Sustainable seed harvesting in wild plant populations

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Abstract

Seed harvesting from wild plant populations is key for ecological restoration, but may threaten the persistence of source populations. Consequently, several countries have set guidelines limiting the proportions of harvestable seeds. Here, we use high-resolution data from 298 plant species to model the demographic consequences of seed harvesting. We find that the current guidelines only protect some species, but are insufficient or overly restrictive for others. We show that the maximum possible fraction of seed harvesting is strongly associated with harvesting frequency and generation time of the target species, ranging from 100% in long-lived species to <1% in the most annuals. Our results provide quantitative basis to guide seed harvesting legislation based on species' generation time and harvesting regime.

The restoration of degraded ecosystems is a major goal of global nature conservation

(*1*). We have recently entered the 'UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration' (*2*), working

towards reversing the destruction and degradation of billions of hectares of ecosystems.

However, ecological restoration at such scales requires high volumes of plant seeds for

the re-establishment of native vegetation (*3*). Although there is a growing industry for

the production of wild plant seeds in specialised seed orchards (*4, 5*), large-scale

harvesting of seeds from wild populations is still common in ecological restoration, and

will continue to be in the future (*6*). This is particularly true for plant species that are

long-lived or difficult to cultivate (*7–9*).

With increasing demands for wild plant seeds, there is a growing risk of driving source

populations to local extinction (*10, 11*). This risk may be critical because the donor

populations are often remnants of habitats with high conservation value (*10, 12*).

Because of this risk, some regions, in particular the US (*13*), Australia (*14*), and Europe

(*15, 16*), have begun to set limits for the maximum fraction of seeds that can be

harvested annually from wild plant populations without causing significant negative

effects on their long-term viability ('*safe seed fraction*', hereafter). Safe fraction

guidelines are inconsistent across countries, with *e.g.* 20% harvest allowed in the US

(*17*), 10% in Australia (*14*), but only 2-10% in Germany, depending on plant growth type

(*15*). Crucially, these guidelines lack a solid quantitative basis. To do so, one needs to

explicitly link seed harvesting rates to population performance across plants and

ecosystems (*11, 18, 19*).

To quantify the effects of large-scale seed harvesting on the performance of donor

populations, and to assess how well current guidelines safeguard long-term population

persistence, we developed a statistical model to test impacts of simulated seed

harvesting on wild populations of 298 plant species from the COMPADRE Plant Matrix

Database (*20*, *21*). We used matrix population models to calculate 30-year projections

of population sizes and simulated seed harvesting as a reduction of the sexually

produced new recruits. To allow comparison across species, we expressed effects of

seed harvesting as relative population sizes, where *e.g.* 0.8 represents a 20% reduction

of population size and 0.5 a 50% reduction over 30 years, in comparison to the

population size that would be reached without seed harvesting (SM, section 4). As the

safe seed fraction was independent of the biogeographic origins of the examined

species (Table S1), we used all species in our dataset to test the guidelines of specific

countries.

We found that existing safe seed fraction guidelines protect only some but not all of the

examined species (Figure 1). For instance, the current US guidelines (20% seed

harvesting allowed) protect long-lived palms, with relative population sizes of 0.6 to 1

after 30 years, but would drive all 10 annual plants in our data to extinction (Fig. 1). With

the more restrictive German seed harvesting guidelines (2% seed harvesting allowed),

annual plants are projected to persist, with relative population sizes of 0.54 to 0.63 after

30 years. For all other plant growth types, safe seed fractions are much more variable.

For example, with the 20% seed harvesting currently allowed in the US, the predicted

relative population sizes of herbaceous perennials would range from 1 (no effect) to 0

(local extinction) after 30 years, while that of shrubs would range from 0.99 to 0.12, of

succulents from 0.99 to 0.27, and of trees from 0.99 to 0.18 (Fig. 1).

The large variation safe seed fraction within plant growth types showed that the latter is

a poor predictor of population vulnerability. Therefore, we next examined whether and

which life history traits are better predictors of seed harvesting impacts (Figure 2). To

enable practitioners to apply our findings, we restricted our analyses to five key life

history traits readily available from public databases (*e.g.,* (*20–22*)) or easy to estimate

in the field: generation time, mean age at sexual maturity, the degree of iteroparity

(frequency of reproduction) and clonality, and seed bank persistence (Figure 2, SM

section 5). We then related these traits to the vulnerability of our 298 species to seed

harvesting, defined as the slope of the relative decrease in population size with

increasing seed harvesting (SM section 3 and 6, Table S3).

Generation time is the strongest predictor of population vulnerability to seed harvesting.

This life history trait alone explains 52.3% of the variation in harvesting vulnerability,

with all five examined traits together explaining 62.3% (Fig. 2A). Population vulnerability

to seed harvesting decreases with increasing generation time (Fig. 2B). This finding is in

line with previous research, showing that the population dynamics of longer-lived

species are more strongly determined by impacts on than on reproduction survival (*23,*

24). The other four life history traits are also significantly related to seed harvesting

vulnerability (Fig. 2B) – species that reproduce more frequently and/or postpone their

first reproductive event are more vulnerable to seed harvesting, while species with

clonal reproduction and/or persistent seed banks are less vulnerable – but the predictive

power of these traits is low (Fig. 2A, Table S3). Population vulnerability also differs

significantly among plant growth types, but with rather minor effects. Annual plant

species and trees display greater vulnerability to seed harvesting than other growth

types, while succulents are least sensitive (Fig. 2C, Table S3).

Having identified generation time as a key determinant of population vulnerability to

seed harvesting, we next estimated the safe seed fraction across generation times and

harvesting frequencies (SM section 7). Population viability was defined as a <50%

decrease of population size during 30 years of seed harvesting, compared to the same

population without seed harvesting. A 50% decrease over 30 years corresponds to an

annual decrease of about 2%. Such slow declines may be acceptable in population

management because they can be monitored, and harvesting practices adjusted in time

if necessary. Slow population changes may also be naturally buffered against

environmental stochasticity (*25*), such as temporary seed overproduction or enhanced

seedling recruitment after disturbances (*26*, *27*), or by density-dependent processes

where populations are not seed-limited (*28*). Importantly, this threshold ensured a >95

% probability of population viability under environmental stochasticity in all analysed

species (Figure S5).

The safe seed fraction critically depends on generation time, with substantial residual

variation among species. For annual harvesting, the safe seed fraction ranged from

close to 0% to 100%, with an average of 2.3% (95% CI: 0.5-4.1%) for annual and

biennial plants, 10.1% (6.8-14.2%) for species with a 5-year generation time, and 40.1%

(36.4-43.7%) for species with generation times of 20 years (Fig. 3A). These results

highlight the need for more specific seed harvesting guidelines, since a fixed quota for

all plant species (*13*, *16*) is not sensible.

The estimated safe seed fractions for annual harvesting regimes are close to the current

German guidelines for herbaceous plants (2% for annuals, 10% for perennials (*29*)).

However, for longer-lived species, we show that larger fractions could be harvested

than what is currently recommended in the US or Australia, which use a 20% or 10%

maximum, respectively, for all species regardless of generation time (*14, 17*). For short-

lived species, the safe seed fraction is low; the question remains whether such low

yields are worth the effort of annual seed harvesting (*30*). A solution could be to harvest

less frequently. When harvesting only every two years, the safe seed harvesting fraction

for annuals and biennials increases from 2.3% to 5.3 % (2.7-7.9%), and with a 5-year or

10-year harvesting interval they increase to 11.3% (6.5-16.0%) and 30.3% (23.8-

36.8%), respectively (Fig 3B-D). For plant species with generation times above two

years, a 5-year harvesting cycle resulted in an average safe seed fraction of >30% (Fig.

3C), the amount typically removed from perennial grasslands with combine harvesters

(*31*).

In summary, our results indicate that seed harvesting in wild populations is possible, but

it must be guided by the critical factors of plant generation time and harvesting

frequency. For longer-lived species, harvesting large fractions of seeds is unlikely to

harm wild populations, particularly if seeds are not harvested every year. For short-lived

species, though, more caution is necessary. A profitable harvesting of 20-30% of the

seeds of annual species may only be possible if the harvesting regime takes place

every 5-10 years or more.

Our results demonstrate the demographic impact of seed harvesting, and how it

depends on plant life histories. Yet, we could have overestimated harvesting impacts for

two reasons. First, our analyses are based on matrix population models of species

averaged across years and sites, but temporal or spatial variation in demographic rates

could buffer some impacts of seed harvesting (*32*). We explored this possibility by re-

analysing the 108 species for which we had at least three spatial or temporal replicate

matrix population models, allowing us to estimate relative population sizes based on

randomly drawn individual (rather than mean) models (SM section). The resulting

relative population sizes were slightly larger and the safe harvesting seed fractions on

average 1.8% larger (Fig S3, Fig. S4), confirming that matrix averaging may cause

overestimation to a small extent. Second, our approach assumes plant populations to

be seed-limited. However, longer-lived plants are often limited by safe sites rather than

seeds, whereas seed limitation is more common in short-lived species (*28*). It is thus

likely that, in longer-lived species, the effects of seed harvesting are even less severe

than our findings suggest, but for annuals and short-lived forbs – the most vulnerable to

seed harvesting – our results are more likely to be accurate.

We identify the key plant trait, generation time, that predict population vulnerability to

seed harvesting. Together with an explicit consideration about the harvesting regime,

our results constitute an important step towards much-needed, evidence-based seed

harvesting guidelines. However, ultimately, even with improved guidelines, seed

harvesting from wild populations is unlikely to cover the growing worldwide needs of

ecological restoration (*33*). The ambitious targets of the UN Decade on Ecosystem

Restoration (*2*) may only be reached with professional, large-scale seed production in

seed orchards (*34, 35*).

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Figure 1. Predicted effects of seed harvesting on the relative population sizes of 298 plant species worldwide in relation to current guidelines in countries where such legislation exists: USA, Germany, and Australia. Points represent individual species. These results reflect the simulation of seed harvesting on matrix population models parameterised with data from natural populations.

Figure 2. Associations of plant life histories and growth forms with variation in seed harvesting vulnerability, as calculated from matrix population models parameterised with data from natural populations of 298 plant species. (A) Proportion of variability explained by different life history traits, and (B) their effect estimates. (C) The fitted values of vulnerability for different growth types. Estimates in (B) and (C) are presented with their 95% credible intervals. As both vulnerability to seed harvesting and all explanatory variables were standardised prior analysis, the estimates of slope are in arbitrary units. (D) Definitions of the five examined life history traits (for calculation see Table S2).

(D)

Generation time: the mean age of reproductive individuals in a population.
Age at sexual maturity: the average number of years after which individuals in a population become sexually reproductive.
Iteroparity: the frequency of reproduction throughout the lifespan of an individual, with high/low Demetrius' entropy (S) values for highly iteroparous/semelparous populations.
Seed bank: the mean life expectancy of seeds in the seedbank.
Clonality: the per-capita clonal contributions, weighted by the relative frequency of individuals in each stage along the life cycle of the species.

 Figure 3. Relationships between the generation times of 298 plant species and their

safe fractions for seed harvesting, estimated at different harvesting frequencies. The

safe seed fraction is the maximum proportion of annual seed production of a population

that can be harvested without reducing the relative population size to below 0.5 in 30

years.

313   Online supplementary material to

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Methods and supplementary results

To quantify the effect of seed harvesting on wild plant populations, we used matrix population

models (*1*). We first tested the impacts of seed harvesting by using simulations the regulatory

recommendations on seed harvesting in the wild of three regions where such regulations are in

place (Australia, Germany and USA). Second, we calculated the population vulnerability to seed

harvesting for each of the 298 plant species examined. Third, we related those effects to plant

key life history traits (*i.e.* defining characteristics of their life cycles; e.g. generation time, age at

maturity). In the fourth step, we used the life history traits that explained most of the

vulnerability of natural populations to seed harvesting to formulate biologically-sound

management recommendations. The ultimate goal of such recommendations is to impose a

threshold to seed harvesting so that (i) the population size does not decline more than by 50%

over 30 years of consecutive (*i.e.* annual) seed harvest and (ii) the population may still have a

95% probability of persistence. All calculations and statistics were performed in R(*2*), and the

reproducible, commented scripts are found in an online repository (*specify*).

1   Matrix population models

1.1   General introduction

Matrix population models (MPMs, hereafter) are a widely used tool for investigating population
dynamics (*1*). Briefly, an MPM describes the life cycle of an organism in terms of age, size and/or
developmental stages along its lifecycle and the transitions between stages, usually from one
year to the next, as well as the sexual and clonal per-capita contributions to the population by
individuals in each of those stages (Figure S1). One of the many applications of MPMs is the ability
to project the dynamics of a population through time (*1*), whereby a long-term population growth
rate can be estimated (Figure S1). Importantly here, MPMs can also be used to calculate a wide
range of population characteristics such as life history traits (*3*), extinction probability (*4*), and
the effects of different hypothetical events (such as seed harvesting) on the long-term viability
of a population (*5*, *6*).

Figure S1: Life cycle of a hypothetical plant species with three stages (seedbank, juvenile, and adult) and its
corresponding matrix population model (MPM), with λ indicating its long-term population growth rate, which is a

function of population size (*N*) between two time-points *t* and *t*+1. Seed harvesting in this study was simulated by

manipulating the transitions that describe generative reproduction.

In this study, we used MPMs to simulate seed harvesting as reduction of the per-capita

contribution(s) describing seed production (Figure S1). We did so by simulating the harvesting of

newly produced seeds while keeping all other demographic processes unaltered. The resulting

MPM thus describes the population dynamics in a year where seed harvesting took place.

1.2   COMPADRE database

We used data stored in THE COMPADRE Plant Matrix Database (version 5.0.0.), last accessed

25.8.2019 (*7*). In this version, COMPADRE contains 9121 MPMs from 647 published works

describing life cycles of 760 plant species, ranging from algae to trees worldwide. MPMs in the

database are accompanied by extensive metadata including the continent where the study was

carried out, whether it was carried in captivity or in the wild and standardized information about

each life cycle stage in three categories: propagules, individuals photosynthetically active, and

individuals in vegetative dormancy. In the vast majority of MPMs in COMPADRE, the full MPM ***A***

is divided into three submatrices (*3*): ***U*** includes demographic processes that depend on survival

of individuals alive at the beginning of the census (i.e., progressive growth, stasis, retrogressive

growth, seedbank persistence, and vegetative dormancy), ***F*** includes sexual reproduction (e.g.

production of seeds and juveniles), and ***C*** includes clonal reproduction (*i.e.* vegetative

reproduction of ramets), such that

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} + \mathbf{F} + \mathbf{C} \qquad\qquad eq.\ 1$$

1.3 Selection of the MPMs

We selected species and MPMs from COMPADRE based on the following criteria to allow for

inter-specific comparisons for our specific questions:

- Only angiosperms and gymnosperms, since the ultimate goal of this study is to simulate

the effect of seed harvesting on seed-producing plants.

- MPMs parameterised from field data from wild populations and under unmanipulated

conditions, because the aim of this study is to understand the effect of seed harvest on

natural, wild populations.

- MPMs for which the sexual reproduction component had been quantified explicitly, and

separated from other processes in order to allow us to accurately perturb sexual reproduction

(seed production; see below).

- MPMs that are irreducible, ergodic, and primitive, so the dominant eigenvalue

(population growth rate) and other key properties could be calculated (*1*).

- When multiple studies per species were available (n = 235 species), we selected the single

study per species that:

  - Documented a seed bank, because inclusion of the transition in MPMs is vital

    to correct estimation of life history traits (*8*)

  - Contained a higher number of individual MPMs (*i.e.*, from more populations or

    more years) to use the most representative demographic information for the

    target species.

These selection criteria resulted in 467 MPMs from 467 plant species. Next, we checked the

reliability of incorporating a seed bank in them or not. While survival of seeds in the seed bank is

well documented in many demographic studies (*9*), between 42.9% and 47.3% of studies using

MPMs in plant species unjustifiably exclude seed banks (8), thus assigning seedlings in year *t* to

reproductive plants in *t*-1 (e.g. (*10*)). However, this assumption is only correct in species with

transient seed bank, i.e. seeds survive in the soil less than one year and thus, do not form a

permanent soil seed bank (*8*). For those studies in our list were seed banks were not explicitly

considered in their MPMs, we verified whether the species indeed has only transient seed bank

or not. We did so by carefully examining the original source of the MPM(s). If the source did not

mention seed bank, we further searched in the TRY database (*11*) for its potential existence.

Consequently, we excluded 169 species where seedbanks were unjustifiably excluded from their

MPMs.

This final selection criterion resulted in dataset 298 species (each species having a

representative MPM) from 84 taxonomic families. This is the final set of species and data that

were used for the simulations described below.

1.4   Mean MPMs vs individual MPMs

For the majority of studies in COMPADRE, MPMs are available for several annual transitions and

populations, and so this was also the case in our final dataset. For all calculations, except in the

case of stochastic simulations (Section 8), we used a single *mean* MPMs per species across all

years and populations of demographic data available for that species. This mean MPM was

calculated as the element-by-element arithmetic mean of the aforementioned MPMs, or pooled

directly (e.g. weighted mean by sample size) from the individual-level data when provided by the

author in the publication or through personal communications with the COMPADRE team.

For the stochastic simulations, we used *individual* MPMs, which represent the population

dynamics during a given annual transition and at a given population. For this purpose, we used

only species that were represented in the database by at least three individual MPMs (Section

8), resulting in 1676 individual MPMs from across 114 plant species in our dataset.

2   Simulating seed harvesting

We used MPMs to simulate the impact of seed harvesting on populations. We used the following

approach, where we first used the mean MPM (Section 1.4) for each species, and simulated seed

harvesting as a reduction in the values describing reproduction via seed in the sexual

reproduction matrix **F** (see equation 1). Specifically, we created a modified MPM **A'** with reduced

per-capita contributions of seed production in **F**. To carry out our projections, we initiated the

population vector n_0 as the stable stage distribution of the original MPM **A**. This vector n_0 was

obtained as the right-eigenvector of **A** following methods described by Caswell (2001). We then

projected n_0 30 years using the modified MPM **A'** and the chain rule (*1*). We chose this period of

time for our projections because it is long enough to observe even minor changes in the overall

population size *N* that are not typically possible to quantify by short-term monitoring (*12*), while

it is of sufficient length to fit within the active career of a land manager or conservation

practitioner. We benchmarked the resulting population size $N_{30\ harvest}$ relative to the population

size $N_{30\ no\ harvest}$ that would have been achieved in the absence of seed harvesting as in equation

2:

$$N_{30\ relative} = \frac{N_{30\ harvest}}{N_{30\ no\ harvest}} \qquad\qquad eq.\,2$$

The relative population size $N_{30\ relative}$ thus ranges between 1 (when seed harvesting has no effect

on population size; $N_{30\ harvest}$ = $N_{30\ no\text{-}harvest}$) to 0 (when the effect is so drastic it drives N to 0 within

30 years). For example, a value of $N_{30\ relative}$ = 0.1 means that the population size achieved with

seed harvesting is 10% of the population size that would have been achieved without seed

harvesting. The use of this metric as measure of seed harvesting impact allowed us next to

implement intra- and inter-specific comparisons, regardless of the variable population growth

rates of each species' population. When calculating the population sizes with and without harvest

($N_{30\ harvest}$ and $N_{30\ no\ harvest}$), we included only the active but not dormant (seed bank, dormant

vegetative) life stages of the population vectors N_{30} because practitioners and scientist

commonly evaluate population size based on counting active, standing individuals.

3   Vulnerability to seed harvesting

We used mean MPMs to calculate species vulnerability to seed harvesting. For each species, we

created 101 MPMs that describe population dynamics when harvesting 0-100% of seed

production, in 1% steps (Figure S1). As in section 2, we used these virtual MPMs to project

population size over 30 years. We then fitted an exponential-decay model to quantify the

effects of the varying proportion of harvested seed (p) on the relative population size in the 30

years ($N_{30\ relative}$) as follows:

$$N_{30\ relative} = e^{p(-b)}$$ eq. 3

where b determines how steeply the relative population size ($N_{30\ relative}$) decreases with

increasing proportion of harvest pressure, such that the larger b, the steeper this decrease is.

We hereby refer to this coefficient as *vulnerability to seed harvesting* (Figure S2).

Figure S2. Vulnerability of population dynamics to seed harvesting (b in equation S3) in two of our 298 examined
plant species. Note how the larger the value of b, the more vulnerable the given species is to seed harvesting.
Black dots: simulated values; red line: fitted exponential-decay model as per equation 3.

4 Testing current recommendations

We used MPMs to simulate the impact of seed harvesting according the current rules on the relative population size $N_{30\ relative}$. As far as we are aware of, explicit recommendations for the maximal proportion of seeds that can be harvested from natural populations exist only in three countries. In USA and Australia, this value is 20% and 10%, respectively, for common plant species when harvesting seeds for restoration projects (*13*, *14*). German rules are available for herbaceous plants: 2% for annual and 10% for perennial when harvested every year (*15*).

As the current recommendations are partly growth-form specific (*15*),we examined the reduction in relative population size as a function of plant growth form. Namely the levels were annual, herbaceous perennial, epiphyte, palm, succulent, shrub, and tree, as indicated in the metadata in COMPADRE. For this analysis, we excluded growth forms represented by less than 5 species, that is epiphytes (n=4) and lianas (n=1), as well as plant species whose generation time disagreed with the metadata of the species - specifically, annual species with generation time larger than two years (n=4). As the vulnerability to seed harvesting of individual species (Section 3) depended neither on a continent nor on the interaction between a continent and plant growth form (Table S1), we grouped species only by growth form and used the same set of species to test the recommendations from Australia, USA and Germany (Figure 1 in the main text).

Table S1: The effects of continent and plant growth form on vulnerability to seed harvesting. Results of linear model with vulnerability to seed harvesting (log-transformed) as a response variable and plant growth form, continent, and their interaction as explanatory variables. We report results of a simple

482   linear model because generalized least square model with phylogenetic correction failed due to singular
483   fit. Terms are fitted sequentially; significant values are in bold. Adjusted R^2=0.15

	df	resid. df	F	p
Plant growth form	5	242	10.31	**<0.001**
Continent	5	242	1.12	0.349
Plant growth form × Continent	13	242	0.99	0.462

5   Life history traits

We used life history traits to explain species vulnerability to seed harvesting. A life history trait

is a key feature that describes the life cycle of the organism (e.g. generation time, age of sexual

maturity, iteroparity, clonal propagation, survival of seeds in the seed bank). As our ultimate

motivation was to facilitate the translation of our findings to land managers and practitioners,

out of the wide range of life history traits that can be derived from MPMs (e.g (*1*, *3*)), we

selected the traits that are readily available in trait databases or easy to estimate in the field

(Table S2). All life history traits were calculated based on the matrix A of the mean MPM of each

of our 298 species.

Table S2: Formulation of the life-history traits used to explain species vulnerability to seed harvesting in
the studies 298 vascular plant species. λ is the population growth rate, which corresponds to the
dominant eigenvalue of the matrix **A**; l_x and m_x are stage-specific survival and fertility schedules, **C** is the
submatrix describing clonal reproduction, m is the dimension of the matrix **C**, **w** is the stable stage
distribution of the matrix **A**, j column entries of the matrix population model.

Life history trait	Biological meaning	Formula
Generation time T	Number of years necessary for the individuals of a population to be fully replaced by new ones	$T = \dfrac{log(\int_1^\infty l_x m_x \, dx)}{log(\lambda)}$
Age at sexual maturity L_α	Number of years that it takes an average individual in the population to become sexually reproductive	L_α as described in Caswell 2001's equation 5.41 (*1*)
Degree of iteroparity S	Spread of reproduction throughout the lifespan of the individual as quantified by Demetrius' entropy (S). High/low S values correspond to iteroparous/semelparous populations	$S = -e^{-log\lambda} l_x m_x log(e^{-log\lambda} l_x m_x)$
Clonality K	Per-capita clonal contributions weighted by the stable stage distribution of the MPM	$K = \sum_1^m \bar{C}_j \bar{w}_j$
Seed bank residence	Mean amount of time individuals are expected to stay in the seedbank stage	As described in Caswell 2001's equation 5.36 (*1*) according to the fundamental matrix approach for the life cycle stage(s) that correspond to the seed bank stage(s)

6 The effect of life history traits on vulnerability to seed harvesting

We used linear model to determine which life history traits (generation time, age at sexual maturity degree of iteroparity, clonality, seed bank residence) best explain species' vulnerability to seed harvesting (Section 3). We also added plant growth form as an explanatory variable (as defined in the COMPADRE database (*7*)) to the model to test whether it explains any additional variability. Restricting the model to key life history traits allowed us to keep the full model and avoid model selection, which is known to produce exaggerated effect sizes and spurious effects (*16*). Species vulnerability to seed harvesting was log-transformed prior analysis to achieve normality. Other explanatory variables except plant growth type (factor) were log-transformed and standardised to adhere to the model assumptions of normally distributed errors.

Table S3: The effect of life history traits on vulnerability to seed harvesting, results of the model, significant values (*P*<0.05) are in bold. Adjusted R^2 = 0.62.

	df	resid. df	F	p
Generation time	1	263	210.92	**<0.001**
Degree of iteropartity	1	263	18.80	**<0.001**
Age at sexual maturity	1	263	8.24	**0.004**
Seed bank residence	1	263	5.66	**0.018**
Clonality	1	263	7.98	**0.005**
Plant growth type	5	263	4.64	**<0.001**

To illustrate the importance of the life history traits for predicting the species vulnerability to

seed harvesting (Figure 2 in the main text), we expressed the relative importance of each

predictor in the model as the proportion of explained variability assigned to each predictor. As

the explained variability can depend on the sequential order of the predictors in the model, we

averaged the sequential explained variability for each predictor across all possible ordering of

the predictors using the R package *relaimp* (*17*). To visualize effect sizes of the effect of life history

traits on the species vulnerability to seed harvesting, as well as uncertainty of these effects, we

used 95% credible intervals, a Bayesian analogue of confidence intervals. These were calculated

from 10,000 simulations of the mean and variance of each estimate, using the *sim* function in the

R package *arm* with non-informative prior (*18*).

We also run a model including the phylogenetic relationships among species to test the extent

to which the explanatory power of life history traits on species' vulnerability to seed harvesting

is in fact driven by the phylogenetic inertia in the quantified plant life-history traits (*19*). We used

a phylogenetic generalized least square model to include the phylogeny of our species. We

obtained the phylogeny from COMPADRE, following methods detailed elsewhere (*3*). With this

model, we estimated Pagel's λ (not to be confused with the population growth rate, also referred

to as λ in the demographic literature (*1*)), a measure of phylogenetic signal in the trait structure.

Briefly, Pagel's λ=0 indicates no effect of the phylogenetic structure in the dataset in explaining

variation in a given trait, while Pagel's λ=1 indicates that the phylogenetic structure perfectly

predicts, i.e. is responsible for, the life history trait structure. Negative values suggest that closely

related species have more different traits than would be expected by random ((*19*). In our

phylogenetic generalized least square mode, the phylogenetic signal was overall weak and

negative (Pagel's λ=-0.1). Based on this result, we opted to present in this paper results from the

linear model without phylogenetic correction.

7 Assessing limits of seed collection

We used the mean MPM per species to estimate how large a proportion of seed production can

one collect from the natural population while only moderately affecting its dynamics. As a

moderate effect, we defined a reduction in population size N of not less than 0.5 times the size

that would have been achieved without seed harvesting during the course of 30 years of a

constant annual harvest intensity. While a reduction of population size by 50% over 30 years may

seem to be relatively high, it corresponds to an annual decline of <2%. Importantly, this threshold

also allows for the persistence of the natural population under environmental stochasticity in

>99% of species (see 8.2).

For each species' MPM, we simulated the effect of seed harvesting as a reduction of seed

production transition by 0-100%, in 1% intervals. We used such reduced, virtual MPMs to

simulate population dynamics across 30 years We recorded the final population size and

expressed it as relative to population size that would be achieved without seed harvesting (see

Section 2, note this calculation is the same as the first step of calculation of vulnerability to seed

harvesting, Section 3). Apart of annual harvest, we also modelled the effect of harvesting seeds

once in 2, 5 or 10 years because reducing harvesting frequency up to once in 10 years is

sometimes recommended to limit negative effects of seed harvest on population dynamics (*20*).

In this case, we modelled population dynamics with the original mean MPM and the reduced

MPM was used every 2nd, 5th or 10th run. As the safe fraction for seed harvesting, we considered

the largest proportion of seed that was possible to harvest without exceeding the 50 % reduction

of the relative population size.

We related the safe fraction for seed harvesting to the generation time, as the most important

predictor of species vulnerability to seed harvesting -this trait alone explained 52.3% of total

variability in species vulnerability to seed harvesting. We used non-linear regression in *R* (*nsl*) to

describe the sigmoid relationship between the safe fraction of seed harvesting and the

generation time, and used function in package *investr* (*21*) to generate confidence intervals of

the relationship (Figure 3 in the main text).

8   Effect of environmental stochasticity

In a portion of our studied species, we simulated the effect of environmental stochasticity on

population dynamics to understand how environmental stochasticity affects our prediction for

seed harvesting based on the mean MPMs. We used all species in our dataset represented by at

least three individual MPMs (Section 1.4), resulting in 1,578 MPMs across 108 plant species. We

simulated environmental stochasticity as projecting vector of stable stage distribution by

randomly drawn individual MPM in each step. To obtain probability distribution of results under

environmental stochasticity, we repeated the process 1,000 times. We expressed the results as

$N_{30\ relative}$ (equation eq. 2). The effect of seed harvesting was simulated as above (Section 4), with

the difference that in each of the 30 annual time-steps in each of the 1,000 simulation runs, we

randomly draw one individual MPM from the set of individual MPMs available for given species.

8.1 The effect of seed harvesting on population size based on environmental stochasticity versus mean MPM

To understand how environmental stochasticity affects our results, we estimated the robustness of our results in stochastic environments. As an example, we used the effect of harvest of 20% of seed production, expressed as $N_{30\,relative}$, and simulated seed harvesting either using mean MPMs or stochastic simulation. Further, we compared the safe fraction for seed harvesting ($N_{30\,relative} > 0.5$) based on the mean MPMs to the median of seed safe fraction based on the stochastic simulations.

The median of relative population sizes $N_{30\,relative}$ based on 1,000 permutations of stochastic simulations (y axis in the Figure S3) closely correlated with the $N_{30\,relative}$ based on the mean MPMs. Interestingly, the relative population size $N_{30\,relative}$ based on stochastic simulation (orange points in the Figure S3) was slightly higher than the $N_{30\,relative}$ based on mean MPMs (black line in Figure S3), especially in species that are more vulnerable to seed harvesting. Consequently, the safe fraction for seed harvesting based on the median of stochastic simulations was on average 0.017 higher that safe fraction based on the mean MPMs (Figure S4). This suggests that environmental stochasticity partly buffers the predicted decrease of population size caused by seed harvesting.

Figure S3: Comparison of relative population size $N_{30\,relative}$ when 20% of seeds was harvested, based on mean MPMs (x axis) with the $N_{30\,relative}$ from calculations with implemented environmental stochasticity (y axis).

Figure S4: Comparison of the safe fraction for seed harvesting based on $N_{30\,relative} > 0.5$ as calculated from the mean MPM (x-axis and the 1:1 black line), with the median of safe fraction for seed harvesting based on $N_{30\,relative} > 0.5$, as based on stochastic simulations (with 95% CI).

8.2 Threshold for seed harvesting based on mean MPM versus extinction probability

In the models above, we have set a threshold for seed harvesting so that the relative population size $N_{30\ relative}$ decreases to a maximum value of 0.5. In this section, we tested whether this threshold also prevents population from extinctions. For each species, we computed how large a proportion of seeds could be sustainably harvested without causing extinction in at least 95% of permutations of stochastic simulations. Here, we considered a population to go locally extinct when $N_{30\ relative} < 0.01$ (see Section 2 for definition of $N_{30\ relative}$). For each species, we compared the threshold based on the 95% probability of population survival with the threshold based on mean MPM and $N_{30\ relative} >$ maximum decline to 0.5.

In the vast majority (<99%) of examined species, the threshold based on $N_{30\ relative} > 0.5$ (as

calculated   using   mean   MPMs,   black   line   in   the

Figure S5) allowed for the collection of a lower proportion of seeds than the threshold based on

95% probability population survival when using stochastic simulations (points in the

Figure S5). This pattern suggests that the rules based on $N_{30\ relative} > 0.5$ derived from the mean

MPMs prevent populations from going locally extinct.

Figure S5: Comparison of the threshold for maximal seed harvest based on $N_{30\ relative} > 0.5$ as calculated from the
mean MPM (x-axis and the 1:1 black line), with the maximal seed harvest that allows 95% probability of population
survival of each considered species, as based on stochastic simulation.

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