus heldreichii*
67 subsp. *leucodermis* (Antoine) E.Murray in the Pollino National Park (Calabria; Brogi, 1960). This
68 translocation is a success story and likely the longest plant translocation activity ever performed, as
69 the reinforcement and reintroduction of this species are still ongoing after 64 years. Since the first
70 reinforcement of *P. heldreichii* subsp. *leucodermis*, many other plant translocations have been
71 performed in Italy, most of them (c. 98%) in the last two decades. Unfortunately, only a small
72 number of Italian translocation cases has been published in the scientific literature (Fenu et al.,
73 2016, 2019; Paoli et al., 2020) or in dedicated monographies like the IUCN Global Reintroduction
74 Perspectives (Soorae, 2021, 2022). Given the increasing use of translocation by Italian conservation
75 practitioners and scientists, it would be important to draw some recommendations from
76 translocations already performed, to support future activities and increase the probability of positive
77 outcomes. Therefore, in this study, we analyzed the results of plant translocations performed in Italy
78 since the first documented case in 1958.

79 Data analysed in this article come from the Italian Database on Plant Translocation (IDPlanT;
80 Abeli et al., 2021), a recently developed database that includes also unpublished translocations, and
81 to our knowledge, is the only translocation database that provides data on economic resources used
82 in translocations. This first complete account of plant translocation targeted to the Italian Flora aims
83 to identify best practices, errors made and future directions in plant translocation in the specific
84 Italian contexts which could also apply to other regions of the Mediterranean Basin. Considering
85 the context where the translocation analysed here have been performed, we aim to answer the
86 following questions: 1) How successful are plant translocations in Italy? 2) Are findings from
87 previous global reviews transferable to translocations in Italy? 3) Which factors shape translocation

88 success in Italy? Here we analysed translocation performance in terms of percentage survival of
89 transplants.

90 Specific hypotheses tested are: i) life form and native habitat affect translocation performance,
91 with trees and shrubs expected to have better performance than herbs; ii) the choice of the planting
92 site in most IDPlanT translocations has been made through expert-based or vegetation studies (Pott,
93 2011; Biondi, 2011), which we expect to produce lower survival performance than model-based and
94 correlational studies aimed at identifying suitable planting sites; iii) aftercare increases survival
95 performance; iv) the higher the funds allocate to a translocation project, the higher the chance of
96 plant survival.

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98 **Methods**

99 This study is based on the Italian Database of Plant Translocation (IDPlanT) created with the aim to
100 collect data on plant translocations in Italy with a standardized format (Abeli et al., 2021). This
101 database includes published and unpublished plant translocation cases, monitored on average for
102 five years after outplanting, so the description and analysis reported below refer to the medium-
103 term. Seven cases were excluded because they referred to multiple-site translocation activities,
104 without providing separate data for each site.

105

106 *Descriptive analyses*

107 The analysis of IDPlanT was conducted on 178 out of 185 cases listed in the database. Since a
108 single translocation project may imply the planting of a focal species in one or more populations,
109 we considered every single established population separately. This allowed to account for even
110 minor variations between sites and translocated populations (e.g., differences in microsite, number
111 of planted individuals, pre- or post- translocation management, etc.). In the result section, before
112 analysing the drivers of translocation success statistically, we briefly describe IDPlanT by
113 quantifying the types of materials, techniques and information available in the database.

114

115 *Statistical analyses*

116 Data on post-translocation plant survival were available in about 40% of cases, whilst data on
117 recruitment were available in 25% of cases and was in most cases null.

118 To understand the factors shaping translocation outcome in Italy, we fitted Binary Logistic Mixed
119 Effect Models with logit link function, using the proportion between planted and survived
120 individuals at the last monitoring date as the response variables. The full list of explanatory
121 variables that we considered is provided in Table 1. When a single translocation case used more
122 than one technique within a group of operations (e.g., more than one site preparation method, more
123 than one aftercare technique, etc.), we treated this as a different “treatment” in the models called
124 “combined techniques”. It means that levels within a variable group are mutually exclusive (Table
125 1).

126 Life form, preferred habitat and distribution refer in most cases to Pignatti et al. (2017-2019). Due
127 to the large number of explanatory variables and the relative low number of cases in IDPlanT that
128 provided survival proportion (Table 2 for sample size of each model), we fitted separate models for
129 each variable as reported in Table 1. The cost of translocation was categorized in four groups:
130 unknown, up to 5,000 €, between 5,000 and up to 10,000 €, and more than 10,000 €.

131 Sequential Bonferroni post-hoc tests were performed for all significant models. Associations
132 between variables were tested with a χ^2 test. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS
133 21.0.

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135 **Results**

136 Most translocations were population reinforcements (51.9%), followed by reintroduction
137 (36.2%) and, introductions (11.9%). Overall, plant survival was on average 47.39% (\pm 38.66 S.D.),
138 flowering 30.78% (\pm 37.49 S.D.), fruiting 21.80% (\pm 34.54 S.D.), and recruitment 57.08% (\pm
139 196.56 S.D.). The most represented life forms were perennials geophytes, trees and shrubs
140 (altogether accounting for about 70% of cases). Woodlands and grasslands were the most
141 represented habitats (about 50% altogether) and 61% of analysed cases targeted Italian or
142 Mediterranean endemics (Figure 1). The high variation in recruitment is because some
143 translocations were highly successful, so the population size at last monitoring date overcame the
144 initial number of translocated propagules. Table S1 reports the associations between the categorical
145 variables used as predictors of transplant survival and fruiting.

146

147 *Characteristics of the source material for translocation*

148 Whilst most reinforcements used propagated material from the same population, the propagules
149 used for reintroduction and introduction were mainly juvenile or adult plants from the closest
150 population (Figure S1). In five translocations a combination of juveniles and adults (4 cases) and
151 seeds and juveniles was used. Moreover, vegetative propagules were often combined with seeds or
152 spores. In two cases (*Hypericum elodes* L. and *Marsilea quadrifolia* L.) swards containing rhizomes
153 were used as a source of inoculum. In an introduction of *Corynephorus canescens* (L.) P.Beauv., the
154 soil containing the natural soil seed bank of the species was collected and relocated to the selected
155 planting site.

156 The number of translocated propagules ranged from 1 to 4,800, with 20% (n = 35) of
157 translocations releasing less than 50 propagules, most often from a single population, whose trend
158 was mostly unknown (Figure S1). Source population trend was unknown in 12.5% of cases,
159 increasing or stable in 43% of cases and decreasing in 44.5% of cases. Unfortunately, we do not
160 know for all cases how source population trends were measured, as this information is not included
161 in the database. However, in some cases (e.g., *Isoetes malinverniana*, *Hieracium australe* subsp.
162 *australe*) a regular monitoring of the population size was performed by counting or estimating the
163 number of individual plants.

164

165 *Choice of the planting site, planting techniques and site preparation*

166 The most used method to assess habitat suitability was expert based followed by vegetation
167 studiescorrelational studies, and species distribution models (SDMs) (Figure S2a). When more
168 methods were used to determine habitat suitability for target species, vegetation studies and expert-
169 based considerations was the main combination (22 cases). Additional details on planting
170 techniques, e.g., how the material was planted/sown, and acclimation are shown in Figure S2. As
171 for pre-release site preparations, the most frequently used was competition reduction, followed by
172 fencing, no action, top-soil removal, watering and soil loosening (Figure S3). The most common
173 combinations of techniques were fencing + competition reduction (12 cases) and competition
174 reduction + watering (5 cases).

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Aftercare

Post-release manipulations (Figure S3) included from the most used to the least applied competition reduction by periodical mowing and alien species control, watering, no action, fencing, and other techniques like shading (*Hypericum elodes* L.) or modification of the water flow to avoid sediment accumulation (*Isoetes malinverniana* Ces. & De Not). Nutrient enrichment was not carried out in any translocation case. The most common combination of aftercare techniques included watering associated with competition reduction (23 cases).

Cost of translocation

Data on costs of translocation were provided for 96 cases out of 178. About 18% of cases were carried out at no costs, as it involved voluntary staff. For seven cases the full budget of larger project was provided, without any detail on actual costs of translocations. By excluding the abovementioned cases, the cost of a translocation in Italy ranged from 100 € to 30,000 €, with an average cost of 6,890 € per case.

Drivers of performance: survival percentage

Translocation performance in terms of transplant survival percentage at last monitoring date was significantly affected by all considered variables with the exception of species life form, species distribution, type of action, source population trend and planting method (Table 2; Figure 2, 3). Most of these variables were associated with each other (Table S1), which may confound the interpretation of our results. On one hand, site protection and planting methods showed less correlations with other variables, thus unequivocally important for the translocation outcome. On the other hand, pre-planting site preparation, costs, acclimation and propagule life stage were highly correlated to many other variables, which confounds their real contribution to translocation outcomes.

In detail, species habitat affected translocation outcome with grassland and salt marsh species showing low survival (Figure 2). Moreover, transplant survival percentage was increased by the planting of propagules in protected areas, by the use of material from the closest population to the planting site, and by the use of mixed material from two or more populations (Table 2; Figure 2). Among the propagation methods vegetative propagation or combined propagation methods (vegetative + seeds) led to increased survival. Propagule life stage affected the translocation outcome, but results were quite variable: seeds were clearly associated with low survival, but no significant differences were detected between the use of seeds, seedling and juveniles. Survival is clearly increased by propagules of mixed life stages. (Table 2; Figure 2). Acclimation of material in the field or in greenhouse was not associated with higher survival. The most effective method to assess species habitat suitability and in turn to select a suitable planting site was the study of vegetation alone combined with expert-based considerations, that yielded high survival percentage comparable to more sophisticated correlational studies or SDMs, with the latter highly variable in terms of performance (Figure 3). As for site preparation fencing contributed to high survival. On the other hand, the effect of aftercare, though significant, was highly variable and we could not detect any clear pattern. (Figure 3). Higher survival was associated with medium-level expenditure (between 5,000 and 10,000 €) compared to low and high-level of funds allocated to translocation.

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Discussion

The establishment of the Italian Database of Plant Translocation, IDPlanT allowed the first overview of the drivers of plant translocation outcomes in Italy (Abeli et al., 2021). Through IDPlanT we collected data on 185 plant translocations (most of them unpublished) performed in Italy since the first recorded case in 1958 (e.g., Fenu et al., 2016; Carra et al., 2019). With most translocations performed in the last two decades, IDPlanT is one of the most important sources of information on recent translocations in the Mediterranean area (Fenu et al., 2023; TransLoc <http://translocations.in2p3.fr/>).

Effect of life form, preferential habitat and distribution on translocation outcome

The analysis of IDPlanT reveals similarities and differences with other reviews of plant translocation at the global and regional scale (e.g., Godefroid et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2015; Silcock et al., 2019). We did not find any relationship between survival performance and some intrinsic characteristics of the target species, like life form, and distribution, indicating that the techniques adopted to perform a translocation are more crucial than the abovementioned intrinsic species characteristics. This result contrasts with other reviews where life forms significantly affected the outcome of translocations, with herbs showing greater success compared to trees and shrubs (e.g., Liu et al., 2015; Bellis et al., 2023). . However, our results are difficult to be compared with other similar analyses because we have considered much more life forms (eight categories) than other papers (three in Liu et al., 2015; four in Silcock et al., 2019). One explanation for the lack of effects on intrinsic species characteristics on translocation performance may be due to the high variability of outcome within each category and the fact that in IDPlanT most species had a strict Mediterranean distribution being endemic of the peninsular part of Italy or of the Alps, with 36% of widely distributed species (eurasiatic, eurosiberian and circumboreal species; Pignatti et al., 2017-2019). In our study grassland species were associated with lower survival compared to other habitats, similarly to what has been reported by Whitehead et al. (2023) for Australia. Our first hypothesis that translocation performance is affected by species intrinsic characteristics is therefore partially rejected.

Drivers of translocation performance

The highest survival performance was achieved when propagules were obtained from two or more populations close to the planting site compared to further source populations (Figure 2), an indication that in the Mediterranean areas, complex colonization and dispersal patterns are key aspects for translocation, of endemic taxa (Fenu et al., 2020). For instance, Gargano et al. (2022) showed that even geographically close populations of *Dianthus guliae* Janka have very different adaptations to environmental cues and that population artificial crossing may result in maladaptation. Choosing the best performant source populations or deciding whether more source populations can be mixed is made even more difficult in plants with long-distance dispersal patterns like *Stratiotes aloides* L. (Orsenigo et al., 2017). In contrast with other studies (e.g., Godefroid et al., 2011), a stable or increasing demographic trends of source populations did not affect the translocation outcome (Table 2). Vegetative propagation of plant material had a positive effect on transplant survival that likely depends on higher tolerance to stress of adult-like cuttings or

263 vegetative propagules compared to seeds and seedlings that typically show higher mortality when
264 moved in a recipient site (Godefroid et al., 2011; Albrecht and Maschinski, 2012; Silcock et al.,
265 2019). This is obviously mirrored in a lower (though not significant) survival when seeds were used
266 as the only life stage (Figure 2). The poor performance of seeds may be due to predation or
267 dormancy or intrinsic low seed viability (Krauss et al., 2002), and in general a much higher number
268 of propagules is needed when young life stages are used in translocation (Liu et al., 2015; Silcock et
269 al., 2019).

270 The “combined methods” level to assess habitat suitability for the selection of a planting site
271 groups together the vegetation study (phytosociology) and the expert-based approaches and resulted
272 in significantly greater transplant survival than an expert base approach alone (Figure 2). This
273 suggests that vegetation studies contribute to the higher transplant survival in the “combined
274 methods” level. The study of the vegetation likely captures the habitat complexity that is not
275 identified otherwise, making the study of vegetation a very helpful method to select suitable
276 planting sites. In many Mediterranean countries (e.g., Italy, France, Spain, Greece; Tomaselli et al.,
277 2000; Petraglia & Tomaselli, 2007; Zanzottera et al., 2021) there is a very deep understanding of
278 species associations and their relationships with abiotic factors (Coppi et al., 2015), that make
279 vegetation studies very informative.

280 Correlational studies and SDMs were associated with lower (not significant) survival and with
281 a high variability of performance compared to other methods for assessing habitat suitability.
282 Correlational studies and SDMs provide important data on how a species respond to selected
283 variables, that may include the most relevant ecological factors for a given species or may not
284 (Paoli et al., 2020). However, they are usually performed at a scale that do not consider microsite
285 variations of ecological factors, that instead are important determinant of translocated plant survival
286 (Jusaitis, 2005; Reiter & Menz, 2022; see also Bianchi et al., 2020 and Di Nuzzo et al., 2022 for the
287 effect of microclimatic factors on lichen growth). Microsites characteristics are even more
288 important in mountain areas (e.g., Casazza et al., 2021), so both the correlational studies and SDMs
289 used for selecting suitable sites for translocation are susceptible of missing key ecological variables
290 shaping the occurrence of a target species, that are intrinsically considered when the plant
291 community is considered. Therefore, also our second hypothesis is rejected.

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293 *Role of site preparation, aftercare and amount of allocated funds on translocation outcome*

294 Pre-release fencing significantly increased transplant survival by protecting plants from grazing
295 and/or accidental damages, as shown in other studies (Jusaitis, 2005; Fenu et al., 2016; Whitehead
296 et al., 2023; Monks et al., 2023). Although our models did not detect any significant difference
297 between pre-release fencing and competition reduction, the latter treatment through soil loosening
298 and top-soil removal is associated with a low transplant survival (Tischew et al., 2017). A possible
299 explanation could be the fact that bare soil dries out quickly in the warm of the Mediterranean
300 climate.

301 This is confirmed by the importance of post-translocation watering that was associated with
302 increased survival. In the Mediterranean area, watering seems crucial in the very initial post-
303 translocation phase. Except for watering there were no differences between “no aftercare” and other
304 post-planting site manipulations like fencing and combined techniques, which is in contrast with
305 recent studies suggesting that fencing and competition reduction are important measures to increase
306 plant survival (Corli et al., 2023). The third hypothesis on the importance of aftercare in

307 translocation is therefore accepted, though with high variability between the tested techniques.
308 Aftercare is reported as a best practice in several plant translocation guidelines as part of adaptive
309 monitoring and implementation of translocation (Maschinski & Albrecht, 2007; Rossi et al., 2013;
310 Commander et al., 2018). However, the contribution of aftercare to plant translocation performance
311 is poorly understood and likely species-specific, with only a few studies reporting the results of
312 experimental long-term post-planting manipulations (e.g., Daws and Koch, 2015; Al Farsi et al.,
313 2017). For this reason, further research is needed to understand the effect of aftercare techniques on
314 translocation performance, and better evaluate the general costs and benefits of aftercare including
315 those cases where translocated populations require continuous management (Adamski et al., 2020;
316 Rumsey & Stroh, 2020).

317 Finally, IDPlanT is likely the only plant translocation database reporting on the actual costs of
318 translocation and analysing the relationships between costs and outcomes. Although it is difficult to
319 precisely identify actual costs of translocation, especially when they are part of larger projects that
320 include other management activities, costs of translocation in Italy are lower compared for instance
321 to Australia (Zimmer et al., 2019). It is interesting to note that in our analysis medium-level
322 expenditure is associated to higher survival compared to low- and high-level expenditure. Higher
323 costs for fencing a reintroduced population of *Dianthus morisianus* Vals. resulted in higher plant
324 survival compared to a non-fenced (and cheaper) one (Fenu et al., 2016; Cogoni et al., 2013).
325 However, this does not seem to be a general rule and how funds are spent may be more important
326 than their amount.

327

328 *Conclusion*

329 The analysis of IDPlanT a reference for the translocation of Mediterranean plant species
330 highlights the complexity and multidisciplinary nature of plant translocation (Abeli and Dalrymple,
331 2023). Once again, the importance of post-translocation monitoring emerges from this study, as we
332 could analyse only 72 cases with survival and fruiting data out of 178 translocations. Ongoing and
333 future plant translocations in Italy and in the Mediterranean area should consider the speciation and
334 colonisation history that has led in many cases to local adaptations with important implications for
335 the provenance and genetic diversity of source material. In IDPlanT, only 24 out of 178
336 translocations were based on genetically informed decisions, that should become more common
337 also considering that the costs for gathering genetic data are becoming more and more affordable
338 (Rossetto et al., 2023). The integration of vegetation studies into the recipient site selection process
339 is already well applied at the Italian level and should be expanded and transferred to other contexts.
340 More research is needed on post-translocation plant and site manipulations that, when possible,
341 should be carried out with an experimental approach to identify and develop suitable techniques.
342 Finally, understanding the costs of translocations is important to plan a translocation budget and
343 also to assess the credibility and appropriateness of conservation programmes based on
344 translocations; currently there is no standardised methods to properly account for the expenses of
345 translocation, especially when the latter are carried out within larger restoration projects, thus this
346 aspect requires more investigation. The constant implementation and periodical analysis of large
347 translocation datasets will provide additional key insights into successful plant translocation.

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Table 1. Explanatory variables used to test the effect of translocation methods on percentage survival and percentage fruiting of translocated propagules at the time of last monitoring. All variables are categorical, with the exception of the number of translocated propagules. * Not included in the model for “habitat suitability assessment” with fruiting percentage as a response variable because only one record was available. ** Not included in the model for “site preparation” with survival percentage as a response variable, because all cases that performed watering and

competition did it in combination with other techniques, so they are all included in “combined methods”.

Variable	Levels
Life form	Geophytes, Forbs, Trees, Herbs (Hemicriptophytes), Hydrophytes, Helophytes, Annuals, Lichens
Preferred habitat	Woodlands, grasslands, cliffs, scrublands, freshwater, salt marshes, coastal dunes
Distribution	Mediterranean endemics
	European-Eurasiatic
	Circumboreal
	S-European mountains
Type of action	Reinforcement
	Reintroduction
	Introduction
Site protection status	Protected area
	Not protected area
Material source	Same population
	Closest population
	Not closest population
Number of source populations	One population
	Two populations
	Three or more populations
Source population trends	Decreasing
	Stable
	Increasing
Propagation methods	Vegetative
	Seed/Spore
	In vitro
	Combined methods
Propagule life stage	Seeds
	Seedlings
	Juveniles
	Adults
	Combined life stages
Planting methods	Sowing
	Bare root
	Potting soil
Acclimation	No acclimation
	Greenhouse
	Growth chamber
	Open field
	Combined methods
Habitat suitability assessment	Correlation studies & SDMs
	Vegetation studies*
	Expert-based
	Combined methods
Site preparation	No preparation
	Fencing

	Top-soil removal
	Watering**
	Soil loosening**
	Reducing competition
	Combined methods
Aftercare	No aftercare
	Fencing
	Watering
	Reducing competition
	Combined methods
Translocation costs	

Table 2. Results of the Binary Logistic Mixed Effect Models with survival proportion at the time of last monitoring as explanatory variables. In the main variable life form “terophytes”, “circumboreal” and “phytosociology” groups were removed from the main variable “life form”, “distribution” and “habitat suitability assessment” respectively because represented by a single case.

Survival percentage				
Variable	N	F	df	<i>p</i>
Life Form	63	0.511	6	<i>0.767</i>
Habitat	64	3.117	6	<i>0.010</i>
Distribution	63	0.130	2	<i>0.878</i>
Type of action	64	1.168	2	<i>0.318</i>
Site protection	64	4.287	1	<i>0.043</i>
Material source	50	6.425	2	<i>0.003</i>
N. source populations	64	6.352	2	<i>0.003</i>
Source pop. trend	59	2.773	2	<i>0.071</i>
Propagation methods	64	8.814	3	<i><0.001</i>
Propagule life stage	60	3.911	4	<i>0.007</i>
Planting method	60	0.743	2	<i>0.480</i>
Acclimation	63	5.365	3	<i>0.002</i>

Habitat suitability assessment	63	3.677	2	<i>0.031</i>
Site preparation	63	4.078	3	<i>0.011</i>
Aftercare	64	3.208	4	<i>0.019</i>
Translocation cost	50	13.102	2	<i><0.001</i>

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Percentage of species life form, preferred habitat and distribution for the 72 translocation cases analysed statistically (i.e., cases for which data on survival percentage of translocated propagules were available). Numbers on the x-axis indicate the actual number of cases for each variable level.

Figure 2. Drivers of transplant survival. Mean survival percentage of translocated propagules as a function of: a) habitat type b) material source; c) source populations; d) propagation method; e) propagule life stage; f) acclimation methods. Numbers beside the panel title indicate the total number of cases available for a given variable. Error bars represent standard error. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$.

Figure 3. Drivers of transplant survival. Mean survival percentage of translocated propagules as a function of: a) Habitat suitability assessment; b) pre-release site preparations; c) post-release site manipulation (aftercare); d) funds allocated to translocation. Numbers beside the panel title indicate the total number of cases available for a given variable. Error bars represent standard error. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$.

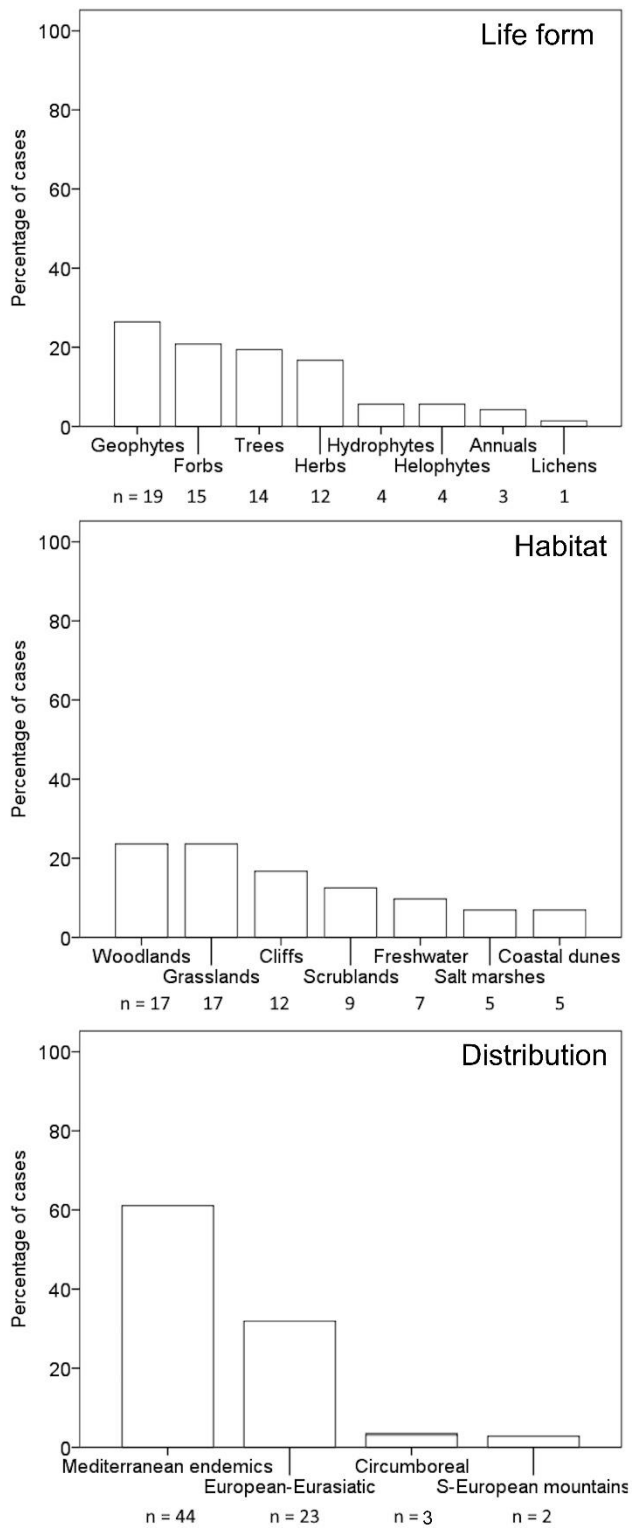


Figure 1

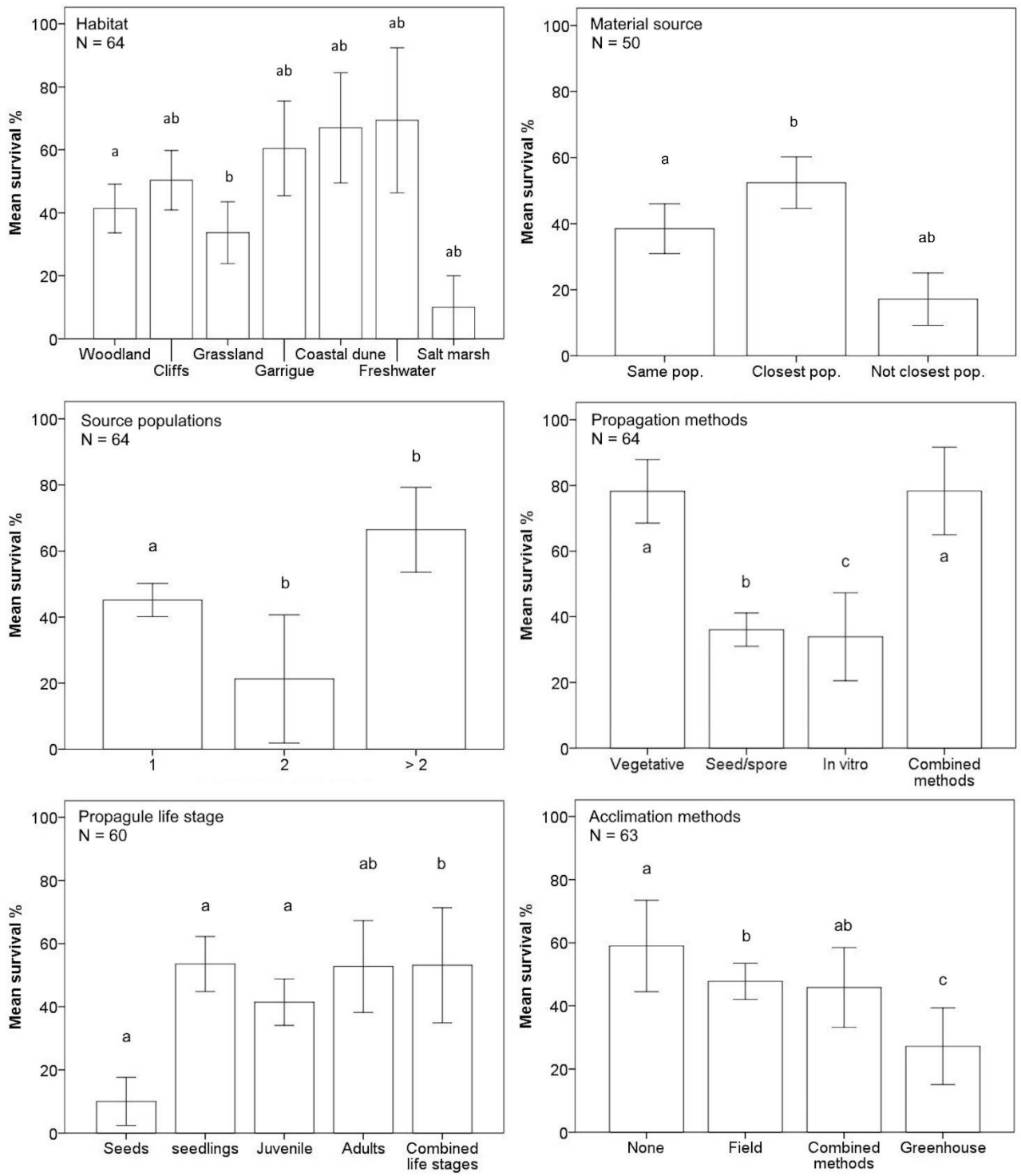


Figure 2

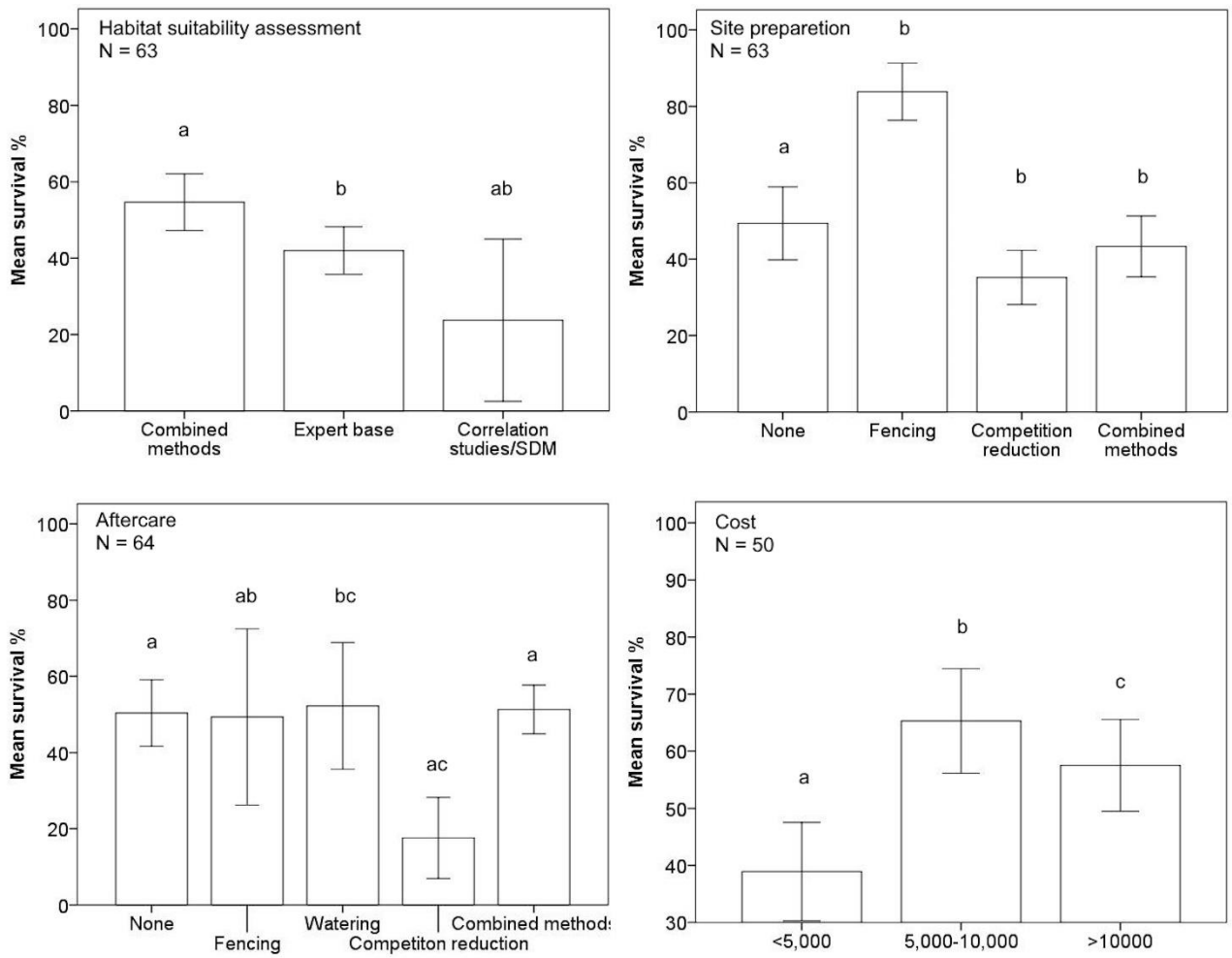


Figure 3