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Preprint · August 2018

DOI: 10.7287/peerj.preprints.27113v1

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1 **Integrating local social-ecological knowledge to prioritise invasive species management**

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**20 Abstract**

21 There is a lot of uncertainty about how we pick the best invasive species management strategies  
22 to improve the environment, local economy, and human well-being, as invasive species  
23 management involves complex and multidimensional challenges. Invasive species management  
24 on inhabited islands is especially challenging, often due to perceived socio-political risks and  
25 unexpected technical difficulties. Failing to incorporate local knowledge and local perspectives in  
26 the early stages of planning can compromise the ability of decision-makers to achieve long-  
27 lasting conservation outcomes. Hence, including local knowledge and accounting for subjective  
28 stakeholder perceptions is essential for invasive species management, yet this often remains  
29 unaddressed. To address this gap, we present an application of invasive species management  
30 based on structured decision-making, and the resource allocation tool INFFER, on Minjerribah-  
31 North Stradbroke Island (Australia). We assessed the cost-effectiveness of six management  
32 scenarios, co-developed with local land managers and community groups, aimed at preserving  
33 the environmental and cultural significance of the island by controlling the impacts of European  
34 red foxes and feral cats. We further conducted a survey eliciting local stakeholders' perspectives  
35 regarding the significance of the Island, their perception of the benefits of the proposed  
36 management scenarios, funding requirements, technical feasibility of implementation, and socio-  
37 political risk. We found that the best decisions when the budget is low are less cost-effective than  
38 when the budget is high. The best strategy focusses on control of European red fox on  
39 Minjerribah. However, our results also highlight the need for more research on feral cat  
40 management. This work demonstrates how to use a structured decision support tool, like  
41 INFFER, to assess contesting management strategies; this is particularly important when  
42 stakeholder's perceptions regarding management outcomes are heterogeneous and uncertain.

## 43 1. Introduction

44 Rates of species extinction and decline are increasing, and are likely to continue to increase  
45 worldwide unless we address the main threats to biodiversity (Barnosky et al. 2011; De Vos et al.  
46 2015; Jones et al. 2016). Invasive species are one of the main causes of species decline and  
47 extinctions (Clavero & García-Berthou 2005; Bellard et al. 2016; Doherty et al. 2016).  
48 Approximately 75% of recorded terrestrial extinctions have occurred on islands (Tershy et al.  
49 2015), and invasive species have been identified as the leading factor (Courchamp et al. 2003;  
50 Clavero & García-Berthou 2005; Doherty et al. 2016). This has concerning implications for  
51 global biodiversity, as a disproportionately high percentage of global biodiversity is found on  
52 islands (Aguirre-Muñoz et al. 2008), despite them only occupying a 3.5% of the Earth's total land  
53 area (Whittaker et al. 2017).

54 Islands are particularly susceptible to invasive species and their impacts (Simberloff 1995, 2009).  
55 In response to the threat posed by invasive species, more than 1,000 eradication programmes  
56 have been implemented on islands around the world (Simberloff et al. 2011). Most of these  
57 programmes have resulted in positive outcomes for native species (Zavaleta et al. 2001; Innes &  
58 Saunders 2011; Jones et al. 2016). However, most invasive species eradication programmes have  
59 been implemented on uninhabited islands, mostly due to operational difficulties, such as  
60 perceived health hazards or financial burdens on the local community (Oppel et al. 2011b). A  
61 global challenge is to shift the focus of invasive species control from uninhabited islands to  
62 populated islands (Oppel et al. 2011b; Glen et al. 2013), since many of the highest priority  
63 islands for eradications are inhabited (Brooke et al. 2007). Inhabited islands pose particular  
64 difficulties due to the presence of companion animals and livestock species, which hamper  
65 eradication actions (Glen et al. 2013). At the same time, commonly used eradication methods

66 cannot be employed close to communities, or the existing methods can be substantially more  
67 expensive to implement than on uninhabited islands, mostly due to logistic difficulties and  
68 implementation restrictions around populated areas (Glen et al. 2013). Thus, eradication  
69 programmes on inhabited islands need to account for local environmental, social and economic  
70 conditions, as well as the biological and technical expertise required to remove invasive species  
71 (Oppel et al. 2011a).

72 Community engagement has a major role to play in determining the outcomes of future efforts to  
73 improve invasive species management programmes on inhabited islands (Aguirre-Muñoz et al.  
74 2008; Campbell et al. 2011; Ford-Thompson et al. 2012). Calling for engagement of local  
75 stakeholders is not new (Aguirre-Muñoz et al. 2008; Campbell et al. 2011), because the  
76 preferences and opinions of all people affected by conservation actions should be integrated in  
77 any environmental decision-making process that might affect them and the surrounding  
78 environment (Reed 2008; Estévez et al. 2015; Crowley et al. 2016). Public opposition can hinder  
79 the success of eradication programmes (Bremner & Park 2007) and is common where the target  
80 species is valued by people (e.g. pets, livestock) (Glen et al. 2013). Consequently, lack of  
81 involvement and communication with the local community has been linked to the failure of  
82 previous eradication efforts (Campbell & Donlan 2005). Hence, to halt biodiversity decline  
83 caused by invasive species, it is imperative we advance not only with eradication protocols  
84 (Saunders et al. 1995) and reporting strategies (Iacona et al. 2018), but also with techniques to  
85 engage with local stakeholders when eradication plans are undertaken (Braysher 2017; Toomey  
86 et al. 2017).

87 Incorporating local values and preferences into early planning stages can be challenging (Oppel  
88 et al. 2011b; Ford-Thompson et al. 2012). Through engagement it is possible to clarify and

89 diminish any safety or social concerns (Glen et al. 2013), mitigating possible opposition to the  
90 implementation of eradication projects, and thus recognising the importance of informing the  
91 local community about all the socio-economic, health, and ecological benefits (and costs) (Vane  
92 & Runhaar 2016) that could arise through implementation of eradication plans. This is  
93 particularly important in invasive species management, given that the survival of a few —  
94 invasive— individuals can undermine the whole project (Glen et al. 2013)

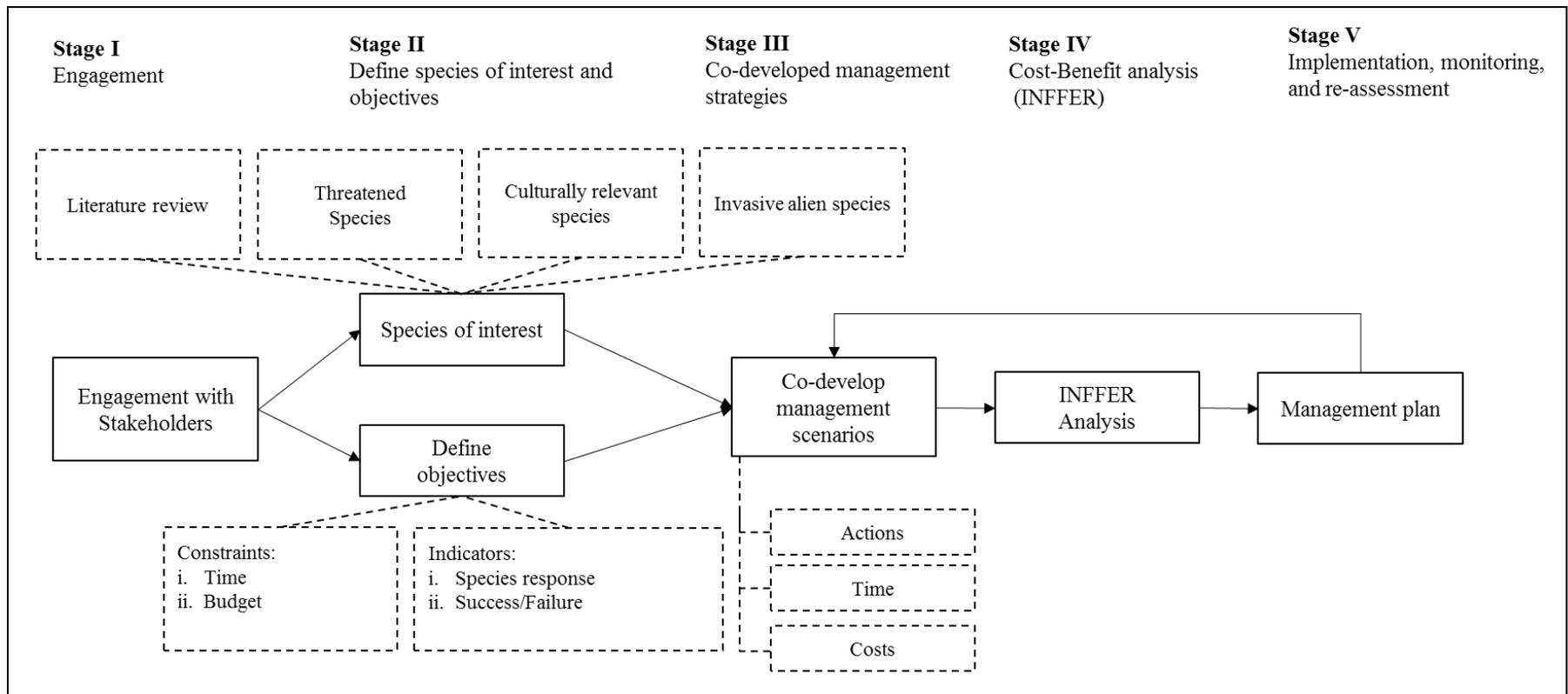
95 Existing approaches to incorporate the preferences and values of local communities and  
96 practitioners have often targeted a single-stage of the eradication planning process (Ford-  
97 Thompson et al. 2012; Novoa et al. 2018) for example: engagement (Luyet et al. 2012), eliciting  
98 information (Larson et al. 2011), or informing perceptions (Bardsley & Edwards-Jones 2006). In  
99 this work, we present a novel, systematic approach to address the multiple challenges of  
100 incorporating local knowledge and preferences throughout the eradication planning process. We  
101 engaged with multiple stakeholder, elicited local knowledge, and included natural resource  
102 managers' perceptions to compare contesting management scenarios by using a cost-benefit  
103 analysis. Our approach is based on adaptive management principles (Holling 1978) and the  
104 Investment Framework for Environmental Resources (INFFER) (Pannell et al. 2012), and it can  
105 be implemented by decision-makers to: (i) assess the perceptions and preferences of stakeholders  
106 regarding invasive species management; (ii) assess the feasibility, impacts and expected benefits  
107 of alternative projects; and (iii) incorporate stakeholders' expertise and perceptions to better  
108 inform invasive species management plans.

109 We applied the proposed approach on Minjerribah – North Stradbroke Island, located in  
110 Queensland, Australia (hereafter Minjerribah), where we co-developed and evaluated six  
111 management scenarios, with different investment levels, each designed to control the impacts of

112 European red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*, Linnaeus, 1758) and feral cats (*Felis catus*, Linnaeus, 1758).  
113 We elicited stakeholder data through a semi-structured online survey (eSurvey) (Appendix A).  
114 The objective of this study was to aid decision-makers to select management scenarios that would  
115 deliver the most cost-effective benefits to threatened and culturally relevant species (Appendix  
116 B), and to the local community on Minjerribah.

## 117 **2. Methodological analysis and context**

118 The objective of this study was to aid decision-makers to select the best alternatives to control the  
119 impacts of invasive species on native terrestrial populations by implementing INFFER (Pannell et  
120 al. 2012). In this section, we provide details about our case study, Minjerribah, the stakeholder-  
121 engagement process, application of INFFER (Pannell et al. 2012), data collection, and  
122 development and analysis to select the best strategies to control invasive species impacts on  
123 native and culturally relevant species. This wider process is described in Figure 1.



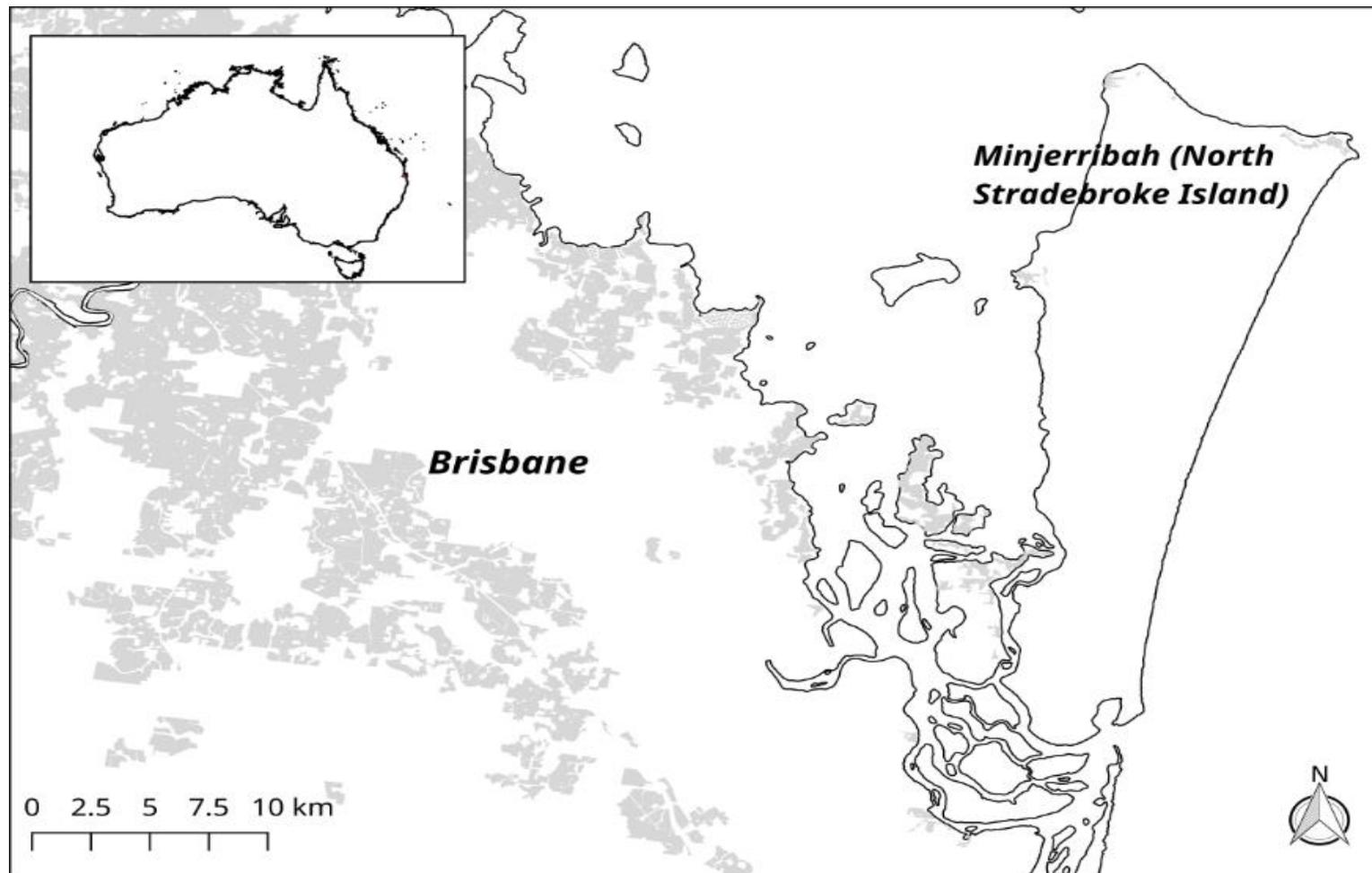
124

125

**Fig. 1.** Stages of our proposed framework to develop, assess, and select invasive species management strategies. The dot outlined boxes represent complementary actions that need to be undertaken to complete the main goal in every stage, which is represented by solid outlined boxes.

126 **2.1. Study area: Minjerribah – North Stradbroke Island (Queensland, Australia)**

127 Minjerribah has unique ecological, economic, and culturally relevant values for the local and  
128 national Australian population. These values are currently being impacted, directly or indirectly,  
129 by invasive species. Minjerribah’s ecological uniqueness and internationally important cultural  
130 heritage make it one of the top 50 offshore islands prioritised for protection in Australia (Kramer  
131 & Whelan 2009). The Island is located approximately 40 km east of Brisbane (Queensland,  
132 Australia) (Figure 2). It is the second largest sand island in the world (approximately 285 km<sup>2</sup>)  
133 (Laycock 1978), and the largest of the Moreton Bay Islands (Queensland, Australia) (27°30’S,  
134 153°28’E). Minjerribah hosts a wide variety of habitats (Queensland Herbarium 2009) that  
135 support many native sedentary and migratory species. The island is a stepping stone along the  
136 East Asian-Australian Flyway and is a “Wetland of International Importance” (Ramsar  
137 Convention 1971) marking it an important site for Australian bird resident species as well as for  
138 intercontinental migrants (Wilson et al. 2011).



139

**Fig. 2.** Location of Minjerribah (North Stradbroke Island) in Queensland, Australia).  
Light grey areas indicate urban development

140 The Island has been inhabited by the Quandamooka people for at least 21,000 years (Barram et  
141 al. 2016). The Quandamooka people are the historical custodians of Moreton Bay. In 2011 this  
142 was recognised by the Federal Court of Australia (National Native Title Tribunal 2011),  
143 highlighting the cultural significance of the area. Since the 1940s, the Island has also been the  
144 source of extensive sand mining operations. The mining activities are scheduled to end by late  
145 2019; a period which marks the end of an industrial era on Minjerribah, and the prospect of major  
146 change and potential economic growth for local businesses, tourism, and the local community.

147 Fifteen vertebrate invasive species have been recorded on the island, including red foxes and cats  
148 (Appendix B) (Threatened Island Biodiversity Database Partners 2014). Red foxes and feral cats  
149 are two of the most damaging invasive species in the world (Lowe et al. 2000; Courchamp et al.  
150 2003; Doherty et al. 2016), and on Australian islands they are a main driver of native species  
151 decline (Glen & Dickman 2005; Saunders et al. 2010; Doherty et al. 2015; Legge et al. 2016).  
152 Red foxes and feral cats species not only have direct and indirect impacts on the threatened and  
153 culturally relevant species of the Island, but also affect its cultural heritage, and economically  
154 valuable local industries, such as tourism (Jones et al. 2006; Gong et al. 2009). In response to this  
155 threat, the local pest management authorities formed the *Straddie Pest Management Group*  
156 (SPMG). The aim of this group is to manage the impacts of invasive species on the Island. The  
157 diversity of local stakeholders, including indigenous and non-indigenous residents, and economic  
158 activities, as well as its biological uniqueness make Minjerribah the perfect location to assess  
159 optimal invasive species management approaches.

160

161

## 162 **2.2. Stakeholder engagement**

163 The first step of this study was to engage with senior managers from a wide range of federal and  
164 local government authorities who were involved in invasive species management on Minjerribah  
165 (see Figure 1 for more details). After a process known as *Snowballing Sampling* (Atkinson &  
166 Flint 2004), we were able to engage with the broader group of local stakeholders involved in the  
167 *SPMG* (Stage I in Figure 1). The *SPMG* members have been working on invasive species  
168 management for almost 10 years. Collectively their members have extensive experience  
169 managing invasive species on the Island and are familiar with the views of the local community  
170 regarding invasive species management. In consultation with the *SPMG* we co-developed a  
171 *Species of Interest* list, comprising not only invasive and threatened species that are found on the  
172 Island, but also species that have some cultural or local significance (Appendix B). We used the  
173 *Species of Interest* list to co-develop a set of management scenarios to control the impacts of red  
174 foxes and feral cats on Minjerribah's *Species of Interest* (Table 1).

## 175 **2.3. Scenario development**

176 Over a two-year period (2015 – 2017), we met biannually with members of the *SPMG*, and  
177 attended the group's annual general meeting. During this period, we co-developed six scenarios  
178 to manage invasive species by reviewing relevant literature, and drawing on the experience of the  
179 *SPMG* members (Stage III in Figure 1). The scenarios were based on different investment levels,  
180 defining the *management intensity* with which different actions would be implemented  
181 throughout the year over a three-year implementation window (a summary of the scenarios can  
182 be found in Table 1). The goal of the different scenarios was to diminish the impacts caused by  
183 red foxes and feral cats, by controlling these species from the Island, hence increasing the  
184 probability of survival of culturally relevant and threatened species

185

**Table 1**

Summarised proposed scenario of actions. A detailed description of the six portfolios can be found in Appendix C.

| Target species   | Scenario # | Investment level | Management intensity |
|--|------------|------------------|----------------------|
| Only red fox ( <i>Vulpes vulpes</i> )                                    | 1          | Low              | Low                  |
|  | 2          | Medium           | Medium               |
|  | 3          | High             | High                 |
| Red foxes ( <i>Vulpes vulpes</i> ) and feral cats ( <i>Felis catus</i> ) | 4          | Low              | Low                  |
|  | 5          | Medium           | Medium               |
|  | 6          | High             | High                 |

186

187 Each scenario varied in its management intensity (i.e. number of traps deployed, number of  
188 baits/km<sup>2</sup>, number of stations/km<sup>2</sup>, and number of baiting campaigns per annum), and length of  
189 implementation of the different control methods throughout the year (i.e. baiting, trapping,  
190 hunting, and den fumigation; see Appendix C for a detailed description, including overall cost  
191 information). The cost of each scenario was constructed by using a combination of data provided  
192 by members of the *SPMG*, scientific and grey literature, and quotes by private distributors of the  
193 consumables goods and capital assets (McLeod & Saunders 2010; Auerbach et al. 2014; Holmes  
194 et al. 2015, 2016). We report in detail the cost of the different stages in Appendix D, following  
195 the recommendations made by Iacona et al. (2018). We assessed the present value of each  
196 scenario over a 25 year period. The scenario costs included planning, implementation, and  
197 monitoring costs over ten years; and fifteen years of maintenance costs. We applied a discount  
198 rate of 5%.

#### 199 **2.4. Data collection**

200 To identify which of the scenario would offer the greatest return on investment, we used INFFER  
201 (described below). We elicited the input parameters for INFFER (stage IV) by sending out an  
202 online, semi-structured questionnaire (eSurvey, found in Appendix A), following the  
203 requirements of the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) of The University of  
204 Queensland (Approval number: 2016001001). This questionnaire was based on INFFER's  
205 Project Assessment Form (*PAF*) (Pannell et al. 2012). The data collected from the eSurvey  
206 recorded basic information about respondents (e.g. sector, invasive species' knowledge, years of  
207 experience working on invasive species management, and quality available information, and  
208 probability of eradication of different scenarios), and collected the input parameters for the *PAF*.

209

210 **2.5. Analysis framework: INFFER analysis**

211 We then used the PAF from the Investment Framework for Environmental Resources  
212 (INFFER™) (<http://inffer.org/>, verified 01 April 2018; Pannell *et al.* 2012) to evaluate the six  
213 proposed scenarios. INFFER was primarily designed to help managers evaluate and prioritise  
214 competing projects. It provides a structured approach based on a benefit-cost ratio (BCR) to  
215 identify management actions that will achieve the best environmental outcome (Pannell *et al.*  
216 2012), the steps of the INFFER approach are shown on Table 2.

**Table 2.**

Steps of INFFER (Investment Framework for Environmental Resources)  
(Pannell *et al.* 2012)

- |   |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Asset identification</li><li>2. Asset filtering and/or refine list of assets using pre-set criteria</li><li>3. Definition and assessment of projects<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>3.1. Asset significance (value)</li><li>3.2. Threats</li><li>3.3. Activities</li><li>3.3. Effectiveness</li><li>3.4. Costs</li></ol></li><li>4. Selection of priority projects</li><li>5. Develop investment plans and/or funding bids</li><li>6. Implement funded projects</li><li>7. Monitoring, evaluation, adaptive management</li></ol> |
|---|

217  
218 By defining SMART (Specific, Measureable, Achievable, Relevant and, Time-Bound) projects,  
219 INFFER helps people to clarify what is required to achieve the proposed outcomes (Bottrill *et al.*  
220 2008). This assessment process is the core of *INFFER*, and provides the basis to assess whether a  
221 project is cost-effective, as calculated by the *BCR* (Equation 1):

$$222 \quad BCR = \frac{V \times W \times A \times B \times F \times P \times G \times DFb(L) \times 20}{C + PV(M) \times G} \quad (Eq. 1)$$

223 where:

224  $V$  is the value that users assign to the asset on a scale of 0 – 100 (where a score of one equates to  
225 a monetary value of 20 million of currency, in this case Australian Dollars).  $W$  represents the  
226 effectiveness of management works;  $A$  is the adoption rate by private land managers (if required);  
227  $B$  represents the risk of adoption of adverse practices;  $F$  is the multiplier for technical feasibility  
228 risk;  $P$  is the probability that socio-political factors will not derail the project, and that the  
229 required changes take place;  $G$  is the probability of obtaining long-term funding;  $DFb$  is the  
230 discount factor;  $C$  is the short-term project cost (\$ million in total, over the life-span of the  
231 project);  $M$  is the total cost of maintaining the outcomes (\$ million per year, beyond the  
232 immediate project);  $PV(M)$  is the present value to convert a stream of future annual maintenance  
233 costs (assumed constant in real terms) to their present-day value (in \$ millions) (Pannell et al.  
234 2012). Further information about the rationale for the BCR algorithm and the underpinning  
235 theoretical background can be found in Pannell et al. (2012, 2013). Subsequently, the results from  
236 the INFFER analysis were sent out to the *SPMG* members for review, and to assess whether the  
237 scenarios could be implemented (Stage V).

238 It is worth noting that obtaining estimates regarding  $V$ —the value of environmental assets (e.g.  
239 species or habitats) — can be very difficult in practice. There can be a lack of relevant studies for  
240 benefit transfer (Bateman et al. 2011), and in the case where primary values are sought, these can  
241 be highly influenced by individual preferences, and are often overestimated by local stakeholders  
242 (Portney 1994; Jakobsson & Dragun 2001). Heterogeneous responses can also confound the

243 proper interpretation of this parameter. Hence, standard practice advocates adopting a  
244 conservative —risk-adverse— approach (McDonald-Madden et al. 2008).

245 We used a ranking-based assessment for the six proposed scenarios. We obtained an *Overall*  
246 *ranking* for the six scenarios; and two, more detailed, *Internal rankings*: One for fox-only  
247 control, and a second for joint-management. By using a structured decision-making approach  
248 based on INFFER, we were able to account for intrinsic biases, information-gaps, and  
249 respondents' valuation heterogeneity, thereby facilitating the overall analysis and increasing the  
250 robustness of policy recommendations.

### 251 **3. Results**

#### 252 **3.1. Respondents summary**

253 All sectors involved in invasive species management on the Island were represented in the  
254 surveyed respondents: 46% were representatives of government agencies; 39% were from  
255 community or non-government organisations; and 15% were from private organisations. A key  
256 aspect of the INFFER assessment is to define the significance of the environmental asset that a  
257 project will affect. Respondents held varied views about the significance of Minjerribah (asset  
258 valuation–*V*): 31% indicated it has “International” significance, 38% said “National”  
259 significance, 8% noted a “Very High State”, and 23% gave a mark of “High State” significance.  
260 Respondents justified their choices with a wide range of reasons, including: (i) Minjerribah is a  
261 RAMSAR site (international significance), (ii) it is part of the East Asian-Australian Flyway  
262 (international significance), (iii) the island has a genetically distinctive and healthy koala  
263 (*Phascolarctos cinereus*) population (national significance), and (iv) provides habitat for  
264 threatened species and culturally relevant species (national significance), (v) Minjerribah is the

265 second largest sand island in the world (international significance), and (vi) historical indigenous  
266 heritage (international significance). Around one third of the respondents (31%) said they would  
267 have estimated a higher value if it was not for the disturbances caused by mining on the Island.

268 All respondents scored their knowledge regarding invasive species management as medium or  
269 better (5-point scale from “comprehensive” to “uncomprehensive”). A majority of respondents  
270 (84%) stated that the most important reason to be involved in invasive species management is to  
271 protect biodiversity, while 16% stated statutory or legal obligations (8%), while 8% held  
272 Traditional Owners values as most important.

273 The respondents also assessed the *Quality of the available information* regarding fox  
274 management, feral cat management, and joint-management of these species. For European fox  
275 management, approximately 38% of respondents scored the information as *good or sufficient*,  
276 31% as *medium*, and 31% as *low or insufficient*. For feral cat management, approximately 23%  
277 scored the information as *good or sufficient*, and 77% as *low or insufficient*. Approximately 31%  
278 scored information regarding joint-management as *good or sufficient*, 15% as *medium*, and 54%  
279 as *low or insufficient*.

280 Respondents scored the probability of eradication of European red foxes under Scenario 1 as  
281 *low*–77% (*medium*–23%), Scenario 2 as *medium*–46% (*low*–23% and *high*–31%), and Scenario 3  
282 as *high*–85% (*medium*–15%). The probability of joint-eradication (European red foxes and feral  
283 cats) under Scenario 4 was scored as *low*–77% (*medium*–23%), Scenario 5 as *medium*–54%  
284 (*low*–23% and *high*–23%), and Scenario 6 was scored as *high*–77% (*low*–15% and *medium*–8%).

285

286 **3.2. INFFER analysis**

287 We present the results of the INFFER parameters in Table 3. We found that respondents' asset  
288 valuation— $V$  was highly heterogeneous. Hence, we assessed the BCR of each scenario under three  
289 different assumptions regarding the value of this parameter, the (i) mode ( $V = 50$ ), (ii) minimum  
290 ( $V = 15$ ), and (iii) lower-bound ( $V = 1$ ). When  $V$  is equal to 1, the BCRs are less than one for all  
291 scenarios, except for Scenario 3. When the BCR value is higher than one, it represents the “break  
292 even” point of the project, meaning that the ratio between benefits to costs is greater (i.e. benefits  
293 exceed the costs of the project). When  $V = 15$  and  $V = 50$ , all scenarios have BCRs higher than 1.  
294 Despite the changes in the BCR according to changes of the asset value, the rankings do not  
295 change.

296 By comparing the scenarios under different perspectives of the asset value ( $V$ ) we were able to  
297 assess the robustness of our results to different stakeholders' values. Table 3 shows the INFFER  
298 cost-benefit analysis of the six proposed invasive species' management scenarios at all values of  
299  $V$ . We found that the *Overall* and *Internal Rankings* of actions were constant across the values of  
300  $V$ . In what follows, we describe results for the lower bound of  $V$  (most conservative assumption).  
301 A complete table with the parameters used in the INFFER BCR can be found in Appendix E.

302

**Table 3.**  
Results of benefit-cost ratios and correspondent parameters calculated in INFFER

| Scenarios  | Intensity | Cost    | Impacts of the works | Socio-political risk | Lag-time | Benefit:Cost Ratio (BCR) |                     |                     | Overall ranking | Internal ranking |
|--|-----------|---------|----------------------|----------------------|----------|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------|------------------|
|  |           | (AU\$m) | (W)                  | (P)                  | (L)      | <sup>b</sup> (V=1)       | <sup>c</sup> (V=15) | <sup>d</sup> (V=50) |                 |                  |
| <b>1 – Only fox management</b>   | Low       | \$3.48  | 0.21                 | 0.85                 | 7        | 0.52                     | 7.79                | 25.96               | 3               | 3                |
| <b>2 – Only fox management</b>   | Medium    | \$4.08  | 0.41                 | 0.88                 | 7        | 0.88                     | 13.18               | 43.94               | 2               | 2                |
| <b>3 – Only fox management*</b>  | High      | \$5.33  | 0.61                 | 0.85                 | 3        | <b>1.15</b>              | 17.19               | 57.28               | 1               | *1               |
| <b>4 – Joint management</b>  | Low       | \$4.03  | 0.21                 | 0.85                 | 30       | 0.08                     | 1.13                | 3.77                | 6               | 3                |
| <b>5 – Joint management*</b>   | Medium    | \$5.84  | 0.61                 | 0.85                 | 10       | <b>0.39</b>              | 5.83                | 19.44               | 4               | *1               |
| <b>6 – Joint management</b>  | High      | \$7.76  | 0.61                 | 0.85                 | 10       | 0.29                     | 4.31                | 14.37               | 5               | 2                |
| <sup>a</sup> Expected present value (AU\$million) of costs over 25 years<br><sup>b</sup> INFFER lower bound for V<br><sup>c</sup> Minimum value for Asset Valuation–V by respondents<br><sup>d</sup> Mode value for Asset Valuation–V by respondents<br>* Selected scenarios |           |         |                      |                      |          |                          |                     |                     |                 |                  |

303

304

305 Across all six scenarios, the highest-ranking strategy was Scenario 3 (BCR = 1.15), as shown in  
306 *Overall* and *Internal ranking* for fox-only management in Table 3, which was the fox-only  
307 “High” management intensity Scenario. For fox-only management scenarios, Scenario 3 was also  
308 the most expensive approach (AU\$m 5.33). Scenario 1 (AU\$m 3.48) was approximately 35%  
309 cheaper than Scenario 3; whereas Scenario 2 (AU\$m 4.08) was 24% cheaper than Scenario 3.  
310 Across all three scenarios targeting only foxes there was little variability in socio-political risk  
311 ( $P$ ) however, the Impact of works— $W$  varies considerably. For the ‘Low’ intensity scenario  
312 (Scenario 1),  $W$  was 0.21, and this increased to 0.61 in the “High” intensity scenario (Scenario 3),  
313 with the “Medium” intensity scenario having a  $W = 0.41$ . The estimated Lag time ( $L$ ) was lower  
314 for High-intensity—Scenario 3 ( $L = 3$  years), whereas for Scenarios 1 and 2 it was estimated as  
315 seven years.

316 For joint-management (eradication of both red foxes and feral cats), Scenario 5 (BCR = 0.39) —  
317 i.e. “Medium” intensity— was the highest ranking alternative. The cost of joint-management  
318 increased almost linearly, from AU\$4.03 million (Scenario 4) to AU\$7.76 million (Scenario 6—  
319 “High” intensity). Scenario 4 ( $W = 0.21$ ) had the lowest Impacts of the works— $W$ , while Scenarios  
320 5 and 6 were the same ( $W = 0.61$ ). The socio-political risk ( $P = 0.85$ ) did not vary across the 3  
321 alternatives for joint-management, however the Lag time ( $L$ ) for scenarios 5 and 6 ( $L = 10$  years)  
322 were both considerably shorter than for scenario 4 ( $L = 30$  years).

323 Adoption of the proposed actions by private landholders and citizens ( $A$ ) was described as *highly*  
324 *attractive* for fox-only management, and *neutral* for joint-management scenarios, so this  
325 parameter was set at 1, as none of the proposed actions requires behavioural changes by local  
326 private landholders and citizens. The chance of private landholders or citizens *not* adopting

327 adverse practices ( $B$ ) was 0.95 in the scenarios that target fox-only management (Scenarios 1–3),  
328 and 0.7 for those scenarios that aimed at joint-management (Scenarios 4–6).

### 329 **3.3. Sensitivity analysis (SA)**

330 We conducted a sensitivity analysis to determine the sensitivity of management  
331 recommendations to changes in three of the INFFER parameters: (i) Impact of works– $W$ , (ii)  
332 Socio-political risk– $P$ , (iii) and Lag time– $L$ . We chose these parameters because they  
333 demonstrated the greatest heterogeneity or are identified in the literature (Glen et al. 2013) as  
334 having a large impact on the success of invasive species management. We assessed changes in  
335 the three parameters across the *Best Performing Scenarios* (Scenarios 3 and 5), and calculated a  
336 Sensitivity Index (SI) (Alexander 1989) for each parameter, as well as a *BCR Difference (%)* (see  
337 Table 4). A high SI score indicates a high sensitivity of the BCR to changes in that parameter.  
338 Across the three parameters, the BCR was most sensitive to changes in Socio-political risk– $P$  (SI  
339 = 0.88 and 0.87 in Scenarios 3 and 5 respectively). After socio-political risk, Scenario 3 was  
340 more sensitive to changes in Impacts of the works– $W$  (SI = 0.69), than to variation in Lag time– $L$   
341 (SI = 0.60); whereas Scenario 5 was more sensitive to changes in Lag time– $L$  (SI = 0.77), than to  
342 changes in Impacts of the works– $W$ .

343 **Table 4.** Sensitivity Analysis indices calculated for *initial*, *best*, and *worst* values of INFFER's parameters Impacts of the works–*W*,  
 344 Socio-political risk–*P*, and Lag time–*L*. *Initial Benefit-cost ratio* (BCR), indicates the resulting BCR score when we use the *best* and  
 345 *worst* values for each INFFER parameter (i.e. *W*, *P*, and *L*). *Difference in Benefit-cost ratio* ( $\Delta$ BCR) shows the percentual change of the  
 BCR once we recalculated it with the *best* and *worst* values for *W*, *P*, and *L*. The *Sensitivity index* (SI) shows how much the BCR  
 changes according to the *best* and *worst* values for the INFFER parameters, a higher SI value indicates greater sensitivity of the BCR to  
 changes of *W*, *P*, and *L*. The *Sensitivity Index Ranking* (SI rank) orders the *Sensitivity index* from 1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup>, according to the SI values.

| Sensitivity Analysis indices    |            |      |                 |      |                 |            |      |                 |      |                 |
|---------------------------------|------------|------|-----------------|------|-----------------|------------|------|-----------------|------|-----------------|
| INFFER Parameter                | Scenario 3 |      |                 |      |                 | Scenario 5 |      |                 |      |                 |
|                                 | Value      | BCR  | $\Delta$ BCR(%) | SI   | SI rank         | Value      | BCRi | $\Delta$ BCR(%) | SI   | SI rank         |
| <b>W - Impacts of the works</b> |            |      |                 |      |                 |            |      |                 |      |                 |
| <i>initial</i>                  | 0.61       | 1.15 | n.c.            |      |                 | 0.61       | 0.41 | n.c.            |      |                 |
| <i>best</i>                     | 1          | 1.88 | 63.48%          | 0.69 | 2 <sup>nd</sup> | 0.81       | 0.54 | 31.71%          | 0.61 | 3 <sup>rd</sup> |
| <i>worst</i>                    | 0.31       | 0.58 | -49.57%         |      |                 | 0.31       | 0.21 | -48.78%         |      |                 |
| <b>P - Socio-political risk</b> |            |      |                 |      |                 |            |      |                 |      |                 |
| <i>initial</i>                  | 0.85       | 1.15 | n.c.            |      |                 | 0.85       | 0.41 | n.c.            |      |                 |
| <i>best</i>                     | 0.97       | 1.31 | 13.91%          | 0.88 | 1 <sup>st</sup> | 0.97       | 0.47 | 14.63%          | 0.87 | 1 <sup>st</sup> |
| <i>worst</i>                    | 0.12       | 0.16 | -86.09%         |      |                 | 0.12       | 0.06 | -85.37%         |      |                 |
| <b>L - Lag time</b>             |            |      |                 |      |                 |            |      |                 |      |                 |
| <i>initial</i>                  | 3          | 1.15 | n.c.            |      |                 | 10         | 0.41 | n.c.            |      |                 |
| <i>best</i>                     | 1          | 1.26 | 9.57%           | 0.60 | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | 1          | 0.64 | 56.10%          | 0.77 | 2 <sup>nd</sup> |
| <i>worst</i>                    | 20         | 0.5  | -56.52%         |      |                 | 30         | 0.15 | 63.41%          |      |                 |
| n.c. = not calculated           |            |      |                 |      |                 |            |      |                 |      |                 |

346

#### 347 4. Discussion

348 We assessed the Benefit-Cost Ratio (BCR) of six invasive species management scenarios on  
349 Minjerribah by including the perspectives of local government and community members into a  
350 cost-benefit analysis —INFFER—. The analysis showed that fox-only control with ‘high’  
351 intensity (Scenario 3) was the best strategy, as well as the only strategy under a conservative  
352 estimate of asset value ( $V = 1$ ) that had a BCR greater than 1 (1.15), implying that the benefits of  
353 implementing this action exceeded the costs.

354 Among the fox-only Scenarios, Scenario 3 had a shorter time lag (3 years versus 7). This result  
355 suggests that higher investment levels will lead to quicker outcomes, relative to lower investment  
356 levels. The dominance of this strategy can be explained by the perceived greater knowledge of  
357 fox ecology among respondents, the current understanding of eradication measures, and wider  
358 political and community support to control a species that is not considered a companion animal  
359 (like cats). Among the scenarios aimed at joint-management of feral cats and red foxes, scenario  
360 5 (“Medium” investment levels) had the highest BCR (BCR = 1.15). Invasive species managers  
361 on the island judged that Scenarios 5 and 6 (high investment levels) would have equivalent  
362 impact of works, socio-political risk and lag times. However, the higher cost of Scenario 6  
363 resulted in a lower BCR relative to Scenario 5. It is important to note that Scenario 5 corresponds  
364 to current, recommended feral cat management strategies (Department of the Environment 2015).

365 The perceived risk of management failure due to technical failure is low across all scenarios; this  
366 is consistent with the experience and on-ground expertise of Minjerribah’s land managers who  
367 have already undertaken trial eradication campaigns over the last four years. At the same time,  
368 the risk of failure due to socio-political factors is considered low; this shows that the existing

369 stakeholder network between government agencies, private organisations, and community groups  
370 provides a suitable socio-political environment to develop and implement management actions  
371 aimed at these invasive species. However, on Minjerribah Island there is a risk that the local  
372 community could adopt adverse practices ( $B$ ), e.g. by not participating on identification or  
373 neutering programmes. This risk is evident in the value of  $B$ : 0.95 in the case of foxes, and 0.7 for  
374 cats, as management works under all scenarios are expected to encounter some opposition from  
375 community groups, especially when it comes to island-wide baiting programmes and companion  
376 animals' legislation. Maintaining open communication between invasive species managers and  
377 local community members, particularly pet owners, is identified as an important requirement for  
378 all future invasive species management on the island (Crowley et al. 2016).

379 Overall, the impacts of feral cats on native species are well documented (Dickman 1996; Denny  
380 & Dickman 2010; Campbell et al. 2011; Medina et al. 2011; Doherty et al. 2015). What is not  
381 well understood is how to operationalise invasive management activities, such as baiting and  
382 banning companion animals on Islands, without incurring significant community resistance.  
383 Existing management actions (i.e. hunting, trapping, and baiting), which target feral cats are  
384 unlikely to be effective on inhabited islands in the long-term, as pet cats can be a source for re-  
385 establishment of feral cat populations (Denny & Dickman 2010). This is captured by the *Lag time*  
386 ( $L$ ) for joint-management scenarios, which was 30 years (Scenario 4) compared to 10 years for  
387 Scenarios 5 and 6. In this project, none of the scenarios required behavioural changes ( $A$ ) by the  
388 community—which we know is needed—which is why the perceived *Impacts of the Works*— $W$   
389 value for joint-management scenarios might not have been higher. Notwithstanding the lack of a  
390 standard procedure to tackle these species (Parkes et al. 2014), management plans ought to be  
391 adapted to local environmental, socio-political conditions, and use reporting protocols (Iacona et

392 al. 2018). The implementation of complementary actions, such as: legislation that regulates  
393 existing and future companion animals, mandatory identification, control of the existing pet  
394 population by mandatory spay and neuter programmes, predation deterrents, cat curfews by night  
395 time, and the prohibition —or control of— new pet cats are needed to secure long-term effects  
396 (Denny & Dickman 2010; Nogales et al. 2013). These complementary actions can prevent —in  
397 the long term—the spillover of pet cats to establish new feral populations, but as shown by  
398 Ratcliffe et al. (2010) it is possible to encounter public opposition and adoption of adverse  
399 practices ( $B = 0.7$ ), reflected by lower values of the joint-management scenarios, despite the high  
400 adoption by private landholders and citizens ( $A = 1$ ).

401 We would have expected a joint-management scenario to be the *Optimal Strategy* – as Ballari et  
402 al. (2016) found, the removal of a single invasive species is not enough to have a positive, or  
403 even neutral effect on native species' performance or survival. The reasons joint-management  
404 was not the *Optimal Strategy* in our study were because of: (i) lower than expected values for  
405 Impacts of the work– $W$  for joint-management scenarios, therefore resulting in lower  $BCRs$  for  
406 scenarios 4, 5, and 6; (ii) higher perceived uncertainty on the long-term benefits from the  
407 implementation of more expensive, combined actions; (iii) longer expected Lag times ( $L$ ) as  
408 management of feral cats require the implementation of complementary actions and behavioural  
409 changes; (iv) and the possibility of public opposition and adoption of adverse practices. Gaps in  
410 information will result in higher uncertainty, and prevent robust comparison between proposed  
411 actions. We highly recommend further research on this topic, methods such as *Ensemble*  
412 *Ecosystem Modelling* by (Baker et al. 2016), *Optimal eradication schedules* (Bode et al. 2015),  
413 and *Optimal surveillance* (Holden et al. 2016; Rout et al. 2017), have proven to be valuable

414 techniques to identify potential ecosystem impacts from single-species management, and to  
415 optimise the invasive species eradication.

416 Eliciting values for environmental goods is a difficult and complex process. Stakeholder  
417 valuation of local assets, like Minjerribah, can overestimate the intrinsic significance of the asset,  
418 and be sensitive to personal bias (Portney 1994). The result is a high level of subjectivity and  
419 heterogeneity in provided answers (Marsh et al. 2010). In this analysis we have demonstrated a  
420 structured approach to track the *change* in asset value as a result of management works.  
421 Nevertheless, we need approaches that account for cultural values, management preferences, and  
422 contesting plans aimed at protecting biodiversity, to later compare them with alternatives that  
423 may adversely affect their future survival (Jakobsson & Dragun 2001). Using INFFER allowed  
424 us to incorporate these subjective perspectives and preferences explicitly to support a transparent  
425 decision-making process (Marsh et al. 2010).

426 The environmental uniqueness of Minjerribah is a key determinant of the island's environmental  
427 and cultural significance. However, native species on the island are threatened by European red  
428 foxes and feral cats. Involving stakeholders in invasive species management is a critical but  
429 difficult aspect of management (Ford-Thompson et al. 2012). We have overcome barriers to  
430 incorporate local stakeholder knowledge into invasive species management by following a multi-  
431 stakeholder engagement process based on adaptive management principles (Holling 1978) and  
432 INFFER (Pannell et al. 2012). Our approach allowed us to identify that a medium level of  
433 investment targeting foxes on Minjerribah would provide greater benefits relative to its costs.  
434 This result is a timely example of how invasive species management can be approached on  
435 inhabited islands, but outlines the need for more research directed at feral cat management  
436 protocols.

437 We believe that, provided the right pre-assessment, implementation, and monitoring tools,  
438 Minjerribah is a suitable candidate location to pursue eradication of feral cats and European red  
439 foxes. It is important to consider the existing socio-political environment, the technical  
440 experience of local natural resource managers, as well as community cohesiveness, engagement  
441 and overall support. Implementing these actions will ultimately protect the Island's unique  
442 biodiversity, future economic wellbeing, and its unique cultural heritage.

443 **5. Acknowledgements**

444 We would like to acknowledge the Traditional Custodians of the Islands, waters and seas  
445 surrounding Minjerribah and pay our respects to Elders, past, present and future and hope this  
446 work is of benefit to the aspirations of the Quandamooka Peoples. Special thanks to the Straddie  
447 Pest Management Group and community members for all the discussion and input in this project.  
448 We also thank the support provided by the Australian Government's National Environmental  
449 Science Program, through the Threatened Species Recovery Hub, and to the Chilean Doctoral  
450 Fellowship Programme: CONICYT PFCHA/Doctorado Becas Chile/2014 – 72150114, awarded  
451 to the first author.

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