

1

2 How to get your model results used: A guide to stakeholder engagement.

3 *Andrew Hughes*^{1*}, *Jan van Wonderen*², *John Rees*¹, *Keith Seymour*³, *Desmond*
4 *Manful*⁴ & *Herman Karl*⁵

5 The usage of modelling results by their intended audience is an important aspect of
6 undertaking any project. However, providing the appropriate results in the correct
7 way to key stakeholders is not a straightforward task. Fortunately, there is a growing
8 body of work about approaching the engagement of stakeholders in a way to
9 maximise the impact of modelling results. Using the lessons learnt from a number of
10 recent workshops, including those conducted for the benefits realisation process
11 undertaken for the Environment Agency of England and Wales, suggestions for best
12 practice are presented and their relative merits discussed. Best practice for getting
13 groundwater modelling results used by their intended audience are proposed.

14 *lead author <mailto:aghug@bgs.ac.uk>

15 1 BGS Keyworth, Dinglesy Dunham Centre, Keyworth, Nottinghamshire, NG12
16 5EP, UK.

17 2 Mott MacDonald, Demeter House, Station Rd, Cambridge CB1 2RS, UK.

18 3 Environment Agency, Richard Fairclough House, Knutsford Road, Latchford,
19 Warrington, Cheshire, WA4 1HT

20 4 Department of Geography, King's College London, Strand Campus, Strand,
21 London, WC2R 2LS, UK.

22 5 U.S. Geological Survey, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 77
23 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02139-4307, USA.

24

25 No. of words: 3971

26

27 No. of figures: 1

28

29 No. of tables: 3

30

31 No. of boxes: 1

32

33 Short title: Stakeholder engagement

34

35 The majority of the literature on modelling focuses on the success of a particular
36 project or a particular technique. The aim of most papers is to promote the approach
37 adopted by the authors and to convince the reader that the project was undertaken as
38 smoothly as possible without any problems or issues. This is normally a
39 misrepresentation of the often tortuous process by which research is undertaken.
40 However, there is a growing recognition that the results of research projects,
41 especially those involving modelling, do not always achieve their aim or reach their
42 intended audience, i.e. the decision makers.

43

44 Cash *et al.* (2006) use the results of the El Nino/Southern Oscillation forecasting
45 system to highlight the 'loading dock' approach to science output, whereby the results
46 of any study are given to the end-user as a finished product. This approach contrasts
47 with the preferred dialogue between the scientists doing the work and their intended
48 audience. Cash and colleagues argue that four critical functions are required to ensure
49 successful uptake of scientific research:

50

- 51 (a) convening - is the way that stakeholders are brought together to define the
- 52 goals of the project;
- 53 (b) translation - the process by which the results from any research are converted
- 54 into language that all the parties involved in the process can understand;
- 55 (c) collaboration is the process by which the various stakeholders' views are
- 56 communicated with each other;
- 57 (d) mediation – the process defined as how these views are reconciled.

58

59 These processes, when carried out properly, ensure that the 'correct' people are
60 brought together and are able to communicate in an 'appropriate' way, both between
61 themselves and to other stakeholders external to the process. This increases the
62 likelihood that the model results will reach their intended audience in a meaningful
63 format.

64

65 There is also a debate within the literature on the use of models for prediction and
66 their utility (e.g. Oreskes 2003). One interesting aspect of this is the issue of
67 complexity, and the perception that more complex models are better, but have more
68 processes that require parameterization (see, for example, Guideline 1: Apply the
69 principle of parsimony, Chapter 11, Hill & Tiedeman 2007). But this increased
70 amount of parameterization leads to greater uncertainty. This is described as a
71 'complexity paradox', whereby the model more closely represents the natural system,
72 but is more uncertain (Oreskes 2003). However, even when relatively simple models
73 are accepted by the end users, problems in the interpretation of results may occur. A
74 classic example of failure in the use of models for short-term predictions such as flood
75 forecasting, is the Red River Flood (Pielke 1999), in which a flood forecast was
76 provided as a single number that was wrongly interpreted by the end-users as a
77 maximum flood peak.

78

79 Institutional change is now occurring which will modify structures within
80 organizations to take into account the need for improved dialogue between the
81 scientist and the end-user. An example of this is the planned change in the
82 Meteorological Service of Canada regarding atmospheric models (Mark Cantwell,
83 pers. comm.) where the structure of the organization is being realigned to reflect the
84 requirements of stakeholders. The Environment Agency of England and Wales has
85 also responded with a review of the use of groundwater flow models and what
86 benefits result from each study (van Wonderen & Wilson 2006). More details of this
87 process are provided below. The Tyndall Centre in the United Kingdom is another
88 good example of an institution that aims to ensure that model results reach their
89 intended audience (Tyndall Centre 2006), and at the pan-national level, the
90 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has also promoted the effective
91 communication of model results to decision makers (IPCC 2007).

92

93 Although numerical models have been recognized as powerful tools in the quest for
94 sound environmental management, their role and influence in the development of
95 science-based policy has received little or no attention in environmental science
96 research and applications (Manful *et al.* 2007). At present the possibilities for fully
97 integrated water resources management are limited. This is partly a consequence of
98 the inability to represent fully the variables, interactions and complexity that come
99 into play in any water management project or policy statement (McDonnell 2008).

100 The whole process including decision-making and the interaction between individuals
101 and organisations is simply too complex to simulate presently.

102

103 A significant challenge has been to bring together scientists who model and
104 understand natural systems with scientists who understand how people work (i.e.
105 social scientists). The latter can advise on improving the transfer of knowledge from
106 the physical scientists to the decision makers, resource managers and policy makers,
107 and the people that are affected by those decisions. This paper describes the results of
108 a series of workshops both for the Numerical Modelling Policy Interface (NMPI)
109 initiative and the Environment Agency's benefits realisation process designed to
110 determine how best to combine the inputs from biophysical and social scientists. It
111 aims to suggest best practice for model development and the resulting uptake of the
112 results from these models.

113

114

115 **Good practice - International experience**

116

117 NMPI is a network that encourages the communication of good practice between its
118 members via websites both static (content determined by the website developers) -
119 www.nmpi.net - and dynamic (content modified by the user), e.g. wikis, and
120 workshops. It is supported by the University of Stuttgart and the British Geological
121 Survey (BGS) with financial support from the Ministry of Science, Research and the
122 Arts of the state of Baden-Wuerttemberg, Germany. The NMPI initiative was initiated
123 to address the problem of numerical model uptake in water resources decision-
124 making, and to improve the potential for model results to be effectively used by their
125 intended audience. Given that there is widespread acceptance of climate change and
126 the seriousness of its impacts, the need for action is becoming increasingly pertinent,
127 based as it is on the imperfect uptake of results of numerical modelling.

128

129 The most important aspect of model uptake is timely and appropriate stakeholder
130 involvement. The right stakeholders must be involved at the right time, with
131 stakeholder analysis being used effectively. However, a deliberate decision may be
132 made to ignore this, but the risk of the process going wrong by not involving
133 stakeholders has to be acknowledged. Importantly, stakeholders should be able to feel
134 that they 'own' the model at the end of the model development process. The
135 importance of handling a wide range of personalities in each modeller-stakeholder
136 group may also need to be taken into account. A strong personality, on either side,
137 who can bring people together is good, but personality clashes can result in conflicts
138 which are insoluble. The process of model uptake could prove nearly impossible if a
139 sound working relationship cannot be built between stakeholders. The important
140 process of ensuring a good relationship between the model developers and their
141 audience can be summarized as trust, perception and understanding. The complexity
142 of the model can, to a limited extent, have an effect on model uptake. Indeed simple
143 models can commonly be more effective than more complex ones (e.g. Hughes *et al.*
144 2007; Hulme *et al.* this volume; Whiteman *et al.* this volume).

145

146 Examining the problem of model uptake from around the world showed a remarkable
147 degree of similarity in reasons why uptake has been poor. One of the more interesting
148 outcomes is that countries that are only now developing the application of numerical
149 models have the potential to exploit the available technologies and best-practice, to

150 'leap-frog' some of the problems encountered by countries that have long adopted
151 process models into their decision-making frameworks. Examining how extreme
152 events are dealt with shows that significant work needs to be undertaken on the
153 understanding and communication of risk and uncertainty. Allied to this is the debate
154 over how model predictions are made, and how to evaluate them. The use of
155 predictions over shorter timescales is shown to be important in gaining the confidence
156 of model users; this has implications for climate change predictions which are
157 provided on decadal time scales. As discussed below, this means that the end user of
158 these predictions cannot compare them to what actually happens. The issue of how to
159 reflect uncertainty in model results, and how to communicate uncertainty successfully
160 to the end user, remains a key issue.

161

162 A summary of the more significant aspects for successful uptake of work are:

163

- 164 (a) participatory modelling (2008) – whereby the stakeholders are fully engaged
165 with the modelling process including the choice of the model used in the
166 study;
- 167 (b) stakeholder analysis (MIT-USGS Science Impact Co-ordinators – MUSIC
168 2008; Karl *et al.* 2007) – the process by which the stakeholders are identified
169 and how they are involved in the study;
- 170 (c) Science Impact Coordinators (MUSIC 2008) – the use of professionals trained
171 to act as mediators between physical scientists, decision makers and resources
172 managers;
- 173 (d) user groups 'learning alliances' (EU SWITCH 2008). The setting up of
174 groups of stakeholders consisting of 'lay' members of the public which feed
175 into the stakeholder consultation process;
- 176 (e) honest broker – giving policy makers options rather than advocating a position
177 (Pielke 2007);
- 178 (f) tools can be developed to narrow the gap between simulation output and
179 decision making (Manful *et al.* 2007).

180

181 *Science impact co-ordinators*

182

183 MIT has realised that if stakeholders are to be properly involved in the modelling
184 process, then expert facilitation is required. A new breed of professional is envisaged
185 which will have an understanding of the process of identifying and bringing together
186 stakeholder groups, and also of the modelling process itself. During the last few
187 years, a curriculum at MIT has been designed with this in mind. Its aim is to develop
188 Science Impact Co-ordinators who have a knowledge of activities such as Joint Fact
189 Finding, different types of modelling and who are able to synthesise the findings. A
190 suitable example is the work examining the interaction with the US Bureau of Land
191 Management and key stakeholders (Kock 2006). This work showed the importance of
192 Joint Fact Finding in bringing together a diverse range of stakeholders. Practical
193 experience through field work is seen as highly important. Other US universities have
194 a similar program. The aim is to encourage the university sector to produce these type
195 of professionals.

196

197 *Learning alliances*

198

199 Defined as a group of people working together to produce a common solution,
200 learning alliances have formed an important part of the EU-SWITCH project on urban
201 water management. The learning alliance approach has been applied to examine the
202 water, energy and solute balance in the city of Birmingham, UK. (e.g. Mackay &
203 Last 2010). A water balance model, called 'City Water', has been developed and
204 applied by the University of Birmingham. The learning alliance was set up to
205 facilitate the development of the model. It allowed data to be obtained and provided a
206 mechanism for feeding back the model results to a range of stakeholders. Although
207 not without its problems, namely slow supply of data and difficulty engaging
208 decision-makers at the city level, it provided a useful way to facilitate stakeholder
209 engagement. The process also identified issues in the way that the water resources of
210 a city are dealt with within the UK regulatory framework. It also reinforced the idea
211 that personalities are key to ensuring that stakeholders are properly engaged.

212 213 *Participatory modelling*

214
215 Voinov & Bousquet (2010) present an excellent framework for understanding
216 different approaches to participatory modelling. Interestingly, experience in the US
217 dates back to the 1970s with the US Army Corps of Engineers. Voinov & Gaddis
218 (2008) encourage the use of different modelling techniques, ranging from the simple
219 (e.g. spreadsheets/GIS) to the more complex (e.g. fully coupled process models). The
220 most important feature of any participatory modelling exercise is to be flexible in your
221 modelling approach to allow the stakeholder to fully appreciate the model, its
222 development and the results. By accepting that the stakeholder can be involved in the
223 choice of modelling approach, there is a greater possibility of the model results being
224 accepted by the stakeholder group, although this initially causes more work for the
225 scientist. Examples are given of a 'Re-designing the American Neighborhood'
226 project in Burlington, Vermont. The modelling approach used a simple run-off
227 routing model based on the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) and using a GIS. This
228 enabled the residents of the area to quickly and cheaply see what impact the different
229 stormwater management options had. Another consideration emphasised is that the
230 process of building the model is as important as the model itself, i.e. the modelling
231 process is of equal importance to the end result (Voinov & Gaddis 2008).

232 233 234 235 **Benefits realisation - The Environment Agency's experience**

236
237 Van Wonderen & Wilson (2006) elaborated on benefits realisation in the 5-Yearly
238 Review of groundwater modelling studies undertaken by the Environment Agency.
239 They concluded that the application of good practice in groundwater modelling leads
240 to benefits realisation. Such good practice does not only relate to technical issues.
241 Equally important are project management, stakeholder participation, effective
242 communication and knowledge dissemination (Whiteman *et al.* this volume).
243 Stakeholders include staff within the Environment Agency and particularly those that
244 require knowledge of the integrated groundwater and surface water systems.

245
246 Stakeholders outside of the Environment Agency can also significantly benefit from
247 the groundwater models, which can be used to assess their own operational scenarios
248 (in the case of water companies). Very important for benefits realisation is the active

249 involvement of external stakeholders in the model development process and to
250 encourage consensus on both conceptual and numerical model components.

251

252 Significant improvements in good practice in recent years have resulted in better
253 communication and participation of stakeholders. The improved understanding of
254 what the models can provide for them has resulted in a more structured approach to
255 benefits realisation; the modelling team should develop a strong awareness of
256 potential benefits and then apply the relevant good practice to realise those benefits.

257

258 Benefits realisation should not be seen as a one way track with benefits targeted
259 towards stakeholders. The 5-Yearly Review (Van Wonderen & Wilson 2006) found
260 that significant benefits to the modelling teams can be realised in the form of
261 knowledge, information and data held by the stakeholders.

262

263 Benefits realisation through application of good practice can provide intangible
264 benefits as well. Such benefits may not seem obvious, but are definitely of
265 importance. In the 5-Yearly Review, the following were identified and served as
266 examples:

267

- 268 (a) enhanced profile of Environment Agency staff as well as the Environment
269 Agency as a whole, reflected in their commitment to address the important
270 issues related to the their functions with the best means and efforts available;
- 271 (b) improved relationships between the Environment Agency and the stakeholders
272 in relation to their responsibilities to the environment and customers. The
273 application of good practice will lead to both ‘buy-in’ and to agreement on
274 water resources and environmental issues. This would no doubt limit potential
275 conflict, which has, in the past often led to costly litigation.

276

277 Table 2 relates good practice components to potential benefits that result from the
278 application of good practice. The need for integration of technical and non-technical
279 components of the modelling process follows clearly from the table. In other words,
280 one component is inter-dependent of the other. Knowledge management is especially
281 important in an organization the size of the Environment Agency. Additionally the
282 use of consultants to undertake modelling means that the conceptual understanding of
283 groundwater systems could be held externally to the organization.

284

285 Successful benefits realisation requires a degree of realism and expectation
286 management, since models are not necessarily the tools that provide the final answers.
287 The limitations and uncertainties of models need to be communicated in a manner that
288 instils confidence in the modelling team and the model. The aim is to reassure the
289 stakeholders that not only is the model the best available tool, but also that it is being
290 used appropriately for the decision making process, i.e. it is the understanding rather
291 than the model that is key. Awareness building amongst stakeholders is thus also an
292 important part of good practice.

293

294 The 5-Yearly Review showed that targeted workshops are beneficial to bringing
295 messages across and to improving the appreciation of the possibilities that models can
296 offer. Other lines of communication could include internal workshops and the use of
297 existing arrangements within the Environment Agency’s systems (including the

298 Environment Agency's National Groundwater Modelling System; see Whiteman *et al.*
299 this volume).

300

301 Traditional means of communication, such as written summaries can also be a
302 powerful means of informing managers of the benefits of groundwater models.
303 Examples of good practice include the Lower Mersey Basin and North Merseyside
304 groundwater resource study. A short, two pages, description was prepared by
305 Environment Agency staff which outlined the study, issues addressed and the benefits
306 accrued by undertaking the work. The full text is reproduced in Box 1 (see Whiteman
307 *et al.* (this volume) for an explanation of CAMS).

308

309 The Review also indicated the significance of timing of the different stages of
310 strategic modelling projects. Output should become available well before deadlines
311 related to the various regulatory drivers, e.g. Water Framework Directive, (which
312 generally cannot be moved) are reached. Not achieving timely outputs, which are fit-
313 for-purpose damages the confidence of regulatory and operational staff in the models
314 and the modelling team. (see Whiteman *et al.* – this volume).

315

316

317 **Making use of predictions**

318

319 Model predictions can be made over a range of timescales from the short (hourly in
320 the case of weather forecasts) to long (millennia for determining the safety of nuclear
321 waste repositories). Typical timescales for model prediction and examples of
322 predictions at each timescale are presented in Table 3. Timescales for model
323 predictions are important in terms of repeatability, the shorter the timescale, the more
324 often the predictions are made. Weather forecasting is the presentation of complex
325 results of a computer simulation complete with uncertainty, both spatial and temporal
326 (Oreskes 2003). Weather forecasts are repeated frequently and the user can digest the
327 information and compare it with actual experience (model validation). Based on this
328 experience users can then get a good idea of the accuracy of the model predictions and
329 can relate them to real events thus building up an inherent 'feel' for what the model
330 predictions actually mean.

331

332 Whilst weather forecasting may be regarded as a 'success story' in terms of the
333 communication of model results with the end-user, there are issues with the use of
334 language and the qualitative description of uncertainty. The debate in the weather
335 forecasting community over how to present the uncertainty in forecasts ('hedging';
336 Murphy 1978) has been ongoing for some time. Further, for flood forecasting, the
337 lack of communication between the different organizations involved in prediction of
338 the Red River Floods (Pielke 1999) was one of the contributory factors in the
339 misinterpretation of the flood warnings. A simple value for the expected river stage
340 level was given with the uncertainty described qualitatively at the bottom of the
341 document. The predicted river stage was consequently interpreted as the maximum,
342 and the danger in qualitative descriptions of uncertainty lies entirely in its
343 interpretation. Figure 1 shows the results of a study by Wallsten *et al.* (1986) where
344 numerical probabilities were associated with qualitative descriptions by interviewees.
345 The results of the study show that with the exception of a few terms (such as 'toss-
346 up') the range of probabilities for each term can be large.

347

348 Some of the criteria adopted by model users in determining whether to rely on
349 predictions are illustrated by Table 4. The two extremes are illustrated by weather
350 forecasting and nuclear repository safety assessment. Weather forecasting is
351 undertaken frequently and the decision-maker, in this case the ordinary person on the
352 street, uses the predictions frequently. Nuclear repository safety assessment is an
353 emotive subject and the results of the predictions cannot be tested against direct
354 experience.

355
356 To illustrate the difference in timescale for groundwater systems, it is instructive to
357 compare two examples: that of the North Lincolnshire Chalk (Burgess, 2002;
358 Hutchinson *et al.*, this volume) and climate change predictions in the Berkshire and
359 Marlborough Downs (Jackson *et al.* 2010). The former uses predictions run on a three
360 monthly basis and the latter used decadal predictions.

361
362 For the Lincolnshire Chalk study a groundwater model was developed and frequent
363 model runs undertaken to aid the management of saline intrusion into the Chalk
364 aquifer (Hutchinson *et al.* this volume). The success of this study depended on a
365 number of factors:

- 366
367 (a) there was a confidence in the model which was built up over time based on a
368 shared understanding of the groundwater system;
369 (b) the personnel who worked previously worked within one organisation on the
370 problem were split between the regulator and abstractor after a reorganisation
371 of the UK water industry;
372 (c) there was a long standing recognition of the problem, going back to the 1950s
373 (Gray 1964).
374 (d) and more relevant for this discussion, prediction runs were undertaken
375 frequently and confidence in the results increased over time.

376
377 In contrast to the quarterly predictions undertaken for the Lincolnshire Chalk, climate
378 change runs on a decadal scale have been undertaken on a number of studies.
379 Recently, results have been published for a Chalk aquifer in the Marlborough and
380 Berkshire Downs (Jackson *et al.* 2010). Using an existing groundwater model,
381 combined with precipitation and temperature factors from 13 Global Climate Models
382 (GCMs) the impact of climate change on groundwater system was examined.
383 Projection of 2080s under medium-high emission scenarios showed the likelihood of
384 shortening of the recharge season and that recharge could fall by up to 12 %, although
385 a reduction in recharge is by no means certain. Obviously any reduction in recharge
386 will result in a subsequent reduction in groundwater heads and baseflow. However,
387 until climate change impacts become more pronounced in groundwater systems, then
388 the impact can only determined with a multi-model approach with the associated
389 uncertainty. Whilst predictions such as this are very important to undertake, clearly
390 the timescales and uncertainty of this study are very different from those produced by
391 over-abstraction in the Lincolnshire Chalk.

392 393 394 **Summary and conclusions**

395
396 This paper has identified a number of positive actions that could increase the
397 likelihood that model results will be used appropriately by their intended audience.

398 The main conclusions from the experience of both the NMPI and benefits realisation
399 process can be summarized as follows:

400

- 401 (a) stakeholders need to be engaged as early and often as possible;
- 402 (b) different types of professional are required such as Science Impact Co-
403 ordinators who understand how to manage the process of stakeholder
404 engagement and the modelling process itself;
- 405 (c) the stakeholders need to be involved in the model selection process, so-called
406 participatory modelling;
- 407 (d) predictions need to be made and evaluated as frequently as possible, or if they
408 cannot, or it is not appropriate, then at least recognize the increased
409 uncertainty;
- 410 (e) gathering groups together, such as for learning alliances has benefits for
411 obtaining data, making decisions on models and disseminating results;
- 412 (f) traditional means of communication, such as technical reports is still important
413 – ‘horses for courses’.

414

415 The outcome from the NMPI workshops and the benefits realisation process
416 undertaken on behalf of the Environment Agency have highlighted aspects of best
417 practice for ensuring timely and appropriate stakeholder engagement in modelling
418 projects. From a global perspective the uptake of outputs from climate change
419 modelling is of the utmost importance. The ideas are a collection of the best
420 approaches adopted from a range of different environments. The challenge now is to
421 routinely incorporate these practices into all modelling projects. However, several
422 issues need to be addressed during the execution of projects, the most important of
423 which is the assessment of the success of the project including quantification of
424 uncertainty. Perhaps the biggest challenge is to bring together the worlds of the
425 physical scientists and social scientists in more than just a superficial way, so ensuring
426 that the needs of the stakeholders are properly identified and fully taken into account.

427

428 **Acknowledgements**

429

430 Hughes and Rees publish with the permission of the Executive Director of the British
431 Geological Survey (NERC).

432

433 **References**

434

435 Burgess, D. 2002. Groundwater resource management in eastern England: a quest for
436 environmentally sustainable development. Geological Society, London, Special
437 Publications, **193**, 53-62.

438

439 Cash, D.W., Borck, J.C. & Patt, A.G. 2006. Countering the Loading-Dock Approach
440 to Linking Science and Decision Making Comparative Analysis of El Niño/Southern
441 Oscillation (ENSO) Forecasting Systems, *Science, Technology & Human Values*, **31**,
442 465-494.

443

444 EU SWITCH 2008. www.switchurbanwater.eu (Accessed 12 December 2008)

445

446 Gray, D.A. 1964. Ground-water conditions of the Chalk of the Grimsby area,
447 Lincolnshire. Water Supply Papers of the Geological Survey of Great Britain.
448 Research Report No. 1. Department of Scientific and Industrial Research.

449

450 Hill, M.C. & Tiedeman, C.R. 2007. Effective Groundwater Model Calibration: with
451 Analysis of Data, Sensitivities, Predictions and Uncertainty. John Wiley and Sons,
452 USA.

453

454 Hughes, A.G., Mansour, M.M., Robins, N.S. & Cheeseman, M. 2007. The use of
455 groundwater models as arbiters: a case study from the UK. In: pre-published
456 proceedings of *ModelCARE 2007 conference: Calibration and Reliability in*
457 *Groundwater Modelling – Credibility in Modelling*, Copenhagen, Denmark, 198-203.

458

459 IPCC 2007. Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. In: Solomon, S., Qin,
460 D., Manning, M., Chen, Z., Marquis, M., Averyt, K.B., Tignor, M. & Miller, H.L.
461 (eds), Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment. *Report of the*
462 *Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge University Press,
463 Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 996 pp.

464

465 Jackson, C.R., Meister, R. & Prudhomme, C. 2010. Modelling the effects of climate
466 change and its uncertainty on UK Chalk groundwater resources from an ensemble of
467 global climate model projections. *Journal of Hydrology*, **399**, 12-28.

468

469 Karl, H.A., Susskind, L.E., & Wallace, K.H. 2007. A dialogue, not a diatribe,
470 Effective Integration of Science and Policy through Joint Fact Finding, *Environment*,
471 **49**, 20-34.

472

473 Kock, B. E. 2006. Engaging Non-Governmental Organizations in International
474 Environmental Negotiations: Institutional Approaches to Reforming State-NGO
475 Interactions. In: Moomaw, R. W., & Susskind, L. E. (eds.), *Papers on International*
476 *Environmental Negotiation*, Volume 15. Ensuring a Sustainable Future. Harvard
477 Program on Negotiation.

478

479 Mackay, R. & Last, E. (2010) SWITCH city water balance: a scoping model for
480 integrated urban water management. *Reviews in Environmental Science and*
481 *Biotechnology*, **9**, 291-296.

482

483 Manful, D., Kaule G., & van de Giesen, N. 2007. Linking hydro-ecological simulation
484 output to decision support. In: Schumann, A. & Pahlow, M. (eds.), Reducing the
485 vulnerability of societies to water related risks at basin scale: *Proceedings of 3rd*
486 *IAHS Symposium on Integrated Water Resources Management*. in IAHS Red Book
487 Series, Publ. **317**, Wallingford, Oxfordshire, England.
488

489 McDonnell, R. A. 2008 'Challenges for Integrated Water Resources Management:
490 How Do We Provide the Knowledge to Support Truly Integrated Thinking?',
491 *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, **24**, 131 – 143.
492

493 Mostert, E. 2003. Conflict and co-operation in international freshwater management;
494 A global review, *Journal of River Basin Management*, **1**, 1-12.
495

496 Murphy, A.H. 1978. Hedging and the mode of expression of weather forecasts.
497 *Bulletin American Meteorological Society*, **59**, 371-373.
498

499 MUSIC 2008. web.mit.edu/dusp/epp/music/about/index.html (Accessed 12 December
500 2008).
501

502 Oreskes, N. 2003. The role of quantitative models in science, In: Canham, C.D., Cole,
503 J.J. & Lauenroth, W.K. (eds.), *Models in Ecosystem Science*, 13-31, Princeton:
504 Princeton University Press.
505

506 Participatory modelling. 2008. [www.citg.tudelft.nl/live/pagina.jsp?id=c89d22d0-](http://www.citg.tudelft.nl/live/pagina.jsp?id=c89d22d0-b5b8-4859-bbb7-b6a7148b82c3&lang=en)
507 [b5b8-4859-bbb7-b6a7148b82c3&lang=en](http://www.citg.tudelft.nl/live/pagina.jsp?id=c89d22d0-b5b8-4859-bbb7-b6a7148b82c3&lang=en) (Accessed 12 December 2008)
508

509 Pielke, R.A., Jr. 2007. *The Honest Broker: Making Sense of Science in Policy and*
510 *Politics*. Cambridge University Press.
511

512 Pielke, R. A., Jr., Sarewitz, D., & Byerly, R., Jr. 2000. Decision making and the future
513 of nature: understanding and using predictions. In: Sarewitz, D., Pielke, Jr. R. A., &
514 Byerly, Jr. R. (eds.), *Prediction: science, decision making and the future of nature*,
515 361-387 Island Press, Washington, D.C.
516

517 Pielke, R. A., Jr. 1999. Who decides? Forecasts and responsibilities in the 1997 Red
518 River Flood. *Applied Behavioral Science Review*, **7**, 83-101.
519

520 Tyndall Centre (ed.) 2006. Truly useful ... doing climate change research that is
521 useful for both theory and practice. Tyndall Centre, UK, 44 pp. May 2006.
522

523 Van Wonderen, J. J. & Wilson, C H. 2006. 5-Yearly Review of the Environment
524 Agency's Groundwater Models (Ed. Whiteman, M.I.) Environment Agency of
525 England and Wales Report 223060/01/C. www.environment-agency.gov.uk
526

527 Voinov, A. & Gaddis, E.J.B. 2008. Lessons for successful participatory watershed
528 modeling: A perspective from modeling practitioners. *Ecological Modelling*, **216**,
529 197-207.
530

531 Voinov, A. & Bosquet, F. 2010. Modelling with stakeholders. *Environmental*
532 *Modelling & Software*, **25**, 1268-1281.

533

534 Wallsten, T. S., Budescu, D. V., Rapoport, A., Zwick, R., & Forsyth, B. H. 1986.

535 Measuring the vague meanings of probability terms. *Journal of Experimental*

536 *Psychology: General*, **115**, 348-365.

537

538 Whitehead, E. & Lawrence, A.R. 2006. The Chalk aquifer system of Lincolnshire.

539 Keyworth, Nottingham, British Geological Survey, 64pp. (RR/06/003).

540

541

542 **Tables and Figures**

543

544 **Tables**

545

546 Table 1 Benefits from application of good practice – example from the
547 Environment Agency for England and Wales groundwater modelling programme.

548 Table 2 Typical timescales for predictions

549 Table 3 Guidance on when to rely on predictions (Pielke *et al.* 2000)

550

551 **Box**

552

553 Box 1 Example of a non-technical summary for managers

554

555 **Figures**

556

557 Fig.1 Results of the translation of the qualitative descriptions of uncertainty in
558 probabilities (after Wallsten *et al.* 1986). Note bars at end of range shows standard
559 deviation of responses.

560

Table 1. Benefits from application of good practice – example from the Environment Agency for England and Wales groundwater modelling programme.

Good Practice Component	Benefits
Project Brief	Clearly defined scope and objectives will benefit project teams, beneficiaries and stakeholders.
	A realistic time scale will instil confidence in beneficiaries and stakeholders.
	A clear specification of team composition will ensure that communication and participation are targeted.
	A clear specification of project deliverables will result in avoidance of false expectations and will provide focus to project teams.
	Clear guidance on benefits realisation will ensure that project activities are targeted to achieve the benefits.
Stakeholder Participation	Stakeholders can provide valuable local knowledge to the project (see Whiteman <i>et al.</i> , this volume). This knowledge may have been gained through their operational work and through their responsibility for the National Environment Programme (NEP). The NEP is a list of environmental improvement schemes that ensure that water companies meet European and national targets related to water.
	Conflict minimisation, for example a reduction in the risk for public inquiry
	Technical as well as non-technical contributions will lead to a better and more acceptable product
	It will improve the relationship between stakeholders and the Environment Agency with benefit to the Environment Agency profile in the eyes of the stakeholders and the general public
Communication and Participation	Improved consensus on project approach and outcome
	Limitation of false expectations regarding model output
	Improved uptake by non-modelling staff
	Improved dissemination of project output
	Improved efficiency by incorporating good practice and experience from other projects
	Improvement in perception of benefits of modelling projects
	Improved appreciation by end users of the strength and weaknesses of model output
	Uptake of model data and results by end users and inclusion in their own assessment processes
	Improved dissemination of data, knowledge, experience within and across Environment Agency Regions, resulting in improved efficiency and enhanced appreciation of the worth of modelling projects
	Potentially significant time savings in the work related to regulatory and operational processes
Knowledge Management	Appropriate data storage and retrieval systems can be of benefit to end users at the early stage of the Strategy project
	Longer term benefit in giving more attention to the role of data providers in projects, so that, with appropriate feedback of corrected data, others will be able to save time when using such data in the future.
	Local teams would benefit if informed about the quality of data.
	Information/data exchange will motivate staff and create appreciation of the value and benefits of the projects.
National Groundwater Modelling System	A common and agreed knowledge and information baseline

Environment Agency Staff and Skills Base	Availability of skilled Environment Agency staff for the projects would enhance Environment Agency capability in more effective and efficient execution of the Environment Agency functions.
	More emphasis on the importance of staff skills would improve motivation to actively contribute to the projects.
Technical Approach	High technical standard of project output will enhance confidence.

563)
564
565
566
567

Table 2. Typical timescales for predictions

Timescale	Event
Short (hours to days)	Weather forecasting; flood forecasting
Medium (months to years)	Volcanic eruptions; impact of groundwater abstractions on rivers, wetlands, etc
Long (decades)	Climate change impacts
Very long (Millennia)	Nuclear waste repositories

568
569
570

571 **Table 3.** Guidance on when to rely on predictions (Pielke *et al.* 2000)

When to rely on predictions:	When not to rely on predictions:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Predictive skill is known • Decision makers have experience with understanding and using predictions • The characteristic time of the predicted event is short • There are limited alternatives • The outcomes of various courses of action are understood in terms of well constrained uncertainties (i.e. the likelihood of false positives and false negatives) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skill is low or unknown • Little experience exists with using the predictions or with the phenomena in question • The characteristic time is long • Alternatives are available • The outcomes of alternative decisions are highly uncertain

572

573

Lower Mersey Basin and North Merseyside, North West England Groundwater Resources Study
Non-Technical Executive Summary

The outcomes of the study have made a significant contribution to delivering many of the environmental goals set out in the Environment Agency's Corporate strategy of Creating a Better Place; a better quality of life and enhanced environment for wildlife.

Improved and protected inland and coastal waters

The study has focussed on the Permo-Triassic sandstone aquifer which is the most important groundwater resource within the region, supporting both public supply and industrial abstraction. Our improved understanding of the very complex aquifer system and its response to abstraction pressure over the last century have allowed us to improve quantification of groundwater resource availability and also to forecast future groundwater level changes. We are better able to develop management strategies, regulatory approaches and partnerships to tackle historic problems of over-abstraction and saline intrusion.

Restored, protected land with healthy soil

We recognise that the ongoing rebound of groundwater levels in response to recent reductions in abstraction could potentially mobilise pollutants from old landfills and other contaminated land sites in low lying areas. We are now able to identify the higher risk sites and help target appropriate remediation to protect both land and groundwater quality.

Wiser, sustainable use of natural resources

We have established the importance of maintaining the delicate balance between abstraction from the aquifer and replenishment of it by recharge through the low permeability glacial clay deposits that cover much of the area. Using the Catchment Abstraction Management (see Whiteman *et al.*, this volume) process we can influence the distribution of future groundwater abstraction; we have worked closely with the local water company, United Utilities, the most significant stakeholder, during the study and are now encouraging them to optimise their use of the available groundwater resources within the Mersey Basin and North Merseyside area as part of their Water Resource Plan.

These groundwater resources are seen to be of strategic value within United Utilities integrated water supply zone, especially given the need for sustainability reductions, as an outcome of the European Union Habitats Directive 'review of consents' process, from some of their more environmentally sensitive surface supplies in the Lake District, North West England.

Limiting and adapting to climate change

A key project outcome is a numerical model that allows us to assess the significance of future changes in recharge to the aquifer for any number of abstraction patterns/scenarios. The potential of effective conjunctive use of the Mersey Basin/North Merseyside Permo-Triassic sandstone aquifer with other water sources can be investigated.

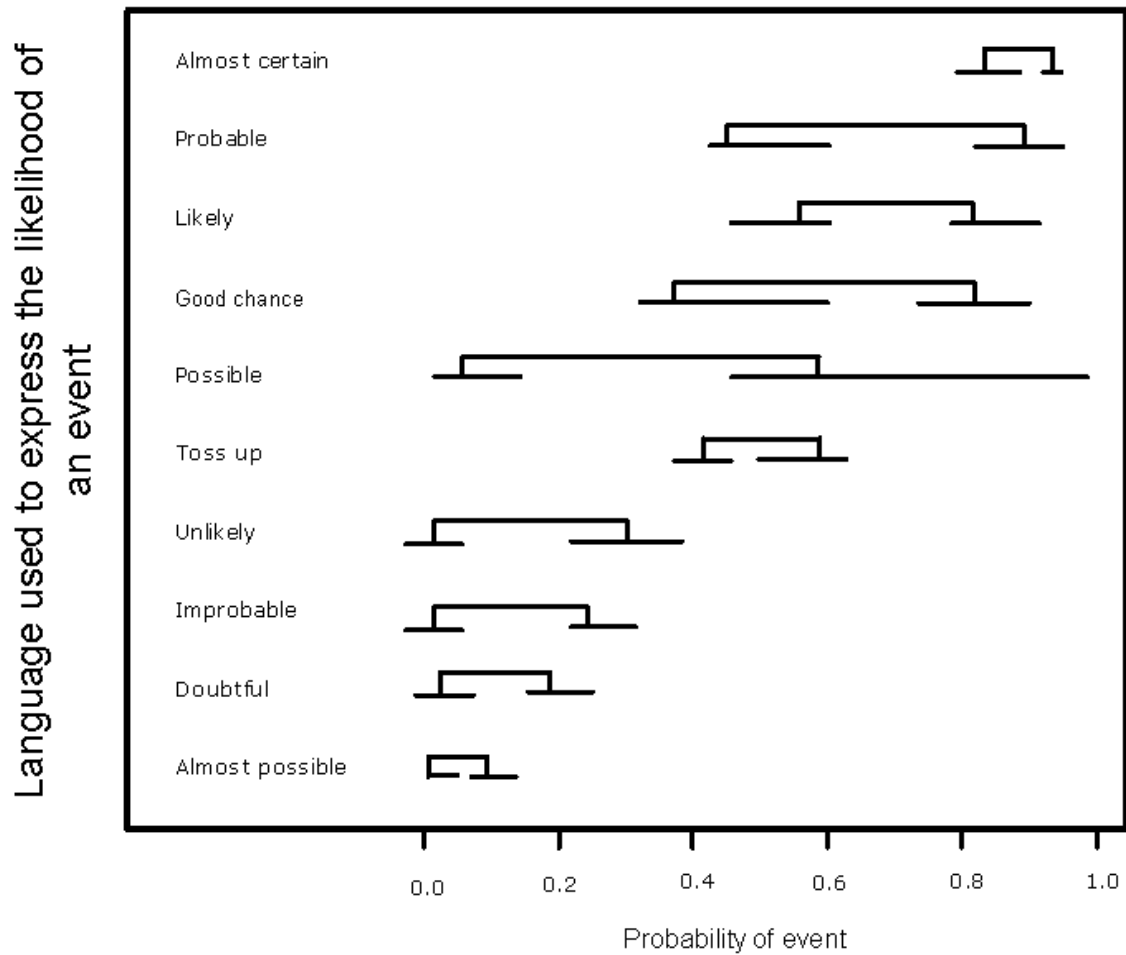
Reducing flood risk

Given the Environment Agency's wider remit under the UK Government's flooding strategy 'Making Space for Water', groundwater flooding is now very much in focus. The study has put us in a much stronger position to forecast the extent, timescales and susceptibility of low lying areas to groundwater re-emergence at surface as a result of rebounding water levels in response to reduced abstraction. We have also identified potential problems such as changes in the rainfall/run-off characteristics of some of our river catchments, and sewer surcharging, which may alter future catchment responses to major surface water flood events caused by higher water tables in flood plains.

A key recommendation from the study is the importance of raising awareness of the issues and risk associated with groundwater rebound with the public and other stakeholders. We have also identified the need for further targeted monitoring and investigation in susceptible areas. These actions are now being incorporated into Lower Mersey Flood Risk Management Plan.

In addition to the contributions to the Environment Agency's corporate strategy, the findings of the study have informed and been fed directly into the work carried out under the European Union Water Framework Directive (see Whiteman *et al.*, this volume). The study has been fundamental in assessing the risk to this groundwater body from over-abstraction and saline intrusion as well as classifying its status as poor. Further, the study has been used as a basis for developing appropriate programmes of measures within the River Basin Management Plan to tackle the poor status. Again, we are able to target our future work to manage and protect our valuable groundwater resources for future generations.

Keith Seymour and Simon Gebbett, 29th July 2008



578

579 **Figure 1.** Results of the translation of the qualitative descriptions of uncertainty in
 580 probabilities (after Wallsten *et al.* 1986). Note bars at end of range shows standard
 581 deviation of responses.

582