

Conservation policies informed by food system feedbacks can avoid unintended consequences

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Abstract

1 Understanding the feedbacks between food systems and conservation policies can help avoid
2 unintended environmental consequences. Using a survey-based choice experiment and
3 economic modeling, we quantify the potential impact of tourists' responses to a shift in offshore
4 fish supply after the designation of a large-scale marine protected area in Palau. We find that this
5 conservation policy may increase offshore fish prices and tourists' consumption of reef fish,
6 thereby further endangering local reef ecosystems. However, if tourists are offered a sustainable
7 offshore choice, their demand for fish could be kept at current levels, and environmental impacts
8 from increased reef fish consumption would be avoided.

Main

9 Anticipating and avoiding unintended environmental consequences of conservation policies
10 require careful consideration of both ecological and socio-economic effects. Without such
11 understanding, efforts to promote conservation goals may generate fewer positive outcomes than
12 expected or, in extreme cases, even lead to negative consequences¹⁻⁴. For example, limiting
13 resource access can shift market supply and demand, leading to price changes and consumption
14 of substitute goods. In one illustrative case, when Pacific Northwest logging was curtailed on
15 public land to preserve forest habitats, timber production on private properties increased around
16 the region, significantly reducing the effectiveness of the policy¹.

17 Negative environmental consequences of conservation policies can manifest through food
18 systems^{5,6}. For example, instituting marine protected areas (MPAs)^{7,8} and allocating land to
19 conservation⁶ can generate food security concerns in a situation of resource competition with
20 food production. Food systems can, in turn, generate feedbacks that may cause negative
21 environmental consequences, such as poor fish supply increasing bushmeat demand⁹, although
22 these are less documented⁹⁻¹¹. To predict and, most importantly, avoid such unintended
23 consequences, it is critical to understand the behavioral incentives created by conservation
24 policies for affected local populations and for tourists. In this respect, tourists' food consumption
25 behavior is often ignored in conservation policy design, even though it is an important driver of
26 food systems, especially in developing nations¹².

27 Here, we quantify the unintended ecological consequences of conservation policies being
28 generated by tourism via food system feedbacks. In particular, we empirically investigate potential

29 unintended environmental impacts on coral reefs ecosystems generated by tourists' behavioral
30 responses to a shift in offshore fish supply after a protected area designation. Rather than simply
31 documenting negative consequences of conservation *ex post*, this research illustrates how
32 unintended environmental impacts can be anticipated and avoided through assessing socio-
33 economic behavior before a policy is implemented.

34 Our empirical analysis focuses on the new, offshore Large-Scale Marine Protected Area (LSMPA)
35 of Palau. During the last decade, several island nations across the world designated policies for
36 safeguarding coastal and marine areas¹³, with LSMPAs now being introduced in the Atlantic,
37 Pacific, and Indian Oceans^{14,15}. Scholars have begun to examine ecological and socioeconomic
38 dimensions of LSMPAs^{2,16–18} but empirical investigations of their potential unintended
39 consequences, which assess feedback impacts from food systems and, at the same time,
40 presents financially-viable solutions, are still lacking. Since 2001, Palau has been attracting over
41 100,000 visitors per year, which corresponds to five times the resident population. On January 1,
42 2020, it fully implemented the sixth largest LSMPA in the world – the Palau National Marine
43 Sanctuary (PNMS). The PNMS legislation bans fishing and all extractive activities in 80%
44 (500,000 km²) of Palau's offshore Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), and limits industrial fishing to
45 only 18% (114,000 km²) of the remaining EEZ, the residual coastal area being available to reef
46 and coastal fishers. One goal of the PNMS is to grow Palau's nascent domestic offshore fishery,
47 which currently consists of a small fleet of day-boat vessels, with the ultimate intent of reducing
48 pressure on their overexploited reef fish species^{19,20}.

49 The first step of our approach was to identify the potential socio-economic effects of conservation
50 policies on Palau's food systems. PNMS restrictions on industrial fishing are highly likely to
51 significantly reduce offshore fish landings for its domestic market, which, prior to the PNMS, was
52 dominated by foreign, industrial fleets. Such fish include tuna, wahoo, and mahi mahi, which are
53 the main ingredients of tourists' meals in Palau²¹. Any shortage in offshore fish supply is expected
54 to drive up offshore fish-based meal prices, which, in turn, may encourage tourists to increase
55 their reef-fish consumption, intensifying pressure on local reefs. In fact, after only a couple of
56 months since the implementation of the PNMS, supply shortages and subsequent price increases
57 of offshore fish are already leading to increased reef-fish demand from grocery stores and
58 restaurants²². This is noteworthy since reef fishes are the chief source of protein for the local
59 population²¹ and support healthy coral reefs — the main attraction drawing tourists to Palau^{23,24}.
60 Therefore, the PNMS has the serious likelihood of generating unintended ecological
61 consequences by depleting critical nearshore ecosystems.

62 The second step was to quantify *ex ante* tourists' behavioral responses to food supply shortages
63 by investigating their preferences for fish-based and non-fish-based meals (see Methods). We
64 ran tablet-based surveys to assess tourists' fish consumption and, via a choice experiment, their
65 meal preferences. Our results have shown that in 2017 tourists ate ~2 million meals a year and
66 that ~26% of these meals included fish, divided roughly equally between reef and offshore
67 (*Supplementary Table 7*). Furthermore, our choice experiment has indicated that tourists' demand
68 functions for both offshore and reef fish are elastic and characterized by strong substitution
69 effects. Figure 1 shows changes in fish consumption following an increase in the price of offshore

70 fish; about 80% of the drop in offshore-fish meals that follows a price increase is compensated by
71 an increase in reef-fish meals, and other types of food (i.e., non-fish meals) comprise the other
72 20%. Based on the number of tourists in 2017, a US\$10 increase in offshore-fish meal prices
73 would generate a drop of 52,000 offshore-fish meals per year consumed by tourists and a
74 simultaneous increase of more than 40,000 reef-fish meals. The trend persists as price increases,
75 implying that demand for reef fish could escalate further if the price of offshore-fish meals
76 balloons. In this representation, we assumed the price of reef fish to remain constant, although it
77 is possible that, in the long run, reef-fish price will also increase due to higher demand levels (we
78 explore the implication of such demand cross-elasticities in SI.8). Still, the feedback effect of food
79 systems from the PNMS policies poses a concrete risk of increasing human pressure on Palau's
80 vital reef ecosystems²³.

Figure 1 – Insert here

81 While our demand analysis shows that socio-economic effects via food systems could lead to
82 unintended environmental degradation, it also reveals that harnessing tourists' preferences may
83 provide a solution if the right incentives are provided. In particular, tourists have a significantly
84 higher willingness to pay (WTP) for offshore fish that is marketed as local and sustainable, i.e.
85 sustainably caught by a Palau-based fleet. Similar fishery certifications have been widely used to
86 provide a price premium to sustainable harvesters²⁵. Figure 2 (panel a) shows that this WTP is
87 particularly high for middle- and high-income tourists, who are willing to spend an extra US\$15
88 for an offshore-fish meal which is locally and sustainably caught (see *Supplementary Information*).
89 This price premium represents an economic opportunity for local fishers and restaurants; Palau's
90 nascent domestic offshore fishery will require capital investments and capacity building, so
91 capturing this WTP could improve this sector's viability while also curtailing tourists' demand for
92 reef-fish meals.

93 Alongside this financial opportunity there are also potential environmental effects, since shifts in
94 demand will modify fishing pressure on the reef. To investigate this issue, we simulated the
95 changes in reef and offshore fish consumption if the price of offshore-fish meals increases by
96 US\$10 in two different scenarios: *industrial fisheries* (IF) and *local sustainable fisheries* (LSF). As
97 the baseline, we used prices and consumptions before the implementation of the PNMS. As figure
98 2 (panel b) shows, in the first scenario, offshore fish is caught by foreign-owned IF that do not
99 implement sustainable practices (i.e., current conditions), while in the second one, offshore fish
100 is caught by a Palau-based fleet in a sustainable manner. We simulated changes for all tourists
101 and by income levels. In line with our demand function estimates, the *IF* scenario showed a
102 significant drop in offshore fish consumption (about 23%, corresponding to the 52,000 meals in
103 Figure 1) and an almost equal increase in reef-fish meals due to the price increase. This effect
104 was consistent across all income groups. On the other hand, in the *LSF* scenario we observed
105 practically no change overall, with reef and offshore fish consumption remaining roughly the same
106 as in the baseline, despite the price change. However, the lack of overall change in consumption
107 masks the significant difference between income groups. Low-income tourists have low WTP for
108 local sustainable offshore fish and, therefore, switch to reef-fish meals. This effect is compensated
109 by the large change in consumption of middle- and high-income tourists who, despite the higher

110 price, consume more offshore fish (and less reef fish) because of their high WTP. Results suggest
111 that a local, sustainable brand of offshore fish can bring financial opportunities, particularly if the
112 tourism base is wealthier—Palau’s current tourism strategy²⁶. Such branding can also create
113 positive externalities by halting the increase in fishing pressure on Palau’s reefs that a surge in
114 offshore fish price would otherwise generate. Nevertheless, taking into account heterogeneity in
115 preferences across tourists is important to understand future consumption and environmental
116 impacts, particularly if the proportion of low-income tourists will increase in the future.

Figure 2 – Insert here

117 Conservation policies such as establishing MPAs can attract more tourists (as already seen in
118 Vietnam⁸, for example), yet positive outcomes can co-occur with negative ones. Our study
119 demonstrates that the design of conservation policies should consider and aspire to anticipate
120 food system feedbacks, including the wider implications of tourists’ behavioral responses.
121 Policies’ indirect socio-economic effects via food systems can cause unintended environmental
122 consequences, but when understood and harnessed in the right direction, they can also offer
123 potential win-win solutions. In the case of Palau, implementing the PNMS alongside a market-
124 based intervention which provides a price premium for verified sustainably- and locally-sourced
125 offshore fish could increase income for local fishers and fish retailers. Consumers are willing to
126 pay a price premium for fish that they know is locally and sustainably caught, but whether a
127 domestic local fishery is able to supply enough fish at this price needs to be investigated.
128 Moreover, credibility will depend on robust monitoring and verification programs to ensure
129 compliance with sustainable practices.

130 Our results, though specific to Palau, are potentially applicable to other nations where tourism
131 strongly drives food system and fish are of dietary and cultural importance. Our approach is
132 broadly generalizable for investigating *ex ante* the interactions between conservation policies and
133 tourists’ behavior, as well as sustainable solutions to mitigate unintended consequences of
134 tourism-driven food systems impacts. As nations seek to meet international protected area
135 agreements and achieve sustainable development goals through large-scale conservation
136 actions, *ex ante* systematic analyses of socioeconomic trade-offs for food systems and
137 preferences of both locals and tourists are crucial for sound policy.

Methods

138 Tourist surveys (in English, Korean, Mandarin Chinese, Taiwanese and Japanese) were
139 conducted from August 2017 to January 2018 in Palau. In total, 409 valid tablet-based responses
140 represented the island’s tourist demographics (see *Supplementary Information*). The profile of
141 tourists’ current fish consumption was obtained by asking respondents to report the trip duration,
142 number of fish-based meals (i.e., breakfasts, lunches, and/or dinners) consumed in Palau by type
143 (reef, tuna, other non-tuna offshore) and form (whole, cooked fillet, or raw). Results were
144 reweighted in order to match the share of tourists in Palau in 2017 (see *Supplementary*
145 *Information*) and to accommodate that ~7% of our sample reported to not eat fish. As the number

146 of fish-eating respondents were not normally distributed across all groups, a sequential hurdle
147 model was run in the R statistical software package “glmmTMB”²⁷ to test for consumption
148 differences across nationalities (see *Supplementary Information*).

149 The discrete choice experiment comprised credible restaurant menus with varying prices, in which
150 respondents had to indicate their preferred meal option, using a decomposition approach²⁸. Each
151 menu offered four fish and one non-fish meal, which included both meat and non-meat meals
152 and, in effect, served as the outside option²⁹. Fish-eating respondents were presented with a
153 random set of 12 menus. Fish-based meals included the following 11 options: reef fish (whole,
154 fillet, or raw), tuna (raw, cooked, local-sustainable (LS) raw, or LS cooked), and non-tuna offshore
155 fish (raw, cooked, LS raw, or LS cooked). The price of each fish-based meal varied between \$10
156 and \$75 (see *Supplementary Information*). The menus and prices were produced using a D-
157 efficient design.

158 The analysis of our discrete choice experiment responses follows the random utility model
159 framework³⁰. Therefore, tourists’ preferences are captured by the following equation:

160 (1) $U_{ikj} = \alpha_j + \beta \text{price}_{ikj} + \varepsilon_{ikj}$,

161 where i indicates the respondent, $k = 1, \dots, 12$ the choice cards and j the choice options. ε_{ikj} is the
162 error term. The intercept α_j corresponds to the difference in utility between the non-fish meal and
163 the j -esim fish meal, β (which we expect to be negative) indicates the dis-utility of cost. Assuming
164 error terms to be independent, identically distributed Gumbel random variables, the probability of
165 choosing option j can be written in a conditional logit form and the parameters of equation (1)
166 estimated via maximum likelihood²⁵. Within this framework, the WTP is defined as $-\alpha_j/\beta$ and its
167 confidence interval can be obtained via the Krinsky and Robb approach³¹. This WTP can be
168 interpreted as the additional amount respondents are willing to pay to order that specific fish dish
169 instead of the non-fish (meat or vegetarian) option.

170 Finally, the preference parameters estimated in equation (1) can be used to simulate the demand
171 functions for the different types of meals (see *Supplementary Information*). A debate exists on the
172 extent of hypothetical bias affecting WTP estimates from stated preferences³². Recent findings
173 suggest that this bias is likely to be stronger for public goods than for market goods^{29,33,34} and,
174 therefore, our approach should be relatively less affected by this issue. Nevertheless, in the SI.8
175 we illustrate how our findings would change if the additional WTPs for LS fish meals would be
176 only one half of the values we estimate in our CE.

Data availability

177 The authors declare that all data supporting the findings of this study are available within the
178 paper and its Supplementary Information and Data files.

Code availability

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Contributions

S.A.L., K.L.L.O., and R.D. planned the project. S.A.L., K.L.L.O., R.D., C.F., S.F and P.A.S.J. designed the study. S.A.L. K.L.L.O., R.D. and L.M. collected the surveys. C.F., S.A.L., K.L.L.O., R.D. and S.F. conducted the analysis. C.F. and S.F. designed and estimated the choice experiment analysis. S.A.L., C.F., and K.L.L.O. wrote the paper. R.D., S.F., P.A.S.J., L.M. and Y.G. contributed to the writing.

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Ethics declaration

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Supplementary Information

Survey Instrument, Supplementary Figures 1 – 5 and Tables 1 – 12

Supplementary Data

Data and code for respondents' demographics, fish consumption, discrete choice experiment, WTP, and model estimates.