

Developing an automated iterative near-term forecasting system for an ecological study

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Abstract

1. Most forecasts for the future state of ecological systems are conducted once and never updated or assessed. As a result, many available ecological forecasts are not based on the most up-to-date data, and the scientific progress of ecological forecasting models is slowed by a lack of feedback on how well the forecasts perform.
2. Iterative near-term ecological forecasting involves repeated daily to annual scale

forecasts of an ecological system as new data becomes available and regular assessment of the resulting forecasts. We demonstrate how automated iterative near-term forecasting systems for ecology can be constructed by building one to conduct monthly forecasts of rodent abundances at the Portal Project, a long-term study with over 40 years of monthly data. This system automates most aspects of the six stages of converting raw data into new forecasts: data collection, data sharing, data manipulation, modeling and forecasting, archiving, and presentation of the forecasts.

3. The forecasting system uses R code for working with data, fitting models, making forecasts, and archiving and presenting these forecasts. The resulting pipeline is automated using continuous integration (a software development tool) to run the entire pipeline once a week. The cyberinfrastructure is designed for long-term maintainability and to allow the easy addition of new models. Constructing this forecasting system required a team with expertise ranging from field site experience to software development.
4. Automated near-term iterative forecasting systems will allow the science of ecological forecasting to advance more rapidly and provide the most up-to-date forecasts possible for conservation and management. These forecasting systems will also accelerate basic science by allowing new models of natural systems to be quickly implemented and compared to existing models. Using existing technology, and teams with diverse skill sets, it is possible for ecologists to build these systems and use them to advance our understanding of natural systems.

Key-words: forecasting, prediction, mammals, iterative forecasting, Portal Project

43 **Introduction**

44 Forecasting the future state of ecological systems is important for management,
45 conservation, and evaluation of how well models capture the processes governing
46 ecological systems (Clark et al., 2001; Tallis & Kareiva, 2006; Díaz et al., 2015; Dietze,
47 2017). In 2001, Clark et al. (2001) called for a more central role of forecasting in
48 ecology. Since then, an increasing number of ecological forecasts are being published.
49 Most of these forecasts, however, are made once, published, and never assessed or
50 updated. This lack of both regular assessment and active updating has limited the
51 progress of ecological forecasting and hindered our ability to make useful and reliable
52 predictions. The lack of active assessment results in limited information on how much
53 confidence to place in forecasts and makes it difficult to determine on which forecasting
54 methods to build. Without regular updates, forecasts lack the most current data, and the
55 longer a forecast remains out of date, the less accurate it becomes (Petchey et al., 2015;
56 Dietze et al., 2018). More regular updating and assessment will advance ecological
57 forecasting as a field by accelerating the identification of the best models for individual
58 forecasts and improving our understanding of how to best design forecasting
59 approaches for ecology in general. For ecological forecasting to mature as a field, we
60 need to change how we produce and interact with forecasts, creating a more dynamic
61 interplay between model development, prediction generation, and incorporation of new
62 data and information (Dietze et al., 2018).

63 With the goal of making ecological forecasting more dynamic and responsive, Dietze et
64 al (2018) recently called for an increase in iterative near-term forecasting. Iterative
65 near-term forecasting is defined as making predictions for the near future and repeatedly
66 updating those predictions through a cycle of evaluation, integration of new data, and
67 generation of new forecasts. Because forecasts are made ‘near-term’—daily to annual
68 time scales instead of multi-decadal—predictions can be assessed more quickly and
69 frequently, leading to more rapid model improvements (Tredennick et al., 2016; Dietze

et al., 2018). Since forecasts are made repeatedly through time, new data can be continuously integrated with each iteration (Dietze et al., 2018). By quickly identifying how models are failing, facilitating rapid testing of improved models, and incorporating the most up-to-date data available, iterative near-term forecasting has the potential to promote rapid improvement in the state of ecological forecasting. In addition to yielding improved information for guiding policy and management (Clark et al., 2001; Luo et al., 2011; Petchey et al., 2015), this iterative approach will help improve our basic understanding of ecological systems (Dietze et al., 2018). For example, alternative mechanistic models can be compared to determine which model provides the best forecasts, thus providing insights into the importance of different ecological processes (Dietze et al., 2018). Iterative near-term forecasting provides the more dynamic interplay between models, predictions, and data that has been identified as necessary for improving ecological forecasting and our understanding of ecological systems more broadly.

Because iterative near-term forecasting requires a dynamic integration of models, predictions, and data, Dietze et al (2018) highlight approaches to data management, model construction and evaluation, and cyberinfrastructure that are necessary to effectively implement this type of forecasting (Box 1). Data needs to be released quickly under open licenses (Vargas et al., 2017; Dietze et al., 2018) and structured so that it can be used easily by a variety of researchers and in multiple modeling approaches (Borer et al., 2009; Strasser et al., 2011). Models need to be able to deal with uncertainty, in both the predictors and the predictions, to properly convey uncertainty in the resulting forecasts (Diniz-Filho et al., 2009). Multiple models should be developed, both to assess which models are performing best (Dietze et al., 2018) and to facilitate combining models to form ensemble predictions which tend to perform better than single models (Araujo & New, 2007; Diniz-Filho et al., 2009). Ensuring that data and models are regularly updated and new forecasts are made requires cyberinfrastructure to automate

97 data processing, model fitting, prediction, model evaluation, forecast visualization, and
98 archiving. In combination, these approaches should allow forecasts to be easily rerun
99 and evaluated as new data becomes available (Box 1; Dietze et al., 2018).

100 While iterative near-term forecasting is an important next step in the evolution of
101 ecological forecasting, the requirements outlined by Dietze et al (Box 1) are not trivial
102 to implement, and few of their recommendations are in widespread use in ecology today.
103 We explored what it would entail to operationalize Dietze et al's recommendations by
104 constructing our own iterative near-term forecasting pipeline for an on-going, long-term
105 ecological study that collects high-frequency data on desert rodent abundances (J. H.
106 Brown, 1998; Ernest et al., 2008). We constructed an automated forecasting pipeline
107 with the goal of being able to forecast rodent abundances and evaluate our predictions
108 on a monthly basis. In this paper, we discuss our approach for creating this iterative
109 near-term forecasting pipeline, the challenges we encountered, the tools we used, and
110 the lessons we learned so that others can create their own iterative forecasting systems.

111 **System Background**

112 Iterative forecasting is most effective with frequently collected data, since it provides
113 more opportunities for updating model results and assessing (and potentially improving)
114 model performance (Box 1; Dietze et al., 2018). The Portal Project is a long-term
115 ecological study situated in the Chihuahuan Desert (2 km north and 6.5 km east of
116 Portal, Arizona, US). Researchers have been continuously collecting data at the site
117 since 1977, including data on the abundance of rodent and plant species (monthly and
118 twice yearly, respectively) and climatic factors such as air temperature and precipitation
119 (daily) (J. H. Brown, 1998; Ernest et al., 2009, 2016). The site consists of 24 50m x
120 50m experimental plots. Each plot contains 49 permanently marked trapping stations
121 laid out in a 7 x 7 grid, and all plots are trapped with Sherman live traps for one night

122 each month. For all rodents caught during a trapping session, information on species
123 identity, size, and reproductive condition is collected, and new individuals are given
124 identification tags. This information on rodent populations is high-frequency, uses
125 consistent trapping methodology, and has an extended time-series (470 monthly samples
126 and counting), making this study an ideal case for near-term iterative forecasting.

127 **Implementing an automated iterative forecasting system**

128 Implementation of iterative forecasting requires the regular rebuilding of models with
129 new raw data as it becomes available and the presentation of those forecasts in usable
130 forms; in our case, this occurs monthly. Rebuilding models in an efficient and
131 maintainable way relies on developing an automated pipeline to handle the six stages of
132 converting raw data into new forecasts: data collection, data sharing, data manipulation,
133 modeling and forecasting, archiving, and presentation of the forecasts (Figure 1a). To
134 implement the pipeline outlined in Figure 1a, we used a “continuous analysis”
135 framework (*sensu* Beaulieu-Jones & Greene, 2017) that automatically processes the
136 most up-to-date data, refits the models, makes new forecasts, archives the forecasts, and
137 updates a website with analysis of current and previous forecasts. In this section we
138 describe our approach to streamlining and automating the multiple components of the
139 forecasting pipeline and the tools and infrastructure we employed to execute each
140 component.

141 **Continuous Analysis Framework**

142 A core aspect of iterative near-term forecasting is the regular rerunning of the
143 forecasting pipeline. We employed “continuous analysis” (*sensu* Beaulieu-Jones &
144 Greene, 2017) to drive the automation of both the full pipeline and a number of its
145 individual components. Continuous analysis uses a set of tools originally designed for

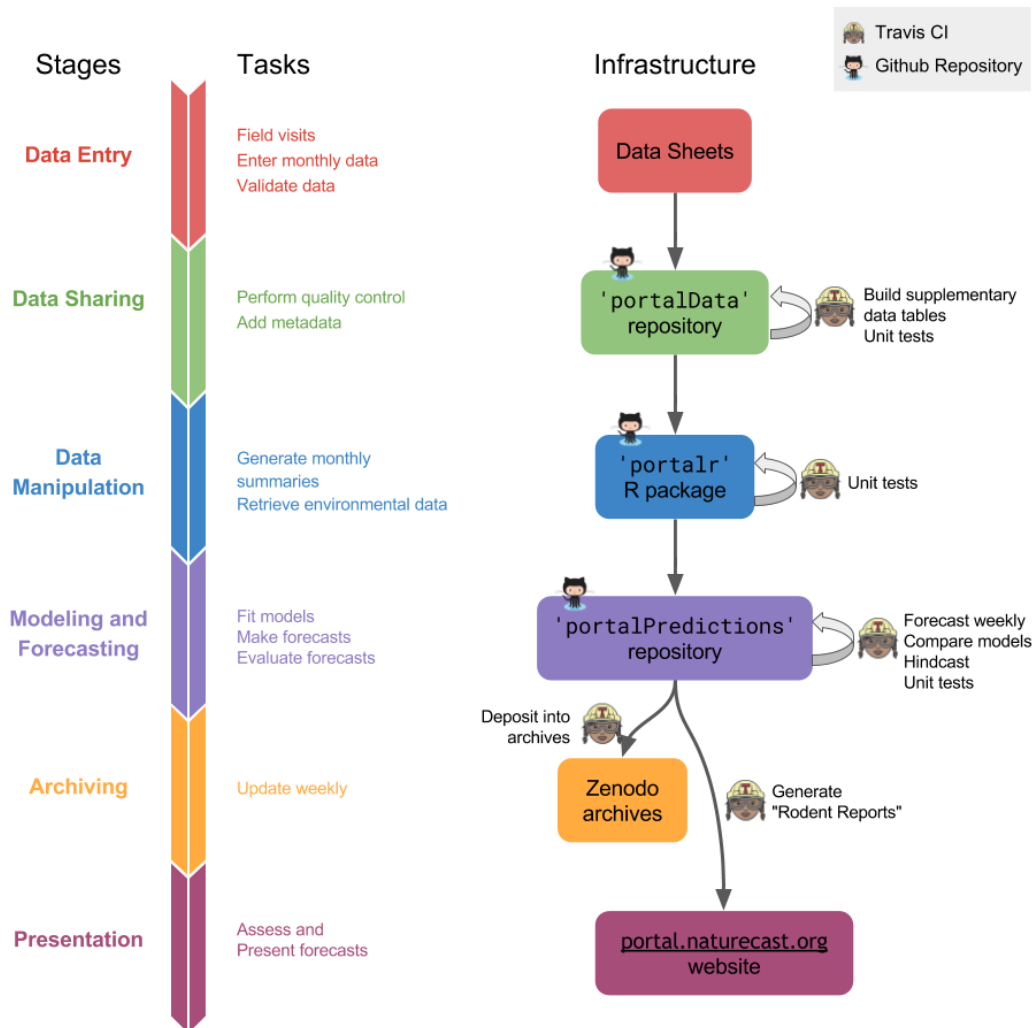


Figure 1: Figure 1. a) Stages of the forecasting pipeline. To go from raw data to forecast presentation involves a number of stages, each of which requires unique tasks, tools and infrastructure. The stages are interdependent, with outputs from one stage forming the inputs for the subsequent stage. Tasks in all stages are run using code written in R. b) Continuous integration system. Each box denotes the core infrastructure used for each stage of the forecasting pipeline. Continuous integration (denoted by the Travis icon, a woman wearing safety glasses and hardhat) triggers the code involved in events that link the stages of the pipeline, such as using the output from the forecasting stage (purple box) to create an updated website (rose box). Travis also runs tasks within a stage, such as testing code and adding weather data (icons on arrows originating and ending on the same box).

146 software development called “continuous integration” (CI). CI combines computing
147 environments for running code with monitoring systems to identify changes in data or
148 code. Essentially, CI is a computer helper who watches the pipeline and, when it sees a
149 change in the code or data, runs all the computer scripts needed to ensure that the
150 forecasting pipeline runs from beginning to end. This is useful for iterative near-term
151 forecasting because it does not rely on humans to create new forecasts whenever new
152 models or data are added. These tools are common in the area of software development,
153 where they are used to automate software testing and integrate work by multiple
154 developers working on the same code base. However, these tools can be used for any
155 computational task that needs to be regularly repeated or run after changes to code or
156 data (Beaulieu-Jones & Greene, 2017). Our forecasting pipeline currently runs on a
157 publicly available continuous integration service (Travis CI; <https://travis-ci.org/>) that is
158 free for open source projects (up to a limited amount of computing time). Because of the
159 widespread use of CI in software development, alternative services that can run code on
160 local or cloud-based computational infrastructure also exist (Beaulieu-Jones & Greene,
161 2017). We use CI to quality check data, test code using “unit tests” (Wilson et al., 2014),
162 build models, make forecasts, and publicly present and archive the results (Figure 1b).

163 In addition to automatically running software pipelines, the other key component of
164 “continuous analysis” is making sure that the pipelines will continue to run even as
165 software dependencies change (Beaulieu-Jones & Greene, 2017). Many of us have
166 experienced the frustrations that can occur when software updates (e.g., changes in R
167 package versions) create errors in previously functional code. We experienced this issue
168 when the `tscount` package (Liboschik et al., 2015), used by one of our forecasting
169 models, was temporarily removed from CRAN (the R package repository) and could
170 not be installed in the usual way. This broke our forecasting pipeline, as we could no
171 longer run models that used that package. To make our pipeline robust to changes in
172 external software dependencies, we follow Beaulieu and Greene’s (2017)

173 recommendation to use software containers. Software containers are standalone
174 packages that contain copies of everything needed to run a given piece of software,
175 including the operating system. Once created, a software container is basically a time
176 capsule, containing all the software dependencies in the exact state used to develop and
177 run the software. If those dependencies change (or disappear) in the wider world, they
178 still exist, unchanged, in the container. We use an existing platform, Docker (Merkel,
179 2014), to store an exact image of the complete software environment for running the
180 forecasts. Docker also allows a specified set of packages to be used consistently across
181 different computer and server environments. Using containers allows us to control
182 transitions to new package versions, implementing them only after we have tested them
183 and made any necessary changes to the data processing and analysis code. We use a
184 container created by the Rocker project, which is a Docker image with many important
185 R packages (i.e. tidyverse) pre-installed (Boettiger & Eddelbuettel, 2017). We add our
186 code and dependencies to this existing Rocker image to create a software container for
187 our forecasting pipeline. In combination, the automated running of the pipeline
188 (continuous integration) and the guarantee it will not stop working unexpectedly due to
189 software dependencies (via a software container) allows continuous analysis to serve as
190 the glue that connects all stages of the forecasting pipeline.

191 **Data Collection, Entry, and Processing**

192 Iterative forecasting benefits from frequently updated data so that state changes can be
193 quickly incorporated into new forecasts (Dietze et al., 2018). Both frequent data
194 collection and rapid processing are important for providing timely forecasts. Since we
195 collect data monthly, ensuring that the models have access to the newest data requires a
196 data latency period of less than 1 month from collection to availability for modeling. To
197 accomplish this, we automated components of the data processing and quality
198 assurance/quality control (QA/QC) process to reduce the time needed to add new data

199 to the database (Figure 1).

200 New data are double-entered into Microsoft Excel using the “data validation” feature.
201 The two versions are then compared using an R script to control for errors in data entry.
202 Quality control (QC) checks using the `testthat` R package (Wickham, 2011) are run
203 on the data to test for validity and consistency both within the new data and between the
204 new and archived data. The local use of the QC scripts to flag problematic data greatly
205 reduces the time spent error-checking and ensures that the quality of data is consistent.
206 The cleaned data are then uploaded to the GitHub-based PortalData repository
207 (<https://github.com/weecology/PortalData>). GitHub (<https://github.com/>) is a software
208 development tool for managing computer code development, but we have also found it
209 useful for data management. On GitHub, changes to data can be tracked through the Git
210 version control system which logs all changes made to any files in the repository, giving
211 us a record of exactly of when specific lines of data were changed or added. All updates
212 to data are processed through “pull requests,” which are notifications that someone has a
213 modified version of the data to contribute. QA/QC checks are automatically run on the
214 submitted data using continuous integration to ensure that no avoidable errors reach the
215 official version of the dataset.

216 We also automated the updating of supplementary data tables, including information on
217 weather and trapping history, that were previously updated manually. As soon as new
218 field data is merged into the repository, continuous integration updates all
219 supplementary files. Weather data is automatically fetched from our cellular-connected
220 weather station, cleaned, and appended to the weather data table. Supplementary data
221 tables related to trapping history are updated based on the data added to the main data
222 tables. Using CI for this ensures that all supplementary data tables are always
223 up-to-date with the core data.

224 **Data Sharing**

225 The Portal Project has a long history of making its data publicly available so that anyone
226 can use it for forecasting or other projects. Historically, the publication of the data was
227 conducted through data papers (Ernest et al., 2009, Ernest et al. (2016)), the most
228 common approach in ecology; this approach, however, caused years of data latency.
229 With the recent switch to posting data directly to a public GitHub repository (Figure 1)
230 with a CC0 waiver (i.e. no restrictions on data use;
231 <https://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>), data latency for everyone has
232 been reduced to less than one month, making meaningful iterative near-term forecasting
233 possible for not only our group but other interested parties, as well.

234 **Data Manipulation**

235 Once data is available, it must be processed into a form appropriate for modeling
236 (Figure 1). For many ecological datasets, this requires not only simple data
237 manipulation but also a good understanding of the data to facilitate appropriate
238 aggregation. Data manipulation steps are often conducted using custom one-off code to
239 convert the raw data into the desired form (Morris & White, 2013), but this approach
240 has several limitations. First, each researcher must develop and maintain their own data
241 manipulation code, which is inefficient and can result in different researchers producing
242 different versions of the data for the same task. Subtle differences in data processing
243 decisions have led to confusion when reproducing results for the Portal data in the past.
244 Second, this kind of code is rarely robust to changes in data structure and location.
245 Based on our experience developing and maintaining the Data Retriever (Morris &
246 White, 2013; Senyondo et al., 2017), these kinds of changes are common. Finally, this
247 kind of code is generally poorly tested, which can lead to errors based on mistakes in
248 data manipulation. To avoid these issues for the Portal Project data, the Portal team has

249 been developing an R package (portalr; <http://github.com/weecology/portalr>) for
250 acquiring the data and handling common data cleaning and aggregation tasks. As a
251 result, our modeling and forecasting code only needs to install this package and run the
252 data manipulation and summary functions to get the appropriate data (Figure 1b). The
253 package undergoes thorough automated unit testing to ensure that data manipulations
254 are achieving the desired results. Having data manipulation code maintained in a
255 separate package that focuses on consistently providing properly summarized forms of
256 the most recent data has made maintaining the forecasting code itself much more
257 straightforward.

258 **Modeling and Forecasting**

259 Iterative near-term forecasting involves regularly refitting a variety of different models
260 (Figure 1). Ideally, new models should be easy to incorporate to allow for iterative
261 improvements to the general modeling structure and approach. We use CI to refit the
262 models and make new forecasts each time the modeling code changes and when new
263 data become available (Figure 1b). We use a plugin infrastructure to allow new models
264 to be easily added to the system. This approach treats each model as an interchangeable
265 black box; all models have access to the same input data and generate the same structure
266 for model outputs (Figure 2). During each run of the forecasting code, all existing
267 models are run and the standardized outputs are combined into a single file to store the
268 results of the different models' forecasts. A weighted ensemble model is then added
269 with weights based on how well individual models fit the training data. This plugin
270 infrastructure makes it easy to add and compare very different types of models, from the
271 basic time-series approaches currently implemented to the more complex state-space
272 and machine learning models we hope to implement in the future. As long as a model
273 script can load the provided data and produce the appropriate output, it will be run and
274 its results incorporated into the rest of the forecasting system.

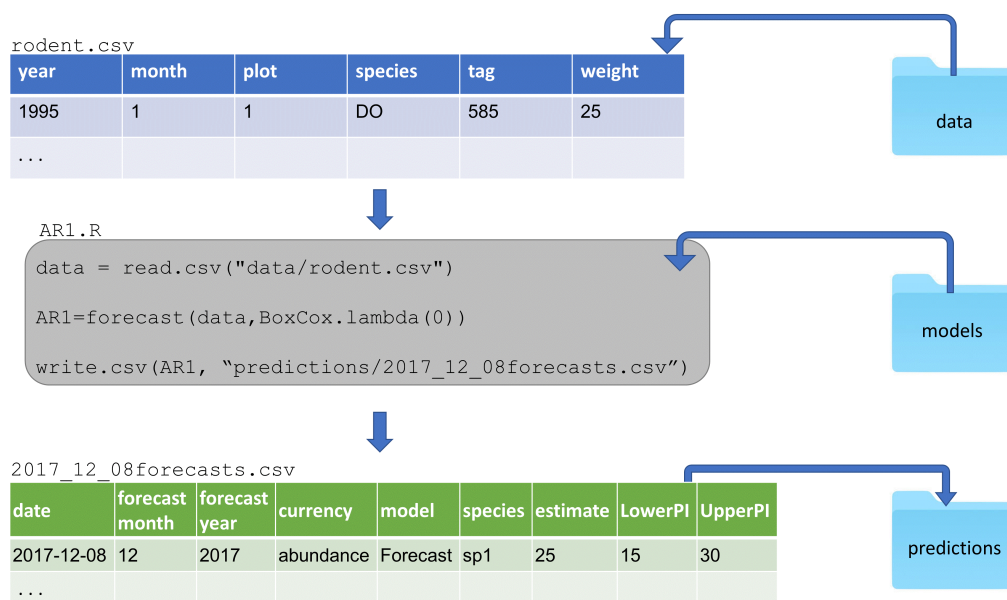


Figure 2: Figure 2. Demonstration of plugin infrastructure. All model scripts (represented here by the example AR1.R) are housed in a single folder. Each model script uses data provided by the core forecasting code (represented here by rodent.csv) and returns its forecast outputs in a predefined structure that is consistent across models (represented here by the example 2017_12_08forecasts.csv). Outputs from all models run on a particular date are combined into the same file (i.e. 2017_12_08forecasts.csv) to allow cross-model evaluations. Model output files are housed in a folder containing all forecast outputs from all previous dates to facilitate archiving and forecast assessment.

275 In addition to flexibility in what model structures can be supported, we also wanted to
276 support flexibility in what the models predict. Allowing models to make forecasts for
277 system properties ranging from individual species' population abundances to total
278 community biomass facilitates exploration of differences in forecastability across
279 different aspects of ecological systems. We designed a forecast output format to support
280 this. Each forecast output file contains the date being forecast, the collection date of the
281 data used for fitting the models, the model name, the date the forecast was made, the
282 state variable being forecast (e.g., rodent biomass, the abundance of a species), and the
283 forecast value and associated uncertainty of that forecast (Figure 2). This allows us to
284 store a variety of different forecasts in a common format and may serve as a useful
285 starting point for developing a standard for storing ecological forecasts more generally.

286 Forecasts are currently evaluated using root mean square error (RMSE) to evaluate
287 point forecasts and coverage to evaluate uncertainty. We plan to add additional metrics
288 in the future. In addition to evaluating the actual forecasts, we also use hindcasting
289 (forecasting on already collected data; Jolliffe & Stephenson, 2003) to gain additional
290 insight into the methods that work best for forecasting this system. For example, a
291 model is fit using rodent observations up to June 2005, then used to make a forecast 12
292 months out to May 2006. The observations of that 12-month period can immediately be
293 used to evaluate the model. Since hindcasting is conducted using data that has already
294 been collected, it allows model comparisons to be conducted on large numbers of
295 hindcasts and provides insight into which models make the best forecasts without
296 needing to wait for new data to be collected (Harris et al., 2018). It can also be used to
297 quickly evaluate new models instead of waiting for an adequate amount of data to
298 accumulate.

299 **Archiving**

300 Publicly archiving forecasts before new data is collected allows the field to assess,
301 compare, and build on forecasts made by different groups (McGill, 2012; Tredennick et
302 al., 2016; Dietze et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2018) (Figure 1). Archiving serves as a form
303 of pre-registration for model predictions because the forecasts cannot be modified once
304 the data to assess them has been collected. This helps facilitate an unbiased
305 interpretation of model performance. To serve this role, archives should be publicly
306 accessible and be a permanent record that cannot be changed or deleted. This second
307 criterion means that GitHub is not sufficient for archival purposes because repositories
308 can be changed or deleted (Bergman, 2012; White, 2015). We explored three major
309 repositories for archiving forecasts: FigShare (<https://figshare.com/>), Zenodo
310 (<https://zenodo.org/>), and Open Science Framework (<https://osf.io/>). While all three
311 repositories allowed for easy manual submissions (i.e., a human uploading files after
312 each forecast), automating this process was substantially more difficult. Various
313 combinations of repositories, APIs (i.e., interfaces for automatically interacting with the
314 archiving websites), and associated R packages had issues with: 1) integrating
315 authorization with continuous integration; 2) automatically making archived files public;
316 3) adding new files to an existing location; or 4) automatically permanently archiving
317 the files. Our eventual solution was to leverage the GitHub-Zenodo integration
318 (<https://guides.github.com/activities/citable-code/>) and automatically push forecasts to a
319 GitHub repository from the CI server and release them via the GitHub API. The
320 GitHub-Zenodo integration is designed to automatically create versioned archives of
321 GitHub repositories. We created a repository for storing forecasts
322 (<https://github.com/weecology/forecasts>) and linked this repository with Zenodo (a
323 one-time manual process). Each time a new forecast is created, our pipeline adds the
324 new forecasts to the GitHub repository and uses the GitHub API to create a new
325 “release” for that repository. This triggers the GitHub-Zenodo integration, which

326 automatically archives the resulting forecasts under a top-level DOI that refers to all
327 archived forecasts (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.839580>). Through this process, we
328 automatically archive every forecast made with a documented time-stamp. In addition,
329 we also archive the full state of the modeling and forecasting repository
330 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.833438>). This ensures that every forecast is fully
331 reproducible since the exact code used to generate every forecast is preserved. Early
332 forecasts from this system are archived in the modeling and forecasting code archive,
333 not in the newer repository ‘forecasts’.

334 **Presentation**

335 Each month, we present our forecasts on a website that displays monthly rodent
336 forecasts, model evaluation metrics, monthly reports, and information about the study
337 site (Figure 3; <http://portal.naturecast.org>). The website includes a graphical
338 presentation of the most recent month’s forecasts (including uncertainty) and compares
339 the latest data to the previous forecasts. Information on the species and the field site are
340 also included. The site is built using Rmarkdown (Allaire et al., 2017), which naturally
341 integrates into the pipeline and is automatically updated after each forecast. The `knitr`
342 R package (Xie, 2015) compiles the code into HTML, which is then published using
343 Github Pages (<https://pages.github.com/>). The files for the website are stored in a
344 subdirectory of the forecasting repository. As a result, the website is also archived
345 automatically as part of archiving the forecast results.

346 **Discussion**

347 Following the recommendations of Dietze et al (2018), we developed an automated
348 iterative forecasting system (Figure 1) to support repeated forecasting of an ecological
349 system. Our forecasting system automatically acquires and processes the newest data,

Portal Forecast

Total Abundance Forecast

This is the forecast for next month's sampling of rodents at Portal.

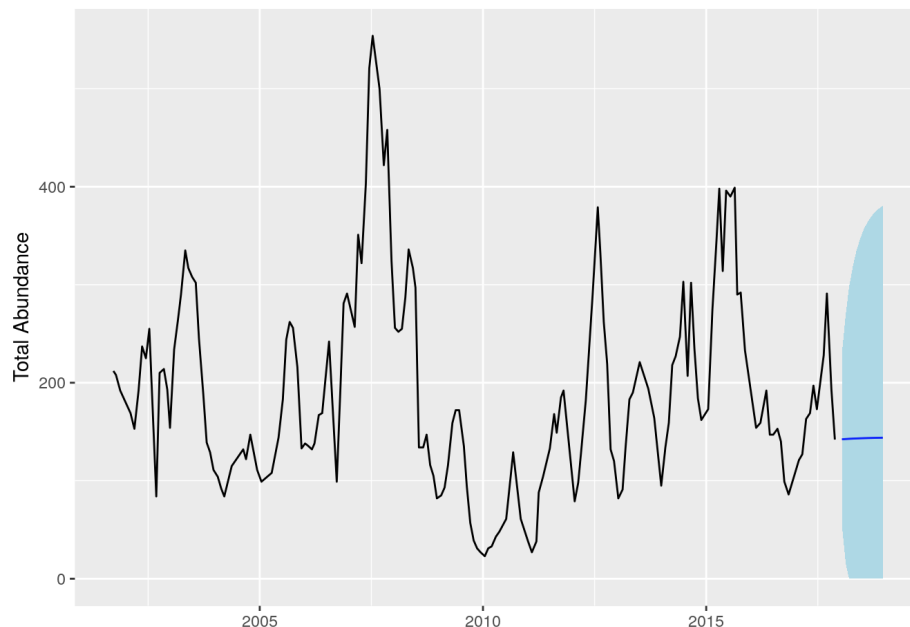


Figure 3: Figure 3. Screen capture of the homepage of the Portal Forecasting website (<http://portal.naturecast.org>). This site contains information on the most current forecasts, evaluation of forecast performance, and general information about the species being forecast.

350 refits the models, makes new forecasts, publicly archives those forecasts, and presents
351 both the current forecast and information on how previous forecasts performed. Every
352 week, the forecasting system generates a new set of forecasts with no human
353 intervention, except for the entry of new field data. Our forecasting system ensures that
354 forecasts based on the most recent data are always available and is designed to allow
355 rapid assessment of the performance of multiple forecasting models for a number of
356 different states of the system, including the abundances of individual species and
357 community-level variables such as total abundance. To create this iterative near-term
358 forecasting system, we used R to process data and conduct analyses and leveraged
359 existing tools and services (i.e. GitHub, Travis, Docker) for more complicated
360 cyberinfrastructure tasks. Thus, our approach to developing iterative near-term
361 forecasting infrastructure provides an example for how short-term ecological
362 forecasting systems can be developed.

363 We designed this forecasting system with the goal of making it relatively easy to build,
364 maintain, and extend. We used existing technology for both running the pipeline and
365 building individual components, which allowed us to build the system relatively cheaply
366 in terms of both time and money. This included the use of tools like Docker for
367 reproducibility, Travis CI continuous integration for automatically running the pipeline,
368 Rmarkdown and `knitr` for generating the website, and the already existing integration
369 between Github and Zenodo to archive the forecasts. By using this “continuous analysis”
370 approach (Beaulieu-Jones & Greene, 2017), where analyses are automatically rerun
371 when changes are made to data, models, or associated code, we have reduced the time
372 required by scientists to run and maintain the forecasting pipeline. To make the system
373 extensible so that new models could be easily incorporated, we used a plugin-based
374 infrastructure so that adding a new model to the system is as easy as adding a single file
375 to the ‘models’ folder in our repository (Figure 2). This should substantially lower the
376 barriers to other scientists contributing models to this forecasting effort. We also

377 automatically archive the resulting forecasts publicly so that the performance of these
378 forecasts can be assessed by both us and other researchers as new data is collected. This
379 serves as a form of pre-registration by providing a quantitative record of the forecast
380 before the data being predicted were collected.

381 While building this system was facilitated by the use of existing technological solutions,
382 there were still a number of challenges in making existing tools work for automated
383 iterative forecasting. Continuous integration is designed primarily for running
384 automated tests on software, not for running a coordinated forecasting pipeline. As a
385 result, extra effort was sometimes necessary to figure out how to get these systems to
386 work properly in non-standard situations, like running code that was not part of a
387 software package. In addition, hosted continuous integration solutions, like Travis,
388 provide only limited computational resources. As the number and complexity of the
389 models we fit has grown, we have had to continually invest effort in reducing our total
390 compute time so we can stay within these limits. Finally, we found no satisfactory
391 existing solution for archiving our results. All approaches we tried had limitations when
392 it came to automatically generating publicly-versioned archives of forecasts on a
393 repeated basis, and our eventual solution was difficult to configure to such a degree that
394 it will remain an impediment for most researchers. Overall, we found existing
395 technology to be sufficient to the task of creating an iterative forecasting pipeline, but it
396 required greater expertise and a greater investment of time than is ideal. Additional tool
397 development to reduce the effort required for scientists to set up their own short-term
398 forecasting systems would clearly be useful. Our efforts, however, show that it is
399 possible to use existing tools to develop initial iterative systems as a method for both
400 advancing scientific understanding and developing proof of concept forecasting systems.

401 Because of the breadth of expertise needed to set up our forecasting pipeline, our effort
402 required a team with diverse skills and perspectives, ranging from software
403 development to field site expertise. It is rare to find such breadth within a single

404 research group, and our system was developed as a collaboration between the lab
405 collecting the data and a computational ecology lab. When teams have a breadth of
406 expertise, communication can be challenging (Winowiecki et al., 2011). We found a
407 shared base of knowledge related to both the field research and fundamental
408 computational skills was important for the success of the group. The two labs are part of
409 a joint interdisciplinary ecology group that has a mission of breaking down barriers
410 between field and computational/theoretical ecologists (<http://weecology.org>). Everyone
411 on the team had received training in fundamental data management and computing
412 skills through a combination of university courses, Software and Data Carpentry
413 workshops (Teal et al., 2015), and informal lab training efforts. In addition, everyone
414 was broadly familiar with the study site and methods of data collection, and most team
415 members had participated in field work at the site on multiple occasions. This provided
416 a shared set of knowledge and vocabulary that actively facilitated interdisciplinary
417 interactions. Given the current state of tools for forecasting, forecasting teams will need
418 people with significant experience in working with continuous integration and APIs.
419 This means interdisciplinary teams will generally be required for creating these
420 pipelines until tool development improves. To improve the success of these diverse
421 groups, we believe efforts at providing ‘team science’ training to scientists interested in
422 forecasting will be beneficial for the success of iterative forecasting attempts for the
423 foreseeable future (Read et al., 2016).

424 We developed infrastructure for automatically making iterative forecasts with the goals
425 of making accurate forecasts for this well-studied system, learning what methods work
426 well for ecological forecasting more generally, and improving our understanding of the
427 processes driving ecological dynamics. The most obvious application of automated
428 iterative ecological forecasting is for speeding up development of forecasting models by
429 using the most recent data available and by quickly iterating to improve the models used
430 for forecasting. By learning what works best for forecasting in this and other ecological

431 systems, we will better understand what the best approaches are for ecological
432 forecasting more generally. By designing the pipeline so that it can forecast many
433 different aspects of the ecological community, we also hope to learn about what aspects
434 of ecology are more forecastable. Finally, automated forecasting infrastructures like this
435 one also provide a core foundation for faster scientific inquiry because new models can
436 quickly be applied to data and compared to existing models. The forecasting
437 infrastructure does the time-consuming work of data processing, data integration, and
438 model assessment, allowing new research to focus on the models being developed and
439 the inferences about the system that can be drawn from them (Dietze et al., 2018). We
440 plan to use this pipeline to drive future research into understanding the processes that
441 govern the dynamics of individual populations and the community as a whole. By
442 regularly running different models for population and community dynamics, a near-term
443 iterative pipeline such as ours should also make it possible to rapidly detect changes in
444 how the system is operating, which should allow the rapid identification of ecological
445 transitions or even possibly allow them to be prevented (Pace et al., 2017). By building
446 an automated iterative near-term forecasting infrastructure, we can improve our ability
447 to forecast natural systems, understand the biology driving ecological dynamics, and
448 detect or even predict changes in system state that are important for conservation and
449 management.

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458 **Data Accessibility**

459 The data used in this study is from the Portal Project and is openly available (CC0) on
460 GitHub (<https://github.com/weecology/PortalData>). Code for reproducing all analyses is
461 available on GitHub (<https://github.com/weecology/portalPredictions>) and archived on
462 Zenodo (White et al., 2018b). Forecasts made by this system are all archived to Zenodo
463 (White et al., 2018a).

464 **Box 1. Key practices for automated iterative near-term** 465 **ecological forecasting**

466 A list of some of the key practices developed by Dietze et al (2018) for facilitating
467 iterative near-term ecological forecasting and discussion of why these practices are
468 important.

469 **Data**

470 **1. Frequent data collection**

471 Frequent data collection allows models to be regularly updated and forecasts to be
472 frequently evaluated (Dietze et al., 2018). Depending on the system being studied, this
473 frequency could range from sub-daily to annual, but typically the more frequently the
474 data is collected the better.

475 **2. Rapid data release under open licenses**

476 Data should be released as quickly as possible (low latency) under open licenses so that
477 forecasts can be made frequently and data can be accessed by a community of
478 forecasters (Vargas et al., 2017; Dietze et al., 2018).

479 **3. Best practices in data structure**

480 To reduce the time and effort needed to incorporate data into models, best practices in
481 data structure should be employed for managing and storing collected data to ensure it
482 is easy to integrate into other systems (interoperability) (Borer et al., 2009; Strasser et
483 al., 2011; White et al., 2013).

484 **Models**

485 **4. Focus on uncertainty**

486 Understanding the uncertainty of forecasts is crucial to interpreting and understanding
487 their utility. Models used for forecasting should be probabilistic to properly quantify
488 uncertainty and to convey how this uncertainty increases through time. Evaluation of
489 forecast models should include assessment of how accurately they quantify uncertainty
490 as well as point estimates (Hooten & Hobbs, 2015).

491 **5. Compare forecasts to simple baselines**

492 Understanding how much information is present in a forecast requires comparing its
493 accuracy to simple baselines to see if the models yield improvements over the naive
494 expectation that the system is static (Harris et al., 2018).

495 **6. Compare and combine multiple modeling approaches**

496 To quickly learn about the best approaches to forecasting different aspects of ecology,
497 multiple modeling approaches should be compared (Harris et al., 2018). Different
498 modeling approaches should also be combined into ensemble models, which often
499 outperform single models for prediction (Weigel et al., 2008).

500 **Cyberinfrastructure**

501 In addition to improvements in data and models, iterative near-term forecasting requires
502 improved infrastructure and approaches to support continuous model development and
503 iterative forecasting (Dietze et al., 2018).

504 **7. Best practices in software development**

505 Best practices should be followed in the development of scientific software and
506 modeling to make it easier to maintain, integrate into pipelines, and build on by other
507 researchers. Key best practices include open licenses, good documentation, version
508 control, and cross-platform support (Wilson et al., 2014; Hampton et al., 2015).

509 **8. Support easy inclusion of new models**

510 To facilitate the comparison and ensembling of different modeling approaches, code for
511 fitting models and making forecasts should be easily extensible, to allow models
512 developed by different groups to be integrated into a single framework (Dietze et al.,
513 2018).

514 **9. Automated end-to-end reproducibility**

515 Each forecast iteration involves acquiring new data, refitting the models, and making
516 new forecasts. This should be done automatically without requiring human intervention.
517 Therefore, the process of making forecasts should emphasize end-to-end reproducibility,
518 including data, models, and evaluation (Stodden & Miguez, 2014), to allow the
519 forecasts to be easily rerun as new data becomes available (Dietze et al., 2018).

520 **10. Publicly archive forecasts**

521 Forecasts should be openly archived to demonstrate that the forecasts were made
522 without knowledge of the outcomes and to allow the community to assess and compare
523 the performance of different forecasting approaches both now and in the future (McGill,
524 2012; Tredennick et al., 2016; Dietze et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2018). Ideally, the

525 forecasts and evaluation of their performance should be automatically posted publicly in
526 a manner that is understandable by both scientists and the broader stakeholder
527 community.

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