

1 **Trimming the hedges in a hurricane: Endangered Species lack research on the outcomes of**  
2 **conservation action**

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21

## 22 **Abstract**

23 Given widespread biodiversity declines, there is an urgent need to ensure that conservation  
24 interventions are working. Yet, evidence regarding the effectiveness of conservation actions is  
25 often lacking. Using a case study of 208 terrestrial species listed as Endangered in Canada, we  
26 conducted a literature review to collate the evidence base on conservation actions to: 1) explore  
27 the outcomes of actions documented for each species; and 2) identify knowledge gaps. Action-  
28 oriented research constituted only 2% of all literature across target species, and for 56% of  
29 species we found no literature investigating outcomes of conservation actions. Protected areas,  
30 habitat creation, artificial shelter, and alternative farming practices were broadly beneficial for  
31 most species for which these actions were assessed. Habitat restoration actions were most  
32 frequently studied, but almost 38% of these actions were harmful, ineffective, or demonstrated  
33 mixed results. The effectiveness of prescribed burns, alternative timber harvesting approaches  
34 and vegetation control was examined for the greatest number of species, yet 17-30% of these  
35 actions demonstrated negative effects. Our synthesis yielded a dataset of conservation evidence  
36 that can be implemented to aid in recovery planning for species at risk, and highlighted alarming  
37 gaps in the conservation literature that merit further investigation.

## 38 **Introduction**

39 To avoid wasting resources on ineffective interventions, there is an urgent need to understand  
40 which conservation actions will yield positive outcomes for species at risk of extinction. Many  
41 practitioners currently lack this information, and thus risk implementing actions that are  
42 ineffective in preventing further declines and extinctions, or even harmful to species-at-risk  
43 (Cook et al., 2010). For example, regulators often approve environmental assessments simply  
44 because mitigation measures are proposed, even without strong evidence that these mitigations

45 would have the desired effect (Collard et al., 2020). Additionally, policy is frequently based on  
46 observational studies that fail to link actions to results (Wilson et al., 2021). There is thus a  
47 critical need to identify the existing evidence base available for supporting effective conservation  
48 action.

49 Efforts to prioritize conservation actions on the basis of cost and effectiveness are in use in  
50 several jurisdictions. While these methods are expected to increase efficiency (e.g., (Gerber,  
51 2016), and are widely recognized as crucial for success of endangered species programs (e.g.,  
52 (Evans et al., 2016), it remains unclear whether these efforts in their current form will yield  
53 measurable improvements in performance at recovering at-risk species (e.g., (Bennett et al.,  
54 2014; Gerber & Raik, 2018; Joseph et al., 2009) Many of the approaches to date have relied on  
55 expert judgement rather than empirical data; the best or only available option in many  
56 circumstances. While structured protocols for expert elicitation can reduce bias (Hemming et al.,  
57 2018), experts' judgements can still be biased by a number of factors, and can result in  
58 overconfidence in estimates that are inaccurate (Gregory et al., 2012). Other approaches to  
59 estimate species' responses to conservation actions when empirical data are not available also  
60 demonstrate shortcomings. For example, predicted population growth rates based on simulated  
61 responses to action can overestimate true responses (Olsen et al., 2021), and using proxies such  
62 as habitat quality can be misleading if restoring habitat fails to yield meaningful improvements in  
63 species abundances (e.g., (Germino et al., 2023; Tattersall et al., 2020).

64 Without adequate evidence, uncertainties and assumptions can be propagated into decision  
65 making processes, leading to implementation of actions that are ineffective. For example,  
66 methods have been developed for prioritizing the costly regeneration of seismic lines to provide  
67 habitat for caribou (Yemshanov et al., 2019) based on the assumption this would enhance habitat

68 characteristics (Filicetti et al. 2019). However, subsequent studies suggest the restoration of  
69 linear features such as seismic lines has limited impact on caribou (Beirne et al., 2021; Finnegan  
70 et al., 2021; Tattersall et al., 2020), and may even be harmful (Dickie et al., 2021). Explicitly  
71 measuring the outcomes of interventions can reveal when actions are not having the intended  
72 effects, and allow for management strategies to be adapted accordingly (Pearson et al., 2022).  
73 Considerable conservation funding is spent on research and monitoring (Buxton et al., 2020).  
74 Consequently, it is imperative that these efforts yield insights into how population declines can  
75 be reversed. Problem diagnosis alone is insufficient: to be useful, conservation science needs to  
76 support action. However, the vast majority of conservation science remains focused on  
77 describing the state of nature, with less research on designing or implementing conservation  
78 interventions (Williams et al., 2020). Despite decades of advocacy for action-oriented research  
79 through the implementation of adaptive management approaches (McCarthy & Possingham,  
80 2007; Rist et al., 2013; Wilhere, 2002) conservation science remains focused on the problem  
81 (Williams et al., 2020).

82 In this context, it is critical that we synthesize the currently available evidence for how species  
83 respond to conservation action. Our objective was to collate and summarize the peer-reviewed  
84 literature assessing the efficacy of conservation actions for species at risk. We focused on  
85 terrestrial species listed as Endangered in Canada since this represents a feasible subset of  
86 species that are all in dire need of conservation interventions. While broader ecosystem or  
87 taxonomic group-level syntheses exist (e.g., (Douglas et al., 2023); [conservationevidence.org](https://conservationevidence.org)),  
88 we focus on individual species' responses since many threatened species require targeted  
89 conservation interventions to halt and reverse declines (Bolam et al., 2023). Thus, a more  
90 detailed, species-specific examination is warranted. Moreover, a species-specific investigation

91 can allow for an improved understanding of the variation in response across species, within  
92 taxonomic groups, laying the foundation for more effective multi-species approaches. This is  
93 important when we consider that actions that benefit one species could have a range of positive  
94 to negative effects on another occupying the same habitat (Silver et al., 2023). The resulting  
95 database details actions that have been empirically tested and how they impacted each individual  
96 species, whether positively or negatively. We then assessed broad patterns in which actions were  
97 effective, as well as the capacity of current literature to adequately inform conservation action  
98 across taxonomic groups, highlighting several pressing research gaps for 208 highly imperiled  
99 species. Ultimately, our intent is to inform immediate conservation efforts and help direct new  
100 conservation research moving forward.

101

## 102 **Methods**

### 103 Literature Search

104 For all terrestrial “designatable units” (which include species, subspecies and distinct populations  
105 and are hereafter termed “species”) listed as “Endangered” on Schedule 1 of Canada’s Species  
106 At Risk Act as of January 12, 2023 (SARA; (*Species at Risk Act*, 2002; n=208), we searched the  
107 literature for all peer-reviewed research that examined the outcome of one or more conservation  
108 actions. Species were considered terrestrial if a substantial or significant portion of their life  
109 cycle was terrestrial (e.g., amphibians). The search was not restricted to actions taking place in  
110 Canada; actions could have taken place anywhere within the species’ ranges. For a full list of  
111 species examined, see Table S1, Appendix A. Using the Web of Science core collection, we  
112 searched for the species by both common and scientific names as listed according to Naujokaitis-

113 Lewis et al., (2022). For feasibility, if a search resulted in more than 100 articles for a particular  
114 species, we also searched for the word “conservation” anywhere in the document. We  
115 acknowledge that in doing so we may have missed some relevant articles. If the listed organism  
116 was a subspecies or distinct population, we searched more broadly for literature at the species  
117 level.

118 For example, the search string for both significant populations of caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*)  
119 listed as Endangered in Canada (Peary Caribou (*Rangifer tarandus pearyi*) and the Atlantic-  
120 Gaspésie population; COSEWIC, 2011) was:

121 TS=(caribou OR “Rangifer tarandus” ) AND ALL=(conservation)

122 This term was added to the search string to reduce the amount of screening required to find  
123 articles assessing conservation efficacy. Since there was little to no research on many of the  
124 species, but many articles on a few charismatic species that were divided into subspecies or  
125 individual populations, this approach represented the best means of capturing as much evidence  
126 as possible while still remaining logistically feasible. It was not feasible to also search for grey  
127 literature on all 208 species in our review, therefore we limited our search to the peer-reviewed  
128 literature. To establish the total research effort focused on each species (i.e., not just assessing  
129 conservation action outcomes), we also performed the search for all species without including  
130 the term “conservation” and recorded the number of total references that resulted from this  
131 search (Tables S1, Appendix A).

## 132 Screening

133 Articles resulting from the above search approach were screened to determine if they:

- 134 1. Examined the correct species

135 2. Assessed the efficacy of one or more actions in improving some metric related to the  
136 species' persistence

137 3. Used real data (i.e., did not use simulated data or predicted future outcomes)

138 An action had to be linked directly to the species, not just their habitat or any other factor  
139 assumed to be correlated with the species' persistence. For example, if an action involved  
140 restoring habitat for Sage Grouse (*Centrocercus urophasianus*), the study had to demonstrate  
141 that it had a measurable effect on Sage Grouse, not just the vegetation. This is because habitat  
142 restoration does not always have a demonstrable positive effect on the target species, even when  
143 habitat quality targets are met (Germino et al., 2023). Simulation studies were not included for  
144 similar reasons. An action could however be directed at a different species, so long as the effects  
145 on the target species were measured (e.g., wetlands managed for ducks had a positive influence  
146 on western harvest mice; Smith et al., 2020). For a study to be included, the measured response  
147 metric had to relate to species persistence. This includes factors impacting individuals, such as  
148 body condition; those impacting demographic rates, such as survival and breeding success; or  
149 more direct measures of population change such as abundance or probability of occurrence.  
150 Metrics that did not fit this description include movement and behavioural responses that did not  
151 have explicit links to increases or decreases in fitness.

## 152 Data Extraction

153 Our method of extracting data was designed to align closely with the established CAN-SAR  
154 database (Naujokaitis-Lewis et al., 2022), following the terminology outlined by Salafsky et al.  
155 (2008). We recorded bibliographic information on the source literature and the scientific name,  
156 taxonomic group and the date that the literature search was conducted for each species.  
157 Taxonomic groups included amphibians, arthropods, birds, lichens, mammals, molluscs, mosses,

158 reptiles and vascular plants (Naujokaitis-Lewis et al., 2022). In each article, the effect of each  
159 action on an individual species was considered one study (Table S2, Appendix B). Therefore, if  
160 an article examined multiple target species or multiple actions, it contained multiple studies, and  
161 data were extracted separately for each study. Actions were first categorized based on the action  
162 subcategories described by Salafsky et al. (2008). Subcategories “monitoring” and “research”  
163 were excluded due to the difficulty quantifying the positive effects these may have on the  
164 species, though we note that negative or neutral effects can also occur due to the effects of  
165 disturbance, handling and wildlife tracking equipment (e.g., tags, radiotransmitters, etc.  
166 (Kilpatrick et al., 2020; Raybuck et al., 2017). For the category “protection”, evidence that some  
167 protection had been implemented had to be demonstrated, rather than simply the absence of a  
168 threat. For example, if a study found that areas with no logging benefitted caribou (e.g., Fryxell  
169 et al., 2020), we excluded it unless there was evidence that “protection” through legislation or  
170 other means resulted in a cessation of logging that then benefitted caribou. We took this  
171 conservative approach because past research has shown that legal protection does not necessarily  
172 halt population declines. For example, the Core Area Policy in Wyoming was generally effective  
173 in halting the decline of Sage Grouse (*C. urophasianus*; Dinkins & Beck, 2019; Spence et al.,  
174 2017) but harvest restrictions may not meaningfully reduce harvest pressure for American  
175 Ginseng (*Panax quinquefolius*; (Mooney & McGraw, 2009). Additionally, threats will not  
176 necessarily affect a species in the absence of legal protection. If the efficacy of multiple actions  
177 were individually assessed, we created a new data extraction row, classifying each action as a  
178 unique study within an article.

179 To generalize actions across articles and species into comparable groups while generating more  
180 descriptive subcategories than those outlined by Salafsky et al. (2008), we further classified



181 actions into secondary subcategories using an inductive approach (see Table S3 Appendix B for  
182 primary and secondary subcategories). These categories were also accompanied by action  
183 descriptions that provided more detail on what the action entailed. It is important to note that the  
184 action descriptions are not mutually exclusive. For example, we used “clearcut” or  
185 “shelterwood” rather than “even-aged management” if this information was available. If the  
186 action was implemented to combat a specific threat, this threat was recorded and categorized  
187 based on the level 1 categories outlined in Salafsky et al. (2008).

188 Conservation objectives fell into one of three categories: i) augment populations, ii) mitigate  
189 threats, and iii) slow or reverse declines. Outcomes of actions to address these objectives were  
190 then categorized as either effective, somewhat effective, no effect, harmful, or mixed effects.  
191 Effects were considered mixed if one metric was positive and another negative, or if different  
192 study sites or populations responded differently. For example, Pierluissi & King (2008) found  
193 that an increase in the number of irrigation canals was associated with an increased nest density  
194 for King Rail (*Rallus elegans*) but decreased nest survival, and Johnson et al. (2022) found that  
195 predator reduction successfully halted caribou declines in some contexts, but not others. Actions  
196 for which the objective was to augment populations were only considered effective if there was a  
197 measurable improvement in the response metric. If the objective was to mitigate a threat, the  
198 action was considered effective if the response metric was comparable to or better than either a  
199 control population or the study population prior to the occurrence of the threat. If the objective  
200 was to slow or reverse declines, the action was considered “somewhat” effective if the rate of  
201 decline was reduced, but only fully effective if it halted completely or reversed the declines. We  
202 recorded the ecological response metric that was used to assess efficacy, and the time period over  
203 which the study was conducted. Time periods were categorized into one-year bins: any studies

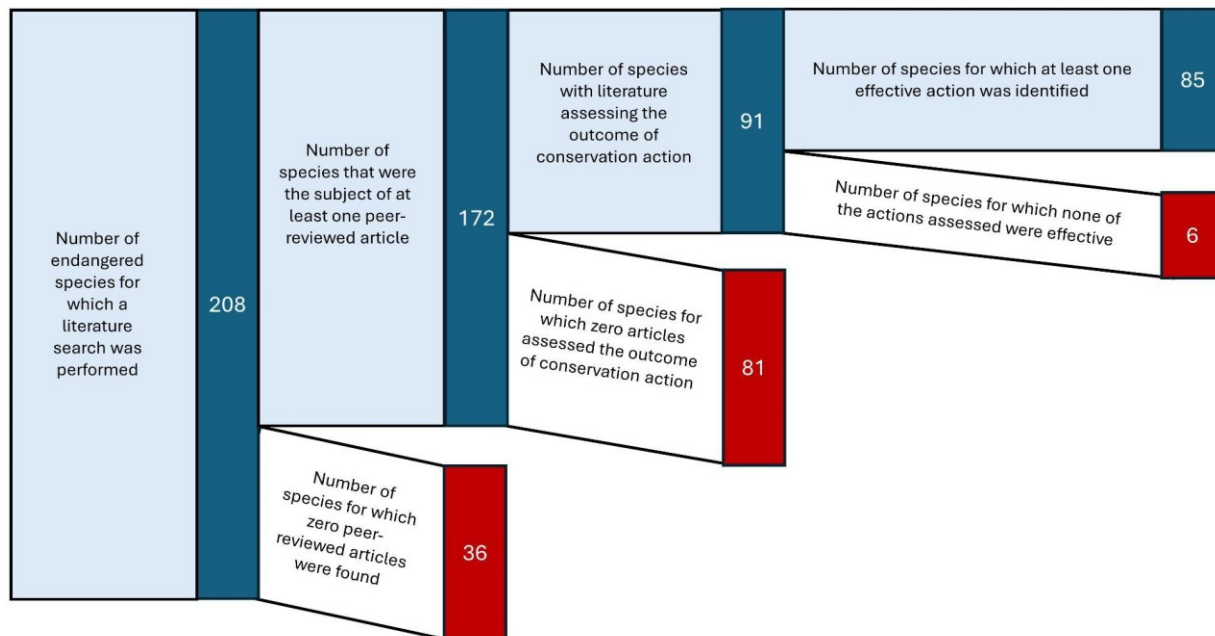
204 where data collection took place for one year or less were binned as one year, between one to  
205 two years were binned as two, and so forth. All data extracted were reviewed by two co-authors  
206 to ensure quality and consistency. Finally, we synthesized the effects of each action on each  
207 species, based on all relevant studies from the extraction process (Table S4, Appendix B).

208

## 209 **Results**

### 210 Taxonomic Patterns and Research Gaps

211 We conducted literature searches for 208 terrestrial species listed as endangered in Canada. We  
212 screened 5786 articles and retained and extracted data from 510 of these. For 36 species (17.3%),  
213 we found no literature whatsoever. A further 38.9% of species had no literature investigating the  
214 efficacy of conservation actions, and for 2.9% of species, all conservation actions assessed were  
215 either ineffective, harmful, or had mixed outcomes. Thus, we only found literature with evidence  
216 of actions with positive outcomes for biodiversity for 40.9% of terrestrial endangered species in  
217 Canada (Figure 1).

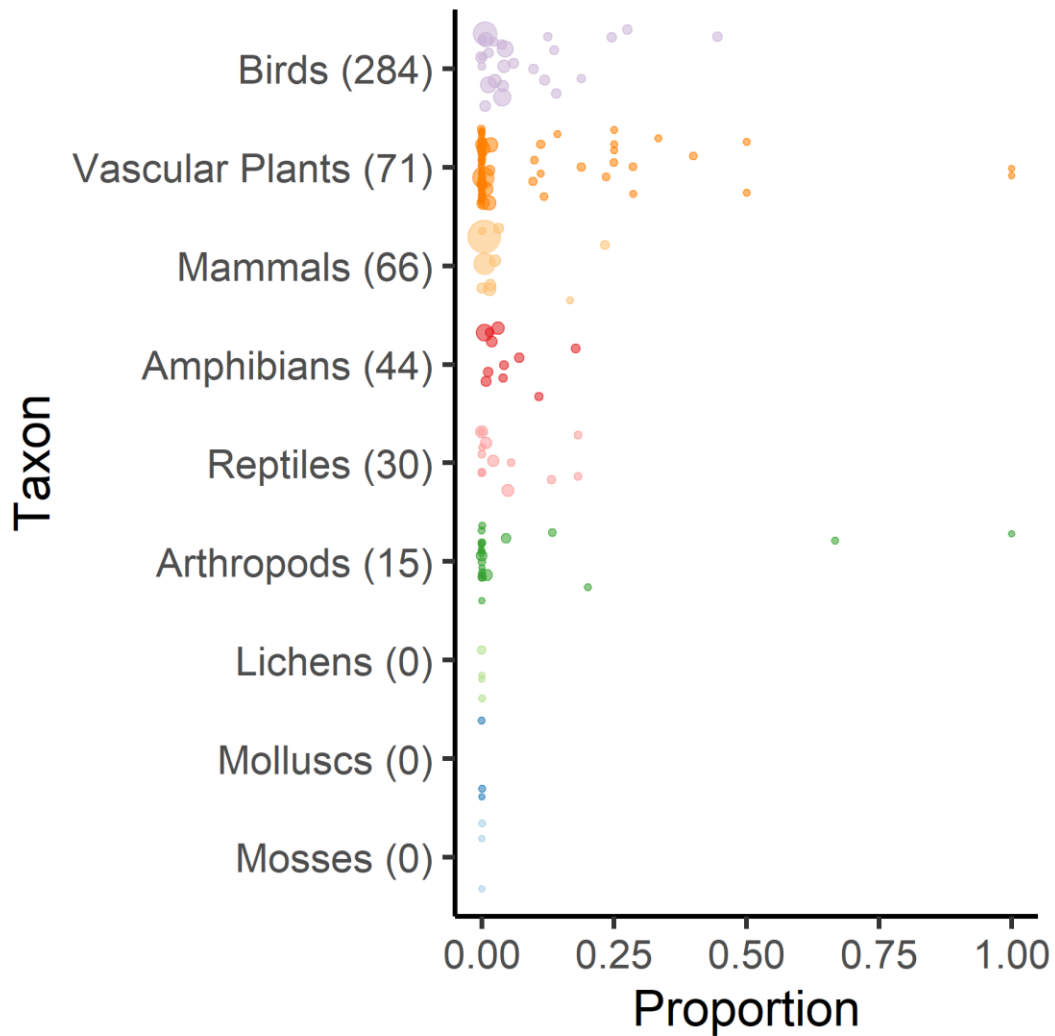


218

219 Figure 1. Summary of the available literature for 208 terrestrial Species at Risk (SAR) listed as  
 220 endangered in Canada. The number of species in each category is noted in the rectangle to the  
 221 right of each box.

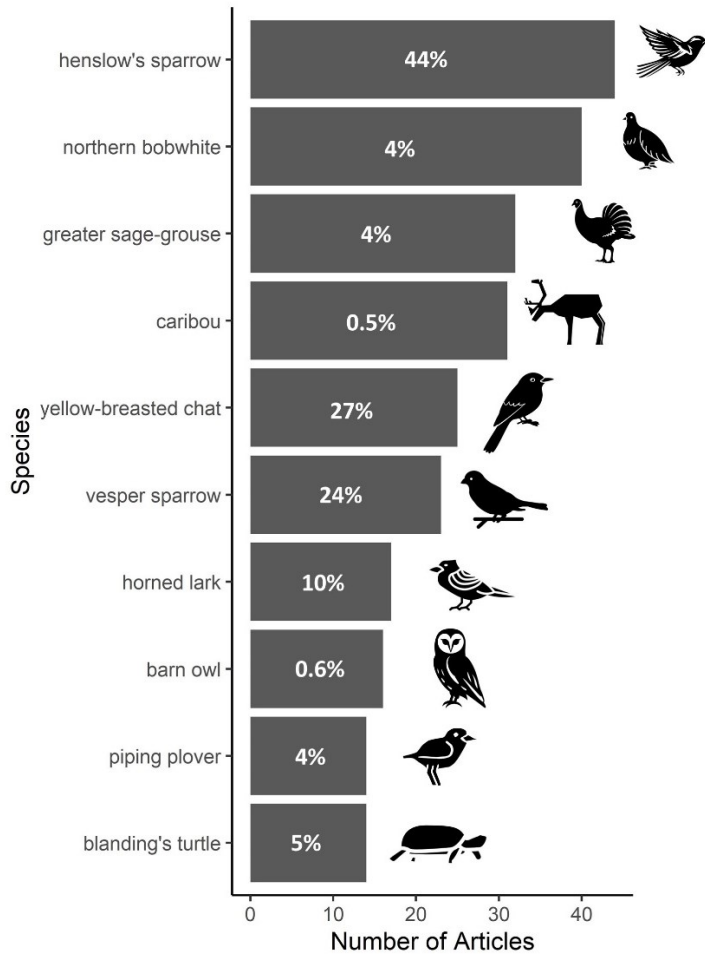
222 Most research focused on birds, followed by vascular plants and mammals (Figure 2). Henslow's  
 223 Sparrow (*Ammodramus henslowii*), Northern Bobwhite (*Colinus virginianus*), Greater Sage  
 224 Grouse (*C. urophasianus*) and Caribou (*R. tarandus*) were the species with the greatest amount  
 225 of action-oriented research. Of the top ten species with the most literature on conservation action,  
 226 eight were birds (Figure 3). There were zero articles studying the efficacy of conservation action  
 227 on mosses, lichens, or terrestrial molluscs. The number of articles examining the efficacy of any  
 228 conservation action across all target species made up only 2.1% of all literature published on  
 229 these species (Figure 2), ranging from 0.77% of articles on mammals to 3.6% of articles on birds  
 230 (Table S5, Appendix C). The average proportion of articles that assessed the outcomes of actions

231 across all target species was 7.1% (SE  $\pm$ 1.3%). The median time period over which data were  
232 collected to assess the efficacy of any given action was 3.0 (SE  $\pm$ 0.51) years.



233  
234 Figure 2. Proportion of articles for each taxonomic group that examined the efficacy of  
235 conservation actions. Each circle represents one species. Larger circles denote species for which  
236 there was more literature available overall. Proportion indicates the proportion of all articles for a  
237 given species that examined the efficacy of a conservation action (the number of such articles for  
238 each taxonomic group is denoted in brackets on the y axis). Species for which there were no  
239 articles found were excluded from this diagram.

240 Several understudied species, with fewer than 10 articles published about them in any subject,  
241 nevertheless had a high proportion (>50%) of studies focused on conservation action. For  
242 example, Perseus Duskywing (*Erynnis persius*), Streambank Lupine (*Lupinus rivularis*) and  
243 False Hop Sedge (*Carex Lupuliformis*) collectively had only four articles written about them, but  
244 all four assessed the efficacy of conservation actions. Conversely, many well-studied species  
245 (i.e., more than 1000 articles) had a very low proportion of research focused on conservation  
246 evidence. Our search for literature on Caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*), for example, yielded 6084  
247 papers, only 0.51% of which were action-oriented. For mammals and birds, the literature was  
248 generally dominated by few species, yet for the majority of these species the proportion of  
249 research focused on conservation action was less than 25%. In contrast, for arthropods (and to a  
250 lesser extent, vascular plants), the research was more equally distributed among species, though  
251 there was still limited focus on conservation outcomes.



252

253 Figure 3. The ten species listed as Endangered in Canada with the highest number of research  
 254 articles investigating the efficacy of conservation actions. Values on the bars denote the  
 255 percentage of all literature on the species that assessed at least one conservation action.

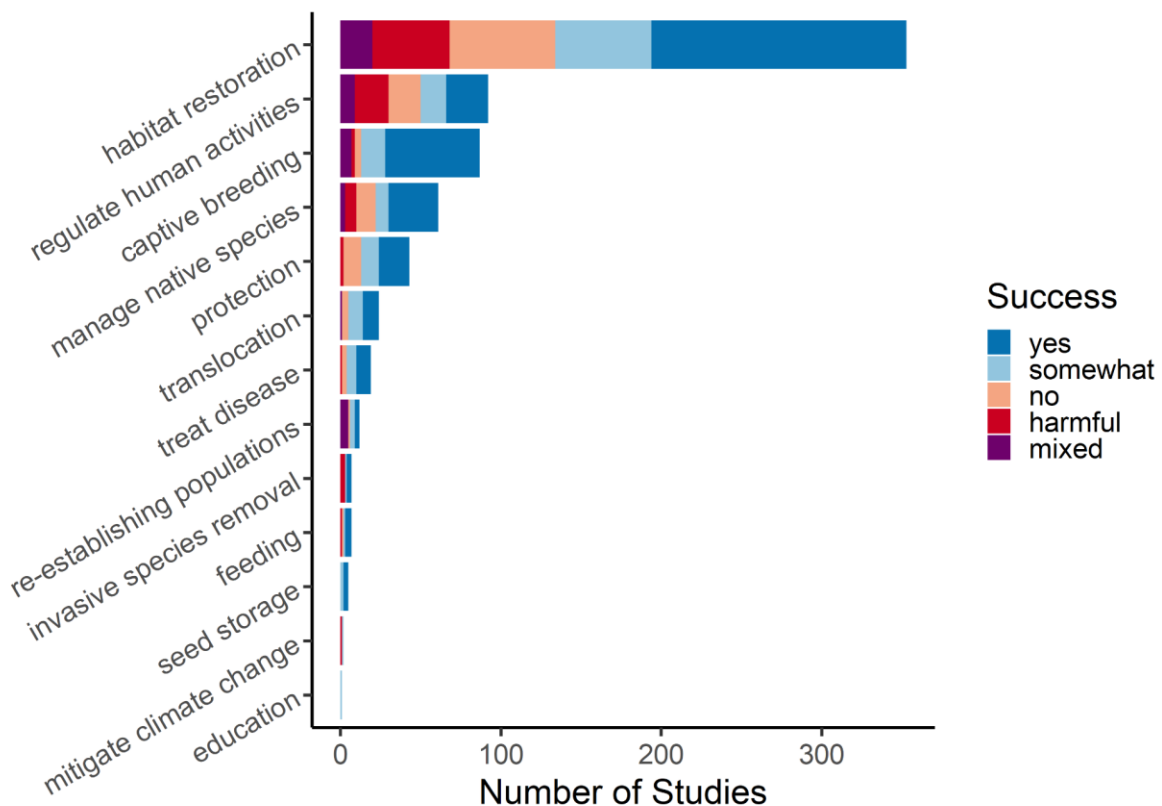
256

257 The Efficacy of Conservation Actions

258 The greatest number of articles focused on habitat restoration actions (n=261), but these actions  
 259 were harmful, ineffective, or had mixed results in approximately 38% of studies (Figure 4).

260 Habitat restoration was the most commonly assessed action subcategory for all taxonomic groups

261 except for vascular plants, for which captive breeding (i.e., growing plants in a nursery or  
 262 laboratory) was more commonly assessed (Figure S1). Nearly 85% of studies (n=87) on captive  
 263 breeding found it to be at least somewhat effective in augmenting populations of species at risk  
 264 (Figure 4). By contrast, only seven studies investigated the effects of invasive species removal on  
 265 an endangered species; four found that it was effective, but the other three found this action to be  
 266 harmful to the focal species. The management of native species that were negatively impacting  
 267 species at risk (e.g., managing predators using exclosures) was the focus of more articles (n=54)  
 268 than invasive species removal, and was at least somewhat successful in 64% of studies. Only one  
 269 study examined the effects of education on an endangered species, finding that education  
 270 programs coincided with a decrease in the persecution and killing of Barn Owls over a decade in  
 271 Spain (Fajardo, 2001).



273 Figure 4. Number of articles examining the efficacy of a conservation action subcategory  
274 that were found to be effective (“yes”), somewhat effective (“somewhat”), ineffective  
275 (“no”), harmful (“harmful”), or demonstrated mixed results (“mixed”). A summary of  
276 these data by taxonomic group is depicted in Figure S1.

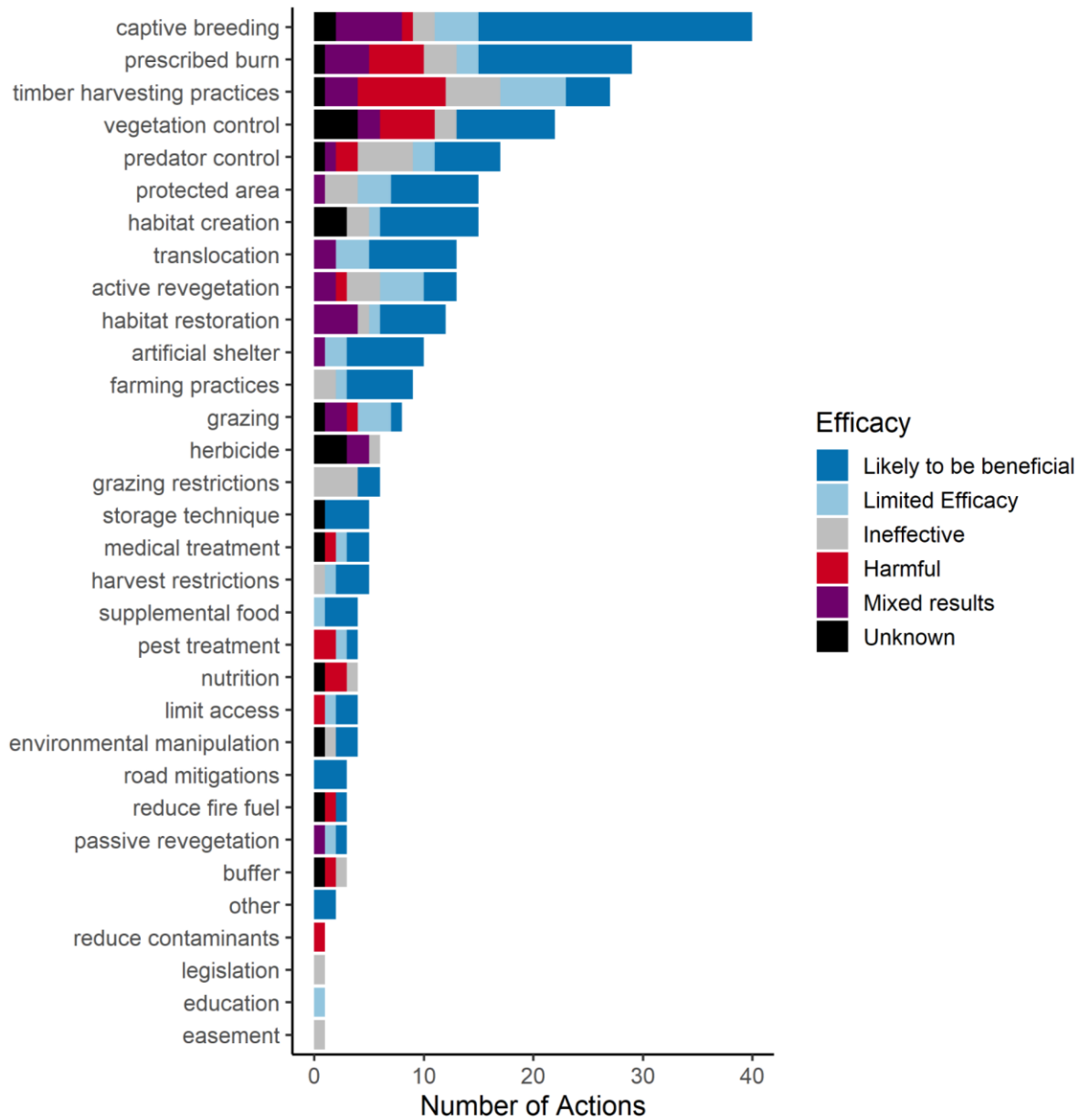
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278 We were able to further refine the 13 action subcategories into 32 secondary  
279 subcategories, and examine how each species responded to them (Figure 5, Tables S3-S4  
280 Appendix B). The efficacy of captive breeding was assessed across the broadest suite of  
281 species (40 species, 6 taxonomic groups), and demonstrated at least limited efficacy for  
282 29 of them (Figure 5). The next three most commonly assessed actions across species  
283 were prescribed burns (29 species, 6 taxonomic groups), alternative timber harvest  
284 practices (27 species, 6 taxonomic groups), and vegetation control (22 species, 5  
285 taxonomic groups). Although these actions had positive effects on many species, all three  
286 actions also had mixed or negative effects on a relatively high proportion of the target  
287 species (Figure 5). In particular, alternative timber harvest practices aimed at reducing  
288 harm to species at risk were either ineffective or harmful for 48% of species. The effects  
289 of prescribed burns differed by taxonomic group (Figure S2, Appendix C); with positive  
290 effects on most vascular plants (67%, n = 6 species), and reptiles (100%, n = 4 species)  
291 assessed, mixed effects on birds (positive for 50%, mixed or harmful for the rest, n = 14  
292 species), and no effect or negative effects on arthropods and mammals (Figure S2,  
293 Appendix C). Conversely, protected areas, habitat creation, artificial shelter, alternative  
294 farming practices, reproductive material storage techniques, harvest or hunting  
295 restrictions, and supplemental feeding all had positive effects on the majority of species



296 assessed (67-100%) and were harmful or had mixed impacts on few or no species (less  
 297 than 10% of species assessed). For more details on each of these actions, and how they  
 298 affect each species, see Table S4, Appendix B.

299



300

301 Figure 5. Responses of species at risk to conservation actions. “Number of Actions” on the x-  
302 axis represents the number of unique action-species combinations across studies evaluated for  
303 species listed as Endangered in Canada. Efficacy describes whether action objectives were met.  
304 Detailed descriptions of these actions and how they affect each species can be found in Table S3,  
305 Appendix B.

306

## 307 **Discussion**

308 Despite the growing need for evidence-based solutions to conservation problems, we found very  
309 little investigation into the efficacy of conservation action for many terrestrial species listed as  
310 endangered in Canada, even for those that were otherwise relatively well studied. While some  
311 broad patterns for the most effective actions may be discernible, the need for increased research  
312 effort in this area is apparent, particularly for understudied taxa such as invertebrates and  
313 nonvascular plants. Habitat restoration was the focus of the greatest amount of research effort,  
314 while other actions such as education were hardly examined at all. Captive breeding was found  
315 to be largely effective across species relative to other action categories, but typically does not  
316 address the initial drivers of population declines. Several actions demonstrated antagonistic  
317 effects (Silver et al., 2023), benefiting certain species at risk while harming others, but some,  
318 including creating or protecting habitat and sustainable agriculture, were broadly beneficial  
319 across all species examined.

320 Why is research that explores the effectiveness of conservation action apparently so limited? One  
321 hypothesis is that null results in early attempts may not be published, and could even lead  
322 conservation to stagnate. For example, early efforts to reintroduce American Chestnut had

323 limited success, resulting in widespread inaction (Newhouse & Powell, 2021). Another  
324 hypothesis is that researchers are exploring limited approaches, perhaps also out of an abundance  
325 of caution (Meek et al., 2015). For example, captive breeding and translocation programs made  
326 up the majority of actions for vascular plants, demonstrating broad benefits and limited negative  
327 impacts. However, while these approaches may be relatively well established, they are also often  
328 focused on augmenting populations without addressing the initial causes of declines (e.g., Leech  
329 et al., 2017; Martin et al., 2012). Researchers may therefore need to broaden their scope if they  
330 are to increase our capacity to mitigate threats and prevent declines in the long term. Moreover,  
331 for endangered species in particular, research can be limited in part by the rarity of the species,  
332 and limited access to remaining individuals (Rathwell et al., 2016). For those species that are the  
333 focus of many research articles, but relatively few on conservation action, researchers are likely  
334 well positioned to start exploring potential conservation approaches supported by evidence of  
335 their habitat requirements and known responses to threats.

336 Often the adequate implementation and assessment of conservation action can span decades,  
337 which may limit our capacity to understand what is ultimately effective. In our study, the median  
338 period of data collection was 3 years, which may be an insufficient time scale to assess  
339 outcomes. For example, a study published in 1997 showed inconclusive results about the effects  
340 of the Conservation Reserve Program on Henslow's sparrow over 21 years (Herkert, 1997).  
341 However, a follow up study (Herkert, 2007) demonstrated that enrollment in this program was  
342 associated with the reversal of population declines for this species in Illinois after almost 30  
343 years. The reversal of declines for imperiled species may take decades, demonstrating the  
344 importance of periodic assessment of the efficacy of actions. Similarly, actions implemented for  
345 different durations, or assessed over different temporal scales, may have different effects. For

346 example, Henslow's sparrow responds negatively to burning regimes in the short term  
347 (Applegate et al., 2002), but positively after two to three years (Powell, 2008).

348 Among actions that were assessed in the literature, we discovered several alarming patterns.  
349 Habitat restoration was the action subcategory that received the greatest amount of research  
350 focus, yet had mixed, negligible or harmful effects in almost half of the articles where these  
351 actions were assessed. Several global biodiversity targets (Convention on Biological Diversity,  
352 2022; <https://www.bonnchallenge.org/>) emphasize the restoration of degraded habitats, but our  
353 results demonstrate the breadth of uncertainty surrounding the efficacy of these interventions.  
354 There was only one study that explored the outcomes of education for species at risk (Fajardo,  
355 2001). However, education and outreach is the most common action in species at risk action  
356 plans in Canada (Buxton et al., 2020). Surprisingly, the effect of invasive species removal on  
357 endangered species was not well studied, and in some contexts we found this action had a  
358 negative impact on the target species. For example, the removal of woody vegetation at  
359 reclaimed mine sites resulted in lower densities of Yellow-breasted Chat (*Icteria virens*;  
360 Lautenbach et al., 2019), and a herbicide used to reduce the growth of leafy spurge (*Euphorbia*  
361 *Esula*) had negative effects on growth and reproduction in Western Prairie Fringed Orchid  
362 (*Platanthera praeclara*; Erickson et al., 2006). The unintended negative consequences of these  
363 actions on Endangered species reinforce the need to assess the outcomes of conservation actions  
364 that have been implemented. Furthermore, given established publication biases against null or  
365 negative results (Wood, 2020), we have likely understated the potential for these actions to have  
366 negligible or harmful effects on species at risk.

367 Almost all action categories had some mixed results, and many actions were found to be  
368 ineffective or even harmful to some species in certain contexts (e.g., prescribed burns, alternative

369 timber harvesting approaches). For example, mowing vegetation to benefit Sage Grouse was  
370 harmful to the similarly imperiled Sage Thrasher that occupies the same habitat (Carlisle et al.,  
371 2018). However, actions that are antagonistic between species may still be useful, if they are part  
372 of a suite of actions that together provide net benefit across species (Bylo et al., 2014).  
373 Furthermore, actions that benefit one species but harm another may still be worth implementing  
374 if the species do not overlap in time and space. Conversely, while some actions are simply  
375 ineffective and do not result in direct harm, they can act as resource sinks that divert time and  
376 effort from more cost-effective actions. This can be true even for effective actions. For example,  
377 implementing captive breeding and translocation programs was rarely detrimental to the targeted  
378 species, but is very costly (Leech et al., 2017; Serrouya et al., 2019), and may divert resources  
379 from other conservation actions.

380 Several assumptions were made which could influence how our database is used and interpreted.  
381 As noted above, we only specified literature searches and actions to the species level, rather than  
382 lower levels such as subspecies. We believe this is justified due to the lack of literature on many  
383 of the subspecies. However, all evidence should be carefully examined to ensure it is in fact  
384 relevant to the subspecies in question (Irwin et al., 2015). Similarly, we did not collect  
385 information on the geographic region where the data were collected. However, regional  
386 differences can play an important role in the efficacy of conservation action (Doherty et al.,  
387 2016). Moreover, costs are almost never accounted for in the comparison between methods, but  
388 may have a significant influence on which action yields the best results. For example, Dunwiddie  
389 et al. (2016) found that Golden Paintbrush plugs had higher survival than seeds, but seeds were  
390 more cost effective. It is important to note that our database does not represent a comprehensive  
391 picture of all actions and their efficacy for all species. Further evidence of conservation

392 successes that are not well documented in the peer-reviewed literature almost certainly exist, and  
393 may hold information critical for conservation (Khorozyan, 2022). Publication biases may also  
394 be present, leading to an underrepresentation of actions that were ineffective (Josefsson et al.,  
395 2020; Wood, 2020). Finally, the individual actions we have characterized here are often part of  
396 more holistic schemes. For example, the successful combination of predator removal and  
397 maternal penning in one subpopulation of caribou recorded in Serrouya et al. (2019) can be  
398 largely attributed more generally to the conservation efforts and management of the West  
399 Moberly First Nations and Saluteau First Nations (Lamb et al., 2022). Despite these limitations,  
400 our study identified clear and concerning patterns in conservation research on endangered  
401 terrestrial species in Canada.

## 402 **Conclusions**

403 Many countries have committed to the ongoing conservation and recovery of global biodiversity,  
404 through the development of ambitious biodiversity targets (Convention on Biological Diversity,  
405 2022). However, as our analysis shows, we may still lack the evidence required to meet them.  
406 Despite half of conservation funding being spent on research and monitoring (Buxton et al.,  
407 2020), we found evidence describing the effectiveness of conservation action for less than half of  
408 terrestrial endangered species in Canada. There was a strong research bias against less  
409 charismatic taxonomic groups, resulting in no literature whatsoever for endangered mosses,  
410 lichens, or terrestrial molluscs. Concerningly, several of the most well-studied actions, including  
411 timber harvesting prescriptions and habitat restoration practices, were found to be ineffective or  
412 even harmful in many cases. This reinforces a dire need for adaptive management frameworks,  
413 prioritizing quick action where it is urgently required, but also monitoring and assessing the  
414 efficacy of the chosen approach. These results also highlight the necessity of open research and

415 the publication of null or negative results. Our database provides a starting point for scientists to  
416 understand the current knowledge gaps in the species-at-risk literature, and for practitioners to  
417 begin mobilizing the information we already have. The need for more evidence is apparent, but  
418 should not limit our capacity to act on the information currently available. If countries are to  
419 meet their goals of conserving biodiversity (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2022), they  
420 must prioritize implementing effective, evidence-based action and conducting research that can  
421 adequately address this gap.

422

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429

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646

647 Icons used in Figure 3 are from the following Noun Project ([thenounproject.com](http://thenounproject.com)) artists: okja,  
648 Amethyst Studio, Nicky Spencer, Yi Chen, Vectors Market, Brand Mania, Fahri, Delwar  
649 Hossain, Zack McCune, and Ian Rahmadi Kurniawan.