

# Sustainability of wildlife harvest in stochastic social-ecological systems

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## Abstract

Sustainable wildlife harvest is challenging due to the complexity of uncertain social-ecological systems, and diverse stakeholder perspectives of sustainability. In these systems, semi-complex stochastic simulation models can provide heuristics that bridge the gap between highly simplified theoretical models and highly context-specific case-studies. Such heuristics allow for more nuanced recommendations in low-knowledge contexts, and an improved understanding of model sensitivity and transferability to novel contexts. We develop semi-complex Management Strategy Evaluation (MSE) models capturing dynamics and variability in ecological processes, monitoring, decision-making, and harvest implementation, under a diverse range of contexts. Results reveal the fundamental challenges of achieving sustainability in wildlife harvest. Environmental contexts were important in determining optimal harvest parameters, but overall, evaluation contexts more strongly influenced perceived outcomes, optimal harvest parameters and optimal harvest strategies. While adaptive harvest strategies were most frequently preferred, particularly for more complex environmental contexts (e.g. high uncertainty or variability), our simulations map out clear cases where these heuristics may not hold. Importantly, simple composite metrics popular in the theoretical literature often diverged from holistic metrics that better reflect the trade-offs in real world applied contexts. This demonstrates the potential value of heuristics for guiding applied management.

## Keywords

harvest control rule, harvest protocol, population simulation, sustainable management, multiple objectives, uncertainty

## Background

Harvest is one of the most common forms of management for many wildlife species [1,2]. Wildlife harvest is important socially, culturally and economically, both for creating direct benefits (e.g. meat, income, recreation, tradition) and to avoid costs due to human-wildlife conflicts (e.g. vehicle collisions, predation on domestic animals, and competition or pathogen spread between wild and domestic stock) [1,3–5]. Because of their socio-economic and ecological importance, wildlife-harvest systems are typically managed with an overarching aim of sustainability [6]. Yet ‘sustainability’ is a multi-faceted, ill-defined, and evolving term: whilst the early optimal harvest literature focused on ensuring persistence of the species and maximal harvests, contemporary perspectives on sustainability encompass diverse economic and social concepts, ecological, habitat, and ecosystem-based criteria, and precaution under uncertainty [7,8]. This includes an increasing appreciation of diverse stakeholder perspectives (i.e. social equity) [9,10], animal welfare, animal rights, and ‘compassionate’ conservation [11,12].

Under the lens of these complexities and stakeholder conflicts, it is no surprise that concepts of sustainability are often poorly applied in wildlife harvest systems [6]. Established theory on optimal harvest strategies can often seem highly abstract through a focus on limited objectives, typically maximization of harvest volumes without sacrificing population persistence [13–16]. More recently, the objectives have included variability of population sizes and harvest [17]. While some highly detailed applied models exist [e.g. 2,5,18–21], in many

45 cases these are unavailable: many wildlife management systems lack all but the most rudimental parameters,  
46 due to limited resources and poorly developed institutional frameworks, [6,22]. In practice determining quotas  
47 in terrestrial systems is often an inexact, adaptive science at best [23]. Further, even in the best studied cases,  
48 important elements of the social-ecological system remain uncertain or contested [24–28].

49 Heuristics are practical and accessible guidelines designed to give good ‘rules-of-thumb’, e.g. management  
50 recommendations that lead to good outcomes over a wide range of cases and contexts [29]. In a wildlife  
51 management context, heuristics developed from semi-complex case studies can bridge the gap between highly  
52 simplified models developed to demonstrate theory, and highly context-specific case studies [30]. Benefits to  
53 addressing this space are three-fold. First, more nuanced heuristics can be developed for application in  
54 knowledge-poor contexts [29]. This is required in wildlife harvest because in most cases the socio-ecological  
55 contexts are more complex than those addressed by existing theoretical models. From an implementation  
56 perspective, managers are also more likely to accept and utilize evidence that is more specific to their context  
57 [31–33]. Second, heuristics can help to guide sensitivity analyses in knowledge-rich contexts, where complex  
58 case-study models can be developed, but the range of parameters is too great for a meaningful development or  
59 interpretation of a global sensitivity analysis [34]. Third, heuristics can improve the understanding of context  
60 comparability. Causal inference, i.e. where specific causal impacts can be robustly identified (e.g. through  
61 analysis of pairwise comparisons in which only the variable of interest changes) is challenged in complex  
62 socio-ecological contexts such as wildlife harvest due to the low number of comparable empirical examples to  
63 study [35], and this often results in comparisons across contexts [32]. Heuristics at semi-complex levels can  
64 give us knowledge on the potential comparability of different contexts, and thereby inform the appropriate  
65 transfer of causal inference estimates across different contexts [36].

66 Heuristics can be derived by induction from empirical experience, or by deduction from simulation models  
67 [37,38]. However, it is challenging to robustly derive general inferences from empirical case studies in  
68 wildlife harvest, because of the conceptual, logistical, and ethical difficulty in conducting experimentation at  
69 the scales required [35,39]. As a result, mathematical and stochastic simulation models are well established in  
70 the conservation and wildlife-management literature. Typical simulation models focus on stochastic  
71 population dynamics, for example applied in population viability analysis [6,21,40]. In traditional harvest  
72 models, population dynamics is coupled with harvest to assess how variation in harvest intensity affects  
73 population persistence and harvest off-take [14,16,17]. Management Strategy Evaluation (MSE) models  
74 expand from these, encompassing stochastic simulations of management in socio-ecological systems  
75 incorporating a more holistic set of ecological and social components [41]. MSE models are well established  
76 in fisheries [42] and increasingly used in terrestrial management scenarios, typically as highly detailed case  
77 study simulations [e.g. 2,5,18–21]. MSE models have been used to address key knowledge gaps regarding the  
78 implications of uncertainty in the multiple socio-economic facets of wildlife harvest systems [3], and allow  
79 levels of systematic assessment impossible in real-world experiments. From fisheries management systems,  
80 literature syntheses of MSE case studies that contrast different harvest strategies suggest strong context-  
81 dependencies of optimal strategies [38]. No such synthesis has been conducted for terrestrial systems.

82 To develop heuristics for sustainable terrestrial wildlife harvest, we constructed a semi-complex MSE  
83 framework that allowed us to assess sustainability under a range of environmental contexts and from diverse  
84 socio-ecological perspectives. We simulate a set of species from across the fast-slow life-history gradient, a  
85 commonly used heuristic for theory development in wildlife demography describing patterns of covariation in  
86 life-history traits across body size, longevity, and fecundity [43,44]. In contrast to most previous harvest  
87 system models that focus on a narrow set of objectives, we evaluate sustainability over 10 evaluation metrics  
88 combined into 6 stakeholder perspectives relevant for terrestrial contexts. To simulate the variability often  
89 inherent in socio-ecological systems, we include multiple types of variability [45] representing both temporal  
90 stochasticity, as well as parameter uncertainty related to monitoring, management decision, and harvest  
91 implementation components. This MSE framework bridges a gap between simplified harvest models with a  
92 narrow focus on harvest off-take and highly context-specific applied case studies, with the intention of  
93 producing heuristics that are directly applicable to real-world settings for which detailed case-specific models

94 are unavailable. We compare the 289,848 simulation models to uncover: 1) How do wildlife harvest outcomes  
95 differ in different contexts? 2) How do different contexts influence optimal harvest parameters in the different  
96 systems? 3) Which harvest systems are optimal in different contexts? 4) How much can decision-making  
97 improve through integration of environmental and evaluation context-specific heuristics?

## 98 Methods

99 We develop a MSE model that generalises a terrestrial wildlife-harvest system, with components of 1)  
100 resource dynamics, 2) monitoring observations, 3) quota setting, 4) harvest implementation, and 5)  
101 sustainability evaluation. Simulations occur in yearly time steps ( $t$ ), across a time series of 20 years (broadly  
102 considered long term for applied management plans), with multiple replications ( $i = 1000$ ) per scenario. Full  
103 model description and parameter values are available in Supplementary S1, and summarised here.

## 104 MSE framework

105 The MSE framework developed here consists of five main components (Figure 1), representing the main  
106 components of a socio-ecological harvest system. The **resource component** simulates growth of a population  
107  $N_{i,t}$ , using logistic growth determined by the population's intrinsic growth rate,  $r_{i,t}$ , and carrying capacity,  $K$ .  
108 The **monitoring component** is simulated by a single variation factor ( $m_{i,t}$ ) acting on  $N_{i,t}$ , to give an estimate of  
109 the population size ( $\widehat{N}_{i,t}$ ), to be used as the basis for management decisions. The **management-decisions**  
110 **component** comprises two parts. First, a harvest strategy is applied, converting  $\widehat{N}_{i,t}$  into an initial quota,  $Q_{i,t}$ ,  
111 given a set of quota parameters.  $Q_{i,t}$  is then subject to random variation ( $q_{i,t}$ ) to simulate variability of  
112 stakeholder influence during the quota setting process, to give a modified quota  $Q'_{i,t}$ . The **harvest**  
113 **implementation component** simulates imperfect harvest implementation, effected as variation ( $h_{i,t}$ ) around  
114  $Q'_{i,t}$  to give the realised harvest ( $H_{i,t}$ ). This amount is then removed from  $N_{i,t}$ , before continuing to the next  
115 timestep. Stochastic parameters include  $r$ ,  $m$ ,  $q$ , and  $h$ , which simulate environmental stochasticity, imperfect  
116 implementation, and parameter uncertainty. We assumed that the uncertainty followed a normal distribution,  
117 partitioned over years ( $t$ ) and replications ( $i$ ). The **evaluation component** occurs after each simulation is  
118 complete, calculating performance metrics of each iteration over the entire timeframe, and summarising over  
119 replications in the scenario run (see details below and in Supplementary S1).

## 120 Environmental context and decision variable parameters

121 In our modelling framework, species life-history, level of environmental variability and parameter uncertainty,  
122 and starting population scenarios collectively represent the **environmental context** within which the  
123 simulation takes place. We simulate three species spanning a slow-fast life-history gradient of common game  
124 species (Table S1.1). The species are based on wildlife harvested in a Norwegian context, but with global  
125 relevance. The moose (*Alces alces*) is a large ungulate, with a relatively low growth rate, carrying capacity,  
126 monitoring variation, and critical thresholds for evaluating population size. The roe deer (*Capreolus*  
127 *capreolus*) is a small ungulate with a moderate growth rate, carrying capacity, monitoring variation, and  
128 critical thresholds. The willow ptarmigan (*Lagopus lagopus*) is a game bird with a large potential growth rate,  
129 carrying capacity, monitoring variation, and critical thresholds.

130 For each species we simulated two variability scenarios, where variability in  $r$ ,  $m$ ,  $q$ , and  $h$  was either *low* or  
131 *high*, to represent systems with different variability and/or parameter uncertainty. Each of these species -  
132 variability scenarios were coupled with three distinct scenarios for the population size at the start of the  
133 simulation period: 1) the midpoint of low and high critical thresholds (*moderate*), 2) *quasi-extinction*, and 3)  
134 *overabundance*. Alternative starting populations test the robustness of the harvest strategies to extreme  
135 perturbations in population size, as well as being relevant for special management cases (e.g. overabundant  
136 species, or recovery of endangered species into harvestable populations). For each species, variability and  
137 starting population scenario combinations are identified numerically (SID 1-6) defined in Figure 1. In total,  
138 we evaluated 3 species  $\times$  2 variability  $\times$  3 starting population size scenarios, yielding a total of 18  
139 environmental contexts.

140 For each of these environmental scenarios, we evaluated a range of harvest alternatives. The 4 *harvest*  
141 *strategies* and their respective range of *harvest parameters* together represent **decision variables**. We define  
142 the harvest strategy to include *constant* harvest (a set number of individuals harvested yearly), *proportional*  
143 harvest (a set proportion of the population harvested yearly), *threshold-proportional* harvest (a set proportion  
144 of the population taken yearly, provided the population is above a certain threshold), and a *no harvest*  
145 baseline. Harvest parameters define the intensity of harvesting under a given harvest strategy. For example,  
146 for constant harvest, the ‘constant’ parameter specifies the fixed annual quota size, and for proportional  
147 harvest the ‘proportion’ parameter specifies the harvest fractions. We searched across a wide range of  
148 constants, proportions, and thresholds in order to identify and compare optimal strategies across a diversity of  
149 potential objectives (see Table S1.2). Within one simulation, the harvest strategies and parameters remain  
150 consistent throughout the timeframe, although the simulated harvests themselves vary due to variability in  
151 quota setting, available population size, and harvest imperfections.

## 152 Evaluation contexts

153 In our MSE framework, **evaluation contexts** are designed to reflect different stakeholder values and  
154 perspectives relevant to terrestrial wildlife harvest scenarios. We first define 10 *individual metrics*  
155 representing different stakeholder objectives over various socio-ecological and harvest-based sustainability  
156 objectives (Table 1), and then combine them into six *composite scores* representing alternative evaluation  
157 contexts with different emphases (Table 2). We standardise each individual metric so that 0 represents the  
158 worst score (e.g. zero years of stable population, a mean harvest of zero, or the maximum observed harvest  
159 variability), and 100 represents the most desirable expected outcome possible (e.g. all years with stable  
160 population, zero harvest variability, or the largest observed harvest) over all replications and decision  
161 variables for each respective environmental context. Full details and summaries of raw and transformed scores  
162 are provided in Supplementary S1.

163 Evaluation contexts are represented by the composite scores via the individual metrics contributing to the  
164 composite score. These range from a *complete* set including all metrics, to a *classic* set that includes metrics  
165 most commonly included in the classic theoretical literature, namely maximize harvest and population  
166 persistence. Other sets represent particular contexts, such as a focus only on *population* or *harvest* related  
167 metrics. Composite metrics are the mean score of the set of individual metrics from which it is comprised  
168 within the . Due to co-dependencies among individual metrics, composite scores are first calculated for each  
169 replicate, before averaging over each harvest scenario. As a side note, this is equivalent to a risk neutral  
170 expectation of a utilitarian ‘aggregate benefit’ ethic, and ensures composite scores remain on a similar scale  
171 when involving different numbers of individual metrics. Composite metric scores therefore represent  
172 outcomes as perceived under specific stakeholder contexts, but simplistically assume that these individual  
173 metrics represent stakeholder utility, that individual metric utilities are equivalent and substitutable, and that  
174 aggregate utility is reflected through the average of the individual metrics, and that stakeholders display linear  
175 preferences.

## 176 Comparative analysis, heuristics, and potential improvement in decision-making

177 We sought heuristics for a) determining the likely impacts of environmental and evaluation contextual factors,  
178 and b) choosing optimal harvest parameters or strategies, based on the expected (i.e. average) composite  
179 metric scores. This assumes a ‘benevolent decision-maker’ basing their decisions on a rational, risk-neutral  
180 optimization of the composite score. Assuming the composite score could be an accurate reflection of social  
181 utility, this reflects the potential for stakeholders to be satisfied with the respective outcome. Use of a semi-  
182 complex MSE model with the same framework across multiple environmental and evaluation contexts allows  
183 a full factorial design in which pairwise comparisons can be made between models that are the same in every  
184 way except for the variable of interest. Overall, we compared 18 environmental contexts × 4 harvest strategies  
185 × a custom range of harvest parameters × 6 evaluation contexts, totalling 432 environmental × harvest-  
186 strategy × evaluation contexts, 48,308 environmental context × decision variable scenarios, and 289,848  
187 environmental × decision variable × evaluation contexts.

188 If more information is known (e.g. the environmental context, or the evaluation context), decision-makers are  
189 likely to be able to make more appropriate decisions within that context. This is not always the case, however,  
190 for example if the same strategy is chosen regardless of the availability of the information. We quantify  
191 potential improvement in decision making effected through the use of context-specific heuristics, versus a  
192 generalised heuristic, using both the relative frequency of the chosen strategies being optimal, as well as the  
193 average value forgone. Value forgone represents the difference in composite score value achieved when using  
194 a (potentially suboptimal) strategy within a specific context, compared to the optimal strategy for that  
195 respective environmental and evaluation context. If a strategy is suboptimal, potential value forgone can range  
196 from negligible, to 100% of the optimised value.

## 197 Code and data availability

198 We constructed the model in R [46], using tidyverse [47] and truncnorm [48], parallelized with doSNOW  
199 [49]. For graphics, we used ggplot2 [50], ggtable [51], cowplot [52], and magick [53]. For links to all data,  
200 code, and results, see data availability statement.

## 201 Results

### 202 Composite scores

203 Composite scores show considerable overlaps in outcomes between the various harvest strategies and  
204 parameters (Figure 2). In general, suboptimal harvest strategies with optimised harvest parameters can often  
205 perform better than optimal harvest strategies with poorly selected harvest parameters (Figure 2). This was  
206 even more clear when considering potential variability (Supplementary S2.1). Overall, only 11% of the 432  
207 environmental and evaluation context combinations had composite metric scores of over 85%, highlighting  
208 that conflicts between individual metrics, and thus between stakeholder interests, are very likely in terrestrial  
209 harvest management. Better performing contexts were typically related to relatively stable environments,  
210 adaptive harvest strategies (i.e. proportional or threshold proportional), and for evaluation contexts with a  
211 population metric focus. Only 4 cases achieved expected maximum scores of 100% (Figure 3); these included  
212 *threshold proportional* harvest for *moose* in SID1 and SID 2, and *roe deer* in SID 1, and *proportional* harvest  
213 for *moose* in SID 1, all based on the *population focus* evaluation context.

214 To determine the impact of environmental (i.e. species, variability and starting population size) and evaluation  
215 context factors (composite metric types), we assessed the pairwise contrasts between simulations varying only  
216 in terms of each specific factor respectively (Figure 4). For the majority of the pairwise contrasts, faster life  
217 history species, extreme starting population sizes, and higher variability scenarios result in lower composite  
218 metric scores, indicating stronger conflicts between objectives. However, there are exceptions to these general  
219 patterns for most contrasts (Figure 4). Contrasts between evaluation contexts are less predictable, as these  
220 scores reflect the number of metrics included, as well as their themes. More complex composite metrics that  
221 include more individual metrics were often higher scoring than simpler metrics. For example, the *Complete*  
222 set typically scored higher than *Classic pop.+harv.* (true for 94% of the pairwise contrasts). This occurs  
223 because the majority of the additional metrics in more complete sets were often less conflicting than those  
224 included in the classical sets. Overall, the *Population focus* set was the highest scoring in the majority of  
225 pairwise contrasts, likely reflecting the lack of conflict with harvest objectives.

### 226 Optimum harvest parameters

227 Optimum harvest parameters (that maximize the composite metric score) varied across environmental and  
228 evaluation contexts (Supplementary S2). Within a given harvest strategy, different environmental and  
229 evaluation contexts had most influence on optimal parameter values (Figures 5). For instance, starting  
230 population size was the most universally important determinant for the score within constant harvest strategies  
231 (Figure 5a). Higher variability typically decreased the optimal constant harvest rate, whereas optimal constant  
232 harvest rates did not vary much between evaluation contexts. For proportional harvest strategies, differences  
233 in optimal harvest proportions were most definitively linked to species life history, with higher proportion  
234 optimal for faster species. While larger initial population sizes tended to allow larger proportions, this was not  
235 always the case (Figure 5b). In contrast to the constant harvest strategy, there were also clear differences

236 between the different evaluation contexts in term of optimal harvest rates. For the threshold-proportional  
237 harvest strategy, optimal harvest parameters (both thresholds and proportions) showed substantial sensitivity  
238 to all environmental and evaluation factor contrasts (Figure 5c-d). This likely reflects the flexibility of this  
239 strategy to be tailored to different (conflicting) stakeholder interests, in contrast with the constant harvest  
240 strategy which has a relatively narrow sustainable operating range that is primarily environmentally  
241 determined, leaving low flexibility to cater for social preferences.

## 242 Optimum harvest strategies

243 After optimizing the harvest parameters for each strategy and context, our simulations show that there was no  
244 universally optimum harvest strategy across all environmental and evaluation contexts (Figure 6). In fact, all  
245 harvest strategies could be perceived as an optimal choice in at least one environmental and evaluation context  
246 (Figure 6). However, in the evaluation contexts *Population focus*, *Classic pop.+harv.*, and *Classic harv.* a  
247 constant harvest strategy is never identified as optimal. In contrast, for *Harvest focus*, *Complete (small game)*  
248 and *Complete* composite set contexts, constant harvests are identified as optimal in 10 of the 18 environmental  
249 × evaluation contrasts for moose, as well as 2 cases in roe deer and once for ptarmigan (Figure 6, 7).

250 Overall, the most optimal harvest strategy was *threshold proportional*, which was optimal in 55.6% of cases  
251 (and intermediate otherwise). *Proportional* strategies were most often intermediate (57.4% of cases, with the  
252 remainder as best). In contrast, *constant* harvest strategies were optimal in only 12% of cases, and worst in  
253 14.8%, while *no harvest* was an optimal choice in only 2 cases, and the poorest choice in 85.2% of cases.

254 Pairwise contrasts in environmental factors show that more complex harvest strategies generally become more  
255 preferable with faster life history species and higher variability scenarios (Supplementary figure S2.4). For the  
256 more extreme starting populations, there were preferences towards both simpler and more complex harvest  
257 strategies, although most did not change. Pairwise contrasts between evaluation contexts show more definitive  
258 trends for many comparisons (Supplementary figure S2.4).

## 259 Improvement in decision-making through use of environmental and evaluation context- 260 specific heuristics

261 Without consideration of the environmental or evaluation contexts, the best choice for harvest strategy was  
262 *threshold proportional*. This would be the correct optimal choice in 55.6% of cases, and result in an expected  
263 value forgone of 1.19% (Figure 6-7). *Proportional*, *constant*, and *no harvest* strategies would result in a mean  
264 value forgone of 2.75%, 12.2%, and 27.0% respectively.

265 Information on environmental contexts resulted in few improvements over the baseline of no contextual  
266 information. Use of species information resulted in an optimal decision in 59.3% of cases (with expected  
267 value forgone of 0.92%), selecting proportional for *moose* (optimal in 47.2% of cases, with expected value  
268 forgone of 1.64%), and *threshold proportional* for *roe deer* and *ptarmigan* (optimal in 61.1% and 69.4% of  
269 cases, with and expected value forgone of 0.58 and 0.54% respectively). Starting population information also  
270 improved decisions in 3.7% of cases compared to no information (expected value forgone 1.17%), and  
271 suggested *proportional* when population sizes are initially very low (at quasi-extinction; optimal in 52.8% of  
272 these cases, expected value forgone of 2.58%), and *threshold proportional* otherwise (optimal in 63.9% of  
273 cases with *moderate* starting population sizes, and 61.1% of cases with *overabundant* starting population  
274 sizes, with expected value forgone of 0.39% and 0.56% respectively). Information on variability level did not  
275 result in a change in strategy choice. *Threshold proportional* was optimal in 59.3% of *low* variability cases,  
276 and 51.9% of *high* variability cases, with expected value forgone of 1.53% and 0.86% respectively.

277 If all environmental context information was considered, optimal decisions could be made in 63.9% of cases,  
278 with an expected value forgone of 0.57%. A *constant* strategy was selected for a third of the *moose* contexts  
279 (specifically, for *moderate* or *overabundant* starting populations, with *low* variability only), however this  
280 would be optimal in only half the cases within, and a *threshold proportional* strategy was preferable for the  
281 latter when aiming to minimise value forgone. *Proportional* was selected for *moose* contexts starting at *quasi-*  
282 *extinction* (optimal in 66.7% and 83.3% of cases for the *low* and *high* variability scenarios, respectively), and

283 was selected as jointly optimal for 2/6 of the *roe deer* contexts, and one *ptarmigan* context (and therefore  
284 optimal in only half the cases within). *Threshold proportional* was optimal in all cases for *roe deer* with  
285 *moderate* starting populations and *low* variability, and for *ptarmigan* with *overabundant* starting populations  
286 and *low* variability, but for the remaining cases would provide between 50-66.7% optimality. Decision-  
287 making based on minimising value forgone dropped *proportional* and *threshold proportional* from being  
288 jointly preferable in three and two environmental contexts, respectively.

289 In contrast, information on evaluation context could result in optimal decisions in 74.1% of cases (with an  
290 expected value forgone of 0.49%). This suggested a *threshold proportional* strategy for *Population focus*,  
291 *Classic pop.+harv.*, and *Classic harv.* composite metric sets (100%, 88.9%, and 61.1% of the respective  
292 cases). For *Complete (small game)* and *Harvest focus* composite metric sets, a proportional strategy is  
293 preferred, optimal in 72.2% and 66.7% of respective cases. For the *Complete* composite metric, either a  
294 *proportional* or *threshold proportional* strategy would be optimal in 55.6% of cases, but the *threshold*  
295 *proportional* strategy would result in a lower expected value forgone.

## 296 Discussion

297 Aiming to develop heuristics for sustainability in wildlife harvest systems, we ran 289,848 stochastic models  
298 simulating harvest management under diverse environmental and evaluation contexts. The scarcity of contexts  
299 across our simulations resulting in high scores demonstrates the inherent complexity of achieving  
300 sustainability in terrestrial wildlife harvest systems with diverse stakeholder objectives [3,4]. This large  
301 potential for conflicts and trade-offs emphasises that wildlife harvest decisions are likely to benefit from tools  
302 designed for decision-making under conflict and complexity. These tools include MSE models that can be  
303 used to evaluate and compare outcomes for multiple models, actions, and metrics [41,42,54], and Structured  
304 Decision Making (SDM) tools for management of conflicts through stakeholder negotiations [5,55]. Avoiding  
305 exacerbating conflicts is endorsed in environmental management [56], and our analysis demonstrates how  
306 MSE can be used to map out conflict potential, and thereby contribute to conflict-sensitive stakeholder  
307 engagement.

308 Overall, our results confirm that adaptive harvest systems such as proportional harvest, and particularly  
309 threshold-proportional harvests, were more likely to deliver good outcomes and be perceived as more  
310 sustainable. Adaptive harvest systems were higher scoring in more varied contexts, involved a less precipitous  
311 risk of population declines compared to constant harvest, and, result in the lowest levels of value forgone.  
312 This supports prior analytical and review comparisons showing general preference towards these adaptive  
313 strategies [15,38,57], and importantly, extends systematic assessment across a diversity of environmental and  
314 evaluation contexts likely to be encountered in applied wildlife harvest management.

315 We found that no single harvest strategy was optimal across all environmental and evaluation contexts tested,  
316 however. Every harvest strategy was optimal in at least one case in every environmental context (Figure 6-7).  
317 The overall best strategy, threshold proportional harvest, was optimal in only 55.6% of cases evaluated.  
318 Information on environmental context (represented in this study as species, variability, and starting population  
319 size) could improve decision-making to be optimal in 63.9% of cases. Information on the evaluation context  
320 was more valuable, identifying optimal strategies in 74.1% of cases. There was large variation in outcomes of  
321 the harvest strategies when using different harvest parameters, however, and optimal parameters for  
322 suboptimal strategies can often score higher than suboptimal parameters for (potentially) optimal strategies  
323 (Figure 2). Information on environmental contexts was particularly influential in determining optimal harvest  
324 parameters in constant and proportional harvest strategies, while both environmental and evaluation context  
325 information were influential for determining thresholds and proportions in a threshold-proportional harvest  
326 strategy (Figure 5). This likely reflects the superior ability of threshold-proportional strategies to be tailored to  
327 stakeholder perspectives, but simultaneously highlights the non-triviality of accounting for stakeholder  
328 perspectives in environmental management [9,10].

329 The extent of the differences in outcomes across evaluation contexts suggests that, by focussing on limited  
330 evaluation metrics, prior theoretical analysis present a rather narrow and sometimes misleading perspective on

331 the outcomes of harvest in socio-economically complex terrestrial wildlife systems. Differences due to  
332 composite metric sets were difficult to characterise, likely due to the interaction of the number and types of  
333 metrics included: more metrics can buffer each other and thus can increase scores, but can also increase the  
334 likelihood of trade-offs and thereby reduce mean scores. However, two key implications can be drawn from  
335 our results: 1) simpler 'classic' metrics commonly used in theoretical models may give a false perception of  
336 the magnitude of the benefits of more complex harvest strategies over constant harvests in some cases, and 2)  
337 the formulation of harvest objectives has a strong influence in determining optimal harvest strategies and  
338 parameters. This is particularly important to consider in the context of terrestrial wildlife harvest, where there  
339 is seemingly a widespread tendency for the objective of maximizing yields to be included, which persists even  
340 in cases where extensive stakeholder and manager engagement do not indicate maximum yields as a  
341 universally valued objective, and even while recognising the strong trade-off between population stability and  
342 harvest goals [58,59]. In all of our simulated species the critical thresholds for a socio-ecologically desirable  
343 population size specified for management evaluation during expert elicitation were often well below the  
344 corresponding theoretical maximum sustainable yield levels (Supplementary S1). Inclusion of yield  
345 maximization is likely due to the classic tradition of yield being the sole focus of 'sustainability' in wildlife  
346 harvest outside a complementary and low bar objective of persistence (for example in early fisheries  
347 'maximum sustainable yield' models), despite development of more diverse definitions [8]. Perhaps in  
348 fisheries contexts of the past this may have seemed appropriate, but in contemporary, predominantly  
349 recreational, terrestrial wildlife harvest there is no *a priori* reason to value maximizing mean harvests above or  
350 even equally to other objectives, especially given the diversity of human-wildlife conflicts associated with  
351 high density populations of some of the harvested species (Linnell et al. 2020).

352 Faster life history species and higher variability contexts (due to stochasticity and uncertainty) were generally  
353 associated with reduced scores (Figure 3-4), and typically a greater preference towards more complex harvest  
354 strategies. Much emphasis within the harvest literature has been on variability (stochasticity and uncertainty),  
355 typically revealing reduced sustainability with higher variability [13–16]. In these cases, thresholds can be  
356 used as a buffer from extinction [15,17]. Our results are in line with these prior studies, but we also detected  
357 some noticeable exceptions. Many of the exceptions in our pairwise comparisons are due to threshold based  
358 evaluation criteria: for example when increased variability allows some replications to cross desirable  
359 threshold criteria (i.e. stochastic resonance; McDonnell & Abbott, 2009), without causing equivalent crossing  
360 of undesirable criteria thresholds. Other exceptions were likely due to closer alignment of 'ideal' population  
361 sizes (i.e. socially preferable levels) with populations sizes delivering maximum yields (as was the case for  
362 *roe deer* in our study), or due to a lack of difference in strategy outcomes under more extreme starting  
363 population sizes.

364 Management of slower life-history species was typically easier, and generally yielded relatively high scores  
365 even under simpler harvest strategies. However, the risk of precipitous declines via choosing suboptimal  
366 constant harvest parameters was greater, and the potential to recover from such low populations should be  
367 considered. In faster life history species recovering from extreme low populations, harvest strategy trades off  
368 speed, magnitude, and likelihood of recovery with harvest early in the time period, a trade-off likely to depend  
369 on the productivity of the population [61]. In slower life history species recovery from low population sizes  
370 could be lengthy, with very low possibility of harvest [62]. Overall, this supports adaptive harvest strategies  
371 (including proportional and/or thresholds) which provide economic and ecological resilience of harvest under  
372 both scientific and environmental uncertainty, and particularly uncertainty in the face of directional threats  
373 such as climate change [62].

374 Given our aim of developing heuristics across a range of species contexts for a set of harvest strategies, we  
375 developed our model using a consistent but relatively simple population dynamics framework. We specified  
376 our MSE models as one closed-population harvested species, undifferentiated by age, sex, or spatially, logistic  
377 growth and simple characterisations of uncertainty and variability. We applied single decision rules over the  
378 whole time frame, and had no time-discounting or monetary valuation of costs and benefits, and a simplistic  
379 translation of outcomes into stakeholder values and utilities. We discuss these issues as they pertain to this

380 analysis more in the full model description in the Supplementary S1. We also do not consider starting  
381 conditions for stakeholders, such as current entitlement to harvest, which serves to frame outcomes as losses  
382 or gains. Current entitlement levels can severely constrain management decisions in practice [5], for example  
383 if Pareto improvements (no loss for any stakeholder) are emphasised in decision-making. While alternative  
384 assumptions may change the particulars of results, even the simple assumptions we employed resulted in  
385 many complex trade-offs among the diverse metrics evaluated, and we would expect the main conclusion of  
386 context dependency and importance of evaluation perspective to hold.

## 387 Conclusions

388 Sustainability is a central, but often elusive goal of wildlife harvest management, challenged by complex  
389 socio-ecological systems, with many potential conflicts and uncertainties. Our stochastic simulation analysis  
390 provides the first detailed and consistent comparison of multiple sustainability metrics, across a representative  
391 range of common terrestrial wildlife game harvest systems. While we conclude, similarly to prior studies, that  
392 adaptive harvest systems including thresholds and proportional harvest were more likely to be perceived as  
393 sustainable in more variable contexts compared to constant harvest, our analysis reveals the many exceptions  
394 to this heuristic. Indeed, every harvest strategy was found to be optimal in every environmental context under  
395 at least one evaluation context. We found that the strongest driver of outcomes, optimal harvest parameters,  
396 and strategies was the evaluation context (i.e. the set of metrics used), rather than environmental contexts.  
397 However, adaptive strategies led to the least potential value forgone, and are likely a better risk-adverse  
398 strategy to employ to avoid low population sizes, which are likely to give poor outcomes for all stakeholders.  
399 Key implications for applied management are, first, that outcomes based on simplified metrics (e.g.  
400 persistence and maximizing mean harvest only) popular in the theoretical literature may give misleading  
401 impressions of the relative benefits of different harvest systems in complex socio-ecological systems. Second,  
402 while a threshold proportional strategy remains the optimal strategy across the majority of cases, both  
403 environmental and evaluation contexts have substantial influences on the optimal harvest parameters within  
404 this strategy. Our results highlight that trade-offs between sustainability objectives are largely inevitable, and,  
405 with no single optimum strategy, ‘optimal’ harvest systems need to be identified with careful consideration of  
406 the appropriateness of sustainability metrics. Overall, heuristics derived from semi-complex MSE models  
407 such as this provide a useful bridge between over-simplistic theoretical models and complex context-specific  
408 models. We showed the potential of such heuristics to improve applied decision-making in low information  
409 contexts, and they are also likely to prove useful for guiding context-dependent sensitivity analyses in high  
410 information contexts, and the appropriateness of cross-context empirical comparisons.

## 411 Authors' contributions

412 All authors contributed to the conceptualisation of the analysis and methodology. EL developed the  
413 methodology, conducted simulations, analysed the data, and led the writing of the manuscript. All authors  
414 contributed critically to the analysis and drafts, and gave final approval for publication.

## 415 Acknowledgements

416 Erling Solberg for discussions on moose management. This study was funded by the Research Council of  
417 Norway (grant 251112).

## 418 Data availability

419 Input data, simulation code and results are available in OSF repository  
420 [https://osf.io/u52rp/?view\\_only=e36abdca3e3c45d8813e6f7b20ce159a](https://osf.io/u52rp/?view_only=e36abdca3e3c45d8813e6f7b20ce159a)

421 Analysis code and results are available in OSF repository  
422 [https://osf.io/cgwa6/?view\\_only=973dda4c88ea4a008c3b6e58ff149822](https://osf.io/cgwa6/?view_only=973dda4c88ea4a008c3b6e58ff149822)

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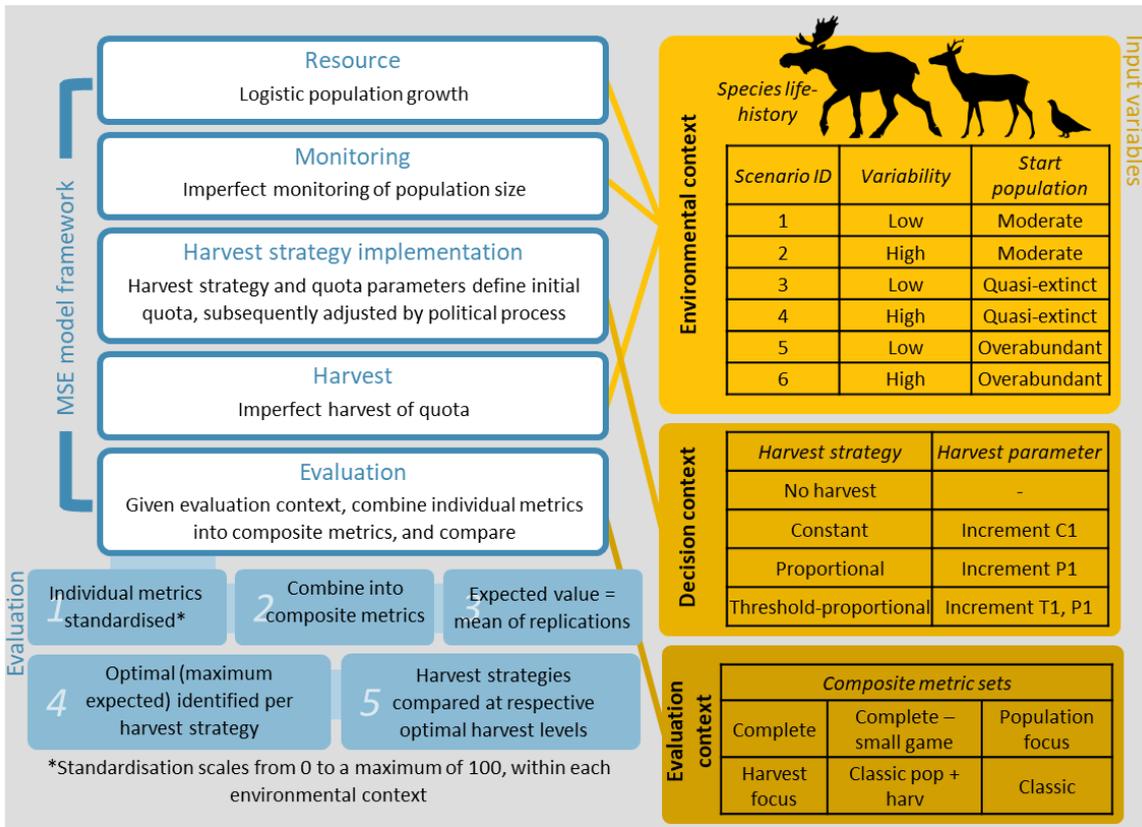
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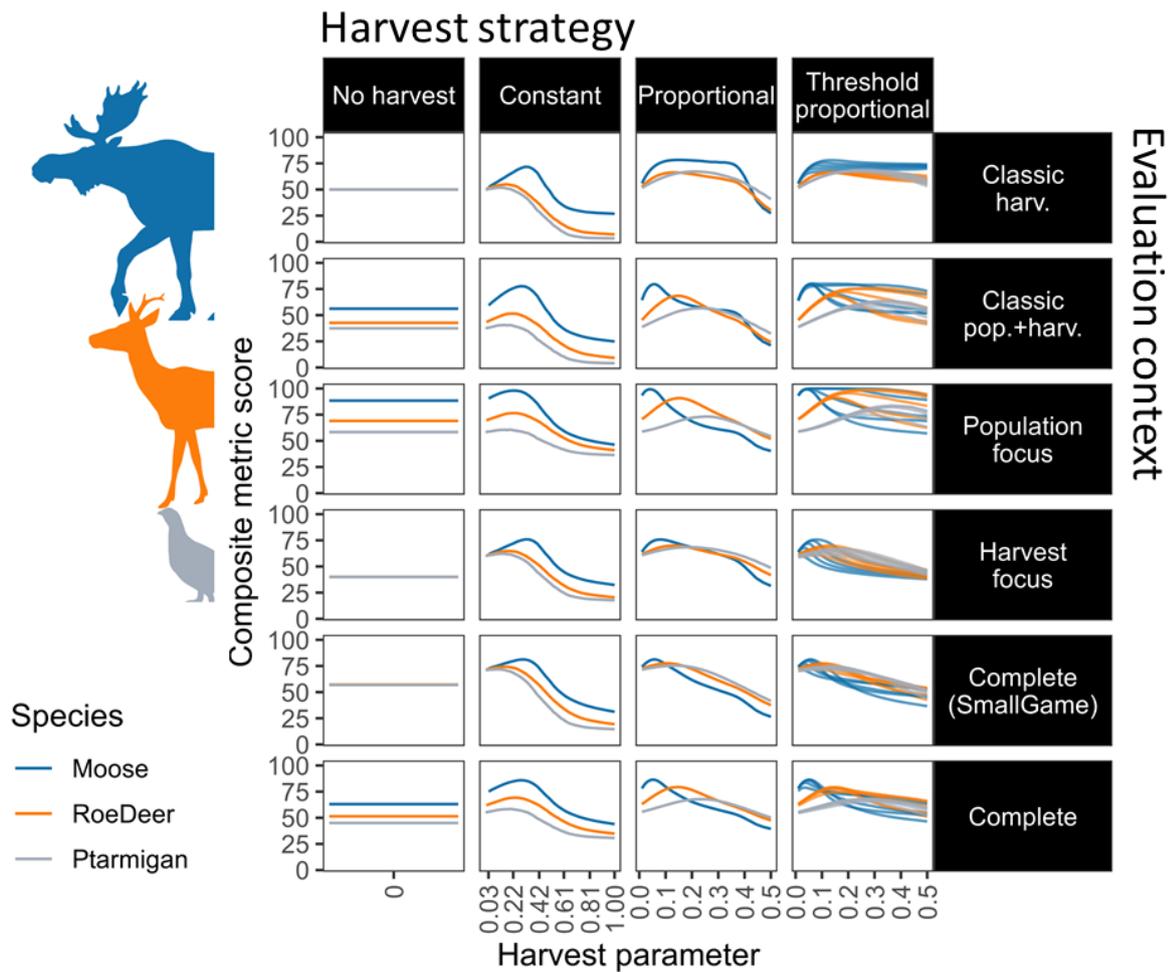
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576

577 *Figure 1: MSE framework*

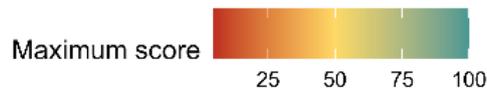
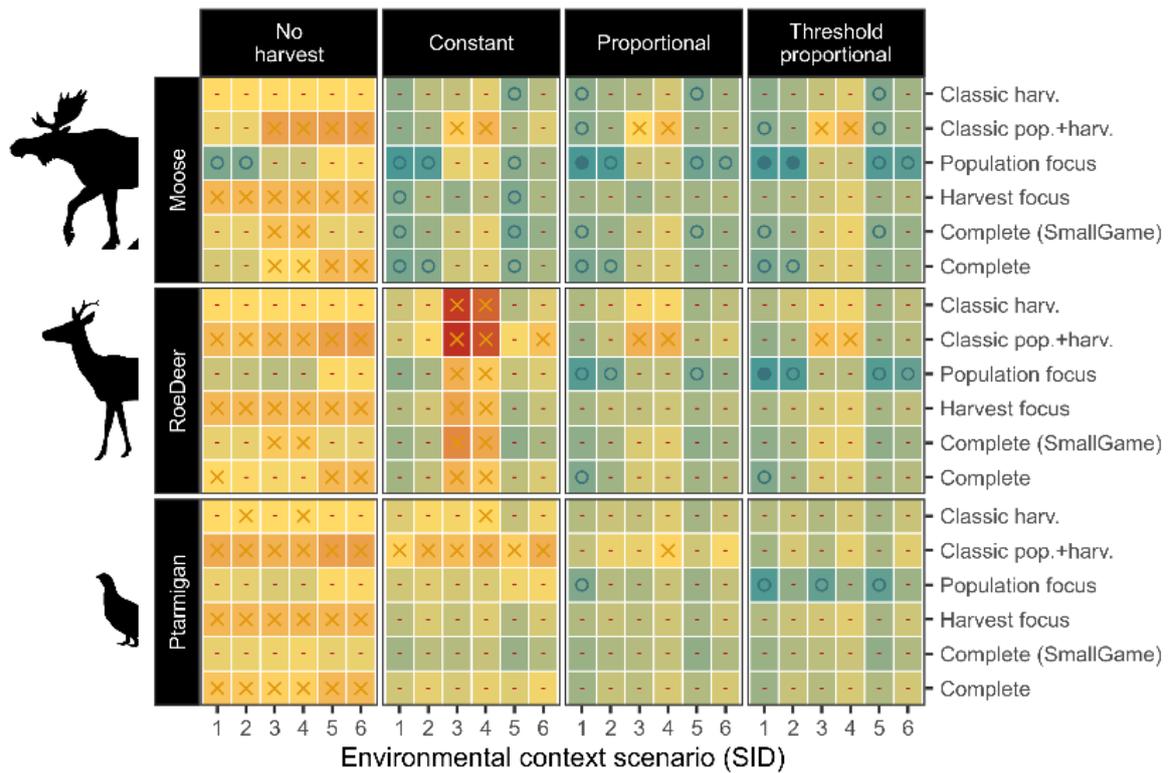
578 The Management Strategy Evaluation (MSE) model simulates a wildlife harvest system over a 20 year timeframe, with  
 579 each environmental and decision context including 1000 stochastic replications. Evaluation contexts are simulated  
 580 through combinations of different evaluation metric sets. Species types span a fast-slow life-history gradient, determining  
 581 growth rates and carrying capacity, variation levels in growth rates and monitoring variability, and critical thresholds.  
 582 Stochastic parameters simulate yearly stochasticity and iteration level uncertainty. A full description of the model and  
 583 parameter values are specified in Supplementary S1.



584

585 *Figure 2. Composite scores across harvest strategies and parameters*

586 Composite scores (y-axis) for each composite metric set (panel rows), under each harvest strategy (panel column) and  
 587 harvest parameter (x-axis). For the constant harvest strategy (second column), the x-axis shows the constant scaled by the  
 588 maximum constant per species. For the threshold proportional strategy (fourth column), the x-axis shows the proportion,  
 589 and multiple lines per species show selected thresholds from across the range of thresholds tested. Species are indicated  
 590 by line colour, and are here shown for the environmental context with high variability/uncertainty and moderate starting-  
 591 population sizes (SID 2). Results for other scenarios and including variability are in Supplementary S2.1.

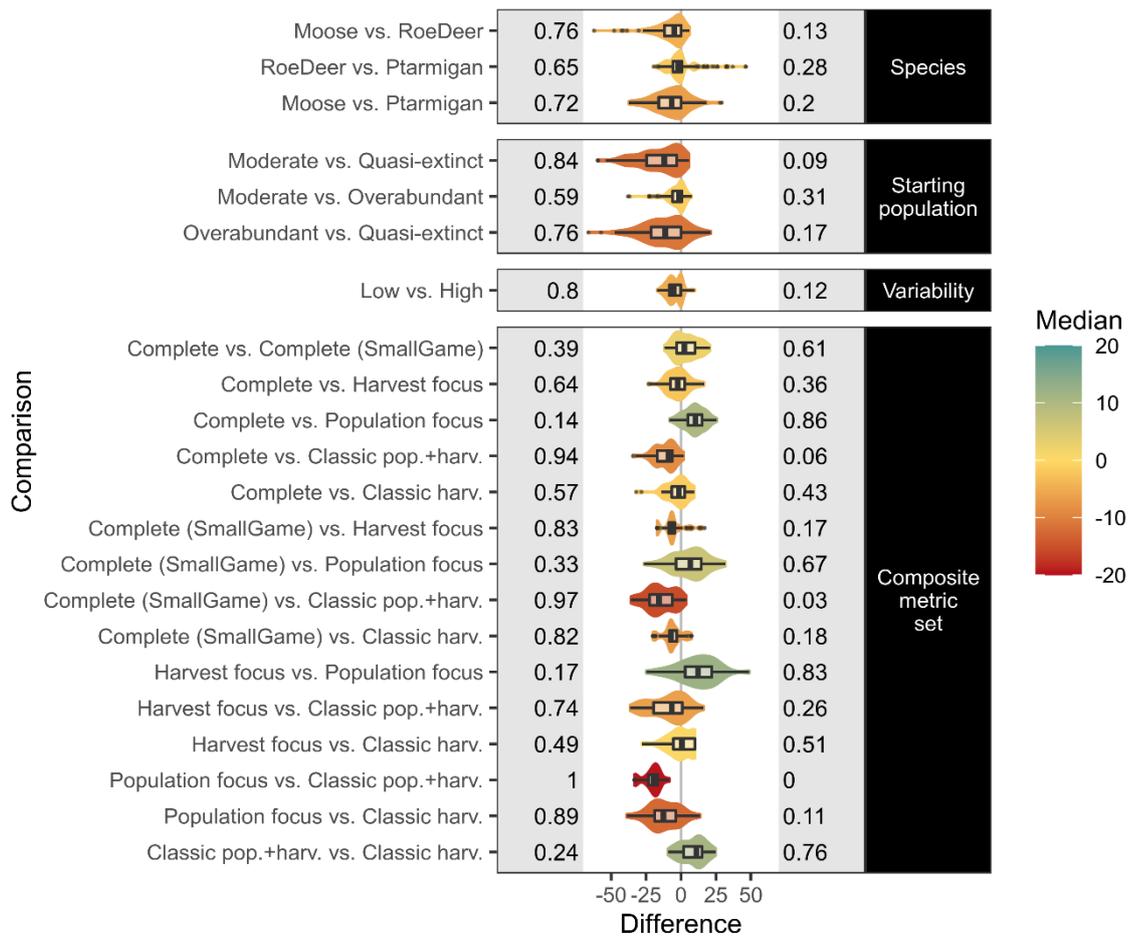


Score class ● 100 ○ 85-99 - 50-85 × 0-50

592

593 *Figure 3. Composite scores across harvest strategies and contexts*

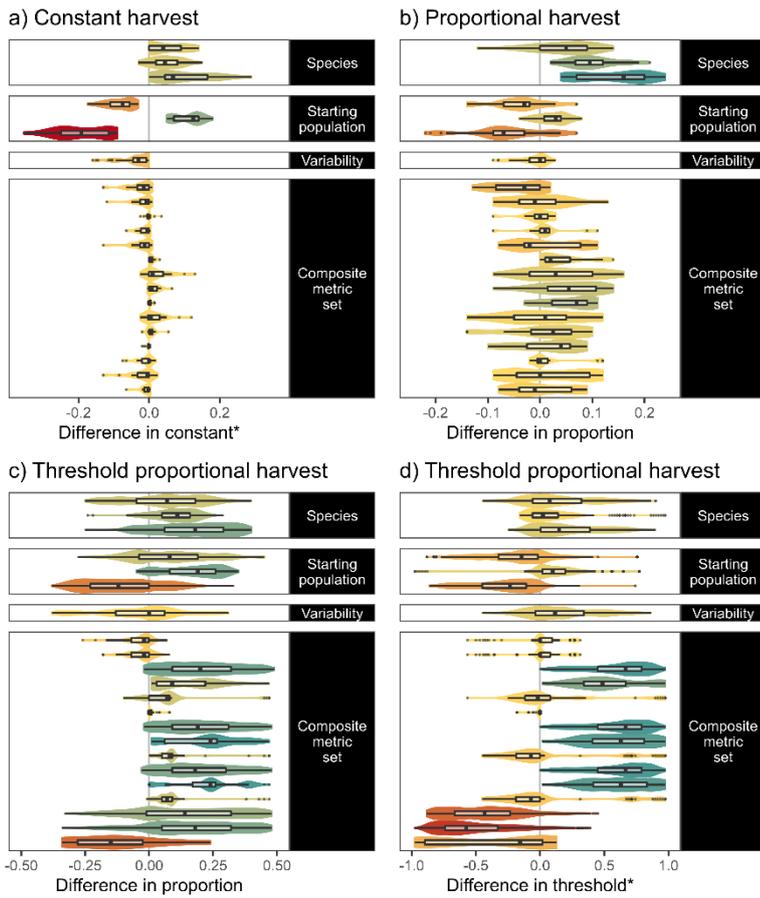
594 Composite scores (colour) for each environmental (x-axis, and panel rows) and evaluation context (y-axis), under each  
 595 harvest strategy (panel column), assuming harvest parameters are optimised under each harvest strategy. Environmental  
 596 contexts (SID) codes are provided in Figure 1. Score classes (symbols) highlight where scores are maximal (i.e. 100).



597

598 *Figure 4. Influence of environmental and evaluation factors on composite scores*

599 Differences in composite score outcomes (x-axis) due to differences in environmental and evaluation factors (y-axis),  
600 with all other factors held at equivalent levels for each pairwise contrast. Contrasts are given change in outcome when  
601 moving from the left-hand level to the right-hand level, for example, *moose* typically result in a higher composite metric  
602 score than *roe deer*, all other factors equivalent. Violins show the data distributions, with the colour indicating the  
603 median. Boxplots show the median, the first and third quartiles, and the whiskers extend to the smallest or largest value  
604 no further than 1.5 times the inter-quartile range from the hinge, with outliers plotted as points. Proportions of the  
605 observations below or above zero difference are given on the left and right grey panels respectively (and may not sum to  
606 one if some cases do not differ).



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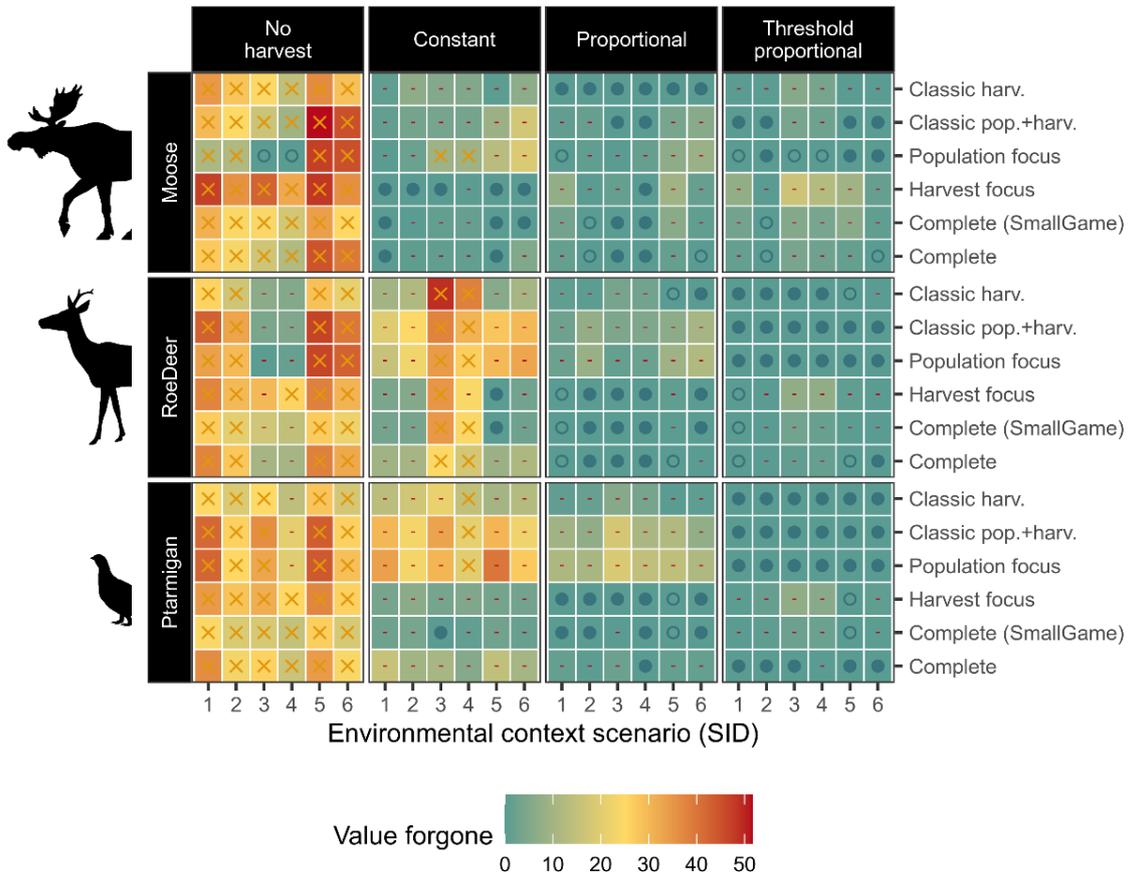
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*Figure 5. Influence of environmental and evaluation factors on optimal harvest parameters*

Thumbnail figure (full figures given in the Supplementary S2.3) showing pairwise differences in optimal harvest parameters given environmental and evaluation factor contrasts, for a) constant, b) proportional, and c) and d) threshold proportional harvest strategies (proportion in c) and threshold in d) respectively). For further plot description, see Figure 4. \* indicates that the constant and threshold are scaled by the number of individuals considered as a 'moderate' population size for each of the species (i.e Moose = 600, RoeDeer = 6950, Ptarmigan = 17500).

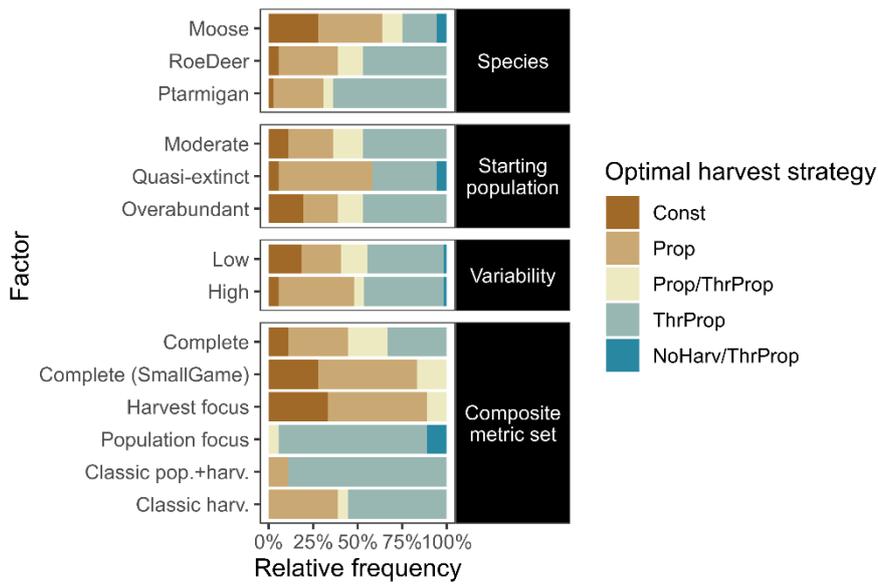


Strategy rank ● Clear best ○ Joint best - Intermediate × Worst

614

615 *Figure 6. Optimal strategy, and value forgone through choice of harvest strategy, across*  
 616 *environmental and evaluation contexts*

617 Harvest strategy optimality (symbol), and value forgone (tile colour) by using the harvest strategy in each environmental  
 618 and evaluation context, instead of the optimal strategy for the respective environmental and evaluation context. Harvest  
 619 strategies (panel columns) are represented by their optimal harvest parameter outcomes. Environmental contexts are  
 620 combinations of species type (panel rows), and starting population and variability (SID codes are described in Figure 1;  
 621 x-axis). Proportional and threshold proportional strategies are typically the most optimal, and typically result in lower  
 622 value forgone when not.



623

624 *Figure 7. Optimal strategy across environmental and evaluation contexts*

625 Relative frequency of optimal harvest strategy (or jointly optimal strategies) by environmental and evaluation context  
 626 factors (y-axis). Each bar summarises the simulations including the factor specified on the y-axis. Optimal strategies are  
 627 determined by ranking their respective best performing harvest parameter levels across harvest strategies. Pairwise  
 628 comparisons between contexts are given in Supplementary S2.4.

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## Tables

*Table 1: Individual sustainability metrics.*

Sustainability metrics represent a wide variety of common stakeholder concerns, and include fundamental sustainability objective of persistence, as well as other *population-based* and *harvest-based* metrics. Here they are defined so that, within each metric, higher scores are more desirable.

Objective group	Objective	Criteria	Code
<i>Persistence</i>	<b>Avoiding extinctions.</b> A fundamental objective of ecological and economic sustainability.	For individual replications, this is a binary score (0 = extinction, 1 = persistence of the population over the time frame). This is averaged over replications as a probability.	<i>persistence</i>
<i>Population</i>	<b>Population stability.</b> Avoiding population extremes.	Number of years population remains between <i>high</i> and <i>low</i> critical thresholds	<i>stable population</i>
	<b>Avoiding low or functionally extinct populations.</b> To provide adequate populations for harvest, ecological functionality, and buffer against extinctions.	Number of years population remains above the <i>quasi-extinction</i> critical threshold	<i>above quasi-extinct</i>
		Number of years population remains above the <i>low</i> critical threshold	<i>above low</i>
	<b>Avoiding high and overabundant populations.</b> To minimize wildlife conflict and ecological damage from overabundant populations. Note, this may not be a concern for small game species.	Number of years population remains below <i>high</i> critical threshold	<i>below high</i>
		Number of years population remains below the <i>overabundance</i> critical threshold	<i>below overabundant</i>
<i>Harvest</i>	<b>Mean annual harvest.</b> To provide the maximum opportunity for economic and social benefits of harvest.	Mean yearly harvest	<i>harvest mean</i>
	<b>Minimum harvest</b> experienced across the timeframe. To maximize harvest opportunity over every point in the timeframe.	Minimum harvest size across the timeframe	<i>harvest minimum</i>
	<b>Avoiding years experiencing zero harvest.</b> To provide consistency of harvest experience and income for harvesters and associated economies.	Number of years harvest is not zero	<i>harvest non-zeros</i>
	<b>Limiting harvest variability.</b> While some variability may be accepted as an inevitability in variable contexts, consistency of harvest improves predictability and the consistency of capital required for its implementation.	0 – Standard deviation of harvests over the timeframe	<i>harvest consistency</i>

635 *Table 2: Composite metrics*

636 Composite metrics are comprised of six different *sets* of individual metrics designed to reflect alternative evaluation  
 637 perspectives. Inclusion in sets is denoted by a tick (included) or cross (not included); included metrics are averaged to  
 638 give the composite score.

Composite metric set	Individual metric									
	Persistence	Above quasi-extinct	Above low	Stable population	Below high	Below overabundant	Harvest mean	Harvest minimum	Harvest non-zeros	Harvest consistency
Classic harv.	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗
Classic pop.+harv.	✓	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗
Population focus	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
Harvest focus	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓
Complete (small game)	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓
Complete	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

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