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Ecology needs to overcome siloed modelling

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1 **Abstract**

2 Bahlburg *et al.* [1] re-implemented eight growth models of Antarctic krill and show that their
3 predictions are all over the place. The authors discuss the reasons for this and how more
4 coherence in modelling could be achieved through systematic model comparison and
5 integration. For this, we need a common language.

6 **Hidden assumptions**

7 Models are simplified representations, designed for a certain purpose. The purpose or
8 question we are asking determines how much we simplify. For example, some forest models
9 do not even include trees, while others start from the stomata of single leaves. This is
10 common and good practice. But does this mean that if the purpose is the same, models
11 developed independently of each other are more or less the same in structure and hence
12 predictions? This is not the case.

13 For example 15 models, all addressing the causes of cod (*Gadus morhua*) population
14 dynamics in the Baltic Sea, are structurally very different ([2], Fig. 1). As a result, the
15 explanations derived from these models are different or even contradictory. How can we still
16 find robust answers to the original research question and thereby advance ecology?

17 Obviously, there are more determinants of model structure and simplifying assumptions
18 than the models' purpose. Modellers talk to different experts and use different data for

19 calibration, but also prefer different model types, approaches to analyse and use the
20 models, or simply have different world views. Some prefer more abstract models, while
21 others appreciate more realism, e.g. by including physiology and behaviour.

22 All these factors strongly influence how modellers ultimately design their models. However,
23 we do not have a culture of reflecting on and communicating these hidden assumptions and
24 how they constrain what we can learn from our models in the first place. If we want to make
25 models more useful for solving the current ecological and environmental challenges, we
26 cannot continue to develop models in isolation. This is clearly demonstrated and visualised
27 by a recent comparison of krill models by Bahlburg *et al.* [1].

28 **Comparing krill models**

29 Antarctic krill (*Euphausia superba*) is a key species of the Southern Ocean and is of
30 paramount importance for carbon sequestration and ecosystem functioning [3]. Predicting
31 how krill populations will be affected by climate change and commercial fishing is essential
32 for policy and management. As a result, many models were developed to predict the growth
33 of individual krill in relation to their environment. The growth predicted by these models is
34 then used as a proxy for abundance or habitat quality.

35 There are a large number of such growth models, some based on data from laboratory
36 experiments and others on field observations. Bahlburg *et al.* [1] were surprised by the large
37 differences between these models. They systematically compared eight krill growth models,
38 three of them being empirical and five mechanistic. They then re-implemented these eight
39 models and ran them for the same temperature and resource scenario for the Southern
40 Ocean.

41 Although all the models tested were designed to predict krill growth, there was little
42 agreement in their projections. While each of the models certainly has its merits, and all
43 have been carefully developed and tested, the results from Bahlburg *et al.* leave us with the
44 question of how we should use them to support real-world management decisions. To
45 answer this question, the models need to be compared.

46 **A common format for comparing models**

47 A first and necessary step to move forward is to document the different models in a
48 common format. Bahlburg *et al.* list, for each model, the number and type of the krill's life

49 stages considered (between 1 and 3) and the number and type of environmental drivers
50 considered (up to 4 out of 7). The eight models represented seven different combinations of
51 life stages and environmental drivers. The models were then further compared in terms of
52 the methodological and spatial origin(s) of their calibration data, and the shape of the
53 functional relationship between growth, temperature and chlorophyll-a concentration.
54 Finally, the authors tested how the growth trajectories predicted by the models varied over
55 the growing season.

56 This systematic comparison of the models, their functions, predictions, and data sources
57 allow Bahlburg *et al.* to conclude that the main reason for the different spatiotemporal
58 predictions are systematic differences in the model calibration data. Most importantly, the
59 data had different means of generation (remote sensing, *in situ*, biogeochemical simulation
60 models), came from different regions and spanned over different time periods.

61 Although a mechanistic understanding of krill growth is challenging due to the complex krill
62 life cycle, this comparison provides a starting point for exploring and testing different
63 assumptions in a more systematic way. Bahlburg *et al.* also suggest that for large-scale
64 predictions, either a single model should be recalibrated for different regions, or several
65 models developed for different regions should be combined.

66 **A lingua franca for coherence and testing**

67 Comparing models in a common format is extremely useful in hindsight, but much work
68 could have been saved if the models had been described in the same language when first
69 published, written in a way that is independent of model type, complexity or programming
70 language. The design of new models would have been supported by a comprehensive and
71 accessible overview of the state of the art, leading to more informed, coherent and explicit
72 decisions about what to include in the model. It would have encouraged modellers to justify
73 their choices more thoroughly, in particular why they excluded certain factors that were
74 included by others.

75 Because of the great potential of a common, non-technical language or format for describing
76 both empirical and mechanistic models, standard formats have been suggested (ODMAP
77 protocol, [4]; ODD protocol,[5]). Accordingly, the recently established Open Modelling

78 Foundation (OMF¹) is currently trying to develop, test, and establish such a language. Using
79 such a language for describing models, and making model code accessible, as Bahlburg *et al.*
80 do with their re-implementations, allows modellers to learn from each other, and test
81 models and submodels in more systematic and comprehensive ways. For example,
82 alternative growth models could be compared in terms of their ability to reproduce not only
83 one data set, e.g. a size distribution, but entire sets of observed patterns („pattern-oriented
84 modelling“, [6,7]).

85 **A new culture of modelling**

86 We still have a culture where it is considered more original and valuable to develop new
87 models than to start from existing ones. As a result, it is difficult to see and quantify the
88 limitations of our own models, because in a given context, our models may just look good.
89 Only comparisons like the one presented here [1,2] or elsewhere [8] allow us to place our
90 models in a broader context, to identify limitations and their reasons, and to try to integrate
91 the findings from individual models. Replication and comparison of existing models should
92 be more common and highly valued [9]. Ultimately, we need a culture that encourages
93 learning from each other within and across disciplines, and for this we need better ways of
94 communicating and testing our models. A common format for describing models would be
95 extremely helpful for "anti-siloing" modelling in ecology and elsewhere.

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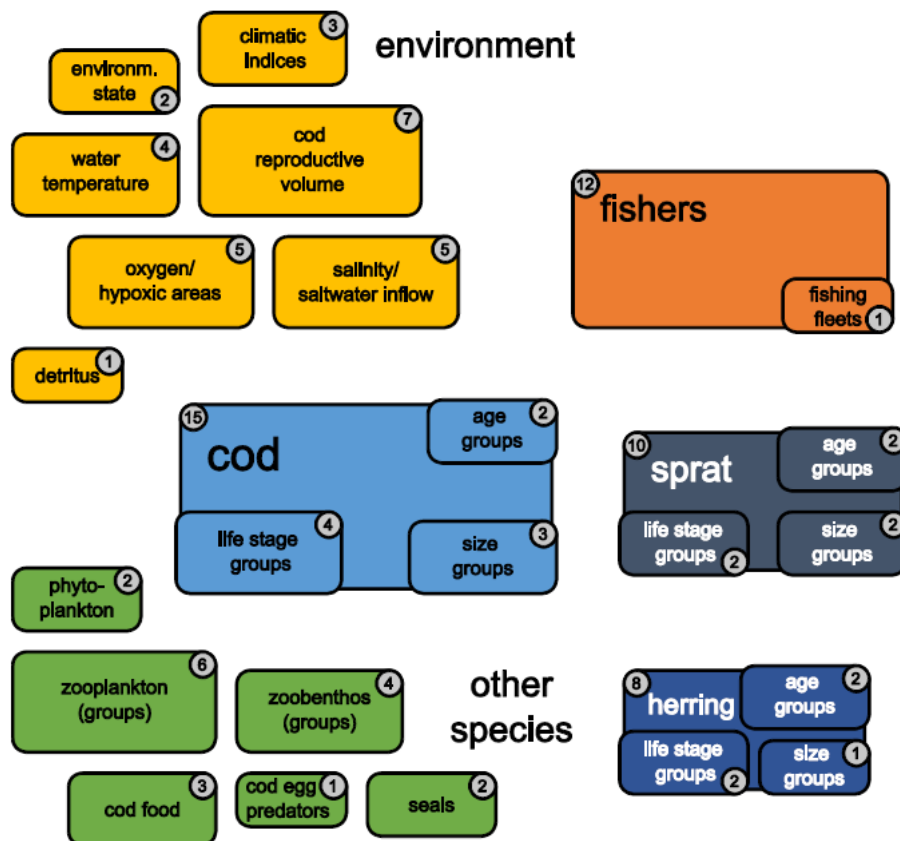
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121 Figure

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123

124 Figure 1. Entities represented in 15 models addressing the dynamics of the Baltic cod (*Gadus*
 125 *morhua*). Box sizes and numbers indicate how many models include this entity. The smaller
 126 boxes within larger ones show the representation of that entity via age, size or life stage
 127 groups, and the distinction of fishers into multiple fleets (from Banitz *et al.* [2]).

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