

1 Improving scientific impact: how to practice science that influences environmental policy and  
2 management

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14 *Practice-focused Review*

15

16 *Short running title:* How to improve scientific impact

17

18 Our audience is scientists (whether academic or applied) who want to increase the impact of

19 their research; our paper has 5,943 words from the Abstract (167 words) through

20 Acknowledgements and excluding the Literature Cited, and we have 86 references, 2 figures,

21 and 1 table.

## 22 Abstract

23 Scientists devote substantial time and resources to research to help solve environmental  
24 problems. Environmental managers and policymakers must decide which actions to prioritize to  
25 achieve environmental outcomes, based on the best-available evidence. Yet there can be  
26 barriers to decision-makers using this evidence to decide how to act. They may be unaware of  
27 the evidence, lack access to it, not understand it, or view it as irrelevant. This means a valuable  
28 resource (evidence) is underused. To improve the impact of research on decision-making, we  
29 outline a set of practical steps for scientists: (1) Identify and understand the audience; (2)  
30 Clarify the need for evidence; (3) Gather "just enough" evidence; and (4) Share and discuss the  
31 evidence. These are guidelines, not a strict recipe for success. But we believe that developing a  
32 habit of following these recommendations should increase the chance of evidence being  
33 considered and used in environmental decision-making. Our goal is for this paper to be  
34 accessible to anyone, rather than a comprehensive review of the topic.

35 **Keywords:** research impact, evidence, applied science, decision-making, stakeholder  
36 engagement, science communication

37

## 38 Introduction

39 Decisions about environmental policy and management are often made in short time-  
40 frames (Rose et al. 2018) and with high uncertainty (Cook et al. 2010). Environmental managers  
41 and policymakers need to quickly decide what to do to achieve their goals (Esch et al. 2018).  
42 Environmental and conservation scientists seek to (and are regularly asked to) provide evidence

43 to inform these decisions. Academic scientists are also increasingly motivated to conduct  
44 research that informs management and policy (Emerald Publishing 2019).

45         Yet often research does not shape action (Knight et al. 2008, Sutherland and Wordley  
46 2017), and is designed without input from potential users. In our experience, environmental  
47 scientists face a double-edged sword. We are concerned about the slow pace of action and the  
48 lack of willingness by decision-makers to use evidence to shape policy and practice. But we also  
49 struggle to deliver evidence fast enough to affect decisions that are imminent. The result is  
50 that: 1) many environmental scientists—whether in non-profits, government, or universities—  
51 produce work that has little to no impact on the decisions they seek to influence; and 2)  
52 decisions are often made without the information needed to evaluate alternate actions. There  
53 is thus a need to better connect evidence with decision-making. But scientists cannot get their  
54 work used by themselves; many non-scientific skills are typically needed, including building  
55 relationships and communicating with decision makers and stakeholders. Scientists should  
56 work with colleagues who bring complementary skills, relationships, and experiences. An  
57 important step to increasing the impact of evidence has been progress in how to synthesize and  
58 communicate existing data to potential users. For example, there is growing focus on how to  
59 produce concise and actionable synopses (Walsh et al. 2015, Cairney and Kwiatkowski 2017),  
60 positive framing and highlighting “bright spots,” (Tversky and Kahneman 1981, Cvitanovic and  
61 Hobday 2018), and how to respond to or create policy windows for evidence to be used (Rose  
62 et al. 2017). These advances focus on the process of synthesizing evidence; however, there is  
63 need for greater attention to what comes before and after the collection and analysis of data:  
64 how to decide what are the right data to collect and how to get that summary used. Academics

65 have analyzed this gap and recommended the need to bridge it (Cook et al. 2013, Enquist et al.  
66 2017, Hallett et al. 2017, Lawson et al. 2017). This literature often lacks step-by-step practical  
67 guidelines for scientists in a short and simple package that they can use to make their work  
68 more relevant and visible. It also often uses jargon or requires reading other papers for  
69 essential context. There are some exceptions with useful explicit suggestions (Jacobs et al.  
70 2005, Cockburn et al. 2016, Beier et al. 2017, Pohl et al. 2017, Rose et al. 2017), but each omits  
71 some steps we have found to be important. For example, none of the guides we reviewed cover  
72 how much information to gather, most have minimal guidance on outreach for finished  
73 research (e.g. Beier et al. 2017 & Pohl et al. 2017), and some focus on how to build long-term  
74 collaboration rather than offering smaller and simpler opportunities (e.g. Cockburn et al. 2016).

75         Here, we provide practical recommendations to increase the likelihood that  
76 environmental science will lead to impact. These recommendations are broken down into four  
77 categories (Figure 1) with more detail in a flow chart (Figure 2). Most of our recommendations  
78 are well known by experts in research impact (Rose et al. 2019), but each of them has been  
79 novel to some of the potential users we spoke to when preparing this. Our intended audience is  
80 non-profit, government and interested academic environmental and conservation scientists of  
81 all career stages, though we believe our recommendations will be relevant to other applied  
82 scientists, like agronomists and public health researchers. We use the term “scientists” as  
83 shorthand for “environmental and conservation scientists.” Talking to our intended audience  
84 revealed that major barriers to reading scientific literature are paper length and the need to  
85 read several papers for essential context. So, we use simple language, favor brevity over

86 completeness, and do not assume our readers are familiar with relevant literature or have time  
87 to read beyond this paper.

88         In writing this article we are motivated by our own challenges, failures, and successes to  
89 produce actionable evidence. We have struggled with wanting the evidence we create to have  
90 impact and seeking evidence to quickly incorporate into practice. Improving is hard: even in  
91 writing this, we struggled to follow our own advice at times, and we needed help from other  
92 experts. Most of our insights were gained from past successes and failures , which are critical  
93 for learning (Catalano et al. 2018).

94         In pursuit of brevity, we do not provide a comprehensive review of the rich literature on  
95 science impact. In particular, our paper does not seek to replicate well-developed guidelines for  
96 evidence synthesis (Dicks et al. 2014, Game et al. 2015, Esch et al. 2018, Qiu et al. 2018,  
97 Schwartz et al. 2018, Salafsky et al. 2019, and many more). Instead, we offer an easy to read  
98 stand-alone document that can be used by scientists without knowledge of the broader  
99 literature. We also recognize many papers have made a case for the value of more impactful  
100 science (Sutherland et al. 2004, McNie 2007, Knight et al. 2008, Enquist et al. 2017, Wall et al.  
101 2017, Bednarek et al. 2018). We build on this by focusing on *how* scientists can have more  
102 impact. This is not easy, and does not guarantee success; our guidelines are relatively simple  
103 and impact often depends on factors outside the control of scientists (Cairney and Oliver 2018,  
104 Rose et al. 2019). We believe that developing a habit of following these recommendations will  
105 increase the chance of one’s science being considered and used in environmental decision-  
106 making.

107 We group our recommendations into four areas: (1) Identify and understand the  
108 audience; (2) Clarify the need for evidence; (3) Gather "just enough" evidence; and (4) Share  
109 and discuss the evidence (Figure 1). In each we explain why it is important and how to do it.

110

## 111 1. Identify and understand the audience

112 It is more likely that research will be used if it answers a specific question for a specific  
113 audience. We use the terms "audience" and "potential users" synonymously to avoid  
114 repetition. However, such umbrella categories (i.e. audience, potential users, stakeholders,  
115 decision-makers, etc.) are vague constructs and influencing action often requires influencing  
116 multiple actors (Table 1). We also recommend partnering with potential users throughout the  
117 research process, rather than a 1-way relationship focused on translation (Bednarek et al. 2018,  
118 Bertuol-Garcia et al. 2018). Scientists may begin with an "audience" in mind who develops into  
119 a close partner as opposed to just a recipient of evidence. Partnership enables co-production of  
120 solutions-oriented research (Enquist et al. 2017); (Lang et al. 2012).

### 121 1.1 Why it is important

122 For research to be used, it should answer a question that is relevant to at least one type  
123 of potential user, which requires understanding who will use the evidence and in what context.  
124 This will often require engaging with multiple audiences with different objectives and  
125 information needs (Table 1); decision-making is often the outcome of interactions between  
126 many types of "decision-makers." For instance, the actions of land stewards are often  
127 influenced by immediate and practical management needs in a specific context. Program or

128 organizational leaders require information on the broader impact or relevance of different  
129 strategies. Policymakers are frequently focused on the impact an action will have on multiple  
130 objectives, including costs and benefits, at a broad scale. Research and scientific evidence need  
131 to influence several types of people to lead to impact. People in these different roles often  
132 require different types of evidence – and research products – to address their needs and  
133 motivate them to change their planned actions. It also often requires collaborative work and  
134 sustained engagement with those potential users to ensure buy-in and relevance (Cockburn et  
135 al. 2016).

136           Understanding the audience and how they may use evidence allows tailoring the type  
137 and form of evidence to better meet their needs. Long-standing relationships between  
138 potential users and scientists can help with understanding one’s audience, building trust and  
139 credibility, and creating opportunities for impact including co-developing applied research  
140 (Cvitanovic et al. 2016, Cairney and Oliver 2018). These relationships help scientists to  
141 understand and meet the needs of their partner.

142           Our guidance is focused on new scientific activities, but with the objective of developing  
143 long-standing partnerships. Such new scientific activities may come from a motivated scientist  
144 without established relationships who is seeking to apply their work. Similarly, scientists at  
145 nonprofit organizations may have a mission-driven strategy, without having clearly identified  
146 which audience is most important to influence. Scientists should be clear on their motivations  
147 and role – whether they are advocating for a particular action, or serving as an honest broker of  
148 options to meet an outcome without strong preferences of their own. Sharpening the focus of

149 the research and end products on specific users (Table 1) will help improve the specificity of the  
150 evidence for the decision at hand and improve the likelihood the evidence will be used.

151 For example, given growing risks of severe forest fires in California there is a push to  
152 reintroduce prescribed fire. But there are competing value systems that will influence if and  
153 how this should be done. The conservation community already has solid evidence that  
154 reintroducing fire as a natural process is necessary for restoring the resilience of western  
155 forests (Hessburg et al. 2016). However, there are multiple barriers to increasing use of  
156 prescribed fire. Among these are the potential public health impacts of smoke exposure (Brown  
157 et al. 2009) and risk of property loss from escaped fires. To influence state agencies responsible  
158 for permitting prescribed fire, scientists may need to show how prescribed fire size and timing  
159 can minimize air quality and human health concerns (Prunicki et al. 2019). Alternatively, to get  
160 support from the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), it may be preferable to  
161 highlight the ability of prescribed fire to reduce damage caused by wildfires.

## 162 [1.2 How to do it](#)

163 Before gathering evidence, identify and engage the audience who can act to help solve a  
164 problem of mutual interest (Figure 2). Engage in the community working on this problem to  
165 deepen understanding of the problem and the relevant audience. Seek to understand which  
166 potential users influence the problem, their needs and objectives, how they see the problem,  
167 and whether they perceive a need for evidence. Alternatively, if the audience matters more  
168 than the research topic, determine how to collaborate with them and how they view the  
169 problem.



170 1.2.1 Identify the specific, potential audience(s) the research should inform

171           There may be multiple audiences with different forms of influence and different science  
172 needs who could be partners to achieve tangible impact (Marshall et al. 2017). Decide whether  
173 questions addressed through research or evidence gathering are relevant to the decision-  
174 making of each targeted audience (not always possible), or just one audience. For example, the  
175 Pew Charitable Trusts is developing a tool aimed at helping policy-makers understand how  
176 potential changes to fishing subsidies would impact fish catch and economic activity. While  
177 doing so, it became clear that it would not work well for an intended secondary audience of the  
178 general public.

179 1.2.2 Engage in the relevant community of practice

180           This can include going to practitioner’s conferences and joining science advisory  
181 committees that are collectively tackling the issue the research addresses. It could also include  
182 discussions on social media or online forums, and individual meetings with key potential users.  
183 Scientists can play an important role in bringing parties together around an issue and guiding  
184 collaborative development of research to solve a problem for a specific audience.

185 1.2.3 Work with the target audience(s) to identify and clarify the problem(s) they are trying to  
186 solve

187           Ideally research is “co-produced” where potential users iteratively work with scientists  
188 to design research (Dilling and Lemos 2011, Beier et al. 2017, Enquist et al. 2017), as opposed to  
189 knowledge only flowing from scientists to potential users (Bertuol-Garcia et al. 2018). Engage  
190 the target audience to discuss their perspective on the problem. If they are interested in a  
191 different problem, determine whether both can be solved together or identify a problem that is

192 a shared priority. Discuss possible applications which can sharpen the research concept and  
193 lead to tangible collaborations. Understand their vision for the future as it relates to this issue,  
194 and what aspects of research they value (Dunn and Laing 2017). Co-production carries some  
195 risks (e.g., participating scientists may be perceived as less independent or credible by other  
196 scientists) and takes longer (Oliver et al. 2019). If initial assessments with potential users reveal  
197 that research will not be generalizable for broader application, consider whether co-production  
198 is still worth it (Sutherland et al. 2017).

199

## 200 2. Clarify the need for evidence

201 Evidence often does not lead to action, especially when the evidence does not meet the  
202 information needs of potential users. Determine what evidence *would* motivate and empower  
203 the audience to do something new or different.

### 204 2.1 Why it is important

205 As noted above, evidence alone rarely catalyzes action. The role of applied science  
206 should be to produce and share whatever knowledge would best help the potential users reach  
207 a good decision. It is important to understand how the target audience perceives evidence, and  
208 whether or not a lack of evidence is a barrier to change (Marshall et al. 2017, Kary et al. 2018).  
209 For example, more research on the causes of climate change has had a minimal effect on public  
210 beliefs about the underlying cause (Brulle et al. 2012). Further, when conflicting evidence  
211 exists, it can lead to camps becoming entrenched behind different paradigms.

212 Evidence users and evidence creators may have different ideas of the type of evidence  
213 needed (Game et al. 2018). Consider the example of mitigating climate change through soil  
214 management that sequesters carbon from the atmosphere into soils (Zomer et al. 2017). To  
215 include soil management in formulating national greenhouse gas emission targets for the  
216 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), evidence is needed to  
217 identify which practices most effectively build soil carbon. Why soil carbon stocks increase is  
218 less relevant than how to build them and how soil carbon compares to other mitigation options  
219 like reforestation. Although there is intense academic debate about the why (Amundson and  
220 Biardeau 2018), resolving this debate may not inform action.

## 221 [2.2 How to do it](#)

222 Scientists should identify what actions their audience is considering, ask them if a lack of  
223 evidence is a barrier to deciding, and if so what type of evidence is most needed (Figure 2). If  
224 new evidence should catalyze action, they can develop research questions in partnership with  
225 end users.

### 226 [2.2.1 Identify actions the audience is considering](#)

227 Usually if someone is considering acting, they have a set of potential actions in mind at  
228 specific spatial and temporal scales. Understanding the actions being considered and how they  
229 will decide between them will help scientists hone research to increase the likelihood of  
230 impacting those actions. Scientists sometimes overlook the political and economic context –  
231 how current policies and supply chains influence a decision, and what may need to change. This  
232 will likely impact how potential users consider evidence and make decisions. Respect the

233 legitimacy of your audience’s decision-making process and how they weigh scientific evidence  
234 against other factors like public consensus.

#### 235 2.2.2 Identify if the audience thinks there is an evidence gap (and why)

236 A perceived evidence gap can come from a lack of evidence, or because available  
237 evidence is seen as inadequate to select the right action. Understanding whether the audience  
238 thinks there is an evidence gap – and why – will help determine whether to collect new  
239 evidence, or whether to re-synthesize or refine communication of existing information.

#### 240 2.2.3 Determine if new evidence will be enough to drive action

241 In some cases, an audience may want to act but lacks the capacity to do so. For  
242 example, they may lack financing or staff capacity, in which case even highly relevant new  
243 evidence may have no impact. There also may be high organizational resistance to new actions.  
244 If these barriers block action more than lack of evidence, explore whether the new research  
245 being designed could help them overcome the barriers. Robust evidence for the importance of  
246 the desired action may help potential users raise funds or change policy to enable the desired  
247 action(s). For example, a partnership between The Nature Conservancy and the Dow  
248 corporation showed that reforestation could meet Dow’s requirements for ozone mitigation at  
249 competitive cost (Kroeger et al. 2014). While the EPA has not agreed to allow reforestation to  
250 meet Dow’s legal obligation, Dow is still planning to proceed in hopes that it will help provide  
251 more evidence for the policy change (personal communication).

#### 252 2.2.4 Translate actions being considered into research questions

253           The need for evidence is often too broad to be actionable until it is translated into key  
254 research questions. For instance, wildlife crossings like bridges and underpasses are often  
255 claimed to reduce wildlife-vehicle collisions. This claim could be evaluated by looking at the  
256 efficacy of bridges vs. underpasses for a species of interest. These questions are often more  
257 specific than the overall evidence need, for example which types of crossings offer the most risk  
258 reduction across species. It is important that generating questions be done collaboratively with  
259 the end users to ensure data will be enough to advance action (once collected, synthesized, and  
260 communicated).

261

### 262 3 Gather “just enough” evidence

263           Tailor evidence collection given the limited time and resources available, while  
264 advocating for the rigor needed for action to be credible (Figure 2).

#### 265 3.1 Why it is important

266           Gathering evidence takes time and money that could be spent on implementation  
267 (Salzer and Salafsky 2008). Further, the ability of new evidence to influence decisions often has  
268 a limited timeframe (e.g. new legislation or incentive programs are being considered on a  
269 certain date). The effort dedicated to gathering or synthesizing evidence should reflect the  
270 timeframe for making a decision (Dunn and Laing 2017) and the expected value of having new  
271 information. The “Value of Information” (VOI) is influenced by factors such as risk associated  
272 with making a poor decision, stakeholder comfort with uncertainty, and cost of gathering more

273 information (McDonald-Madden et al. 2010, Polasky et al. 2011, Runge et al. 2011, Canessa et  
274 al. 2015, Maxwell et al. 2015, Minelli and Baio 2015, Bennett et al. 2018).

275 For example, Fisher et al. (2018) evaluated an end user's decision to invest in  
276 conservation to improve water quality rather than building a new water pipeline. Comparing  
277 models using high-resolution (1-m) spatial data to models using lower resolution data (30-m)  
278 they found the finer-scale data would not have changed the decision made to invest in  
279 conservation. In this case, higher accuracy did not drive better decisions, but did significantly  
280 raise both program costs and perceived credibility of the science beyond the minimum needed  
281 (Hamel et al. 2020). By failing to spend enough time understanding the user's needs up front,  
282 we missed a chance to reduce research costs and spend more on implementation.

283 Beyond accuracy and spatial resolution, "just enough" can relate to many facets of  
284 evidence synthesis and creation, including depth and breadth of literature review, complexity  
285 of modeling, the extent of new data collection, and the precision of estimated effects.  
286 Additional effort for evidence collection should be carefully weighed against the probability of it  
287 influencing the decision (Canessa et al. 2015). Research may be used for future decisions in  
288 unexpected ways, but this is hard to predict.

289 Risk tolerance and uncertainty influence how much effort should be invested in  
290 evidence gathering. When uncertainty is high, but known or perceived risks of the wrong  
291 decision are low, then acting immediately, without new evidence, may be the appropriate  
292 strategy. Actions can then be improved through adaptive management. However, if the risk is  
293 high or tolerance for risk is low, then the value of new information increases (Howard, 1966).

294 Yet risk and uncertainty come in various guises, which can influence the impact new evidence  
295 will have on a decision.

296 For example, when crafting policies to incentivize reducing greenhouse gas emissions,  
297 many forms of uncertainty exist, and their importance varies with context and the kind of  
298 decision made (Hawkins and Sutton 2009). Policymakers working at different spatial and  
299 temporal scales may differ in how they weigh uncertainty and variation (Lehmann and Rillig  
300 2014). When quantitative greenhouse gas reductions are tied to regulatory or funding  
301 incentives, improved precision of the impact of management interventions can be high. There is  
302 usually high uncertainty in modeled estimates of the impact of different interventions, and high  
303 value in research to improve those estimates. But when setting broader climate policy (e.g. to  
304 guide global targets and investment), precise estimates are less important than identifying  
305 which major drivers of climate change to target (Knutti and Sedláček 2013, Bradford et al.  
306 2016).

### 307 [3.2 How to do it](#)

308 Research design should reflect the appropriate time, rigor, and approach for collecting  
309 and synthesizing “just enough” evidence to best inform an action or policy given the audience’s  
310 timeline and tolerance for risk. This requires understanding what kind of data the audience  
311 considers actionable, their tolerance for risk, and whether adaptive management is an option  
312 before choosing a research approach.

313 3.2.1 Understand the type of data the audience needs

314 Establish whether specific quantitative evidence is needed to ensure an outcome (e.g. X  
315 tons of CO<sub>2</sub>e reduced by a certain practice at a certain location and timeline) or if qualitative  
316 directional evidence will suffice (e.g. intervention X will increase CO<sub>2</sub>e captured, or will increase  
317 it more than intervention Y). Explore whether site-specific information is needed, or if general  
318 information will do. For example, conservation agriculture on average decreases net  
319 greenhouse gas emissions, but will not for some geographies because of soil type and climate  
320 (Govaerts et al. 2009).

321 3.2.2 Evaluate the potential for adaptive management

322 Adaptive management is a continual learning process. It emphasizes trying different  
323 practices, measuring their success, and changing management accordingly (Walters 1986). If  
324 adaptive management is viable (especially if the initial value of new information is low), invest  
325 more effort in planning ongoing monitoring than on generating extensive evidence up front.

326 3.2.3 Tailor the type of evidence to the value of information and timeline

327 Working with potential users, identify a research approach to provide actionable  
328 evidence given constraints in time and resources. Different approaches vary in their strengths  
329 and weaknesses, ranging from time-consuming, quantitative meta-analyses usually focused on  
330 a narrow body of literature to rapid expert assessments that provide a qualitative projection of  
331 outcomes but may be more inclusive of available evidence (Grant and Booth 2009). Consider  
332 expert assessment or other rapid methods when the value of new information is low, time  
333 constraints are high, and the audience understand and accept the limits of the approach. If the  
334 value of information is high and time allows, or when the risk of making a non-ideal decision is



335 high, consider more time-intensive approaches. As noted in the conservation for water quality  
336 example above, early communication with the audience is key to avoid making assumptions  
337 about what approach is needed.

338

#### 339 4. Share and discuss the evidence

340 Most scientific articles are not read by targeted or potential audiences. To achieve the  
341 desired impact of their research, scientists should invest time in developing a clear, compelling  
342 message, and communicating it (Figure 2).

##### 343 4.1 Why it is important

344 If evidence is not seen and understood by the relevant audience, it will have little to no  
345 impact on action (Dunn and Laing 2017). Many excellent peer-reviewed papers are not read  
346 beyond researchers. Even applied journals in conservation and ecology are not regularly read  
347 by environmental managers and policymakers. Peer-reviewed papers are still important outlets  
348 for reporting science, but are insufficient to ensure adoption of information (van Kerkhoff and  
349 Lebel 2006). Even where work is co-developed (and potentially co-implemented) with the  
350 audience, the highly technical language of peer-reviewed work can limit full understanding and,  
351 thus, its application. Impact can be improved by communicating results to the broadest suite of  
352 relevant audiences in ways that capture attention and meet their needs.

##### 353 4.2 How to do it

354 The research team and intended audience should have agreed on a rough communications plan  
355 before beginning research (Figure 2). Once the audience understands the results, work with

356 them to develop the key message of the research, along with important context to convey.  
357 Scientists can enlist help to improve their communication, publish accessible summaries of the  
358 research, and have effective in-person meetings with the audience. Once results are published  
359 (along with data and code), scientists should seek to remove barriers to access.

#### 360 4.2.1 Create a communications plan as part of the research design

361 Science communications are often planned around the release of a paper. Beginning  
362 planning for communications much earlier allows for: 1) selecting a product format(s) and  
363 outlet the audience will read (e.g. blogs, video, news, webinars, etc.); 2) identifying the most  
364 effective venues (e.g. electronic or in-person) to share the communications product(s); and 3)  
365 creation of additional tools to facilitate uptake of the evidence (e.g. a web page to visualize  
366 results). Communications plans are ideally developed with both communications experts and  
367 members of the target audience and updated as research is completed. Communication  
368 products should be shared repeatedly over time to increase the likelihood of them being  
369 received by the intended audience (Fisher et al. 2018).

#### 370 4.2.2 Develop a clear, compelling message

371 The research team should have a consistent message summarizing the evidence that will  
372 motivate the audience. It should include key results, why they matter, and clear  
373 recommendations or options for the target audience (Ruhl et al. 2019). A good message is short  
374 but memorable, avoids denigrating the audience's beliefs, and is positive (Cook and  
375 Lewandowsky 2011). People want to see solutions that show how they can have positive  
376 impact, rather than avoiding what they have been doing wrong (Tversky and Kahneman 1981).  
377 There are several trainings (online and in-person) publicly available to help scientists craft and

378 deliver clear messages, and the audience will be key in both developing and testing the  
379 message. Examples include COMPASS' Message Box training and resources (COMPASS 2020)  
380 and Alan Alda's Center for Communicating Science (Alan Alda Center for Communicating  
381 Science 2020). There are also written resources like "Don't be such a scientist" (Olson 2009) and  
382 "Do I make myself clear?" (Evans 2017).

#### 383 4.2.3 Document relevance and caveats associated with the evidence

384 Explore the audience's confidence in the underlying science, and flag key concerns or  
385 questions. Explain how appropriate the data sources and methods are for addressing the  
386 questions being asked (e.g. Silver 2012, Ionides et al. 2017). For example, document the  
387 credibility of the data sources and methods, the applicability of the evidence to their particular  
388 context, and explain the (in)consistency of results among approaches (Game et al. 2018). If  
389 relevant comparative case studies exist, use them to highlight key factors that could impact the  
390 results.

#### 391 4.2.4 Improve communication skills

392 Good written products are important for evidence to be used. Scientists can improve  
393 their writing skills and/or enlist help from experts. "Good" products provide information that is  
394 efficiently understood and used by the intended audience. This is a challenge for even  
395 experienced writers. Scientists should seek feedback on their writing from multiple people  
396 outside of their technical area, including from a potential user, communications expert, or  
397 friend. This can help to flag jargon and assumptions that impede understanding. Even peer-  
398 reviewed journal articles should have a compelling narrative with engaging language, while also  
399 being technical and precise (Schimel 2012). In some cases, oral communication skills are more

400 important than writing, and the mode of communication should be driven by the audience's  
401 preference. A short presentation may be more impactful than a written document; for  
402 example, presentations based on this manuscript have led to more follow-up with users than  
403 the manuscript itself. But preparation is key; we have had in-person meetings that the audience  
404 did not find compelling, which led them to be unwilling to read or hear more about the  
405 research.

#### 406 4.2.5 Publish accessible summaries of the research

407 Write and share non-technical summaries of research results on social media, for a blog,  
408 or other online outlets (e.g. for The Conversation, a research news site dedicated to sharing  
409 scientific research in a journalistic style; The Conversation 2019). Ensure the summaries are  
410 accessible and engaging. Ideally use a variety of approaches, as different people learn better  
411 through diagrams, by reading, or by listening. Communicate key technical terms and concepts  
412 with a good narrative — use engaging language without obscuring nuance (Dubé and Lapane  
413 2014) and connect to tangible examples (Dahlstrom 2014). For example, a story about a farmer  
414 who planted cover crops and how it impacted her farm and stream may be more memorable  
415 than citing general statistics about how cover crops can reduce sediment loads. Then, promote  
416 the work through social media with an engaging tweet (or a coordinated series of tweets) that  
417 link to the summaries and the paper.

#### 418 4.2.6 Meet with the audience(s) face-to-face

419 Face-to-face interaction between scientists and users is one of the most important ways  
420 to increase use of evidence (Seavy and Howell 2010). This can include meetings, field visits,  
421 workshops, conferences, and high-quality videoconferencing. Not all face-to-face interactions

422 are equal; the quality of interaction depends, in part, on how well scientists and their partners  
423 communicate, which is why communications training is so valuable. These personal interactions  
424 are part of a long process of building evidence-practice relationships that is essential for  
425 research to make an impact.

#### 426 4.2.7 Share all data and code, not just statistically significant findings

427         Following best practices in data availability means the evidence will be more available to  
428 all potential users. A bias towards significant findings in peer-reviewed literature can mask what  
429 does not work. We recommend making all results available and visible (within legal and ethical  
430 limits), even if they are not the center-point of a communications strategy (Sutherland et al.  
431 2004). Key findings should be summarized in an evidence library (e.g. Conservation Evidence;  
432 ConservationEvidence.com, 2019). Data should be archived in a repository (e.g. Knowledge  
433 Network for Biocomplexity or others depending on norms for a given field) that generates  
434 digital object identifiers (DOIs) and cites these in publications. We recommend sharing code  
435 and analysis summaries (through R Markdown or Jupyter Notebooks) on GitHub.

#### 436 4.2.8 Remove barriers to access

437         Lack of access to articles behind a paywall is a barrier for many potential users, so  
438 research papers and products should be publicly available. Open access articles are often cited  
439 much more frequently even within a given journal (Kurtz and Brody 2006, Piwowar et al. 2018),  
440 although this could be due to confounding variables like citations of previous work and number  
441 of authors (Calver and Bradley 2009). If full (“gold”) open access is not practical, posting the  
442 accepted version on a personal website (“green” open access or “self-archived”) is typically  
443 permitted (see Fisher 2018 for a guide on how to do so). Only 10-20% of eligible articles have

444 been shared in this way (Harnad et al. 2008), which is an opportunity to improve. Follow  
445 copyright laws and journal guidelines; public sharing via institutional web pages, or repositories  
446 like ResearchGate, is often not allowed. Before acceptance, post a copy of the manuscript in a  
447 pre-print archive, which allows sharing it with the audience earlier. For example, a pre-print of  
448 this paper was downloaded 440 times prior to publication; we received invaluable suggestions  
449 from some early readers and heard from others that it was already useful to them.

450

## 451 **Conclusion**

452           Scientists need to work deliberately on shaping their science to have impact. This  
453 applies both to applied scientists whose job requires influencing action, and to academic  
454 researchers interested in having their work be applied. The practical steps outlined here are  
455 critical elements to having a tangible influence on decision making. Ideally scientists can follow  
456 them from start to finish when involved in a project from the beginning, working with  
457 colleagues with complementary expertise (in policy, communications, boundary-spanning, etc.).  
458 See Figure 2 for a potential decision tree for this process.

459           However, they are guidelines rather than a recipe. Following them does not guarantee  
460 success (especially when seeking to influence major policy change, Cairney and Oliver 2018)  
461 and may not always be possible. Luck and persistence are also often needed to achieve impact.  
462 These guidelines also do not address systemic challenges like incentive structures for academics  
463 that do not reward impact. Unplanned impact is also possible; in the example about research

464 on reforestation to reduce ozone, that research led The Nature Conservancy's urban program  
465 to begin other work using trees to improve human health (personal communication).

466         When engaging on a project where decisions have already been made (e.g. defining an  
467 audience and the need for evidence), reviewing all our recommended steps can help to  
468 improve the chance that the work going forward will have impact. The role of scientists  
469 depends on context; in organizations with effective communications teams, scientists may  
470 focus primarily on ensuring the veracity of evidence presented. However, even in this context,  
471 scientists should remain involved in development of communications materials to ensure  
472 important details from the evidence are not lost.

473         Engaging in this process should lead to a stronger relationship between scientists and  
474 the audience (ideally long-term). In many organizations, scientists often serve multiple roles as  
475 applied researchers and facilitators of partnerships with management agencies or individual  
476 managers. We believe that strong applied science relies on forming trusting relationships  
477 between scientists and their partners. Following this guidance should help those relationships  
478 develop. Ideally much of our guidance will eventually feel normal and become part of how  
479 scientists work with potential users.

480         We deeply appreciate that people spend a great deal of time developing and  
481 synthesizing much-needed evidence to help address problems in conservation and the  
482 environment. Our hope is that better awareness and use of our recommendations will translate  
483 to evidence being used more to inform environmental decisions.

## 484 Acknowledgements

485 We benefited greatly from input from many people who reviewed or contributed to earlier  
486 drafts. This included both colleagues doing exemplary applied science in academia and  
487 conservation, and an outside perspective from several others. Thanks especially to: Paul  
488 Armsworth, William Bardel, Dick Cameron, Chelsea Carey, Joe Fargione, Eddie Game, Tom  
489 Gardali, Ryan Haugo, Sarah Husband, Aaron Iverson, Liz Kalies, Dan Kane, Lizzy King, Bob Lalasz,  
490 Johannes Lehmann, Kerry Metlen, Brynn Pewtherer, Hugh Possingham, Dan Salzer, Nat Seavey,  
491 and Paul West. This work was part of the “Managing Soil Carbon” working group for the Science  
492 for Nature and People Partnership (SNAPP), whose members also provided valuable feedback  
493 on earlier drafts. Thanks also to the many experts on research impact whose published work  
494 informed this paper.

## 495 Authorship contributions

496 All authors contributed to this work equally.

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712

## Tables

Table 1. Typology of potential users of scientific information. Scientists often use generic words like practitioner and policymaker to refer to a diverse set of potential users with different objectives. Understanding these diverse objectives is important for targeting science to have impact.

<b>Type of user</b>	<b>Nature of objective</b>	<b>Type of information they need</b>
Land/property managers (e.g. reserve manager)	Needs to know the best management practices to achieve their desired objectives for a specific geographic place.	Practical, context-specific, and precise
Corporate sustainability director	Needs simple questions they can ask suppliers about whether they're using key sustainable practices. Often needs very general guidelines very quickly.	Practical, simple, and urgent
Leader of a team focused on a specific issue, community, or region	In addition to understanding what the best management practices are, they need to understand contributing factors to success or failure. This includes how these factors interact with each other to influence the outcomes for the target issues.	Practical and context-specific, as well as broader awareness of enabling conditions
Leader of a government agency or large	Needs to know multiple benefits,	Practical-Conceptual

department, or an executive leader for non-profit organization	trade-offs, and costs (time, effort, and money) among varying actions and priorities at a broader scale (e.g. across contexts) to balance outcomes and to communicate effectively about issues. They also will want to see constituent support for acting.	
Environmental scientists	Wants to know both how new science can inform their own research, as well as practical implications for putting it into practice.	Practical-Conceptual
A major donor or public figure who can dedicate resources, catalyze support, and/or influence public opinion	Wants to know the latest and most impactful science and practice to promote promising work.	Conceptual
Stakeholders without formal decision-making power	Wants to know how actions being considered will impact them and their interests.	Conceptual

## Figures

Figure 1. Categories of steps to increase the likelihood that research will have an impact on decision making, while recognizing that ‘impact’ relies on other factors beyond research. This may not be a linear process, but generally will begin at the top and move down. This figure is highly simplified, see Figure 2 for a more complete representation of the relevant steps.

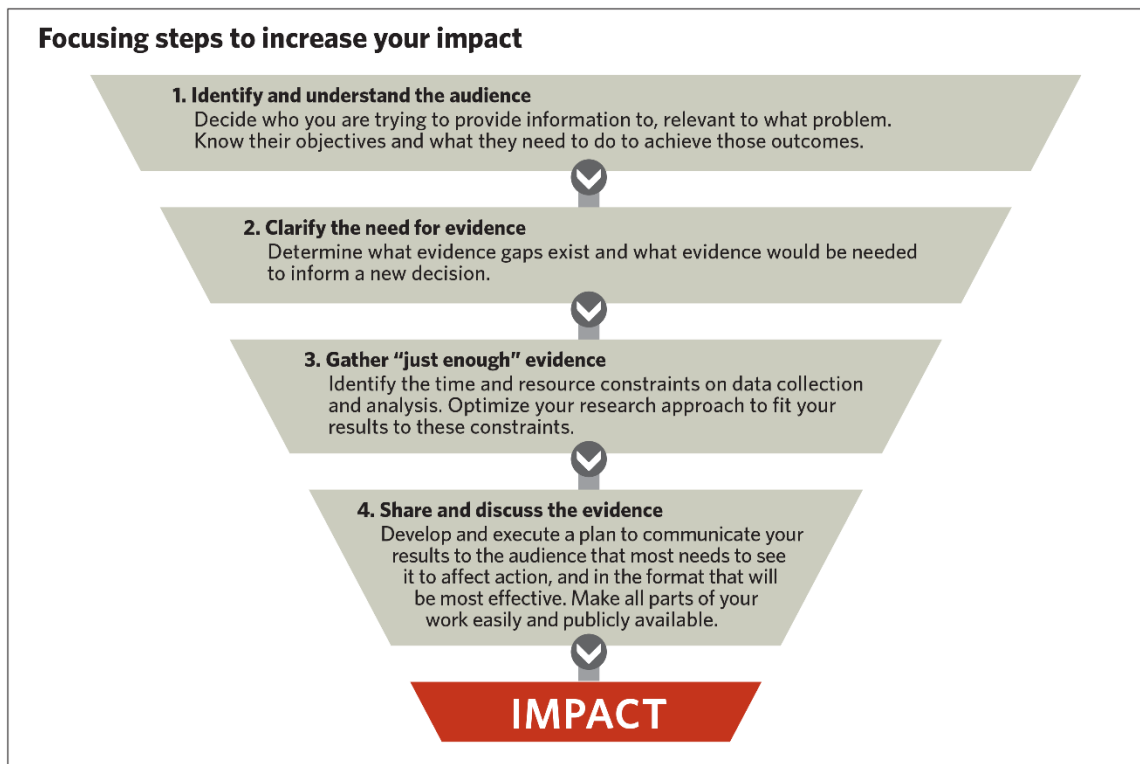
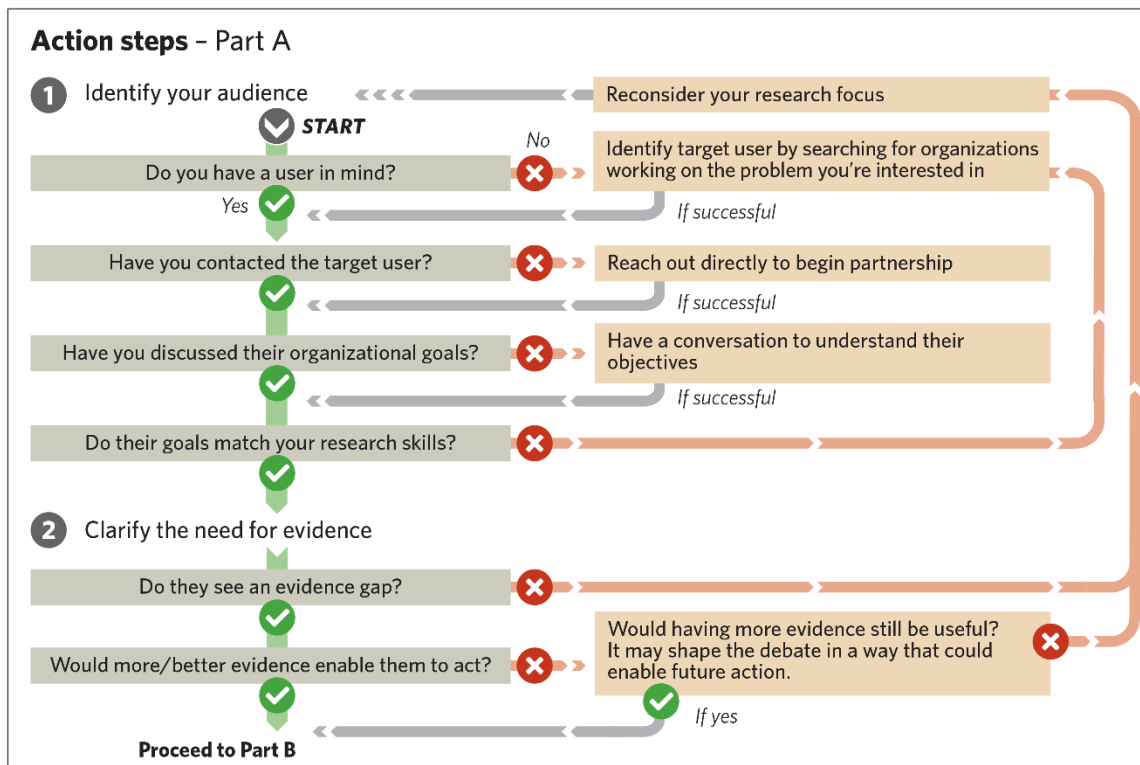


Figure 2. A potential decision tree for following the guidelines in this paper.



## Action steps - Part B

### 3 Gather "just enough" evidence

✔ **CONTINUE** from Part A

Translate knowledge of actions considered to research questions. Determine:

- If user needs quantitative or qualitative evidence
- Is new data needed, or would interpretation of existing data suffice?
- Timeline for action
- Amount and quality of evidence needed to act.

Is adaptive management an option?

✔ Design work plan with some up-front analysis, but also a plan to monitor the impact of implementation

✘ Design work plan that prioritizes up-front data collection and analysis, given time and funding constraints

1. Create communications plan
2. Conduct research

### 4 Share and discuss evidence

Develop a clear, compelling message

Communicate that message

- Discuss findings with users face to face
- Write journal article and general summary

Share all results and code