

1 **Conservation in a changing world needs predictive models.**

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13 As conservationists we need to predict how biological systems will respond to  
14 environmental change, and how such responses may be affected by conservation  
15 interventions (Clark *et al.*, 2001). Environmental change can create novel  
16 environmental conditions; for example, climate change has generated new extremes  
17 in patterns of temperature and precipitation, whilst the human-assisted spread of  
18 exotic species has created novel species assemblages and interactions.  
19 Conservation organisations may also intervene to alter environmental conditions  
20 experienced by animals; for example at the Wildfowl & Wetland Trust we have  
21 created a network of reserves to provide undisturbed feeding and roosting areas for  
22 waterbirds (Rees & Bowler, 1996). Currently, many approaches to prediction are  
23 based on observed relationships between a biological property of conservation  
24 interest (e.g. species distribution) and one or more environmental variables  
25 (reviewed in Sutherland, 2006). However, such relationships, typically measured for  
26 a narrow range of environmental conditions, may not hold as conditions change,  
27 especially given the complex, non-linear responses shown by ecological systems  
28 (Stillman *et al.*, 2015a).

29 Calls for conservation to become more predictive (Clark *et al.*, 2001; Sutherland,  
30 2006; Pennekamp *et al.*, in press) have led to the development of models that base  
31 predictions on fitness maximization decision-rules, including individual-based  
32 models, dynamic energy budget models, and mechanistic species distribution  
33 models (Kearney & Porter, 2009; Sousa *et al.*, 2010; Stillman *et al.*, 2015a). Such  
34 models allow us to predict key conservation outcomes including the numbers and  
35 distributions of animals, their physiological state, demographic rates, and interactions  
36 between individuals and species (Grimm & Railsback, 2005). The decision rules of  
37 fitness-maximizing models are based on adaptive behaviour and so are not expected

38 to change even if the environment changes, and are thus more likely to maintain  
39 their predictive power as environmental conditions change than are the empirical  
40 relationships of traditional correlative methods (Sutherland & Norris, 2002; Stillman  
41 *et al.*, 2015a). This basis for prediction enables such models to produce accurate,  
42 robust predictions outside of the range of environmental conditions for which they  
43 were parameterized (Wood, Stillman & Goss-Custard, 2015).

44 As conservation practitioners we have used predictive models to inform our  
45 responses to a range of conservation problems. For example, we recently used a  
46 fitness-maximizing model to predict how the carrying capacity of a key stopover site  
47 for migratory waterbirds would be affected by projected sea level rises, changes in  
48 food resources, and increased anthropogenic disturbance (Stillman *et al.*, 2015b).

49 Predictive models typically require both the specialist computational skills of  
50 scientists, as well as the practitioners' detailed knowledge of the system being  
51 modelled (Wood, Stillman & Goss-Custard, 2015). Hence, conservation practitioners  
52 and scientists need to collaborate and communicate effectively to develop predictive  
53 models (Cartwright *et al.*, 2016).

54 Pennekamp *et al.* (in press) found that low data availability limited the use of  
55 predictive models in conservation, as such models need relatively large amounts of  
56 data to run and test. When developing our own models, we have found that such  
57 data are often not available in the literature, and may not always be practical to  
58 collect in the field. As practitioners, we need scientists to make better use of existing  
59 data, as well as greater use of our expert knowledge. For example, model parameter  
60 values and their uncertainty can be estimated using Bayesian approaches informed  
61 by pooled expert knowledge of conservation practitioners (Martin *et al.*, 2012).

62 Approaches that increase the speed and spatial scale of data collection, including

63 remote sensing and citizen science, can aid model development (Janssen & Ostrom,  
64 2006; Robinson *et al.*, 2007). Better synthesis of available data (e.g. Roberts *et al.*,  
65 2016), and archiving of such data where it can be searched for and accessed, would  
66 enable more efficient estimation of parameter values from incomplete data.

67 Allometric scaling methods have proven useful for estimating species- and system-  
68 specific values for parameters for which data are not available or measurable.

69 Additionally, missing parameter values can be estimated from model simulations in a  
70 calibration process, with starting values informed by practitioners' knowledge (Grimm  
71 & Railsback, 2005).

72 Due to the difficulty of measuring lifetime reproductive success directly, proxies such  
73 as energy-maximization have been used to implement the fitness-maximization  
74 decision-rules in predictive models (Grimm & Railsback, 2005). However, the identity  
75 of the most appropriate proxy is often unclear. The development of a wider suite of  
76 decision-rules and model currencies, and understanding the systems for which each  
77 is most applicable, would allow predictive models to be implemented for a broader  
78 range of conservation issues (McLane *et al.*, 2011). For example, for some  
79 herbivores nitrogen or predator avoidance may be more important than energy, due  
80 to the relatively low N content of vegetation and higher predation risk of herbivores,  
81 respectively (Inger *et al.*, 2006). To incorporate budgets based on alternative  
82 currencies, including macronutrients such as nitrogen, we need physiological  
83 information including the rates of gain and loss of such currencies. The availability of  
84 such information is currently limited for model currencies other than energy.

85 Conservation scientists and practitioners can co-create predictive models; for  
86 example the expert knowledge of practitioners can inform the ranges of parameter  
87 values used to build and test models using Bayesian or traditional calibration

88 approaches. Scientists can also create tools to allow practitioners to use models  
89 directly. Generalized software that minimizes system-and species-specific  
90 assumptions (e.g. MORPH; Stillman, 2008) can allow the development of models  
91 without having to start from scratch. These packages provide a software “shell”  
92 containing only general processes (e.g. food consumption), but no system-specific  
93 parameters or processes. Instead, parameters and equations are contained in  
94 parameter files external to the software itself, allowing detailed models of wide-  
95 ranging systems to be developed without the time cost of programming new  
96 software. Furthermore, general modelling software, such as NetLogo  
97 (<http://ccl.northwestern.edu/netlogo/>), allows the development of complex models  
98 more rapidly with little programming experience.

99 Predictive models can take many years to develop, yet as practitioners we need to  
100 address conservation problems urgently (Stillman *et al.*, 2015a). Our article  
101 highlights the need of practitioners for the insights of predictive models, and how  
102 conservation scientists can work with practitioners to overcome obstacles that can  
103 prevent their implementation. Without the concerted efforts of scientists and  
104 practitioners to implement these steps, predictive models will not fulfil their potential.

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