

## 1 **SI Appenidix**

### 2 **Model Used**

3 First studied in Operation Research literature, POMDP provides an interesting  
4 way of reasoning about trade-offs between actions to gain rewards and actions to gain  
5 information.

6 In our case, solving a POMDP is finding a strategy  $\pi : B \times \tau \mapsto A$  mapping an  
7 allocation of resource given a current belief state and a time-step. An optimal strategy  
8 maximizes the expected sum of rewards over a finite time horizon,  $T$ . This expected  
9 summation is also referred to as the value function. A value function essentially ranks  
10 strategies by assigning a real value to each  $b$ . Using the Bellman principle of optimality  
11 and the previously-defined POMDP parameters, we can calculate the optimal  $t$ -step  
12 value function from the  $(t-1)$ -step value function:

$$13 \quad V_0^*(b) = \max_{a \in A} \left[ \sum_{s \in S} R(s, a) \Pr(s|b) \right], \quad (1)$$

$$14 \quad V_t^*(b) = \max_{a \in A} \left[ \sum_{s \in S} R(s, a) \Pr(s|b) + \sum_{s \in S} \sum_{s' \in S} \sum_{z \in Z} \Pr(s|b) P(s'|s, a) O(z|s', a) V_{t-1}^*(b_z^a) \right], \quad (2)$$

15 where  $Pr(s/b)$  represents the probability of being in state  $s$  given a belief state  $b$ , and  $b_z^a$   
16 is the belief state assuming action  $a$  and observation  $z$ . Equation (1) maximises the  
17 expected sum of instantaneous rewards when there is no time left to manage for the  
18 species. Similarly when there is  $t$ -steps to go, equation (2) maximises the instantaneous  
19 rewards and the future expected rewards for the remaining  $t-1$ -steps.

20 The optimal solution  $\pi$  can be represented in two different ways. We can either  
21 apply directly the strategy function for each belief state we are in (Fig. 2) or we can  
22 represent the optimal strategy as a policy graph (Fig. 1). The policy graph automatically

1 generates all the possible transitions over time given the performed action and the new  
 2 observation whereas the use of strategy functions requires updating the belief state using  
 3 Bayes' rule given the performed action and the new observation. After action performed  
 4  $a$  and observation received  $o$ , the updated belief  $b_o^a$  can be calculated from the previous  
 5 belief  $b$ :

$$6 \quad b_o^a(s') = \Pr(s'|b, a, o) \quad , \quad (3)$$

$$7 \quad b_o^a(s') = \frac{Z(o|a, s') \sum_{s \in S} P(s'|s, a) b(s)}{\Pr(o|a, b)} \quad , \quad (4)$$

$$8 \quad \text{With } \Pr(o|a, b) = \sum_{s \in S} \sum_{s'' \in S} Z(o|s'', a) P(s''|s, a) b(s) \quad . \quad (5)$$

## 9 **Analytical Solution**

10 Deriving an analytic solution for particular planning horizons yielded significant  
 11 insight into the problem. For a single-year planning horizon, there is no time to adjust  
 12 management effort in light of survey results, so surveying is never optimal. For all other  
 13 planning horizons, the optimal decision depends on our belief that the species is  
 14 persisting in the reserve. The analytic solution can be re-arranged to provide a rule of  
 15 thumb for how many years to manage and survey based on our belief in the persistence  
 16 of the species and conditional on estimates of detectability, probability of persistence.

17

18

19 In the POMDP solutions, the choice of management strategy changes from "manage", to  
 20 "survey", and then to "do nothing" as the probability that the species is extant ( $b$ )  
 21 declines. Therefore, the solution can be characterised as finding the values of  $b$  at the  
 22 two transitions (changing from manage to survey, and then survey to do nothing). The

1 first transition point ( $b_{m/s}$ ) can be approximated by considering a three time-step  
 2 solution. A three time-step solution is reasonable because this transition value is  
 3 relatively insensitive to the time horizon (e.g., Fig. 2).

4 First, we can determine the expected value of managing the species. If  $b$  is the current  
 5 probability that the species is extant, then the probability it will be extant in the next  
 6 time step if we manage it is  $p_m b$ , where  $p_m$  is the probability the species will remain  
 7 extant if we manage it. Given that  $b$  is close to the boundary between managing and  
 8 surveying,  $b$  will decline such that managing is no longer optimal. Based on the  
 9 POMDP solutions, we should do nothing in the final two time steps if the value of  $b$  is  
 10 at the boundary between where we should survey and where we should manage. Thus, if  
 11 we manage the species, the probability that it will be extant after three time steps is  
 12  $p_0^2 p_m b$ , and the net expected value of the species (accounting for annual management  
 13 costs of  $c_m$ ) is:

$$14 \quad \begin{aligned} V_m &= V(p_m b + p_m p_0 b + p_m p_0^2 b) - c_m \\ &= V b p_m (1 + p_0 + p_0^2) - c_m, \end{aligned}$$

15 where  $V$  is the annual value of the species being extant.

16 This can be compared to the expected value of the species if we survey. If we survey  
 17 and see the species, then we know it is alive, providing a value of  $V$  ( $b = 1$ ), and then we  
 18 assume that we will manage it in the next two years, providing a value of  $V p_m + V p_m^2$ ,  
 19 and incurring a cost of  $2c_m$ . Thus, the value of the species for the next two years if it is  
 20 seen will equal

$$21 \quad \begin{aligned} V_{seen} &= V + V p_m + V p_m^2 - 2c_m \\ &= V(1 + p_m + p_m^2) - 2c_m. \end{aligned}$$

22 If it is not seen in the survey, then the probability of it being extant will decline,  
 23 depending on the reliability of the survey. Prior to the survey, the probability of it being

1 extant will equal  $p_0b$ , where  $p_0$  is the probability that the species remains extant when it  
 2 is not protected by management. Following the survey, the posterior probability that the  
 3 species will be extant will equal (using Bayes' rule):

$$4 \quad b_{post} = \frac{p_0b(1-d)}{1-p_0bd},$$

5 where  $d$  is the probability of seeing the species if it is extant (also called detectability).

6 In the second time step, there is no value in surveying, so we assume that we will do  
 7 nothing in that and the final time step, and the probability that the species is extant will  
 8 reduce to  $p_0^2b(1-d)/1-p_0bd$  and  $p_0^3b(1-d)/1-p_0bd$ . Therefore, the expected  
 9 value of the species if we do not see it will equal:

$$10 \quad V_{not\ seen} = V(1+p_0+p_0^2)\frac{p_0b(1-d)}{1-p_0bd}.$$

11 Finally, the expected value of surveying ( $V_s$ ) can be obtained by averaging  $V_{not\ seen}$  and  
 12  $V_{seen}$  depending on the probability that the species will be seen if we survey ( $p_0bd$ ), and  
 13 subtracting the cost of surveying ( $c_s$ ). Thus,

$$14 \quad V_s = p_0bd \left[ V(1+p_m+p_m^2) - 2c_m \right] + (1-p_0bd) \left[ V(1+p_0+p_0^2) \frac{p_0b(1-d)}{1-p_0bd} \right] - c_s.$$

15 The value of  $b_{m/s}$  can be obtained by setting  $V_m = V_s$ , and solving for  $b$ . This leads to:

$$16 \quad b_{m/s} \approx \frac{(c_m - c_s)}{\left[ 2c_m dp_0 + V(p_m - p_0)(1 + (1-d)p_0(1+p_0) - dp_0p_m) \right]}.$$

17 The number of years that we should manage a species after last seeing it can be  
 18 determined by finding the time it takes for the probability that the species is extant to  
 19 decline from a value of 1 to  $b_{m/s}$ . After  $T_m$  years of protection, the probability that the  
 20 species is extant will equal  $p_m^{T_m}$ . Therefore, setting  $b_{m/s} = p_m^{T_m}$  and solving for  $T_m$  leads  
 21 to

$$1 \quad T_m = \frac{\log(b_{m/s})}{\log(p_m)}.$$

2 The value of  $b$  for which surveying and doing nothing have equal value ( $b_{s/n}$ ) is  
 3 sensitive to the timeframe of management, although as the time horizon increases, it  
 4 approaches an asymptote (Fig. 1). Therefore, we wish to obtain a relatively long-term  
 5 solution for  $b_{s/n}$  that will approximate this asymptote. The expected value of the species  
 6 if we do nothing for  $T$  years is equal to:

$$7 \quad \begin{aligned} V_n &= V(bp_0 + bp_0^2 + bp_0^3 + \dots + bp_0^T) \\ &= Vbp_0 \frac{1 - p_0^T}{1 - p_0} \end{aligned}$$

8 If we survey and see the species, then the expected value will be  $V$  in the first year and  
 9 then  $Vp_m^t$  in each of the subsequent years as we move to managing it. Therefore, the  
 10 expected value if it is seen is equal to:

$$11 \quad \begin{aligned} V_{seen} &= (V + Vp_m + Vp_m^2 + \dots + Vp_m^{T-1}) - c_m(T-1) \\ &= \frac{V(1 - p_m^T)}{1 - p_m} - c_m(T-1) \end{aligned}$$

12 If it is not seen, then the probability that the species is present will decline to  
 13  $p_0b(1 - d)/(1 - p_0bd)$ . As we are solving for a value of  $b$  that discriminates between  
 14 surveying and doing nothing, this decline will then move the population into a state for  
 15 which it is optimal to do nothing. So, for the following  $T-1$  years we will do nothing.

16 Therefore, if the species is not seen, the expected value is:

$$17 \quad \begin{aligned} V_{notseen} &= \left[ \frac{Vp_0b(1-d)}{1 - p_0bd} \right] (1 + p_0 + p_0^2 + \dots + p_0^{T-1}) \\ &= \left[ \frac{Vp_0b(1-d)}{1 - p_0bd} \right] \left[ \frac{1 - p_0^T}{1 - p_0} \right] \end{aligned}$$

1 Again, the expected value of surveying ( $V_s$ ) can be obtained by averaging  $V_{\text{not seen}}$  and  
 2  $V_{\text{seen}}$  depending on the probability that the species will be seen if we survey ( $p_0bd$ ), and  
 3 subtracting the cost of surveying ( $c_s$ ). Thus,

$$4 \quad V_s = p_0bd \left[ V \frac{1-p_m^T}{1-p_m} - c_m(T-1) \right] + (1-p_0bd) \left[ Vp_0b \frac{1-d}{1-p_0bd} \right] \left[ \frac{1-p_0^T}{1-p_0} \right] - c_s.$$

5 To determine when the value of surveying is the same as the value of doing nothing, we  
 6 can solve  $V_s = V_n$  for  $b$  over an appropriate time horizon  $T$ . Ideally we would like  $T$  to  
 7 be as large as possible to approximate the asymptotic result, and to reflect a long-term  
 8 conservation concern. However, the above analysis is based on assuming that protection  
 9 continues for  $T-1$  years if the species is seen. This length of time was obtained  
 10 previously as  $T_m$ , which then provides the time horizon over which to evaluate  $V_s = V_n$ .  
 11 Therefore, using this value for  $T$ :

$$12 \quad b_{s/n} \approx \frac{c_s(1-p_m)(1-p_0)}{\left[ p_0d \left( V(p_m - p_0 + p_0^T(1-p_m) - p_m^T(1-p_0) - c_m(1-p_m)(1-p_0)(T-1)) \right) \right]}.$$

13 We can determine the number of years of surveying by evaluating the number of years  
 14 of absence surveys that are necessary to reduce  $b$  from  $b_{m/s}$  to  $b_{s/n}$ . This can be obtained  
 15 from an iterative evaluation of Bayes' rule. Given  $b_t$  in one year, the prior probability for  
 16 the presence of the species in the next year when we survey is  $p_0b_t$ , and if we do not see  
 17 the species, the posterior probability of presence in time  $t+1$  is

$$18 \quad b_{t+1} = p_0b_t(1-d)/1-p_0b_td. \text{ More generally, it can be shown that if the species is}$$

19 surveyed for  $T_s$  years and is not seen, the posterior probability for its presence is  
 20 (obtained by setting  $a_t = 1/b_t$ , and obtaining an iterative solution for  $a_{t+T_s}$  before back-  
 21 transforming to obtain  $b_{t+T_s}$ ):

$$b_{t+T_s} = \frac{b_t \left( (1-d) p_0 \right)^{T_s} \left( 1 - (1-d) p_0 \right)}{1 - p_0 \left( 1 - d \left( 1 + b_t \left( \left( (1-d) p_0 \right)^{T_s} - 1 \right) \right) \right)}$$

Therefore, given  $b_t = b_{m/s}$  (the probability that the species is extant when we start surveying) we can determine the number of years of surveying ( $T_s$ ) necessary for  $b_{t+T_s} = b_{s/n}$ , which is

$$T_s = \frac{\log \left[ \frac{b_{s/n} \left( 1 - p_0 \left( 1 - d \left( 1 - b_{m/s} \right) \right) \right)}{b_{m/s} \left( 1 - p_0 \left( 1 - d \left( 1 - b_{s/n} \right) \right) \right)} \right]}{\log \left[ (1-d) p_0 \right]}$$

## Sumatran Tiger Parameters

Linkie *et al.* (1) undertook repeat surveys of tiger habitat occupancy in the Kerinci Seblat region in order to identify areas of core suitable habitat, the proportion of those habitats that were utilised by the tigers, and the densities of tigers in utilised habitats. Their report provides insights into the reliability of tiger surveys (the average detectability of tigers), as well as identifying the level of poaching protection necessary to maintain tiger populations. From this work and unpublished data on the cost we derived parameter estimates for the cost of implementing management,  $C_m$ , cost of surveying,  $C_s$ , probabilities of extinction,  $p_0$  and  $p_m$ , and detectability,  $d$ , for a population of Sumatran tigers in the Kerinci Seblat region.

Linkie *et al.* (1) found that under a range of management scenarios, maintaining poaching levels below 3 tigers per year in core habitats substantially reduced the local extinction probability for the species. We assume if implemented, poaching protection is successful and that poaching was reduced to below three tigers annually. Consequently, assuming successful poaching exclusion in the second largest subpopulation (core population 1) of Sumatran tigers (see Fig. 4a in Linkie *et al.* (1)),

1 we were able to interpolate 0.05816 as the yearly local extinction probability ( $p_{em}$ : the  
2 probability that the species would go extinct in any given year when managed) and a  
3 local survival probability ( $p_m$ : the annual probability that the species would remain  
4 extant when managed) equal to 0.94184. The probability of local survival for any given  
5 year that the species is not protected ( $p_n$ ) was estimated at 0.9 based on the yearly  
6 survival probability of a breeding female Sumatran tiger (taken from Table 1 Linkie *et*  
7 *al.* (1)) and thus the probability of local extinction for any given year that the species is  
8 not protected ( $p_{en}$ ) was estimated at 0.1.

9         The yearly management cost to implement management to reduce the number of  
10 tigers removed via poaching in core population 1 to  $\geq 3$  tigers/year was  $C_m=18,784$ . The  
11 estimate was based on patrol budget data from the Kerinci Seblat area (Linkie  
12 unpublished data, Martyr unpublished data). A yearly survey cost was estimated based  
13 on surveys covering 10% of this core subpopulation, such that  $C_s=10,840$  (Linkie  
14 unpublished data, Martyr unpublished data). Both these costs are based solely on the  
15 field costs associated with management and monitoring. We assumed that if a standard  
16 sampling strategy was employed, and approximately 30 female tigers remained extant  
17 (the minimum sized population worth detecting), the probability that the population  
18 would be successfully detected during surveys was 0.78. This figure was based on  
19 previous work indicating that the probability of detecting a tiger in any one survey  
20 location, given that it utilizes the general area around the survey location is  
21 approximately 0.5 (1), and the binomial probability of detecting one tiger at any one of  
22 50 core-habitat survey locations of the possible 500 core habitat locations that could be  
23 surveyed.



1           We assume that the population of the species in our park has a value,  $V$ . This  
2 value was derived from the external donor funding specifically raised for Sumatran tiger  
3 conservation in Kerinci Seblat National Park. From 1998-2006, US\$1,576,205 was  
4 raised for these conservation activities (2).

## 5 **Other Species Values**

6           The 2007 whooping crane (*Grus Americana*) recovery plan provides sufficient  
7 data to evaluate the value of the whooping crane relative to its cost of management (3).  
8 The cost of management and surveying for the next 30 years is estimated to be \$126  
9 million (3). Survey decisions include conducting aerial surveys to determine total  
10 population numbers, movements, territories, habitat use, mortality and movements in  
11 migration. The survey activity has a total cost of \$5,205,000 for 30 years or \$173,500  
12 annually (3). The corresponding cost of management is therefore \$4.0265 million.  
13 Assuming that the low value of WTP for United States residents is \$0.5 billion (3) the  
14 ratio  $V/C_m$  for the endangered whooping crane is 124.

15           Although most study on WTP assume contributions of US and European  
16 residents, Bandara and Tisdell have evaluated the WTP for the endangered Asian  
17 elephants (*Elephas maximus maximus*) through contribution of Sri Lanka's residents  
18 only (4). WTP value was sufficient to pay the damages caused by elephants to farmers  
19 and  $V/C_m = 2$ . This ratio will be significantly different with WTP of non-residents.

20           The Mexican spotted owl (*Strix occidentalis lucida*) is a charismatic threatened  
21 species. According to Loomis *et al.* (5)  $V/C_m$  is 450 using WTP of Mexican spotted owl  
22 in 1997 (\$1.8 billion low value) and the cost of the recovery plan from US Fish &  
23 Wildlife Service on average \$4 million each year.

1           The total estimated cost of recovery of the threatened southern sea otters (*Enhydra*  
2 *lutris nereis*) over 20 years is \$10,219,700 (6) while Loomis estimated its non-market  
3 value to California residents to be \$21.4 million for 10 years (7). This brings the  $V/C_m$   
4 to 4.18. Similarly the western population of Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubatus*) rates  
5 404.26 ( $C_m = 430,425,000$  for 30 years (8) and WTP of US residents \$5.8 billion (9)).

6

### 7 **Sumatran Tiger WTP**

8 We assume that the population of the species in our park has a value,  $V$ . This value was  
9 derived using contingent valuation methods. While such valuations ignore many things,  
10 they are a useful lower bound to local value of a species. A major impediment to the  
11 calculation of  $V$  is the lack of reliable statistics on tourism in the region. The Bukit  
12 Lawang Orang-utan centre in the Leuser National Park of northern Sumatra was  
13 estimated to accommodate more than 500,000 visitors each year in one study (10), and  
14 approximately 10,000 visitors per year in another (11). High-profile tiger reserves in  
15 India receive between 100,000 and 400,000 visitors each year, with larger parks  
16 generating an income of 20-30 million Rp, not including the adjunct benefits to local  
17 communities (Government of India). Van Beukering et al. (2003)(11) conducted a  
18 survey of spending patterns and 'willingness to pay' (WTP) for the conservation of the  
19 Leuser Ecosystem, to the north of the of the Kerinci Seblat region, resulting in a tourism  
20 net present value (NPV) for the Leuser Ecosystem of between US\$171-828 million (for  
21 the period 2000-2030 at a discount rate of 4%), depending on the future macro-  
22 economic policy adopted by the Indonesian government. Policies were grouped broadly  
23 into 'deforestation', 'selective-use' and 'conservation'.

1           We obtained a course estimate of the tiger contribution by dividing this value  
 2 between the charismatic fauna groups largely responsible for attracting tourism to the  
 3 area. These broad groups include the tiger, the Sumatran Rhinoceros, the Orang-utan  
 4 and a range of other primates, other mammals such as the sun bear and clouded leopard,  
 5 and numerous endemic and near-endemic birds. Extrapolating from the valuation of  
 6 van Beukering et al. (2003)(11), we ascribe a 30 year NPV to tiger existence in the  
 7 region of US\$150 million, or alternatively, a cost of US\$150 million for failure to  
 8 maintain a viable population of tigers. One of the major assumptions of this approach is  
 9 that the values ascribed to wildlife tourism are equal across broad species groups and  
 10 additive (and substitutable).

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