

1 Using decision analysis to collaboratively respond to invasive species threats: a case study of
2 Lake Erie grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*)

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4 Kelly F. Robinson^{1,*}, Mark DuFour², Michael Jones³, Seth Herbst⁴, Tammy Newcomb⁵, James
5 Boase⁶, Travis Brenden⁷, Duane Chapman⁸, John Dettmers⁹, James Francis¹⁰, Travis Hartman¹¹,
6 Patrick Kočovský¹², Brian Locke¹³, Christine Mayer¹⁴, Jeff Tyson¹⁵

7 ¹ Quantitative Fisheries Center, Department of Fisheries and Wildlife, Michigan State

8 University, 480 Wilson Road, East Lansing, MI, 48824, USA, kfrobins@msu.edu, telephone:
9 (517) 884-8872, fax: (517) 432-1699

10 ² Quantitative Fisheries Center, Department of Fisheries and Wildlife, Michigan State

11 University, 480 Wilson Road, East Lansing, MI, 48824; Present address: Ohio Department of
12 Natural Resources, Division of Wildlife, Sandusky Fisheries Research Station, 305 East
13 Shoreline Drive, Sandusky, OH, 44870, USA, mark.dufour@dnr.state.oh.us

14 ³ Quantitative Fisheries Center, Department of Fisheries and Wildlife, Michigan State University,
15 480 Wilson Road, East Lansing, MI, 48824, USA, jonesm30@msu.edu

16 ⁴ Michigan Department of Natural Resources, Fisheries Division, Lansing, MI, USA,
17 HerbstS1@michigan.gov

18 ⁵ Michigan Department of Natural Resources, Lansing, MI, USA, newcombt@michigan.gov

19 ⁶ United States Fish and Wildlife Service, Alpena Fish and Wildlife Conservation Office, 9311
20 Groh Road, Grosse Ile, MI, 48138, USA, james_boase@fws.gov

21 ⁷ Quantitative Fisheries Center, Department of Fisheries and Wildlife, Michigan State

22 University, 480 Wilson Road, East Lansing, MI, 48824, USA, brenden@msu.edu

23 ⁸ Columbia Environmental Research Center, United States Geological Survey, Columbia, MO,
24 65201, USA, dchapman@usgs.gov

25 ⁹ Great Lakes Fishery Commission, 2100 Commonwealth Blvd., Suite 100, Ann Arbor, MI,
26 48105, USA, jdettmers@glfc.org

27 ¹⁰ Michigan Department of Natural Resources, Fisheries Division, Waterford Field Office,
28 Waterford, MI, USA, francisj@michigan.gov

29 ¹¹ Ohio Department of Natural Resources, Division of Wildlife, Sandusky Fisheries Research
30 Station, 305 East Shoreline Drive, Sandusky, OH, 44870, USA, travis.hartman@dnr.state.oh.us

31 ¹² Lake Erie Biological Station, United States Geological Survey, 6100 Columbus Avenue,
32 Sandusky, OH, 44870, USA, pkocovsky@usgs.gov

33 ¹³ Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources and Forestry, Lake Erie Management Unit, Wheatley,
34 Ontario, Canada, brian.locke@ontario.ca

35 ¹⁴ Department of Environmental Sciences, Lake Erie Center, University of Toledo, 6200 Bay
36 Shore Rd., Oregon, OH, 43616, USA, christine.mayer@utoledo.edu

37 ¹⁵ Great Lakes Fishery Commission, 2100 Commonwealth Blvd., Suite 100, Ann Arbor, MI,
38 48105, USA, jtyson@glfc.org

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42 **Abstract**

43 Decisions about invasive species control and eradication can be difficult because of uncertainty
44 in population demographics, movement ecology, and effectiveness of potential response actions.
45 These decisions often include multiple stakeholders and management entities with potentially
46 different objectives, management priorities, and jurisdictional authority. We provide a case study
47 of using multi-party, collaborative decision analysis to aid decision makers in determining
48 objectives and control actions for invasive grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) in Lake Erie.
49 Creating this process required binational (Fisheries and Oceans Canada, United States Fish and
50 Wildlife Service, U. S. Geological Survey) and multi-state/provincial collaboration to craft a
51 shared problem statement, establish objectives related to ecological, economic, and social
52 concerns, determine potential response actions, and evaluate consequences and tradeoffs of these
53 actions. We used participatory modeling and expert elicitation to evaluate the effectiveness of
54 control scenarios that varied in action type (i.e., removal efforts and spawning barriers) and the
55 temporal and spatial application of these actions. We found that removal efforts concentrated in
56 areas of high catchability, when paired with a spawning barrier on the Sandusky River, Ohio,
57 USA, could effectively control grass carp in Lake Erie, if all assumptions are met. We
58 determined a set of key uncertainties regarding gear catchability and current population size that
59 have led to the transition to an adaptive management process. In addition, our work formed the
60 basis for grass carp management plans for the states of Michigan and Ohio and has provided a
61 means for collaboration among agencies for effective application of control efforts.

62 **Keywords:** structured decision making, uncertainty, grass carp, Great Lakes, fishery
63 management

64 **Introduction**

65 Uncertainty is common in natural resources management but can be particularly
66 challenging when making decisions about how to control or eradicate an invasive species.
67 Invasive species' ecology and demographics often are considerably different in invaded systems
68 than in native regions (Johnson et al. 2017), which can result in uncertainties regarding species'
69 effects in these systems and effective control methods. These uncertainties can be more
70 problematic when species invasions occur in a large, multi-jurisdictional aquatic ecosystem like
71 the Laurentian Great Lakes, because agency coordination related to objectives for eradication, as
72 well as data collection and analysis, might be minimal or difficult. Decisions about how to
73 control or eradicate a species, therefore, often are made under extreme uncertainty (Runge et al.
74 2011b), social indeterminism (Tyre and Michaels 2011, Michaels and Tyre 2012), and multi-
75 jurisdictional complexity. Uncoordinated management actions and ecological uncertainties can
76 lead to confusion when making decisions and prioritizing for control and eradication efforts, as
77 well as to the inefficient use of often limited financial and personnel resources. In addition, if
78 jurisdictions do not typically work together in making management decisions, management
79 turbulence could lead to uncertainty in the outcome, as authorities might not share a common set
80 of values (Tyre and Michaels 2011).

81 Multi-party collaborative decision making processes provide a framework to collectively
82 provide guidance for invasive species response efforts (Blomquist et al. 2010; Johnson et al.
83 2017). A multi-party collaboration combined with the framework of decision analysis (i.e.,
84 structured decision making and adaptive management) can allow groups to work cooperatively to
85 define the problem, an agreed-upon set of objectives, and a series of potential control actions
86 (Failing et al. 2013; Hammond et al. 1999). The group can then use methods of participatory

87 modeling to predict the consequences of actions on each objective (Robinson and Fuller 2017)
88 and carefully consider tradeoffs among objectives for arriving at a common set of goals and
89 actions for invasive species response efforts. Critically, the decision analytic process requires the
90 explicit articulation of uncertainties that could affect decisions (Failing et al. 2013; Haeseker et
91 al. 2007; Hammond et al. 1999; Runge et al. 2011b). Through decision analysis, the group can
92 determine which uncertainties are key for decision making (i.e., would affect the decision being
93 made), and therefore should be resolved through an adaptive management process (Runge et al.
94 2011a).

95 We present a framework for collaboratively responding to aquatic invasive species in the
96 Laurentian Great Lakes. This region necessitates concerted collaborative efforts because of both
97 the multi-jurisdictional nature of fisheries management in the lakes and the tremendous social
98 and economic value of the resources. In addition, it provides a unique example of a shared
99 governance structure, the Joint Strategic Plan for Management of Great Lakes Fisheries (GLFC
100 2007), which helped reduce the socially generated indeterminism that can plague the
101 management of social ecological systems (Michaels and Tyre 2012). Here, we provide a case
102 study of using structured decision making in a multi-party, collaborative process for the
103 enactment of control actions to suppress grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) in Lake Erie; the
104 ultimate goal being eradication of the species. This collaborative effort included representatives
105 from three federal agencies, five state agencies, one provincial agency, four academic
106 institutions, and one binational commission, all of whom formed the formal working group for
107 this process. Although our case study is specific to grass carp in Lake Erie, the methods that we
108 describe are directly applicable to other aquatic invaders in the Great Lakes ecosystem, or to

109 other multi-jurisdictional systems where uncertainty and lack of coordination can undermine
110 invasive species response efforts.

111 Establishment of the four major Chinese carps (i.e., black carp [*Mylopharyngodon*
112 *piceus*], silver carp [*Hypophthalmichthys molitrix*], bighead carp [*H. nobilis*], and grass carp)
113 poses great risks to the Great Lakes ecosystem, including damage to the lakes' ecosystems and
114 important recreational and commercial fisheries (Clapp et al. 2012; Cudmore et al. 2012;
115 Cudmore et al. 2017). Grass carp, in particular, pose an immediate threat to Lake Erie's coastal
116 wetlands and shorelines, as well as the Great Lakes as a whole, because grass carp have been
117 collected from four of the lakes (Cudmore et al. 2017). In addition, reproductively viable grass
118 carp have been captured in lakes Erie and Ontario, and naturalized spawning has been observed
119 in two Lake Erie tributaries (Chapman et al. 2013; ACRCC 2016; Wieringa et al. 2016; USGS
120 2019). The pathways for introduction of grass carp into Lake Erie are unknown, but likely stem
121 from human-mediated release (Cudmore et al. 2017). Possession of grass carp is illegal in
122 Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, and Ontario; whereas, various state-level regulations allow
123 either culture or possession of triploid (i.e., sterile) individuals in other states that border the
124 Great Lakes (MICRA 2015). Despite these regulations on the possession of diploid individuals,
125 grass carp are spawning in the Sandusky and Maumee rivers in Ohio (Embke et al. 2016; USGS
126 2019).

127 The threat of grass carp establishment and spread in the Great Lakes poses both
128 ecological and economic risks (Cudmore et al. 2017). Grass carp consume vegetation, including
129 submerged aquatic macrophytes, necessary for native fish spawning and recruitment (Chapman
130 et al. 2013; Wittman et al. 2014). Removal of vegetation can also alter nesting habitat for
131 waterfowl (Chapman et al. 2013; McKnight and Hepp 1995) and cause declines in biological

132 productivity, energy flow through ecosystems, and supply of detritus (Chapman et al. 2013;
133 Herdendorf 1987), as well as increases in turbidity (Cudmore et al. 2017). From an economic
134 perspective, large-bodied grass carp can damage commercial and recreational fishing gear and
135 the spawning grounds of ecologically and economically valuable species (Chapman et al. 2013).
136 The ability of grass carp to remove vegetation can cause economic damages stemming from
137 shoreline erosion, water management, accumulation of sediments (Herdendorf 1987), and
138 nonpoint source pollution (Mitsch 1992). Given these ecological and economic concerns,
139 effective response efforts for grass carp in Lake Erie are needed. However, uncertainties about
140 the population dynamics of this species and the effectiveness of control actions, as well as the
141 complexities of invasive species response efforts in Lake Erie, creates a difficult landscape for
142 successfully making decisions for grass carp control.

143 The objectives of our study were to 1) use the structured decision making framework to
144 aid decision makers in agencies around Lake Erie to determine effective strategies for grass carp
145 suppression, 2) identify key uncertainties in the system that would affect grass carp control
146 decisions, and 3) provide a framework for managers and biologists from Lake Erie to collaborate
147 effectively for the control of an invasive species.

148 **Methods**

149 *Study Area*

150 Although grass carp have been captured throughout Lake Erie, the majority of captures
151 have been in the lake's western basin (Cudmore et al. 2017), where reproduction has been
152 detected. As such, the working group agreed that the decision analysis would focus on western
153 Lake Erie (Figure 1), with consideration given to the possibility that fish might migrate out of the
154 western basin.

155 *Overview of Decision Analysis*

156 The steps of collaborative decision analysis include working cooperatively to define the
157 problem, identify the relevant objectives and a set of management alternatives to achieve the
158 objectives, predict the consequences of each action on each objective, and evaluate tradeoffs
159 among objectives (Figure 2; Hammond et al. 1999). These steps can be iterative, in that results
160 from a particular step might require the group to revisit previous steps. In addition, the process of
161 decision analysis provides a structured framework for identifying key uncertainties that might
162 hinder management decision making (Hammond et al. 1999; Runge et al. 2011a). In our case
163 study, the team of managers and biologists, facilitated by decision analysts with backgrounds in
164 quantitative fisheries management (hereafter, the “working group”), worked through each of
165 these steps in three 2-day workshops in 2016 and 2017, interspersed with electronic
166 communication. Additionally, because of the multi-jurisdictional nature of the problem, each
167 workshop also included an opportunity for members of the working group to provide updates
168 about their research and control efforts for grass carp in Lake Erie. These updates included grass
169 carp collection efforts at egg, larval, and adult life stages, environmental DNA sampling,
170 targeted capture efforts and rapid response actions, acoustic telemetry investigations into adult
171 movement and spatial ecology (Harris et al. in press), otolith microchemistry, and population
172 genetics.

173 Here we present the methods associated with each step of the decision analytic process
174 (i.e., problem, objectives, alternatives, consequences, and tradeoffs). We also present the
175 problem statement, the objectives that were elicited from the working group, and the alternatives
176 that were generated. We then describe the methods that we used in the consequences step to

177 predict the ability of each alternative to achieve the stated objectives, as well as in the tradeoffs
178 step to consider differential achievement of objectives under different alternatives.

179 *Problem statement*

180 A clearly defined problem provides the backbone for each subsequent step in a decision
181 analytic framework and ensures that all members of the working group understand the nature of
182 the problem (Hammond et al. 1999). The working group laid out all aspects of the Lake Erie
183 grass carp problem at hand during the first workshop, including the scope of the problem, the
184 triggers for the problem, identification of the stakeholders and decision maker(s), and relevant
185 legal, regulatory, and resource constraints.

186 State, provincial, and federal agencies around Lake Erie were concerned about the
187 potential detrimental effects of grass carp on the Lake Erie ecosystem and the Great Lakes as a
188 whole. These concerns were related to the increased numbers of reported grass carp captures in
189 recent years, particularly in western Lake Erie, the presence of reproductively viable fish in the
190 region (Wieringa et al. 2016), the presence of fertilized grass carp eggs in the Sandusky and
191 Maumee rivers (Embke et al. 2016; USGS 2019), and recruitment of juveniles from the
192 Sandusky River (Chapman et al. 2013). Based on these concerns, the members of the working
193 group identified stakeholders who could be directly affected by grass carp (e.g., recreational and
194 commercial fishers, stakeholders with waterfowl interests, and conservation groups), contribute
195 to scientific understanding (e.g., managers and researchers), develop and communicate policies
196 (e.g., policy analysts/developers and media), and could be indirectly affected by policy changes
197 (e.g., aquaculture industry, pond management users, live food markets, and shipping industry).
198 The responsibility for addressing this problem falls within the purview of many jurisdictions, as
199 well as multiple governmental and institutional levels, as the extent of potential grass carp

200 invasion is larger than Lake Erie (i.e., the broader Great Lakes and St. Lawrence River).
201 Ultimately, the problem was defined as a need to develop a strategy for controlling grass carp in
202 Lake Erie to socially and environmentally acceptable levels (Figure 2).

203 *Objectives and Measurable Attributes*

204 In a decision analytic process, objectives represent the values of the stakeholders and
205 decision maker(s) (Gregory and Keeney 1994; Hammond et al. 1999). These objectives are often
206 hierarchical in nature, with fundamental objectives that represent the ultimate goals of the group,
207 and means objectives, which describe how to achieve the fundamental objectives (Gregory et al.
208 2012; Conroy and Peterson 2013). In addition to defining objectives, measurable attributes for
209 each objective must be described so that achievement of each objective can be measured. The
210 working group defined fundamental and means objectives that were relevant to the identified
211 stakeholders in the Lake Erie basin. These objectives were related to ecological, economic, and
212 social values associated with grass carp, including the effects of both the invasive species itself,
213 as well as the effects of potential control actions on the ecosystem and stakeholders (i.e.,
214 collateral damage; Blomquist et al. 2010; Johnson et al. 2017).

215 The objectives hierarchy was comprised of three fundamental and five means objectives
216 (Figure 3). The first fundamental objective was to fulfill public trust responsibility, with means
217 objectives of 1) minimizing the abundance and risk of spread of grass carp within Lake Erie and
218 into other lakes and 2) minimizing the ecosystem engineering effects of grass carp within Lake
219 Erie. Risk of spread was defined as the potential for colonization of areas outside Lake Erie's
220 western basin. Although information is available about grass carp movement within and outside
221 the western basin from ongoing telemetry studies (Harris et al. in press), there nevertheless
222 remains substantial uncertainty about population-level emigration rates of grass carp from and

223 available habitat outside of the western basin. Consequently, the working group decided that a
224 grass carp density of greater than 10 fish per hectare of foraging habitat would lead to a
225 substantial risk of spread. This measure was chosen based on the results of the Binational Grass
226 Carp Risk Assessment, which indicated that ecological effects of the species would be minimal
227 below this density (Cudmore et al. 2017). Foraging habitat was defined as high-quality low-
228 marsh habitat based on Great Lakes Low Marsh Inventory (GLLMI) layers (Gertzen et al. 2017).
229 Likewise, the same metric of 10 fish per hectare of foraging habitat was used as a target
230 threshold for the objective of minimizing abundance of grass carp. Ecosystem engineering
231 effects included food web effects, erosion, and changes in the plant community, which were all
232 related to vegetation biomass. Therefore, ecosystem engineering effects were measured as
233 vegetation biomass consumption (DuFour et al. in review), estimated using established
234 relationships between grass carp biomass and vegetation consumption from bioenergetics models
235 (van der Lee et al. 2017).

236 We used the four-point method (Speirs-Bridge et al. 2010) and the modified Delphi
237 approach (Kuhnert et al. 2010), a structured approach for expert elicitation, to determine the
238 threshold vegetation loss beyond which experts believed detrimental effects on the ecosystem
239 would arise. Experts from the working group were provided with background information and
240 asked to answer a series of questions via email. Experts were asked four questions:

- 241 1) what is the minimum percent vegetation loss from baseline values that would result in
242 negative effects on the ecosystem,
- 243 2) what is the maximum percent loss that would result in negative effects,
- 244 3) what is your best guess of the percent vegetation loss that would result in negative
245 effects, and

246 4) how confident are you that the true value falls within your minimum and maximum
247 estimates?

248 Experts also answered the same four questions related to the frequency of years of exceedance of
249 this threshold that would lead to sustained impairment of the vegetated marsh ecosystem over
250 three different time frames (i.e., 5, 10, and 25 years). Experts discussed the results in a workshop
251 setting and were allowed the opportunity to change their answers if desired. We calculated the
252 mean and 95% confidence intervals for threshold vegetation loss by assuming that the percent
253 confidence provided by each expert was followed a beta distribution with a mean of the “best
254 guess” (Cohen et al. 2016; Robinson et al. 2016). We then drew random samples from each
255 distribution (one distribution per expert) and averaged across random draws to generate an
256 average distribution, weighting equally across participants. Ultimately, the group concluded that
257 a reasonable threshold of vegetation loss was 34% (95% CI = 26–43%).

258 The second fundamental objective was to minimize the management costs associated
259 with grass carp control (Figure 3). Although members of the working group agreed that invasive
260 species control in general, and grass carp control specifically, will incur costs, all acknowledged
261 that funding and staffing for fishery management agencies can be a limiting factor and therefore
262 should be considered in the decision-making framework, such that funds can be spent as
263 efficiently as possible. Additionally, the group agreed that money spent was a metric that
264 encapsulated a range of costs such as base funding, external grants, staff salaries and fringe
265 benefits, and equipment purchase and maintenance. Therefore, the means objective for
266 minimizing costs was to minimize money spent, measured as the probability and frequency of
267 annually exceeding a set amount of money. However, further discussion indicated that predicting
268 annual grass carp management-related funding would be difficult to impossible. Therefore, we

269 used a relatively small cost metric (US\$84,000 per year) based on expert elicitation. Although
270 members recognized this as a low value and that true funding would be more fluid in the future,
271 using a set value allowed us to explore incorporation of a cost metric with established future
272 funding and determine the effect of a low amount of funding on the probability of exceeding the
273 threshold density of grass carp.

274 The third fundamental objective was to minimize the collateral damage of grass carp
275 control strategies, with means objectives of avoiding economic stress to stakeholders and
276 minimizing the effects on native ecosystems (Figure 3). This fundamental objective was created
277 to acknowledge that control actions for grass carp could have detrimental effects on stakeholders,
278 whether monetarily or in terms of their ability to recreate in desired locations, detrimental effects
279 on other species in the ecosystem, via reduced ability to complete spawning migrations or direct
280 mortality, and could be perceived negatively by stakeholders. For example, walleye (*Sander*
281 *vitreus*) commercial and recreational harvest is of major socio-economic importance in Lake Erie
282 (2018 harvest in western Lake Erie: 2.65 million individuals; Wills et al. 2019) and would be
283 negatively affected by a physical barrier in the study rivers during their spawning migrations. We
284 measured each attribute on a scale that ranged from a major negative effect (-2) to a major
285 positive effect (2). The attributes for economic stress were effects on commercial (e.g., shipping
286 traffic, bait harvesters, grass carp aquaculture facilities) and recreational (e.g., boaters, fishers)
287 stakeholders. Effects on native ecosystems were measured as effects on migratory species whose
288 life history would be negatively affected by a management action and potential non-target
289 mortality to threatened and endangered species, as well as public sentiment (e.g., piscicide use
290 would be viewed negatively).

291 *Alternatives*

292 The goal of the alternatives step is to describe the set of possible actions, or combinations
293 of actions, that could be implemented to achieve the stated objectives (Hammond et al. 1999). In
294 decision analysis, working groups are asked to be creative and determine all possible actions
295 before limiting themselves to feasibility or uncertainty. For the grass carp case study, the
296 working group identified 20 different potential actions, which ranged from currently used
297 strategies (e.g., incentives for commercial fishers to harvest and report grass carp) to strategies
298 that were not yet feasible and with greater uncertainty in effectiveness (e.g., genetic control).
299 Because of the large number of alternatives and the uncertainty regarding their effectiveness and
300 feasibility, we grouped the actions into categories and focused on actions that were feasible in
301 the near-term. The final list of actions included removal (e.g., direct capture, harvest incentives,
302 chemical control), physical or behavioral barriers, flow modifications, and elimination of grass
303 carp sources (Table 1).

304 Discussion among working group members during the alternatives phase highlighted the
305 depth and breadth of uncertainty inherent in grass carp control, and aquatic invasive species
306 response efforts more generally. When describing potential control actions, members of the
307 group often articulated uncertainties related to an action, as well as the specific research areas
308 that should be addressed. Based on these uncertainties, we evaluated four hypothetical scenarios
309 for the consequences stage, rather than formally evaluating each of the management actions in
310 Table 1 individually (DuFour et al. in review). These scenarios were chosen to represent actions
311 that were likely to be implemented in the near future, or that would provide the working group
312 with an understanding of how actions could be combined to potentially increase effectiveness.
313 Scenario 1 (“Take No Management Action”), provided a baseline set of predictions for grass
314 carp population growth without implementation of control actions. Importantly, Scenario 1 was

315 not the same as a “status quo” scenario, because control actions were ongoing in Lake Erie.
316 Scenario 2 was to distribute efforts for removal of grass carp equally across seasons and habitats
317 in western Lake Erie based on current best available information (“Distributed Removal”).
318 Scenario 3 consisted of more concentrated removal efforts in river/wetland habitats during
319 seasons that were predicted by experts to have greater catchability (“Concentrated Removal”).
320 Scenarios 2 and 3, therefore, differed in spatial and temporal allocation of actions, but not in total
321 effort implemented (DuFour et al. in review). Scenario 4 combined the capture techniques of
322 Scenario 3 with a moderately efficient hypothetical barrier (“Removal + Barrier”), which would
323 reduce the movement of fish upstream for spawning by 50%. All of these scenarios assumed that
324 actions targeted age-3 and older individuals, which was the minimum age class that was typically
325 encountered in the field. It is important to note, we did not change any demographic parameters
326 within the population model (see below) between scenarios, but rather where and when effort
327 was applied. Effort (f) was more or less efficient depending on whether it was applied in a high
328 catchability area (nearshore/tributary habitat; q_{high}) or a low catchability area (open
329 lake/offshore habitats; q_{low}), following Bayley and Austen (2002). The annual survival was
330 affected by adding fishing mortality ($F = q_j * f$) to natural mortality in targeted regions and
331 seasons. To mimic a barrier, we changed the migration rate into the Sandusky during spring to
332 summer to allow only half (50%) of potential spawners to reproduce.

333 *Consequences*

334 The consequences step requires predicting the effects of each potential action on each
335 objective in terms of the measurable attributes. We used a combination of participatory modeling
336 and expert elicitation to make predictions for each of our four scenarios (Figure 2).

337 We created a spatially-explicit periodic matrix population model to simulate the effects of
338 management actions on grass carp density throughout the western basin of Lake Erie to measure
339 achievement of the public trust fundamental objective (Figure 3; DuFour et al. in review). Our
340 model added seasonal and spatial components to the matrix model created by Jones et al. (2017)
341 for the binational risk assessment of grass carp in the Great Lakes. The model included five age
342 groups: age-1 through age-4 juveniles and age-5+ adults. The matrix model was structured to
343 allow individuals to move among three regions of the western basin, each of which was
344 comprised of both riverine and nearshore lake habitat, as well as a fourth, “unknown” region that
345 represented emigration from western Lake Erie. The three regions represented the three river
346 systems that would most likely provide suitable spawning habitat for grass carp (Kočovský et al.
347 2012): 1) the Sandusky River and Lake Erie Islands region, 2) the Maumee River and Ohio Lake
348 Region, and 3) the River Raisin and Michigan Lake Region (Figure 1). Each region included two
349 habitat types, river and nearshore, for a total of eight “areas”. The matrix model included four
350 seasons (spring, summer, fall, and winter) that represented three-month time steps, in which fish
351 could move among areas for reproduction and feeding. We chose these seasons to represent the
352 annual feeding and reproductive cycle of grass carp. The initial population abundance for the
353 model was determined via expert elicitation, as the total abundance of grass carp in Lake Erie
354 was unknown (see DuFour et al. in review).

355 The model allowed adults to move into individual rivers for spawning in the spring,
356 based on the probability of suitable spawning conditions (i.e., ideal temperature and flows) in
357 each river as defined in Kočovský et al. (2012), and back into nearshore areas in the fall to feed.
358 To represent stochastic uncertainty in reproduction in the system, suitable spawning conditions
359 were characterized as a probability ($p = 0.68$ in the Sandusky River, $p = 0.84$ in the Maumee

360 River, and $p = 0.05$ in the River Raisin); therefore, these conditions did not necessarily occur
361 each year in model runs. The model included various statistical distributions (e.g., beta
362 distributions to describe survival rates) to incorporate parametric uncertainty into the decision-
363 making process. The model included population vectors and population projection and
364 movement matrices, which were combined to simulate the regional abundance of grass carp on a
365 seasonal time step. The model used for our case study is described in full in DuFour et al. (in
366 review).

367 We used the matrix population model to predict grass carp density in foraging habitat
368 after 60 years of implementation of each of the four scenarios, as well as the probability of
369 maintaining population density below 10 fish per hectare under each scenario, defined as the
370 proportion of the distribution of outcomes from 1,000 stochastic runs of the model that fell below
371 the threshold density.

372 The results of this model were then used, in combination with predicted area of forage
373 habitat (Gertzen et al. 2017), published estimates of vegetation biomass (Duarte and Kalff 1990),
374 and grass carp consumption rates (van der Lee et al. 2017), to predict the proportion of
375 vegetation that would be lost through time via grass carp consumption. We averaged the
376 minimum and maximum values of predicted forage habitat reported in Gertzen et al (2017) to
377 account for uncertainty, with the exception of the model region that included Sandusky Bay.
378 Working group members believed that the maximum estimate from Gertzen et al. (2017) was not
379 realistic, with many participants repeatedly stating that aquatic macrophytes do not cover the
380 entire bay. As a compromise, the working group decided to use an estimate (3,000 ha) that was
381 between the means for the other two regions (1,500 ha each) and the region including Sandusky
382 Bay (~7,000 ha). The biomass estimates included the uncertainty observed in biomass-area

383 relationships from Duarte and Kalff (1990). This study sampled a range of habitats and
384 environmental conditions that included highly productive areas similar to Lake Erie's western
385 basin. Although this study did not include samples from our study area, the working group
386 viewed these samples as representative of biomass fluctuations in this system. By including
387 uncertainty in these data, we buffered our results against error associated with fluctuating
388 environmental conditions over time.

389 We used expert elicitation to determine the effects of grass carp control activities on the
390 measurable attributes of the collateral damage fundamental objective (Figure 3): effects on
391 recreational and commercial stakeholders, migratory fishes, threatened and endangered species,
392 and public sentiment. Unlike the objectives related to grass carp abundance, we elicited the
393 effects of seven individual activities on each of these attributes: direct capture, harvest incentives
394 for commercial fishers, chemical control, behavioral barrier, physical barrier, flow modifications,
395 and reduction of inputs of grass carp into the system. We asked experts to use the direct rating
396 technique (Goodwin and Wright 2009) to determine the relative effect of each action each
397 attribute. These ratings ranged from a major negative effect (score of -2) to a major positive
398 effect (score of 2) and were elicited for eight combinations of season (spring, summer, winter,
399 and fall) and habitat (river or lake). Experts were initially asked to provide responses via email,
400 through a questionnaire that provided background information and explicit instructions. We then
401 used a modified Delphi approach (Kuhnert et al. 2010), in which experts discussed their
402 responses during a workshop and changed their answers if necessary, to determine the final
403 predictions for each attribute. We averaged the experts' responses to obtain an overall rating for
404 each activity in each habitat and season. The season- and habitat-specific ratings for activities
405 that were included in a given scenario were then averaged to determine a score for the overall

406 scenario. For example, Scenario 3 included direct capture that occurred in the lake in spring, fall,
407 and winter, and in the river in the summer, so the ratings for these four seasons and habitats were
408 averaged (see Table S1 for all ratings).

409 We used a constraint of US\$84,000 per year for the measurable attribute for minimizing
410 management costs. In initial population model simulations, we found that this amount of
411 funding, which assumed that 1 km of shoreline could be sampled one time for US\$1000 based on
412 the group's expert knowledge, rendered all scenarios ineffective. Therefore, in our final
413 simulations, we assumed that scenarios would include 500 units of effort to potentially increase
414 effectiveness of actions, similar to DuFour et al. (in review). We also used literature-reported
415 catchability values, for nearshore/tributary habitats (q_{high}) and open lake/offshore habitats
416 (q_{low}), to translate effort to captures (Bayley and Austen 2002).

417 *Tradeoffs*

418 The final step of the decision analysis framework is to evaluate tradeoffs among
419 objectives, because no one management alternative is likely to best achieve all of the stated
420 objectives (Figure 2; Hammond et al. 1999). This step often includes methods like weighted
421 averages, or expected utility scores, which summarize each predicted action into single score for
422 comparison of scores among alternatives. In our case study of Lake Erie grass carp, the decision
423 analysis focused on four hypothetical scenarios that varied in the type of control action and the
424 spatial and temporal application of these actions. We elected to use the results of these scenarios
425 to stimulate discussion about predicted outcomes and potential effects of assigning different
426 weighting schemes to the objectives. We created a consequence table that included the average
427 predicted results, normalized to a 0 – 1 scale, for each combination of objective and action

428 scenario. We polled the working group during the workshop to determine a set of objective
429 weights. We calculated the expected utility score ($E[U]$) for each alternative as:

$$E(U) = w_{Public\ trust} (w_{Spread\ risk} * U_{Spread\ risk} + w_{Vegetation\ loss} * U_{Vegetation\ loss}) + w_{Cost} * U_{Cost} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$
$$+ w_{Collateral\ damage} (w_{Rec.\ users} * U_{Rec.\ users} + w_{Commercial\ users} * U_{Commercial\ users} +$$
$$w_{Migratory} * U_{Migratory} + w_{T\&E\ species} * U_{T\&E\ species} + w_{Public\ sentiment} * U_{Public\ sentiment}),$$

430 where w is the weight on each fundamental or means objective and U is the normalized utility
431 score for an objective, with subscripts describing each objective; T&E is “threatened and
432 endangered”, and Rec. is “recreational”. The scenario with the greatest expected utility score was
433 the “optimal” scenario. We focused on the 25- and 50-year timeframes for the risk of spread /
434 reduce abundance and risk of vegetation loss means objectives. Results of this process provided
435 a framework for the group to discuss potential tradeoffs among objectives, as well as
436 implications associated with the many uncertainties that were revealed during the decision
437 analytic process.

438 *Uncertainty and Sensitivity*

439 During the course of three workshops, participatory modeling efforts, and analyses of
440 tradeoffs, we found many sources of uncertainty, some of which would affect the decision that is
441 made. These uncertainties were related to potential effectiveness of individual control actions,
442 aspects of grass carp demographics in their non-native habitat like population size, survival rates,
443 and the stock-recruitment relationship (formally evaluated in DuFour et al. in review), as well as
444 estimates of potential funding for control efforts. In particular, fishing mortality and reduction in
445 spawning success, both of which were evaluated in the four scenarios, could be affected by key
446 uncertainties related to gear catchability, barrier effectiveness, and frequency of discharge events

447 that are suitable for grass carp spawning. We explored the implications of these uncertainties
448 through a series of population model simulations that varied the effectiveness of these control
449 actions. We predicted the density of grass carp in western Lake Erie under seven different levels
450 of fishing mortality ($F = 0.00, 0.20, 0.30, 0.40, 0.50, 0.60$) to mimic concentrated removal efforts
451 (we did not explore this under distributed removal efforts as in scenario 2), 10 passage rates for a
452 barrier on the Sandusky River ($P = 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, \text{ and } 100\%$), and five
453 different frequencies of suitable spawning discharge events (proportional reductions of suitable
454 spawning discharge events on each of the three rivers of 20, 40, 60, 80, and 100%) to mimic flow
455 modifications.

456 We also assessed the sensitivity of the decision to changes in thresholds for grass carp
457 density and vegetation loss, as well as the weights assigned to the fundamental objectives. We
458 chose alternative grass carp density thresholds of less than two fish per hectare and less than 16
459 fish per hectare— the minimum and maximum densities used by Gertzen et al. (2017) when
460 evaluating the ecological consequences of grass carp on low marsh habitat. We used the values
461 from the 95% confidence intervals (26% and 43%) of the expert elicitations for vegetation loss
462 described above. We calculated the expected utility value for each scenario under these
463 alternative thresholds, holding all else constant while changing the predicted outcomes for one
464 objective at a time. To evaluate the effects of different weights on the fundamental objectives,
465 we created a set of indifference curves in which we varied weights on the different objectives
466 and calculated the corresponding expected utility scores. We first varied the weight on the public
467 trust objective from 0.25 to 0.50, in increments of 0.05, while adding or subtracting the weights
468 equally from the costs and collateral damage objectives to maintain the same relative weight on

469 these two objectives. We then varied the weight on the cost and collateral damage objective
470 while holding the public trust weight steady at 0.5.

471 **Results**

472 As with many invasive species decision problems, our case study was a multi-objective
473 problem with a high degree of uncertainty. We present the results (consequences and tradeoffs)
474 from our evaluation of the four case study scenarios and expert elicitation for objectives that
475 were not directly related to grass carp population dynamics, as well as the key uncertainties that
476 were revealed during the decision analytic process.

477 *Consequences*

478 We evaluated the four hypothetical control scenarios in terms of their ability to achieve
479 the fundamental objective of fulfilling the public trust, measured as the probability of exceeding
480 a target density threshold (10 fish/ha) and the probability of meeting the threshold of <34%
481 vegetation loss at 5-, 10-, 25-, and 50-year time steps. Here, we highlight the response scenario
482 outcomes at the 25- and 50-year time steps (Figure 4). This exercise brought to light two key
483 findings related to removal efforts and barrier effects. First, removal-only efforts (Scenarios 2
484 and 3) reduced population growth rates and terminal density, with concentrated removal
485 (Scenario 3) having a slightly greater effect (Figure 4A). Concentrated removal efforts had a
486 91% probability of maintaining grass carp densities below the 10 fish/ha target threshold, but
487 that probability was reduced to 8% after 50 years, since the population was projected to continue
488 to grow (Figure 4B). Second, the addition of a barrier to concentrated removal efforts (Scenario
489 4) resulted in the greatest effect on the population, reducing both growth rate and terminal
490 density (Figure 4B). At the 25-year time-step, there was a 100% probability that grass carp
491 densities would be below the threshold, and at 50 years this probably was 95% (Figure 4B). This

492 exercise demonstrated that removal efforts coupled with a barrier on the Sandusky River could
493 be a useful management strategy moving forward; however, key uncertainties surrounding
494 capture efficiencies and barrier feasibility limited our ability to recommend precise levels of
495 capture and removal effort or specific barrier designs/locations. Moving forward, any increase in
496 removal effort and reduction in spawning success would have a positive effect as the group
497 works to better understand these critical uncertainties.

498 Vegetation loss was closely tied to grass carp densities, because annual vegetation
499 biomass estimates (Duarte and Kalff 1990) and grass carp consumption rates (van der Lee et al.
500 2017) were fixed across years. As a result, the pattern of meeting our vegetation loss
501 management target mirrored that of meeting our grass carp density target, with increasing
502 probabilities with increased efforts (Scenario 1, year 25 = 0.0%; Scenario 4, year 25 = 93.1%)
503 and decreasing probabilities through time as grass carp abundance increased (Scenario 4, year 50
504 = 67.0%).

505 The effects of management actions on the attributes of collateral damage varied greatly.
506 We found that in some instances, a control action was predicted to perform well at improving
507 public sentiment even if it would potentially pose a risk to other aspects of the social or
508 environmental landscape. For example, although direct capture was predicted to result in a minor
509 improvement in public sentiment (0.833–1.000; Table S1), there was a risk of a minor negative
510 effect on recreational and commercial stakeholders, migratory species, and threatened and
511 endangered species (range of scores across measures = -1.056– -0.444; Table S1, Figure 5). For
512 other control techniques, experts predicted a minor to major negative effect for all measurable
513 attributes, especially for chemical control and a physical barrier, the two lowest-scoring control
514 actions (Table S1, Figure 5).

515 *Tradeoffs*

516 Although the four scenarios that we evaluated were not meant to be prescriptive sets of
517 actions that could immediately be implemented to control grass carp abundance, we evaluated
518 these scenarios in a consequence table framework to stimulate discussion about objectives and
519 weights, as well as potential tradeoffs among objectives. The group indicated that fulfilling the
520 public trust was the most important objective, and therefore placed 50% of the weight on this
521 objective, 26% on minimizing collateral damage, and 24% on minimizing management costs. In
522 the cases for which there were multiple means objectives or measures, the weights for the
523 fundamental objective were distributed evenly among the means objectives and attributes.
524 Although we evaluated both a 25- and 50-year timeframe, we present the results for 50 years
525 because the results for 25 years were quite similar, with identical scenario ranks. At year 50,
526 Scenario 4 (“Removal + Barrier”) had the greatest expected utility score (0.552), followed by
527 Scenario 1 (“Take No Management Action”; Table 2). The other two scenarios scored much
528 lower. Notably, Scenario 3 (“Concentrated Removal”) ranked second at year 25 because the
529 probability of exceeding the grass carp density threshold was still quite high (Figure 4B).
530 Scenario 4 best achieved objectives related to reducing grass carp abundance (public trust), while
531 scoring worst for minimizing costs and for four of the five objectives related to collateral damage
532 (Table 2). Scenario 1 ranked second at year 50 because although it did not achieve objectives
533 related to grass carp population abundance, the other scenarios only performed marginally better
534 than no management action, based upon the weights that were generated through expert
535 elicitation, while costing more and potentially affecting stakeholders and other species.

536 *Uncertainty and Sensitivity*

537 The working group generated a large list of uncertainties, many of which affected the
538 ultimate choice of control actions for grass carp in Lake Erie. We evaluated the effects of
539 uncertainties in the population model through a formal sensitivity analysis (DuFour et al. in
540 review) and found that predicted grass carp population growth rates were most sensitive to
541 uncertainties in survival, the parameters of the stock-recruitment model, and the frequency of
542 suitable spawning events.

543 In the case of uncertainty in the effects of fishing mortality, we found that $F > 0.40$ would
544 maintain an already low population below the target density of 10 fish per hectare of forage
545 habitat after 60 years (Figure 6). This result suggested that direct capture methods that could
546 achieve these levels of F would be effective control measures. However, a key remaining
547 uncertainty for direct capture is carp catchability (q) with the potential gear types. Fishing
548 mortality is proportional to the product of catchability and effort. Therefore, resolving
549 uncertainty in catchability with specific gear types used for direct capture will provide an
550 estimate of effort required to achieve the target level of F , and allow for a more robust evaluation
551 of the cost objective.

552 After 60 years of implementation of a hypothetical barrier, we found that the total density
553 of fish was still increasing under the $P = 25\%$ simulation, indicating that potentially reducing
554 passage rates below this threshold could maintain population density below the 10 fish per ha
555 threshold (Figure 7). Similarly, the population density would remain below the threshold if high
556 flow events in western Lake Erie were reduced by more than 80% across the three river systems
557 (Figure 8). Our results indicated that methods to reduce access to spawning habitat by grass carp
558 are hindered by uncertainties in how to construct barriers or modify flow to meet these

559 requirements for effectiveness, as well as how climate change might influence their
560 effectiveness.

561 When evaluating the sensitivity of the decision to changes in the thresholds for grass carp
562 density or vegetation loss, we found no difference in scenario ranks, with the expected utility
563 scores for Scenario 4 and Scenario 1 remaining the same throughout the sensitivity analyses
564 (Tables S2 – S5). We found that when varying the weight applied to the public trust fundamental
565 objective, Scenario 4 was optimal when the weight on public trust was greater than 0.40,
566 otherwise, Scenario 1 was favored, indicating that decision makers must consider the relative
567 value associated with efforts that could effectively control grass carp but affect other
568 stakeholders or the ecosystem. There was no change in the ranks of the scenarios when varying
569 the weights on the costs and collateral damage objectives, though Scenarios 1 and 4 were equally
570 favored when there was no weight assigned to collateral damage.

571 **Discussion**

572 As with many decisions regarding control of an invasive species, decision-making for
573 grass carp control in Lake Erie was confounded by high uncertainty about population dynamics
574 and effectiveness of potential actions, the existence of multiple decision makers across several
575 jurisdictions at state, provincial, and federal levels, and source and magnitude of external inputs.
576 These common characteristics of difficult problems led biologists, managers, and academics to
577 convene for a series of multi-party collaborative decision analysis workshops. In these
578 workshops, the working group agreed on the nature of the problem, identified a set of ecological,
579 economic, and social objectives that must be achieved, and created a list of potential actions for
580 grass carp control. Through processes of participatory modeling and expert elicitation, we

581 predicted the consequences of a set of control scenarios on the objectives and considered how
582 tradeoffs should be made among these objectives.

583 Some of the identified actions could be effective at controlling the grass carp population
584 to a threshold level established by the experts in our working group, based on prior risk
585 assessments (Cudmore et al. 2017). However, there were key uncertainties that would impede
586 response efforts and that should be resolved. In particular, our modeling framework allowed us
587 to assess the sensitivity of outcomes of interest to uncertainties in important demographic rates
588 (DuFour et al. in review), as well as evaluate other structural uncertainties related to the level of
589 effectiveness necessary for certain control actions to achieve desired outcomes. These structural
590 uncertainties are a hallmark of invasive species control (Blomquist et al. 2010; Johnson et al.
591 2017), as managers and biologists are often tasked with making control decisions without clear
592 data about population dynamics of the introduced population or the effectiveness of potential
593 control actions on a new species in the environment. Importantly, sensitivity analyses indicated
594 that the decision among our hypothetical scenarios was robust to different threshold levels of
595 grass carp density and vegetation removed, but that as the amount of weight that stakeholders
596 place on the public trust objective, which encompasses these measures, is decreased, the “Do
597 Nothing” scenario shifted to the highest rank. As the group moves forward with evaluating actual
598 control scenarios, they will need to carefully refine the weights on their fundamental objectives
599 to reflect how the decision makers value the predicted achievement of these objectives. We also
600 acknowledge that uncertainties related to the areal density of macrophytes, as described in
601 Gertzen et al. (2017), could influence the ultimate decision and could be explored in the future.

602 In addition, the group agreed that the lack of an estimate of current population size for
603 grass carp in Lake Erie was a key uncertainty. Although the population model results indicated

604 that changes in initial population size did not affect the outcome of simulated management
605 scenarios, understanding where the Lake Erie grass carp population is on the invasion curve
606 (Forcella and Harvey 1983) would provide the group with insight into how to adjust or
607 implement management actions. Group members also indicated that an estimate of population
608 size would aid agency personnel in communication with the public about the nature of the
609 problem and the removal capacity relative to population size. This result has encouraged
610 collaboration among researchers (i.e., telemetry and removal efforts and multi-jurisdictional
611 coordination) to begin to develop preliminary population estimates.

612 Based on these key uncertainties, the working group has transitioned to an adaptive
613 management framework for grass carp control in Lake Erie. Adaptive management is a form of
614 decision analysis in which experimental control or management actions are implemented, and
615 through monitoring efforts, data are collected to update the predictive models from the structured
616 decision-making process (Figure 2; Walters 1986; Williams et al. 2002). In particular, direct
617 capture actions are being implemented in an adaptive framework to reduce uncertainty about
618 catchability estimates, which will be used to estimate the expected gear-specific fishing
619 mortality, F , and update the population model. In addition, we suggest that experimental control
620 actions can be implemented to reduce uncertainty around other aspects of grass carp control,
621 such as effectiveness of physical or behavioral barriers. Although one of our scenarios included a
622 seasonal barrier, this was simply simulated as a decrease in passability of adult grass carp.
623 Members of the working group are now evaluating the feasibility of constructing a seasonal
624 barrier on the Sandusky River (Herbst et al. in review).

625 Inherent in the adaptive management framework for grass carp is the ability to make
626 predictions with a quantitative model (DuFour et al. in review) that can be updated through the

627 implementation of control actions, rather than as a trial and error approach to control. A similar
628 predictive framework and adaptive management process could be useful for control and
629 eradication of other invasive species, particularly in systems similar to Lake Erie– large, multi-
630 jurisdictional aquatic ecosystems with potential for high social indeterminism, such as a recently-
631 identified potentially reproductive population of grass carp in the Colorado River, USA
632 (Brandenburg et al. 2019). In our case study with grass carp, an added benefit of the iterative
633 nature of decision making under adaptive management is the ability for players within the
634 agencies represented to increase their engagement as the process continues, thereby developing a
635 greater capacity for social adaptation (Tyre and Michaels 2011). Since the inception of the SDM
636 process, the group has grown and remained inclusive to new members that are willing to
637 contribute to the adaptive management process.

638 Although the evaluation of uncertainty is crucial for decisions related to invasive species
639 control, we also highlight other benefits of the multi-party collaborative effort for this decision
640 problem. The working group was composed of members from many different agencies,
641 institutions, and commissions, all of which had different needs and interests related to grass carp
642 control and eradication. Members of this group were the experts in the control of this species, as
643 well as other aquatic invasive organisms in the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River drainage.
644 The decision analytic process provided a way for all group members to explicitly define the
645 scope of the problem and build a shared set of values and objectives, which had not been
646 discussed previously. Although participants began the process acknowledging that the problem
647 was quite complex, decision analysis allowed for this complexity to be defined and broken down
648 into component parts for analysis. Consequently, the group better understood the complexity at
649 hand and how the decision analytic process helped to make that complexity more manageable.

650 The participatory model building also led directly to a population model designed to predict the
651 effects of control actions on grass carp, and a framework to inform control actions that could be
652 implemented to reduce critical uncertainties (Herbst et al. in review).

653 The SDM workshops also served a dual purpose of convening a group to work on the
654 decision analytic process for grass carp and providing a forum for these experts to share the
655 results of their research and control efforts for this species. Through these workshops, the group
656 formed a sense of shared purpose, which has translated to collaborative efforts in the western
657 basin of Lake Erie, including data sharing, a unified calendar of field efforts for all jurisdictions
658 and researchers, and the creation of field teams specific to grass carp control in the Michigan and
659 Ohio Departments of Natural Resources and the United States Fish and Wildlife Service, as well
660 as binational cooperation and assistance of Fisheries and Oceans Canada and the Ontario
661 Ministry of Natural Resources and Forestry. All of these agencies work together on control
662 efforts within and outside of their individual jurisdictions, along with researchers from academic
663 institutions (Herbst et al. in review). Finally, the SDM workshops have resulted in management
664 plans for grass carp in both Michigan and Ohio, an adaptive response strategy document created
665 by the Lake Erie Committee, and extended commitment of time and resources to continue the
666 adaptive management process (Herbst et al. in review).

667 Our case study details how decision analysis can be used to guide development of a
668 strategy for controlling an invasive species. Although we provide details about grass carp
669 management, we believe that this framework is equally beneficial to other invasive species
670 control problems in the Great Lakes and other regions where similar epistemic and institutional
671 impediments exist. The decision analytic framework allowed us to bring together experts from
672 throughout the region to work collaboratively on a shared problem. We also determined which

673 uncertainties, of a set of many, should be reduced through adaptive management, ultimately
674 leading to better decisions about the most appropriate response actions in the future, given a
675 well-defined set of objectives. The population model that we created for this project (DuFour et
676 al. in review) can be applied to other species and regions, especially other invasive Chinese carps
677 or species of concern, like northern snakehead (*Channa argus*). Finally, this process has led to
678 new collaborations in control and research for grass carp and other invasive species.

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818

819 **Figures**

820 Figure 1: Lake Erie's western basin, including three systems with potential for reproduction of
821 grass carp—the Maumee, Sandusky, and Raisin rivers. Low marsh habitat, as delineated by
822 Gertzen et al. (2017), is represented in green along coastal margins.

823 Figure 2: The decision analysis process used for making decisions about grass carp control in
824 Lake Erie. Solid arrows indicate the direction of movement through each step. The dotted arrow
825 indicates how results of monitoring can be used to update model predictions in the consequences
826 step when implementing adaptive management to reduce key uncertainties.

827 Figure 3: Objectives hierarchy depicting the fundamental (black) and means (dark gray)
828 objectives of the decision process for grass carp control in Lake Erie. Light gray boxes indicate
829 potential actions that could be implemented. T & E = threatened and endangered, min. =
830 minimize, max. = maximize, GC = grass carp.

831 Figure 4: Projections of A) the total density (fish/ha) of grass carp and B) the probability of the
832 density of grass carp exceeding the 10 fish/ha threshold after 25 (squares) and 50 (circles) years
833 under four different hypothetical control scenarios in western Lake Erie. In panel B, light grey
834 bars represent the 50% credible intervals of the population model projections, and dark grey bars
835 represent the 95% credible intervals. The vertical dashed line identifies the 10 fish/ha threshold
836 identified by the working group.

837 Figure 5: Relative economic effects of each control action type for grass carp in Lake Erie on
838 recreational (A) and commercial (B) stakeholders, and relative effects on native ecosystems for
839 migratory fishes (C), threatened and endangered species (D), and public perception (E) of
840 stakeholders across seasons and habitats.

841 Figure 6: Grass carp density projections in western Lake Erie under increasing levels of direct
842 capture, represented as fishing mortality (F).

843 Figure 7: Grass carp density projections in western Lake Erie under declining passage rates (P)
844 on the Sandusky River, Ohio, USA, during the spawning season, representing increasing barrier
845 effectiveness.

846 Figure 8: Grass carp density projections in western Lake Erie under decreasing frequency of
847 high-quality discharge events (HQ), as defined by Kočovský et al. (2012), mimicking flow
848 modifications to reduce spawning. The probability of high-quality discharged events in a given
849 year in each river was proportionally reduced from starting values of $p = 0.68$ in the Sandusky
850 River, $p = 0.84$ in the Maumee River, and $p = 0.05$ in the River Raisin for each model run.

851 Table 1: Examples of the set of alternatives considered by the working group for the control of
 852 grass carp in Lake Erie. Alternatives were grouped into management action categories that
 853 represented similar outcomes (e.g., removal actions or implementation of a barrier).

Management Action Category	Action Type	Specific Actions
Removal	Direct capture	Large seines, trammel net + electrofishing, electrofishing only
	Harvest incentives	Commercial reward, increased outreach, bow-fishing tournament
	Chemical control	General toxicant (e.g., rotenone), ingestible toxicant
Barriers	Behavioral	Acoustic, bubbles, CO ₂ , strobe light (alone or in combination), electric
	Physical	Western and temporary salmon weirs, submerged retractable and inflatable dams
Habitat modifications	Flow modifications	Reduce flows to inhibit reproduction, increase flows to attract to undesirable locations
Eliminate inputs	Reduce inputs	Reduce diploid contamination of triploid shipments, monitoring and enforcement

854 Table 2: Consequence table with predicted outcomes, scaled from 0 – 1, for each objective under four hypothetical scenarios of grass
855 carp control in Lake Erie after 50 years of implementation. w_{FO} = weight on fundamental objective, w_{MO} = weight on means objective,
856 min = minimize. Bolded numbers represent the scenario that best achieves a given objective, italicized numbers represent the scenario
857 that performs worst at achieving a given objective. $E(U)$ = expected utility score.

			Hypothetical Scenarios						
Fundamental Objective	Means Objective	Measure	1	2	3	4	w_{FO}	w_{MO}	
Fulfill public trust	Min. risk of spread	Probability meeting threshold (<10 fish/ha)	<i>0.000</i>	0.000	0.081	1.000	0.50	0.50	
	Min. vegetation loss	Probability of meeting threshold (< 34% loss)	<i>0.000</i>	0.007	0.061	1.000		0.50	
Min. Management Costs	Min. money spent	<US\$84,000 per year	1.000	<i>0.000</i>	<i>0.000</i>	<i>0.000</i>	0.24	1.00	
Min. collateral damage	Min. economic stress	Constructed scale for recreational users	1.000	0.162	0.161	<i>0.000</i>	0.26	0.20	
		Constructed scale for commercial users	1.000	0.086	0.096	<i>0.000</i>		0.20	
	Min. effects on native ecosystems	Constructed scale-effects on migratory fishes	1.000	0.261	0.252	<i>0.000</i>		0.20	
		Constructed scale-threatened/endangered	1.000	0.183	0.176	<i>0.000</i>		0.20	
		Constructed scale-public sentiment	<i>0.000</i>	1.000	0.991	0.991		0.20	
$E(U)$			0.448	<i>0.090</i>	0.123	0.552			

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Figure 1
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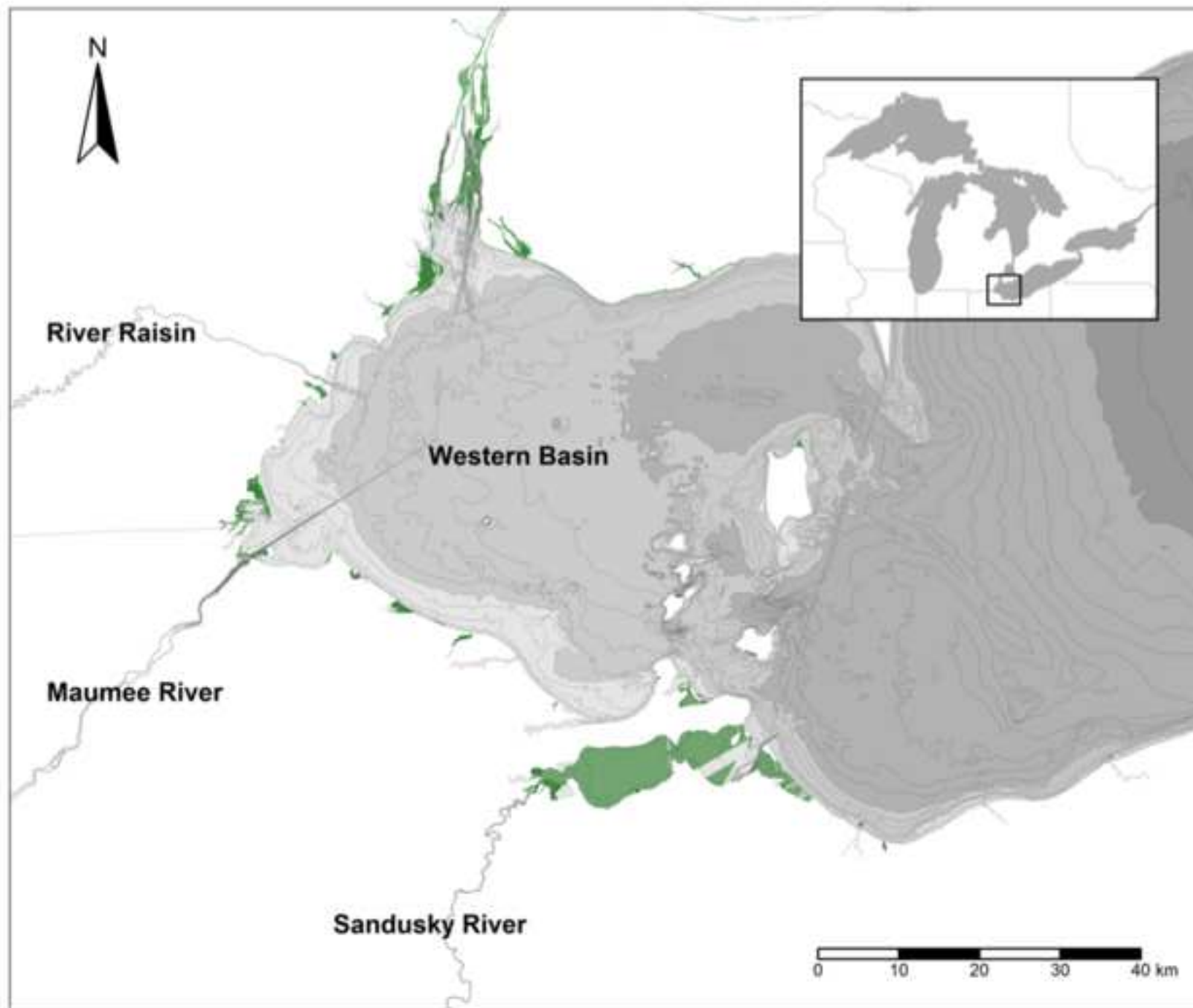


Figure 2

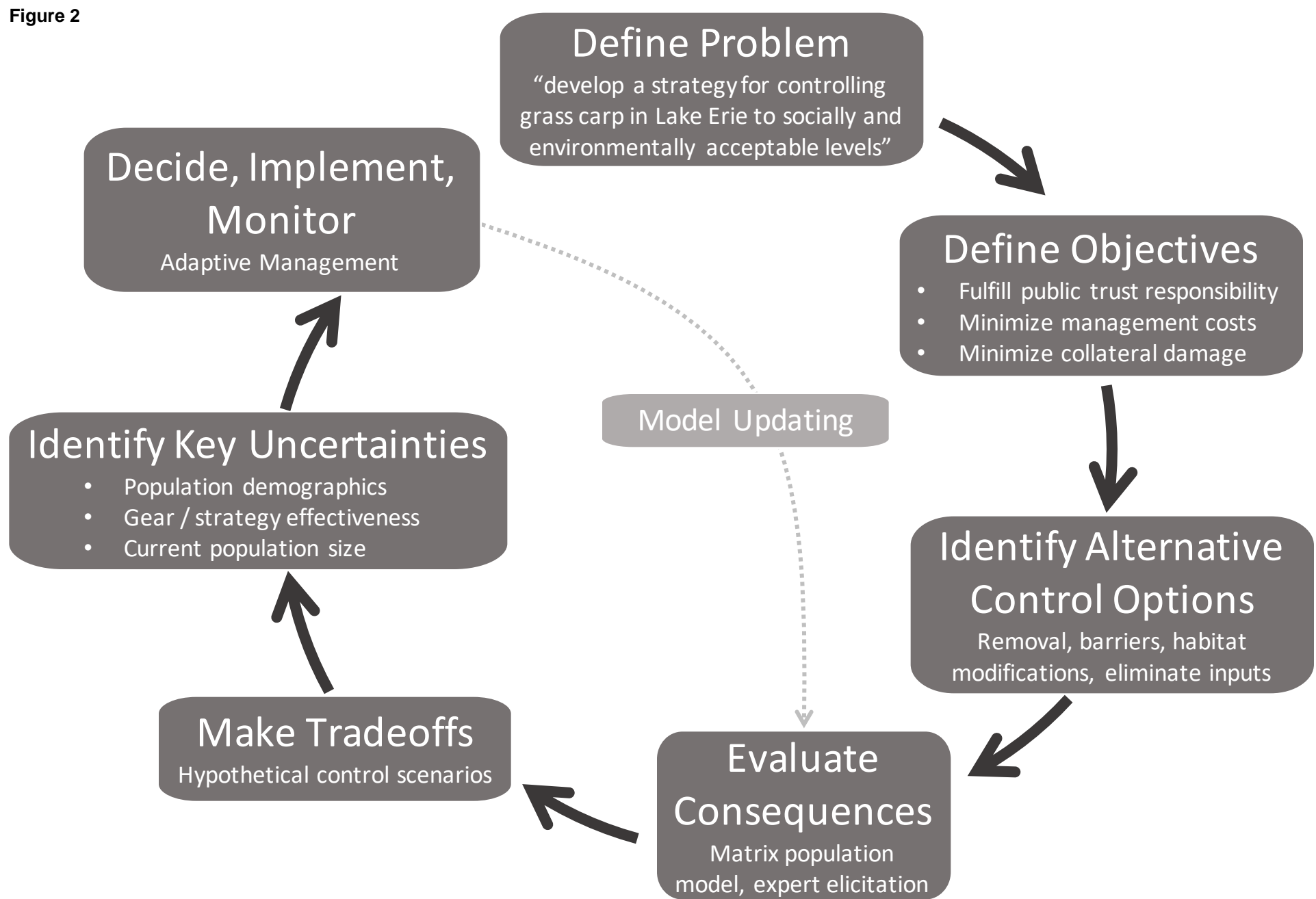


Figure 3

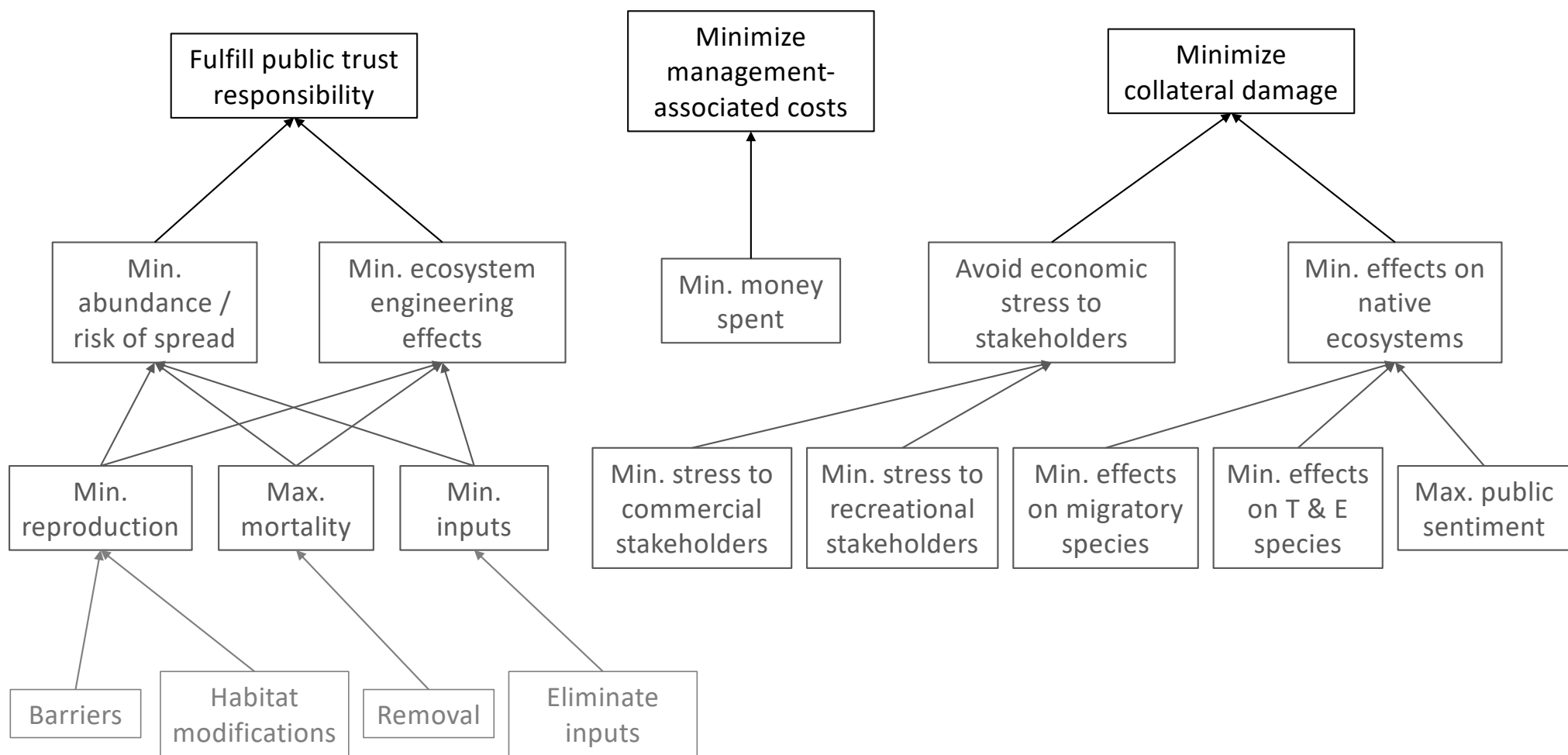


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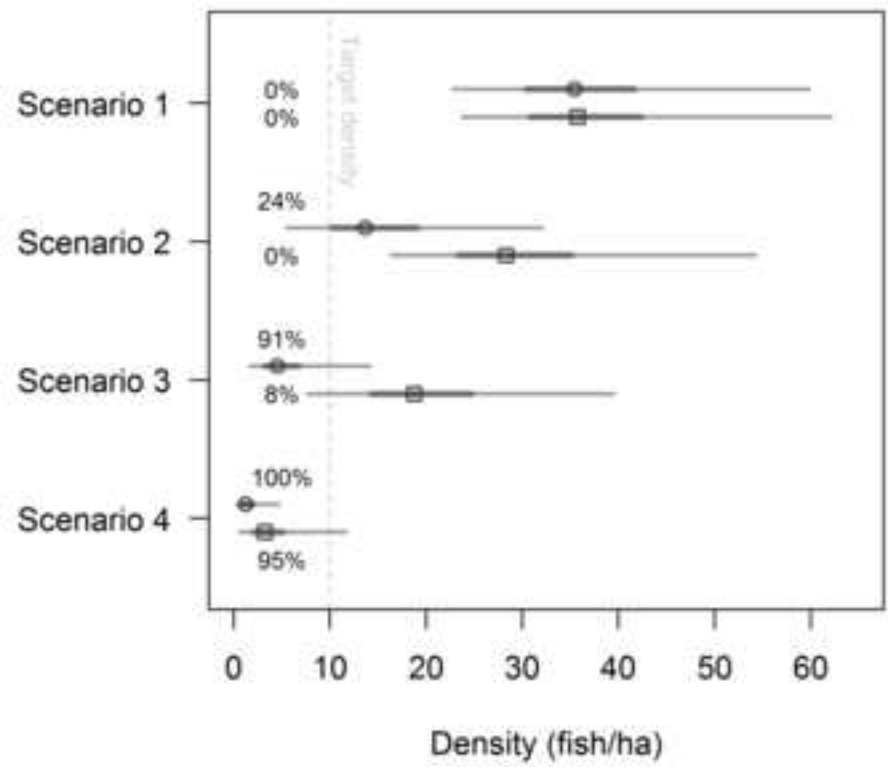
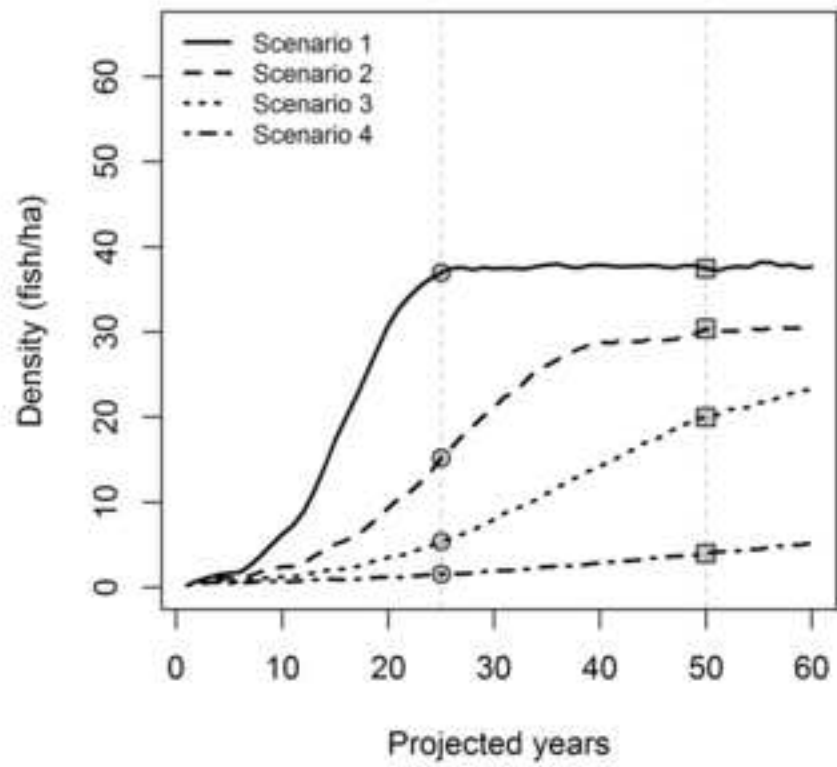


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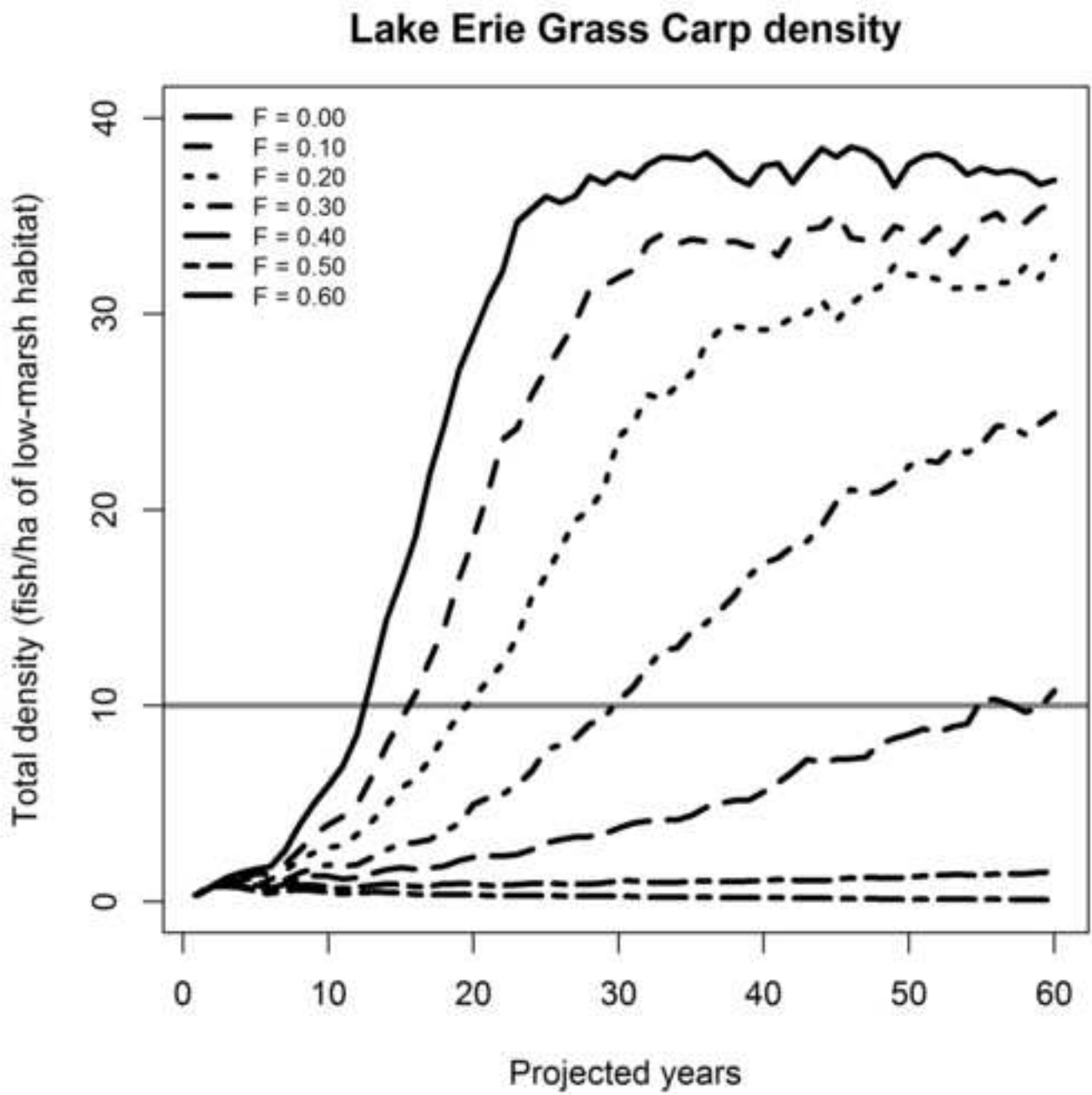


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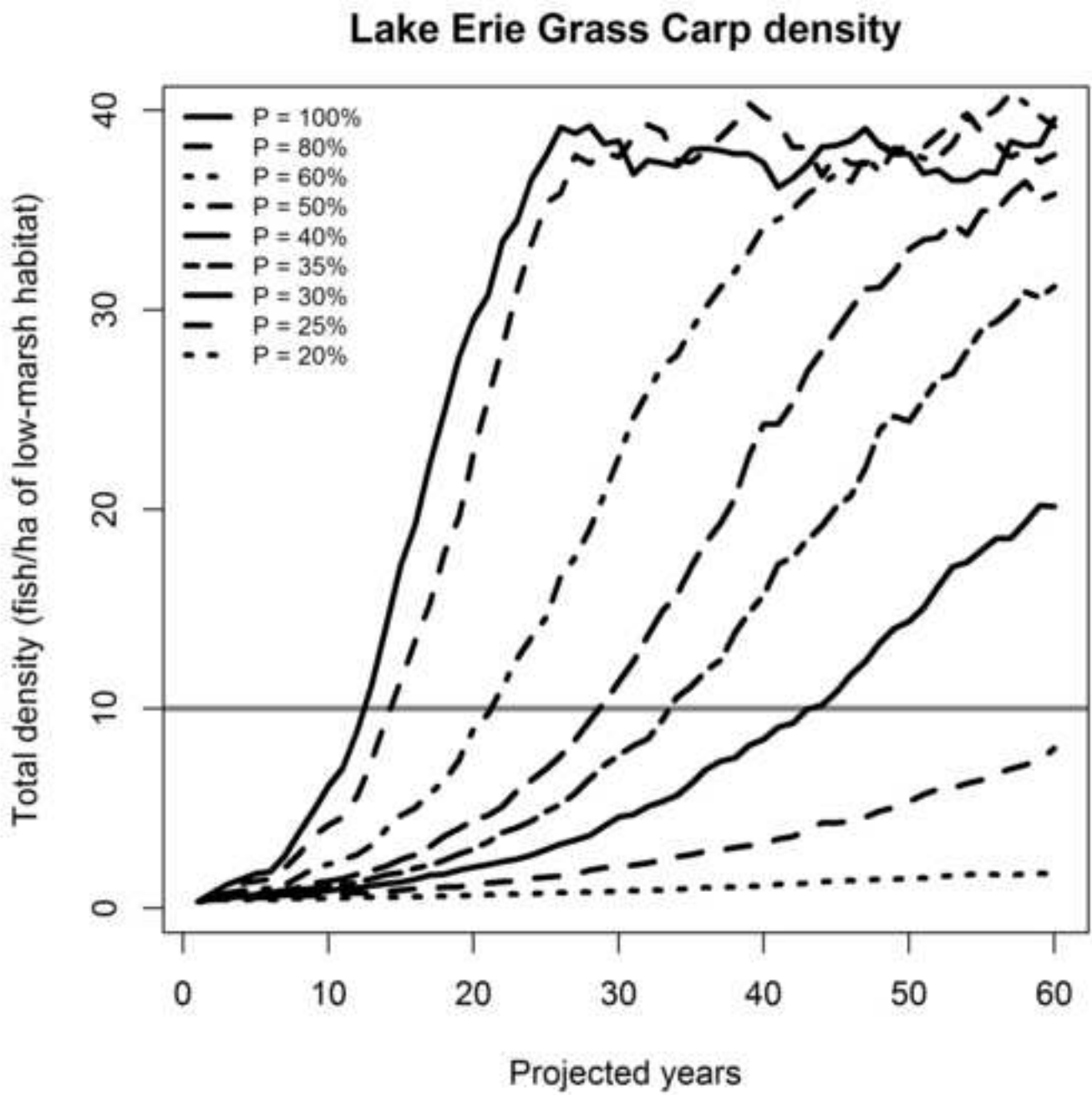


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