

1 **Increasing the uptake of ecological model results in policy decisions to improve biodiversity**
2 **outcomes**

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39 Abstract

40 Models help decision-makers anticipate the consequences of policies for ecosystems and people;
41 for instance, improving our ability to represent interactions between human activities and
42 ecological systems is essential to identify pathways to meet the 2030 Sustainable Development
43 Goals. However, use of modeling outputs in decision-making remains uncommon. We share
44 insights from a multidisciplinary National Socio-Environmental Synthesis Center working group
45 on technical, communication, and process-related factors that facilitate or hamper uptake of
46 model results. We emphasize that it is not simply technical model improvements, but active and
47 iterative stakeholder involvement that can lead to more impactful outcomes. In particular, trust-
48 and relationship-building with decision-makers are key for knowledge-based decision making. In
49 this respect, nurturing knowledge exchange on the interpersonal (e.g., through participatory
50 processes), and institutional level (e.g., through science-policy interfaces across scales),
51 represent promising approaches. To this end, we offer a generalized approach for linking
52 modeling and decision-making.

53 **Key Words:** biodiversity-ecosystem function relationships; co-production; ecological modeling;
54 policy relevance; stakeholder engagement

55 Introduction

56 Ecosystems depend on diverse biological attributes to ensure ecological functions and
57 processes that are fundamental to life on Earth. Improving our ability to represent interactions
58 between human activities and ecological systems is essential to identify pathways to meet the
59 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (Kim et al., 2018). Therefore, decision-makers often want
60 to anticipate the consequences of policies for ecosystems and human well-being (Isbell et al.,
61 2017). Models are important tools to support such endeavors and can provide a useful way to
62 examine possible outcomes (IPBES et al., 2016). However, examples of modeling outputs that
63 have directly influenced conservation practice and decision-making are rare (Rapacciolo, 2019).
64 While models are often created with the intention of informing decision-makers, there are a
65 number of factors that may hamper or facilitate the use of the models, and research more
66 broadly, in decision-making processes (Dilling and Lemos, 2011; IPBES et al., 2016; Wall et al.,
67 2017).

68 Here, we focus on the uptake of biodiversity, ecosystem function, and ecosystem services
69 models. Integrating biodiversity and ecosystem function (BEF) models to improve projections of
70 ecosystem services was one of the main challenges identified in the collective modeling effort
71 that contributed to the IPBES Global Assessment (Rosa et al., 2020), and the insights we share in
72 this paper are drawn from an interdisciplinary SESYNC (The National Socio-Environmental
73 Synthesis Center) working group focused on this challenge. To draw on our collective
74 experience, we informally interviewed working group members that have developed or work
75 extensively with different ecological models about their model use experience.

76 Working group members have experience with a variety of ecological models with
77 varying levels of uptake in policy processes at different scales, which provided a unique
78 opportunity to compare factors hampering and facilitating model uptake. Models ranged from
79 national fisheries management (e.g., Atlantis in Australia; (Elizabeth A. Fulton et al., 2014)) to
80 regional water management and land use planning (e.g., INVEST; (Daily et al., 2009; Kareiva et
81 al., 2011; Nelson et al., 2009) (See list of models in appendix 1). Nearly half of the models
82 discussed had not yet been used in a specific decision-making process.

83 Drawing on this expert opinion and reflection, we present lessons learned for how to
84 improve ecological model uptake for decision-makers, and go further to emphasize that it is not
85 simply uptake, but active and iterative involvement by stakeholders that can lead to more
86 impactful outcomes. This is especially important as we move into the negotiation of the post-
87 2020 Global Biodiversity Framework for the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), where
88 there is a huge reliance being placed on the ability of models to identify challenges and to answer
89 key questions, especially in monitoring progress towards specific targets. For example, models
90 are being used to explore possible pathways to reversing biodiversity loss by 2050 (Leclère et al.,
91 2020). Here, we present key considerations to ensure that models are better able to meet policy
92 needs. Although many of the concepts we present are not new (e.g., (Rose et al., 2020), there is a
93 persistent need to raise awareness of these issues and potential solutions among the modeling
94 community (Addison et al., 2013; Rapacciuolo, 2019; Saltelli et al., 2020). Enhanced
95 consideration of these issues by ecological modelers may improve the usefulness of modeling
96 results in decision-making - allowing models to reach their full potential by providing decision-
97 makers with a stronger evidence basis for making decisions in often highly uncertain contexts.

98 **Facilitating and Hampering Factors**

99 We categorized the factors facilitating and hampering the use of models into three main
100 categories: technical, communication, and process-based (i.e. related to the social context of
101 decision-making) factors. These mirror the characteristics of actionable information identified by
102 Cash et al. (Cash et al., 2003) -- credible, salient, and legitimate -- but are distinct in that they are
103 specific factors related to modeling, which may or may not lead to information uptake.

104 **Technical factors** are often the focus of modeling work (e.g., improving model accuracy,
105 precision, and data processing techniques, addressing data gaps). From the technical perspective,
106 issues which can either facilitate or hamper model uptake span the entire modeling process,
107 including the thematic focus or scope of a model, as well as model assumptions, resolution, and
108 scale (spatial and temporal). Model relevance is often more context dependent than discussed, so
109 it is important to assess whether the model is fit for purpose in each context where it is being
110 used (Parker, 2020). Most models that had been used in a policy context had underlying data
111 and/or model results that matched the scale of the decision. Crucially, the general model framing
112 - in terms of implicit or explicit value judgements by the modelers and model designers - may
113 underpin the additional technical barriers outlined below.

114 While most models did not incorporate BEF relationships, modelers deemed them to be
115 important to include depending on the decision. Better incorporation of these relationships could
116 improve model accuracy, especially over longer time frames where it is important to capture all
117 relevant processes in the model. For example, an Australian ecosystem modeling exercise that
118 ran more traditionally structured marine ecosystem models alongside models including species
119 turnover found very different results under various potential levels of climate change (Fulton and
120 Gorton, 2014). Biodiversity-productivity relationships have also been found to be important for
121 both biodiversity conservation and climate mitigation (Mori et al., 2021). In other cases, the
122 potential imbalance between model complexity and the perceived usefulness of output could act
123 as a hampering technical barrier; for instance, incorporating BEF relationships into INVEST
124 models used for mapping water supply may not be useful, because the policy-driven question
125 may not be directly impacted by this relationship, and including it may make the model
126 unnecessarily complicated. There is a long history of work in fisheries showing that the
127 complexity of models used in decision making must be compatible with the level of available
128 information, with more constrained models containing key relationships leading to more
129 effective management decisions than more complicated models based on sparse information
130 (Ludwig and Walters, 1985). However, it is important to update models as new data and
131 understanding of underlying relationships become available (Myers et al., 2021). Ultimately, our
132 interviews highlighted that the BEF link is currently lacking in most models but would be
133 especially important to better understand the consequences of climate change and other global
134 changes for ecosystem services. A key reason for this is because it is the change in biodiversity
135 over time, within a place, that is expected to impact ecosystem services. BEF experiments assess
136 this relationship, which could otherwise be masked by only comparing ecosystem services
137 between sites (Loreau, 1998; Tilman et al., 2014).

138 **Communication and accessibility**-related factors facilitating or hampering the uptake of
139 models and their outputs included the accessibility of the model design (e.g., how the model
140 design and assumptions are communicated), the accessibility of the modeling interface (e.g., the
141 steepness of the model interface learning curve), as well as the accessibility of the modeling
142 output (e.g., how difficult the modeling products are to understand, to be updated and to maintain
143 accessibility in time). Models that lack flexibility or are difficult to use can discourage decision-
144 makers (Robinson and Freebairn, 2000). Another key factor is transparency or clarity in
145 addressing the uncertainties related to a model -- scientific uncertainty does not necessarily
146 decrease trust (van der Bles et al., 2020), but the way in which it is communicated is influential
147 (Howe et al., 2019). Adding precise numbers to uncertain predictions can lead to a false sense of
148 accuracy in the results (Saltelli et al., 2020). On the decision-maker side, there is also a tendency
149 to confuse uncertainty, where the probability of a situation is unknown, with risk, where the
150 confidence in probabilities is known. This can lead to overconfidence in policy options and
151 business as usual practices (Stirling, 2019). All of these points make communication fraught and
152 the situation is only exacerbated by the incompatibilities in the cultural and communication
153 styles of scientists and decision-makers (Cairney, 2016); this is why knowledge brokers, who can

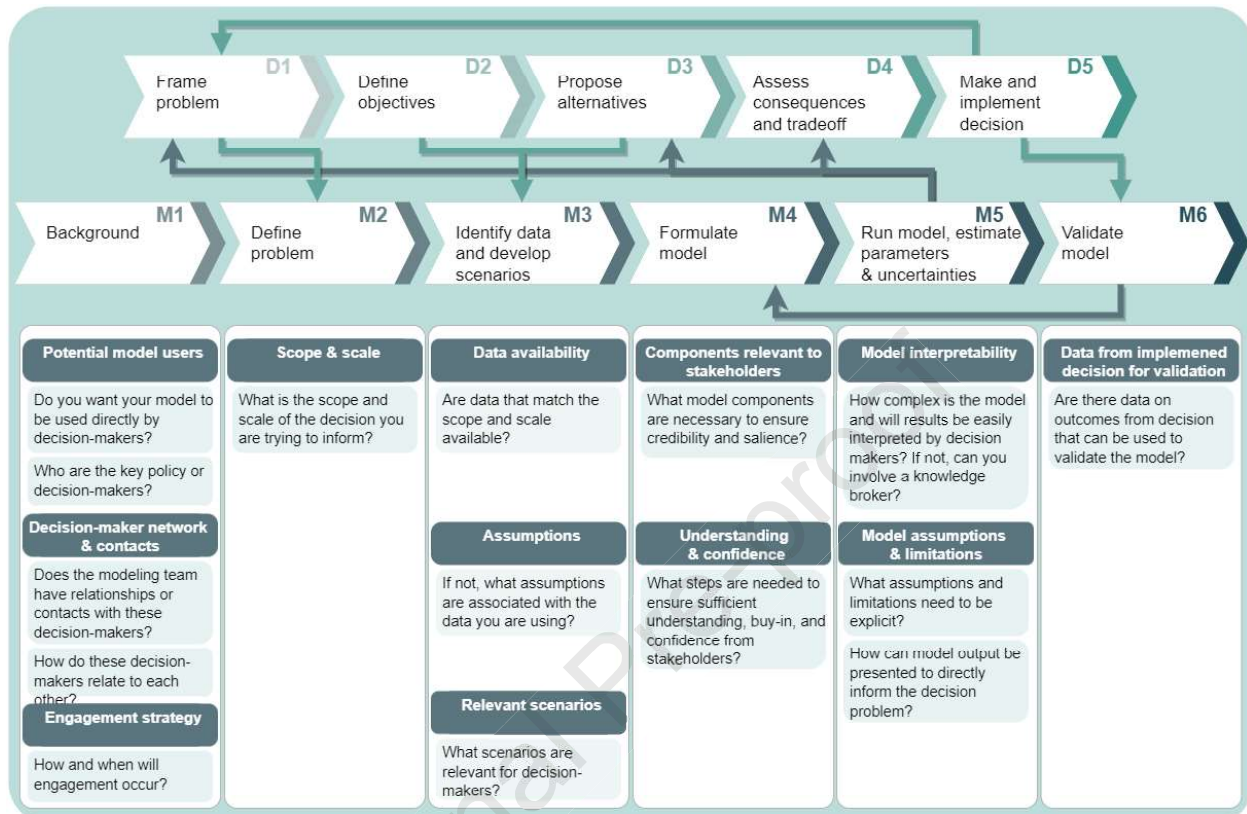
154 successfully interpret between the two groups, are such a critical part of modern modeling teams
155 (Cvitanovic et al., 2015).

156 While the majority of available studies on factors facilitating and hampering model
157 uptake in decision making focus primarily on technical and communication factors, this
158 perspective illustrates the key role of **process-based** factors. These factors have been frequently
159 underestimated or overlooked in different modeling communities. However, their importance has
160 been increasingly recognized (e.g., (Clark et al., 2016)) and warrants deeper consideration, as
161 they represent some of the key barriers to a larger-scale model uptake in decision making.

162 The issues related to the social context of model uptake cover a broad range of process-
163 related aspects. On the institutional level, model uptake is determined by how decision-making
164 processes are embedded in institutional structures, as well as by institutional arrangements,
165 bureaucracy and power distribution. Understanding how decisions are made and who is affected
166 by decisions (i.e., identifying stakeholders) is a key part of problem framing in the decision
167 making process, and is important for modelers to understand as they define the modeling
168 problem (Figure 1; (Runge, 2020)). On the level of individuals, interpersonal relationships have
169 proved influential in the process of knowledge transfer. Another role of the social setting lies in
170 which and whose objectives define the modeling process, and which and whose values and
171 priorities tend to be incorporated (both on the level of individuals and social groups). For
172 example, a multi-species size spectrum model implemented in MIZER was designed by a team
173 that included scientists working in government agencies to address policy-driven questions,
174 which facilitated its use in identifying large fish indicators for use in the North Sea (Blanchard et
175 al., 2014; Scott et al., 2014). Finally, the skills and capacities of decision-makers to use a
176 particular model and its interface may present additional barriers. Both institutional- and
177 individual-level factors can be exacerbated by the tendency to follow path dependencies and the
178 lack of ability or willingness to change practices (e.g., reliance on models already in use)
179 (Fulton, 2021).

180 Process-based factors can facilitate model uptake by building a sufficient level of
181 understanding of a model and/or its underlying concepts and mitigating the fear of excessive
182 sophistication and complexity, and thus nurturing trust in models and modeling. However, social
183 context and process-based factors can also underlie decision-makers' hesitation of modeling
184 results (e.g., fear of getting less funding in the light of modeling results or making potential
185 management failures more apparent, and mistrust of results that do not align with previously held
186 beliefs; (Pahl-Wostl, 2009)). Conversely, modelers highlighted that a robust participatory
187 process with stakeholders, identifying policy-driven questions that underpinned model
188 development and output, and sufficient capacity to increase model usefulness facilitated model
189 uptake. Identifying shared goals and designing a collaboration process up front can help address
190 these issues (Hallett et al., 2017; Lawson et al., 2017). While there are many benefits to
191 participatory approaches, modelers should also be aware that including decision-makers in the

192 process could lead to a perception of less objective science, especially if only a small group of
 193 stakeholders are involved (Enquist et al., 2017)).



194
 195 Figure 1: Stronger linkages between modeling and decision-making processes can lead to more
 196 effective decisions. The upper row represents steps in the decision-making process (D#), and the
 197 bottom row shows the modeling process steps (M#). Arrows show connections from the
 198 decision-making process (D) to the modeling process steps (M) and vice versa. In a structured
 199 decision making process (Runge, 2020), decision-makers can inform the modeling process by
 200 defining the problem and objectives, proposing feasible alternative actions, and by providing
 201 data to validate models after decisions have been implemented. In turn, model outputs can be
 202 used to assess consequences and tradeoffs of proposed actions, identify possible alternative
 203 actions that might achieve objectives, and even lead to re-framing or identifying new decision
 204 problems. Although presented linearly, the steps in the modeling and decision-making cycle are
 205 not necessarily linear. Questions to help guide model development are provided below each step.
 206 *Although the questions are organized according to the steps in the modeling process, they should*
 207 *be considered at the outset of the modeling work.*

208

209 **Lessons learnt for improving the process of model design and use**

210 Based on our collective experience, we reflected on what could have been done
211 differently to improve uptake and identified three areas for consideration. We discuss these
212 lessons in light of literature that provides more detailed suggestions of ways to facilitate model
213 uptake.

214 1. *Identify and include decision-makers from the beginning and during the entire process*

215 Including policy and other decision-makers throughout the research process (i.e., the co-
216 production of knowledge) enhances its legitimacy and relevance to decision-making purposes
217 (Meadow et al., 2015), thus helping to reduce the impact of hampering process-based factors.
218 Descriptions of and considerations for applying translational ecology approaches that include
219 relevant decision-makers and interdisciplinary perspectives have been described elsewhere (e.g.
220 (Enquist et al., 2017; Rose et al., 2020; Wall et al., 2017)), but applications in the modeling
221 context remain uncommon ((Rapacciuolo, 2019); but see (Beier et al., 2017) and (Miller et al.,
222 2017) for recommended practices for co-producing science in general and models in particular,
223 respectively.

224 Including users who understand the policy environment in the model design *ab initio*
225 means that the model inputs do not have to be retrofitted for a specific outcome later, thereby
226 saving time and effort. For example, setting up a participatory process with all interested parties
227 from the beginning to get consensus on the technical aspects of the work (data, targets, decision
228 support systems) helped facilitate the successful use of species distribution modeling for forest
229 planning in New South Wales, Australia (Ferrier et al., 2002a, 2002b; Finkel, 1998). In
230 instances where directly involving stakeholders in the design is not feasible (e.g., when the
231 model is too complicated), another mechanism to bridge the model-decision divide is through the
232 use of a knowledge broker (Chapman et al., 2017; Safford et al., 2017). As a go-between, a
233 knowledge broker will have sufficient knowledge of the model dynamics to be able to feed
234 information and needs to/from stakeholders. Indeed, active participation from stakeholders
235 throughout the modeling process may not always be necessary; there is a spectrum of stakeholder
236 engagement approaches, all of which can lead to actionable science (Bamzai-Dodson et al.,
237 2021).

238 Figure 1 presents an example of how modeling and decision-making processes can be
239 linked. Although presented as a linear process, engagement with stakeholders can be initiated at
240 various parts of the modeling cycle depending on the decision-making scale, goals of the
241 modeling exercise, and overall understanding of the modeled processes. For example, when
242 general understanding of our ability to model particular relationships (e.g., BEF relationships) is
243 low, it may be appropriate to engage stakeholders after initial model development has been
244 completed, when preliminary outputs can be used to raise awareness of new or improved
245 information and thus help reframe the decision-making problem. Moreover, decision-making
246 processes and relevant model outputs are different at the global scale, which often focus on the

247 evidence base for setting global targets, versus regional and local scale, where on-the-ground
248 management decisions are made; thus, models or outputs that have been developed for one scale
249 of decision-making may need to be retrofitted for applications at other scales. Stakeholder
250 mapping can be used to determine which decision-making scale and stakeholder groups may be
251 most interested in the model results.

252 2. *Communication with decision-makers*

253 Communication with key decision-makers, whether they are local managers or
254 government ministers, is vital to any model uptake strategy. First, it is important to create a
255 common understanding of language and culture between modelers and decision-makers (Jackson
256 et al., 2017); techniques like the persona method are useful to characterize user needs and design
257 solutions (Cooper, 1999). For models that are relatively easy to use, seeking opportunities to
258 introduce the model to decision-makers, investing in capacity building, and letting them explore
259 it for themselves is a good way to get a richer understanding of what the model can and can't do
260 and what it's best used for. For more complex models, it may be necessary to communicate
261 higher-level model structure; in particular, modular designs can facilitate model communication
262 and customization. Regardless of model complexity, communication should involve transparent
263 descriptions of model limitations and uncertainty without belaboring the technical details. It is
264 important to be transparent about the assumptions and value judgements made by the modelers in
265 model framing and highlighting how those decisions affect model output (Saltelli et al., 2020).
266 Uncertainty can be communicated verbally rather than numerically; scales such as the
267 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's seven-point likelihood scale may be preferable for
268 stakeholders (Rapacciuolo, 2019). These facilitating factors are supported by ensuring that
269 models, or at least model outputs, are open access.

270 3. *Iterative learning and model evaluation*

271 Continuously improving models as new data becomes available can lead to better
272 decision outcomes (Myers et al., 2021). In retrospect, it is easy to see where research gaps could
273 have been covered by the model if certain aspects had been included, for example analyzing
274 biodiversity impacts outside of protected areas to be able to appreciate the net-outcome for
275 biodiversity of interventions in the New South Wales case (Ferrier et al., 2002a, 2002b; Finkel,
276 1998). Sometimes including different scenarios at an earlier stage in the model can be helpful for
277 exploring a wider set of futures, and extending the models to include multiple drivers of change
278 can also be more relevant for decision-makers. Incorporating diverse user values and objectives
279 into modeled scenarios (e.g., Nature Futures Framework; (Kim et al., 2021; Pereira et al., 2020)
280 and getting feedback on plausible alternative actions can make model outputs more relevant for
281 users. A critical aspect of the modeling process itself is also to evaluate the model. The extra
282 effort of evaluation is rewarded by increased transparency and credibility of the overall approach
283 and sets up a learning process for later improvements (Dietze et al., 2018). If decision-makers

284 use model output to select and implement a decision, monitoring decision outcomes can provide
285 useful data for model validation (Figure 1).

286

287 **Box 1. Atlantis-SE: An Example of Successful Model Development and Use**

288 Overview

289 The Atlantis modeling framework is a marine ecosystem model that has been used to
290 evaluate management strategies and to inform marine ecosystem-based management decisions.
291 The model includes two-way coupling of all components of the adaptive management cycle,
292 ranging from socioeconomic drivers (market, gear choice) to the biophysical system (climate,
293 mortality) and is intended to be used alongside others to assess system uncertainty. Atlantis has
294 been applied to many management decisions in Australia and the United States. For example, a
295 national-scale project in 2007 aided in the restructuring of south-east Australian federal fisheries.
296 The decision process assessed actions and their consequences, trade-offs between costs and
297 benefits, uncertainty, and the type of monitoring needed.

298

299 Model Decision and Context

300 In 2004, it was becoming clear that management measures in place were insufficient to
301 address the poor economic performance and decreased ecological health of Australia's Southern
302 and Eastern Scalefish and Shark Fishery (SESSF). Stakeholders of all backgrounds
303 acknowledged the need to re-evaluate management options. A stakeholder-scientist collaboration
304 stepped through a qualitative foresighting scenario exercise, exploring alternative "whole-of-
305 system" management strategies, and in parallel oversaw a quantitative evaluation of the key
306 management strategies using Atlantis Southeast Australia (Atlantis-SE). The strategies tested
307 ranged from status quo to conservation-dominated management. After considering trade-offs
308 between priorities, no single management solution proved beneficial, though a strategy that used
309 a balanced set of actions performed well all around and ultimately inspired the aforementioned
310 restructuring of SESSF and the form of management now in place in the fishery (Elizabeth Ann
311 Fulton et al., 2014)). The approach worked so well that various versions of this Atlantis model
312 have been used over the past decade to explore other issues and options for the fishery (e.g.,
313 (Fulton et al., 2016; Pethybridge et al., 2020).

314

315 Things That Worked Well

316 The modeling process of Atlantis successfully allowed for analysis of multiple scenarios
317 and drivers of change. The modular nature of Atlantis gave the users choice of model
318 formulation, so they were able to set complexity at their desired level. Despite the large number
319 of possible management options that could be tested, stakeholders established project goals early
320 on; this produced a few feasible strategies rather than overwhelming decision-makers. Model
321 uncertainty was communicated effectively with stakeholders by making the results of model runs

322 readily accessible. The success of Atlantis was also attributable to consulting often with a broad
323 range of stakeholders from start to finish. The model was calibrated and validated against
324 available datasets for the region (using training and test set approaches), largely catch and effort
325 data sets from the fishery, but also available diet and habitat data and observations of charismatic
326 megafauna (seabirds and marine mammals; (Fulton et al., 2007)). Overall, the Atlantis-SE
327 project successfully aided in the restructuring of Australian fisheries, due to precise model
328 parameters and goals, engagement of stakeholders throughout the project, and communication of
329 findings and uncertainty with decision-makers. The long ongoing collaborative relationship
330 between fisher representatives, managers, NGOs, and scientists in the region, due to the
331 participatory management system used in the fishery, was likely the strongest reason for the
332 success of the work overall.

333
334

335 **Conclusion**

336 Models provide a useful way to assess how policy decisions may impact biodiversity and
337 ecosystem services. However, no model can capture all aspects of a system. As noted by George
338 P. Box, ‘All models are wrong but some are useful’. The ‘wrongness’ of models pose a big
339 challenge to decision-makers, whose choices affect people's lives and environments.
340 Acknowledging implications of the model being wrong is important; can a robust finding be
341 made even if the model is imperfect, or could there be serious consequences of an incorrect
342 prediction? It is therefore important not just to communicate model uncertainties, but to work
343 actively with the intended users of the model outputs in unpacking assumptions and be open to
344 reconfiguration so as to make sure that the models ‘wrongness’ does not stop it from being
345 useful.

346 The recent IPBES global assessment highlighted that transformative changes are needed
347 to halt biodiversity loss and sustain nature’s contributions to people (Díaz et al., 2019)). As part
348 of the transformative change, it is important to move towards transdisciplinary work with the
349 active participation of the different stakeholders (Clark et al., 2016; Grumbine and Xu, 2021).
350 While our understanding of how biodiversity contributes to human well-being has grown, many
351 models do not yet fully incorporate this relationship. Nevertheless, focusing only on technical
352 model improvements will not be enough to bring about transformative change for biodiversity.
353 While there is still an important role for traditional modeling approaches (e.g., for improving
354 scientific understanding), investing in the process surrounding a modeling exercise and
355 promoting two-way interactions between modelers and stakeholders is vital for successfully
356 contributing to decision-making processes. In particular, trust-building and establishing
357 relationships with decision-makers have proved key to increase buy-in to modeling as a key
358 element for knowledge-based decision making. In practice, this means working closely with
359 those involved in decision-making on the ground and at community levels, as well as at higher
360 policy-making levels. In this respect, nurturing knowledge exchange on the interpersonal level

361 (e.g., through participatory processes), and on the institutional level (e.g., through promoting
362 science-policy interfaces across scales), represent promising approaches.

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Declaration of interests

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