

1 **LIONS, TROPHY HUNTING AND BEYOND, KNOWN UNKNOWNNS**  
2 **AND WHY THEY MATTER**

3  
4

5 **Abstract**

6 What does trophy hunting contribute to wild lion conservation? What constitutes  
7 best practice? D.W. Macdonald (2016) summarises what we know. However, in the  
8 much, but perhaps unfairly, mocked words of Donald Rumsfeld, there are knowns,  
9 known unknowns and unknown unknowns. We identified gaps in knowledge  
10 inhibiting conservation planning in several areas: these areas included the causes of  
11 lion mortality, the amount of land used for lion trophy hunting, the extent to which  
12 trophy hunting depends on lions for financial viability, and the vulnerability of areas  
13 currently used for trophy hunting to conversion to non wildlife-based land uses if it  
14 were to cease.

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16 Key Words: Lions, trophy hunting, economics, ethics

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18 Running head: Unknowns in trophy hunting

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20 Word Count: 4,806

21

22 **Background**

23

24 Lions, the iconic symbol of the African wilderness, are in trouble. The latest IUCN  
25 estimates suggest a population of 23,000 – 39,000 (probably closer to the lower  
26 estimate), a decline of at least 43% between 1993 and 2014, approximately three  
27 lion generations (Bauer et al. 2015). Lions have been extirpated from at least 92% of  
28 their historic range. According to the 2016 Red List Assessment, in Africa, lions are  
29 almost certainly extinct in 15 countries, possibly extinct in another seven, and now  
30 occur in only 25 countries (Bauer et al. 2016). Lion decline may be even more severe  
31 than estimated by the IUCN (IUCN 2006a, 2006b), whose assessment is based on  
32 well-known populations which tend to be in a better state. Only six populations have

33 more than 1000 lions (Selous-Niassa, Serengeti-Mara, Kavango-Zambezi, Greater  
34 Limpopo, Katavi-Ruaha and Kgalagadi). About half of the remaining wild populations  
35 comprise fewer than 100 individuals (Dickman et al. submitted). Lion populations  
36 are in crisis, due primarily to the loss and degradation of habitat, loss of prey, and  
37 conflict with people (Panthera et al. 2016), pressures exacerbated when they are  
38 small, isolated and poorly managed (IUCN 2006a, 2006b; Henschel et al. 2014).

39

40 Public interest in lion conservation was stimulated in July 2015 with the killing of a  
41 well-known lion nicknamed 'Cecil' (D. W. Macdonald et al. 2016a). Fierce debate has  
42 since raged over whether trophy hunting is good or bad for lion conservation. To be  
43 clear, trophy hunting *"generally involves the payment of a fee by a foreign or local*  
44 *hunter for a hunting experience, usually guided, for one or more individuals of a*  
45 *particular species with specific desired characteristics (such as large size or antlers).*  
46 *The trophy is usually retained by the hunter and taken home"* (IUCN 2016).

47

48 This debate would be informed by identifying the conditions where trophy hunting  
49 contributes to lion conservation, if indeed such conditions prevail anywhere.  
50 Whether trophy hunting lions is ethically acceptable is a distinct debate, which we  
51 enlarge on below. Some hold trophy hunting in such moral repugnance that *any*  
52 benefit to conservation is insufficient to justify it. This view may come to prevail, and  
53 perhaps a majority of the Western public already holds it (although the balance of  
54 opinion probably varies from place to place, notably between the West and range  
55 states). Until the part played by trophy hunting is known and, as necessary,  
56 alternative means of financing lion conservation are in place, we have defended a  
57 more utilitarian population-based perspective, arguing that the cost of implementing  
58 such a moral imperative may be too high if no better alternative for lion  
59 conservation is available (David W. Macdonald et al. 2016b). We support the  
60 cessation of trophy hunting where it is clearly inimical to conservation, and its  
61 reform where it is better for conservation than any viable alternative land use. While  
62 lion hunting exists, it should, at least, be sustainable. An account of the evidence  
63 base for assessing its sustainability is presented in Macdonald (2016, available at  
64 <https://www.wildcru.org/wp->

65 [content/uploads/2016/12/Report\\_on\\_lion\\_conservation.pdf](content/uploads/2016/12/Report_on_lion_conservation.pdf)). In compiling that  
66 evidence base, we were, however, thwarted by a surprising lack of information on  
67 several important issues.

68

69 We identified a conspicuous knowledge gap concerning the causes of lion mortality.  
70 At both national and regional scales trophy hunting of wild lions has been ranked  
71 relatively low as a threat (IUCN 2006a, 2006b). (We do not consider “canned”  
72 hunting where captive-bred lions are hunted, which has little relevance to wild lion  
73 conservation). However, there is evidence that over-hunting has reduced lion  
74 numbers at national scales - such an effect was particularly clear in Tanzania (Packer  
75 et al. 2011). In unfenced reserves, large-scale population growth rates were lower in  
76 the presence of trophy hunting (Packer et al. 2013). It is also clear that badly  
77 regulated hunting can be locally damaging (Caro et al. 2009; Packer 2015; Creel et al.  
78 2016).

79

80 Trophy hunting is not the only reason lions are killed. How the number of lions killed  
81 by trophy hunting compares with those killed by snaring or human-lion conflict is  
82 known only for a few localities (eg Loveridge et al.(2016)), and conventional  
83 ecological methods for estimating mortality have been found to underestimate rates  
84 of illegal killings, such as poaching, relative to legal killings, for example trophy  
85 hunting (Treves et al. 2017). Mortality due to conflict with local people may be  
86 orders of magnitude greater than that due to international trophy hunters: in  
87 Tanzania’s Ruaha landscape, at least 37 lions were killed in 2011 due to conflict, in  
88 an area of less than 500km<sup>2</sup>, making the offtake over 100 times higher than the  
89 recommended maximum offtake for a trophy hunting area (Dickman in prep).  
90 Recently, concern over lions being poisoned as an incidental outcome of attempts to  
91 disguise elephant poaching has gained prominence (Sandhu 2016). There are other  
92 places (e.g. Hwange, (Loveridge et al. 2016)) where trophy hunting is the main cause  
93 of mortality for adult male lions. However, in many places the balance of these  
94 factors is unknown , although it is suspected that across Africa many more lions die  
95 due to conflict than are killed by trophy hunters (Panthera et al. 2016).

96

97

98 Where trophy hunting occurs, its mortality is probably additive. In addition, it can  
99 lead to a cascade of indirect mortality through social perturbation (the perturbation  
100 effects of other sources of mortality have not been studied). But even where other  
101 sources of mortality predominate, it is theoretically possible for a small amount of  
102 additive mortality to tip the balance from a scenario where a population is stable or  
103 increasing to one where the population growth rate is negative. Creel et al. (2016)  
104 concluded that for trophy hunting to be sustainable under the conditions most lions  
105 experience, total mortality needs to be reduced. Where other sources of mortality  
106 dominate, tackling them is likely to be the priority. It is clear that there will be many  
107 places where focussing on a single threat to lions, whether trophy hunting or any  
108 other cause, will be inadequate for effective conservation. A holistic approach,  
109 considering all the threats and their interconnections, is most likely to succeed.

110

111 As with photo-tourism, trophy hunting can protect wildlife by providing an economic  
112 reason for land being maintained under a wildlife-based land use. Income from  
113 trophy hunting can be a significant source of income for government bodies  
114 responsible for managing wildlife – the Wildlife Division in Tanzania for example  
115 makes 60% of its income from trophy hunting licence fees (Estes 2015). Major  
116 unknowns therefore include the likely, but inconclusively demonstrated, positive  
117 roles of trophy hunting in creating economic incentives for wildlife-based land use,  
118 whether on private, state or communal land. It may also provide anti-poaching  
119 presence in wildlife areas together with general management such as maintenance  
120 of boreholes. How widely land managed for hunting is well managed for non-hunted  
121 species is also poorly understood.

122

123 The continued availability of land for lions is clearly crucial for their conservation.  
124 Our review of the evidence led to the conclusion that trophy hunting's greatest  
125 contribution to lion (and wider) conservation lay in providing an incentive to retain  
126 wildlife habitat that might otherwise be lost to agriculture or pastoralism (D.W.  
127 Macdonald 2016). It is vital therefore to know how much lion habitat there is, where  
128 it is, how many lions it supports and how it is managed. Large areas of wilderness

129 are used for lion hunting, but there are few recent estimates of precisely how much.  
130 Lindsey et al. (2013) estimated that lions were hunted across around 558,000km<sup>2</sup>,  
131 which comprised 27-32% of the lion range in countries which hunted them. There  
132 have been no published updates since Botswana banned lion hunting in 2008 (and  
133 all hunting in public areas in 2014) or since Zambia imposed a lion hunting  
134 moratorium between 2013 and 2016. Also, since Lindsey et al.'s estimate, human  
135 encroachment has caused losses of hunting land: Packer (2015) estimates that 40%  
136 of hunting blocks in Tanzania have been abandoned in the last decade. Hunting  
137 blocks elsewhere have also been abandoned after becoming depleted and unviable  
138 (P. A. Lindsey et al. 2016). If not used for hunting, a lot of that land would be likely to  
139 be lost to wildlife, by for example being converted to agriculture or livestock grazing.  
140 In some areas, where economic forces did not prompt conversion, lions and their  
141 prey might recover when hunting stopped, leading to restoration of hunting at some  
142 point.

143

144 We make two interim conclusions: first, trophy hunting should be strictly regulated  
145 to ensure that it does contribute to lion conservation, including by the maintenance  
146 of habitat (our report makes clear how this can be achieved). Second, where lion  
147 hunting is disallowed by national law or rendered financially unviable (by import  
148 bans for example), alternatives must be found to ensure that its contribution to  
149 habitat preservation is replaced – this is the difficult bit, and the one worst bedeviled  
150 by unknowns. The substituted institutions will need to effect more than habitat  
151 protection, by preventing poaching for example. It is crucial to distinguish between  
152 scenarios where trophy hunting of lions alone is stopped compared to a general  
153 cessation of trophy hunting. Many hunting areas may not be financially dependent  
154 on lions, but a further unknown is whether a cessation on lion hunting would be  
155 followed by extended restrictions on the hunting of other charismatic and  
156 threatened species. Lindsey et al.(2017) demonstrate that, with or without hunting,  
157 many areas have insufficient funds for effective management.

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## 162 **How Hunting Affects Lion Populations**

163

164 An understanding of the mechanisms whereby trophy hunting affects lion  
165 populations requires monitoring, and knowledge not just of population size, but the  
166 density of individuals eligible for hunting. Appropriate methodologies are available  
167 (eg, Funston et al. (2010); Broekhuis and Gopaldaswamy (2016); Elliot and  
168 Gopaldaswamy (2016)). D.W. Macdonald (2016) shows how an adaptive management  
169 system can ensure that departures from sustainable offtakes can be rectified. Thus  
170 while there is scope for refining methods of counting carnivores (Gopaldaswamy et al.  
171 2015), useful methods exist – the dangerous unknown is ignorance of the numbers  
172 of lions, largely due to the practicalities of who is going to pay for such monitoring.

173

174 In principle, calculating the mortality lion populations can withstand, from trophy  
175 hunting or any other source, is straightforward. There are area- and density-based  
176 harvesting models of sustainable offtake. These could be refined to account for  
177 intra-specific variation in lion density, and other threats. For example, the figure  
178 recommended by Packer et al. (2011) for offtake of 0.5 lions 1000 km<sup>-2</sup>, while  
179 intended to be precautionary, does not account for variation in lion population  
180 density. Furthermore, it would be useful to quantify the interactions between  
181 mortality factors (e.g. trophy hunting, snaring, conflict etc) some of which (e.g.  
182 snaring) are non-specific. Perturbation effects (Tuytens & Macdonald 2000) on lion  
183 demography resulting from trophy hunting are well documented (Loveridge et al.  
184 2007), and there is evidence that such effects exacerbate human-lion conflict  
185 (Loveridge et al. in prep.).

186

## 187 **What Would Happen to Hunted Lion Populations if they were no Longer Hunted** 188 **for Trophies?**

189

190 It is difficult to predict what would happen to hunted lion populations if hunting was  
191 stopped. Would photo-tourism substitute, or some other non-wildlife friendly

192 regime? Hunting may, in general, be less beneficial than photo-tourism for lion  
193 populations, but may nonetheless be better than nothing (P.A. Lindsey et al. in  
194 press). There are crucial unknowns from the viewpoints of both land-managers and  
195 governments. These include the extent to which photo-tourism (itself vulnerable to  
196 insecurity and global economic forces), or other non-consumptive uses can  
197 substitute for trophy hunting, and crucially, how lion populations would fare  
198 following conversion. How much current trophy hunting land is suitable for  
199 conversion to photo-tourism is uncertain. Lindsey et al. (2006) argue that certainly  
200 not all of it is, and question whether there is sufficient demand to supply visitors to  
201 these areas.

202

203 Under what conditions is trophy hunting land converted to less wildlife-friendly uses  
204 such as agriculture, settlement, mining or pastoralism? The regulation and  
205 enforcement of land ownership and land-use zoning are likely to be influential. The  
206 key unknown here is how important lions are for the profitability of trophy hunting  
207 operations relative to their value under different land uses. It is also important to  
208 whom the different values of lions accrue under different land-use systems. Progress  
209 is hampered by inadequate political, legal and governance instruments such that  
210 local people have no incentive to value wildlife (Muposhi et al. 2016).

211

212 Amongst the most serious unknowns, then, are the extents to which trophy hunting  
213 (and photo-tourism) does or could provide sufficient financial incentive to retain  
214 land under wildlife compared to alternative uses, and what factors influence this  
215 (and how the answers are likely to change in the rapidly changing socio-economic  
216 landscape of Africa and beyond). From the viewpoint of governments, the associated  
217 expenditure and value-added estimates of the economic contribution of trophy  
218 hunting and the alternative land-uses should be compared, not just the economic  
219 revenue directly attributable to each activity, which is most commonly the practice  
220 in both the academic literature and advocacy documents. Questions of land-use  
221 transitions will also be affected by unknowns such as the likely sequence in which  
222 measures against lion hunting would be extended to other species, most obviously  
223 elephants to whom, de facto, it has already extended through the ban of imports in

224 important consumer countries, while the process of up-listing leopards has already  
225 begun under the US ESA (Anonymous 2016).

226

227 In 2012, before the restrictions on elephant hunting and reduced lion quotas, P. A.  
228 Lindsey et al. (2012) made a tentative prediction that a lion hunting ban would make  
229 trophy hunting financially unviable across substantial areas of lion range with  
230 potential wider negative impacts. Banning the hunting of species like leopards would  
231 be likely to reduce viability across a wider area. Those authors did not account for  
232 the cost of conservation in their perspective on sustainability. The proportion of park  
233 and wildlife management budgets provided by trophy hunting operators are  
234 generally unanswered (and might usefully be posed of photo-tourist operators too).  
235 Most National Parks in Africa would not be financially viable without support from  
236 government, which often comes at least in part from hunting revenues. It would also  
237 be helpful to know how important trophy hunting is for the financial viability of  
238 wildlife authorities. Considering that in most African countries conservation is  
239 underfunded (P. A. Lindsey et al. 2017), it would be useful to know more about the  
240 comparative economics of trophy hunting and photo-tourism.

241

242 A linked unknown is how lions would be tolerated if they could not be hunted, but  
243 land was managed for other wildlife uses, such as trophy hunting of their prey. Lions  
244 could then impose a substantial cost – it has been said that ‘game farming is  
245 incompatible with predators’ (Schneider 1990). The fate of lion populations even  
246 under non-consumptive land uses is also uncertain, although insights may soon be  
247 gleaned from Botswana where hunting was banned in 2015 (D.W. Macdonald 2016);  
248 there may also be lessons, although certainly not simple cause and effect, to be  
249 gleaned from Kenya, where trophy hunting was banned in 1977 and where wildlife  
250 numbers declined on average by 68% between 1977 and 2016, alongside increases  
251 in human and livestock numbers that further confound simple interpretations (D.W.  
252 Macdonald 2016; Ogutu et al. 2016). Banning trophy hunting does not necessarily  
253 lead to less killing of lions: Richard Leakey observes that : “*Carnivores are being*  
254 *decimated .....hunting has never been stopped in Kenya, and there is more hunting*

255 *in Kenya today than at any time since independence. (Thousands) of animals are*  
256 *being killed annually with no control.....” (Martin 2015) .*

257

258 Of 38 lion populations in non-hunting areas examined under the latest IUCN Red List  
259 assessment, 58% were declining, while of the 7 populations examined in hunting  
260 areas, potentially self selecting and mainly fenced, one (14%) was declining (Bauer et  
261 al. 2015). Comparing trends is not straightforward. For example, hunted populations  
262 are likely to be depleted already, whereas well-protected populations are generally  
263 closer to carrying capacity and therefore more likely to decline if protection wavers.

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#### 267 **The current Status of Trophy Hunting**

268

269 It is clear that evaluating how trophy hunting contributes to lion conservation is  
270 compromised by lack of data. Here we turn to the current state of lion trophy  
271 hunting. Macdonald (2016) sets out criteria under which lion hunting could be  
272 deemed sustainable. How many hunted populations meet these criteria is unknown,  
273 as are the conditions where trophy hunting is a conservation tool. Although we know  
274 which populations are currently hunted, we do not know how many of these  
275 depend on lion hunting for their viability (the only estimate, from 2012 and before  
276 heavy quota reductions in Tanzania and several other countries, is about 11% (P. A.  
277 Lindsey et al. 2012)). Indeed, for many management units, how many lions are  
278 hunted annually is unknown. Monitoring of both populations and hunting offtake is  
279 often poor; Macdonald (2016) concludes that under these circumstances precaution  
280 demands the use of conservative age and area-based criteria when allocating  
281 quotas.

282

283 Amongst the gaps that impair a comprehensive analysis of lion trophy hunting is the  
284 inadequacy of statistics on exports. Improving the collection and organisation of  
285 CITES data was amongst several recommendations made by Macdonald (2016).

286 Others included a move to open auctions for concession leases and to longer leases  
287 to discourage short-termist mining of the natural resources (Brink et al. 2016).

288

### 289 **Ethics and Hindsight**

290

291 Thus far we have focused on empirical data. However, the evidence of these  
292 disciplines will be judged within a wider set of societal ethics. There is no consensus,  
293 even among conservationists, that a utilitarian perspective on trophy hunting is the  
294 right one. Even the concept of ‘sustainability’, used above as a criterion of good  
295 management, would be viewed by some as ethically questionable when applied to  
296 lion hunting (or to any killing of animals for ‘sport’). Also, we are mindful that while  
297 emotional responses affect moral judgements (Nelson et al. 2016), policies based  
298 principally on emotion could have perverse consequences. Where an intention to  
299 improve lion conservation worsens it, perhaps even those implacably opposed to  
300 lion hunting on ethical grounds might favour a ‘journey’ to its cessation rather than a  
301 ‘jump’. As Macdonald (2016) concluded “if society judged trophy hunting lions  
302 unacceptable, but also concluded that it benefited lion conservation, then this  
303 dilemma might be approached via a journey to find ways of replacing the benefits of  
304 hunting before jumping to end them”.

305

306 The day may not be far off, if it is not here already, when much of society (at least  
307 outside lion range countries) regards lion hunting as being as unacceptable as, for  
308 example, bear baiting or child labour (D. W. Macdonald et al. 2016a). However,  
309 views widely held in the wealthy West are often at odds with views within range  
310 countries, where lions often impose severe costs (including man-eating) on the  
311 people who live alongside them. Who has the right to make decisions about trophy  
312 hunting – how should the weight of opinions held on lion hunting in countries  
313 without lions, such as the USA (which has a thriving domestic hunting market) be  
314 ranked against the opinions held in African countries where lions occur (and where  
315 the financial consequences of a cessation of trophy hunting might bite hardest)?

316 **These are all difficult issues. It is clear though that if lion hunters aspire to be**  
317 **tolerated, they must demonstrate radical reform (and that may not be enough). It is**

318 also clear that those who seek to eliminate trophy hunting have either to  
319 acknowledge the possible subsequent loss of lions is a cost they are prepared to pay,  
320 or to demonstrate an economically valid alternative wildlife-based land use.

321

322

### 323 **Conclusion**

324

325 Trophy hunting, like almost everything else affecting conservation, is a moving  
326 target (and moving, like all aspects of African conservation, heavily at the mercy of  
327 external factors). Having reviewed the knowns (D.W. Macdonald 2016), we thought  
328 it helpful to highlight the unknowns here and why they matter. Firstly, trophy  
329 hunting's potential global significance for the species is obviously compromised by  
330 not knowing over how much of the species range it occurs. And where trophy  
331 hunting does occur, the implications for lion conservation of any change to the  
332 current system will vary from place to place. Where lion trophy hunting is run with  
333 sustainable quotas, and where no viable wildlife friendly alternative exists, its  
334 removal seems likely to be negative for lion conservation. But there are extensive  
335 areas where the implications of its removal for lion conservation are uncertain  
336 because we do not know the answer to questions like how much the industry's  
337 viability depends on lions, or if lions could persist after an alternative land use was  
338 substituted.

339

340 Unknown threats to lions will surely change. The next clutch will be spawned by  
341 changing societal, global economic, demographic and environmental factors. Trophy  
342 hunting, and the prudence of relying on tourism to support conservation in  
343 Africa, might be considered minor issues compared to the others jeopardising  
344 biodiversity. The money needed to reverse biodiversity loss dwarfs that likely to flow  
345 from any variant of tourism, including hunting, so new financial models to encourage  
346 coexistence with nature must be found. Dickman et al. (2011) speculate that  
347 mechanisms for converting global value to local benefits are one promising option.  
348 Beyond that, we cannot predict how emerging markets and economies such as  
349 Russia and China will influence the status quo. The most perilous unknowns of all

350 include the consequences of an estimated tripling by the year 2100 of the human  
351 population of Africa. Whatever plan is put in place for the conservation of lions and  
352 the rest of Africa's wildlife, it must accommodate the reality of nature living  
353 alongside two billion people.

354

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356

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