

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

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

19 their research; our paper has 5,219 words from the Abstract (146 words) through

20 Acknowledgements and excluding the Literature Cited, and we have 66 references, 2 figures,

21 and 1 table.

22 Abstract

23 Scientists devote substantive time and resources to research to help solve environmental
24 problems. Managers and policy makers must decide which actions will lead to desired
25 environmental outcomes, based on the best-available research. Yet decision-makers frequently
26 do not use much of this evidence. They may be unaware of it, lack access to it, not understand
27 it, or view it as irrelevant. This means a valuable resource (research) is often wasted. To
28 improve the impact of science on decision making, we outline a set of practical steps: (1)
29 Identify and understand your audience (or partners); (2) Clarify the need for evidence; (3)
30 Gather "just enough" evidence; and (4) Share and discuss the evidence. These are guidelines,
31 not a strict recipe for success, and can be challenging to implement. But we believe that these
32 recommendations should translate into science being used more often when informing
33 environmental and conservation decisions.

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

36

37 Introduction

38 Decisions about environmental policy and management are often made in short time-frames
39 and with high uncertainty. Environmental managers and policy makers need to quickly decide
40 what to do to achieve their goals (Esch et al. 2018). Applied scientists seek to (and are regularly
41 asked to) provide evidence to inform these decisions. And academic scientists are increasingly
42 motivated to conduct research that informs management and policy (Emerald Publishing 2019),

43 although less applied research also has value and scientists can have impact outside of research
44 (e.g. via serving as advisors).

45 Yet often research does not shape action (Knight et al. 2008, Sutherland and Wordley 2017),
46 and is designed without first talking to decision-makers. In our experience, scientists face a
47 double-edged sword. We are concerned about the slow pace of action and the lack of
48 willingness to use evidence to shape policy and practice. But we also struggle to deliver
49 evidence fast enough to affect decisions that are imminent. In addition, many scientists conduct
50 research that is disconnected from the decision making of managers and policy makers. The
51 result is that: 1) many scientists—whether in non-profits, government, or universities—produce
52 work that has little to no impact on the decisions they seek to influence; and 2) decisions are
53 often made without the information needed to evaluate alternate actions. This disconnect
54 between the supply and demand for research represents wasted opportunity. Solving this
55 requires more than science, including relationship building and communications.

56 There have been great advances in how to best synthesize and communicate evidence (Walsh
57 et al. 2014, Alahdab et al. 2016). A key gap remains in what comes before and after evidence
58 synthesis. Academics have analyzed this gap and recommend the need to bridge it (Cook et al.
59 2013, Enquist et al. 2017, Hallett et al. 2017, Lawson et al. 2017), but many practitioners are
60 unaware of this body of literature. This literature is insightful but often lacks step-by-step
61 practical guidelines for scientists that they can use to make their work more relevant and visible
62 to decision-makers. There are some exceptions with useful explicit suggestions (Jacobs et al.
63 2005, Cockburn et al. 2016, Beier et al. 2017, Pohl et al. 2017), but they are not well known by
64 practitioners and each omits some steps we have found to be important.

65 Here, we provide practical recommendations to increase the likelihood that science will lead to
66 impact. Our intended audience is non-profit, government and interested academic scientists of
67 all career stages. This includes both researchers and applied scientists who do not publish their
68 work. We are motivated by our own difficulties in shaping action; difficulties that arise from not
69 following some of the guidance we lay out here. Some of us have also been on the other side –
70 quickly looking for highly relevant science and coming up short. Improving is hard: even in
71 writing this, we struggled to follow our own advice at times. Most of our insights were gained
72 from past failures in both academic and applied settings. Our recommendations focus on how
73 to frame, conduct, and apply science.

74 In pursuit of clarity and brevity, we do not provide a comprehensive literature review. In
75 particular, our paper does not seek to replicate well-developed guidelines for evidence
76 synthesis (Dicks et al. 2014, Game et al. 2015, Esch et al. 2018, Qiu et al. 2018, Schwartz et al.
77 2018, Salafsky et al. 2019, and many more). We also recognize many papers have done an
78 excellent job of describing the problem and making a case for the value of more impactful and
79 inclusive science (Sutherland et al. 2004, McNie 2007, Knight et al. 2008, Enquist et al. 2017,
80 Wall et al. 2017, Bednarek et al. 2018). Instead, we focus primarily on *how* scientists can have
81 more impact. This is not easy, and does not guarantee success; our guidelines are relatively
82 simple and impact often depends on factors outside the control of scientists (Cairney and Oliver
83 2018). However, our guidelines should increase the likelihood of impact.

84 We group our recommendations into four areas: (1) Identify and understand your audience; (2)
85 Clarify the need for evidence; (3) Gather "just enough" evidence; and (4) Share and discuss the

86 evidence (Figure 1). In each we explain why it's important, how to do it, and what you should
87 know when done with that step.

88

89 1. Identify and understand your audience

90 It is more likely that your research will be used if it answers a specific question for a specific
91 group of decision-makers (your audience, "end users," or better yet, partners). Note that we
92 use 'audience' here for simplicity, but we recommend a "translational" or "transdisciplinary"
93 approach of partnering with decision-makers and other stakeholders throughout the research
94 process (Enquist et al. 2017).

95 1.1 Why it's important

96 Knowledge informs action through people in a variety of roles who will have different
97 objectives and information needs (Table 1). For instance, the actions of land stewards are often
98 influenced by immediate and practical management needs in a specific context. Program or
99 organizational leaders require information on the broader impact or relevance of different
100 strategies. Policy makers are frequently focused on the impact an action will have on desired
101 objectives, as well as the costs, trade-offs and co-benefits. Research and scientific evidence
102 need to influence several of these different kinds of decision-makers to lead to impact. These
103 decision-makers often require different types of evidence – and research products – to address
104 their needs and motivate them to change their planned actions. To that end, impactful science
105 requires that you understand who will use the scientific information you provide and in what

106 context. It also often requires collaborative work and sustained engagement with those
107 decision-makers to ensure buy-in and relevance (Cockburn et al. 2016).

108 Understanding the audience and how they may use evidence allows you to tailor the type and
109 form of evidence to better meet their needs. For research to be applied, it should answer a
110 question that is relevant to at least one type of decision-maker. Further, long-standing
111 relationships between practitioner and scientist build trust and credibility, and create
112 opportunities for impact including co-developing applied research (Cvitanovic et al. 2016,
113 Cairney and Oliver 2018). These relationships help scientists to understand the needs of their
114 partner, and to tailor their science to meet those needs.

115 Our guidance is focused on early-stage work with the objective of developing such long-
116 standing relationships and improving the efficacy of shorter ones. Such early-stage projects may
117 come from a motivated scientist without established relationships who is seeking to apply their
118 work to solve concrete problems. Similarly, applied scientists at nonprofit organizations may
119 have a mission-driven strategy focused on influencing specific policies or land use change,
120 without having clearly identified which decision-makers are most important to influence.

121 Scientists should be clear on their motivations and role – whether they are advocating for a
122 particular action, or serving as an honest broker of options to meet an outcome without strong
123 preferences of their own. Sharpening the focus of the research – and ultimately the end
124 products – on specific users will help improve the specificity of the research for the decision at
125 hand and improve the likelihood the research will be used.

126 As an example, given growing risks of severe forest fires in California there is a push to
127 reintroduce prescribed fire. But there are competing value systems that will influence if and
128 how this should be done. The conservation community already has solid evidence that
129 reintroducing fire as a natural process is necessary for restoring the resilience of western
130 forests (Hessburg et al. 2016). However, there are multiple barriers to increasing use of
131 prescribed fire. Among these are the potential public health impacts of smoke exposure (Brown
132 et al. 2009) and risk of property loss from escaped fires. To influence state agencies responsible
133 for permitting prescribed fire, scientists may need to show how prescribed fire size and timing
134 can minimize air quality and human health concerns (Prunicki et al. 2019). Alternatively, to get
135 support from the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), you may want to highlight
136 the ability of prescribed fire to reduce damage caused by wildfires.

137 1.2 How to do it

138 Before gathering evidence, identify and engage the audience who can make things happen on
139 the ground to help solve a problem of mutual interest.

140 1.2.1 Identify the specific, potential audience(s) you want to inform

141 There may be multiple audiences with different forms of influence and different science needs
142 who could partner with you to achieve tangible impact (Marshall et al. 2017). Decide whether
143 questions you address through research or evidence gathering are relevant to the decision
144 making of each targeted audience (not always possible), or just the one that is likely to have the
145 most influence on creating change.

146 1.2.2 Work with your target audience(s) to identify and clarify the problem(s) they are trying to
147 solve

148 Engage the key decision-makers and stakeholders to discuss their perspective on the problem.
149 If they are interested in a different problem, determine whether both can be solved together or
150 identify a problem that is a shared priority. Discuss possible applications which can sharpen the
151 research concept and lead to tangible collaborations. Understand their vision for the future as it
152 relates to this issue, and what aspects of research they value (Dunn and Laing 2017). Ideally
153 research is “co-produced” where stakeholders iteratively work together to design research
154 (Dilling and Lemos 2011, Beier et al. 2017, Enquist et al. 2017).

155 1.2.3 Engage in the community of practice you are trying to influence

156 This can include going to practitioner’s conferences and joining science advisory committees
157 that are collectively tackling the issue you are interested in. It could also include discussions on
158 social media or online forums, and even individual meetings with key stakeholders. Scientists
159 can play an important role in bringing parties together around an issue and guiding
160 collaborative development of research to solve a problem for specific decision-makers.

161 1.3 What you should know once you’ve done this step

162 You will have identified the stakeholders who influence the problem you want to help solve,
163 their needs and objectives, how they see the problem, and whether they perceive a need for
164 evidence. If they were not interested or need evidence outside of your expertise, you can
165 recommend scientists or organizations better suited to meet their needs. Alternatively, if you
166 began with specific stakeholders already in mind and you now understand their interests and

167 needs, you will have developed a better idea of how to collaborate with them and how they
168 view the problem.

169

170 2. Clarify the need for evidence

171 Evidence often does not lead to action, especially when the wrong evidence is collected. Build
172 on your understanding of your audience and determine what evidence *would* motivate and
173 empower them to do something new or different.

174 2.1 Why it's important

175 After identifying your intended audience and their objectives, work with them to identify what
176 type of evidence is most needed. It is important to understand how the target audience
177 perceives evidence, and whether or not a lack of evidence is a barrier to change (Marshall et al.
178 2017, Kary et al. 2018). For example, more research on the causes of climate change has had a
179 minimal effect on public beliefs about the underlying cause (Brulle et al. 2012). Further, when
180 conflicting evidence exists, it can lead to camps becoming entrenched behind different
181 paradigms. The role of applied science should be to contribute the most useful knowledge to
182 help the actors reach a decision, although evidence alone rarely catalyzes action.

183 Decision-makers and scientists may have different ideas of the type of evidence needed (Game
184 et al. 2018). Consider the example of mitigating climate change through soil management that
185 sequesters carbon from the atmosphere into soils (Zomer et al. 2017). To include soil
186 management in formulating national greenhouse gas emission targets for the United Nations
187 Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), evidence is needed to identify which

188 practices most effectively build soil carbon. Why soil carbon stocks increase is less relevant.
189 Although there is intense academic debate about the why (Amundson and Biardeau 2018),
190 resolving this debate may not inform action.

191 2.2 How to do it

192 The following recommendations align with established guidelines for developing theories of
193 change.

194 2.2.1 Identify if the audience thinks there is an evidence gap (and why)

195 A perceived evidence gap can come from a lack of evidence, or because available evidence is
196 seen as inadequate. Understanding whether the audience thinks there is an evidence gap – and
197 why – will help you determine whether to collect new evidence, or whether to re-synthesize or
198 refine communication of existing information.

199 2.2.2 Identify actions the decision-maker is considering

200 Usually if a decision-maker is considering taking action, they have a set of potential actions in
201 mind at specific spatial and temporal scales. Understanding actions being considered and how
202 they will decide between them will help you hone your research to increase the likelihood of
203 impacting those actions. Scientists sometimes overlook the policy context – how current policy
204 and regulations influence the decision, and what may need to change. This will likely impact
205 how they consider evidence and make decisions. Respect the legitimacy of their decision-
206 making process and how they weigh science against other factors like public consensus.

207 2.2.3 Determine if new evidence will be enough to drive action

208 In some cases, an audience may want to act but lacks the capacity to do so. For example, they
209 may lack financing or staff capacity, in which case even highly relevant new evidence may have
210 no impact. There also may be high organizational resistance to new actions. If these barriers
211 block action more than lack of evidence, explore whether your new research may help them
212 overcome the barriers. For example, whether robust evidence for importance of the desired
213 action would help them raise funds to make it possible.

214 2.2.4 Translate actions being considered into research questions

215 The need for evidence is often too broad to be actionable until it is translated into key research
216 questions. For instance, planting winter cover crops on farms is often claimed to improve soil
217 health. This claim could be evaluated by measuring how much carbon is built up when applying
218 a specific cover-crop mixture. These questions are often more specific than the overall evidence
219 need, so it is important that generating questions be done collaboratively with the end users to
220 ensure data will be enough to advance action (once collected, synthesized, and communicated).

221 2.3 What you should know once you've done this step

222 You will know whether new evidence is likely to inform actions taken, and what type of
223 evidence is most needed. You will also have specific research questions developed in
224 partnership with end users that fill an evidence gap in a way that will help catalyze action.

225

226 3 Gather “just enough” evidence

227 Tailor your evidence collection to accommodate the realities of policy and practice (limited time
228 and resources available), while advocating for the rigor needed for action to be credible.

229 3.1 Why it’s important

230 Gathering evidence takes time and money that could be spent on implementation (Salzer and
231 Salafsky 2008). Further, the ability of new evidence to influence decisions often has a limited
232 timeframe (e.g. new legislation or incentive programs are being considered on a certain date).

233 The effort dedicated to gathering or synthesizing evidence should reflect the timeframe for
234 making a decision (Dunn and Laing 2017) and the expected value of having new information.

235 The “Value of Information” (VOI) is influenced by factors such as risk associated with making a
236 poor decision, stakeholder comfort with uncertainty, and cost of gathering more information
237 (McDonald-Madden et al. 2010, Polasky et al. 2011, Runge et al. 2011, Canessa et al. 2015,
238 Maxwell et al. 2015, Minelli and Baio 2015, Bennett et al. 2018).

239 For example, Fisher et al. (2018) evaluated an end user’s decision to invest in conservation to
240 improve water quality rather than building a new water pipeline. Comparing models using high-
241 resolution (1-m) spatial data to models using lower resolution data (30-m) they found the finer-
242 scale data would not have changed the decision made to invest in conservation. In this case,
243 higher accuracy did not drive better decisions, but did raise program costs. Beyond accuracy
244 and spatial resolution, “just enough” can relate to many facets of evidence synthesis and
245 creation, including depth and breadth of literature review, complexity of modeling, the extent
246 of new data collection, and the precision of estimated effects. Additional effort for evidence
247 collection should be carefully weighed against the probability of it influencing the decision

248 (Canessa et al. 2015). Research may be used for future decisions in unexpected ways, but this is
249 hard to predict.

250 Risk tolerance and uncertainty influence how much effort should be invested in evidence
251 gathering. When uncertainty is high, but known or perceived risks of the wrong decision are
252 low, then acting immediately, without new evidence, may be the appropriate strategy. Actions
253 can then be improved through adaptive management. However, if the risk is high or tolerance
254 for risk is low, then the value of new information increases (Howard, 1966). Yet risk and
255 uncertainty come in various guises, which can influence the impact new evidence will have on a
256 decision.

257 For example, when crafting policies to incentivize reducing greenhouse gas emissions, many
258 forms of uncertainty exist, and their importance varies with context and the kind of decision
259 made (Hawkins and Sutton 2009). When quantitative greenhouse gas reductions are tied to
260 regulatory or funding incentives, improved precision of the impact of management
261 interventions can be high. There is usually high uncertainty in modeled estimates of the impact
262 of different interventions, and high value in research to improve those estimates. But when
263 setting broader climate policy (e.g. to guide global targets and investment), precise estimates
264 are less important than identifying which major drivers of climate change to target (Knutti and
265 Sedláček 2013, Bradford et al. 2016). Policy makers working at different spatial and temporal
266 scales may then vary in how they weigh different types of uncertainty.

267 [3.2 How to do it](#)

268 Gather the amount and type of evidence needed to inform a decision in a timely manner.

269 3.2.1 Understand the type of data your audience needs

270 Establish whether specific quantitative evidence is needed to ensure an outcome (e.g. X tons of
271 CO₂e reduced by a certain practice at a certain location and timeline) or if qualitative directional
272 evidence will suffice (e.g. intervention X will increase CO₂e captured, or will increase it more
273 than intervention Y). Explore whether site-specific information is needed, or if general
274 information will do. For example, conservation agriculture on average increases soil carbon, but
275 won't for some geographies because of soil type and climate (Govaerts et al. 2009).

276 3.2.2 Tailor the type of evidence to the value of information

277 Different approaches vary in their strengths and weaknesses, ranging from time-consuming,
278 quantitative meta-analyses usually focused on a narrow body of literature to rapid expert
279 assessments that provide a qualitative projection of outcomes but may be more inclusive of
280 available evidence (Grant and Booth 2009). If the value of new information is low and/or time
281 constraints are high, consider expert assessment or other rapid methods. If the value of
282 information is high and time allows, consider more time-intensive approaches.

283 3.2.3 Evaluate the potential for adaptive management

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

288 3.2.4 Make and execute a work plan that meets the hard deadline for a decision to be made
289 Working with decision-makers, identify methods appropriate for the research question and
290 type of data needed. Given resource and other constraints, ensure that data collection or
291 synthesis can be completed in time to influence the decision.

292 3.3 What you should know once you've done this step

293 You understand the appropriate time, rigor, and approach for collecting and synthesizing “just
294 enough” evidence to best inform an action or policy given the audience’s known tolerance for
295 risk.

296

297 4. Share and discuss the evidence

298 Most scientific articles are not read by targeted or potential audiences. To achieve the desired
299 impact of their research, scientists should invest time in how the evidence is communicated.

300 4.1 Why it's important

301 If evidence is not seen and understood by the relevant audience, it will have little to no impact
302 on action (Dunn and Laing 2017). Many excellent peer-reviewed papers are not read beyond
303 researchers. Even applied journals in conservation and ecology are not regularly read by
304 environmental managers and policy makers. Peer-reviewed papers are still tremendously
305 important outlets for reporting science, but are insufficient to ensure adoption of information
306 (van Kerkhoff and Lebel 2006). Even where work is co-developed (and potentially co-
307 implemented) with potential users, the highly technical language of peer-reviewed work can
308 limit full understanding and, thus, potential application. Impact can be improved by

309 communicating results to the broadest suite of relevant audiences in ways that capture
310 attention and meet their needs.

311 4.2 How to do it

312 Building on the three steps outlined in previous sections, scientists should invest in
313 communicating their findings (Figure 2). This may require an investment in your own
314 professional development as a scientist (such as communications training), and enlisting help
315 from communications experts.

316 4.2.1 Develop a clear, compelling message

317 You should have a consistent message summarizing your research that will motivate your
318 audience. It should include key results, why they matter, and clear recommendations or options
319 for decision-makers (Ruhl et al. 2019). A good message is short but memorable, avoids
320 denigrating the audience's beliefs, and is positive (Cook and Lewandowsky 2011). People want
321 to see solutions that show how they can have positive impact, rather than avoiding what they
322 have been doing wrong (Tversky and Kahneman 1981). There are several trainings (online and
323 in-person) publicly available to help scientists craft and deliver clear messages, and your
324 audience will be key in both developing and testing your message. Examples include COMPASS'
325 Message Box training and Alan Alda's Center for Communicating Science. There are also written
326 resources like "Don't be such a scientist" (Olson 2009) and "Do I make myself clear?" (Evans
327 2017).

328 4.2.2 Document relevance and caveats associated with the evidence

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

336 4.2.3 Create a communications plan as part of the research design

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

346 4.2.4 Meet with your audience(s) face-to-face

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

350 are equal; the quality of interaction depends, in part, on how well you communicate, which is
351 why communications training is so valuable. These personal interactions are part of a long
352 process of building relationships with decision-makers that is essential to see your work make
353 an impact in the world.

354 4.2.5 Improve your writing

355 You need to produce good written products, through improving your writing skills and/or
356 enlisting help from experts. “Good” products provide information that is efficiently understood
357 and used by the intended audience. This is a challenge for even experienced writers. Always
358 seek feedback on your writing from multiple people outside of your technical area, including
359 from a potential user, communications expert, or friend. This can help you find jargon and
360 knowledge assumptions that impede full understanding. Even peer-reviewed journal articles
361 should have a compelling narrative with engaging language, while also being technical and
362 precise (Schimel 2012).

363 4.2.6 Remove barriers to access

364 Lack of access to protected articles is a barrier for a decision-makers, so commit to making
365 research papers and products publicly available. If open access is not an option, posting the
366 accepted version on a personal website is typically permitted. Follow copyright laws and journal
367 guidelines; sharing via institutional web pages, or repositories like ResearchGate, is increasingly
368 not allowed. Before acceptance, you can post a copy of your submission in a pre-print archive,
369 which allows you to share your product with your audience earlier.

370 4.2.7 Publish accessible summaries of your work

371 Write and share non-technical summaries of your results on social media, for a blog, or other
372 online outlets (e.g. for The Conversation, a research news site dedicated to sharing scientific
373 research in a journalistic style; The Conversation US Inc. 2019). Ensure your summaries are
374 accessible and engaging. Ideally use a variety of approaches, as different people learn better
375 through diagrams, by reading, or by listening. Communicate key technical terms and concepts
376 with a good narrative — use engaging language without obscuring nuance (Dubé and Lapane
377 2014) and connect to tangible examples (Dahlstrom 2014). For example, a story about a farmer
378 who planted cover crops may be more memorable than citing the mean reduction in soil
379 erosion under cover crops. Then, promote your own work through social media with an
380 engaging tweet (or a coordinated series of tweets) that link to the summaries and the paper.

381 4.2.8 Share all data and code, not just statistically significant findings

382 Following best practices in data availability means your work is more available to both
383 academics and non-target decision-makers. A bias towards significant findings in peer-reviewed
384 literature can mask what does not work. We recommend making all results available and
385 visible, even if they are not the center-point of your communications strategy (Sutherland et al.
386 2004). Key findings should be summarized in an evidence library (e.g. Conservation Evidence;
387 ConservationEvidence.com, 2019). Data should be archived in a repository (e.g. Knowledge
388 Network for Biocomplexity or others depending on norms for a given field) that generates
389 digital object identifiers (DOIs) and cites these in publications. We recommend sharing code on
390 GitHub.

391 4.3 What you should know once you've done this step

392 You have a communications plan developed with your research team, and ideally with your
393 intended audience. After you have results, you have met with users and discussed your work.
394 You published your work in a technical journal, and/or you have non-technical products. Your
395 target audience can accurately describe the core findings of the work and how that evidence is
396 important to their potential actions. Finally, you shared all data and code (within legal and
397 ethical limits) on a stable repository, ideally with a DOI for data.

398

399 Conclusion

400 Scientists need to work deliberately on shaping their science to have impact. This applies both
401 to applied scientists whose job requires influencing decision-makers, and to academic
402 researchers interested in having their work be applied. The practical steps outlined here are
403 critical elements to having a tangible influence on decision making. Ideally scientists can follow
404 them from start to finish when involved in a project from the beginning, working with
405 colleagues with complementary expertise (in policy, communications, boundary-spanning, etc.).
406 See Figure 2 for a potential decision tree for this process. However, they are guidelines rather
407 than a recipe. Following them doesn't guarantee success (especially when seeking to influence
408 major policy change, Cairney and Oliver 2018) and may not always be possible. Luck and
409 persistence are also often needed.

410 When engaging on a project where decisions have already been made (e.g. defining an
411 audience and the need for evidence), reviewing all steps can help you catch up and improve the

412 chance that the work going forward will have impact. How you engage will likely be influenced
413 by the context, as well as the resources available to both you and the decision-makers. For
414 example, many decision-makers are embedded within organizations that have effective
415 communications, so your role could be limited to ensuring the veracity of evidence presented.
416 However, even in this context, the scientist should remain involved in development of
417 communications materials to ensure important details from the evidence are not lost.
418 Focusing your involvement in areas that best fit your expertise and those that the decision-
419 makers lack, will help you efficiently inform the decision process. Engaging in this process
420 should lead to a stronger relationship between scientist and users (ideally long-term). In many
421 organizations, scientists often serve multiple roles as applied scientists and facilitators of
422 partnerships with management agencies or individual managers. We believe that strong
423 applied science relies on forming trusting relationships between scientists and their partners.
424 Following this guidance should help those relationships develop. Ideally much of our guidance
425 will eventually feel normal and become part of how you work with decision-makers.
426 We deeply appreciate that people spend a great deal of time developing and synthesizing
427 much-needed science to help address problems in conservation and the environment. Our
428 hope is that the recommendations we make will translate to that science being used more to
429 inform decisions about the issues you care about.

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Tables

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

Type of user	Description	Nature of objective	Most useful knowledge
Land steward	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
Project/Program Manager	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	Practical and context-specific, as well as broader awareness of enabling conditions

		includes how these factors interact with each other to influence the outcomes for the target issues.	
Department or Agency Leader, Executive Director, Policy Maker	Leader of a government agency or large department, or an executive leader for non-profit organization	Needs to know multiple benefits, 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.	Practical-Conceptual
Philanthropist or Influencer	A major donor or public figure who can dedicate resources, catalyze	Wants to know the latest and most impactful science and	Conceptual

	support, and/or influence public opinion	practice to promote promising work.	
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Figures

Figure 1. Steps to increase the likelihood that research will have an impact on decision making.

This may not be a linear process, but generally will begin at the top and move down. Consider monitoring the influence of the work to improve in the future.

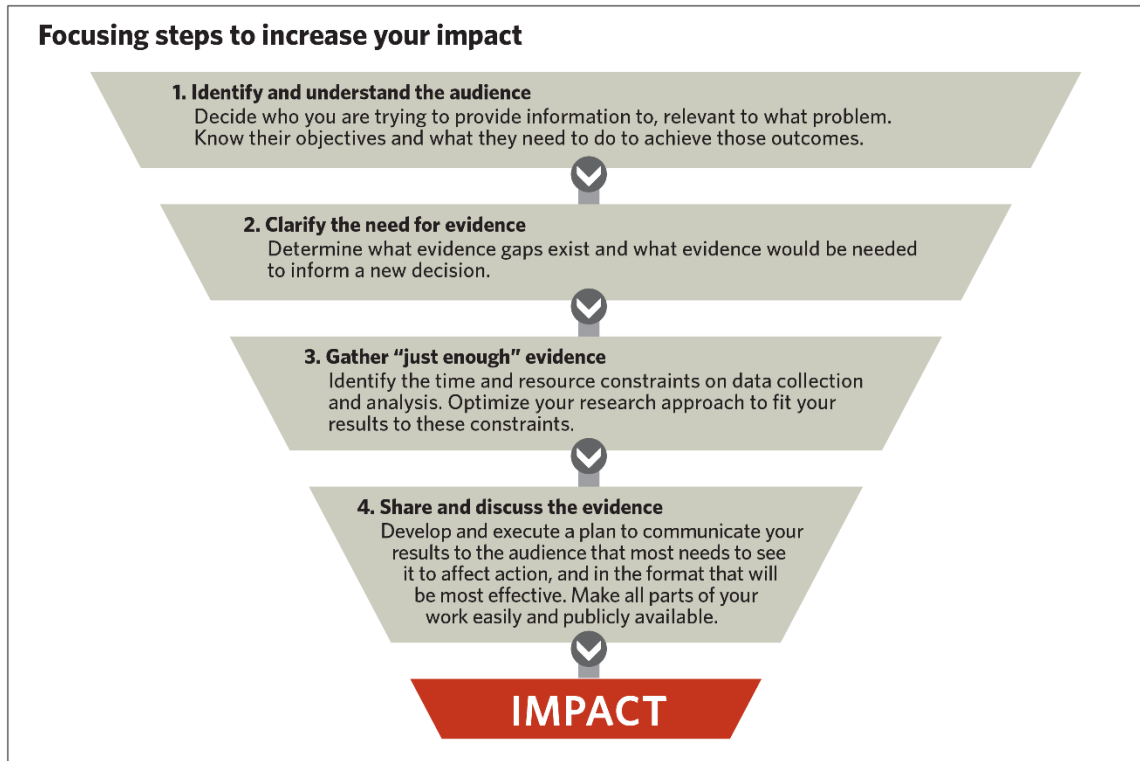
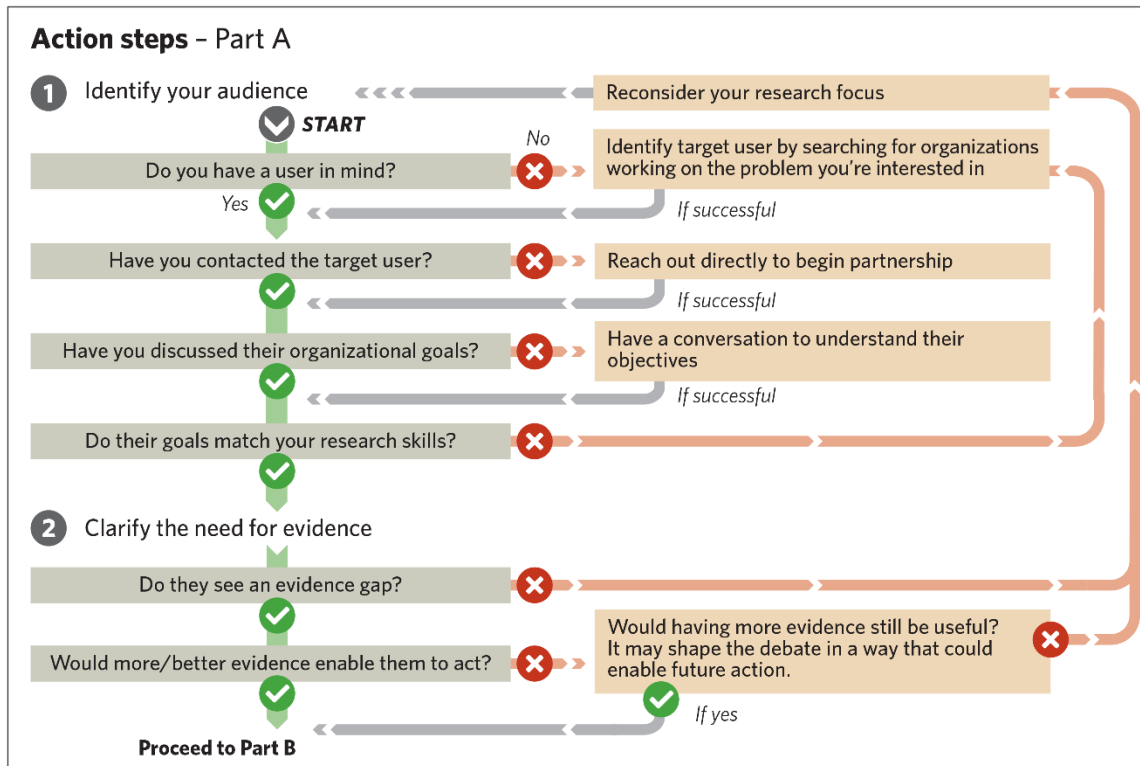


Figure 2. A potential decision tree for following the guidelines in this paper.



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