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1 Sustainable palm fruit harvesting as a pathway to conserve

2 Amazon peatland forests

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26 **Abstract**

27 Sustainable management of intact tropical peatlands is crucial for climate change
28 mitigation, biodiversity conservation and supporting the livelihoods of local
29 communities. Here, we explore whether sustainable fruit harvesting from *Mauritia*
30 *flexuosa* palms could support these linked goals by increasing fruit production and
31 incomes across the 2.8 million ha of the most carbon-dense ecosystem in Amazonia:
32 the lowland peatlands of north-eastern Peru. *M. flexuosa* is dioecious and fruits are
33 typically harvested by felling female palms; the proportion of female palms therefore
34 provides a good indicator of the health of a stand. Across 93 widely-distributed sites,
35 we found that the proportion of female palms increases with travel time to the urban
36 market and, overall, fruit harvesting has halved the current potential production and
37 income from this resource. However, significantly more female palms are found where
38 fruit are harvested by climbing. We estimate that region-wide uptake of climbing could
39 eventually increase potential fruit production by 51 %, and increase its gross value to
40 62 ± 28.24 million USD a⁻¹. These findings demonstrate both the high cost of
41 unsustainable resource extraction in Neotropical forests and outline a practical path to
42 conserve and sustainably exploit one of the most carbon-rich landscapes on the planet.

43 Keywords: degradation, *Mauritia flexuosa*, tropical peatland, palm swamp forest,
44 livelihoods, sustainable harvesting.

45 **Introduction**

46 Tropical peatlands store approximately 104 billion tonnes (Pg C) of carbon¹, harbour
47 unique combinations of flora and fauna and provide a wide range of resources for
48 indigenous and local communities²⁻⁴. Sustainable management of these ecosystems is
49 therefore crucial for addressing three major interlinked challenges: climate change
50 mitigation, biodiversity conservation and supporting livelihoods of forest-dwelling
51 peoples. However, the integrity of these ecosystems is threatened by fragmentation
52 from infrastructure development and agricultural expansion^{5,6}, while logging and
53 unsustainable harvesting of non-timber forest products (NTFPs) are reducing the
54 ability of peatland forests to supply resources that support local communities^{7,8}. To
55 support sustainable management and conserve the carbon stocks and biodiversity of
56 tropical peatlands, it is important to quantify the services that these forests provide for
57 people. In particular, it is crucial to understand how historical resource extraction has
58 altered the abundance of economically important species and whether sustainable
59 harvesting techniques can enhance the health of populations of these taxa.

60 We address these questions in the context of a key economic resource from
61 Amazonian peatlands: the fruit of the palm *Mauritia flexuosa*, which is known in Peru
62 as 'aguaje'. This palm is the most common species of tree in the forests on the
63 extensive lowland tropical peatlands in northeastern Peru that store at least 3.14 Pg C,
64 equivalent to >60 years of national fossil fuel emissions^{1,9}. *Mauritia flexuosa* is
65 characterized by many features that support successful large-scale NTFP use and
66 commercialization^{10,11}: the palm is a native and abundant component of Amazonian
67 peatland ecosystems^{12,13}, there is a long-standing regional market for the product¹¹,

68 and there are emerging, although far from comprehensively applied, legal mechanisms
69 for communities to obtain land tenure along the major rivers⁵ and rights to extract
70 forest resources via government institutions. The resource is also already a significant
71 component of community incomes and activities: where currently harvested, sale of its
72 fruit represents 15–22 % of family incomes (USD 208–227 a⁻¹)^{14,15}. However, fruit
73 harvesting is typically performed by felling the fruiting palms and as *Mauritia flexuosa*
74 has a dioecious breeding system with separate male and female individuals, fruit
75 harvesting reduces the density of female palms in these stands¹⁶. Although the
76 negative impact of this activity has been recognised for more than 30 years¹⁷,
77 estimates of the magnitude of this activity are scarce: estimates of the number of
78 stems of *Mauritia flexuosa* that are felled each year vary from 12,900 - 24,000 palms in
79 2007¹⁸, to approximately 114,000 between 2012-2013². There is also shown strong
80 spatial and temporal variation in the origin of aguaje fruit arriving in the main city of
81 Iquitos². However, the overall drivers and cumulative impact of decades of tree felling
82 on the spatial patterns of the proportion of female palms are unknown. It is also
83 unclear whether sites where tree climbing has been introduced as an intervention to
84 promote sustainable management have a higher proportion of female palms than sites
85 where female palms continue to be felled. Evidence for a positive impact of tree
86 climbing and an understanding of the spatial distribution of the resource base would
87 enhance the justification for conservation action to expand the typically patchy and
88 ephemeral sustainable management projects in this region.

89

90

91 **Establishing a historical baseline of resource availability**

92 Understanding how historical resource extraction has altered the abundance of species
93 used by local communities requires us to address a key challenge in conservation
94 science: how to quantify the impact of resource extraction on populations when we
95 lack data on species abundance before harvesting. Establishing baselines is crucial for
96 assessing the severity of declines in biodiversity and to stimulate conservation action.
97 For example, long-term monitoring data have been used to estimate that 68 % of
98 populations of vertebrate species have declined worldwide since the 1970s¹⁹.
99 However, data on the long-term trajectory of plant populations, and tropical species in
100 particular, remain scarce. Anecdotal reports, such as the disappearance of *Ceiba* trees
101 from Amazonia in the 1970s – 80s²⁰, are susceptible to “shifting baseline syndrome”
102 where successive generations assume that the state of resources that existed when
103 they started to interact with the environment represents the baseline condition^{21,22}. In
104 contrast, qualitative assessments of extinction risk²³, and recent quantitative estimates
105 of the impact of land-use change on population sizes of Amazonian tree species²⁴, do
106 not provide sufficiently precise, species-level information on the trajectory of tree
107 populations to design focussed interventions. Here, we tackle the lack of baseline data
108 by measuring, mapping and analysing large-scale spatial variation in a direct indicator
109 of the level of unsustainable extraction of the resource: the proportion of female
110 palms in a stand. The sex ratio for unharvested stands and in plantations is 1:1^{25,26} and
111 therefore by comparing variation in the proportion of female palms within stands to a
112 baseline value of 0.5, we can quantify the levels of resource extraction due to
113 destructive harvesting.

114 We collected an extensive dataset of this novel indicator to explore the drivers of the
115 intensity of historical resource extraction across the peatland complex of northern
116 Peru. Given its regional importance as a food source, we expected levels of
117 unsustainable extraction to be highest nearest the main urban centre of Iquitos, where
118 transport costs are lowest, similar to other NTFPs with large regional markets²⁷. We
119 also explored the impacts of subsistence consumption by communities on the
120 resource, by testing whether smaller palm swamps located near larger communities
121 had a lower proportion of female palms independent of their proximity to Iquitos.
122 Finally, we tested whether the sites where climbing techniques are now used have a
123 higher proportion of female palms compared to sites where palms are cutting for fruit
124 harvesting. We use insights from these analyses to model levels of unsustainable
125 resource extraction from *M. flexuosa* populations across the Amazonian peatland
126 complex and to estimate the decline in fruit production that has occurred as a result of
127 felling palms. By demonstrating both the large cost that historical unsustainable
128 resource extraction imposes on communities today and how sustainable management
129 techniques could improve resource levels at large scales, our results open up a route to
130 conserve one of the most carbon-rich landscapes in the Neotropics.

131 **Results**

132 **Spatial variation in unsustainable resource extraction**

133 The proportion of female palms of *M. flexuosa* among stands varied widely among the
134 93 sites, from three sites where less than 6 % of adult palms were female, to 24 sites
135 with healthy populations where more than 40 % of adult individuals were female (Fig.
136 1). The total travel time to Iquitos from each site was significantly related to the
137 variation in the proportion of female palms (GLMM; $z = 3.9$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 1,
138 Supplementary Fig. 1): most of the sites with few female palms are located within four
139 hours travel from Iquitos, whereas four sites located in the communities of Puerto Diaz
140 and Nuevo Milagro which require >40 hours of travel from Iquitos, have stands with
141 sex ratios approaching 0.5 (Figs. 1 & 2). However, neither the number of inhabitants
142 (GLMM; $z = -0.77$, ns), nor the area of accessible palm swamp for each community
143 (GLMM; $z = 0.71$, ns) were related to the proportion of female palms.

144 Crucially, sites where palms are climbed, rather than cut, for harvesting have a higher
145 proportion of female palms (GLMM; $z = -2.1$, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 1). This effect translates to an
146 increase in the percentage of female palms from 26 % to 36 % in stands where palms
147 are climbed, compared to cut, to harvest fruits. Variation in the proportion of female
148 palms among sites harvested by climbing may be related to the timing of the transition
149 from cutting to climbing the palms (Fig. 1). For example, in the community of Puerto
150 Alegría, community members initiated tree climbing for harvesting in the 1980s; stands
151 here currently have 52 % female adult palms. In contrast, in Pacaya Samiria National
152 Reserve, the transition, overseen by SERNANP (the Peruvian National Parks Authority),

153 was initiated in 2002 and some sites have less than 20 % female palms (Supplementary
154 Table 1).

155 **Modelling levels of unsustainable resource extraction of *M. flexuosa*.**

156 The relationship between the proportion of female *M. flexuosa* palms and the total
157 travel time to Iquitos was used to model variation in this indicator of forest health
158 across the region (see Methods). Overall, the predicted level of unsustainable resource
159 extraction declines markedly with distance from Iquitos (Fig. 2), but there are also
160 stands close to the city, such as between the Marañón and Ucayali rivers, that have a
161 high proportion of female palms because they are only accessible by small tributaries
162 rather than via the main rivers (Fig. 2). The Tigre river basin, in the north of the study
163 area also has *M. flexuosa* stands with an unexpectedly high proportion of female palms
164 given its proximity to Iquitos (Fig. 2). This finding is consistent with the very low levels
165 of aguaje fruit supply to Iquitos originating from the upper river Tigre in 2012/13²:
166 although there were high levels of fruit supply from close to the mouth of the Tigre
167 from the community of Nueva York, fruit supply diminished much more rapidly with
168 distance along the river, compared to similar distances along the neighbouring river
169 Marañón^{2,28}. The healthy state of the stands alongside the upper river Tigre may be
170 related to the lower frequency of transport along this river compared to other major
171 rivers, as the Tigre river does not connect to other large regional centres or national
172 transport links.

173 The total potential production from harvesting fruits of *M. flexuosa* with the current
174 spatial pattern in the proportion of female palms, estimated for palm swamps located
175 within 5 km of the main rivers, is 298,581 Mg a⁻¹. This value equates to a gross

176 potential value of 41 ± 20.13 million USD a^{-1} for the whole region, with per hectare
177 values ranging from 45 to 333 USD $ha^{-1}a^{-1}$ based on current market prices (Fig. 4; see
178 Methods). This large, overall potential value is comparable to the income from tax by
179 oil extraction to the Loreto regional government (Fig. 4). However, historical removal
180 of female palms means that this level of productivity is far lower than might be
181 achieved if the stands of *M. flexuosa* were in their 'natural' state. If 50 % of the palms
182 in the stands were female, the estimate of the potential production more than doubles
183 to 829,315 Mg a^{-1} , with a potential gross value of 92 ± 38.27 million USD a^{-1} if prices are
184 maintained as the market expands, similar to the gross declared value of timber to the
185 Loreto regional government (Fig. 4). In other words, our estimates suggest that
186 historical human extraction of palm fruits has led to a 55 % reduction of the
187 productivity of the resource that is available to communities today.

188 More positively, the higher proportion of female palms in sites where tree climbing has
189 been initiated suggests that some of this potential can be recovered over coming
190 decades if this harvesting technique were to be introduced more widely. If the
191 improvement in sex ratio found in the sites where fruit harvesting is carried out by
192 climbing is applied across the region, productivity could rise to 656,384 Mg a^{-1} and the
193 potential gross income could rise to 62 ± 28.24 million USD a^{-1} , which is an increase of
194 51 % compared to current values (Fig. 4).

195 **Discussion**

196 Our extensive dataset of the proportion of female palms in stands of *M. flexuosa*
197 across the peat swamps of northwest Amazonia reveals multiple insights into the
198 drivers and legacy of resource extraction, the impact of sustainable management
199 practices and the economic potential of this resource. The link between levels of
200 resource extraction of stands and their proximity to the main regional market likely
201 reflects the overall importance of the commercial demand for this product as food
202 source in Iquitos and beyond, rather than subsistence demand within communities, for
203 driving resource extraction. The influence of the market extends approximately two
204 days travel from Iquitos (Fig. 2), consistent with fruits remaining viable for sale up to
205 five days following harvesting¹⁴ and the distances of communities that supplied fruit to
206 Iquitos during 2012/13². Elsewhere in the tropics, shorter distances to the nearest
207 urban centre have also been linked to variation in levels of biodiversity-based
208 resources, such as lower population sizes of mammal, bird and timber species^{27,29}. Our
209 results, therefore, emphasise the importance of managing the impact of cities in
210 tropical forest countries to reduce the impact of resource extraction on surrounding
211 forests whilst maintaining the services that they provide.

212 Our finding that the total potential production and value of *M. flexuosa* fruits has
213 halved due to cutting female palms (Fig. 4), provides an estimate of the often
214 unrecognised but substantial cost that current and historical resource extraction places
215 on communities. This impact is typically noted only anecdotally and at small spatial
216 scales. For example, income from fruit extraction through cutting palms in the
217 community of San Miguel diminished by 46 % over five years (1995–2000)¹⁰, whilst the

218 community of Dos de Mayo ultimately was forced to stop extraction as the resource
219 became unavailable within the forests surrounding the community (G. Hidalgo, pers.
220 comm.). In contrast, this study provides a quantitative estimate of the impact of
221 resource extraction across a Neotropical forest landscape that spans nearly three
222 million hectares. Our estimate of loss is similar to the magnitude of global declines in
223 animal populations due to hunting since the 1970s¹⁹ and demonstrates that the
224 fingerprint of human resource extraction can also be strong in plant communities even
225 in apparently intact forest landscapes.

226 The loss of potential production of *M. flexuosa* fruits reflects the historical
227 management of this species as a common pool resource in these peatland
228 landscapes^{30,31}. Fortunately, recognition that intensively cutting trees for harvesting
229 fruits is unsustainable is leading to the introduction of communal management
230 systems that incorporate several aspects of successful adaptive governance schemes,
231 particularly related to encouraging dialogue among stakeholders and defining the
232 boundaries of the resource³². Sustainable management initiatives that promote tree
233 climbing for fruit harvesting have been led by the communities themselves, such as in
234 Puerto Alegría, NGOs (e.g. Amazonians for Amazonia; AMPA) and/or government
235 institutions (e.g. the Peruvian Forest Service, SERFOR; the Peruvian Fund for Nature,
236 PROFONANPE; SERNANP and the Loreto regional government, GOREL). Key
237 components of all these initiatives have been the designation of land tenure and
238 achieving sole legal access for communities over nearby palm swamps, and the
239 establishment of community-led associations where a small number of families plan,
240 extract and market the fruit. For communities inside national protected areas,

241 harvesting activities are ultimately regulated by SERNANP, and there are attempts to
242 regulate harvesting activities in communities outside protected areas as part of
243 projects implemented by SERFOR and GOREL. Such regulation involves issuing permits
244 to implement approved management and harvesting activities. However, in all sites, in
245 practice, monitoring and active regulation of harvesting is at an early stage.

246 Cutting the palms for harvesting preceded the introduction of climbing in all sites, and
247 the timescales of the start of the interventions and the demography of *M. flexuosa*
248 suggests that the higher proportion of female palms in sites where palms are climbed
249 today is due to recruitment of new adults since the intervention was introduced: *M.*
250 *flexuosa* requires at least 6–10 years to become adult from seed¹⁰, and these
251 interventions were introduced 10–30 years ago. Of course, full recovery of these
252 forests would require adequate levels of regeneration and in some sites, seed
253 limitation may prove a barrier to recruitment of new individuals. However,
254 demographic models of *M. flexuosa* suggest that recruitment can be maintained, up to
255 harvesting rates of 50–90 % of fruit racemes³³.

256 On a per hectare basis, based on the current pattern of the proportion of female palms
257 across the region, our analysis indicates a current potential annual gross income of 45-
258 333 USD ha⁻¹a⁻¹ which is similar to published values for sustainably harvested stands in
259 the community of Veinte de Enero^{10,34}. These values are of course lower than
260 equivalent per hectare values of large-scale plantations of *Elaeis guineensis* for palm
261 oil which can rise to several thousand dollars per hectare³⁵. However, sustainable
262 harvesting of *M. flexuosa* fruits provides a wider and more evenly-distributed range of
263 benefits than plantation development^{15,17}: it could provide a foundation for a regional

264 economy that substantially improves incomes to local communities whilst also
265 protecting the high carbon stocks and unique biodiversity of these ecosystems. It is
266 also more ecologically appropriate within the dynamic Amazonian peatlands where
267 drainage is not possible. This approach of using community-led, sustainable
268 management of existing stands of a native palm species contrasts strongly with that of
269 deforestation and conversion to intensive agriculture of a non-native palm species
270 which has been the predominant development pathway for tropical peatlands in SE
271 Asia in recent decades³⁶. As the debate opens up on the nature of economic
272 development in Amazonia following the COVID-19 pandemic, it is crucial that the full
273 potential of sustainable, climate-friendly development options such as *M. flexuosa*
274 fruit extraction are explored.

275 Our estimate of the economic potential of *M. flexuosa* fruit harvesting is broadly
276 comparable to revenue levels from other important NTFPs in Amazonian such as açai
277 fruit (*Euterpe sp.*) which had a gross value of approximately 200 million USD in 2019 in
278 Brazil³⁷, and Brazil nut extraction which was worth 75, 25 and 19 million USD for
279 Bolivia, Brazil and Peru respectively in 2005³⁸. Intriguingly, the current potential value
280 of *M. flexuosa* fruit is equivalent to 39 % of the annual declared value of timber in 2015
281 (106.6 million USD) and almost double the average annual value (USD 21.6 million
282 USD) of tax revenue from oil extraction from 2015–2018^{39,40} for the region of Loreto in
283 northeastern Peru (Fig. 4). Overall, even with uncertainty about how prices would
284 change as markets develop, these comparisons indicate that sustainable fruit
285 harvesting has similar potential for generating economic benefits for communities to

286 existing major Amazonian NTFPs, and could provide benefits that are comparable to
287 redistributing tax revenues from oil extraction or deriving income from logging.

288 Realising the potential of sustainable *M. flexuosa* fruit harvesting will be challenging
289 and need to heed lessons about the potentially illusory nature of the high value of
290 NTFPs within intact tropical forests⁴¹⁻⁴³. *M. flexuosa* fruit does broadly meet criteria
291 associated with successful expansion of NTFP use^{8,43}: for example, development of this
292 product is closely aligned with national environmental policy, in this case related to
293 enhancing sustainable management of tropical peatlands as part of the Nationally
294 Determined Contributions (NDCs) of Peru to the Paris Agreement⁴⁴, increases in
295 production and income can be closely linked to improving livelihoods given the
296 widespread presence of extensive palm swamps close to communities across the
297 region, and demographic models suggest ecological sustainability is possible in stands
298 with fruit harvesting³³. However, expansion of national and international markets will
299 be crucial to drive increases in the overall value of this product, and maintain prices as
300 production increases⁴². In this context, support for using fruit of *M. flexuosa* as the
301 basis for juices and food supplements by national and international companies (e.g.
302 RAFSAC, Aje Group, Inkanatura)¹¹ will be vital.

303 A range of steps needs to be taken to support communities that engage in palm fruit
304 harvesting. Currently, uptake of climbing as a sustainable management technique has
305 been limited because of a lack of training, equipment and information about the ease
306 of harvesting by climbing. For example, there is often a perception that cutting down
307 the palm is faster than climbing. However, in practice, both cutting and climbing take
308 similar lengths of time - cutting an adult *Mauritia* palm takes around 20–25 minutes,

309 whilst climbing takes 17–30 minutes¹². A particular challenge is to develop effective
310 community-led monitoring schemes to achieve successful, long-term management³²,
311 and long-term support must be offered to communities to ensure that sustainable
312 harvesting techniques are maintained even if demand increases. For example, the
313 Maijunas, an indigenous group in the northern Peruvian Amazon, harvested this
314 resource for their consumption using the mainly sustainable method of collecting ripe
315 fruit from the ground, but as demand increased, the use of destructive techniques
316 became common⁴⁵. Legal land tenure needs to be expanded to all communities with
317 access to palm swamps, and harvesting areas must be demarcated. More precise maps
318 of the abundance *M. flexuosa* palms would also support the expansion of the
319 management of this resource: high-resolution spectral data obtained using UAVs offers
320 one way to map the distribution of palms accessible to communities, as *M. flexuosa*
321 palms are readily distinguished from the surrounding trees⁴⁶. Finally, safeguards are
322 required to ensure that communities continue to be the primary beneficiaries of fruit
323 harvesting as the market expands, and to avoid the benefits and resource being
324 appropriated solely by private interests⁴⁷. Overall, careful monitoring of the effects of
325 harvesting on both the social and ecological aspects of these systems is required to
326 ensure that there are not negative impacts³⁷, and support the drive to develop a
327 sustainable and equitable biodiversity-based economy across Amazonia⁴⁸.

328 Our map of variation in the proportion of female trees of *Mauritia flexuosa* across the
329 basin is also important for understanding where greenhouse gas emissions from
330 peatland degradation may occur in the future. Although cutting removes female palms
331 and reduces the abundance of *M. flexuosa* (Supplementary Fig. 2), the current impact

332 on above- and below-ground carbon stocks and greenhouse gas emissions is likely to
333 be small across the gradient of resource extraction that we studied here. Highly
334 degraded sites, where palm swamps become dominated by pioneer trees are
335 associated with significant carbon emissions due to higher respiration rates derived
336 from the remaining organic matter⁴⁹. However, the sites we studied here still have
337 substantially higher densities of *Mauritia flexuosa* than the 16 stems ha⁻¹ that were
338 found in one highly-degraded site where significant carbon emissions were reported⁴⁹
339 (Supplementary Fig. 4). The sites in our study have therefore been modified, but
340 currently likely not degraded and damaged to an extent that substantially affects their
341 carbon balance. The challenge for the future is to ensure that these sites are not
342 subsequently converted to secondary forest and other land uses, which is a pathway
343 that may follow the removal of female palms and resulting loss of value of the standing
344 forest. In this context, our map of the proportion of females across this region is an
345 'early warning' signal of where interventions are required to prevent more substantial
346 modification of the landscape and greenhouse gas emissions. The higher proportion of
347 female palms in sites where trees are climbed for harvesting and increase in the
348 potential economic value of stands where this value approaches 0.5, indicates that
349 introducing climbing techniques is a means to increase the value of standing forest,
350 and as a result, help to conserve the carbon-rich peat deposits below these forests.

351 Our findings that historical resource extraction has halved the potential production of
352 harvesting *M. flexuosa* fruit and that this can be reversed by tree climbing provides a
353 powerful incentive to introduce and maintain sustainable management practices. This
354 study therefore provides strong support for using sustainable harvesting of *M. flexuosa*

355 fruits as a focus of Amazonian peatland conservation^{5,50}. For local communities, the
356 demonstrable success of using climbing to harvest fruits for maintaining the health of
357 *M. flexuosa* populations will help to encourage uptake this technique across the
358 region. For regional and national government institutions and NGOs, our findings will
359 help to promote coordinated, region-wide initiatives to support the introduction of
360 sustainable management programmes and support efforts to increase the market for
361 *M. flexuosa* fruits. For the international conservation community, these results
362 demonstrate the viability of sustainable palm swamp management for preserving
363 Amazonian peatlands and the substantial carbon stocks that they hold below ground.
364 Finally, the results demonstrate how apparently intact tropical forests have been
365 affected by resource extraction, and how developing a precise understanding of how
366 ecosystems have been modified can be used to define a pathway for conservation
367 action.

368 **Methods**

369 **Study area and species description**

370 The study was carried out across the extensive peatlands of the Pastaza-Marañón
371 foreland basin in the region of Loreto in northern Peruvian Amazonia. This basin is a
372 geological depression formed in reaction to the uplift and eastern movement of the
373 Andes and today acts as collecting point for water from tributaries of the upper
374 Amazon⁵⁰. This region is characterised by a warm, humid tropical climate with a mean
375 temperature of 26 °C and a daily range of 22 °C – 30 °C^{51,52}. The average annual rainfall
376 of the region is around 3000 mm and there is no regular dry season⁵².

377 Peatlands cover 35,600 km² of the basin and palm swamps, the most extensive
378 vegetation type, cover 2.8 million hectares or 78 % of this area⁹. These stands are
379 located along the Marañón, Ucayali and Amazon rivers and their tributaries: the
380 Samiria, Tigrillo, Tigre, Itaya and Nanay rivers (Fig. 3). The palm swamps have an
381 average peat depth of 1.7 m (range 0 – 5.4 m) and in total contain 2.3 Pg C (95%
382 confidence limits: 0.27 – 6.00)⁹.

383 The dominant species of these peatlands is the palm tree *Mauritia flexuosa*¹³ which is
384 locally called “aguaje” (“buriti” in Brazil, “canangucho” in Amazonian Colombia,
385 “moriche” in Venezuela⁵³). Palm swamps are locally named “aguajales” due to the
386 dominance of *M. flexuosa* in this type of forest⁵⁴. *M. flexuosa* is a large native palm
387 tree of the neotropics, reaching 35 – 40 m height and 50 cm diameter^{12,55}. The fruit is
388 an elliptical-globular drupe, 3 – 7 cm long, with a mean weight of 40 to 85 g¹⁴. Its
389 phenology varies across the region, as the peak of the fruit season is linked to variation

390 in the water level of the river⁵⁶ and as a result there is a continuous supply of fruit to
391 the market².

392 This species is dioecious and thus has separate male and female individuals^{55,57}. The
393 proportion of female palms is therefore a good indicator of levels of unsustainable
394 resource extraction in palm swamp ecosystems as female individuals of *M. flexuosa*
395 bearing fruit are typically harvested by cutting down the palms^{16,58} (Supplementary Fig.
396 6). The sex ratio of *M. flexuosa* in an undisturbed stand was reported as 1:1 (50 % male
397 and 50 % female palms) in the Colombian Amazon²⁵ and a similar ratio (1.1 : 1) was
398 found in two experimental plantations of this species in Jenaro Herrera in the Peruvian
399 Amazon^{12,26}. For this study, we, therefore, assess the level of unsustainable resource
400 extraction as the reduction in the proportion of female palms compared to a baseline
401 of 50 %. This knowledge of the baseline gender ratio under natural conditions allows
402 us to estimate the impact of historical resource extraction on the health of *M. flexuosa*
403 populations.

404 **Sampling sites and field methods**

405 Data on the proportion of female palms in different palm swamps was collected from
406 sites across the region that encompass the full gradient of human use, including largely
407 undisturbed forests, abandoned areas where harvesting stopped 3 – 15 years ago and
408 areas that are actively harvested every fruiting season (Supplementary Table 1). Stands
409 were selected based on covering a wide range of distances to Iquitos and prioritising
410 data gaps. In all sites, estimates of the proportion of female palms were based on
411 evaluating the gender of adult palms based on the presence of floral organs, by

412 carefully observing flowers/fruits either on the palm using binoculars or on the ground
413 next to the corresponding palm stem (Supplementary Fig. 5).

414 Data on the variation in the proportion of females of *M. flexuosa* in the largely
415 undisturbed forests in the eastern portion of the basin was obtained from sixteen, 0.5
416 ha plots established by the Instituto de Investigaciones de la Amazonía Peruana (IIAP)
417 and the Amazon Forest Inventory Network (RAINFOR) between February 2017 to
418 October 2019⁵⁹. These data were augmented by information from six transects located
419 adjacent to the plots and sampled between June 2008 and July 2009 - these transects
420 represent 6.5 % of total sampling sites and the values were validated by new transects
421 established under this study in the surrounding area - also, fourteen transects between
422 February 2017 to October 2019 and 10 transects in January and February 2020. In each
423 of these transects, the gender of 100 –200 adult palms was recorded. Data on variation
424 in the proportion of female palms of *M. flexuosa* in the undisturbed forests in the
425 western portion of the region in Datem del Marañón province were collected using
426 sixteen plots varying from 0.36 – 0.72 ha in size (Supplementary Table 1), in August
427 and September 2018⁶⁰.

428 Finally, thirty-one transects were established as part of this study in June and July 2019
429 to understand how the proportion of female palms varies among areas that have been
430 harvested in the past but since abandoned, and in areas that are being harvested
431 today. Sampling sites were located in accessible areas along the rivers, which is the
432 most important area for fruit sold in the main regional market. For each of these
433 transects, the gender was recorded for 200 individuals and the transects were
434 extended if necessary until the sample included at least 20 female palms. This sample

435 size and design was chosen based on how uncertainty in estimates of the proportion of
436 female palms varies with the level of the unsustainable resource use using simulations
437 based on the binomial distribution (Supplementary Fig. 7). Sampling 200 individuals
438 provided reasonable levels of confidence in estimates of the proportion of female
439 palms across three levels of harvesting - the baseline proportion (50 %), half the
440 “natural” female proportion (25 %) and where there is a low proportion of female
441 palms (10 %). Semi-structured interviews with harvesters during fieldwork were used
442 to obtain information about harvesting techniques, the time and distances to
443 harvesting sites and the sale price of a sack of aguaje fruit in each community.

444 **Explanatory variables**

445 Variation in the proportion of female palms associated with different communities was
446 broadly related to variation in the amount of aguaje fruit that each community
447 supplied to Iquitos in 2012/13²⁸ (Spearman rank correlation, $p < 0.001$; Supplementary
448 Fig. 3). To identify the ultimate causes of spatial variation in unsustainable resource
449 use of palm swamp forests, we analysed whether a range of variables associated with
450 drivers of the intensity of harvesting activities were associated with variation in the
451 proportion of female palms. We assessed the influence of the urban market by
452 comparing the travel time to the main market (Iquitos) from each sampling site with
453 the proportion of female palms. In Iquitos, the fruits are commercialised as fruits and
454 also transformed into a paste for use in other products. The total travel time (hrs) from
455 each sampling site to Iquitos was estimated as the sum of the travel time from Iquitos
456 to the nearest community by river, the travel time from the community by river to the
457 nearest access point for each site, and the walking time from the river to the site. The

458 estimate of the travel time from Iquitos to each community was based on a boat speed
459 of 15 km hr⁻¹ (by “lancha”)⁶¹ for routes via the Marañón, Ucayali and Amazon rivers
460 and 4 km hr⁻¹ (by “peque peque”) for boats travelling during the fieldwork on the
461 Nanay, Itaya, Tigre, Tigrillo and Samiria rivers. Each palm swamp was allocated to its
462 nearest community, and the travel time from the community to the nearest access
463 point was estimated based on the distance by river, and the travel speed by “peque
464 peque”. Finally, the walking time from the nearest access point to the sampling site
465 was estimated based on the straight-line distance and a walking speed of 1.5 km hr⁻¹
466 within the forest recorded during fieldwork in palm swamps in this study, the speeds
467 values were registered by a GPS device. Spatial modelling was performed using the
468 cost distance, Euclidean allocation and Euclidean distance functions in ArcGIS v.
469 10.4.1⁶². The modelled travel times closely matched times to reach Iquitos estimated
470 by community members during fieldwork (Supplementary Fig. 8).

471 The importance of variation in the intensity of harvesting by local communities for
472 determining levels of unsustainable resource use was assessed by exploring whether
473 variation in the number of inhabitants among communities (population size varies
474 from 10 to 3500 members⁶³) and the area of palm swamp within 5 km of each
475 community explains variation in the proportion of females among sites. The effect of
476 management technique was assessed by comparing the difference in the proportion of
477 female palms among palm swamps where communities cut the palms to harvest the
478 fruits, with those where communities climb the palms without damaging the trees¹².
479 Information on the technique that has predominately been used at each site during
480 the previous decade was obtained by a semi-structured interview to harvesters during

481 the fieldwork and verified during the census of the transects by noting the
482 presence/absence of cut trunks.

483 **Data analysis**

484 The proportion of females for each sampling site was obtained by dividing the number
485 of female palms by the total number of adult trees. We used generalised linear mixed
486 models implemented using the *glmer* function within the lme4 package⁶⁴ in R v.3.5.3⁶⁵
487 to assess if the explanatory variables were significantly related to the variation in the
488 proportion of female palms. Our statistical model was:

$$489 \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * Time + \beta_2 * Inhabitants + \beta_3 * Area + \beta_4 * Technique \\ 490 \quad \quad \quad + (1|Community) + (1|River) + \varepsilon$$

491 where y is the proportion of female palms within the stand, $\beta_0 - \beta_4$ represent the
492 model coefficients, *Time*, *Inhabitants*, *Area* and *Technique* are the travel time to the
493 urban market of Iquitos, the number of inhabitants per community, the area of palm
494 swamp within 5 km of each community and the harvesting technique, respectively.
495 *Community* and *River* are nested, random factors which reflect that multiple palm
496 swamps may be accessed by any given community, and multiple communities are
497 found along each river. River was included as a random factor as each watershed has
498 different characteristics in terms of river size and transport frequency that may
499 influence how the other factors relate to the proportion of female trees
500 (Supplementary Fig. 1). All continuous variables were scaled prior to analysis and each
501 data point was weighted by number of palms sampled at each site.

502 The analysis was subjected to k-fold, cross-fold validation to test if the predictions of
503 the mixed model were robust to omitting subsets of the underlying data
504 (Supplementary Fig. 9). Spatial auto-correlation was explicitly incorporated in the
505 original statistical model through the nested, random factors of community and river
506 basin, so we used a random cross-fold approach to validate the predictions with the
507 same underlying model structure. Predicted values of the proportion of female palms
508 for each site, based on running a mixed model with 80 % of the original data, were
509 significantly correlated with the observed values (Supplementary Fig. 9). This result
510 demonstrates that the relationships are not unduly influenced by a small subset of the
511 data and the model can be used to describe variation in the proportion of female
512 palms across the range of the explanatory variables that are found in this region.

513 **Modelling variation in the proportion of female palms of *M. flexuosa*.**

514 The finding that travel time explains a significant amount of variation in the proportion
515 of female palms of *M. flexuosa* among sites, was used to model this parameter across
516 the region of Loreto (Fig. 2). Travel time to Iquitos was estimated across Loreto at a 1
517 km² pixel size (Fig. 3), following the methods above. All pixels representing *M. flexuosa*
518 stands were then extracted using a map of the distribution of palm swamps across the
519 Pastaza-Marañón basin⁹. The coefficients from the mixed model (Fig. 1, Supplementary
520 Fig. 1) were used to estimate the proportion of female palms of *M. flexuosa* across the
521 palm swamps of Loreto based on the travel time to Iquitos from each pixel. The
522 proportion of female palms was estimated independently for palm swamps in each
523 river basin, as the proportion of female palms varies significantly among watersheds
524 (Supplementary Fig. 1).

525 **Estimating the potential value of *M. flexuosa* to local communities**

526 The potential area of fruit harvesting was defined as all palm swamps within 5 km from
527 a main river, based on information from harvesters obtained during fieldwork. This
528 area was delimited based on the information recorded about the distance they walk to
529 the extraction zones and the distance of the sampling sites from the communities.
530 Palm swamps within this area cover 331,900 ha (Fig. 2; area indicated by the black
531 solid line).

532 The proportion of females across this harvesting area was used to estimate the gross
533 potential income of fruit sale. Firstly, the density of female palms was estimated based
534 on the estimated proportion of females for each pixel. Our field data demonstrates
535 that the density of males remains constant as the proportion of females declines in the
536 sampled stands; within our dataset, there is no evidence of substantial felling of males
537 even where the females have been almost entirely harvested (Supplementary Fig. 2),
538 even though in some communities, a few male palms are occasionally felled for making
539 walkways or cultivating the palm weevil (*Rhynchophorus palmarum*^{3,4}). We therefore
540 estimated the density of females as:

541
$$D_{fem,i} = \frac{(F_i * D_{male})}{1 - F_i}$$

542 where $D_{fem,i}$ is the estimated number of adult female palms of *M. flexuosa* of each
543 pixel, i , in the harvesting area, F_i is the estimated proportion of females of each pixel,
544 and D_{male} is the average density of male palms across all sites (86 ind/ha). This model
545 of how female harvesting affects the density of populations of *M. flexuosa* fits the
546 observed data closely (Supplementary Fig. 2).

547 The total potential current income was then estimated as:

548
$$Income_t = \sum_{i=0}^n D_{fem,i} * A * R_i * S_i * P_i$$

549 where $D_{fem,i}$ is the density of female palms in each pixel, i , in the harvesting area and A
550 is the area in hectares per pixel (100 ha). R is the average number of racemes
551 harvested per palm (1.3 ± 0.03 racemes); this value was calculated from data on the
552 number of racemes of 3,567 female palms recorded during fieldwork across all sites
553 and integrates across the temporal and spatial variation in fruit production among
554 individual palms. S is the factor (0.6 ± 0.1 sack/raceme) used to convert the number of
555 racemes into the number of sacks of fruit of aguaje; this value was calculated from
556 measurements of fruit production from 16 *M. flexuosa* palms in Jenaro Herrera in
557 2018¹². P is the average price of USD 5 ± 0.32 (17 PEN) per sack recorded in the
558 fieldwork from 13 communities during the interviews with harvesters. The overall
559 projected income for the total harvesting area, $Income_t$, was calculated as the sum of
560 the value across all pixels and represents a potential, maximum gross value of this
561 resource in this region.

562 The potential income from harvesting area was also estimated for 'natural' forests,
563 assuming a uniform proportion of 50 % female palms across all pixels. Finally, to
564 estimate the potential income if the fruits were harvested by climbing and the forests
565 began to recover, the estimates of the proportion of female palms across all pixels
566 from the current scenario were modified by adding the estimated impact of climbing
567 from the mixed model (an absolute increase of 0.1 in the proportion of female palms
568 up to a maximum value of 0.5). This scenario represents the potential value of the

569 stand after approximately one to two decades if cutting trees down for harvesting
570 ceases today.

571 The density of palms, number of racemes per palm, the sack/racemes factor and price
572 of sacks all vary due to natural variation among stands and variation in market
573 conditions. To estimate the standard error of the overall potential income, the
574 standard errors of each component were propagated conservatively as the sum of the
575 fractional errors of each term⁶⁶ as:

$$576 \quad SE (Income_t) = \sum_{i=0}^n |Income_t| * \left(\frac{SE(D_{fem,i})}{D_{fem,i}} + \frac{SE(R_i)}{R_i} + \frac{SE(S_i)}{S_i} + \frac{SE(P_i)}{P_i} \right)$$

577 **Data availability statement:** The datasets used in the analysis in the current study are
578 available within the article and supplementary information file.

579 **Consent for publication:** The authors affirm that human research participants provided
580 informed consent for publication of the images in Supplementary Figure 6.

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604 **Author contributions**

605 C.G.H.P., E.N.H.C and T.R.B conceived the study, C.G.H.P., T.R.B., O.L.P and E.N.H.C
606 designed the study. C.G.H.P and T.R.B analysed the data, C.G.H.P. created the maps
607 and wrote the paper; J.D.P., J.D.J., J.M.R.H, C.J.C.O., G.G.M., G.F.L., E.R.P., J.I.P., L.G.S.
608 and M.M.B. led or took part in the field data collection and D.D.C.T, K.H.R., S.J.C.,
609 F.C.D., S.D.B., M.P.C., M.V.D.Z., G.M. and J.L. contributed funding or provided materials
610 for mapping the proportion of female *M. flexuosa* trees in palm swamp forests. All co-
611 authors commented on and approved the manuscript.

612 **Competing interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

613 **Figure legends**

614 **Figure 1.** Relationship between the proportion of female palms and travel time to
615 Iquitos, for 93 palm swamp forest stands across the Pastaza Marañón basin. Sites
616 where trees are cut down to harvest fruits are shown with filled circles and sites where
617 palms are climbed for harvesting are shown using open circles. The black line indicates
618 the predicted relationship from the mixed model between travel time and the
619 proportion of female palms for sites where trees are cut down to harvest the fruits;
620 the shaded area indicates the 95 % confidence limits of this relationship. This
621 relationship was used to predict and map the proportion of female palms across the
622 palm swamps of Loreto.

623 **Figure 2.** Map showing modelled variation in the proportion of female *Mauritia*
624 *flexuosa* trees in palm swamp forests in the northern Peruvian Amazon. The estimated
625 proportion of female *M. flexuosa* trees varies more than four-fold across the palm
626 swamps of the region. The solid black line delineates *M. flexuosa* stands within 5 km of
627 the main rivers and is used for calculating the total area of accessible palm swamps for
628 estimating the maximum potential income from fruit harvesting. Sampling sites
629 evaluated for this study are also shown. Inset highlights the location of Iquitos within
630 Loreto, Peru.

631 Source: this study

632 **Figure 3.** Map of estimated travel time to Iquitos from across Loreto. Estimates are
633 calculated for each 1 km² pixel based on river transport times from Iquitos to the
634 nearest point on a river, plus walking times to the centre of each pixel. River transport

635 is the main method of transportation in Loreto, with boat speed varying according by
636 route and load capacity. Here, we used a speed of 15 km hr⁻¹ for “lanchas” that ply the
637 main rivers and 4 km hr⁻¹ for “peque peques” that are used on the tributaries (see
638 Methods).

639 Source: this study

640 **Figure 4.** Estimated total potential regional income based on different land uses for
641 northern Amazon Peruvian forests. Left hand bar shows total potential estimated value
642 for accessible palm swamps <5km from a main river of (1) *M. flexuosa* fruit harvesting
643 today (\pm standard error), (2) *M. flexuosa* fruit harvesting where sustainable harvesting
644 techniques are employed across the whole area and the proportion of females has
645 increased in absolute terms by 0.1, up to a maximum value of 0.5, consistent with the
646 state of palm swamps today where fruits are harvested by climbing the trees, and (3)
647 under baseline, ‘natural’ conditions assuming a 1:1 sex ratio. Also shown are the
648 average annual value of taxes to the regional government of Loreto for the period
649 2015 – 2018 for oil exploitation (central bar), and the total declared value of timber by
650 forestry companies for 2015 (right hand bar). Timber and oil tax revenue values were
651 adjusted to 2019 values using the World Bank consumer price index⁶⁷.

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