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46

47

48 **Summary**

- 49 1. Many highly diverse island ecosystems across the globe are threatened by invasive
50 species. Eradications of invasive mammals from islands are being attempted with
51 increasing frequency, with their success aided by geographical isolation and
52 increasing knowledge of eradication techniques. There have been many attempts
53 to prioritize islands for invasive species eradication; however, these coarse
54 methods all assume managers are unrealistically limited to a single action on each
55 island: either eradicate all invasive mammals, or do nothing.
- 56 2. We define a prioritization method that broadens the suite of actions considered,
57 more accurately representing the complex decisions facing managers. We allow
58 the opportunity to only eradicate a subset of invasive mammals from each island,
59 intentionally leaving some invasive mammals on islands. We consider elements
60 often omitted in previous prioritization methods, including feasibility, cost, and
61 complex ecological responses (i.e. trophic cascades).
- 62 3. Using a case study of Australian islands, we show that for a fixed budget this
63 method can provide a higher conservation benefit across the whole group of
64 islands. Our prioritization method outperforms simpler methods for almost 80%
65 of the budgets considered.

66 4. On average, by relaxing the restrictive assumption that an eradication attempt
67 must be made for all invasives on an island, ecological benefit can be improved
68 by 27%.

69 5. *Synthesis and applications.* Substantially higher ecological benefits for threatened
70 species can be achieved for no extra cost if conservation planners relax the
71 assumption that eradication projects must target all invasives on an island. It is
72 more efficient to prioritize portfolios of eradication actions, rather than islands.

73 **Key-words:** Invasive species, eradication, island conservation, threatened species,
74 resource allocation, optimization, decision theory, feral cats, trophic cascade, integer
75 programming

76 **Introduction**

77

78 Eradicating invasive species from uninhabited islands offers substantial benefits to
79 conservation. Island species have unique, divergent evolutionary histories and as a result,
80 islands hold a disproportionate percentage by area of global biodiversity (Kier *et al.* 2009).
81 Unfortunately, the same unique factors that lead to high biodiversity – small size and
82 isolation – have meant that a higher proportion of extinctions have occurred on islands,
83 primarily due to invasive vertebrates (Simberloff 1995; Courchamp, Chapuis & Pascal
84 2003). Threats to these ecosystems and their biodiversity from predation, competition
85 and habitat destruction by invasive species remain high (Kier *et al.* 2009; Medina *et al.*
86 2011; Spatz *et al.* 2014), motivating invasive species eradication projects. Eradication
87 efforts have focused largely on islands because of their high biodiversity and
88 vulnerability. In addition, islands do not suffer from the high likelihood of reinvasion
89 that large, connected continental sites experience, greatly increasing the likelihood of a
90 successful and enduring eradication.

91

92 The success of island eradication projects is not guaranteed (Gregory *et al.* 2014), and any
93 conservation efforts on islands can be unusually expensive given their restricted access
94 and limited infrastructure (Martins *et al.* 2006; Donlan & Wilcox 2007). Therefore it is
95 imperative that limited funds are appropriately allocated to maximize the expected
96 conservation outcomes while considering the likelihood of success. Numerous studies
97 have proposed methods (of varying complexity) for prioritizing eradications of invasive
98 species from suites of islands. All previous prioritization exercises make the same critical
99 assumption that only a single, all-or-nothing option is available to managers on each

100 island. They constrain their recommendations to a single choice, similar to reserve
101 selection in conservation planning, where an island is either selected for invasive species
102 eradication, or it is not (Possingham, Ball & Andelman 2000). Many assume that
103 managers will always eradicate all invasive vertebrates from islands (e.g. Brooke, Hilton
104 & Martins 2007; Hilton & Cuthbert 2010; Donlan, Luque & Wilcox 2014), foregoing the
105 opportunity to eradicate only invasive species that give the highest benefit for the money
106 spent (Game, Kareiva & Possingham 2013). Other studies only consider eradication of a
107 single invasive species across many islands (e.g. Nogales *et al.* 2004; Ratcliffe *et al.* 2009;
108 Capizzi, Baccetti & Sposimo 2010; Harris *et al.* 2012), with inherent assumptions about
109 which invasive species has the greatest impact on each island. As we will show,
110 considering more than one action on each island can substantially increase potential
111 ecological benefits.

112
113 The cost and feasibility of invasive species eradications have frequently been omitted
114 when prioritizing eradication programs across multiple islands. The decision not to
115 include or consider the cost of candidate projects forces the implicit assumption that
116 either all projects have equal cost, or that budgets are unlimited (Nogales *et al.* 2004;
117 Donlan & Wilcox 2007; Ratcliffe *et al.* 2009; Harris *et al.* 2012; Dawson *et al.* 2015). This
118 is a risky assumption in any conservation-planning project, but particularly when
119 considering conservation on islands where costs can be extremely high. Omitting cost
120 ignores opportunities to rapidly and relatively cheaply eradicate invasive mammals from
121 numerous small and logistically simple islands. When feasibility (the probability of
122 successful eradication) is included in existing prioritization schemes, a false dichotomy is
123 often created by considering only binary success depending on island attributes: below a
124 certain threshold success is guaranteed, above the threshold and success is impossible
125 (e.g. Harris *et al.* 2012; Donlan, Luque & Wilcox 2014; Dawson *et al.* 2015). While this
126 approach will bias priority setting away from islands where eradication is very difficult, it
127 is overly simplistic (in fact many failed eradications are on small, inshore islands, see
128 Gregory *et al.* 2014), and misses an opportunity to choose islands that are difficult but
129 very rewarding for conservation. The ability to balance risk and benefit is an essential
130 element of rational asset management, and cannot be achieved simply by ignoring high-
131 risk options (Joseph, Maloney & Possingham 2009; Game, Kareiva & Possingham 2013).

132

133 We extend the island prioritization problem to include a more realistic suite of options
134 on each island, as well as the costs and feasibilities of each option. This extends the
135 existing invasive species eradication literature in two ways: first, we consider partial
136 successes of eradication (acknowledging that if multiple invasives are targeted for
137 eradication on the same island, it is possible that some will succeed while others fail).
138 Second, on each island we consider the option to target any combination of invasive
139 species while intentionally leaving others. We will show that this increased complexity
140 has measurable benefits, and delivers higher conservation outcomes for limited budgets
141 than more simplistic prioritization schemes. Our method reveals several efficiencies that
142 cannot be obtained by using the existing suite of optimization methods. Rather than
143 focusing on islands as management units our method targets different subsets of invasive
144 species on islands. The method allows for complex ecological processes (i.e. trophic
145 cascades) such as competitive release, mesopredator release, prey switching and
146 invasional meltdown to be considered and accounted for. Prioritizing portfolios of
147 eradication actions better reflects the variety of options available to managers, and
148 considers the range of ecological processes that can result from perturbing an insular
149 system. This prioritization method would be useful for decision-making agencies
150 deciding how limited funds should be allocated between defined projects, e.g. allocating
151 funds within a region (Dawson *et al.* 2015).

152
153 We illustrate our framework using case studies of 23 distinct portfolios of actions on
154 four uninhabited Australian islands that have all recently undergone successful vertebrate
155 eradications: Macquarie, Tasman, Faure and Hermite Islands. We then generalize the
156 results of our case study by applying the method to a large number of randomly
157 generated island data sets. We demonstrate that allowing managers to choose from
158 among multiple portfolios of actions on each island provides a substantially higher
159 conservation benefit compared to alternative, less flexible prioritization methods.

160

161 **Materials and methods**

162 We aim to achieve the greatest conservation benefit to a group of islands by determining
163 which groups of invasive species (if any) should be eradicated from each island for a
164 fixed budget to benefit species of conservation concern. When considering more than
165 one action on an island (e.g. baiting for rats and shooting goats), the actions are grouped
166 into “action portfolios”. An action portfolio represents more than just the sum of its

167 parts; it includes cost, feasibility, and outcomes of the contributing actions. This
168 approach creates potential efficiency gains both economically (for example if logistic
169 costs such as transport are shared) and through increased probability of successful
170 eradication (where interactions between pest species are strong).

171
172 Despite management intentions, an island may transition into an undesirable state
173 following an eradication attempt. This removal of part of an ecological network can
174 result in complex and detrimental ecosystem processes, potentially affecting all species of
175 concern (Courchamp, Chapuis & Pascal 2003). Even when attempting to eradicate all
176 invasive species present, eradication of each species has the potential to fail. This may be
177 due to technical/logistic failures (e.g. bad weather, inadequate bait coverage) or the
178 demographic stochasticity of eradication. Any invasives remaining from the eradication
179 attempt will reduce the realized conservation benefit of the project. Therefore when
180 attempting to eradicate any group of invasive species on an island all possible
181 combinations of potential successes and failures need to be considered as potential
182 future states. The probability of an island transitioning into a new invasive species state
183 after a specific action is mathematically defined in Appendix S1 and S2 in Supporting
184 Information.

185 *Objective*

186 With unlimited funds, an optimal eradication plan would typically aim to eradicate every
187 invasive species from every island, spending as much money as it takes to be certain of
188 eradication. However in reality, budgets are limited and therefore conservation objectives
189 must be clearly defined to determine how best to allocate funds. For fixed budget B , our
190 method provides the maximum conservation benefit across the entire system of islands
191 by considering three important factors: i) the ecological benefit, ii) the economic cost,
192 and iii) the feasibility of each eradication action. We combine these factors by calculating
193 the expected ecological benefit (indicated by \mathbb{E} below): the benefit of a suite of invasive
194 species remaining after eradication multiplied by the probability that those invasives
195 remain after the eradication attempt. Even highly influential eradications will not
196 contribute much to the total expected ecological benefit if they are unlikely to be
197 successful.

198

199 The optimal portfolio of actions maximizes the objective:

$$\max_{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^I} \sum_{i=1 \dots I} \mathbb{E}[U(y_{i1}) | y_{i0}, \mathbf{A}_i]$$

200 subject to the budgetary constraints (budget B):

$$\sum_{i=1 \dots N} c(\mathbf{A}_i) \leq B.$$

201

Equation 1

202 $U(y_{i1})$ is the biodiversity benefit achieved when island i is in the invasive species state
 203 y_{i1} (see Appendix S1 and S3 for details of calculation), and $c(\mathbf{A}_i)$ is the cost of action
 204 portfolio \mathbf{A}_i . This objective function includes any negative outcomes resulting from
 205 unintended states reached if part of the eradication campaign fails.

206

207 We focus on eradication campaigns that aimed to improve the state of pre-defined
 208 ‘species of conservation concern’ based on species listed in the IUCN Red List (IUCN
 209 2014) and the EPBC Act List of Threatened Fauna (EPBC Act 1999). We also included
 210 Fairy Prions *Pachyptila turtur* on Tasman Island (which do not occur on either list), due to
 211 the conservation value of this very large colony (BirdLife International 2014).
 212 Invertebrates or plants could easily be included if data were available. To illustrate our
 213 method we calculate the ecological benefit of an action portfolio by the population
 214 increase of all species of conservation concern (see Appendix S3). However, many
 215 different utility functions could be used. In order to capture the species’ relative rarity
 216 without using an arbitrary scoring system, we convert the population increases to
 217 percentages of the current global population. This weighs endemic species and important
 218 global populations highly, and places less emphasis on more common species. To
 219 calculate the increase in abundance of each species of concern, we determined through
 220 expert elicitation or from the scientific literature the equilibrium population size in the
 221 initial state (all invasives present) and each potential future state (see Appendix S3
 222 Appendix S1).

223 ***Data requirements***

224 Carefully prioritizing eradications of invasive species requires a good understanding of
 225 the ecosystem of each island. For each portfolio of actions this includes a cost estimate
 226 and the likelihood that the portfolio would result in the successful eradication of each
 227 invasive species targeted. These likelihoods of success combine to give the probability
 228 that the island will transition into each particular future invasive species state (Appendix

229 S1). Additionally, the impact of each potential remaining group of invasive species in the
230 native ecosystem needs to be quantified and incorporated into the utility function in
231 Equation 1 (see Appendix S3). This requires insight not only into the impact of each
232 invasive species on each species of concern, but also how the absence of an invasive
233 species might affect other invasive species populations. These insights might come from
234 detailed ecological studies on species recovery (Ringler, Russell & Le Corre 2015; Buxton
235 *et al.* 2016), predictive modelling techniques (Raymond *et al.* 2011), or expert elicitation
236 (Sutherland & Burgman 2015).

237 *Costs of action portfolios*

238 The cost not only of each individual eradication but of each combined portfolio is
239 required to capture potential cost-sharing between actions. Mixed rodent eradications are
240 an effective example of shared costs: the baits can be dropped simultaneously (sharing
241 the helicopter costs), but more animals will require more baits, either with a repeated bait
242 drop or at a higher density. This cost for the whole action portfolio, $c(A_i)$ is applied in
243 Equation 2 to ensure the chosen action portfolios can be achieved with the given budget
244 (see Appendix S4).

245 *Three priority-setting methods*

246 We prioritize eradications of invasive vertebrates from a case study of four islands using
247 the ‘action portfolio’ framework described above. For a range of given budgets, we
248 calculate the most beneficial set of actions that can be performed by exhaustively
249 exploring potential combinations of eradication actions (although a heuristic method
250 such as simulated annealing would be useful for larger problems, Van Laarhoven & Aarts
251 1987). We compare our method to two approaches that make many of the same
252 assumptions as previously published prioritization methods. In both cases, we prioritize
253 the eradication actions with the alternative method but assess the outcome in the same
254 way for all methods. We draw no comparison to single island or single invasive species
255 studies (e.g. Capizzi, Baccetti & Sposimo 2010; Raymond *et al.* 2011), focusing instead
256 only on multiple invasive species across multiple islands. The first method we compare
257 prioritizes islands rather than actions: every invasive species must be targeted if an island
258 is chosen in the priority set. In this ‘all-or-nothing’ method (Brooke, Hilton & Martins
259 2007; Dawson *et al.* 2015), the action is either to eradicate everything if the island is
260 chosen, or eradicate nothing. Islands may still contain some combination of invasive
261 species after the eradication attempt.

262

263 We will compare these two methods to a third, less complex alternative method wherein
264 we choose which species to eradicate on particular islands based on the cost-efficiency of
265 each invasive species eradication, independent of the other invasive species. This is a
266 simpler attempt to consider more than one potential action on each island. Each invasive
267 species is considered a candidate for eradication, but only in isolation. This ‘rank-and-
268 sort’ method does not take into account interactions between invasive species and
269 considers each invasive species on each island separately, using the cost-efficiency (i.e.
270 the expected ecological benefit of the single species eradication divided by the cost). For
271 any given budget, the eradications are chosen by a greedy prioritization algorithm. In
272 order, the algorithm steps down this ranked list selecting invasive species to eradicate
273 (without recalculating the benefits) until the entire budget is allocated.

274 *Case study*

275 We use case study specifics (e.g. costs, probabilities of success, and the measure of
276 ecological benefit) to illustrate the process, flexibility, and performance of our eradication
277 prioritization, rather than recommending how the method should be parameterized in
278 future applications. We analyse a hypothetical project comprising four Australian islands
279 (see Table 1 for details), each of which underwent a successful eradication attempt. This
280 case study is intended to illustrate the utility of considering multiple eradication options
281 on each island rather than a retrospective critique of eradication programs. We
282 implement our framework for this case study (see Appendix S5 for a detailed description
283 of how the case study was applied to each phase of this framework), and test the
284 robustness of the results on a randomized set of islands (see Appendix S6). We elicited
285 population estimates from experts for each island in a series of workshops (Appendix
286 S3). As it is difficult to predict with confidence how species of conservation concern will
287 respond to combinations of invasive species that have never occurred on the island, for
288 the case study we utilized population estimates from experts for each of the islands (a
289 technique frequently used in conservation planning, Kuhnert, Martin & Griffiths 2010;
290 Martin *et al.* 2012). Although making these estimates may require time and money in
291 future applications of this method, it is unlikely to require more than a small percentage
292 of the costs required for eradicating multiple invasive species from multiple islands.
293 Estimating these additional parameters also increases the uncertainty in the model, but
294 even uncertain estimates are preferable to the unrealistic assumption that either all
295 eradications in a campaign are successful or all fail.

296

297 We use a statistical estimator for feasibility, based on invasive species type and island size
298 (although Gregory 2014 recommends using island ruggedness rather than island size
299 when possible). We also use a statistical estimator for cost based on island size and
300 latitude (Martins *et al.* 2006 and Appendix S4; also see Holmes *et al.* 2015). It was not
301 possible to determine the costs for each individual invasive species eradication from the
302 expert-elicited costs of past eradications on these islands. Using a statistical estimator
303 allows us to separate these eradications easily, and to normalize the cost estimates
304 between islands (avoiding differences in accounting between departments over many
305 years). These cost estimates do not reflect the actual funds spent on these eradications.

306 **Results**

307 Prioritizing portfolios of actions resulted in better or equal biodiversity benefit compared
308 to the other two methods tested (Fig. 1). We prioritized the islands at budgets from zero
309 up to the maximum cost (i.e. performing all eradication actions on all islands). In 79.5%
310 of the budgets considered, the ‘action portfolio’ prioritization method out-performed the
311 ‘all-or-nothing’ method, providing a 27% higher mean ecological benefit. In this case
312 study, attempting to eradicate all invasive species from each island has a positive
313 expected benefit even though undesirable states may be reached if some actions in the
314 portfolio fail. With enough money, both the ‘action portfolios’ and ‘all-or-nothing’
315 methods recommend attempting to eradicate all invasive species from all islands.

316

317 The ‘rank-and-sort’ method (Fig. 1, dotted line) performed poorly for most budgets. This
318 method calculates the benefit of eradicating each invasive species in isolation (with no
319 consideration of species interactions), and simply adds these benefits when considering
320 eradications of multiple species. This method substantially underestimates the benefit of
321 eradicating some invasive species because their eradication alone provides no net benefit.
322 This occurs particularly in cases where no threatened species can coexist with one of the
323 invasive species. For example, all species of concern are locally extinct on Faure Island
324 when cats are present, so there is no benefit to species of concern of eradicating goats if
325 cats are left on the island. This simple ‘rank-and-sort’ method does not consider invasive
326 species interactions, so the benefit of eradicating goats is always considered zero. This
327 method will therefore never recommend eradicating goats, even in an action portfolio in
328 unison with cat eradication, illustrating that it is imperative to use a method that includes
329 invasive species interactions (see Fig. 2a). This ranking method performs well at low

330 budgets when these combinations of invasive species are not a factor because they
331 exceed the budget, but it performs very poorly at mid- to high-budgets. It never
332 outperforms the action portfolios method.

333

334 When prioritizing using the action portfolios method it is almost always optimal to
335 intentionally leave some invasive species on at least one island (Fig. 2). The flexibility
336 gained is best seen at key budgets when a single eradication action falls within the budget
337 but an entire suite of invasive species on an island does not. The action portfolios
338 method allows managers to drop the least efficient actions and still achieve high
339 conservation benefits on that island for much lower costs. AU\$700 000 is insufficient to
340 eradicate all the invasives on Faure Island. However, cats can be eradicated from Faure
341 for that budget, achieving 60% of the potential conservation benefit on that island (Fig.
342 2c at AU\$700 000). Using the all-or-nothing method, which does not allow the flexibility
343 to leave goats and sheep, none of that benefit can be achieved for a budget less than \$1.2
344 million (Fig. 2b at AU\$1 200 000).

345

346 The efficiency of leaving some invasive species on some islands, to free resources for
347 other partial eradications, is evident also at higher budgets. Once the budget is large
348 enough to eradicate everything from Faure, Tasman and Hermite Islands, there is the
349 potential to gain significant benefit from the eradication of just cats on Macquarie Island
350 with a total budget of AU\$2.43 million (using the cost estimates of Martins *et al.* 2006). It
351 would cost a considerably larger budget (AU\$4.3 million, more than 1.75 times the
352 investment) to achieve the same additional benefit with the 'all-or-nothing' prioritization
353 method.

354

355 There are instances of imperceptibly small expected benefits of eradication attempts in
356 this case study, e.g. mice on Macquarie Island (Fig 3b at a total budget of AU\$3.8
357 million) or sheep on Faure Island (Fig 3b at AU\$2.1 million). The expected benefit of an
358 eradication attempt can be low for two reasons: relatively low ecological benefit
359 compared to the other invasive species (sheep on Faure Island), low feasibility compared
360 to other invasive species, or a combination of both (mice on Macquarie Island, where to
361 date mice had not been identified as a major threat to species of concern - unlike other
362 sub-Antarctic islands Angel, Wanless & Cooper 2009; Jones & Ryan 2010). The
363 advantage of leaving these invasives on an island is particularly obvious when it is very

364 expensive to eradicate them: 75% of the total possible benefit for the entire four-island
365 system can be achieved for AU\$1.8 million. For perspective, this saving is enough to
366 eradicate the whole complement of invasives from Hermite, Faure and Tasman Islands
367 twice over.

368

369 **Discussion**

370 Existing methods for prioritizing island eradications impose strong constraints on
371 conservation decision-makers; if an island is chosen as a priority, managers only have a
372 single option (Brooke, Hilton & Martins 2007; Ratcliffe *et al.* 2009; Capizzi, Baccetti &
373 Sposimo 2010; Nogales *et al.* 2013). We have shown that intentionally leaving some
374 invasive species on islands can increase overall potential conservation benefits. In any
375 optimization scenario, restricting the available options cannot result in better outcomes.
376 Sometimes the best solution will satisfy the restrictions, in which case the restricted and
377 the unrestricted problem would find the same solution. However in many cases
378 (especially in this study), the optimal solution breaks the restrictions and would not have
379 been found by a restricted decision-maker.

380

381 With no funding limitations, managers should eradicate all invasives from all islands at
382 the same time (Glen *et al.* 2013). Where trade-offs are required, our prioritization method
383 allows funding to be directed to cost-effective eradications of invasive species that cause
384 the greatest and most immediate ecological harm. The flexibility of our framework
385 provides significant gains for budgets where not all invasives can be successfully
386 eradicated due to budgetary constraints (or inadequate technology) and so trade-offs
387 must be made. For example, if cats had not been eradicated from Macquarie Island in the
388 years prior to the expensive (and technologically difficult) rabbit and rodent eradications,
389 several species of high-conservation seabird would have become extinct (Robinson &
390 Copson 2014). This pressing need, reiterated by our results, does not imply that mice are
391 not harmful on Macquarie Island. In fact they do affect many ground-nesting seabirds
392 (see Appendix S3 and discussions in Bergstrom *et al.* 2009; Dowding *et al.* 2009), but with
393 a limited budget the most cost-efficient species (cats on all islands) should be eradicated
394 with priority. Conservation is a field constrained by budgets, and so the ability to trade-
395 off and increase benefits that can be achieved with small budgets is pragmatic. When
396 prioritizing the eradication of a single species from multiple islands (e.g. black rats,

397 Capizzi, Baccetti & Sposimo 2010), prioritizing actions is equivalent to prioritizing
398 islands.

399

400 Previous studies have avoided more complex prioritization methods due to the difficulty
401 of predicting ecosystem responses. Ecosystem science and modelling techniques are
402 rapidly improving the ease and reliability of these predictions, and are likely to continue
403 developing. The understanding of species interactions and food web dynamics are
404 increasing (Raymond *et al.* 2011; e.g. Eklöf, Tang & Allesina 2013). Our aim here was to
405 illustrate the utility of a more detailed, nuanced prioritization framework. Future
406 applications should apply the most up-to-date techniques to predict the ecological
407 responses of systems to changes in composition, such as structured qualitative modelling
408 techniques (Hunter *et al.* 2015). By applying these structured, transparent modelling
409 techniques we can more accurately capture the increases in population that are controlled
410 by invasive species removal rather than the myriad other threatening processes facing
411 threatened species. These methods can ease reliance on expert estimation and literature
412 review for predicting the current and potential future population estimates. The estimates
413 require a detailed knowledge of the ecological interactions on the islands, and a
414 willingness and ability of experts to forecast into unknown states (see Courchamp,
415 Chapuis & Pascal 2003 for discussion on the complexity of eradications from islands).
416 Any attempt to predict ecological responses to altered invasive species compositions is
417 not perfect: many assumptions must be made, and it is important to maintain
418 transparency throughout the entire parameterization process (e.g. see Appendices S1–
419 S5).

420

421 Predictive statistical models for cost (Martins *et al.* 2006) and feasibility (Gregory 2014)
422 proved useful for our case study. Statistical models are useful when considering either
423 large numbers of islands, or (as is the case here) where the primary aim is to illustrate a
424 decision support tool rather than a prescribed plan of action. These predictors force a
425 compromise between specificity of results and ease of application. For example, the
426 model to predict cost presented by Martins *et al.* (2006) does not capture the large
427 shipping cost for Macquarie Island (a sub-Antarctic and therefore unusually remote
428 island). These statistical models could be used for a first-pass at a large number of
429 islands, after which a detailed budget be created for a short-list of islands and the
430 prioritization method run again. We have not explicitly considered the possibility of

431 reinvasion. The feasibility estimates from Gregory (2014) include reinvasion as a failure,
432 so we have implicitly included these results as predicted failures in our model. If different
433 feasibility estimates are used, the prioritization method introduced here is not applicable
434 for islands with high risk of reinvasion. Although they are often considered ‘inland
435 islands’, reserves surrounded by predator-proof exclosures suffer from a constant threat
436 of reinvasion and cannot be considered with this framework without additional detailed
437 modelling (Moseby & Read 2006; Helmstedt *et al.* 2014).

438

439 The ecological benefit of conservation actions are not always measured relative to
440 threatened species population increases. For example, the level of ecosystem service or
441 species diversity might be the goal of an eradication programs (and indeed was a factor in
442 procuring funding for the Macquarie Island eradications). Our framework can use any of
443 a broad class of benefit measures; the only requirement is that the invasive species group
444 on an island is mapped to a single numeric benefit value. Benefit functions of this form
445 are wide-ranging: from simplistic (maximizing the number of invasive-free islands by
446 using a binary benefit function) to complicated (combining multiple weighted objectives).
447 It is not a trivial task to define the benefit function for an eradication program; it is
448 important that aims are clearly defined and that all stakeholders agree on the metrics of
449 success. We do not aim to prescribe how island ecosystem functions should be weighted
450 against, for example, a high conservation-value threatened seabird population. These
451 trade-offs and values will be different for every eradication program.

452

453 Our aim was to illustrate the increased utility gained by considering a more realistic suite
454 of management options. Given that we do not prescribe any actions, we have not
455 considered uncertainty around the estimates we have used for ecosystem response, cost,
456 or feasibility. Changes in these parameters could certainly change the optimal solution,
457 but are unlikely to change our main result: that it is frequently optimal to eradicate only
458 subsets of invasive species from some islands. We have illustrated that this result is
459 consistent by prioritizing actions across many groups of islands with randomized
460 parameters (see Appendix S6).

461

462 Considering a more realistic suite of actions on each island increases the complexity of
463 the prioritization over an ‘all-or-nothing’ approach, but the data requirements are not
464 substantially greater. Even when using an ‘all-or-nothing’ prioritization method each

465 individual eradication might fail, leading to unintended invasive species states. Population
466 estimates for all species of concern under all of these potential future states are needed:
467 the same number of population estimates as an ‘action portfolios’ approach. As long as
468 the conservation goals are consistently defined and agreed on prior to the prioritization,
469 the ‘species of concern’ can be chosen for any purpose. However, rules must be
470 consistently applied to avoid definitional differences skewing the results.

471

472 One caveat to our treatment of undesirable invasive species states is that we assume that
473 once a decision is made, all prescribed eradications will be undertaken. This is the case
474 where all eradications occur simultaneously. However, this may not be the case on an
475 island where an action portfolio can either result in a highly desirable or a highly
476 destructive invasive species state. In that situation a risk-averse manager might choose to
477 perform one of the eradications (e.g. mice) and only then proceed with the others (e.g.
478 cats) if successful. We do not model the optimal application of the prescribed eradication
479 actions (Bode *et al.* 2013; Bode, Baker & Plein 2015).

480

481 Our use of four Australian islands that have undergone mammal eradications, funded by
482 very different organizations and separated by up to 17 years should not be interpreted as
483 a retrospective critique of management decisions, since each could have been the
484 legitimate best choice of the relevant organizations at the time. Instead, they provided an
485 opportunity to parameterize our model with realistic values, and therefore produce a
486 representative estimate of the increased ecological benefit that can be realized by
487 prioritizing actions rather than islands.

488

489 We illustrated the utility of our model using four islands, but given other developments
490 in ecological modelling this framework can potentially be applied to much larger
491 prioritization efforts. This is particularly pertinent as our knowledge of ecosystem
492 response to changes in community composition improves. We feel that this illustrative
493 case study suffices to introduce both feasibility and the concept of prioritizing actions
494 into the field. We hope future proposed eradication projects across multiple islands
495 involving multiple species will combine this concept with detailed expert knowledge of
496 all islands being considered to determine a complete and realistic set of priorities. Rather
497 than emphasizing a return to pristine islands with no invasive mammals present, it is

498 more important that we aim to eradicate those species that are destructive and can
499 feasibly be eradicated.

500

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504

505 **Data Accessibility**

506 R scripts are available in online Supporting Information S7.

507

508 **Supporting Information**

509 Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article:

510 Appendix S1. Mathematical methods.

511 Fig. S1. Possible outcomes from an attempt to eradicate all invasive species

512 Appendix S2. Case study feasibilities.

513 Appendix S3. Case study ecological benefits.

514 Table S1. Tasman Island benefits.

515 Table S2. Macquarie Island benefits.

516 Table S3. Faure Island benefits.

517 Table S4. Hermite Island benefits.

518 Appendix S4. Case study costs.

519 Appendix S5. Case study application.

520 Appendix S6. Robustness analysis.

521 Figure S2. Mean performance of 500 simulated island systems.

522 Appendix S7 R code.

523

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650
651 **Table 1:** The four Australian islands included in this case study. Here we list invasive species on each island and their
652 individual eradication costs (from Martins *et al.* 2006) and probabilities of success (from Gregory 2014) and the species
653 of concern present on each island and their Latin names and conservation status. An attempt cannot be made to
654 eradicate from Macquarie Island without also eradicating rats

655 *: reintroduced populations (within historical range), #: Barrow Island subspecies, †: IUCN red-list status, ‡: EPBC
656 conservation status, V: Vulnerable, EN: Endangered

Island	Invasive species			Species of concern		
	Name	Cost (AU\$)	Probability of eradication	Common name	Latin name	Status

Faure 58 km ²	Cats	\$659 043	0.641	Banded hare-wallaby *	<i>Lagostrophus fasciatus</i>	V ‡
	Goats	\$397 112	0.970	Burrowing bettong *	<i>Bettongia lesueur</i>	V ‡
	Sheep	\$775 200	0.980	Greater stick-nest rat *	<i>Leporillus conditor</i>	V ‡
				Shark-bay mouse *	<i>Pseudomys fieldi</i>	V ‡
				Western-barred bandicoot *	<i>Perameles bougainville</i>	EN †
Macquarie 128 km ²	Cats	\$1 289 885	0.604	Antarctic tern	<i>Sterna vittata</i>	EN †
	Rats	\$1 231 831	0.834	Black-browed albatross	<i>Thalassarche melanophrys</i>	V ‡
	Rabbits	\$1 286 177	0.633	Blue petrel	<i>Halobaena caerulea</i>	V †
	Mice	N/A	0.836	Grey headed albatross	<i>Thalassarche chrysostoma</i>	NT †
				Grey petrel	<i>Procellaria cinerea</i>	NT †
				Light mantled albatross	<i>Phoebastria palpebrata</i>	NT †
				Macquarie shag	<i>Phalacrocorax atriceps</i> <i>purpurascens</i>	V ‡
				Northern giant petrel	<i>Macronectes halli</i>	V ‡
				Sooty shearwaters	<i>Puffinus griseus</i>	NT †
				Southern giant petrel	<i>Macronectes giganteus</i>	V ‡
			Wandering albatross	<i>Diomedea exulans</i>	V †	
Tasman 1.2 km ²	Cats	\$24 395	0.794	Fairy prion	<i>Pachyptila turtur</i>	V ‡
Hermite 10.2 km ²	Cats	\$150 672	0.716	Spectacled hare-wallaby # *	<i>Lagorchestes conspicillatus</i>	V ‡
	Rats	\$143 890	0.892	Golden bandicoot # *	<i>Isodon auratus</i>	V ‡
				Black-and-white fairy wren #	<i>Malurus leucopterus</i> <i>leucopterus</i>	

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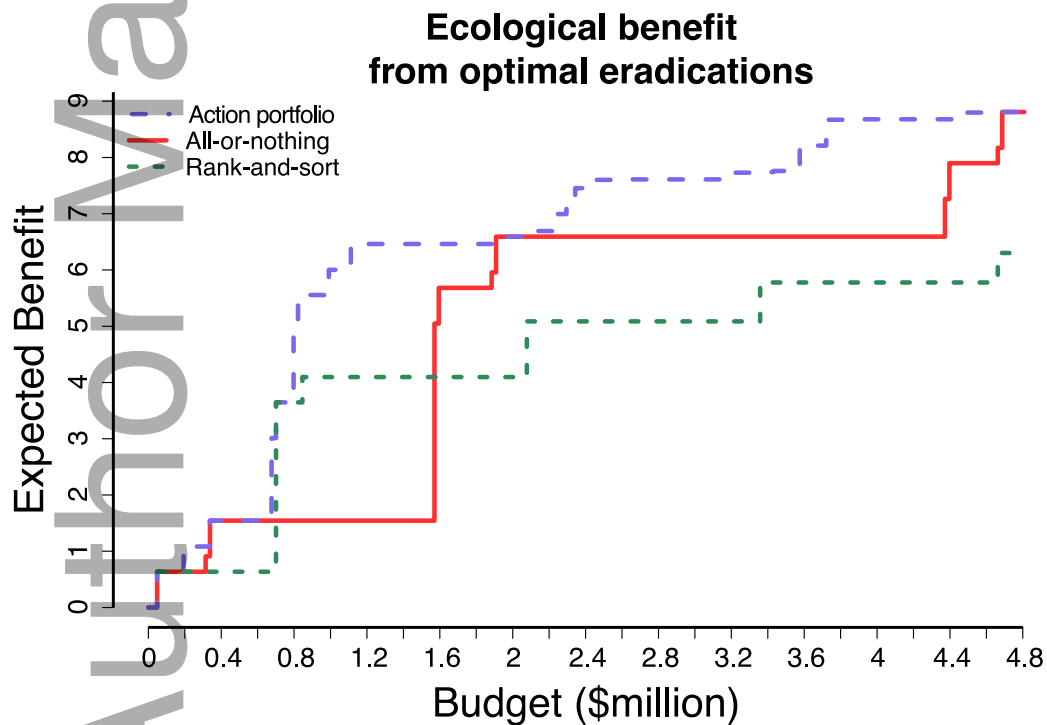
661 **Table 2:** The ten most cost-efficient prioritizations (from a total of 1023) for the two priority-setting methods: all-or-
662 nothing eradications and action portfolios. Bold indicates that only complete sets of invasives are targeted for
663 eradication attempts, subsets in italics are the most cost-efficient subset on that island

Prioritization	'All-or-nothing' rank	'Action portfolio' rank
Tasman	1	1
Faure (cats, goats), Tasman	-	2
<i>Faure (cats, goats)</i>	-	3
Faure (cats, goats), Tasman, Hermite (cats)	-	4
Tasman, Hermite (cats)	-	5
Faure (cats, goats), Tasman, Hermite (all)	-	6
Faure (cats, goats), Tasman, Hermite (rats)	-	7

Faure (cats, goats), Hermite(cats)	-	8
Faure (cats, goats), Hermite (all)	-	9
Faure (cats), Tasman	-	10
<i>Hermite</i>	2	13
Faure and Tasman	3	21
Faure, Tasman and Hermite	4	23
Faure	5	25
Faure, Hermite	6	27
Faure (cats, goats), Tasman, Macquarie (cats)*	-	28
All actions, all islands	8	210
Faure, Tasman, Macquarie	9	230
Faure, Hermite, Macquarie	10	241
Macquarie	15	655

664 * The most cost-efficient eradication program that includes an action on Macquarie Island.

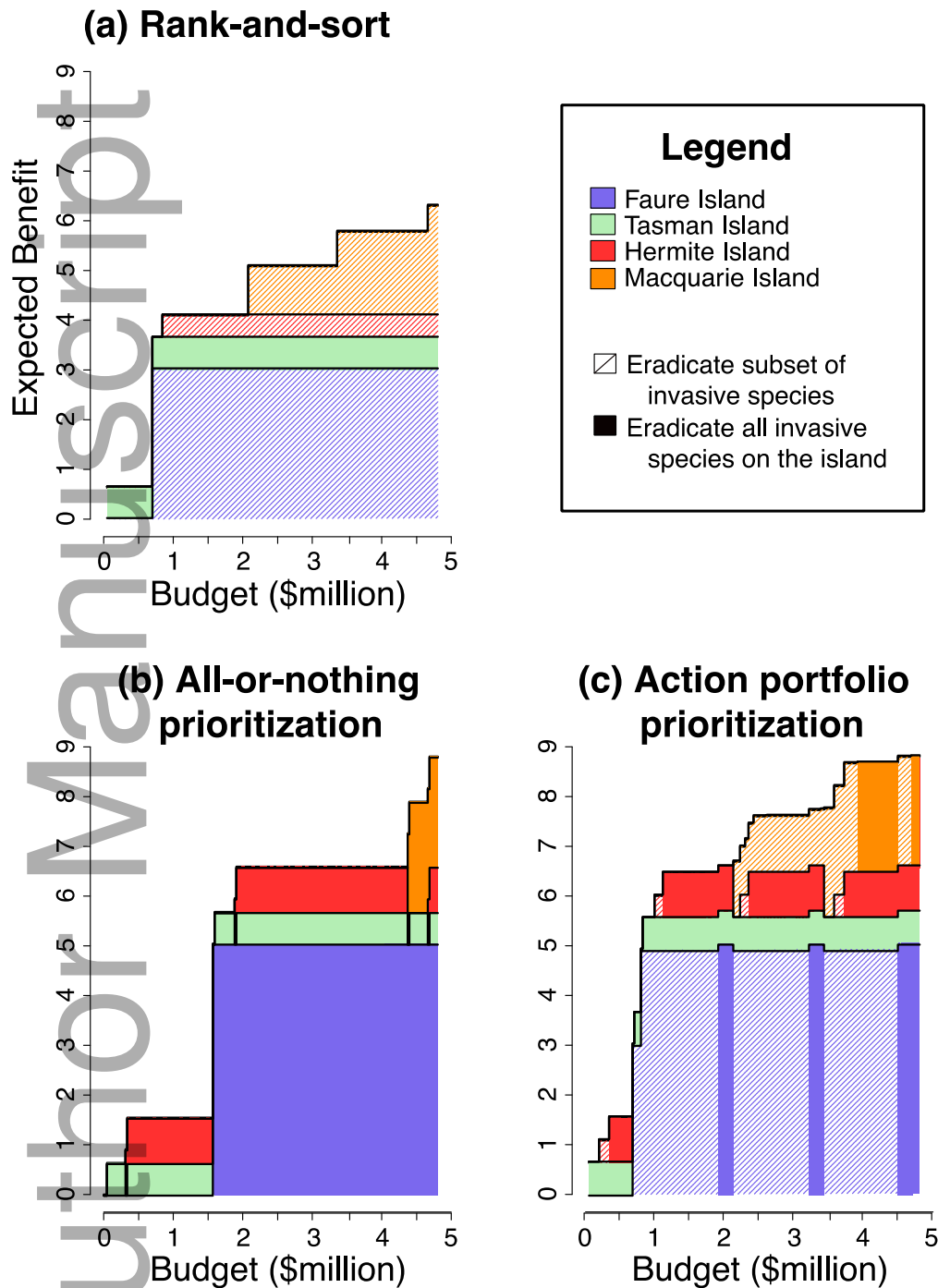
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667 Fig. 1 The expected ecological benefit from the best eradication program (an increase in the population of
 668 each species of concern as a proportion of their global population) chosen by applying three different
 669 prioritization methods: 1. 'action portfolio' (dashed line), 2. 'all-or-nothing' (solid line), 3. 'rank-and-sort'
 670 (dotted line).

671



673

674 Fig. 2 The ecological benefit achieved by the optimal eradication program recommended by each of the
 675 three priority-setting methods at varied budgets. Each coloured bar represents the ecological benefit
 676 contributed by each island (see the legend for colours). A solid colour indicates that all invasive mammals
 677 should be eradicated from that island. A hatched colour indicates that the optimal solution advises only
 678 attempting to eradicate some invasive species from the island.



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