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Unpacking the mechanisms captured by a correlative species distribution model to improve predictions of climate refugia

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6 **Title:** Unpacking the mechanisms captured by a correlative SDM to improve predictions of  
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17 species distribution models

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19 **Abstract**

20 Climate refugia are regions that animals can retreat to, persist in, and potentially then expand  
21 from under changing environmental conditions. Most forecasts of climate change refugia for  
22 species are based on correlative species distribution models (SDMs) using long-term climate  
23 averages, projected to future climate scenarios. Limitations of such methods include the need  
24 to extrapolate into novel environments and uncertainty regarding the extent to which

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25 proximate variables included in the model capture processes driving distribution limits (and  
26 thus can be assumed to provide reliable predictions under new conditions). These limitations  
27 are well documented, however, their impact on the quality of climate refugia predictions is  
28 difficult to quantify. Here we develop a detailed bio-energetics model for the koala. It  
29 indicates that range limits are driven by heat-induced water stress, with the timing of rainfall  
30 and heat waves limiting the koala in the warmer parts of its range. We compare refugia  
31 predictions from the bio-energetics model with predictions from a suite of competing  
32 correlative SDMs under a range of future climate scenarios. SDMs were fitted using  
33 combinations of long-term climate and weather extremes variables, to test how well each set  
34 of predictions captures the knowledge embedded in the bio-energetics model. Correlative  
35 models produced broadly similar predictions to the bio-energetics model across much of the  
36 species' current range – with SDMs that included weather extremes showing highest  
37 congruence. However, predictions in some regions diverged significantly when projecting to  
38 future climates due to the breakdown in correlation between climate variables. We provide  
39 unique insight into the mechanisms driving koala distribution and illustrate the importance of  
40 subtle relationships between the timing of weather events, particularly rain relative to hot-  
41 spells, in driving species-climate relationships and distributions. By unpacking the  
42 mechanisms captured by correlative SDMs, we can increase our certainty in forecasts of  
43 climate change impacts on species.

## 44 **Introduction**

45 Considerable emphasis has been placed on identifying climatic refugia – regions that animals  
46 can retreat to, persist in, and potentially then expand from under changing environmental  
47 conditions (Keppel *et al.*, 2012). Refugia can include locations currently occupied by the  
48 species that remain suitable (*in situ* refugia), as well as currently unoccupied locations that  
49 can support the species as conditions change (*ex situ* refugia) (Ashcroft, 2010). Most  
50 commonly, refugia are identified using correlative species distribution models (SDMs),  
51 whereby the current distribution of a species is used to develop a model which statistically  
52 associates distribution with environmental layers (Peterson *et al.*, 2002, Thomas *et al.*, 2004).  
53 Refugia are then identified by projecting which areas will fall within the species  
54 'environmental envelope' under future climates (Guisan *et al.*, 2005). These models can be  
55 built with little or no information about the species (aside from distribution records) and have  
56 the potential to implicitly capture both abiotic and biotic processes that limit species  
57 distributions (Elith & Leathwick 2009). However, this approach has a number of limitations

58 when used to identify refugia under future anthropogenic climate change, including  
59 complications arising from deriving habitat suitability models from biased occurrence data  
60 (Guillera-Arroita *et al.*, 2015), the need to extrapolate when projecting models to no-analogue  
61 conditions (Fitzpatrick & Hargrove, 2009), and failure to explicitly capture biotic  
62 interactions and demographic processes that may strongly influence population persistence  
63 within refugia (Thuiller *et al.*, 2013). Here we focus primarily on the assumption that the  
64 relationship between proximate variables included in the models and the processes they  
65 implicitly capture remains constant (Guisan *et al.*, 2005, Elith & Leathwick, 2009, Jackson *et*  
66 *al.*, 2009).

67 Animals inhabit fluctuating environments, experiencing weather rather than the long-term  
68 climate averages typically used to model their distributions. Daily, seasonal and inter-annual  
69 variations in environmental conditions can influence species' distribution and abundance  
70 (Parmesan *et al.*, 2000, Reside *et al.*, 2010, Wernberg *et al.*, 2013) and an approach that  
71 captures these is needed to provide more robust predictions of refugia under future changes in  
72 climate. Recent extreme weather events have been linked to high mortality and reduced  
73 reproductive success in a range of taxa including birds, bats and arboreal mammals  
74 (Welbergen *et al.*, 2008, Catry *et al.*, 2011, Lunney *et al.*, 2012). Increased frequency or  
75 severity of these events in the future (Easterling *et al.*, 2000, Jentsch *et al.*, 2007) could lead  
76 to local extinction of species within these areas (Wernberg *et al.*, 2013), even if the average  
77 conditions remain suitable. Not surprisingly, a number of studies have found that species  
78 distribution models that include variables that quantify inter-annual variation in climate  
79 (Zimmermann *et al.*, 2009) or weather data that captures extremes such as drought and heat  
80 waves (Reside *et al.*, 2010, Bateman *et al.*, 2012) were better able to accurately identify  
81 suitable habitat under the current climate.

82 As well as better capturing how species are distributed currently, models that explicitly  
83 include effect of weather on species are important because the relationship between mean  
84 climate and extreme weather events is likely to change in the future. In some regions of the  
85 world, temperature extremes during particular seasons are projected to scale with changes in  
86 global annual mean temperature by a factor of more than two (Orlowsky & Seneviratne,  
87 2012). Physiologically stressful environments also frequently arise from interactions  
88 between multiple environmental conditions. For example, thermal stress for mussels in the  
89 intertidal zone is dependent on whether low tide (mussel exposure) coincides with the  
90 warmest part of the day (Helmuth *et al.*, 2002). For mammals or birds that rely on

91 evaporative cooling for temperature regulation, hot weather is most stressful during dry  
92 periods where access to water is limited (Albright *et al.*, 2010, Krockenberger *et al.*, 2012). In  
93 such cases, it is particularly important to model these interactions explicitly because any  
94 changes in the relationship between these variables in the future could lead to misleading  
95 conclusions about climatically suitable habitat if a single correlated variable is used as a  
96 proxy.

97 Biophysical ecology is a powerful approach with which to investigate how climate influences  
98 survival and reproductive output of individuals, and to make inferences about current and  
99 future species distributions (Porter & Gates, 1969, Buckley, 2008, Kearney & Porter, 2009).  
100 Biophysical models are based on the physical principles of energy and mass transfer (Bird *et*  
101 *al.*, 2002) and describe the exchange of energy, nutrients and water between organisms and  
102 their physical environment. They can be used to predict the energy and water requirements of  
103 endotherms based on their physiology, morphology and behaviour, as well as the  
104 microclimates they experience (Porter *et al.*, 2000, Porter & Mitchell, 2006). Using this  
105 approach it is possible to predict where species could survive and reproduce under both  
106 current and future climate by coupling predicted energy and water requirements with  
107 information on the amount of energy and water available to individuals (Kearney *et al.*,  
108 2013).

109 In this modelling framework, an animal's response to its environment can be simulated on an  
110 hourly basis using daily weather data, making it possible to capture a range of processes,  
111 including extremes, which limit species distributions. The combined effects of factors such as  
112 temperature, humidity and water availability on heat exchange, water balance and survival  
113 are explicitly modelled, meaning that predictions of animal responses under future climate  
114 scenarios are robust to changes in the relationships between these variables. As well as  
115 enabling predictions of species distribution shifts under climate change, this mechanistic  
116 approach grants insight into why these shifts are likely to occur, allowing us to identify and  
117 explore prediction uncertainty. For example, one can quantify the effect of differences in  
118 projected changes in key climate drivers, assess the potential for adaptation in key traits  
119 (Kearney *et al.*, 2009), or assess the likely impacts of concurrent changes in habitat properties  
120 (Kearney, 2013).

121 Despite the utility of process-based approaches such as bio-energetics modelling, evaluation  
122 of climate change impacts on species' are most frequently based on SDM predictions (Guisan

123 *et al.*, 2013). A number of studies have examined how modelling approach, assumptions  
124 about of future climates (emissions scenario and general circulation model), and the number  
125 and type of predictor variables, can influence correlative model predictions (Elith & Graham,  
126 2009, Buisson *et al.*, 2010, Synes & Osborne, 2011). An important but often neglected  
127 source of uncertainty is that, when used to project climate change impacts, correlative  
128 approaches assume that the relationship between proximate variables included in the models  
129 and the processes they implicitly capture remains constant (Guisan *et al.*, 2005, Elith &  
130 Leathwick, 2009). This is difficult to assess because we seldom know which processes are  
131 limiting a species distribution the most, and there is considerable uncertainty about how  
132 environmental factors will change in the future.

133 Here, we develop a fine spatial and temporal scale endotherm energetics model which  
134 describes the fundamental niche of the koala from a thermodynamic point of view, and use it  
135 to evaluate correlative models of the same species using daily and annual weather data under  
136 a variety of climate change scenarios. We consider the mechanisms driving the koala  
137 distribution at local to continental scales and investigate where and why process-based and  
138 correlative model predictions of refugia differ. Insight gained by ‘unpacking’ the mechanisms  
139 captured by different modelling approaches can help improve predictions of climate refugia  
140 and identify key sources of uncertainty in future projections.

## 141 **Materials and methods**

### 142 ***Study species***

143 The koala, *Phascolarctos cinereus*, is broadly distributed across eastern Australia (Fig. 1 -  
144 insert). Koalas feed predominantly on Eucalyptus foliage, a poor quality food source (Moore  
145 & Foley, 2000), and food intake is likely to be constrained by a relatively small body size.  
146 Foliage is also the primary source of water for koalas, particularly during dry periods when  
147 free water is not available in the environment. Koalas do not typically use any form of den  
148 but reduce heat loads by seeking shade and cool tree trunks during hot weather (Briscoe *et al.*,  
149 2014, Crowther *et al.*, 2014). High koala mortality has been observed during extreme heat  
150 events that coincide with periods of low rainfall (Gordon *et al.*, 1988).

### 151 ***Biophysical model***

152 To generate bio-energetic predictions of climate refugia for koalas we used Niche Mapper  
153 (Porter *et al.*, 2000, Porter & Mitchell, 2006), a modelling framework that calculates energy

154 and water requirements of animals based on their behavioural, morphological and  
155 physiological traits, and the microclimates available to them. Niche Mapper consists of a  
156 microclimate model and an animal model. The microclimate model translates location, terrain  
157 and weather station data (daily air temperature, wind speed, cloud cover and humidity) into  
158 the range of microclimatic conditions available to the animal based on properties of the  
159 environment specified by the user (e.g. slope, aspect, soil properties, available shade) (Porter  
160 *et al.*, 1973, Kearney *et al.*, 2014).

161 The animal model then uses the principles of heat and mass transfer to determine the  
162 metabolic rate and water turnover required for the animal to maintain the core body  
163 temperature within specified limits, based upon its traits and the range of microclimates  
164 available to it (Porter & Mitchell, 2006, Porter *et al.*, 2006). Input data used to model koalas  
165 included the range and order of thermoregulatory behaviours (e.g. shade seeking behaviour,  
166 postural changes), as well as morphological data (body dimensions and shape, fur  
167 characteristics) and physiological data (core temperature, target metabolic rate; see Table S1).  
168 Niche Mapper first calculates heat-fluxes using the initial conditions specified by the user. If  
169 the predicted hourly metabolic rate is more than 2.5% above or below the minimum  
170 metabolic rate, a set of thermoregulatory behaviours, and then physiological adjustments, are  
171 enacted to bring the predicted metabolic rate closer to minimum levels (Table S1). Once the  
172 predicted metabolic rate is within the allowable range, or if all thermoregulatory options are  
173 exhausted, the program moves onto the next hour, with all input parameters (e.g. posture, fur  
174 properties) reset to initial values. This version of the model assumes that the animal reaches a  
175 thermal steady state within each hour. The Niche Mapper model performs well in describing  
176 koala energy and water requirements when tested against metabolic chamber and field data  
177 collected during hot, dry conditions that are of primary interest here (Briscoe, 2014).

178 We identified climate refugia by modelling habitat suitability for reproducing females  
179 because for populations to persist individuals must successfully reproduce. In addition,  
180 limitations on lactating females appear to restrict koala distributions in hot inland and  
181 northern areas (Briscoe, *unpublished data*), and populations within these regions are most  
182 likely to be affected by climate change. Daily water and energy requirements for lactation in  
183 females were estimated by splining measurements of milk-energy intake by offspring  
184 (assumed to equal milk production) made at seven time points during lactation  
185 (Krockenberger *et al.*, 1998), and combining these with milk composition data  
186 (Krockenberger, 1996; Table S1). Koalas vary in morphological traits (body size and fur)

187 across their range, which alters their sensitivity to climate (Briscoe *et al.*, 2015). We  
188 modelled koalas with site-specific body size and fur properties estimated from current  
189 geographic clines in traits (Briscoe *et al.*, 2015), thus making the assumption that  
190 morphological clines remain constant over time.

191 To assess current and future habitat suitability we used predicted energy and water  
192 requirements of koalas at each site to calculate how much food (*Eucalyptus* leaves) a koala  
193 would need to consume each week to meet both energy and water requirements. Food intake  
194 to meet energy requirements was estimated assuming that leaves had an energy content of  
195  $20.1 \text{ kJ.g}^{-1}$  of dry matter and that koalas were able to metabolize 45% of this energy (Nagy &  
196 Martin, 1985). To calculate food intake to meet water requirements we assumed 66% of  
197 preformed water within leaves was available to koalas and foliage water content was 56%  
198 (Nagy & Martin, 1985). Where increased food intake was required to meet water  
199 requirements, it was assumed that koalas display a flexible digestive strategy and only  
200 metabolize sufficient energy to meet requirements (Ellis *et al.* 2010). We calculated yearly  
201 habitat suitability scores ( $S$ ) as: 1- the proportion of weeks in each year that koalas needed to  
202 increase food intake above maintenance levels (Cork *et al.*, 1983) to meet thermoregulatory  
203 costs. If predicted food intake (assuming high foliage water content – 66%) exceeded the  
204 maximum food intake rate recorded for koalas (Krockenberger, 2003) for more than one  
205 week, we set  $S$  to 0. We conservatively assumed koalas could obtain sufficient free water to  
206 balance their water budget (e.g. from wet leaves) if rain in the past week exceeded 1 mm, and  
207 explored the impact of different foliage water content values (47%, 66%) on predicted  
208 distributions.

209 In fluctuating natural environments, the persistence of species may be influenced by temporal  
210 patterns in habitat suitability; the effect of poor years may be partially offset by subsequent  
211 good years that allow high survival and reproductive success, while prolonged periods of  
212 stress may result in local extinction (Harrison, 2000). To account for this we calculated site  
213 habitat suitability ( $\bar{S}$ ) by taking the mean of habitat suitability scores for each 20 year period  
214 simulated, with the additional constraint that sites were classed as unsuitable ( $\bar{S}= 0$ ) if any  
215 single generation could not survive and reproduce (i.e. suitability across any 5 year period  
216 was 0).

217 **Maxent models**

218 We generated correlative model predictions of koala distributions using Maxent (Phillips *et*  
219 *al.*, 2006). We focused on Maxent because it is a widely used modelling approach that is  
220 designed for presence-only data. We obtained koala presence records from the Atlas of  
221 Living Australia (ALA: <http://www.ala.org.au>) as well as obtaining additional records from  
222 Australian state government agencies (see Acknowledgements). These datasets spanned  
223 1900-2013 and included data from a range of sources including incidental observations and  
224 planned surveys (total 66314 records). We excluded all records that were not accurate to 1  
225 km or less and records from prior to 1960, and then randomly selected one observation per  
226 grid cell (0.05° resolution). Island and coastal sample points that were not covered by the  
227 climate layers were also excluded, leaving 4387 records. Rather than absence data, Maxent  
228 takes background samples that are assumed to have the same geographic and environmental  
229 extent as the region sampled for presence data. Choice of background region can influence  
230 predicted habitat suitability and should reflect knowledge of sampling as well as the intended  
231 model application (Elith *et al.*, 2011). We generated a background layer by selecting all  
232 IBRA bioregions (Interim Biogeographic Regionalisation for Australia, Department of the  
233 Environment, 2012) that contained at least one koala presence observation, as well as  
234 bioregions immediately adjacent or surrounded by these. Tasmania was excluded because  
235 Bass Strait is likely to act as a geographic barrier to dispersal, thus the absence of koala  
236 observations from this region may reflect geographic rather than environmental range-  
237 limiting processes. Background samples ( $n=10,000$ ) were generated by randomly sampling  
238 this layer, accounting for differences in cell area across latitude (Elith *et al.*, 2011).

239 We used two sets of environmental variables to model koala habitat suitability using Maxent.  
240 First, following previous studies of koalas (Adams-Hosking *et al.*, 2011, Adams-Hosking *et*  
241 *al.*, 2012, Santika *et al.*, 2015) we modelled koalas with two variables calculated from long-  
242 term climate averages: mean annual rainfall and mean maximum summer temperature (mean  
243 temperature of the warmest period). Second, using daily weather data we generated five  
244 candidate variables that we believed reflected processes that drive koala distributions:  
245 maximum run of dry days (days with <1mm of rainfall), 95<sup>th</sup> percentile temperature (T95),  
246 maximum run of hot, dry days (days with maximum temperatures in the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile &  
247 rainfall<1mm), and average vapour pressure during hot weather (daily maximum temperature  
248 in the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile) (Gordon *et al.*, 1988, Clifton *et al.*, 2007, Lunney *et al.*, 2012). Both  
249 ‘averages’ and ‘extreme’ variables were calculated using 20-year weather datasets for current

250 and future (2070) climates (see below). The two variables designed to capture extreme heat  
251 effects – T95 and the maximum run of hot days – were correlated ( $r = 0.69$ ). It is common  
252 practice to discard highly correlated variables by retaining the variable with the highest  
253 contributing weight, because including correlated variables in models can influence  
254 parameter estimates and inflate variable importance (Dormann *et al.*, 2013; although see Elith  
255 *et al.*, 2011). Since our aim was to compare predictions generated using variables that  
256 captured the processes we believed limit koala distributions and we had no *a priori* reason to  
257 preference one variable over the other, we ran separate models that excluded the maximum  
258 run of hot days (extremes A) and excluded T95 (extremes B). This allowed us to analyse and  
259 compare predictions of models in which climate variables show high correlation at the  
260 present time, but are predicted to diverge (show lower correlation) in future times under  
261 alternative climate scenarios.

262 Koalas feed predominantly on Eucalyptus trees; therefore we included Eucalyptus forest or  
263 woodland cover in all Maxent models. Using a 100m resolution land cover layer (NVIS 4.1,  
264 <http://www.environment.gov.au>) we calculated the proportion of 100m x 100m cells  
265 classified as Eucalyptus woodlands or forest within each 0.05° cell.

266 Presence-only datasets may provide a biased view of a species distribution due to uneven  
267 sampling effort. Koalas are better surveyed than many arboreal species, but sampling bias  
268 towards roads is possible (Mair & Ruete, 2016). Therefore we also included road density as a  
269 covariate in all Maxent models. We then generated predictions for a constant level of  
270 ‘sampling effort’ (*sensu* Leathwick *et al.*, 2006, Warton *et al.*, 2013). To test the effects of  
271 this approach to modelling bias, we also built models with only environmental and landcover  
272 data (i.e. not accounting for bias) and using a bias grid approach (Phillips *et al.* 2009, Merow  
273 *et al.* 2013 – see Fig. S1). We used hinge features ( $\text{beta\_hinge} = 2.5$ ) as these allow for  
274 smooth, more biologically realistic response curves that reduce over-fitting and are more  
275 appropriate for predicting into new environments (Elith *et al.*, 2010). All models were built  
276 using the ‘dismo’ package in R (Hijmans *et al.*, 2013, R Core Team, 2014).

### 277 ***Future climate data***

278 We simulated future climate data by adding projected monthly changes in temperature,  
279 humidity, solar radiation and wind speed for 2070 onto interpolated daily weather data for  
280 1990-2009 obtained from the Australian Water Availability Project (Raupach *et al.*, 2009,  
281 2012). Projected changes in climate differ between general circulation models (GCMs),

282 sometimes considerably. For example, rainfall in some regions of Australia is predicted to  
283 increase or decrease, depending on the climate model (Smith *et al.*, 2013). Because we were  
284 primarily interested in identifying climate refugia, we present predictions based on ACCESS  
285 1.3 (Bi *et al.*, 2013), which represents a relatively dry future scenario in northern parts of the  
286 koalas range (i.e. worst case scenario). To assess whether choice of GCM is an important  
287 source of uncertainty in identifying koala refugia in the future, we also generated Maxent  
288 predictions using five other general circulation models that perform well in capturing past  
289 climate in Australia (Watterson *et al.*, 2013), provide all variables required by the biophysical  
290 model, and represent a range of possible future rainfall scenarios across eastern Australia:  
291 ACCESS 1.0 (Bi *et al.*, 2013), HadGem2-ES (Jones *et al.*, 2011), CanESM2 (Chylek *et al.*,  
292 2011), HadGem2-CC (Martin *et al.*, 2011), and GDFL-CM3 (Griffies *et al.*, 2011). Each  
293 Niche Mapper simulation required that energy and mass balances were solved every hour for  
294 20 years at 114,000 sites across eastern Australia (~20 billion calculations). Due to these  
295 computational demands, Niche Mapper models were only run at high resolution with two  
296 GCMs – ACCESS 1.3 and HadGEM2-CC, with HadGEM2-CC selected because preliminary  
297 modelling indicated that it showed the greatest divergence from ACCESS 1.3 in regions  
298 currently occupied by koalas (Fig. S2). Downscaled projected monthly changes for 2070  
299 were obtained as the differences from the base period (1990-2009) using SimCLIM (Yin *et*  
300 *al.*, 2013) (1km resolution) and assuming greenhouse gas concentrations for RCP8.5 and a  
301 moderate response to increased CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Riahi *et al.*, 2011). RCP 8.5 was selected  
302 as global greenhouse gas emissions have followed the most intensive emissions scenario  
303 (A1FI under the previous Special Report on Emission Scenarios) (Le Quere *et al.*, 2009).

304 At each site we splined predicted monthly changes in each variable to predict daily changes  
305 over an annual cycle, which were then applied to daily weather data for 1990-2009.

306 Temperature and humidity values were adjusted by adding on the predicted change, while  
307 wind speed and cloud cover were adjusted using a proportional change factor (CSIRO and  
308 Bureau of Meteorology, 2015) – an approach commonly used in impact assessments (Webb *et*  
309 *al.*, 2008, Bell *et al.*, 2012). To generate rainfall predictions we applied the monthly predicted  
310 changes in total precipitation to observed monthly rainfall values (1990-2009), with the  
311 constraint that monthly rainfall could not fall below 0. We then multiplied rainfall from all of  
312 the days with rainfall greater than 0 by a set proportion, such that the new monthly total  
313 rainfall matched predictions. This simple approach assumes that all rainy days are similarly  
314 affected however changes in the length of dry spells could occur if changes in rainfall

315 resulted in days that were previously classified as ‘rainy days’ being classified as ‘dry days’  
316 (i.e. if rainfall fell below 1 mm) and vice versa. Climate change may also alter the  
317 distribution of rainfall, resulting in intense rainfall events followed by longer runs of dry  
318 days. Spatial and regional predictions of how changes in variance are likely to influence  
319 patterns of daily weather and extremes were not available at the time of our study and  
320 therefore these types of changes are not captured in our simulated future weather datasets.  
321 Averages and extremes variables used in Maxent models were then generated for 2070 using  
322 this new 20-year daily time series.

323 Niche Mapper predictions and future climate layers were generated using a high-performance  
324 computing platform (‘Barcoo’ an IBM iDataplex x86 system with 1120 Intel Sandybridge  
325 compute cores running at 2.7GHz) administrated by the Victorian Life Sciences Computation  
326 Initiative.

### 327 ***Model evaluation & comparison***

328 To assess the predictive power of the Niche Mapper model we calculated AUC values  
329 (Swets, 1979) from the predicted habitat suitability score ( $\bar{S}$ ) under the current climate for  
330 each koala observation location, as well as habitat suitability scores at 10,000 randomly  
331 distributed background points using the package pROC (Robin *et al.*, 2011). To test how well  
332 Niche Mapper captured temporal changes in habitat suitability, we also calculated AUC  
333 values using the mean of predicted habitat suitability for the year of the koala observation and  
334 the year prior ( $n = 6472$ ). Maxent models were assessed using 10-fold cross validation, with  
335 test AUC calculated as the mean of AUCs calculated from the predicted suitability scores at  
336 held-out ‘test’ presence locations in each fold, and 10,000 randomly distributed background  
337 points. AUC values were calculated using fitted (actual road density) and projected  
338 (assuming constant high road density) predictions.

339 Evaluating species distribution models against presence/absence data provides additional  
340 information about whether the model is over-predicting, as well as under-predicting  
341 (Guillera-Arroita *et al.*, 2015). Absence data were not readily available to evaluate the  
342 models, however we were able to generate absence data by assuming that koalas were absent  
343 from sites where other arboreal or semi-arboreal mammals were observed (i.e. we assumed  
344 that, if koalas were present at the site, they too would have been observed). These  
345 assumptions are likely to be most realistic for visual observations (e.g. spotlighting) in  
346 planned/systematic surveys, however we were unable to obtain information about the type of

347 record from all states and so included all records. ‘Absence’ (non-observation) data derived  
348 in this way can be thought of as possessing reliability intermediate between randomly chosen  
349 pseudo-absence data and systematically recorded field absences. To minimise the risk of  
350 including false absence points within inhabited sites, we excluded absence points that were  
351 within 10km of koala presence observations (the maximum dispersal distance across a range  
352 of koala studies). This left 3285 absence points with which to evaluate the model (Fig. S3).  
353 Using this dataset we generated AUC values of all models using the package pROC (Robin *et*  
354 *al.*, 2011). Within this dataset, absence points were located primarily within the koala’s  
355 range, thus these values reflect the model’s ability to distinguish habitat used by koalas from  
356 habitat used by other arboreal mammals at relatively fine (~10km) scales.

357 We examined correlations between habitat suitability predicted by Niche Mapper and Maxent  
358 models across all time periods using Pearson’s correlation coefficients and quantile  
359 regression, as well as by visually assessing spatial patterns in predictions. We examined  
360 relationships with and without incorporating dynamic information about habitat suitability  
361 (e.g. suitability across sequential years) into Niche Mapper model predictions, since Maxent  
362 models produced a single (static) prediction of habitat suitability. We generated uncertainty  
363 maps by plotting the standard deviation of predicted habitat suitability for i) Maxent models  
364 varying predictor variables (averages, extremes A, extremes B) and GCM, ii) Niche Mapper  
365 varying foliage water content (low, med, high, predict) and GCM. We also produced a  
366 combined uncertainty map after re-scaling Niche Mapper predictions by multiplying by the  
367 maximum habitat suitability predicted by Maxent models under the current climate (0.7).

## 368 **Results**

369 The Niche Mapper model had high predictive power when tested against independently  
370 collected presence data (Fig. 1a), with an AUC of 0.868 (95% CI: 0.861-0.874). Our  
371 simulations suggest that the key process limiting distributions is the ability of koalas to meet  
372 their weekly water requirements. Whether koalas are predicted to be able to survive and  
373 reproduce in regions that impose high water loss rates is influenced strongly by the timing of  
374 rainfall and by leaf water content. In particular, obtaining free water from the environment  
375 (by eating wet leaves or drinking) means that koalas could meet their water requirements  
376 when they could not acquire sufficient water from food intake alone due to intake constraints.  
377 Consistent with this, simulations indicate that predicted inland range-limits are dynamic,  
378 showing considerable inter-annual variation, driven by the timing of rainfall relative to

379 thermally stressful conditions (Fig. S4). These temporal trends were reflected in presence  
380 data, with higher AUC values when habitat suitability was calculated using the years prior to,  
381 and of, the observation, rather than the mean across all years (AUC = 0.887, 95% CI: 0.884-  
382 0.890). In southern inland regions, some sites were predicted to be unsuitable for reproducing  
383 females for one generation or more, despite moderate habitat suitability across the 20 year  
384 period (Fig. 2).

385 In the averages Maxent model (Fig. 1b), predicted habitat suitability decreased markedly in  
386 regions with mean maximum monthly temperatures greater than 37°C and annual rainfall less  
387 than 600mm. Habitat suitability was also lower where Eucalyptus forest or woodland  
388 comprised less than 10% or more than 80% of the cell, although this variable had low relative  
389 contribution (4.2%) to the model. Predicted habitat suitability from the two extremes models  
390 was very similar under the current climate (Fig. 1c,d). Both models had average test AUC  
391 values of  $0.908 \pm 0.009$  and response curves showed very similar patterns, although variable  
392 contributions to the model differed (Table 1, Fig. S5). In both models, habitat suitability  
393 decreased in regions with maximum runs of dry days greater than 35 and very high or low  
394 vapour pressure during hot weather. Habitat suitability was again lower where Eucalyptus  
395 forest or woodland comprised less than 10% of the cell, but this variable made a slightly  
396 higher (8-9%) contribution to the models. In extremes model A, habitat suitability declined in  
397 regions with 95<sup>th</sup> percentile temperatures > 32°C with a sharp decline >39°C, while in  
398 extremes model B, habitat suitability declined sharply in regions with maximum runs of hot,  
399 dry days greater than 7.5 days. The fitted responses for all Maxent models showed declining  
400 frequency of observed presence with low road density, most likely reflecting the absence of  
401 sampling in more remote areas. To factor out this sampling bias we predicted distributions  
402 under current and future climates to a constant road density (i.e. constant sampling effort,  
403 *sensu* Leathwick *et al.*, 2006, Warton *et al.* 2013). Model AUC values were calculated using  
404 both fitted and projected (i.e. assuming constant high sampling) layers. Models fit using a  
405 sample bias grid in Maxent (an alternative approach for dealing with bias) showed very  
406 similar spatial predictions and model performance (Supporting Information, Fig S1a-f), while  
407 models that did not account for sampling bias predicted slightly lower habitat suitability in  
408 some regions of inland and northern Australia (Fig S1g-i).

409 Maxent models had slightly higher predictive ability than the Niche Mapper model, with test  
410 AUC values calculated using presence-background data ranging from 0.894 – 0.908 (Table  
411 1). When assessed using presence-‘absence’ data generated using records of other arboreal

412 mammals, all models had lower predictive power, however the Maxent models, particularly  
413 extremes model B, were much better at identifying koala habitat (Table 1).

#### 414 *Predictions & sources of uncertainty*

415 Under the current climate, Niche Mapper predictions of koala habitat suitability were most  
416 strongly correlated with the two Maxent models based on weather as opposed to climate  
417 variables (Table 2), although there was a positive correlation ( $r > 0.7$ ) between all four sets of  
418 predictions. Quantile regression (5<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles) illustrated that the Maxent  
419 models that included weather show strong agreement with Niche Mapper in regions that  
420 Niche Mapper predicts to have low mean habitat suitability (all intercepts  $< 0.1$ ), with greater  
421 divergence in regions Niche Mapper predicted to be highly suitable (95<sup>th</sup> percentile slopes:  
422 0.64 and 0.58, 5<sup>th</sup> percentile slopes: 0.12 and 0.1, Fig. 3). This is likely because Niche  
423 Mapper has no information about the presence of Eucalyptus trees (Fig. 2b). When we  
424 constrained the Niche Mapper output so that sites that were predicted to be unsuitable for one  
425 generation had a suitability of 0, the agreement between models weakened. This indicates  
426 that at least some of these sites that were reclassified had moderate values of habitat  
427 suitability when temporal trends in poor years were not considered. There was a weaker  
428 relationship between habitat suitability predicted by the averages Maxent model and Niche  
429 Mapper (Table 2), with less agreement regarding which areas were unsuitable (95<sup>th</sup> percentile  
430 intercept = 0.32, Fig. 3). Most notably, the Maxent averages model predicted moderately high  
431 habitat suitability in some regions of northern Australia that were predicted to be unsuitable  
432 by Niche Mapper (Fig. 2).

433 Under future climate scenarios (ACCESS 1.3), all models predicted a range contraction  
434 towards the coast, with all Maxent models also predicting that regions of high habitat  
435 suitability will be concentrated in the south (Fig 2). Future predictions from the mechanistic  
436 model showed the strongest agreement with Maxent model extremes A ( $r = 0.85$ , Table 2).  
437 Despite having very similar predictions under the current climate (Fig 1) the Maxent models  
438 based on weather extremes made quite different predictions under climate change, with  
439 Maxent extremes B predicting a much more rapid and severe decline in northern regions,  
440 including coastal populations (Fig. 1).

441 MESS maps (Multivariate Environmental Similarity Surfaces, Elith *et al.*, 2010), indicated  
442 that Maxent B was extrapolating in these northern regions, with much longer runs of hot, dry  
443 days than observed under the current climate (Fig. S6). The Maxent model based on climate

444 averages showed slightly higher agreement with Niche Mapper predictions in the future  
445 (2070), with regions of northern Australia now projected to be unsuitable by both models.  
446 The averages model predicted declines in habitat suitability across regions of southern  
447 Australia that were predicted to be relatively unaffected by climate change by Niche Mapper  
448 and the weather Maxent models (Fig. 1).

449 Prediction uncertainty across Maxent models was highest in northern Australia under the  
450 current climate, but shifted to be concentrated along the northern coastal region and south-  
451 eastern Australia by 2070 (Fig. 4). Changes in simulated water content of leaves strongly  
452 influenced Niche Mapper predictions across inland regions under both current and future  
453 climates. Under projected 2070 climates, only southern coastal regions had both high mean  
454 predicted habitat suitability and low prediction uncertainty across all models (due to GCM,  
455 differences in leaf water content and predictor variables). Climate refugia for 2070 predicted  
456 with high confidence (moderate-high habitat suitability across all models and scenarios) were  
457 located along coastal areas in southern Victoria, South Australia and southern NSW, as well  
458 as the NSW north coast, and New England Tablelands (Fig. 4d). While there was strong  
459 agreement about the loss of suitable habitat in northern inland regions across all models,  
460 predictions regarding the location and quality of habitat in northern Australia differed (Fig.  
461 4c). Locations of potential refugia in north-eastern Australia (Fig. 4d) were strongly driven  
462 by NicheMapper predictions of habitat suitability assuming low foliage water content (i.e.  
463 under the most pessimistic circumstances). Prediction uncertainty for Maxent models using  
464 all six GCMs was similar to prediction uncertainty using ACCESS 1.3 and HadGEM2-CC ( $r$   
465 = 0.973, Fig. S7). The effect of GCM on predicted habitat suitability varied between models  
466 and regions, with ACCESS 1.3 associated with lower predicted habitat suitability in northern  
467 regions for all models excluding Maxent extremes B, and higher habitat suitability in south-  
468 west areas of the modelled region for Niche Mapper and to a lesser extent, the Maxent  
469 extremes models (Fig. S8). Across the modelled region, predictor variables (simulated water  
470 content, selected environmental variables) were a greater source of uncertainty than the  
471 choice of GCM.

## 472 **Discussion**

473 Climate change has multiple dimensions spanning both time and space (Garcia *et al.*, 2014)  
474 yet climate change forecasts based on correlative SDMs have predominantly characterized  
475 species responses to climate averages, paying much less attention to climate extremes or the

476 timing of climate events (Helmuth *et al.*, 2014). Our results indicate that the timing of  
477 thermally stressful conditions relative to water availability (recent rainfall and foliage water  
478 content) is an important driver of koala distributions and will strongly determine the locations  
479 of climate and weather refugia in the coming decades. Thermally stressful conditions coupled  
480 with low water availability are likely to be an important determinant of the future  
481 distributions of a range of taxa (Kearney *et al.*, 2010, Krockenberger *et al.*, 2012) and our  
482 results suggest that explicitly modelling these, and related extreme conditions, could improve  
483 the predictive power of correlative species distribution models.

484 Predictions generated using correlative and process-explicit models rely on very different  
485 assumptions and can capture different processes (Dormann *et al.*, 2012). They can therefore  
486 be viewed as independent lines of evidence, with congruent forecasts viewed as more likely  
487 (Morin & Thuiller, 2009, Kearney *et al.*, 2010). In our study, both Niche Mapper and  
488 Maxent simulation sets identified coastal regions of southern and south-eastern Australia as  
489 climate refugia for koalas and predicted the loss of inland northern inland populations by  
490 2070. These predictions were consistent across different modelling approaches, GCMs and  
491 predictor variables, providing a sound basis for conservation decisions about how to manage  
492 these particular regions. These refugial areas were largely *in situ* (falling within the koala's  
493 current range), although additional *ex situ* climate refugia may exist in regions not considered  
494 in this study because they are inaccessible due to dispersal barriers (e.g. Tasmania). Results  
495 from the biophysical model also provide insight into the types of habitat that may provide  
496 important refuges for koalas at finer scales within marginal inland and northern regions that  
497 are expected to become increasingly unsuitable (e.g. Fig. 4d). Habitats where koalas have  
498 access to cooler microclimates (e.g. due to fine-scale topographic relief), and either free water  
499 or high foliage water content, can help buffer koalas against heat-related mortality during  
500 extreme years (Gordon *et al.*, 1988). Such refuges are likely to become increasingly  
501 important for the persistence of many inland populations in the coming decades, both in  
502 marginal regions and areas that show considerable inter-annual variability (e.g. Fig 2c).

503 Despite the fact that all SDM predictor sets used in our study were designed to capture the  
504 same process (heat stress and water availability), the predicted impact of climate change on  
505 koalas differed considerably between models. Our analyses suggest that the commonly  
506 adopted process of removing variables that are correlated under the current climate could  
507 strongly influence future predictions because variable sets that are interchangeable under  
508 current conditions can diverge in the future (e.g. T95 and length of heat events, Table S2).

509 Consistent with a number of previous studies, we also found that models with different  
510 variable sets had similar predictive power as measured by AUC (a widely used metric) under  
511 the current climate, yet produced very different forecasts of species responses to climate  
512 change (Elith *et al.*, 2010, Synes & Osborne, 2011). The problems associated with projecting  
513 to new environments with different correlation structure have been highlighted by studies  
514 examining collinearity (Dormann *et al.*, 2013). However, discussions have largely focused on  
515 statistical approaches that can be used to identify and help reduce the impacts of collinearity,  
516 with less focus on how to select predictor variables (although see Barbet-Massin & Jetz,  
517 2014).

518 Interrogating and comparing predictions from different modelling approaches is one way to  
519 gain insight into the strengths and weaknesses of different approaches (Guisan &  
520 Zimmermann, 2000, Elith & Graham, 2009), why predictions differ, and what processes are  
521 (and are not) being captured by individual models (Elith *et al.*, 2010). For example, the  
522 averages model overestimates habitat suitability in northern Australia compared with the  
523 mechanistic model and the two weather-based correlative models (Fig. 1,2a). Across this  
524 northern region, annual rainfall and maximum temperatures alone are poor predictors of  
525 whether koalas are likely to be able to meet their water requirements. This is because periods  
526 of high water requirements coincide with a prolonged dry season, and high vapour pressure  
527 during hot weather may also reduce the effectiveness of evaporative cooling. The limits of  
528 the mechanistic model are also evident from this comparison; information about whether  
529 koalas can meet their energy and water requirements provides a strong basis for predicting  
530 koala distribution limits but not for discriminating between habitat utilized by koalas and  
531 other arboreal mammals at finer scales within climatically suitable regions. Niche Mapper  
532 does not use information about the availability of Eucalyptus trees, or where koalas are  
533 currently found in the landscape (which reflects where food trees are available), and  
534 consequently predicts some regions to be highly suitable that do not contain suitable koala  
535 habitat (i.e. food trees). The usefulness and robustness of a particular model is heavily  
536 influenced by the aim and scale of the study (Guisan *et al.*, 2013). For example, the ability to  
537 identify climatically suitable regions not currently inhabited by the species can be a strength  
538 of mechanistic approaches (e.g. when identifying translocation sites for species with  
539 restricted ranges – (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013)). However, integrating Niche Mapper predictions  
540 with land-use data will be necessary for many management decisions, including where to  
541 conserve existing koala habitat.

542 We assume that the availability of Eucalyptus trees remains constant to 2070 and beyond,  
543 providing food and shelter throughout the period. This may not be the case (Adams-Hosking  
544 *et al.* 2012, Butt *et al.* 2013). Our results suggest that even if Eucalyptus habitat remains  
545 available, changes in climate are likely to lead to the loss of koala populations in inland  
546 northern regions. However, the contraction and fragmentation of koala food tree distributions  
547 may exacerbate koala range retraction, and will be a key concern when managing climate  
548 change refugia (Adams-Hosking *et al.* 2012).

549 Our analyses suggest that the inclusion of weather variables that reflect physiologically  
550 stressful conditions, such as the maximum length of dry spells, could improve SDM  
551 forecasts. However, adequately characterizing physiologically stressful 'extreme' conditions  
552 for species is not straightforward (Helmuth *et al.*, 2014). Extremes are typically defined  
553 statistically (e.g. as those with  $\leq 5\%$  statistical probability of occurrence) with reference to a  
554 base climate (Meehl *et al.*, 2000, Smith, 2011). In our study, discrepancies between future  
555 predictions from the two extremes models were largely driven by the fact that in more stable  
556 northern environments, higher maximum temperatures have a disproportionate effect on the  
557 length of sequential days with temperatures in the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile, with these longer heat  
558 events leading to low predicted habitat suitability across northern regions (Fig. 2d). The  
559 biophysical model predicted that, in at least some of these northern regions, koalas would be  
560 able to meet their water requirements during these longer heat events. But this inference is  
561 dependent on the availability of suitable foliage (which may be affected by extended dry hot  
562 weather) and does not account for other potential fitness consequences, such as trade-offs  
563 between foraging and behavioural thermoregulation (du Plessis *et al.*, 2012), which are not  
564 captured by the model. Where biological data is available, the use of species-specific  
565 thresholds to define extreme events is an alternative approach that could be used to define  
566 extreme conditions for species that do not show geographic variation in these traits (Smith,  
567 2011).

568 Niche Mapper predictions were sensitive to simulated foliage water content, which influences  
569 how easily koalas can meet their water requirements. Landscape-level data on foliage water  
570 content across seasons is not available for koala food trees, and leaf properties and intake  
571 constraints may also change in the future due to the combined effect of higher CO<sub>2</sub>  
572 concentrations and changes in climate (Lawler *et al.*, 1997). Koalas are likely to be  
573 particularly sensitive to such changes (Lunney *et al.*, 2012). By predicting koala responses  
574 across a range of foliage water content values, we were able to identify where model

575 predictions are most sensitive to this parameter (and thus where data collection would be  
576 yield the biggest reduction in model uncertainty) as well as where management actions  
577 directed at increasing foliage water available to koalas could be most effective. This ability to  
578 explore how changes in key parameters influence predicted distribution limits is one of the  
579 strengths of mechanistic modelling approaches (Kearney *et al.*, 2009).

580 Body size and fur properties can also influence climate sensitivity and predicted habitat  
581 suitability in koalas and were estimated from museum data in our study (Briscoe *et al.*, 2015).  
582 While we assumed that trait distributions remain constant through time, clines in traits may  
583 shift in response to climate change (Gardner *et al.*, 2009), potentially reducing koala  
584 population vulnerability.

585 Future koala distributions will also be influenced by variation in habitat suitability. Rather  
586 than representing model uncertainty, the inter-annual variation in habitat suitability predicted  
587 by Niche Mapper reflects the dynamic nature of habitat suitability within inland regions and  
588 is consistent with studies showing that koalas are more broadly distributed during favourable  
589 conditions in these regions but contract during drought (Seabrook *et al.*, 2011). However,  
590 poor years may have disproportionate effects on population dynamics (Altwegg *et al.*, 2006,  
591 Frederiksen *et al.*, 2008), and demographic processes including dispersal are likely to modify  
592 the relationship between predicted habitat suitability and long-term population persistence  
593 (Johst *et al.*, 2002). Where sufficient data are available, predictions of weather impacts on  
594 individuals could be translated into estimates of long-term population persistence using a  
595 meta-population framework (Bennie *et al.*, 2013), a promising avenue for future research.

596 To be useful for conservation, species distribution models need to identify refugia where  
597 populations are most likely to persist – which may be different to identifying regions that are  
598 suitable on average (Keppel *et al.*, 2015). We should also have high confidence in predicted  
599 refugia in that they should be robust to potential sources of uncertainty and extreme events,  
600 especially if they become relatively isolated and difficult to recolonize. Characterising and  
601 quantifying model uncertainty allows explicit consideration of uncertainty in conservation  
602 decisions (Diniz-Filho *et al.*, 2009, Kujala *et al.*, 2013). However, we suggest that effort also  
603 needs to be directed at reducing uncertainty by improving our understanding of the processes  
604 that limit species distributions. Combining biophysical modelling approaches, that do not rely  
605 on correlations between variables and so are more likely to perform similarly under current

606 and future climates (Dormann *et al.*, 2012), with statistical ecological approaches is one way  
607 to improve the quality and certainty of refugia predictions.

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618

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## 895 **Supporting Information**

896 Table S1: Key physiological, morphological and behavioural parameters used in the koala  
897 Niche Mapper model

898 Table S2: Correlations between environmental variables used in Maxent models under  
899 current and future climates.

900 Figure S1: Effect of approaches used to account for sampling bias on model predictions  
901 Figure S2: Effect of GCM on Niche Mapper predictions of koala habitat suitability in 2070.  
902 Figure S3: Presence and 'absence' points used to evaluate koala distribution models.  
903 Figure S4: Yearly Niche Mapper predictions of koala habitat suitability across eastern  
904 Australia (1990-2009).  
905 Figure S5: Marginal response curves for Maxent models.  
906 Figure S6: MESS maps of Maxent predictions showing regions of extrapolation.  
907 Figure S7: Maxent model prediction uncertainty due to predictor variables and GCMs.  
908 Figure S8: Difference in predicted habitat suitability for koalas in 2070 across models due to  
909 general circulation model.

910

### 911 **Figure captions**

912 Figure 1. Predicted habitat suitability for koalas under current and 2070 climates as predicted  
913 by a) Niche Mapper, b) Maxent with long-term climate averages, c) Maxent with weather  
914 extremes A, d) Maxent with weather extremes B, as well as the predicted change in habitat  
915 suitability from current to 2070 for each model (bottom). Koala distribution records are  
916 shown in the insert. All models predicted a substantial decline in suitable habitat in central  
917 and northern inland regions by 2070. The averages and extremes B Maxent models also  
918 predicted reduced habitat suitability in some parts of southern Australia, and the extremes B  
919 model predicted a more severe decline in central and northern coastal regions than other  
920 models. Note the divergence of the two extremes models, which show high agreement under  
921 the current climate.

922 Figure 2. Differences in predicted habitat suitability predicted by Niche Mapper and a,d)  
923 Maxent averages model, b,e) Maxent extremes A, c,f) Maxent extremes B under current  
924 climate (a-c) and 2070 climate (d-f). Positive values (purple) correspond with regions where  
925 Niche Mapper had higher predicted habitat suitability than Maxent models. To allow  
926 comparison, Niche Mapper predictions were rescaled so that the maximum predicted habitat  
927 suitability value was equal to the maximum value predicted by Maxent.

928 Figure 3. The relationship between habitat suitability predicted by Niche Mapper (x-axis) and  
929 the three Maxent models (y-axis) under current climate. Niche Mapper habitat suitability was  
930 calculated as the mean across all 20 years (top) or the mean across all years with the  
931 additional constraint that sites with 5 sequential poor years were classified as unsuitable

932 (bottom). Lines represent 5<sup>th</sup> (lower), 50<sup>th</sup> (middle) and 95<sup>th</sup> (upper) quantile regressions. The  
933 two extremes models showed good agreement with Niche Mapper in regions that Niche  
934 Mapper predicted to have low mean habitat suitability, but diverged in regions Niche Mapper  
935 predicted to be more suitable. The relationship between the averages model and Niche  
936 Mapper is much noisier, as indicated by the flatter 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> quantile regression lines.  
937 Classifying sites with sequential poor years as unsuitable reduced the agreement between  
938 NicheMapper and the extremes Maxent model predictions.

939 Figure 4. Mean and standard deviation of predicted habitat suitability for koalas across eastern  
940 Australia under the current climate and 2070 using a) Maxent models, b) Niche Mapper  
941 models, c) all models (2070 only), and d) minimum habitat suitability across all models in  
942 2070. To allow comparison, Niche Mapper predictions were rescaled so that the maximum  
943 predicted habitat suitability value was equal to the maximum value predicted by Maxent.  
944 Mean and standard deviations were calculated from predictions using two GCMs (ACCESS  
945 1.3 and HadGEM2-CC) as well as varying predictor variables (Maxent) or foliage water  
946 content (Niche Mapper). Location of refugia (d) were strongly driven by NicheMapper  
947 predictions of habitat suitability assuming low foliage water content (i.e. under the most  
948 pessimistic circumstances). In northern Australia (d-insert) refugia are typically high  
949 elevation sites.

950 **Tables**

951 Table 1. Model information including variables, variable importance and AUC values of models used to predict koala distributions across  
 952 Eastern Australia. AUC values were calculated using both presence-background and presence-‘absence’ data, and using either fitted or projected  
 953 (i.e. assuming constant road density) model predictions (Maxent models only).

Model	Variables	Permutation importance	AUC – background		AUC –‘absence’	
			fitted	projected	fitted	projected
Niche Mapper	Reproducing females with site-specific morphology	NA	0.868		0.557	
Maxent - Average climate	1) Annual rainfall	36.9	0.894	0.888	0.655	0.649
	2) Maximum temperature in the warmest period (month)	48.5				
	3) <i>Eucalyptus</i> forest/woodland cover	4.2				
	4) Road density	10.4				
Maxent - Extreme weather A	1) Maximum run of dry days	39.7	0.908	0.903	0.697	0.706
	2) T95 (95 <sup>th</sup> percentile temperature)	35.4				
	3) Vapour pressure during hot weather	12.0				
	4) <i>Eucalyptus</i> forest/woodland cover	7.6				

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	5) Road density	5.3				
Maxent -	6) Maximum run of dry days	70.4	0.908	0.904	0.718	0.720
Extreme	7) Maximum run of hot days	5.9				
weather B	8) Vapour pressure during hot weather	9.8				
	9) Eucalyptus forest/woodland cover	9.4				
	10) Road density	4.5				

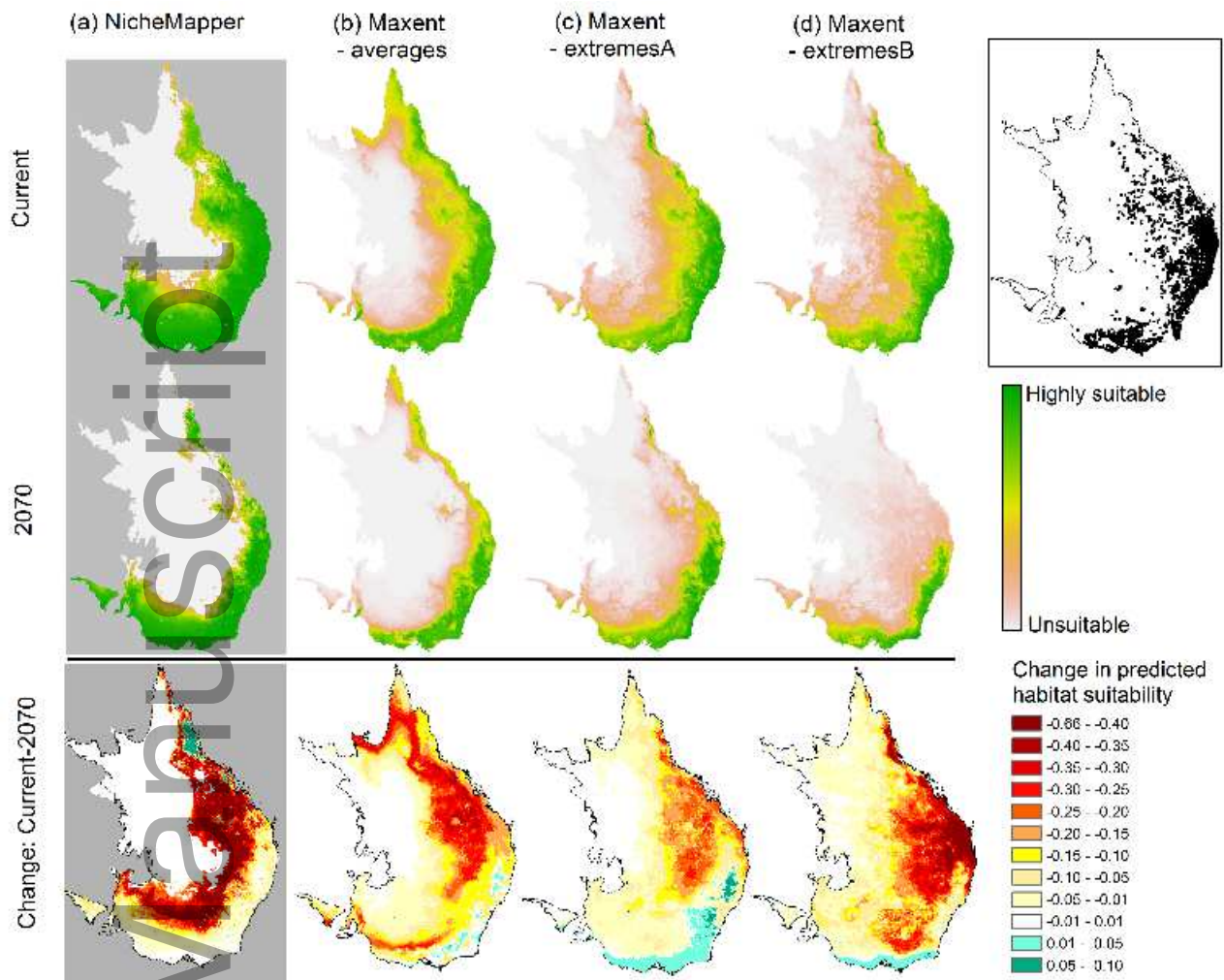
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954 Table 2: Pearson's correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) for habitat suitability predictions of models  
 955 under current (top) and 2070 (ACCESS 1.3, bottom) climates (correlations based on 100,000  
 956 points randomly distributed across the study area).

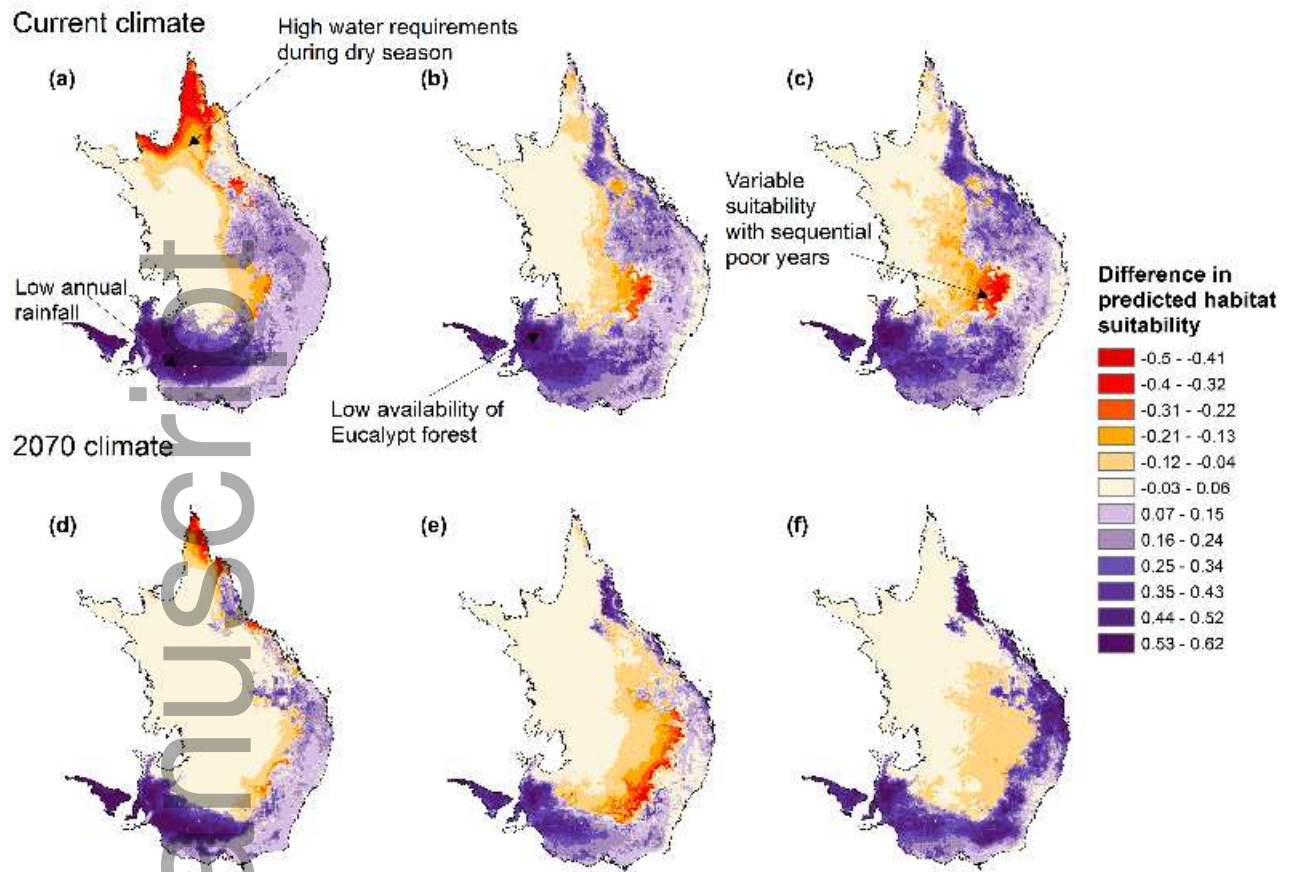
Model	Niche Mapper	Maxent – averages	Maxent – extA	Maxent – extB
Niche Mapper		0.72	0.83	0.78
Maxent – averages	0.78		0.87	0.81
Maxent – extA	0.85	0.91		0.98
Maxent – extB	0.77	0.78	0.90	

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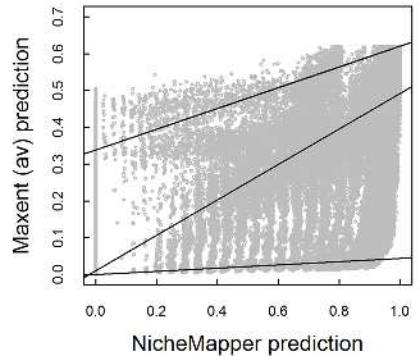
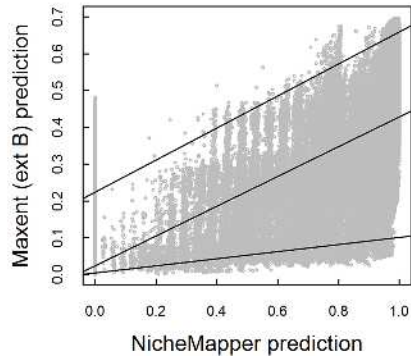
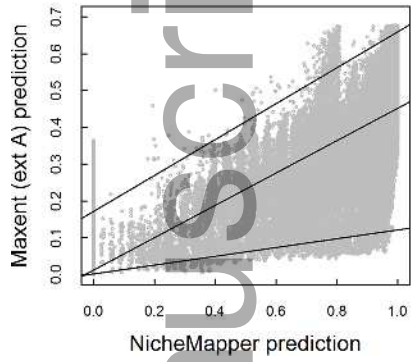
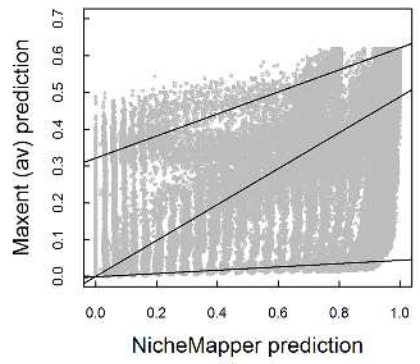
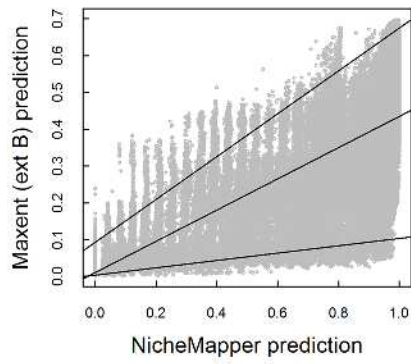
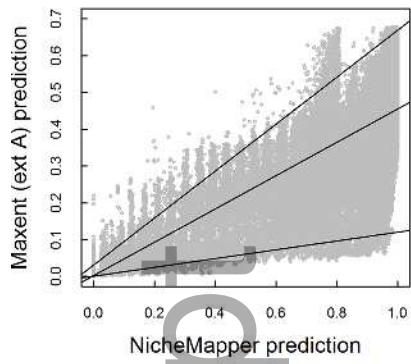
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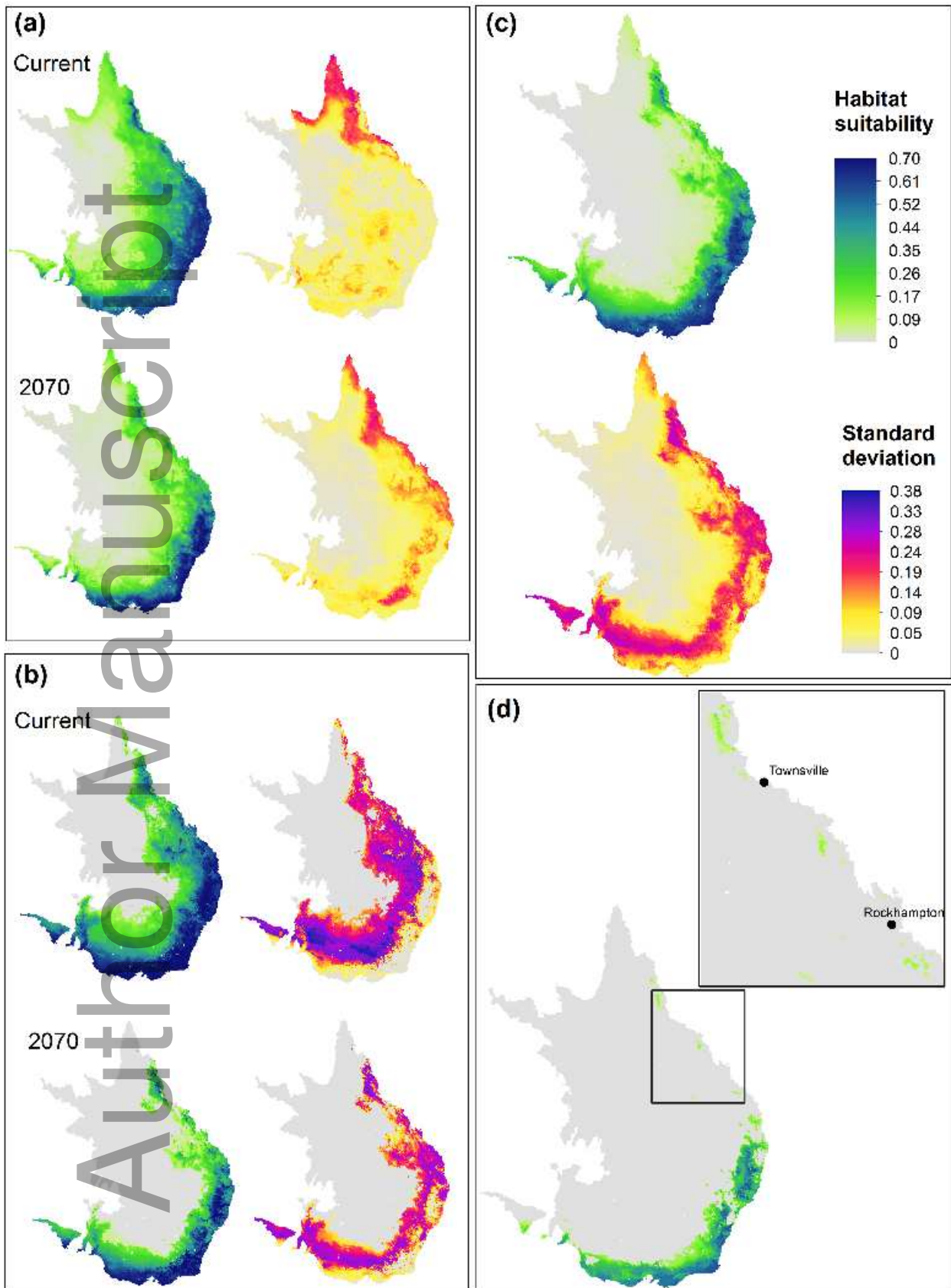
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