

1 **Assessment of a large number of empirical plant Species Niche Models by**  
2 **elicitation of knowledge from two national experts**

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31

## 32 **Abstract**

33 Quantitative models play an increasing role in exploring the impact of global change on  
34 biodiversity. To win credibility and trust they need validating. We show how expert  
35 knowledge can be used to assess a large number of empirical species niche models  
36 constructed for the British vascular plant and bryophyte flora. Key outcomes were; a) scored  
37 assessments of each modelled species and niche axis combination, b) guidance on models  
38 needing further development, c) exploration of the trade-off between presenting more  
39 complex model summaries, which could lead to more thorough validation, versus the longer  
40 time these take to evaluate, d) quantification of the internal consistency of expert opinion  
41 based on comparison of assessment scores made on a random subset of models evaluated  
42 by both experts. Overall, the experts assessed 39% of species and niche axis combinations to  
43 be 'poor' and 61% to show a degree of reliability split between 'moderate' (30%), 'good'  
44 (25%) and 'excellent' (6%). The two experts agreed in only 43% of cases, reaching greater  
45 consensus about poorer models and disagreeing most about models rated as better by  
46 either expert. This low agreement rate suggests that a greater number of experts is required  
47 to produce reliable assessments and to more fully understand the reasons underlying these  
48 differences of opinion. While AUC statistics showed generally very good ability of the  
49 models to predict random hold-out samples of the data there was no correspondence  
50 between these and the scores given by the experts and no apparent correlation between  
51 AUC and species prevalence. Crowd-sourcing further assessments by allowing web-based

52 access to model fits is an obvious next step. To this end we developed an on-line application  
53 for inspecting and evaluating the fit of each niche surface to its training data.

54

## 55 **Introduction**

56 Quantitative biodiversity models have become an important tool in our attempts to  
57 understand past ecological change and to predict what may lie ahead as humans  
58 increasingly dominate the Earth system (Ellis 2015). The development and application of  
59 ecological models is a burgeoning field yet producing models that are credible when applied  
60 in predictive mode and easy to use is a major challenge (Evans et al. 2013, Houlihan et al.  
61 2017). Independent validation of the performance of models is critical if they are to win  
62 credibility and be deployed to address real problems. Recent decades have seen a rapid  
63 increase in the development and application of statistical Species Distribution or Species  
64 Niche Models (hereafter SNM) that reproduce the distributions of species based on  
65 correlative matching of presence/absence or presence-only datasets to environmental  
66 covariates (Elith & Leathwick 2009; Guillera-Arroita et al 2015). The advantage of such  
67 models is that they are easy to develop and apply. However, they have been criticised on a  
68 number of grounds: These include reliance on the assumption of niche conservatism as  
69 conditions change (Pearman et al 2007), inappropriate extrapolation to future potentially  
70 novel configurations of environmental conditions (Yates et al 2018; ), omission of  
71 demographic processes and biotic interactions (Merow et al 2014; Zurrell et al 2009),  
72 omission of parameters linked to adaptive capacity such as phenotypic and genotypic  
73 variation and rate of likely evolution (Cartullo et al 2015). Building models that address  
74 these criticisms is essential but remains heavily data constrained given the number of

75 species of interest. Moreover, there is no guarantee of an improvement in accuracy even if  
76 models are trained on demographic data that ought to confer realistic dynamism (Crone et  
77 al 2011 but see Chapman et al 2014; Merow et al 2014). Therefore, empirical SNM are still  
78 likely to see continued development and use but in parallel with the move to accumulate  
79 and build more sophisticated hybrid models. Wise application of SNM is also fostered by the  
80 guidance emerging from a growing number of large scale tests of model transferability in  
81 space and time (Norberg et al 2019; Yates et al 2018; Dobrowski et al 2011; Pearman et al  
82 2008).

83

84 The urgency of the problems typically addressed by SNM has also meant an increase in the  
85 formal inclusion of expert knowledge in model building (Low Choy et al 2009; Shirk et al  
86 2010; Addison et al 2013) and testing (Drew & Perera 2012; van Zonneveld et al 2014).

87 Confidence in the use of SNM increases if there is a degree of consensus between model  
88 predictions and independent expert judgement. Using statistical models of the realised  
89 niche of vascular plants and bryophytes in Britain, we investigated how expert opinion can  
90 be used to rapidly evaluate a large number of SNM that have been developed for a  
91 significant fraction of the British flora, covering all community dominants and numerous  
92 rare and subordinate species. The models are freely available within an R package called  
93 MultiMOVE (Henrys et al. 2015). It is more likely that these models will be used and gain  
94 credibility if they can be shown to reproduce the response of each plant species to major  
95 ecological gradients reliably. This can be done quantitatively, by testing the ability of each  
96 model to reproduce random samples of the training data, but also by seeking the view of  
97 experts not involved in model construction but who possess comprehensive knowledge of  
98 the British flora. In this paper we apply and compare the results of both approaches.

100 Each SNM in the MultiMOVE package is a statistical representation of the realised niche of  
101 each species across British ecosystems. That is, each niche is a modelled probability space  
102 defined by the main effects and interactions between climate, vegetation height, indicators  
103 of substrate pH, fertility and substrate wetness across the time interval in which the model-  
104 building data were collected. A large database of species presence-absence data from  
105 quadrat locations across Britain was used to build models for 1188 vascular plants and  
106 bryophytes (Fig 1). The availability of fine resolution co-located soil measurements lends the  
107 models potentially greater accuracy in defining each realised niche (Coudun et al 2006;  
108 Wamelink et al 2014) while also allowing models to be used to explore scenarios of  
109 environmental change that drive change in soil variables (De Vries et al 2010; Smart et al  
110 2010b). Species presence/absence data used to build the models were available at  
111 relatively fine resolution (maximum 200m<sup>2</sup> (14.14 x 14.14m) to minimum 4m<sup>2</sup>). This lessens  
112 the chance of poor model fit resulting from the averaging of environmental heterogeneity  
113 (Huston 1999). SNM were derived by fitting species presence and absence to the  
114 explanatory variables using five different statistical modelling techniques (Henry et al.  
115 2015). While the model development process is rigorous and scientific, in as much as it is  
116 clearly documented and therefore repeatable, it is not a given that each model represents  
117 the true realised niche of each species. For example, a model may be missing important  
118 predictors, there may be insufficient occurrences to parameterise the model, or the data  
119 may not fit the assumptions of the model. To address these issues, an ensemble of  
120 modelling techniques was used recognising that there is no single best statistical approach  
121 to species niche modelling (Araújo and New 2006; Smart et al 2010b; Norberg et al 2019).  
122 Moreover, the notion that it is possible to define the 'true' realised niche as a spatially and

123 temporally invariant pattern is problematic even though the concept of the niche remains  
124 extremely useful (Pulliam 2000, Chase and Liebold 2003, Araújo and Guisan 2006). We  
125 assume pragmatically that the shape of each species' niche is stable enough to be usefully  
126 approximated by popular niche modelling methods and, as we explore here, embodied in  
127 the experiential knowledge that can be elicited from experts (Drew and Perera  
128 2012; O'Hagan et al. 2006). Many of the species that we modelled have ranges that extend  
129 into the European mainland. Restrictions on data availability resulted in models that only  
130 included presence/absence for Britain thereby constraining the environmental range of  
131 some of the models to a subset of their occupied area (c.f. Thuiller et al. 2004, McCune  
132 2016, Yates et al. 2018). A useful consequence is that we did not require experts to  
133 demonstrate knowledge of the ecological preferences of species outside Britain.

134

135 We report the results of a model assessment exercise carried out by two independent  
136 expert botanists covering all niche axes of all species in the MultiMOVE R package (Fig 1).  
137 Both experts were deemed sufficiently familiar with the habitat preferences of the British  
138 flora to be able to judge the quality of each species' model as a representation of its realised  
139 niche. Our aim was ultimately to generate species-specific guidance for users, alerting them  
140 to potentially good and bad representations of the realised niche of each species and to  
141 help identify models in need of improvement. Clearly, the experiential impression of each  
142 niche can differ between experts depending upon the geographic and ecological scope of  
143 their familiarity with British vegetation. In this respect, two experts are better than one but  
144 not as good as an even greater number. We return to this issue in the discussion in light of  
145 an analysis of the consistency between the two experts in their assessment results for a  
146 random 5% sub-sample of the vascular plant species models.

147

148 The assessment made by the expert is also likely to be influenced by the methods used to  
149 summarise model fit. Each species model can be thought of as comprising three  
150 components each of which could be subjected to a separate assessment question: 1) Do the  
151 response curves resulting from each of the five modelling techniques reproduce the  
152 expected niche response of the species according to the experience of the expert? 2) Since  
153 each model is fitted to a dataset of presences and absences does each model accurately  
154 predict the observations that were used to build the model? 3) Does the observed  
155 presence/absence data adequately represent the ecological range of the species in Britain?  
156 A poor representation of the niche could for example arise from biased or unrepresentative  
157 model-building data despite the model being a good fit to these data. Since a total of 1188  
158 species models needed to be assessed we asked each expert to inspect the modelled  
159 response to each abiotic niche axis averaged across model types rather than evaluating each  
160 of the model types along each niche axis. Thus our principal objective was to address  
161 question 1 via an inspection of the ability of each of the ensemble models to represent the  
162 realised niche averaged across the five modelling techniques (Fig 1). We then address  
163 question 2 by generating AUC statistics describing the fit of each model to random hold-out  
164 samples of the training data. The correspondence between the experts' evaluations and the  
165 model fit statistics were then compared with the expectation that better fitting models  
166 should coincide with higher expert scores for the species and niche axis combinations  
167 making up each model (Fig 1). In light of these results we discuss the trade-off between the  
168 time required to evaluate more complex graphical representations of model fit versus the  
169 possibility that more information-rich visualisations could yield more accurate and  
170 comprehensive validation.

171

172 In summary, we sought to answer the following questions:

173 1. How did the two experts rate the ability of the models to capture the niche of each  
174 species?

175 2. To what extent did the experts agree with each other based on joint validation of a  
176 random sub-sample of the vascular plant models?

177 3. Did modelled species and niche axis combinations judged to be better  
178 representations of the species' niche coincide with higher quantitative model fit  
179 statistics for each species model?

180

## 181 **Methods**

### 182 **Selection of experts**

183 We circulated a request for experts to colleagues within the vegetation surveying  
184 community in Britain. Two experts were selected both of whom were prepared to commit  
185 themselves to the validation task. While we can assume that a greater number of experts  
186 should lead to more robust consensus (Drew & Perera 2012), our investigation was limited  
187 by the funding available to pay each expert for the large number of assessments required. A  
188 previous expert-based assessment of the habitat affinities of British plant species  
189 successfully employed three experts, hence we had no prior reason to expect that just two  
190 experts with comprehensive knowledge of the British flora would be insufficient (McInnes et  
191 al. 2017). However, In order to further identify the strengths and weaknesses of this  
192 approach we carried out a literature review of papers documenting the use of expert  
193 knowledge in validating statistical species distribution or niche models (Supplementary file

194 S1). We were especially interested in the range of variation in the ratio of experts to  
195 numbers of species, and in conclusions as to the usefulness of expert assessment and the  
196 levels of agreement found between experts and between experts and models.

197

198 The two expert botanists were recommended to us by colleagues. Both satisfied the six  
199 criteria for selection of experts in elicitation studies listed by O'Hagan et al. (2006), a)  
200 Tangible evidence of expertise, b) Reputation, c) Availability and willingness to participate,  
201 d) Understanding of the problem area, e) Impartiality, f) Lack of an economic or personal  
202 stake in the findings. Neither of the experts were previously acquainted with the authors  
203 either in a personal or professional capacity. Both agreed to take part in the assessment  
204 exercise and in doing so felt that their levels of botanical experience were sufficient to  
205 tackle the national scope of the assessment. Their expertise and experience of the British  
206 flora is summarised below:

207

208 Expert 1: This expert trained as a botanist and vegetation ecologist gaining a master degree  
209 in ecology and then further plant identification qualifications from the British Natural  
210 History Museum. The expert has 15 years' experience practicing as a professional botanist  
211 and, in the last 8 years as a professional bryologist. The expert has been a vice-county  
212 recorder for the Botanical Society of Britain and Ireland (BSBI) for the past 12 years and a  
213 regional recorder for the British Bryological Society for 8 years.

214

215 Expert 2: This expert is a vegetation ecologist, bryologist and botanist with over 20 years'  
216 experience in the nature conservation sector. The expert specialises in detailed vegetation  
217 surveys especially the UK National Vegetation Classification, designing & implementing

218 vegetation monitoring programmes, training in identification and survey skills, bryophyte  
219 surveys and statistical analysis of ecological data.

220

221 In this instance, the two experts are not considered to be human research subjects in the  
222 sense of the Declaration of Helsinki and so it was not deemed necessary to seek approval  
223 and review by an Institutional Ethics Committee.

224

## 225 **Assessment methodology**

226 The modelled responses of each species along each of the seven niche axes were made  
227 available to each expert as a 'shiny' application (Chang et al. 2016) allowing each species to  
228 be selected by the expert for inspection and scoring via a user-friendly interface (see Fig  
229 S2.1 – Supplementary Material). The modelled response curve for each niche axis was  
230 plotted as the average of the predictions generated from the GLM, GAM, MARS and Neural  
231 Network models for the species. The Random Forest models were excluded because of the  
232 frequent occurrence of abrupt spikes in the modelled curves that were uninterpretable and  
233 probably reflected local over-fitting (Wenger and Olden 2012). The resource constraints of  
234 the project meant that only one average curve was plotted per niche axis rather than  
235 separate curves for each method with uncertainty intervals on each. Had we done so this  
236 would have increased the number of required assessments four-fold from 8316 to 33264  
237 (1188 species \* 7 niche axes \* 4 model methods) and confronted the expert with a more  
238 complex representation of each niche that would have needed longer to evaluate. We  
239 return to this issue in the discussion. The modelled response curves were derived by solving  
240 each model for values of the respective predictor. The range of the predictor variable on  
241 each x-axis was defined by the maximum and minimum values in the complete training

242 dataset used to build the models and was therefore the same for every species assessed  
243 (Henry et al. 2015). Since each niche model included terms to be solved for other  
244 predictors these also needed to contribute to the solution of each model along each  
245 ecological gradient. This was done by setting the value of all other predictors to their  
246 median value in the training data ; the default option in MultiMOVE. Hence, when  
247 inspecting a species response along a single gradient, model predictions were generated by  
248 varying the input values for this gradient only and fixing the input value for all other  
249 covariates at the median of each covariate across the training data. An alternative approach  
250 is to set the values of the background predictors to their observed values in each of the  
251 sampled locations in the training data. We explore this option later in the paper. Raw  
252 probabilities from each species' model were rescaled to account for varying prevalence in  
253 the model-building data with the result that all values ranged between 0 and 1 (Real et al.  
254 2006).

255

256 The experts were introduced to the use and installation of the software and the assessment  
257 methodology via email and telephone. A guidance note on carrying out the assessment was  
258 also circulated (see Supplementary Material). Bryophyte species (n=307) were assigned to  
259 one of the experts who had particular experience of the British bryophyte flora. The vascular  
260 plants (n=881) were split between the two experts at random. From this pool, 45 vascular  
261 plants (5% of the total) were selected at random to be assessed by both experts. These were  
262 included among the larger list given to each expert so that neither expert knew the identity  
263 of the species that would also be inspected by the other. Experts were asked to assess the  
264 accuracy of each niche axis using four categories; poor, moderate, good, excellent (  
265 Supplementary file S1). No attempt was made to define this scale hence assessment was left

266 entirely to the judgement of the expert. The exact quote from the guidance note issued to  
267 each expert is as follows “[The niche of each species is described in terms of seven  
268 environmental axes that are all shown together on each species page;] .....[ You should  
269 evaluate each of these separately by comparing what the response curve implies about the  
270 species’ preference with your experience of the species in British habitats. If unsure because  
271 you cannot understand the response or you suspect you do not have enough experience of  
272 the species’ preferences throughout its range then don’t hesitate to select ‘Cannot  
273 evaluate’]”.

274

## 275 **Analysis**

276 The results of the validation exercise are presented showing the frequency of species  
277 assigned to each class. The results for niche axes and species combinations that were  
278 assessed independently by both experts are presented as a confusion matrix showing the  
279 number of times the experts agreed and the frequency of disagreements by pairs of score;  
280 for example, by indicating how often expert 1 gave an assessment of ‘good’ when expert 2  
281 gave an assessment of ‘poor’. From these data % agreement was calculated as follows;

282

283  $\% \text{agreement} = (\text{total number of identical assessments} / \text{total number of assessments}) * 100$

284

285 By restricting the two sums above to just pairs containing one of the assessment categories,  
286 agreement values can also be readily calculated for each, showing for example whether  
287 experts were more likely to disagree when applying the ‘excellent’ score or the ‘poor’ score.

288

## 289 **Comparison with quantitative model fit statistics**

290 Area under the Receiver-Operator Curve (AUC) statistics for each species and each model  
291 type in the MultiMOVE ensemble were computed as follows: The presence absence data for  
292 each modelled species were split randomly into a 75% training and 25% test set. For each  
293 species and modelling method we train on the training set and predict the probability of  
294 presence on the test set. From this we calculated AUC values on the test set using the  
295 'evaluate' function in the R package dismo (Hijmans et al. 2011). For each species and  
296 modelling method we repeated this process 10 times and extracted the average of the AUC  
297 values. Scatter plots and a loess smoother were used to explore whether the assessment  
298 category awarded by each expert to each species x niche axis combination varied  
299 systematically with the mean AUC of the respective species model. We would for example,  
300 expect models that best predicted a hold-out sample of their observations to be a better  
301 description of their niche and to attract a better assessment. This assumes that the  
302 observations used to build the model are representative of the species ecological range as  
303 perceived by each expert. Prevalence was plotted against mean AUC because the high true  
304 negative rates associated with species that rarely occur in the data would be expected to  
305 result in higher AUC values (Peterson et al. 2008, Lobo et al. 2007). The Area Under Curve  
306 (AUC) statistic is simply the area beneath the ROC curve, and provides a single value that is  
307 used to summarize overall performance (e.g. McCune 2016, Boria and Blois 2018, Yates et  
308 al. 2018).

309

## 310 **Results and Discussion**

### 311 **Expert assessment results**

312 Overall, the experts assessed 39% of niche axes to be 'poor' and 61% to show a degree of  
313 reliability split between 'moderate' (30%), 'good' (25%) and 'excellent' (6%) (Fig 2A). The  
314 two experts exhibited differing tendencies in their approach to model assessment. Expert 1  
315 assigned a greater proportion of models to categories associated with stronger model  
316 performance (Fig 2B). Expert 2 showed the reverse tendency, in particular assigning a much  
317 greater proportion of modelled niche axes to the 'poor' category (Fig 2C). Since species  
318 were allocated randomly these differences cannot be attributed to any prior ecological bias  
319 in the species assessed. Expert 1 was the only expert to assess the bryophyte models. The  
320 distribution of scores was similar to results for vascular plants; 36% of model axes being  
321 considered 'poor', 28% 'moderate', 29% 'good' and 7% 'excellent' (Fig 2D).

322

323 Joint assessment of a 5% random sub-set of vascular plant models yielded 43% agreement  
324 between experts. They were more likely to agree on the assessment of poor niche axes with  
325 increasingly less consensus about niche axes considered to be better by at least one of the  
326 experts (Table 1). These levels of disagreement are interesting; in 14 cases expert 2 assigned  
327 'poor' where expert 1 assigned 'good' and in 5 cases expert 1 assigned 'poor' where expert  
328 2 gave 'good' consistent with the tendency for expert 2 to judge more harshly than expert 1.  
329 In nine cases, disagreements centred on climate axes, in seven cases on the  
330 succession/disturbance axis conveyed by vegetation height and in the remaining 3 cases on  
331 abiotic substrate conditions. Species-specific examples of model fits are discussed below.

332 Model assessment scores for all species and niche axes are available in Supplementary  
333 Material (S4).

334

## 335 **Quantitative assessment of model fit**

336 Mean AUC statistics for the species models were invariably greater than 0.8 with most  
337 species having scores greater than 0.9 suggesting good and excellent ability to predict the  
338 test data, respectively (Fig 3) (Swets 1988). A large number of absences tends to decrease  
339 the false positive rate thereby increasing AUC. Interestingly, while this effect cannot be  
340 ruled out, mean AUC was in fact lowest at the very lowest levels of prevalence. Regardless  
341 of the relationship between AUC and prevalence, there was no obvious difference in AUC  
342 between assessment categories for either expert (Fig 3). There was a weak indication that  
343 species models with higher AUC were more likely to be assigned as 'excellent' by expert 2.  
344 However, the smoothed lines did not differ by any meaningful amount (Fig 3b).

345

## 346 **Assessment results in light of the literature review**

347 We located 25 published papers that reported an independent assessment of statistical  
348 species distribution models using expert opinion (Supplementary file S1). Compared to  
349 these papers, our assessment involved by far the lowest ratio of experts to study organisms  
350 (1 to 307 for bryophytes and 1 to 881 for vascular plants with 45 species evaluated by both  
351 experts). It would however, be wrong to assume that these low ratios are an accurate  
352 measure of the fraction of knowledge that could be applied by each expert to each species  
353 in the assessment. The experts were chosen based on their experience and expertise in  
354 surveying British plant communities. As such, this experience should enable assessment of  
355 the habitat preferences of each of the species embedded within the mixed species  
356 assemblages widely encountered by the experts. Familiarity with the UK National  
357 Vegetation Classification by both experts also brings with it an awareness of the way many  
358 individual species respond to changing abiotic conditions within the context of the plant

359 community. We also encouraged the experts to select the ‘cannot evaluate’ category if they  
360 felt unable to evaluate a model through lack of experience. Even so, the levels of  
361 disagreement between the experts suggests that various unquantified biases may have  
362 influenced their judgement. For example, a species whose abiotic niche varies  
363 geographically will be wrongly evaluated if the expert’s home-range did not include the full  
364 range of the species (Drew & Perera 2012; Murray et al. 2009; Supplementary file S1). In  
365 addition to these expert-centred sources of variation, we suspect that the simplicity of the  
366 univariate model summaries may have also mitigated against more accurate (nearer to the  
367 truth) and more precise (less uncertainty surrounding estimates of the truth) assessments.

368

### 369 **Trade-offs between simple versus complex model summaries**

370 At least three factors come into play when evaluating each model; i) the effectiveness of the  
371 way model fit was summarised for the expert, ii) the extent to which each model  
372 reproduces the observations used to build the model, iii) the extent to which the  
373 observational data adequately represents the ecological preferences of the species. The  
374 AUC statistics address the second issue. Across the prevalence range, mean AUC values  
375 indicated generally very good fits between the model predictions and hold-out samples of  
376 the training data. We might therefore have expected fewer ‘poor’ and ‘moderate’ expert  
377 assessment scores. The two experts were able to validate the fit of each species model to  
378 each abiotic axis based on a plot of the simple model average for the five model types  
379 across each separate niche axis. Raw predicted probabilities were also standardised to range  
380 between 0 and 1 thereby allowing species to be compared on an equal basis (Fig S1.1, S2  
381 Supplementary file). This simple presentation was designed to make the assessment as

382 quick as possible. More realistic yet complex presentations are however possible, including  
383 graphing outputs from all available model types with attached confidence intervals rather  
384 than presenting just the average prediction. Expert assessors may have responded  
385 differently to such treatments but their complexity may well have meant prohibitively  
386 greater time spent on each assessment and additional training to help interpret more  
387 complex graphs. For example *Coeloglossum viride*, an orchid of shortly grazed calcareous  
388 grassland with an expected optimum at high pH and short vegetation height, was assessed  
389 by both experts. Plotting the predictions from each type of model shows how the model  
390 average can arise by combining models that are consistent with expectation versus models  
391 that completely fail to reproduce the expected ecological response (Fig 4). The inspection of  
392 the full range of models on the same graph would have allowed assessment and scoring of  
393 each model type as well as each axis however this will have meant a longer assessment  
394 process requiring significantly greater resourcing and training.

395

396 Further insight into the way each species model represents the realised niche can be gained  
397 from examining observed data and modelled occurrence simultaneously along more than  
398 one niche axis. Such plots are better able to reveal peaks in the probability of occurrence  
399 that are not visible when predictions are averaged for all other possible axes. For example  
400 the modelled maximum probability of occurrence for *C. viride* increases when the joint  
401 response to substrate pH and vegetation height is plotted (Fig 5A). The result is a more  
402 accurate depiction of the modelled response for *C. viride* because its optimum is  
403 approximated more clearly by two rather than one niche axis (Fig 5A). The 2D plot highlights  
404 the dependence of the species on both pH and vegetation height, responses that are  
405 averaged out by examining only one dimension. However, had we presented these plots to

406 the experts for every pair of axes this would have increased the volume of assessment  
407 material from seven graphs to 21 graphs per species.

408

## 409 **The critical importance of the background variables**

410 Another important difference in the way model responses can be summarised centres on  
411 the choice of values for background variables; that is those explanatory variables other than  
412 the ones that define the particular abiotic gradient being assessed. The default setting in  
413 MultiMOVE is to set the background variables to the median for the input data. This  
414 effectively holds all other variables constant allowing predictions to vary only in response to  
415 the gradient of interest. However, the assessment results show that this can lead to  
416 predictions being made for unrealistic combinations of explanatory variables while at the  
417 same time missing those conditions that are optimal with respect to the observed  
418 occurrences of the species. Turning again to *C.viride*, when all explanatory variables other  
419 than pH and vegetation height are set to the median values for the training data  
420 unrealistically high predictions are generated outside of the observed range of the species  
421 and coinciding with vegetation that would appear too tall to be suitable (Fig 5B). Predicting  
422 across the same two gradients but solving the model based on observed values at each  
423 sampled location for all other explanatory variables results in the region of highest  
424 prediction coinciding much more closely with the observed range of the species (Fig 5A).  
425 This is a clearer test of the ability of the model to reproduce the abiotic responses in the  
426 observations used to build the model. As such we must be clear that this is not a test of the  
427 transferability of the model to predict new, independent observations (Wenger and Olden  
428 2012; Yates et al 2018). Rather it is a validation of the fit of the model to the observations

429 upon which the model was based. The greatest difference between the two methods for  
430 introducing background variables is to be expected where a species exhibits multiple optima  
431 so that the median values of explanatory variables for the training data are not  
432 representative of any of the individual realised peaks in occurrence. *Schoenus nigricans*, a  
433 tussock-forming rush that has distinct ecological loci in base-rich soligenous mires in the low  
434 rainfall south east of Britain and in the lower pH, higher rainfall north west, is an example  
435 (Fig 6). Interestingly the model predicts lower values away from the high and low rainfall  
436 extremes despite a large number of observations being found in this range (Fig 6A). The  
437 model therefore appears to be a poor fit to the observations even though the observations  
438 are a reasonable representation of the ecological range of the species in these two  
439 dimensions. However, when based on median values for background explanatory variables  
440 the pattern is substantially worse (Fig 6B). The highest probabilities all occur outside of the  
441 observed ecological range of the species. Solving the models based on median background  
442 variables in the training data is therefore likely to have resulted in an assessment of poorer  
443 model fit to either axis than if model predictions were based on observed values at each  
444 sample point.

445

446 These considerations suggest that there are a number of ways of achieving improved model  
447 presentation for assessment . More complex yet information-rich summaries of the  
448 modelled niche are possible to produce but they are likely to take longer to evaluate.

449 Surface plots showing observed presences overlaid with model predictions more clearly  
450 show the extent to which the small ensemble of model types has reproduced the observed  
451 data. Solving the models using observed values of explanatory variables for each location  
452 rather than median values across all locations also avoids applying unrealised and unrealistic

453 combinations of input variables that do not do justice to the fit of the model to  
454 observations.

455

## 456 **The value of expert elicitation**

457 Human judgement is affected by a range of known biases (Tversky and Kahneman 1974,  
458 McCarthy et al. 2004) and experts are no exception yet their opinions carry greater weight  
459 than the non-expert and therefore have the potential for great benefit if correct (Ellenberg  
460 2014) or grave disbenefit if false (Hill 2004). Having two experts assess our niche axes was  
461 better than having one. Yet just as the power of the ensemble approach to modelling relies  
462 on a consensus among models that reduces the eccentric influence of any one model  
463 (Araújo and New 2006, Smart et al. 2010b) it would be desirable to have more experts carry  
464 out the model assessment. The size of the task is large however, given the many species and  
465 niche axis combinations. A way forward would be to expose the MultiMOVE models to  
466 crowd-sourced expertise. We have implemented this step by presenting bivariate modelled  
467 niche surfaces and associated training data in a publicly available online application  
468 ([https://shiny-apps.ceh.ac.uk/find\\_your\\_niche/](https://shiny-apps.ceh.ac.uk/find_your_niche/)). Here assessments can now be captured  
469 along with a self-reported indicator of level of expertise. Such an approach allows for more  
470 complex yet informative model summaries to be presented since volunteer assessors can  
471 take as much or as little time as required for each species of interest. The disadvantage is  
472 that no prior control can be exercised over the expertise of the assessor.

473

474 Our results show that statistical and expert assessments of models can be very different for  
475 a number of reasons: models can be a poor representation of the phenomena of interest  
476 but fit their training data well indicating that the shortcoming is with the observations

477 rather than the modelling method. In addition, simple model summarises, designed to be  
478 readily evaluated by the ecologist but non-expert in statistics and modelling, can be over-  
479 simplifications. Moreover, experts may have too much faith in the transferability of their  
480 own expertise. Our results also confirm the variation that can occur among experts when  
481 asked the same question despite their expertise ostensibly covering the same knowledge  
482 domain; in this instance the habitat preferences of the British vascular plant flora (e.g. Gastón  
483 et al 2014; Murray et al 2009; Supplementary file S1). Having more experts assess the models  
484 becomes an obvious requirement when a small number fail to reach consensus. The key  
485 lessons from our investigation are a) that a robust consensus among experts should be  
486 based on as large a number of experts as possible, b) that excessively simple model  
487 summaries should be avoided even though this will necessitate additional time for  
488 assessment and additional training of experts to interpret more complex model summaries.

489

490

#### 491 **Data Availability**

- 492 • The MultiMOVE R package is freely available via the Centre for Ecology & Hydrology data  
493 catalogue at <https://doi.org/10.5285/94ae1a5a-2a28-4315-8d4b-35ae964fc3b9>
- 494 • An on-line shiny application for submitting assessments of the modelled niche surfaces for  
495 British plant species is available at [https://shiny-apps.ceh.ac.uk/find\\_your\\_niche/](https://shiny-apps.ceh.ac.uk/find_your_niche/)). This is  
496 best viewed in Chrome.

497

#### 498 **Acknowledgements**

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504 anonymous referees and the journal editors for comments that much improved an earlier  
505 version of the manuscript.

506

## 507 **Supporting information**

508 **S1 File.** Literature review of published papers involving expert assessment of species niche  
509 models.

510 **S2 File.** Guidance provided to the two experts on the model validation process.

511 **S3 File.** Average model response curves for each of the species and niche axes discussed in  
512 the text. These curves represent the information that was provided to each expert for  
513 assessment.

514 **S4 File.** Excel file containing model validation results for all species and niche axis  
515 combinations.

516

517

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679 Table 1. Confusion matrix of results for species assessed by both experts. Numbers refer to  
 680 the count of niche axes and species combinations that were assessed. Thus the diagonal  
 681 gives the number of assessments where both experts agreed. The figure in brackets is the %  
 682 agreement for each category of score.

683

| Expert 1 \ Expert 2 | excellent | good    | moderate | poor    | Expert 2 totals |
|---------------------|-----------|---------|----------|---------|-----------------|
| excellent           | 2 (8)     | 2       | 1        | 1       | 6               |
| good                | 9         | 16 (17) | 7        | 5       | 37              |
| moderate            | 9         | 39      | 44 (25)  | 14      | 106             |
| poor                | 1         | 14      | 62       | 64 (40) | 141             |
| Expert 1 totals     | 21        | 71      | 114      | 84      | 126 (43)        |

684

685 **Figure legends:**

686 Fig 1. Steps involved in building and assessment of the MultiMOVE species niche models  
687 based on expert judgement and comparison with AUC. Colour codes are as follows: Blue =  
688 model inputs. Green = quantitative modelling steps. Orange = Model outputs. Light red =  
689 model assessment steps. See Henrys et al (2015) and Smart et al (2010a) for detailed  
690 accounts of the construction of the species niche models including descriptions of the input  
691 data.

692

693 Fig 2. Results from assessments of the MulitMOVE models by two independent experts: A.  
694 both experts combined, B. Expert 1, vascular plants only, C. Expert 2, vascular plants only, D.  
695 Expert 1, bryophytes only.

696

697 Fig 3. Comparison of expert assessments – A. expert 1, B. expert 2 - for each species-niche  
698 axis combination versus AUC statistics for the associated model and the prevalence of each  
699 species in the training data used to build each model. Loess smoothers are fitted to each  
700 species\*niche axis combination grouped by the assessment category awarded by the expert.  
701 Thus each point is a species \* niche axis combination whose position is defined by its  
702 prevalence on the X axis and the mean AUC for the species model on the Y axis. Note that  
703 prevalence (the proportion of presences / total number of quadrats) was square-root  
704 transformed to spread the data more evenly across the X axis.

705

706 Fig 4. Modelled response of *Coeloglossum viride* to an indirect indicator of substrate pH.  
707 The modelled response was assessed by both experts as moderate (expert 1) and poor  
708 (expert 2). Their assessment would have been based solely on inspection of the unweighted  
709 model average (brown line). Raw probabilities have been rescaled to between 0 and 1. Grey  
710 ribbons indicate the 95% confidence region for the relevant modelled response.

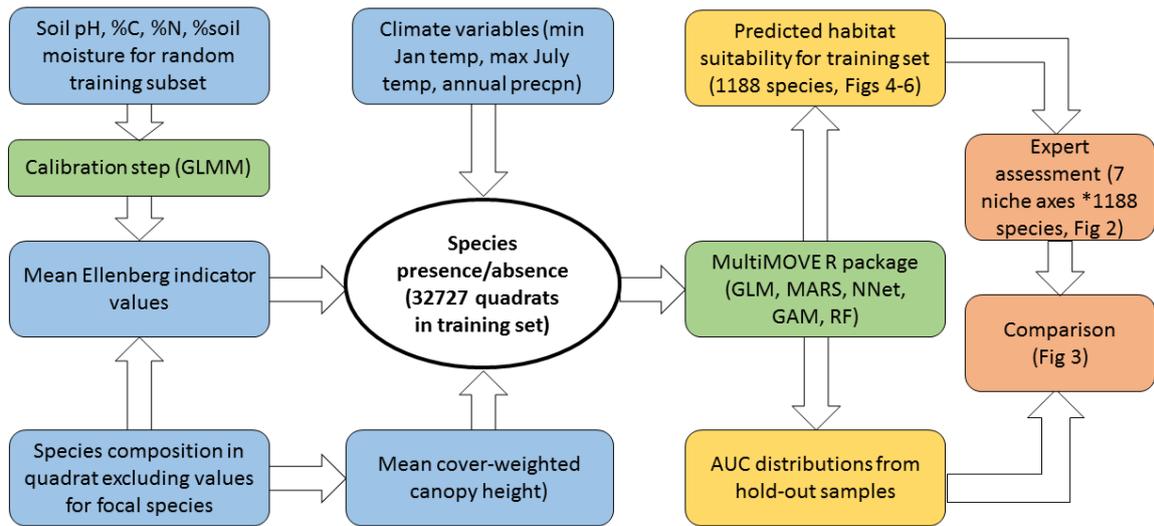
711

712 Fig 5. Modelled response of *Coeloglossum viride* to vegetation height (1, <10cm, 8 >=15m),  
713 (assessed as poor by both experts) and an indirect indicator of substrate pH (assessed as  
714 moderate and poor by the two experts). Colours indicate the weighted average model  
715 prediction for all training plots in the MultiMOVE database. The red line encloses all  
716 observed occurrences of the species (black dots) in the training data. The grey polygon  
717 encloses the ecological space defined by the training data; A. model predictions based on  
718 observed values of background explanatory variables in each training plot, B. background  
719 explanatory variables set to their median values in the training data.

720 Fig 6. Modelled response of *Schoenus nigricans* to precipitation (assessed as good) and an  
721 indirect indicator of substrate pH (assessed as moderate). Colours indicate the weighted  
722 average model prediction for all training plots in the MultiMOVE database. The red line  
723 encloses all observed occurrences of the species (black dots) in the training data. The grey  
724 polygon encloses the ecological space defined by the training data; A. predictions based on  
725 observed values of background explanatory variables in each training plot, B. background  
726 explanatory variables set to their median values in the training data.

727

728

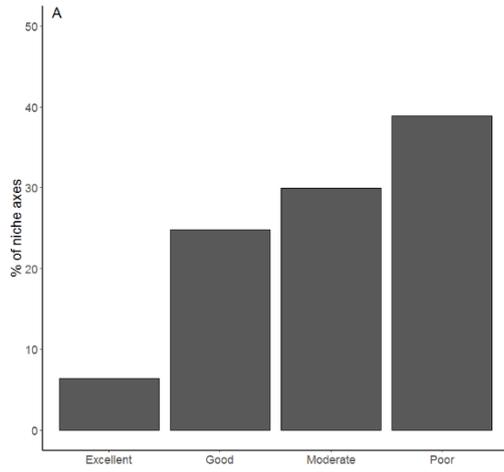


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730 FIG 1.

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733

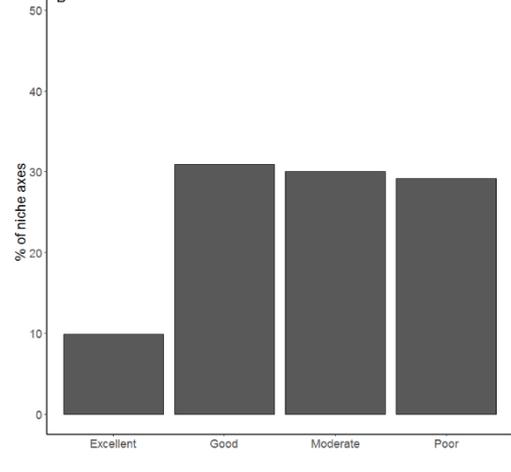
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50 B



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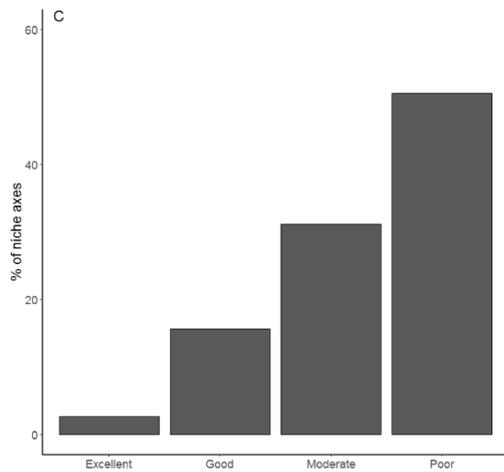
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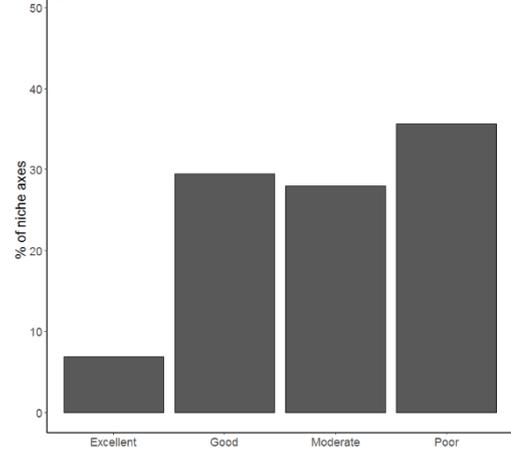
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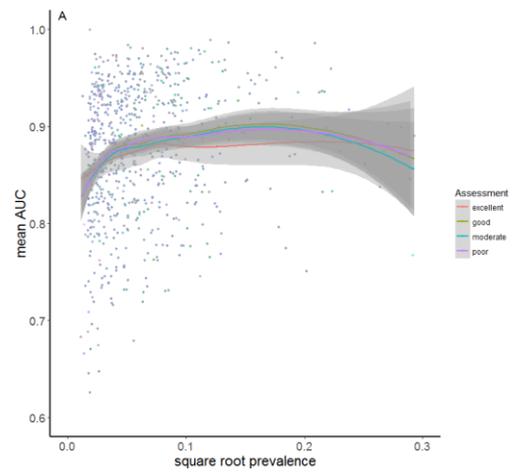
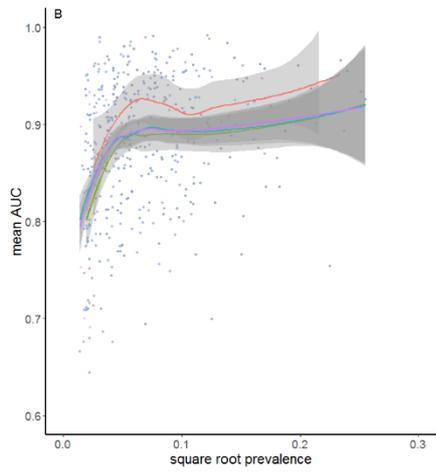


744 FIG 2 A-D.

745

50 D

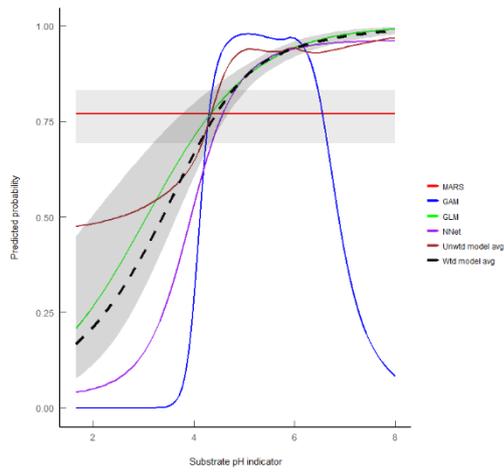




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747 FIG 3 A-B

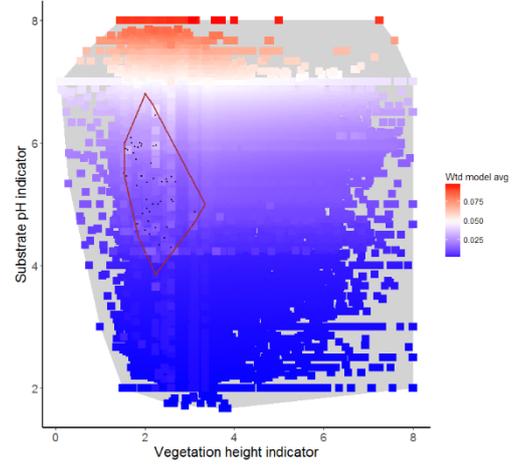
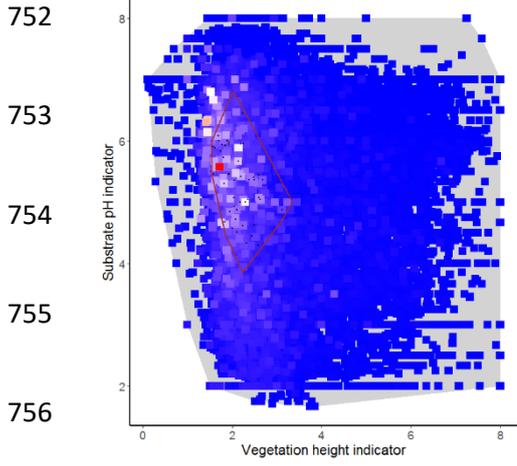
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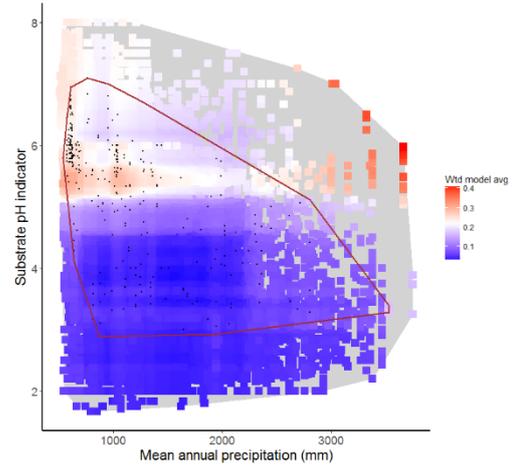
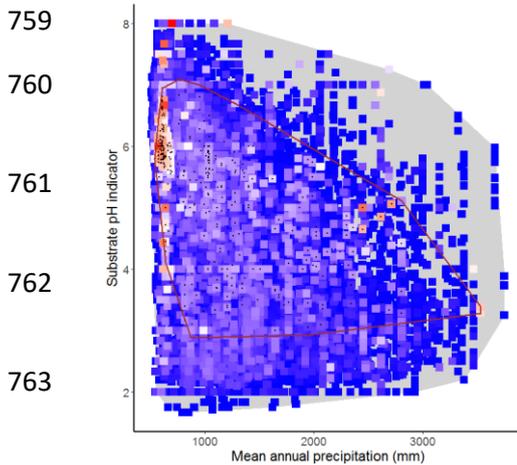
750 FIG 4

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757 FIG 5

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764

765 FIG 6