

1 **Scientific Assessment on Livestock Predation in South Africa**

2
3 **CHAPTER 1**

4
5 **INTRODUCTION – THE NEED FOR, AND VALUE OF, A SCIENTIFIC ASSESSMENT OF**
6 **LIVESTOCK PREDATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

7
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14
15 **INTRODUCTION**

16
17 For two millennia attempts have been made to prevent predation on livestock, but the problem
18 is still with us. The arrival of domestic livestock in southern Africa about 2000 years ago
19 (Pleurdeau *et al.*, 2012) would have initiated a then novel form of human-wildlife conflict, this
20 driven by the killing of livestock by indigenous predators, and attempts by pastoralists to protect
21 their livestock. The archaeological record appears to be silent on how early pastoralists tried to
22 protect their livestock, although Horsburgh (2008) identified many jackal *Canis mesomelas*
23 remains in archaeological sites – could these represent retaliatory killings? More recently, early
24 historical records from the 15th Century onwards (e.g. material in Skead 2011) provide some
25 hints. These include early descriptions of the use of dogs, herding of livestock, as well as
26 retaliatory attacks on predators.

27
28 Livestock predation in South Africa has been estimated to cause losses exceeding R1 billion
29 annually (Van Niekerk, 2010). The costs are carried by individual livestock farmers, with
30 cascading socio-economic effects across society (Kerley *et al.* 2017). Clearly this is a
31 substantial problem, and ways to limit the costs and consequences of livestock predation are
32 required. Modern pastoralists are faced with a particularly complex challenge, as they have to
33 protect their livestock within a framework of economic, regulatory and societal restrictions,
34 which reflect increasing awareness of how wild animals are treated and the need to conserve
35 biodiversity (Kerley *et al.* 2017). Regulatory authorities, in developing effective policy and
36 legislation, are constrained by the same pressures, as well as by the limited scientific
37 information relevant to the drivers of livestock predation, the efficacy of various management

38 interventions and the consequences (unintended or otherwise) of these interventions for
39 biodiversity and ecosystem process (e.g. Treve *et al.* 2016). Predator management may have
40 both perverse outcomes (e.g. Minnie *et al.* (2016) show earlier reproduction in managed jackal
41 populations) and unexpected positive outcomes for biodiversity (e.g. Minnie *et al.* (2015) show
42 that livestock are sometimes withdrawn from high risk areas, leading to a relaxation of domestic
43 herbivore pressures).

44
45 Addressing the problem of livestock predation requires appropriate, robust, evidence-based
46 information, accessible to both policy makers and livestock managers. There is a plethora of
47 “research” undertaken on predator-livestock interactions, but not all of it represents robust
48 science, directly relevant to the information needs of managers or policy makers. Furthermore,
49 the relevant information is scattered and hard to access. The work has been focussed on
50 “commercial” farming areas, with few studies in areas where pastoralism is a communal
51 undertaking. There are also many gaps in the research. Thus a need exists for a policy-relevant
52 synthesis of the issues, and its distillation into an agreed-upon set of guiding statements useful
53 to policy development. This information can also be used to identify gaps in our knowledge and
54 hence guide research.

55
56 The process to produce such a synthesis is known as a scientific assessment (Scholes *et al.*,
57 2017), an increasingly relied-upon approach to tackle complex problems (see below). The need
58 for such an assessment was identified by industry role players and the relevant government
59 departments, based upon the scale and complexity of the livestock predation issues in South
60 Africa. A diverse team with technical expertise in the fields of biology, economics, ethics, law
61 and humanities was assembled to conduct the assessment. The team followed a rigorous
62 process to collate and interrogate available knowledge regarding livestock predation, relying on
63 their collective expertise and that of a large number of independent reviewers. The document
64 which follows is a global first in terms of the generation of a policy-relevant synthesis of
65 livestock predation.

66

Defining livestock

The term livestock generally refers to animals that are managed for food or fibre production or to serve as draught animals. Although typically (Thompson 1995) applied to conventional agricultural settings and domesticated animals (e.g. cattle, sheep, pigs, horses), the term can be extended to cover a diversity of taxa such as fenced wildlife, fish, managed game birds such as pheasants, or even silk moths. The objectives of their management can extend to the provision of sport or satisfying cultural requirements.

For the purposes of this assessment, livestock are broadly defined as comprising domesticated animals and wildlife (the former excluding poultry, and the latter including ostrich *Struthio camelus*) managed for commercial purposes or human benefit in free ranging (or semi-free ranging) circumstances that render them vulnerable to predation (Kerley *et al.* 2017).

67

68

69 **WHAT IS A SCIENTIFIC ASSESSMENT?**

70 The nature of the decisions which need to be made by society range from those that are
71 primarily value driven (e.g. whether to legalise the death penalty or not) to those that are largely
72 technical (e.g. the regulation of the use of radio wave frequencies); from decisions that are
73 inherently simple with a high level of insight into the important factors (although they may
74 involve complicated procedures; e.g. trade agreements between countries) to decisions that are
75 complex with a high level of uncertainty regarding the outcome of different interventions (e.g.
76 decisions around the conservation of natural resources or climate change). The expertise of
77 scientists is commonly harnessed to inform societal decisions. The input is conventionally made
78 through “expert reports” or “scientific reviews” (Scholes *et al.*, 2017).

79

80 It is only over the past few decades that the task of informing decisions on much more complex
81 issues (Cilliers, 2013; “wicked” problems, as distinct from technically complicated matters
82 without social ambiguity) has been seriously engaged by scientists. These involve choices for
83 which there is no clear technical solution, around which there is commonly disagreement on
84 how best to intervene, and where there is a high level of societal interest in the outcome.
85 Tackling problems and decisions of this nature has highlighted weaknesses in the traditional
86 approaches of science informing decisions. These weakness became clear towards the end of
87 the 20th century when solutions were being sought to deal with the increasing “hole” in the
88 ozone layer (World Meteorological Organization, 1985). Out of this process emerged what may
89 be considered to be the first “scientific assessment”. The approach taken was very different to
90 that of expert reports and scientific reviews in a number of respects which are expanded on in
91 this chapter. The approach has subsequently been further developed with the establishment of
92 the International Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) to inform decisions on climate change
93 responses, as well as the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA) which sought to address
94 the problems of biodiversity loss and ecological degradation (Scholes *et al.*, 2017).

95

96 What is it that distinguishes a scientific assessment from the more traditional report or review?
97 What are the specific characteristics of a scientific assessment? When is it appropriate to
98 invoke the methodology of a scientific assessment? What are the procedures to follow?

99
100 The concept of a scientific assessment continues to evolve. There is no universally-agreed
101 definition and set of procedures for conducting such an assessment, but there are a set of core
102 principles which are widely accepted (Mach and Field 2017). A useful summary synthesis of the
103 history and the essential elements of a scientific assessment, and how it has been changing
104 over the past three decades, is presented by Scholes *et al.* (2017). Core to this understanding
105 are three elements; context, process and governance. The context is dealt with below, while
106 process and governance are dealt with in more detail in the next section.

107
108 Context

109 Management in the context of complexity, change and uncertainty must be adaptive. Those
110 taking decisions must regularly review the problems that they are addressing and the extent to
111 which their interventions are succeeding. Where the desired responses are not being achieved,
112 the review process should lead to different decisions followed at a suitable period by further
113 review. The record of evidence, the logic underpinning a decision, and the outcome must be
114 explicit. In the realm of natural resource management this is known as “adaptive management”
115 (Norton, 2005), more generally (in the social sciences, for instance), this is known as reflexivity.
116 The review process often requires a science-based assessment. The input from the
117 assessment can be unidirectional, in which information and insights are contributed to an end-
118 user by the “expert” or scientist or it can be more interactive in which there is a two-way flow of
119 information between stakeholder, including scientists, with the joint generation of new
120 perspectives through dialogue (an approach known as co-generation or co-production). Which
121 approach to take depends on the nature of the questions being asked and the level of
122 engagement of stakeholders. There are many instances where it is entirely appropriate to seek
123 a simple expert opinion or to review in a unidirectional manner. This is often the most cost
124 effective way to review and inform straightforward decisions (Table 1). Where the question is of
125 high societal interest and contention, and where the technical aspects of the issues are
126 complex, a two-way flow of information, in which the technical aspects of the specialists are
127 integrated with other societal considerations such as value, culture, resource availability *etc.*, is
128 more likely to result in a robust and widely accepted outcome. It is in these circumstances that a
129 “scientific assessment” is a suitable approach to informing decision making. Scientific
130 assessments are also more suited to deal with multi-disciplinary issues, including those that
131 involve very different worldviews and conceptual bases (a domain known as transdisciplinarity).

132 Scientific assessments, on the whole, do not include undertaking original research. Rather they
133 rely on existing literature which may be peer reviewed but need not necessarily be so.

134

135 History of this assessment

136 The Centre for African Conservation Ecology at the Nelson Mandela University¹ has conducted
137 research focussed on the small livestock industry and the environment since 2012. Within this
138 broad theme, an initial focus on providing sound, scientifically-based perspectives to industry
139 and to policy makers relating to the mitigation of problems caused by predation on stock and
140 specifically jackal and caracal was identified as a priority. Integral to the success of such a
141 research programme was the buy-in and support of the key stakeholders. In this case the key
142 stakeholders were the red meat producers, the wool and mohair growers and the relevant
143 regulatory and policy departments of Government i.e. the Department of Agriculture, Forestry
144 and Fisheries (DAFF) and the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA).

145

146 In 2008 DEA embarked on a path of strengthening the evidence basis for policy setting and
147 evaluation. This led to a “Research, Development and Evidence Framework” (RD&E
148 framework) being published in 2012 (Department of Environmental Affairs, 2012; von der
149 Heyden *et al.*, 2016). A key driver behind the development of this framework was the need to
150 better set targets and to identify more appropriate evidence portfolios for the twelve
151 performance outcomes that the President requires members of his cabinet to agree to, and to
152 be measured against. Outcome 10 relates to the protection and enhancement of environmental
153 assets and natural resources. In developing the RD&E framework, three aspects of evidence-
154 based approaches to policy and performance monitoring were identified. Briefly these are i)
155 appropriate data and factual information, ii) suitably analytical reasoning to contextualise the
156 facts and iii) structured stakeholder commentary and opinion on the issue under consideration.
157 It was in this setting that the initiation of a Scientific Assessment was identified as an
158 appropriate approach to the livestock and predation issue. The RD&E framework has
159 subsequently taken on a greater significance within the Department of Environmental Affairs
160 with the publishing of the report “Evidence and policy in South Africa’s Department of
161 Environmental Affairs” (Wills *et al.*, 2016) and the adoption of the National Biodiversity
162 Research and Evidence Strategy – 2015 to 2025 (DEA, 2016).

163

164 Critical attributes of a scientific assessment

¹ At the time that this assessment was initiated, it was formally known as the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.

165 Considering assessments more broadly Ash *et al.* (2010) argue that there are three qualities of
166 an assessment that are necessary, although not sufficient, for the assessment to be successful.
167 The three qualities are *legitimacy*, *saliency* and *credibility*.

168
169 *Legitimacy* is important to reduce the chances of the findings of the assessment being ignored
170 by relevant stakeholders such as industry, communal farmers or policy makers. For an
171 assessment to have legitimacy implies that a formal need for the assessment has been
172 recognized by a mandated institution. Legitimacy establishes an “authorizing environment”. For
173 an assessment to claim legitimacy also requires that it is perceived to have been conducted
174 through an unbiased process which deals appropriately with the values, perspectives and
175 concerns of the society for which it is being conducted. For this reason it is important that an
176 assessment is inclusive of a range of stakeholders, institutions, disciplines and viewpoints. It is
177 important to be able to *demonstrate* the fairness and inclusion – this is commonly achieved
178 through a formal and recognized governance structure which ensures adherence to a set of
179 pre-determined rules that regulate the process.

180
181 *Saliency* relates to the focus of the questions that are addressed by the assessment. It is
182 important that the pertinent questions (and only these questions), as posed by the stakeholders,
183 are answered. This implies that it is not appropriate to deviate into what the individuals who are
184 conducting the assessment think is interesting or to allow new questions to emerge during the
185 assessment without full engagement with stakeholders. This means that assessments
186 represent the questions considered salient at the time: substantive new research and changing
187 social circumstances would require a new assessment.

188
189 *Credibility* refers to the standards of scientific and technical rigour that are apparent through the
190 assessment process. For this reason it is important that the individuals involved are individually
191 acknowledged for their expertise in the field and their independence – not as representatives of
192 an institution or philosophy. Equally, it is important that there is a rigorous, broad and
193 transparent peer review process that critically considers both the factual information and the
194 logical flow of the assessment. In this regard it is critically important for reviewers to comment
195 on the traceability of assertions to primary sources or flagging them as “conjecture” or “expert
196 judgment”. For these reasons the credibility and experience of the assessment leader and
197 management team is an important factor in delivering a high quality of work on large and
198 complex assessments.

199
200 **THE PREDSA PROCESS AND GOVERNANCE**

201
202 From the section above we understand that a scientific assessment is a product that is useful to
203 decision-makers operating in the public arena, dealing with complex technical issues involving
204 stakeholders with differing views and expectations. For this reason it is important that the
205 assessment has legitimacy. Much of legitimacy is established through process and governance.
206 This section deals with the process and governance of the PredSA assessment; it is descriptive
207 of the specific approach taken in this assessment, but see Scholes *et al.* (2017) for a more wide
208 ranging discussion of the topics.

209
210 Governance and process
211 The PredSA unfolded over four phases (Figure 1). There were two key aspects to the first
212 phase, Phase 1, which involved both the establishment of a broad mandate (i.e. an assessment
213 of the impact of predation on livestock in South Africa) and the securing of the funding to enable
214 the assessment to be financed. In this process the Department of Environmental Affairs as the
215 custodian and regulator of national biodiversity, as well as the Department of Agriculture,
216 Forestry and Fisheries as the regulator of national agricultural production were approached with
217 a proposal detailing the potential for a Scientific Assessment of the form established by the
218 Elephant Management Assessment (Scholes and Mennell, 2008). Concurrently the “producers”
219 or “industry”², through their representative organisations and liaison forums (e.g. the Predator
220 Management Forum) were approached as they are the bodies who manage both livestock, and
221 indirectly biodiversity, on the ground and are most directly affected by policy and regulation
222 affecting predation, livestock and biodiversity.

223
224 As the proposal had not originated within government or industry, it was important to ensure
225 that there was real support for the idea of a scientific assessment on predation and livestock
226 nationally, i.e. that the proposal had legitimacy. The measure used to gauge this support was
227 the commitment of funding to the assessment. With a total budget in the region of R2,000,000
228 for the assessment, the process of gaining support and commitment as well as signing the
229 agreements with NMU took approximately four years.

230
231 Phase 2 involved the recruitment of staff to manage the assessment, the establishment of the
232 appropriate governance structures and processes, the development of databases, the
233 development of a website (<http://predsa.mandela.ac.za/>) and the public launch of the
234 assessment. A management team led by Graham Kerley, plus a full time project manager and
235 an assistant (with input from Bob Scholes and Greg Schreiner, who had recently led the

² These include the National Wool Growers Association, Cape Wools, the Red Meat Producers Organisation.

236 assessment on shale gas in the Karoo), drafted a PredSA process document – essentially the
237 “set of pre-determined rules”³, mentioned in the section above - which was designed to ensure
238 that fair process was followed and that legitimacy of the assessment was thus enhanced. A key
239 component of the rules was the establishment of a Process Custodian Group (PCG; Figure 2).
240 The role of the PCG was to serve as an independent oversight body to ensure that the
241 assessment was perceived to have been implemented in an unbiased manner, with procedural
242 fairness and which considered appropriate values, concerns and perspectives of different
243 actors.

244
245 The PCG members were not asked to comment on the *content* of the assessment, only on the
246 *process* by which it was conducted. To this end their specific responsibilities were to provide
247 feedback to the Project Leader regarding the following:

- 248 • Has the assessment process followed the pre-agreed guidelines?
- 249 • Do the proposed author teams have the necessary expertise, range of perspectives and
250 show balance?
- 251 • Does the assessment, as indicated by the Zero order Draft (i.e. the expanded outline of
252 the table of contents) cover the material issues expected by the primary stakeholders of
253 such as assessment?
- 254 • Are the identified expert reviewers independent, qualified and balanced?
- 255 • Have the review comments received from the expert and stakeholder reviewers been
256 adequately addressed and have the responses been adequately documented?

257
258 In order to achieve this mandate, the composition and affiliation of the PCG members was
259 important. A six-person PCG was selected; each appointed in their own right and for their own
260 expertise and judgement, but to ensure appropriate representivity, there was one representative
261 from each of:

- 262 • The Department of Environmental Affairs (selected by the department);
- 263 • The Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (selected by the department);
- 264 • The National Wool Growers Association (selected by the Predator Management Forum);
- 265 • SA Mohair Growers Association (selected by the Predator Management Forum);
- 266 • The CSIR, representing the research community;
- 267 • The Wilderness Foundation, representing NGOs and civil society.

268

³ These rules pertained to governance issues such as mandate, decision making procedures, meetings *etc.*

269 There was an independent Chairperson from the senior management at NMU in order to
270 prevent conflicts of interest arising through a member who could be perceived as being part of a
271 stakeholder group chairing the PCG.

272
273 Because of the need for both saliency and credibility, a multistep process was followed (see
274 Scholes *et al.*, 2017 and Figure 3). The management team workshoped the first draft of the
275 structure of the assessment as well as appropriate experts to serve as potential lead authors,
276 authors and or reviewers. From this list a final selection of preferred Lead Authors was chosen
277 for their established expertise. In this selection attempts were made to favour younger
278 individuals as there is evidence that participation in an assessment was beneficial to younger
279 people (Scholes *et al.*, 2017). A brief bio-sketch was developed for each of the Lead Authors.

280
281 Following the establishment of the PCG, a draft structure of the final assessment, detailing the
282 specific issues to be addressed (in chapter form) together with proposed Lead Authors i.e. the
283 experts, was presented to the PCG, together with the full list of potential Lead Authors, for a
284 “statement of no objection” in terms of the criteria that they had been mandated to use to
285 evaluate the stages of the assessment. No objection was received for the Lead Authors but the
286 management team was strongly encouraged to seek opportunities to ensure greater
287 representation of black and female authors. This was done. Having established who the lead
288 writing experts were, the next step was to hold the Lead Author workshop (Figure 3). The
289 purpose of this workshop was to introduce Lead Authors to each other and to begin to put flesh
290 out the structure of the document. The interactive process served well to gain the buy-in and
291 sense of common purpose of the writing team.

292
293 This was followed by a process of each Lead Author identifying and inviting Authors for their
294 chapter and entering into a four month writing period. At the end of the writing period, the entire
295 writing team was invited to a workshop to present and receive commentary from the other
296 members of the larger writing team. In this process the final structure of the document was
297 agreed on and gaps and duplicated effort were identified and resolved. After a further six week
298 writing period the First Order Draft (FOD) was submitted to the expert reviewers. Three
299 reviewers were identified for each chapter and where possible one of them was international.
300 Review comments were processed and the comments together with the responses were fully
301 documented and made available on the website for scrutiny. This level of transparency is seen
302 as being an important element of maintaining legitimacy. This was followed by a set of public
303 announcements in both the industry forums as well as the public press that the Second Order
304 Draft was available for comment – the stakeholder review process, in which the FOD expert

305 reviewers were encouraged to participate as well, to ensure that their comments on the FOD
306 had been adequately addressed. The open availability of the SOD lasted five weeks.

307
308 The processing of the comments from the stakeholder review process was managed in the
309 same manner as for the FOD and was followed by the final author workshop resulting in the
310 Final Draft of the assessment. This, together with a Summary for Policy Makers, was presented
311 to the PCG for final sign-off on the process. Following this the manuscript was copy edited and
312 submitted for publication. The Summary for Policy Makers was drafted by the project leader and
313 the project manager together with the Lead Authors.

314

315 **STRUCTURE OF THE ASSESSMENT**

316

317 Chapter 1 introduces the problem, scientific assessments and the approach to this specific
318 assessment. Chapter 2 deals with the historical context of the conflict between land users and
319 predators in South Africa highlighting variability in our spatial understanding of the
320 phenomenon, as well as how perceptions have changed over time. Chapter 3 deals with the
321 current state of knowledge regarding estimates of the size and nature of these impacts and
322 highlights areas where we have very poor formal knowledge such as in communal rangelands.
323 Chapter 4 deals with the ethical considerations in the management of livestock predator
324 impacts. Any exploration on the interaction of predators with livestock is likely to raise conflicts
325 rooted in differing ethical, livelihood and experiential positions that various actors hold when
326 considering the issue. Chapter 5 explores the legal context of managing predator livestock
327 impacts. Chapter 6 reviews the past and current predator and predation management practices,
328 both in South Africa as well as internationally. Chapter 7 deals with the two most abundant
329 predators that impact on small livestock farmers – the jackal and the caracal. Chapter 8 deals
330 with the impacts of altering the density and ecology of meso-predators on the biodiversity of the
331 rangeland ecosystems where most livestock are farmed in South Africa on rangelands which
332 are, to a varying extents, functioning ecosystems. Chapter 9 deals with the role and impact of
333 predators other than caracal and jackal.

334

335 **EMERGENT ISSUES**

336

337 Although this scientific assessment is focussed on the compilation of policy-relevant
338 information, it is also important to recognise the value of issues that emerge through the
339 process (Kerley *et al.* 2017). Examples include the need for robust decision-making and
340 management approaches, recognising that the understanding of the livestock predation issue

341 reflects the baseline which may alter over time (so-called shifting baselines), and the paucity of,
342 but clear need for, research on the nature of livestock predation in communal rangelands.
343 These issues are briefly described below.

344

345 Adaptive management

346 Decision making around complex issues is not a simple task, and can be seen to have two
347 fundamental components. These comprise identifying and involving appropriate stakeholders,
348 and the basis for the decisions and how their outcomes are assessed. These components are
349 clearly intertwined, as for example it is important that stakeholders that will be affected by the
350 outcomes of management interventions are able to participate in the decision-making in an
351 informed manner with regards to the knowledge-base, objectives and possible (and eventual)
352 outcomes of these decisions (Biggs *et al.* 2008). Within the livestock predation environment,
353 this set of stakeholders is diverse, and ranges from farm workers, farmers, provincial and
354 national government authorities tasked with dealing with biodiversity management and
355 agriculture, legal authorities, and civil society elements interested in issues as diverse as
356 workers' rights and animal rights. A poorly recognised but increasingly important group are eco-
357 tourists, as they provide one of the justifications for the re-introduction of apex predators (e.g.
358 Hayward *et al.* 2007). Their responses to livestock predation management interventions may
359 have significant economic repercussions, and as a group they are very familiar with the power
360 of social media. In this respect, the stakeholder challenges around livestock predation closely
361 mirror those of elephant management (see Biggs *et al.* 2008). Important distinctions are that
362 elephant management is largely single species focused, relatively constrained geographically
363 (there are less than 100 elephant populations in South Africa) and the processes to address the
364 complexity around elephant management are well advanced (Scholes & Mennel 2008). In this
365 respect, elephant management serves as a powerful heuristic model for South African society
366 to address the stakeholder issues around livestock predation. A further link between these two
367 complex issues is the well-developed process of Strategic Adaptive Management developed by
368 SANParks, as a tool to address complex issues, including *inter alia* elephant management
369 (Roux and Foxcroft, 2011).

370

371 Adaptive Management as a concept for approaching complex issues emerged from the
372 recognition of the need for a systematic approach that was based on robust information and
373 which led to predictable outcomes. The principles were first formulated by Taylor (1911),
374 considered to be the father of industrial engineering, and developed for the ecological context
375 by C. S Holling (1978). More recently SANParks has refined and developed the approach with
376 the aim of achieving strategic conservation objectives, hence the term used within SANParks of

377 “Strategic Adaptive Management” (see Roux & Foxcroft 2011, and other papers in the 2011
378 special issue of *Koedoe* Vol 53(2) - <http://www.koedoe.co.za/index.php/koedoe/issue/view/82>).
379 A key principle of adaptive management is “learning by doing”. Where adaptive management
380 differs from other approaches espousing this approach, is that in adaptive management the
381 problem is formulated as an hypothesis, from which (multiple) testable predictions arise, and
382 that management interventions should reflect tests of these predictions. Failure of management
383 interventions suggests that the original hypothesis does not adequately describe system
384 behaviour and needs to be revised as per the lessons from these interventions (Roux &
385 Foxcroft 2011). In this respect, adaptive management has been referred to as management by
386 hypothesis, and management actions can be interpreted as experiments to test our system
387 understanding. Thus, documented monitoring of outcomes is an essential feature of adaptive
388 management. Adaptive management can therefore be seen as a feedback learning loop (Fig
389 1.4). Importantly, the full suite of stakeholders can learn through this process, not just about an
390 agreed upon understanding of how the system behaves, but also from the lessons learnt as
391 adaptive management is applied. This process can therefore be expected to have the added
392 benefit of providing common ground for stakeholders and a maturation of all stakeholders’
393 understanding of the system. This can be expected to reduce tensions between stakeholders.

394
395 The relevance of the application of adaptive management to the field of livestock predation is
396 clear, but to date little attention has been paid to undertaking this formally. The strategic
397 objectives of stakeholders can be articulated in terms of the reduction in the conflict and a
398 decline in livestock predation. Clearly, and as demonstrated in this Scientific Assessment, the
399 system is complex, and there may be unforeseen or perverse outcomes of management
400 interventions (e.g. Minnie *et al.* 2016). The PredSA assessment identifies many management
401 approaches to mitigating livestock predation. There is evidence that some of these approaches
402 are less successful than others (Chapter XX). The challenge is for the policy makers, managers
403 and other stakeholders to develop a shared set of strategic objectives and formulate a set of
404 interventions that can be expected to allow us to move towards these interventions, and away
405 from those demonstrated to have failed. Clearly, resources will need to be set aside to drive this
406 approach, as well as to monitor and evaluate the outcomes, and to pass on the lessons
407 learned.

408
409 Shifting baselines and lifting baselines
410 The situation with regard to the nature and extent of livestock predation, the identity of the key
411 predators and appropriate management responses is not static. The large scale eradication of
412 the apex predators in the 18th and 19th centuries (Boshoff *et al.* 2016) largely relieved livestock

413 owners of concerns around lions *Panthera leo*, spotted hyenas *Crocuta crocuta* and African wild
414 dogs *Lycaon pictus* over much of South Africa. Prior to this, written accounts were largely
415 dominated by concerns of attacks by lions on livestock (and people), as summarised in Skead
416 (2007, 2011) and Boshoff & Kerley (2013). Bearing in mind that transport of people and goods
417 was dependent on the availability of draught animals, such attacks could leave travellers
418 stranded. Responses to these threats include 19th century travellers' wagons being driven at
419 night, when it was hoped that the noise of the party (whips cracking, shouts of the drovers)
420 would deter lions from attacking (Boshoff & Kerley 2013). Writings of the time are also replete
421 with accounts of determined attacks on lions and other apex predators by livestock owners who
422 seemed focussed on killing all large predators. In contrast, these same writings rarely mention
423 concerns of jackal attacks on livestock, and jackal killing seems to be more focussed on
424 collecting skins for making "karosses" (but see descriptions of KhoiSan concerns around jackal-
425 predation of their sheep mentioned in the Van Riebeck diaries in the 17th Century- Skead 2011).
426 Similarly, the caracal hardly features in 17th - 19th Century accounts.

427
428 Lions were progressively eradicated from the present-day Western Cape, Free State and
429 Eastern Cape provinces by 1838, 1870 and 1879, respectively (Skead 2007, 2011, Boshoff &
430 Kerley 2013). Thus, many generations of livestock farmers have since been operating under the
431 "shifted baseline" (*sensu* Pauley 1995) of jackal and caracal being the focus of their concerns
432 (du Plessis *et al.* 2015). Memories of a different suite of predators have thus largely been lost.
433 However, recently large predators have been re-introduced into areas from which they had
434 been eradicated (e.g. Hayward *et al.* 2007), for both conservation and ecotourism objectives.
435 Inevitably, these re-introductions lead to escapes into neighbouring pastoral areas. Banasiak
436 (2017) identified at least 75 conflict events arising from such escapes in the Eastern Cape
437 Province since the 1990s, with livestock at the centre of most of these events (see also Chapter
438 9). So, while re-introductions of large carnivores may meet conservation and economic
439 objectives, it is also important to recognise that some stakeholders may bear the brunt of
440 unintended consequences. Typically these stakeholders see such emerging conflicts as due to
441 "invaders", forgetting that the presence of these large predators used to be the norm (Roman *et*
442 *al.* 2015). This reflects a need to "lift the baselines" or educate these stakeholders as to fact that
443 the presence of these large predators is in fact the pre-colonial norm under which these
444 ecosystems evolved, the broader value of such conservation outcomes, as well as to invest in
445 mechanisms to reduce these conflicts if we are to continue to celebrate such conservation
446 successes (Roman *et al.* 2015).

447

448 **Addressing livestock predation in communal farming areas**

449 Conflict over livestock predation can be expected to occur wherever livestock are exposed to
450 predators. Early on in the PredSA process, the bias towards studies of livestock predation in so-
451 called commercial farming areas was recognised, with a dearth of studies in the South African
452 formal literature relating to communal farming areas. The background to this pattern is beyond
453 the scope of this assessment, but it is important to recognise this bias in attempts to gather
454 policy-relevant information. It was also clear that simply recording a gap in information would be
455 deeply unsatisfactory. This because there are clearly many people in South Africa who have
456 good knowledge of the issue – it is simply not recorded. To address the matter, PredSA
457 partnered with an NGO, Conservation South Africa, who currently have established
458 programmes in the rural and communal farming areas of the Northern Cape, Eastern Cape and
459 in Mpumalanga/Limpopo and are working with communal rangeland farmers on matters to do
460 with livestock and biodiversity. Together a questionnaire survey was developed and over 270
461 people were interviewed across the three areas using the established forums and in the local
462 vernacular. This process was run in parallel with the drafting of the Second Order Draft and the
463 results and the findings are incorporated into the relevant chapters (Hawkins and Muller, 2017).
464 The reviewers of the affected chapters were approached for comment on the additional material
465 so as to ensure that there was no shortcutting of due process. Thus, although collecting novel
466 data is not the norm for a Scientific Assessment (Scholes *et al.* 2017), this innovation is seen as
467 being an enriching contribution to a uniquely South African situation, and is seen as being
468 consistent with the approach being taken by the IPBES process when incorporating Indigenous
469 and Local Knowledge into an Assessment (Sutherland, 2013; IPBES, 2016).

470

471 **WAY FORWARD**

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473 The PredSA is a significant step forward for South African society to address the conflicts and
474 costs of livestock predation. We know of no precedent worldwide. Replicating this approach in
475 other nations will represent a powerful approach to reduce global levels of conflict between
476 predators and livestock owners.

477

478 This document represents a compilation by a group of experts of what we know and what we
479 don't know and, to some extent, what we need to know about livestock predation. It is compiled
480 by experts, largely for an informed audience. The material contained in this assessment is
481 aimed at both livestock managers in South Africa and policy makers. Given the cultural diversity
482 of livestock managers in South Africa, this document, although currently only available in
483 English, should also be made available in multiple languages. The opportunity also exists to
484 communicate the information in a form of "extension documents" that can be made available to

485 livestock managers, extension officers and other stakeholders. The power of modern
486 multimedia (video and audio) can also be harnessed to make this information more broadly
487 available.

488
489 This PredSA assessment should not be seen as the final step in addressing this issue. By their
490 very nature, scientific assessments are living processes, and should catalyse the further
491 generation of knowledge, whether through stimulation of strategic research activities (e.g.
492 research on livestock predation in communal areas highlighted above) or lessons learnt from
493 adaptive management. This will by definition make it necessary to revise and update scientific
494 assessments on a regular basis, as is done for the climate and biodiversity/ecosystem services
495 assessments (IPCC, 2013, IPBES, 2016). In this respect, the record of the process in
496 developing the PredSA assessment allows for the process to be replicated by future
497 generations of assessment practitioners, and this document provides the foundation for an
498 ongoing learning process that will hopefully lead to a reduction in conflict around livestock
499 predation in South Africa.

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PREDSA DRAFT

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Table 1. Broad assessment types with their attributes, target audiences, processes and anticipated outcomes (Modified from Scholes et al., 2017).

Assessment type	Attributes
Expert report	Typically an expert report is aimed at a client and is governed by an agreement. There is/are specific questions to be addressed and the process is conducted over a few weeks or months by a selected individual or team. They may be reviewed by other, not necessarily independent, experts and the methodology used need not be explicit. Expert reports are used for technical but uncontroversial topics and they often make clear recommendations.
Scientific review	Scientific reviews are aimed at scientific specialists who are assumed to understand the technical terminology and will form their own judgements. The questions addressed arise from the science community, and are usually restricted to a single issue which is treated exhaustively. Scientific reviews are conducted by one to a few specialists over a year or so and are rigorously peer reviewed, typically by three independent and anonymous reviewers. They are governed by implicit scientific norms of fair attribution and measured language and explicit personal opinions are discouraged, although they may be tacit. Scientific reviews are appropriate to cutting edge research.
Scientific assessment	A scientific assessment is aimed at decision makers (stakeholders) in society assumed to be intelligent but not necessarily technical experts. The questions are posed by the stakeholders. The language used aims to be free of technical terminology but with use of summary tables and explanatory diagrams. There is a governance structure to establish legitimacy and credibility and a scientific assessment is conducted by a large and diverse teams of experts. Subjective expert judgements are often required, but they are made explicit, along with statements of confidence. They are independently reviewed by other experts and by stakeholders, often amounting to large numbers of documented comments and responses which are placed in the public domain. The process typically takes 18 to 36 months, following an extended period of organization and is appropriate to problems which are both technically complex and socially contested. The output is policy relevant but should not be policy prescriptive.

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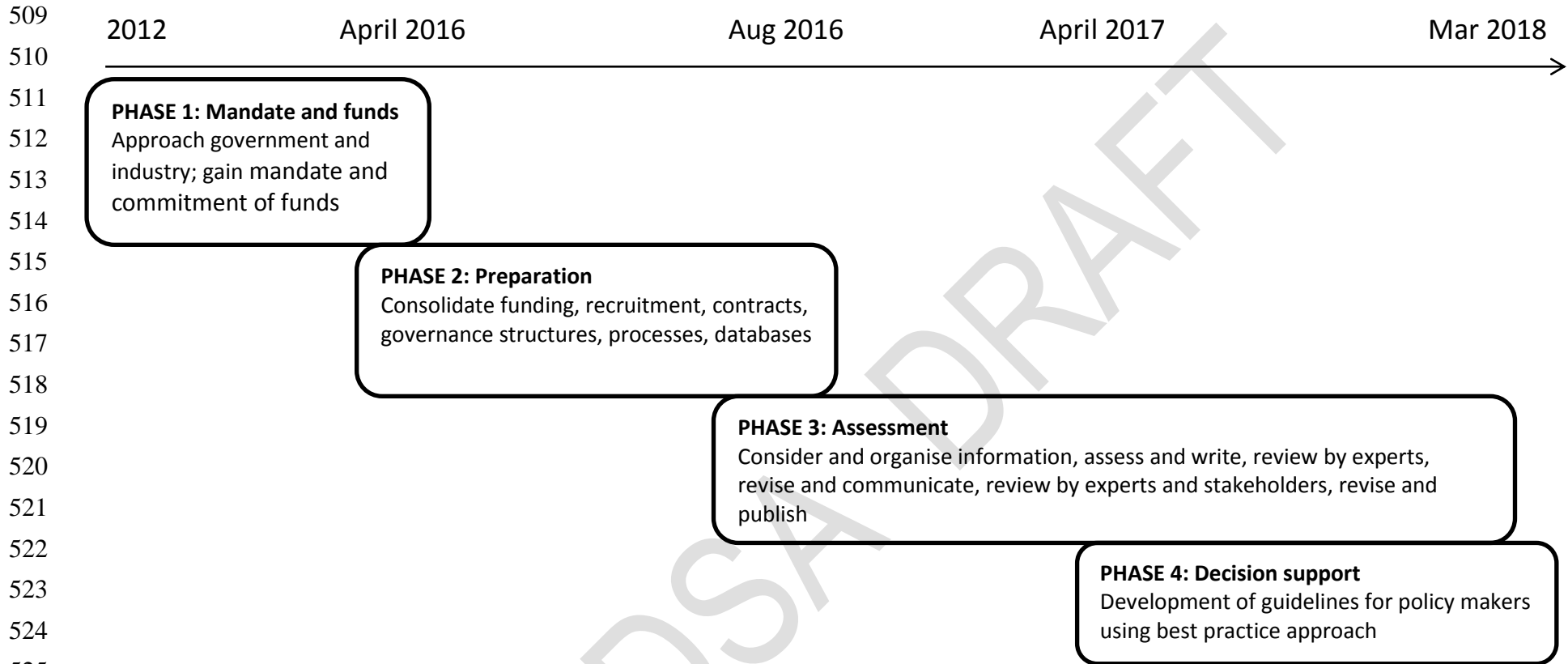


Figure 1. The four phases of PredSA

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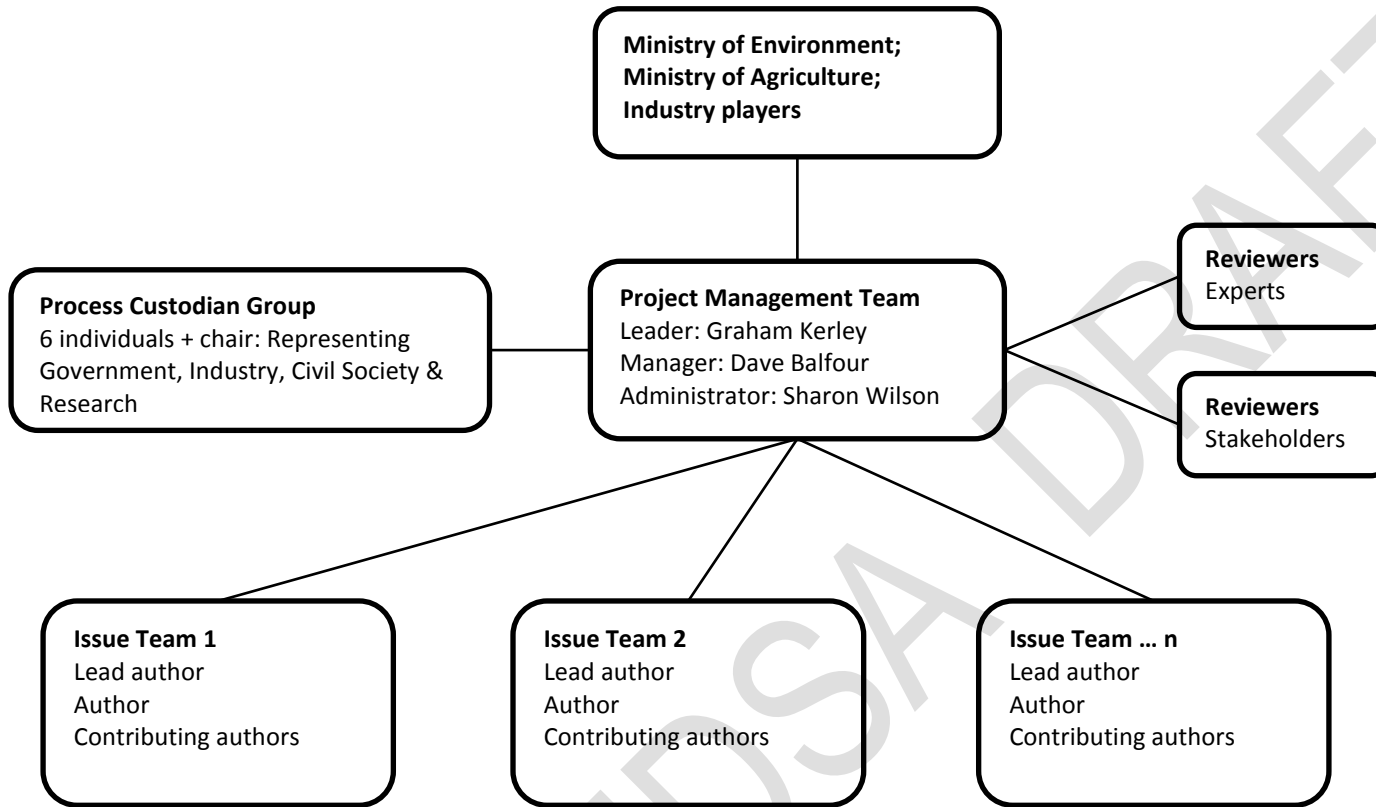
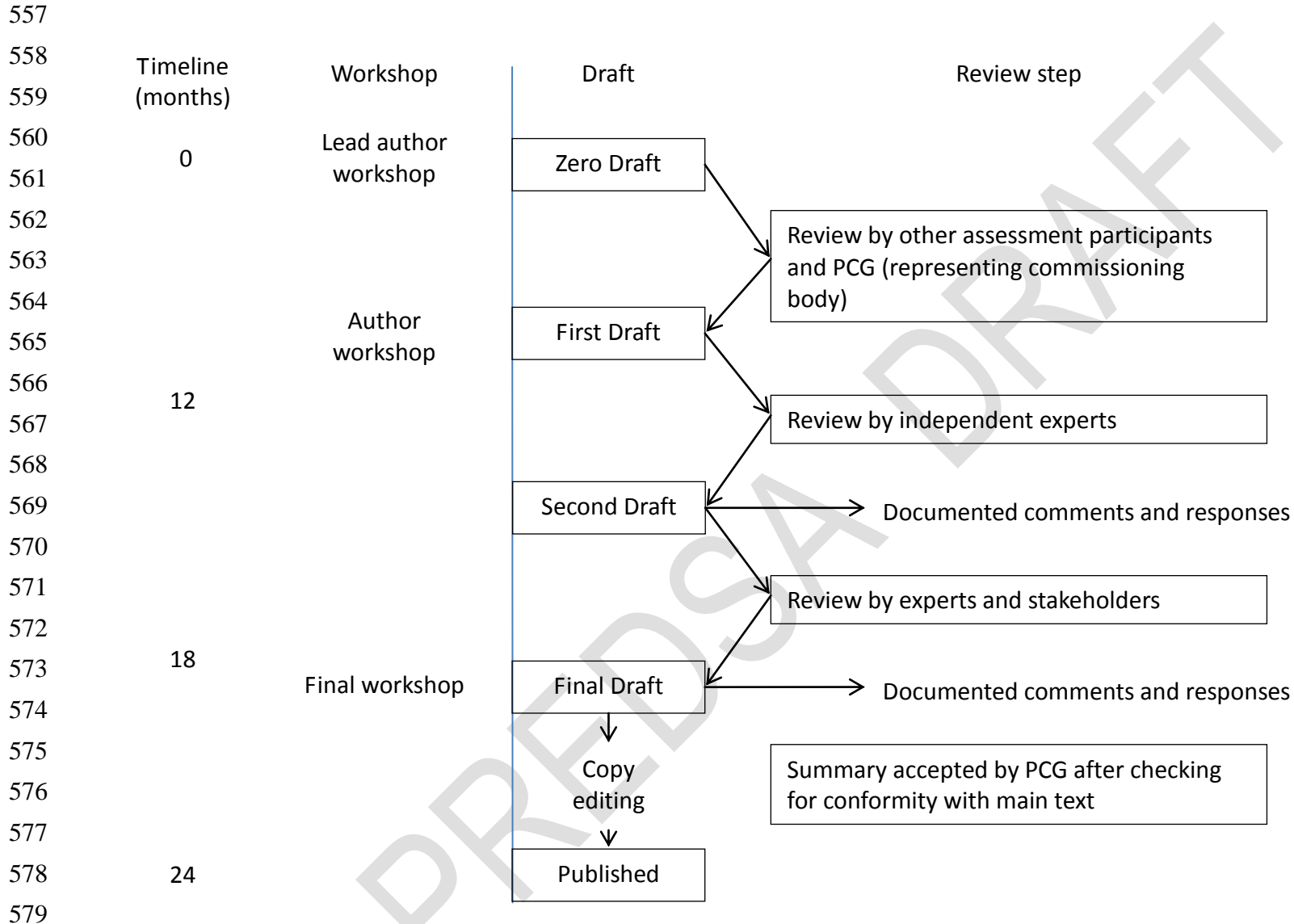


Figure 2. The governance structure for PredSA.



580 **Figure 3.** The timeline and process undertaken for PredSA.

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583 **Error! Objects cannot be created from editing field codes.**

584 Figure 4: A simplified schematic of adaptive management, with the definition of the “desired state” reflecting the strategic objectives of system
585 management.

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PREDSA DRAFT

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