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42

43 Abstract:

44 If efforts to tackle biodiversity loss and its impact on human wellbeing are to be successful,
45 conservation must learn from other fields which use predictive methods to foresee shocks and pre-
46 empt their impacts in the face of uncertainty, such as military studies, public health and finance.
47 Despite a long history of using predictive models to understand the dynamics of ecological systems
48 and human disturbance, conservationists do not systematically apply predictive approaches when
49 designing and implementing behavioural interventions. This is an important omission because
50 human behaviour is the underlying cause of current widespread biodiversity loss. Here, we
51 critically assess how predictive approaches can transform the way conservation scientists and
52 practitioners plan for and implement social and behavioural change among people living with
53 wildlife. Our manifesto for predictive conservation recognises that social-ecological systems are
54 dynamic, uncertain and complex, and calls on conservationists to embrace the forward-thinking
55 approach which effective conservation requires.

56 Introduction

57 Conservation science has been defined as a crisis discipline (Soulé 1985, Kareiva & Marvier 2012)
58 because of the alarming rate of biodiversity loss and its impacts on ecosystem functions and
59 people's livelihoods (Cardinale et al. 2012). Yet, despite international recognition of the need for
60 action (for example, the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity Aichi targets and the Sustainable
61 Development Goals (Leadley et al. 2014)), and increasing global and national expenditure on
62 research to find solutions (Stroud et al. 2014), the overall trend of rapid biodiversity loss persists
63 (WWF 2016). Conservation needs a range of new, forward-looking approaches to solve current
64 and future challenges. Prediction, a powerful but currently undervalued tool, can form a vital
65 component of such an approach.

66

67 In the field of ecology, there have been a number of recent calls for predictive approaches to move
68 beyond developing theories to applications that improve management of natural systems (Mouquet
69 et al. 2015, Pennekamp et al. 2017). This is welcome. However, many of the challenges facing
70 conservation scientists and practitioners are inherently social, revolving around human behaviour
71 and its, often ignored, impact on natural systems. The threats that people generate and their
72 responses to conservation interventions are complex, dynamic and often context-specific. Hence,
73 focusing predictive approaches on improving the management of ecological systems will not be
74 sufficient to change the trajectory of biodiversity loss. Similarly, the prior experience and intuition of
75 practitioners are unlikely to be reliable guides to how certain interventions are likely to perform.
76 Predictive approaches can help understand how humans might behave in the future and ensure
77 that conservation interventions are framed, designed, implemented and evaluated to better
78 account for and respond to those changes. Predictive science can provide the evidence required to
79 inform decision-makers and practitioners, for whom an understanding of future changes in the
80 systems they manage is essential.

81

82 There are different ways to conceptualise prediction (e.g. Mouquet et al. (2015). Here we divide
83 approaches to prediction into three types (Table 1); mechanistic models of system dynamics based
84 on existing understanding, which can be used to explore how systems would respond to new

85 circumstances (such as models of human responses to climate change); empirical approaches that
86 make use of observational or experimental data, such as from stated-preference surveys (which
87 ask people about their potential behaviours under different circumstances or preferences for
88 different potential futures); and conceptual models of how a system may behave under different
89 future circumstances (such as used in scenario planning, or theories of change). We contrast these
90 predictive approaches to conservation with explanatory approaches, which might, for example,
91 statistically describe how the livelihoods of local people impact on wildlife habitat, or model (either
92 conceptually or mechanistically) the state of the system as it is. Although many of methods that
93 can be used to make predictions can also be used for explanatory analyses, the results of
94 explanatory analyses only allow conservationists to design their interventions based on current
95 circumstances and understandings. This is not to say that explanatory approaches do not provide
96 useful information, but rather that predictive approaches can be used to complement the
97 information from explanatory analyses, enabling interventions to be designed based on how the
98 intervention may change system behaviour in the future, in the context of external factors.
99 Prediction is therefore a powerful addition that allows conservation practitioners to either pre-empt
100 change or develop responses to it, rather than be caught blind when it occurs.

101

102 Our perception, as conservation scientists working at the interface between research and practice,
103 is that, while researchers may publish papers which use predictive approaches, conservation
104 practice is largely based on explanatory approaches, which are by their nature reactive rather than
105 proactive (Milner-Gulland & Shea 2017). This contrasts with fisheries science, for example, which
106 is heavily reliant on predictive mechanistic and statistical models to guide management (Haddon
107 2011). This disconnect is particularly unfortunate because the foundations of quantitative
108 conservation biology lie in explicit predictive models. Lebreton (1978) formulated a stochastic
109 population model to assess the risks faced by wild swans in France, and used it to evaluate
110 alternative management options. Similarly, Shaffer (1981) used stochastic population models to
111 develop the idea of minimum population sizes and explore future scenarios for grizzly bears,
112 evaluating the risks of extinction within specified time frames. Since that time, there have been
113 numerous applications of predictive models in conservation, evaluating proposed harvesting

114 scenarios, the impacts of planned agricultural development and forest harvesting scenarios, and
115 the consequences of anticipated urban expansion (see journals such as *Natural Resource*
116 *Modelling* for examples). In rare cases, these models build in the interactions between human
117 behaviour and ecological processes. For example, Bunnefeld et al. (2013) used a management
118 strategy evaluation framework, which incorporated population dynamics and harvesting decisions,
119 to evaluate alternative investment and harvesting strategies for the management of mountain
120 nyala. Nevertheless, despite the availability of methods and examples, our observation is that
121 many conservation decisions do not make explicit use of predictive models of any kind. A particular
122 gap lies in the lack of use of predictive approaches to human behaviour (rather than models of
123 biological dynamics; Milner-Gulland 2012).

124

125 Without predictive approaches, the practice of conservation assessment, planning and action is
126 stuck in the cycle of reactively implementing interventions after each new crisis has taken hold,
127 never proactively trying to avoid them (Putman et al. 2011). In this paper, we show how predictive
128 approaches can be systematically applied to all four stages of the cyclical process for creating
129 good environmental policy (Dovers 2005); problem framing, policy or intervention framing,
130 implementation and evaluation. By emphasising the learning potential of these approaches (e.g. by
131 producing expectations about what might happen and comparing these with actual outcomes), the
132 complementary power of a priori prediction and post hoc explanation is harnessed (Hofman et al.
133 2017). This integrated approach aligns with scientific best practice in other fields, such as military
134 science, public health and public financial policy, for which it is common practice to apply predictive
135 approaches to anticipate the emergence of crises. Our intention here is not to provide a
136 comprehensive review of the methods that can be used to make predictions but to highlight why
137 they are useful and the contexts in which they can be used.

138

139 The unrealised potential of predictive approaches

140 Outside of conservation, prediction is a rapidly developing science, responding to the need to deal
141 proactively with future and emerging challenges. Examples include the Stock-Watson's
142 experimental recession index, used to estimate the probability of economic recession (Stock &

143 Watson 1993); the Collier-Hoeffler econometric model, used to predict the probability of a civil war
144 (Collier & Hoeffler 2002); and epidemiological models used in public health (Table 2). As in
145 conservation, the success of predictions in other fields varies. However, as the application of
146 predictive methods is more advanced, the associated impact is greater. This is particularly true in
147 relation to behaviour change, where theories from social psychology, such as the theory of planned
148 behaviour (Ajzen 1985), can be used to identify predictors of human behaviour (Armitage & Connor
149 2001; Hardeman et al. 2002). As methods develop and sources of validated data grow, the
150 potential for prediction in ecology and conservation has never been greater (Sutherland &
151 Freckleton 2011, Pennekamp et al. 2017, Maris et al. 2018). Predictive approaches can be used to
152 navigate trade-offs in decision-making and, when coupled with further data, can provide real-time
153 monitoring of the outcomes of an intervention. Furthermore, predictive approaches can help to
154 frame and design interventions, by providing probabilistic assessments of likely outcomes,
155 anticipating unexpected behaviours (Liu et al. 2001) and understanding and explicitly accounting
156 for uncertainty (Ascough et al. 2008). These tools can also identify criteria for success and provide
157 predictions against which to evaluate the success of interventions (Mondal & Southworth 2010),
158 thereby informing on-going improvements in the implementation of interventions. This should lead
159 to better design, and therefore to more successful conservation interventions.

160

161 Prediction is also a fundamental part of 'active' adaptive management, in which the impact of
162 interventions is first predicted and then measured during implementation, enabling interventions to
163 be adapted before the cycle begins again (Salafsky et al. 2001). However, although adaptive
164 management has often been cited as necessary for conservation, in theory, it is still rarely used in
165 practice (Keith et al. 2011). Where it is applied, adaptive management is most commonly 'passive',
166 only reviewing past and current performance of conservation activities rather than actively applying
167 alternative approaches to improve learning (Grantham et al. 2010). Adopting predictive methods in
168 a staged way could therefore provide a stepping stone towards greater use of 'active' adaptive
169 management. Conservation challenges are not always predictable, and therefore may not appear
170 at first sight to be amenable to adaptive management. However, predictive approaches have also
171 played a role in real-time responses to unexpected events, by improving mechanistic

172 understanding of the system and exploring potential outcomes of different interventions (Ferguson
173 et al. 2001, Keeling et al. 2003). In public health, they have also been used as a communication
174 tool to engage local communities and decision-makers (Roeder et al 2013), and within a framework
175 of adaptive management, they have helped in evaluating disease control measures and informing
176 updates (Shea et al. 2014; Table 2).

177 178 Predictive approaches at multiple stages of conservation interventions

179 We consider the benefit of predictive approaches at four main stages of conservation interventions:
180 “problem framing” refers to the identification and definition of a conservation issue;
181 “policy/intervention framing” refers to the identification of the action or process that is carried out to
182 influence what happens; “implementation” refers to the execution of a conservation plan or
183 decision; and “impact evaluation” refers to the monitoring and assessment of intervention
184 outcomes, leading to the continuation, adaptation or termination of a specific conservation
185 intervention (Fig. 1). Elements of the predictive approach are already widely used in conservation,
186 often in an informal way by conservation managers on the ground; our contention is that
187 formalising this approach would both change the mindset of donors, implementers and
188 researchers, and bring new and underused tools and approaches (such as those laid out in Table
189 1) more into the mainstream of conservation practice.

190 191 *Problem framing*

192 How a problem is identified and defined ultimately determines both its solution and the approach
193 taken in trying to implement that solution. Consequently, problem framing is a crucial step for
194 understanding the values and positions of multiple stakeholders, broadening the range of solutions
195 considered and finding the most effective ways to address certain issues (Johnson et al. 2013).
196 Application of predictive approaches at this stage could significantly improve conservation
197 outcomes. Failing to anticipate environmental problems creates a lag between the emergence of a
198 problem and provision of a conservation response (Sutherland & Woodroof 2009). This lack of
199 foresight can result in poor prioritisation of interventions (Dolman et al. 2012), naive assumptions
200 about contexts or trends (Siegel 1996), subjective and arbitrary decision-making (Game et al.

201 2013) and failure to identify actual or emerging threats (Sutherland & Woodroof 2009, Putman et
202 al. 2011).

203

204 Applying predictive approaches at the problem framing stage can lead to better informed and well
205 supported conservation decisions about which threatening processes to address, and in what order
206 (Game et al. 2013). This can generate better stakeholder buy-in and trust (Tompkins et al. 2008),
207 as well as greater awareness about other potential confounding factors and more resilient decision
208 processes (Murray-Rust et al. 2013). For example, horizon scanning has been used to identify
209 emerging issues for conservation as a whole (e.g. Sutherland et al. 2018), as well as for specific
210 issues, such as invasive species (e.g. Dehnen-Schmutz et al. 2018). These approaches have also
211 been used at finer scales, such as the use of scenarios and backcasting to engage diverse groups
212 of stakeholders in short-term regional environmental threat planning (Cook et al. 2014) and
213 incorporating risk assessments to quantify the probabilities of future bio-security risks in Australia
214 (Walshe & Burgman 2010). Promisingly, the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform for
215 Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) recently called for greater integration of policy with
216 predictive approaches (e.g. models and scenarios), developing pre-emptive policy responses to
217 forecasted future threats to biodiversity and ecosystems services (IPBES 2016).

218

219 *Intervention framing*

220 Conservation management often involves developing interventions in the context of complex
221 social-ecological systems (Nuno et al. 2014), when knowledge of these systems is incomplete and
222 outcomes are uncertain. Despite, or perhaps because of this, the design of interventions remains
223 largely based on personal experience or subjective judgements (Pullin et al. 2004, Sutherland et al.
224 2004, Ferraro & Pattanyak 2006), which can be subject to significant bias (Burgman et al. 2011). In
225 this context, predictive approaches represent an additional means of dealing with uncertainty and
226 complexity, exploring the consequences of management alternatives and identifying and
227 evaluating uncertainty in different proposed conservation interventions. This is not to suggest that
228 the use of prediction should supplant personal experience or judgement, but that predictive
229 methods can provide an additional source of evidence on which to design interventions. Not only

230 can this lead to improved outcomes for conservation but it can also provide greater security for
231 policy makers and donors when they are evaluating which options offer the greatest potential value
232 for money.

233

234 Where conservation interventions aim to alter human behaviour, predictive approaches can be
235 used to navigate uncertainty and assess the likely impact of alternative management actions. For
236 example, the development of a theory of change for how different interventions can be used to
237 address illegal wildlife trade allows practitioners to identify which types of interventions are most
238 likely to be appropriate in a given context (Biggs et al. 2016). In another example, in the Western
239 Ghats of India, interventions involving the restitution of tree rights to local coffee growers, which
240 were proposed to promote the intercropping of native tree species with coffee plantations, were
241 empirically tested using a role-playing game modelling approach (Garcia 2013). The findings
242 revealed that, contrary to their original aim, the proposed interventions risked speeding up the
243 transition to a landscape dominated by the exotic silver oak *Grevillea robusta* rather than
244 promoting native species. This represents a good example of how predictive approaches enable
245 conservation programmes to be tested against unforeseen behaviour, allowing for better decision-
246 making and design for interventions.

247

248 *Implementation*

249 In many instances, the first stage of implementation of a conservation intervention or policy is a
250 small-scale pilot or demonstration project. Yet the power of such projects to establish that an
251 intervention will prove effective is typically limited by issues of scale and complexity in comparison
252 to the problem being addressed (Wells 1995). The temporal scales at which desired ecological and
253 social impacts are detectable can make evaluating outcomes, and therefore determining the likely
254 result of a scaled up programme, challenging (Kapos et al. 2008). However, it is often necessary to
255 start small and scale up later due to critical capacity constraints (Wells 1995), which can add to the
256 uncertainty regarding whether a piloted intervention will work at scale. Here again, predictive
257 methods can aid implementation by assessing the likely outcomes of multiple alternatives in
258 advance to ensure that only those interventions with the greatest probability of success are piloted

259 (Travers et al. 2011). This can either be achieved through the interpretation of existing evidence
260 through a predictive lens or the collection of new data aimed explicitly at testing potential
261 interventions (e.g. through the use of behavioural games or scenario interviews). Where an
262 intervention is piloted based on prior predictive work, and if the results of the pilot are in line with
263 the predictions, this gives confidence that the intervention will work.

264

265 Successful implementation of conservation interventions is also often dependent on a number of
266 exogenous factors beyond the control of practitioners, particularly in countries experiencing rapid
267 economic growth and undergoing significant social change (McShane et al. 2011). The uncertainty
268 created by such factors may affect decision-making and undermine any interventions attempted.
269 Although adaptive management can be used to redesign interventions to improve conservation
270 outcomes (Salafsky et al. 2001), such approaches largely react to the consequences of changing
271 conditions rather than the changes themselves, with the result that opportunities to respond pre-
272 emptively may be missed. Predictive approaches can be used to identify and test the impact of
273 exogenous factors on which the successful implementation of interventions may depend. For
274 example, Travers et al. (2016) applied a scenario-based interview approach to predict how forest
275 clearance by smallholder farmers living inside Cambodian protected areas would change in
276 response to an increased or decreased trend in the price of cassava (the primary cash crop). The
277 results of this approach showed that if cassava prices rose, illegal clearance would increase
278 significantly in accessible villages but would be unlikely to change in more remote villages where
279 farmers would be unable to capitalise on increasing prices. Hence, managers at the site are in a
280 position to adaptively allocate resources where they are most needed as and when cassava prices
281 change, rather than waiting to react to the resulting patterns of clearance.

282

283 *Evaluation*

284 The evaluation of the impacts of conservation programmes is an essential component of
285 conservation practice and is founded on assumed relationships between interventions and
286 outcomes (Maron et al. 2015). Those relationships are assumed in turn to operate through a theory
287 of change, which comprises the causal pathways between interventions and outcomes

288 (Woodhouse et al. 2015). The theory of change is based on the best understanding of the system
289 prior to an intervention. However, before interventions take place, predictive approaches can be
290 used to develop a stronger theory of change whose validity can be tested during and after
291 interventions by doing impact evaluation.

292

293 In recent years, in the face of increasing calls for more robust evidence (Ferraro & Pattanyak
294 2006), the evaluation of conservation programmes has increasingly used a counterfactual
295 approach, in which impact is defined as the difference between the outcome with intervention and
296 the outcome in the absence of the intervention under evaluation. The main challenge in the
297 counterfactual approach is that it is impossible to observe what would have occurred in absence of
298 the intervention because the intervention did actually occur. Therefore, the counterfactual must be
299 predicted. In that sense, approaches used to construct the counterfactual are predictive. A recent
300 example of this is Young et al. (2014), who explored the difference conservation has made to
301 threatened species by constructing a post-hoc counterfactual for the red list status of these species
302 in the absence of conservation. Depending on the rigor required, such an approach may offer
303 advantages over other counterfactual evaluation designs, such as randomised control trials or
304 quasi-experimental methods, that estimate the counterfactual by observing a control group,
305 particularly in cases where the resources required for data collection are high, it is difficult to
306 identify a suitable control, or there are ethical concerns around collecting control data.

307

308 Greater application of predictive approaches in constructing meaningful counterfactuals would
309 move impact evaluation from a retrospective discipline to a prospective one. This move is
310 challenging because in addition to predicting what would happen without the intervention (the
311 counterfactual), researchers have to predict what will happen in the presence of the intervention.
312 However, steps toward prospective impact evaluation have been made. For example, Visconti et
313 al. (2015) investigated the potential impacts of different strategies proposed to achieve one
314 component (endangered species representation) of the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity Aichi target
315 11 of expanding terrestrial protected area coverage to 17% of the globe's land area by 2020. They
316 predicted the extent of suitable habitat available for terrestrial mammals, with or without (the

317 counterfactual) this expansion, under different socio-economic scenarios. The results vary as a
318 function of the proposed expansion strategy and socio-economic scenario.

319

320 Challenges in the application of predictive approaches

321 Much as with the adoption of more rigorous approaches to assessing the impact of conservation
322 interventions and the greater use of evidence-based decision-making in general, we recognise that
323 there are a number of challenges to the more widespread use of predictive methods. It is often
324 noted that there is a divide between conservation science and practice (Pullin et al. 2004;
325 Sunderland et al. 2009; Milner-Gulland et al. 2010; Gardner 2012) but we do not believe that
326 arguing for *the use of evidence* in conservation *is* contradictory to advocating for more use of
327 predictive methods. The use of predictive methods can also contribute to bridging the science-
328 practitioner divide. The wider application of predictive methods could prove fertile ground for
329 furthering collaborations between conservation scientists and practitioners. In general, external
330 advice may be particularly relevant during the selection of appropriate methods, which will vary
331 depending on the level of capacity and data requirements, the stage of the intervention, the type
332 and precision of the prediction being made. For example, while the technical expertise required to
333 carry out some predictive methods is likely to be found within a typical conservation programme
334 (e.g. scenario interviews), other methods may be better suited to collaborations between
335 conservation practitioners and external experts.

336

337 In many cases, the data required to make predictions may not be readily available and will need to
338 be collected. Here the complexity of the predictions is likely to play a significant part in the level of
339 data collection and analysis required. For example, where the aim of an intervention is to reduce
340 forest clearance or illegal hunting, predicting how a given intervention is likely to lead to
341 behavioural change by its specific target audience may be sufficient. In this case, scenario
342 interviews with the relevant people, to inform a Theory of Change, might be a way forward.
343 However, in cases where the interaction between a conservation intervention and desired outcome
344 is more indirect (e.g. a specified increase in the population of the conservation target as a result of
345 an alternative livelihoods intervention), the data requirements of suitable predictive approaches are

346 likely to be greater. In this case a population model of the conservation target may need to be
347 parameterised and behavioural games may be the best way to understand how people respond to
348 different incentive structures.

349

350 We also recognise that some decision-makers may be sceptical of the accuracy of predictions or
351 uncomfortable with the level of uncertainty associated with them. Despite the multiple benefits of
352 predictive approaches, applying them without fully understanding their inputs, outputs and
353 underlying assumptions can lead to misleading results. For example, how people say they intend
354 to respond to certain conditions may differ from how they actually behave (Webb & Sheeran 2006).
355 A frequent criticism is that small deviations in initial conditions can have large influences on the
356 outputs of mechanistic models, which are designed to inform policy (Crooks & Heppenstall 2012).
357 As models become larger and more complex, the challenges of testing and validating them
358 increase (Crooks & Heppenstall 2012). There are several cases where ill-informed models have
359 led to suboptimal conservation outcomes. For example, fisheries models that overestimated initial
360 stock sizes informed policies that resulted in overfishing and the collapse of Canadian stocks of
361 Atlantic cod, triggering an environmental disaster with significant social and economic impacts
362 (Walters & Maguire 1996).

363

364 Acknowledging and communicating uncertainty when using predictive approaches to inform
365 management is a critical consideration (Milner-Gulland & Shea 2017). Predictive approaches
366 should be treated as informative tools that can provide new insight for policy as part of adaptive
367 management, rather than the source of definitive answers. A multidisciplinary team with inputs
368 from multiple stakeholders is likely to be key for enhancing success of predictive approaches,
369 ensuring that the social and ecological contexts are used to formulate predictions and interpret
370 outcomes, thereby improving their reliability (Subrahmanian & Kumar 2017). While communicating
371 prediction and its associated uncertainty to stakeholders can be challenging, this is increasingly
372 common for climate change science and ecological modelling at multiple policy levels. Gaining the
373 trust of decision-makers will be instrumental in integrating predictions into decisions-making
374 frameworks. In this sense, some predictive methods, such as agent-based models, are particularly

375 suited as tools for engaging with decision-makers, as they can demonstrate the potential
376 consequences of different policy or management decisions (An 2012). “Black swan” events,
377 defined as events which are extremely difficult to predict and have profound consequences (May et
378 al. 2008), are another reason why predictive approaches need to be combined with more
379 traditional explanatory approaches to conservation and effective monitoring. This provides a
380 backstop so that management is able to continue and to respond quickly when unexpected events
381 occur.

382

383 The ethical implications of predicting social and human behaviour also require consideration. In
384 criminology, for example, the use of machine learning algorithms to observe crime patterns and aid
385 in crime prevention, has been underpinned by historical biases, and led to discriminatory policing
386 of African American communities in the US (Perry 2013). Similar concerns might arise in the use of
387 predictive methods to identify groups most likely to respond to particular interventions, which could
388 lead to discrimination (either in terms of additional policing or exclusion from benefits). These risks
389 are is likely to be true in any scenario, irrespective of the use of prediction, but risk being
390 exacerbated through the use of predictive methods. It will therefore be important for the
391 conservation community to ensure that decisions related to predicting the future actions of the
392 individuals and communities we work with are taken in a fair and transparent manner.

393

394 Manifesto

395 Despite many potential benefits throughout the policy cycle, predictive approaches remain
396 underused in conservation, representing missed opportunities with important consequences for
397 both biodiversity and livelihoods. In this manifesto for predictive conservation, we therefore call for
398 greater use of predictive approaches by both scientists and practitioners to aid decision-making
399 and conservation practice. This will allow for the implementation of pre-emptive and more effective
400 interventions. We recognise the existing use of predictive approaches in conservation ecology, and
401 therefore focus our emphasis particularly on situations where conservation science can inform
402 interventions aiming to change human behaviour. Movement towards a predictive, proactive and
403 preventative conservation will be of the utmost importance in addressing current and future

404 challenges, by revolutionising how these are tackled throughout all intervention stages and even
405 before they occur.

406

407 We therefore call on all conservation actors to move towards a more predictive approach to
408 conservation. This entails:

- 409 1. Using the best available tools to predict changing circumstances prior to their emergence
410 (Table 1), providing the space for more objective prioritisation and development of
411 responses.
- 412 2. Exploring the consequences of different management options in advance, in order to
413 reduce the associated uncertainty and support more informed decision-making.
- 414 3. Identifying the factors upon which the success of interventions depend, in order to facilitate
415 adaptive management as changes in these variables occur.
- 416 4. Developing counterfactuals in advance, against which the success of conservation
417 interventions can be evaluated.
- 418 5. Embracing and clearly articulating uncertainty when undertaking these predictive
419 approaches.

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619 Table 1. Examples of predictive approaches that could be more widely used in conservation
 620 science.

Approach	Example of use	Source
Mechanistic model	Management strategy evaluation in fisheries management	Dichmont & Fulton 2017
Mechanistic model	Protected area planning under scenarios of future climate change	Singh & Milner-Gulland 2011
Mechanistic model	Predicting changes to ecosystem structure and functioning due to habitat loss and/or fragmentation	Bartlett et al. 2016
Mechanistic model	Predicting how a common pool resource system will react to perturbations under different management strategies	Mancini et al. 2017
Empirical	Discrete Choice Experiment to understand elasticities on utility of different attributes of a system (including interventions)	Moro et al. 2013
Empirical	Scenario approaches for understanding how behaviour would change under different future circumstances	Cinner et al. 2009, Travers et al. 2016
Empirical	Behavioural games to understand future responses to alternative conservation interventions	Travers et al. 2011, Garcia et al. 2013
Conceptual model	Scenarios of different possible futures at the system level, horizon scans	Sutherland & Woodroof 2009, IPBES 2016
Conceptual model	Theory of change for how an intervention will go from input to impact	Biggs et al. 2016

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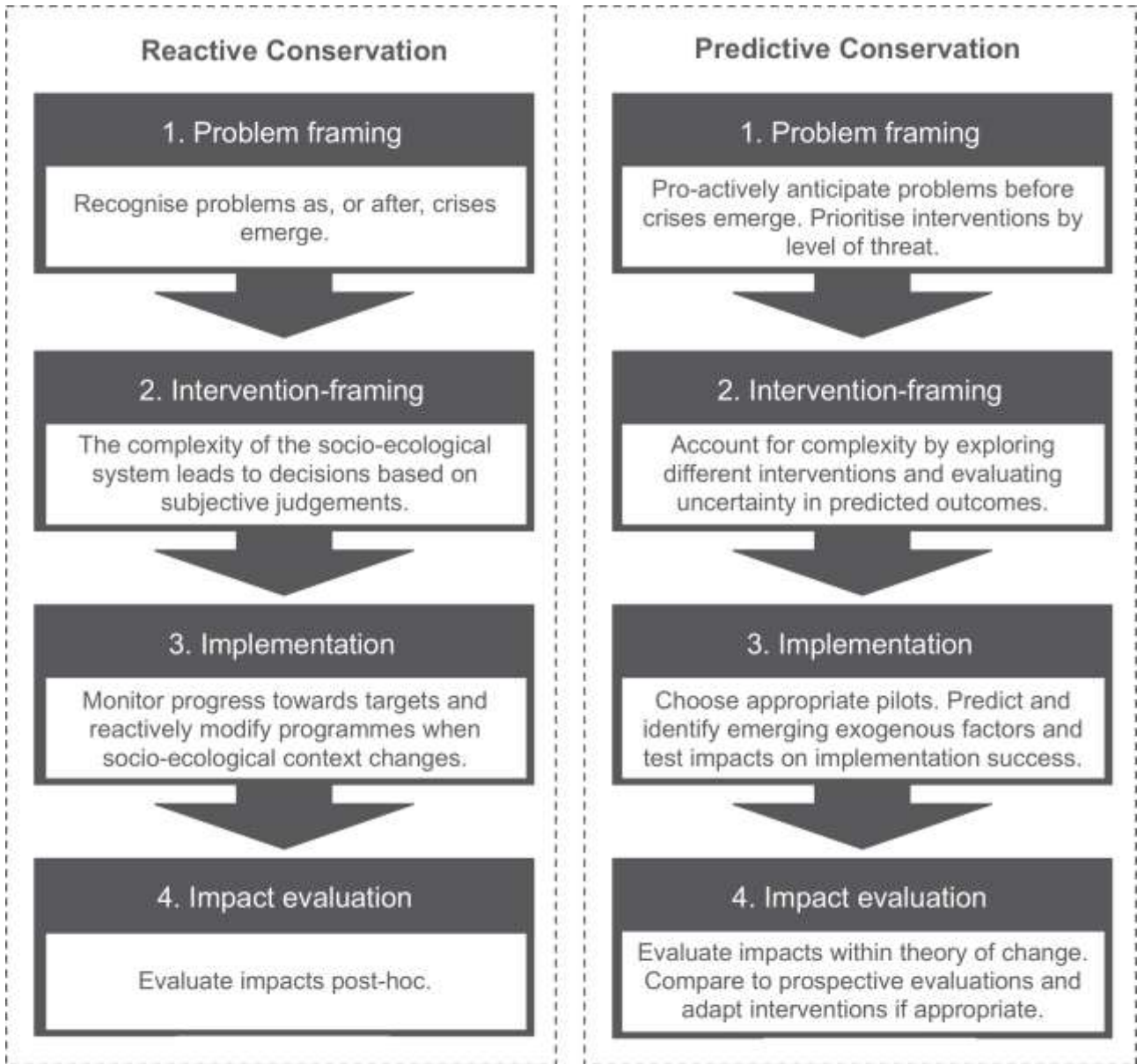
623 Table 2. Examples from public health of how predictive approaches have been used at all stages
 624 of the management cycle to inform and improve intervention design and outcomes.

Cycle stage	How predictive approach was used	Benefit of this approach	Study
Problem framing	By combining Bayesian phylogeography techniques and landscape resistance models, the authors were able to predict unexpected invasion routes of the vampire bat rabies virus. These predictions were then validated by real-time livestock rabies mortality data.	These predictions will allow affected countries to prepare for and mitigate possible future outbreaks by developing preventative vaccination of livestock, education campaigns and control measures.	Streicker et al. 2016
Intervention framing	During the foot-and-mouth disease outbreak among Great Britain's livestock in 2001, predictive modelling enabled the anticipation of the spatio-temporal pattern of disease spread.	Predictions from the models enabled the design of real-time culling and vaccination strategies.	Ferguson et al. 2001, Keeling et al. 2003
Implementation	In the eradication of rinderpest virus in the 2000s, stochastic epidemiological models were able to predict	These predictions played an important role in the implementation of the intervention by creating a	Mariner et al. 2005, Roeder et al. 2013

unexpected outcomes, by showing how suboptimal vaccination was worse than no vaccination. These models were then used as a communication tool to engage decision-makers in visualising epidemiological processes and choices.

consensus for a strategy of focused vaccination as a necessary action to achieve eradication, therefore contributing to the success of the eradication programme.

Evaluation	A study based on the 2001 outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease in the UK showed the advantages of using predictive tools within an adaptive management framework.	The approaches used in the UK FMD epidemic were estimated to have saved up to £20 million in terms of lower livestock losses to culling. The same study also calculated that a similar approach could have led to 10,000 averted cases in the measles outbreak observed in Malawi in 2010.	Shea et al. 2014
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628 Figure 1. A caricature comparison of predictive and reactive approaches to conservation; in reality
629 conservation practice will combine elements of both.