

User selection and engagement for climate services co-production

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11 ABSTRACT

12 Climate services are high in the international agenda for their potential to help combat the
13 effects of climate change. However, climate science is rarely directly incorporated in the
14 decision-making processes of societal actors, due to what has been identified as the usability
15 gap. The cause behind this gap is partially due to a failure to timely and meaningfully engage
16 users in the production of climate services, as well as misperceptions on which users can best
17 benefit from climate service uptake. In this article we propose user selection and engagement
18 guidelines that integrate important values from participatory science such as those of
19 legitimacy, representativity and agency. The guidelines consist of 5 + 1 steps: defining the why,
20 where, whom, which attributes, which intensity, and how to select and engage with
21 stakeholders. Whilst these steps may be initially implemented by an ideally interdisciplinary
22 team of scientists and service designers, the final step consists of an iterative process by which
23 each decision is agreed together with the identified users and stakeholders under a co-
24 production approach. We believe lack of willingness is not the major barrier but rather a lack
25 of guidance for consistent user selection and engagement. Following a set of methodological
26 guidelines is important to design climate services aligned to the actual needs of a wide and
27 inclusive range of ultimately empowered societal agents.

28
29 SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

30 The review of the climate science and services literature and related research projects
31 reveals that, despite the insistence to include users in all stages of the research process, users
32 are often involved only sporadically and inconsistently, and when there is little room to change
33 the climate service suitable for decision-making. Here we argue that a reason is the lack of user
34 selection and engagement guidelines. Failure to implement a research design strategy for these
35 decisions can lead to a lack of usability and applicability of the produced climate-related
36 services, as well as hampering their long-term uptake. These guidelines can thus support the
37 development of usable, co-produced, actionable climate science.

39
40

"It becomes obvious (...) that neither decision makers nor scientists working alone can specify what science products are needed, how they should be developed, and how they should be applied to climate adaptation" (Beier et al. 2017, p. 289)

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Climate services demand is on the rise due to the increasing awareness of the negative
43 effects of climate change and the need for evidence-based responses (Street et al. 2019).
44 Globally, a wide range of institutions foster the climate services market, from the World
45 Meteorological Organisation and its Global Framework for Climate Services (GFCS) launched
46 in 2009, to other initiatives such as the European Union's Copernicus Climate Change Service
47 (C3S) (Bojovic et al. 2022). The C3S, for instance, aims to build a climate-resilient society by
48 engaging a large number of experts on developing, distributing and using climate services,
49 ensuring the quality of climate data and eliminating obstacles impeding its usage (Buontempo
50 et al. 2020).

51 Among the obstacles identified that impede the use of climate data, scholars mention
52 cognitive, social, institutional and knowledge barriers (Dilling and Lemos 2011; Kalafatis et
53 al. 2015; Raaphorst et al. 2020). As an outcome of these obstacles, scholars have noticed that
54 whereas the quality of climate services has been increasing, its usage by societal actors has not
55 followed suit (Findlater et al. 2021). To address this gap, global scientific networks have
56 asserted a change in paradigm in the way of producing climate and sustainability-related
57 science. These actors promote the adoption of knowledge co-production processes to enhance
58 scientific accountability towards society and ensure implementation of the scientific activity,
59 whilst including different knowledge types in designing climate-related policy and strategies
60 (van der Hel 2016; Owen et al. 2019; McCauley and Heffron 2018; Bremer et al. 2019).

61 Users are at the center of climate services by definition, as despite the wide range of
62 products they encompass, climate services are identified with the key commonalities of being
63 guided by users' needs, providing climate information for decision-making processes and
64 involving dissemination and uptake practices (Bessembinder et al. 2019). Targeting the
65 inclusion of diverse actors at key stages of the co-production process increases the chances to
66 produce actionable knowledge that will be incorporated in decision-making (Armitage et al.
67 2009; Beier et al. 2017; Hill et al. 2020). Henceforth, successful co-production processes
68 demonstrate the importance of including stakeholders and users across the stages of climate
69 services production. In reality, nonetheless, few examples put this into practice (Vaughan et al.
70 2018). Most projects adopt rather supply-driven forms of producing services with the risk of

71 not meeting users' needs (Buontempo and Hewitt 2018; Daniels et al. 2020; Findlater et al.
72 2021; Hewitt et al. 2020; Lemos and Morehouse 2005; Porter and Dessai 2017).

73 In this article we adapt the methodology of stakeholder analysis to the particularities of
74 climate services. Our aim is to propose a methodology for enhanced user selection and
75 engagement which increase the likelihood that climate information is incorporated in decision-
76 making processes and considers the needs from different types of users, because currently there
77 is a lack of guidance especially on systematically selecting a plurality of users. This is usually
78 exacerbated by climate scientists' perceptions of users in the "mini-me" phenomenon, by which
79 scientists expect users to have the same background despite this rarely being the case (Porter
80 and Dessai 2017). Knowledge co-production is a participatory approach to science, and many
81 such approaches depart from a set of principles infusing the range of methods through which
82 they are implemented on the ground. The principles this guide aims to be infused with are those
83 of valuing, equality, authenticity, transparency, agency, representation, deliberation, inclusion
84 and transdisciplinarity (Reed et al. 2018; but for ethical principles in co-production and
85 transdisciplinary research see also Wilmer et al. 2021). Inclusive research practices are very
86 important: the better job we make in the selection of users that range from a variety of identities,
87 backgrounds and knowledges, the better foundation we lay down for designing services that
88 are accessible, welcoming, safe, ethical and inclusive for everyone. These principles have been
89 linked to the steps proposed below, but they should represent the overarching theme
90 throughout. In the next section we give an overview of the stakeholder analysis literature,
91 followed by the proposed steps for stakeholder and user selection and engagement for climate
92 services. In the discussion we dive into ways to successfully navigate the challenges that can
93 occur during this process.

94 **2. Adapting stakeholder analysis to climate services**

95 Stakeholder analysis matured in the management literature in the 1980s, with the
96 recognition that engaging actors external to an organisation was critical to the very survival of
97 the organization (for a review of stakeholder analysis definitions see Yang 2014). From this
98 literature emerged the most often cited definition of stakeholder, understood as "any group or
99 individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives"
100 (Freeman 2010, p. 46 from 1984 ed.). In the 1990s, evidence that the governance of natural
101 resources was increasingly adopting hybrid regulatory, market and network-led forms of
102 governance, raised the interest from scholars to tailor this organisational science to the issues

103 faced in natural resource management. Natural resource management and climate services have
104 some elements in common such as the complexity of the issue at stake, the general initial
105 disconnection between involved stakeholders, and a context of human-environment
106 interactions (Beier et al. 2017). However, the particularities of climate information and services
107 create the need to narrow down stakeholder analysis methodologies through a human-centered
108 approach as proposed below.

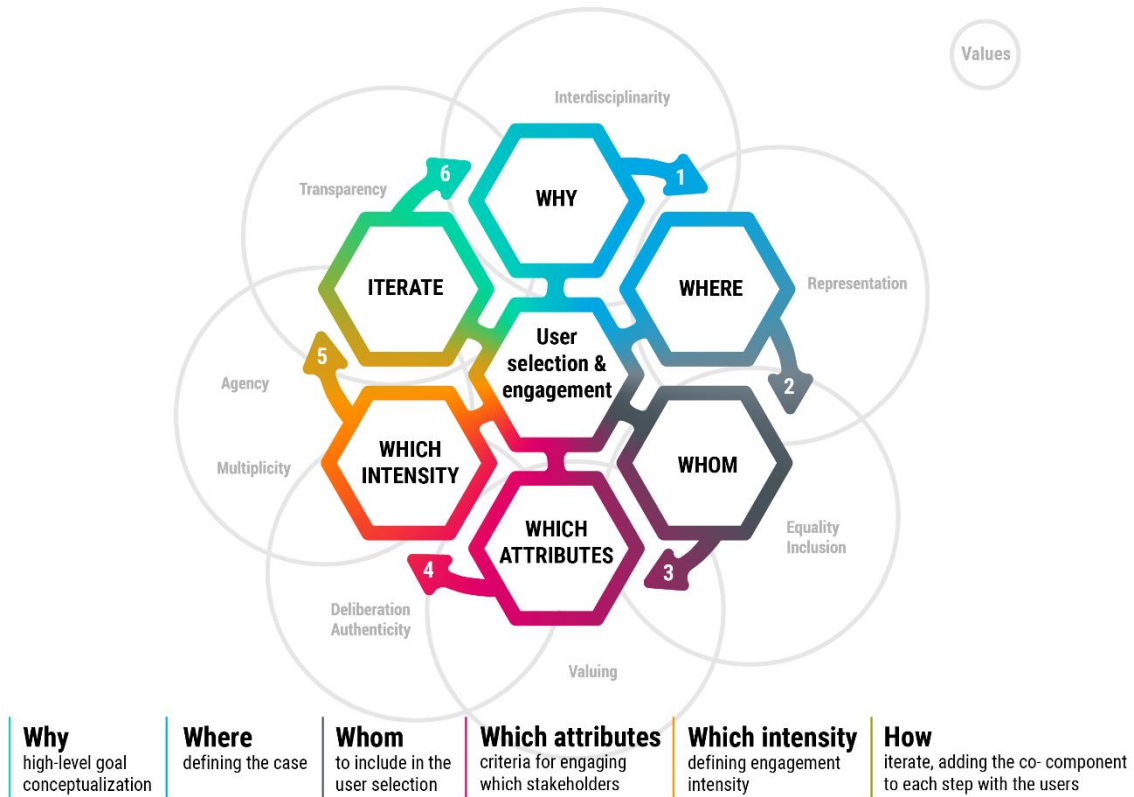
109 Buontempo and colleagues (2020, app. 1) define a climate services stakeholder as, “an
110 individual or an organisation who is interested in the project and who has a critical decision
111 which can be informed by climate information.” As it subsequently follows, stakeholder
112 analysis for climate information is the process that: i) identifies individuals, groups and
113 organisations who can benefit from using a climate service; ii) prioritises these individuals and
114 groups for involvement in the climate service co-production process; and, iii) defines a climate
115 service which can be of support to their decision or action. For instance, in the context of flood
116 risk management in a local area of Germany, Reimann and colleagues (2021) mapped disaster-
117 impacted societal actors who represented different interests and invited them to co-design a
118 climate service to inform adaptation decisions for coastal flooding. The activities conducted
119 to identify and engage with these stakeholders encompass the process of stakeholder analysis.
120 The extent to which the stakeholder might become a user is part of the steps in the guidelines.

121 This involvement, and especially for climate services, may take a holistic and human-
122 centered approach, as increasingly being introduced in climate services through service design.
123 Service design involves the practice of creating and engaging with efficient user experiences,
124 by making the users and stakeholders part of the whole lifecycle of the service and products. It
125 uses methods from different disciplines to solve problems by first co-creating better service
126 definitions that begin with understanding human needs and then co-designing solutions to
127 address them. Human-centered design cultivates deep empathy with the people that will be
128 interacting with the service, both end-users and stakeholders, as a requirement of usable climate
129 services (Christel et al. 2018; Terrado et al. 2022b).

130 Next, we present the guidelines on selecting stakeholders, and within the initial selection,
131 engage a group of committed users. As shown in Fig. 1 below, the guidelines adopt and adapt
132 the principles from participatory scientists which include (based on Bell and Reed 2021):
133 valuing, equality, authenticity, transparency, agency, representation and deliberation, to which
134 we add interdisciplinarity and inclusivity (Glavovic et al. 2021; Cologna and Oreskes 2022).

135 3. Results: the guidelines

136 This section presents the guidelines for the user-oriented analysis, summarized in Fig. 1:



137

138 Fig. 1. Stakeholder and user analysis for climate services co-production processes

139

140 *Step 1: Why - High-level goal conceptualization*

141 The literature recommends as the first step to focus on the conceptualization of the high-
 142 level goal or problem, rather than on the specific climate service or indicator to be developed
 143 which will be done later with users (Beier et al. 2017; Norström et al. 2020; Prell et al. 2009).
 144 High-level goals can imply a wider range of aspects, as for instance, quoted from Norström
 145 and colleagues (2020):

- 146 • Achieving changes in policies and practices
- 147 • Changes in attitudes and perceptions
- 148 • Creation of new relationships and networks of collaboration
- 149 • Increased agency of previously marginalised actors, or even impacts

150 Or also, more concrete for climate services:

- 151 • Supporting mid-term decision-making processes linked to policy
152 • Improving the sectoral applications of predictions and projections

153 In practical terms, project discussions usually start among ideally an interdisciplinary team
154 of social and physical climate scientists, as well as service designers, to decide on which high-
155 level goal to pursue.

156 This will allow the project team to continue with the follow-up steps, but we should return
157 to these steps once the stakeholders are engaged (step 6.1), to specify the objectives, confirm
158 the shared understandings and ensure alignment to the user needs as the second component of
159 goal-definition. Issue or action definition should be conceived as a flexible and iterative
160 process, moreover because the pool of stakeholders might change across the life cycle of a
161 project and ensuring shared understanding among the project network is key for reaching
162 milestones (Norström et al. 2020). For example, a project has the original high-level goal to
163 improve the sectoral application of decadal predictions in agriculture. Upon discussion with
164 the engaged users (step 6.1.), information at a decadal time scale can prove less relevant for
165 the service, as the amount of yield is determined by the climate in the months before the harvest.
166 Hence, seasonal predictions are identified by stakeholders as the most appropriate in this case
167 and thus the high-level goal needs to be adjusted. This is also related to Step 2.

168 *Step 2: Where - Defining the case*

169 Climate services depart from applied climate science and are generally related to a specific
170 context including a climate-sensitive sector, scale and governance system. Relevant to the
171 sector -agriculture, energy, forest- is that climate science generally encompasses boundary-
172 spanning issues that should be viewed in its relation to complex, interconnected systems (Cash
173 et al. 2003). The scale and the governance system imply a recognition of the multiple spatial,
174 temporal, jurisdictional and institutional levels that intervene in human-environment systems
175 (Cash et al. 2006). The recognition of this complexity is the departure point for the knowledge
176 co-production process to determine where the users are located. Again, this is an interactive
177 step that will have to be repeated with stakeholders once identified and engaged (step 6.2,
178 below, and in terms of scale, see step 6.3). In this iteration, the case can be further defined: for
179 instance, stakeholders and users can help identify an event that can become the subject of a
180 climate service co-production process (Terrado et al. 2022a).

181 The European Commission funded climate science and climate services projects such as
182 FOCUS-Africa, PRIMAVERA, EUCP, MED-GOLD or the prototypes evaluated in

183 EUPORIAS, add a range of case studies to apply developments in science to specific contexts,
 184 from the local to the supranational. This practice is recommended by the very need of applied
 185 climate science or climate services to support a decision or action which is likely to be context-
 186 bounded, independently of the context being as broad as, for instance, the European level (see,
 187 e.g. Athanasiou et al., 2020, for a EUCP example). An alternative is for climate services that
 188 are of technical readiness and that have already been developed with a use-case in mind, such
 189 as wine producers in the MEDGOLD project.

190 Gerring (2016) in his seminal book on case study research discusses several techniques and
 191 criteria for choosing a place-based case, depending on the high-level goal (step 1) of the
 192 scientific project, which we have adapted for developing climate services:

193

Criteria	Explanation	Examples
Intrinsic importance	The case contains certain characteristics that are of theoretical or practical significance for the application of a climate service.	The project APPLICATE conducted several case studies in the Arctic. The cases were selected in the region following a co-production process. The Arctic was of intrinsic importance as the high-level goal was to improve climate predictions in the region (Terrado et al. 2022a, 2018).
Logistics	Pragmatism can also be a criterion, particularly as budget constraints are identified as obstacles for knowledge co-production. Logistics is defined in Gerring (2016, p. 40) as “accessibility of evidence for a case”.	In the Impetus4Change project, part of the project team is based in the city which will be one of the climate service demonstrator cities (Barcelona). Similarly, in a different project Barcelona served as a case study for assessment of the impacts of an air quality policy of the city (high-level goal) (Rodriguez-Rey et al. 2022).
Within-case evidence	It is related to the criterion of logistics, but it implies not case-level but within-case characteristics. It hints that the case contains part of the variables that are considered of relevance for the climate service. What characteristics are relevant depends on step 1.	The project MEDGOLD selected 5 regions to explore the relevance of decadal predictions for the agricultural sector (high-level goal). Among the attributes of interest was that these regions had high wheat production (Solaraju-Murali et al. 2022).
Representativeness	Representativeness is important when the climate service is implementable in multiple contexts (upscaleable), but it is at a stage that application to only a specific case or cases can help its finer-tuning.	The EUPORIAS project revised several prototypes developed in the context of EU-funded projects. The prototypes used case studies which were thought of being representative for a broader number of cases (Buontempo et al. 2018).

Case independence	This criterion is relevant if, for instance, the climate service is being ‘tested’ as e.g., proof of concept, in various cases simultaneously (N cases > 1). It requires these cases to be independent of each other in terms of the “outcomes of concern” (Gerring, J. 2016, p. 41). Similar to regression analysis requirements.	In the project GREENSCENT several schools from different countries were selected to study air quality awareness, without the schools being connected to each other, so cases were not influencing study outcomes. This purposive selection also ensured that different contexts were considered.
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194 **Table 1:** Criteria for place-based case selection for climate service co-production and examples

195 Stakeholder and network studies have shown that errors at the stage of defining case
 196 boundaries can incur validity issues, but equally impact the feasibility of the chosen approach
 197 to step 3: stakeholder identification (for more guidance see Borgatti, S. P. et al. 2018 Ch. 3).
 198 This step, as furthered in the discussion, is crucial if one considers aspects of scalability or
 199 replication of the climate service.

200 *Step 3: Whom to include - Stakeholder and user identification*

201 The vision of the user is of relevance and initial pre-conceptions about them should be
 202 openly discussed by the group involved in a climate service project. Generally, the literature
 203 describes the effect of the “mini-me”, by which scientists misinterpret the profile of the user,
 204 who they see as someone with similar perceptions, background and decision-making rationales
 205 as themselves despite being rarely the case (Porter and Dessai 2017). Participatory
 206 methodologies are generally added to scientific processes to address initial (mis)perceptions,
 207 challenge assumptions, and facilitate mutual learning between participants, which implies that
 208 users have as much to learn from scientists as scientists have to learn from users. As a sign of
 209 recognition, some projects differently label the users more intensively engaged in co-
 210 production (see a review on the different notions of co-production in Bremer and Meisch 2017).
 211 For instance, there are labels such as superusers (ASPECT), companion-partner users (EUCP),
 212 fellow-users (FOCUS-Africa), champion users (PRIMAVERA) or next-user (Otto et al. 2016).

213 Whom to include relies again on the previous steps and can imply only a small handful of
 214 stakeholders identified as potential users or a broad circle of over 100 stakeholders, as it
 215 depends on the high-level goal and case(s) (see e.g. Zingraff-Hamed et al. 2020). In the table
 216 below we show the range of possible categories from which the pool of stakeholders/users can
 217 be identified. This step brings again considerations about the sector and scale, which partially
 218 depend on the decisions taken in the previous steps. Many of these stakeholder categories have
 219 presence at several scales (e.g., an NGO can have headquarters at EU level, and have local

220 offices), and the scale should meet the scope of influence of the “decision or action” which the
 221 climate service is supporting, being this the local, subnational, national or supranational level.

222

Categories	Types
Policy-maker	Local, sub-national, national and supranational level.
Governmental body	Environmental and conservation agencies, climate change offices, funding agencies.
Resource manager (public)	Local, regional, and national authorities or resource authorities (e.g., river basin management authorities), public utilities, resource suppliers.
Resource manager (private)	Landowner associations, professionals, mediators, practitioners.
Data-related stakeholder	Data provision, supplier, purveyor, developers, manager.
Civil society/community representatives	Citizen associations, local communities (hybrid), consumer associations, citizen representatives, social movements, youth representatives.
NGO, foundations	Local, regional and national NGOs.
Private sector	Companies, industry representatives, associations.
Networks	Transnational networks, global initiatives, umbrella organisations.
Media	Journalists, specialised media.
Other	Non-project related scientists, technologists (vendors, computing centres, etc.), experts; educators.
Sources: (Raaphorst et al. 2020; Roux et al. 2017; Directorate-General for Research and Innovation (European Commission) et al. 2015), own.	

223 **Table 2:** Proposition of user categories with typologies to guide user identification

224 There is no requisite that these categories should all be represented, but they can help in
 225 brainstorming because, depending on the high-level goals and selected case(s) (step 1 and 2),
 226 the potential pool of stakeholders and users will vary. Here, being mindful of the distinction
 227 between levels of aggregation is relevant: treating individuals as such or individuals as
 228 representatives of organisations.

229 There are several methods to identify the first pool of stakeholders, ranging from basic desk
 230 research activities to more sophisticated content analysis of policy documents to detect
 231 stakeholders or stakeholder networks surrounding a given topic (see e.g. Kalafatis et al. 2015).
 232 After a very initial identification of some stakeholders, among more resource-intensive
 233 methods there are focus groups and helicopter interviews – approaching actors with different
 234 perspectives on the state of the art (Hajer, 2006)., with or without integrating the practice of
 235 snow-ball sampling by which the initial contacts nominate other potential stakeholders (Reed
 236 et al. 2009). This stage of user identification requires technical skills and demands from
 237 scientists to couple them with a capacity for social analysis (Reed et al. 2009; Walker et al.
 238 2008). Finally, project network personal contacts can be included, but it is important that they
 239 are subjected to step 4, to be aware of possible conflict of interests or power positions.

240 *Step 4: Which attributes: from stakeholders to users*

241 The identified actors will not all need to be involved with the same degree of engagement
 242 intensity, hence this step asks: ‘Why would we like to count with this stakeholder or potential
 243 user in the co-production process?’. In terms of attributes, Mitchell (1997) proposes to
 244 characterize stakeholders based on influence, power and legitimacy (Jepsen and Eskerod 2009,
 245 p. 336; see Reed et al. 2009, p. 1938 for alternatives). Adapting this approach to climate
 246 services, users can be fit into profiles based on: (1) the user’s power and influence to determine
 247 the type and characteristics of climate service(s) that will be developed; (2) the urgency with
 248 which the climate service is needed; (3) multiplicity of interests and perceptions, including
 249 legitimacy considerations; and in relation to this latter: (4) knowledge types.
 250

Attributes	Definition	Self-assessment questions
Influence	Defined as “the way the stakeholder can affect the project”, as well as tactics to establish conflict or cooperation dynamics to achieve their interests (or stakes) for participating in the process (Jepsen and Eskerod 2009, p. 336).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>How much of the success (e.g. achieving uptake in decision making) of designing the climate service depends on [this] stakeholder?</i> • <i>What interest/stake may the stakeholder have in the climate service? (e.g., increasing sales)</i> • <i>What means (money, time, expertise, local knowledge, access to a network, trust – as in, trusted member of a marginalised community) does the stakeholder bring in?</i>
Power	Power can be exercised in an infinite range of forms, some more directly observable than others. It can be seen as the combination of, “agency (the individual capacity to make a choice) and opportunity structure (the institutional context in which this decision is made)” (see a discussion and references in Schiffer 2007 p. 5).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Will the presence of certain stakeholders preclude a meaningful engagement of others?</i> • <i>Will any stakeholder be harmed by participation in the project?</i> • <i>What aspects (literacy, cultural, technical infrastructure) may preclude meaningful engagement?</i>
Urgency	Degree to which the climate service is needed by a given societal agent or group of agents. ‘Need’ is viewed here from the perspective of common goods, by which society in general will benefit.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Is it expected that the climate service can help deal with an expected increase in the severity of a disaster? (e.g., yearly floodings).</i> • <i>Can the climate service efficiently support existing practices or legitimately replace them?</i>
Multiplicity	Multiplicity defined as “degree of multiple, conflicting, complimentary, or cooperative stakeholder claims made” (c.f. Neville and Mange, 2006 in de Bakker and den Hond 2008, p. 11). The degree of multiplicity desired will depend on the high-level goal (e.g., if the climate service	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Are different perspectives taken into account?</i> • <i>Are several stakeholder groups (public authorities, private and third sectors) represented?</i>

	needs to be used by stakeholders from different countries, high multiplicity in terms of e.g., cultural backgrounds is desired).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Is the first pool of stakeholders gender, race and intergenerationally diverse?</i> • <i>Are several stakeholder groups (public authorities, private and third sectors) represented?</i>
Legitimacy	Legitimacy considers the participation of different societal representatives in the co-production process to make the climate service more democratic and inclusive. It is linked to all other attributes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Are marginalised groups that could benefit from the climate service included in the process?</i> • <i>Will the voices heard make the climate service usable by different types of stakeholders? (if applicable)</i>
Knowledge	Different types of knowledge can be experiential, local, traditional, academic and official (Nel et al., 2016). Knowledge can also mean access to certain networks (see also Clifford et al. (2020) for the importance of incorporating different knowledge in the design of climate services).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>What types of expertises are present among the initial pool of stakeholders?</i> • <i>Is context-bounded (step 2) knowledge represented?</i> • <i>Does the stakeholder have access to certain networks that can benefit from the uptake of the climate service?</i>

251 **Table 3:** Definition of attributes for stakeholder selection and assessment questions

252 After this step, scientists can proceed to establish a desired level of involvement.

253 *Step 5. With which intensity - Defining engagement intensity*

254 Once the reasons why a stakeholder is desirable to be included is checked, the next step is
255 to propose an involvement degree for the co-production process. The attributes of step 4 can
256 be assessed together in a multi-attribute exercise to link them to elements of a co-production
257 process that range from passive to more active.

258 The multi-attribute exercise can be done qualitatively or adding a quantitative approach
259 (e.g. likert scales, see for instance Bourne and Walker 2005). The criteria can have different
260 weights as illustrated by the following example for the criterion of 'knowledge': depending on
261 the high-level goal and/or the timeline of the project, familiarity with the topic (climate
262 information, climate change, climate services) is considered relevant. Thus, not all types of
263 knowledge may be required for the co-production process. Moreover, 'new' users not
264 familiarised with climate information may need capacity building, which might not be possible
265 in the case of short projects with less time for engagement.

266 We envisage three degrees of engagement based on the framework for climate services
267 presented in Bojovic and colleagues (2021): awareness raising (for all stakeholders),
268 involvement (for those stakeholders who have characteristics of potential users) and

269 empowerment (for those stakeholders who may be final users). The framework proposes
 270 different methods by engagement degree.

271

Stakeholder	Influence	Urgency	Knowledge	...	Engagement
NGO 1	Med (network mobilisation)	Low (not direct user)	Official/academic	...	<i>Awareness raising</i>
City council	High (funds)	Med	Official	...	<i>Involvement</i>
Smallholder farmer	Low	High (drought threats)	Local/practitioner's	...	<i>Empowerment</i>

272 **Table 4:** Example of a multi-attribute exercise to determine engagement degree

273 Step 5 includes asking the identified stakeholders for their willingness to engage in the project
 274 to the desired degree. This is challenging due to the observed reality of stakeholder burnout
 275 (Delzeit et al. 2021).

276 To be successful on engaging stakeholders, scholars have identified several techniques:

- 277 • Carefully designed and tailored communication strategies are key to engage the user
 278 in a way that matters for them and these can differ depending on the
 279 stakeholder/user needs (Bojovic et al. 2021; Christel et al. 2018, p. 201).
 - 280 ○ Targeted email communication including for instance: the use of the contact
 281 name details (if available); attaching an official letter from e.g., the funding
 282 body project office; proposing a date for a call for discussing further details,
 283 which can serve as a safe space to define the stakes of climate service from
 284 the stakeholder perspective. Effective but more invasive techniques are
 285 follow-up calls in case of receiving a non-response to the email.
 - 286 ○ After the stakeholder has agreed to participate, it is important also to confirm
 287 the needed degree of confidentiality that the user will require.
- 288 • Identifying influential stakeholders who can become sponsors of the project or
 289 climate service, such as for example, scientists with high reputation or policy
 290 brokers, can be beneficial. These are committed individuals or groups, who may act
 291 as links between social groups and motivate others to participate (Armitage et al.
 292 2009; Reinecke 2015; Baulenas et al. 2021). Additionally, identifying
 293 intermediary agents such as community-based organizations, to monitor and ensure

294 a power-balanced and transparent process can be important to avoid
295 marginalization of certain groups (Thinyane et al. 2018).

296 • Some scholars propose monetary compensation (Klenk et al. 2015), in
297 acknowledgement that the scientists and service developers are being paid to attend
298 stakeholder-engaged meetings, while stakeholders may be taking time away from
299 their actual jobs or other sources of income.

300 The benefit of conducting an exhaustive user identification and mapping (step 3) is that
301 per each profile considered relevant to participate in the process, there can be “backup”
302 stakeholders in case of unwillingness to participate, discontinuing participation in the middle
303 of the project (attrition) or intermittent availability during the process.

304 *Step 6: How - Iteration: adding the co- component to each step*

305 The final step is the most important and starts once the stakeholders and users have been
306 engaged in the process. This step returns back to step 1 to 5 and revises them adding the co-
307 production component to counter the top-down approach that has guided the previous steps.

308 Sub-step 6.1 consists of co-specifying the goals and decision-making process. The high-
309 level goal (step 1) needs to be agreed upon and further elaborated and specified between
310 scientists and stakeholders. Studies on participative approaches have shown that joint goal
311 definition can impact the success of the project (Reed et al. 2018, sec. 9). This step also
312 generates problem ownership, which is important to maintain interest of stakeholders during
313 the project (see e.g. Delzeit et al. 2021). As the climate service definition also implies a
314 decision-making context, at this step it can be co-decided which decision can be supported by
315 the climate service, and which types of capacity building processes this might require.

316 Sub-step 6.2 consists of co-defining the case study, which implies decisions on the
317 specificities of the case study: specific events or locations. For instance, step 2 selected
318 “Barcelona”, step 6.2 with stakeholders selects “the 2007/2008 severe drought in Barcelona”
319 (Martin-Ortega et al. 2011; March et al. 2013). To support this step with a co-production
320 approach, Terrado and colleagues (2022a) proposed eight best practices for the selection of
321 events with stakeholders in climate services.

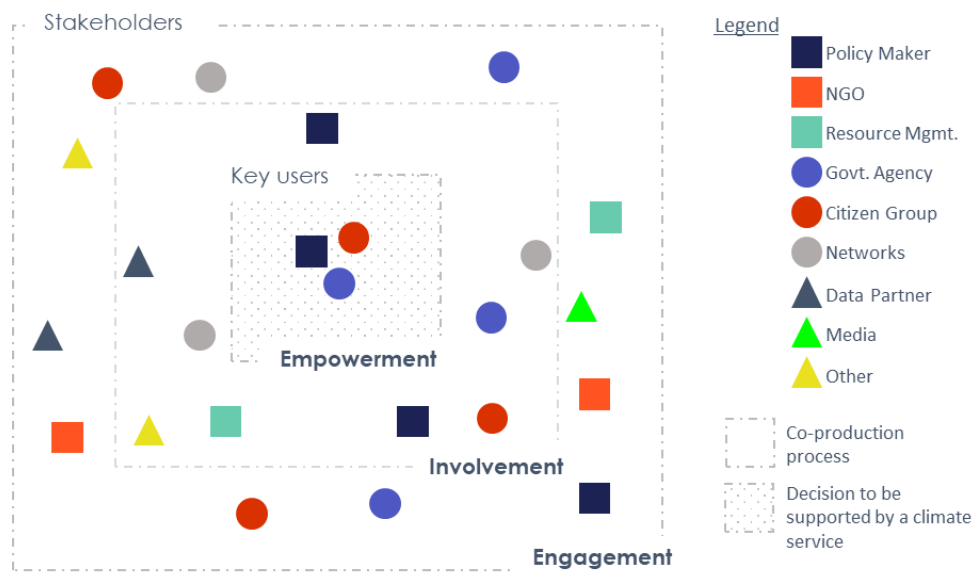
322 The other sub-steps (6.3, 6.4 and 6.5) consist of co-validating the results of the exercises
323 that the project team have conducted in steps 3, 4 and 5 respectively. For instance, step 3
324 identified the initial list of stakeholders: the currently engaged stakeholders can help identify

325 other stakeholders that were not originally identified using snow-ball sampling. Step 4 has
326 established attributes for each participant. To some extent, the general attributes of the current
327 network of engaged stakeholders can be shared. This can help raise awareness on the values
328 that have been considered when including several profiles and the rationale behind themselves
329 (the stakeholders) being present in the project, which can also positively contribute to project
330 ownership. Sub-step 6.5 can validate if the communication strategy is suitable to the
331 stakeholder realities.

332 The methods proposed under knowledge exchange (user forums, surveys, workshops,
333 learning labs, interviews) are a good choice to conduct step 6 and its sub-steps, which can be
334 done in the same get-together event (see for more detail Bojovic et al. 2021).

335 Finally, to consolidate joint decisions and formalise the type of co-production process that
336 will be conducted with the stakeholders/users to develop the climate service, as well as ensure
337 intersubjectivity, there are several possible actions. Klenk and colleagues (2015, p. 744)
338 proposed a memorandum of understanding, “outlining goals, principles, and intellectual
339 property rights of partnerships with non-academic stakeholders; clear roles and responsibilities
340 of knowledge co-producers and guidelines for how partnerships will accumulate, store, and
341 mobilize data.”. This memorandum can be a living document accessible to all engaged
342 stakeholders. Accessibility here may include devising versions of this document also as a non-
343 computerized document available on community notice boards. The necessity for this will need
344 to be assessed at an *ad hoc* basis.

345 Step 6 is also challenging because users might bring in different and sometimes
346 irreconcilable needs that cannot feasibly be addressed with the future climate service, in what
347 is recognised as the multiplicity of stakeholder interests (de Bakker and den Hond 2008). In
348 the Discussion, we provide some trouble-shooting techniques for these cases.



349

350

Fig. 2. Idealized outcome of implementing the guidelines

351

352 **4. Discussion**

353 Climate information and services are linked to climate science, and as Owen and colleagues
 354 mentioned (2019, p. 152), “value-laden problems like climate change call out the need for
 355 socially engaged research processes to generate (...) knowledge that is useful-for and usable-
 356 by society to confront these so-called wicked problems”. We firmly believe that a consistent
 357 user selection and engagement practice can ensure climate services meet these two success
 358 criteria: useful-for and usable-by society and societal representatives, from policymakers to
 359 local communities. Such wicked problems are multidimensional, and this multidimensionality
 360 makes it clear the reasons behind collaborative, adaptable and solution-centered approaches to
 361 science in which the complexities of human behaviour are taken into account (Bednarek et al.
 362 2018). There cannot be innovative solutions without the participation of stakeholders and users
 363 beginning with the conceptualization of the climate service itself.

364 To achieve these standards, user selection and engagement in co-production processes is a
 365 task that should not be conducted ad hoc. The stakes that come with this process include
 366 legitimacy concerns, the possibility to empower previously marginalised but vulnerable
 367 groups, and enabling of long-term uptake of climate services to strengthen adaptation and
 368 mitigation actions to combat our changing climate. At worst, ignoring the different types of
 369 knowledge found in climate-sensitive contexts can exacerbate the side-lining of the groups
 370 most impacted by the climate crisis, produce biased results and be an obstacle for building the

371 necessary trust in scientific activity required for acted-upon and evidence-based policymaking.
372 As scholars point out, “A lack of process for identifying and involving stakeholders often leads
373 to a very long initiating process and significant delays in implementation” (Zingraff-Hamed et
374 al. 2020, p. 3). At the same time, we recognize that user selection and engagement is a very
375 demanding process for which there has been insufficient emphasis and no guidelines in the
376 field of climate services (Vaughan et al. 2018). In this paper we have aimed at addressing this
377 gap and in this section we share some trouble-shooting techniques to overcome part of these
378 challenges that might arise during its implementation.

379 *Multiplicity: dealing with multiple demands, interests and perceptions*

380 Conflict and conflicting views are regarded in network studies as something functional
381 which can lead to innovation, to the point that certain network management techniques are
382 deliberately targeting the presence of different profiles (Provan and Kenis 2007). The presence
383 of different perceptions, views and interests is inherent to knowledge co-production processes
384 in climate services and service design (Porter and Dessai 2017). The interests can be partially
385 derived by the position of the individual, moreover if the individual acts at mezzo-level and
386 thus representative of an organisation, and these can be identified in the initial stages of the
387 user mapping and identification. However, these different expectations from the climate service
388 need to be carefully managed through targeted methods such as focus groups, interviews or
389 workshops. Trained social scientists are here essential members of the team applying these
390 methods. m.

391 *Lacking a theme, a team*

392 The proposal stage of research projects is key for planting the seeds of successful co-
393 production processes and of user selection and management. At the proposal stage not only
394 objectives and tasks are defined, but very practical aspects such as the budget distribution
395 among project partners. Lessons learned from climate services projects suggest that it is
396 important to factor in this aspect (see e.g. Buontempo et al. 2018; Klenk et al. 2015). Proposals
397 may incorporate a theme on knowledge co-production process (a dedicated work package), or
398 alternatively encourage the incorporation of experts across several teams. Given the importance
399 of design for obtaining successful outcomes in engagement processes, engaging in-house or
400 external experts is always recommended.

401 *Mutual, negative and un- learning*

402 Whilst learning is often thought-of as always beneficial per se, the literature on policy
403 learning in climate policy making shows that some processes can also move towards undesired
404 pathways (Biesbroek and Candel 2020). Additionally, some learning processes require
405 “unlearning” as well. As Neij and colleagues highlight (2021, p. 12), “Importantly, deep-seated
406 changes are also suggested to require the need for unlearning of existing practices”. For
407 instance, a forest owner who has never used climate services to base her decision-making
408 processes (e.g., type of management), might be reluctant to change practices, which might be
409 influenced by long-standing family traditions and the practices of other community members
410 such as local leaders (Oliva et al. 2016). Using co-production methods -and having different
411 disciplines in the scientist team- can help create a climate of trust among the project scientists
412 and stakeholders and convert the project into a platform of exchange and learning. In this
413 platform of exchange, reciprocity -ensuring all parts gain from taking part in the process- can
414 be more easily obtained.

415 *Visualising power*

416 Norström and colleagues (2020, p. 5) observed that: “Asymmetrical power relations can
417 prevent some actors from engaging in knowledge co-production and will reproduce knowledge
418 hierarchies, in which certain knowledge and expertise are seen as being more legitimate than
419 others”. This will impact the quality of the engagement process and bias results. In fact, the
420 very implementation of participatory processes is a response to the willingness to balance
421 power not only among societal groups but also between researchers and users. Collaboration
422 and deliberative processes within can help create more equalized dynamics (Mosley, Layna
423 2013, p. 70). There are several tools in place to identify power relations in projects (see e.g.,
424 Reed et al. 2009; Schiffer 2007). Depending on the type of context under which the project is
425 developed, stakeholders might know each other and here social network analysis can help to
426 understand the linkages between stakeholders as well as inherent power dynamics.

427 *Scale and scalability*

428 These guidelines may be applied to any scale of decision-making, from local, over regional
429 to supranational, targeting stakeholders concerned with problems that pertain to each of these
430 scales. The framework can in addition support scalability and replicability of case studies,
431 especially when thoroughly conducting step 3 for case selection. For scaling up activities, the
432 stakeholder mapping needs to be adjusted to the institutional and socio-political frameworks
433 existing at different decision-making scales. However, similar or same figures can recur in

434 different scales as well as stakeholder categories. For example, civil protection may be an
435 independent agency in one country, but it can also be situated in a department in the Ministry
436 or be distributed as a network pertaining to several sectors. Overall, these trouble-shooting
437 techniques may support in creating usable and legitimate science which contributes to the
438 decision-making processes for a wide range of societal actors, strengthening adaptation and
439 mitigation actions to combat climate change. Finally, whilst the proposed steps for user
440 selection and engagement may provide a robust approach, they also have some limitations.
441 For instance, we have addressed several important topics such as power, scale and values in
442 research, only briefly. Thus, these guidelines may need to be supported with additional
443 references, some of which we have already added when discussing these topics. Our
444 assumption is nonetheless that these guidelines may be used by a team with expertise that can
445 understand the repercussions of these key aspects in the selection and engagement of
446 stakeholders in climate services co-production processes.

447 **5. Conclusion**

448 In this article we adapted stakeholder analysis methodologies to offer a hands-on roadmap
449 for user selection and engagement in climate services. The six steps consist of: (1) why: the
450 definition of the high-level goal(s); (2) where: delineation of the case; (3) who: user mapping
451 and identification; (4) which attributes: multi-attribute analysis for selection criteria; (5) with
452 which intensity: deciding on the engagement intensity and finally (6) introducing co-
453 production to each step. As an outcome, the proposed steps introduce context (step 2), scalar
454 fit (step 3), power (step 4) and design (step 5) considerations, which in Reed (2018) are not
455 only shown to determine the success of different types of engagement but also to counteract
456 the normativity of infusing projects with principles. We advocate for an iterative collaborative
457 process that engages in a dialogue among different expertise to consistently incorporate climate
458 services into decision-making for a climate-resilient society, viewing users as experts of their
459 own knowledge domain.

460

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474 No datasets were generated or analyzed during the current study.

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