

1 [Improving your impact: how to practice science that influences environmental policy and](#)
2 [management](#)

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Scientists devote substantive time and resources to collecting evidence to help solve
15 environmental problems. Managers and policy makers must decide which actions will lead to
16 desired environmental outcomes, based on the best-available evidence. Yet decision-makers
17 frequently do not use much of this evidence. They may be unaware of it, lack access to it, not
18 understand it, or view it as irrelevant. To improve the impact of science on decision making, we
19 outline a set of practical steps: (1) Identify and understand your audience; (2) Clarify the need
20 for evidence; (3) Gather "just enough" evidence; and (4) Share and discuss the evidence.
21 Scientists unable to do each step in this order can still increase the applied impact of their
22 science, especially as part of a larger team. Our hope is that these recommendations will
23 translate into science being used more often when informing environmental and conservation
24 decisions.

25 **Keywords:** evidence, science communication, stakeholder engagement, applied science,
26 decision making

27

28 **Introduction**

29 Decisions about environmental policy and management are often made in short time-frames
30 and with high uncertainty. Environmental managers and policy makers need to quickly decide
31 what to do to achieve their goals (Esch et al. 2018). Applied scientists seek to (and are regularly
32 asked to) provide evidence to inform these decisions. And university scientists are increasingly
33 motivated to conduct research that informs management and policy (Sutherland et al. 2004),
34 although less applied research also has value.

35 Yet most research does not shape action (Sutherland and Wordley 2017), and is often designed
36 without first talking to decision-makers. In our experience, scientists face a double-edged
37 sword. Often, we are concerned about the slow pace of action and the lack of willingness to use
38 evidence to shape policy and practice. But, just as often, we struggle to deliver evidence fast
39 enough to affect decisions that are imminent. In addition, many scientists conduct research
40 that is disconnected from the decision making of managers and policy makers. The result is

41 that: 1) many scientists—whether in non-profits, government, or universities—produce work
42 that has little-to-no impact on the decision making they are looking to influence; and 2)
43 decisions are often made in the absence of adequate information required to evaluate
44 alternate actions. Solving this requires more than science, including relationship building and
45 communications.

46 There have been great advances in how to best synthesize and communicate evidence (Walsh
47 et al. 2014, Alahdab et al. 2016). We believe that the key gap remains in what comes before
48 and after evidence synthesis. Academics have analyzed this gap and recommend the need to
49 bridge it (Cook et al. 2013, Enquist et al. 2017, Hallett et al. 2017, Lawson et al. 2017). This
50 literature is insightful but often lacks practical guidelines for scientists that they can use to
51 make their work more relevant and visible to decision-makers (but see Cockburn et al. 2016).

52 Here, we provide practical recommendations to increase the likelihood that science will lead to
53 impact. Our intended audience is non-profit, government and interested academic scientists of
54 all career stages. This includes both researchers and applied scientists who do not publish their
55 work. We are motivated by our own difficulties in shaping action; difficulties that arise from not
56 following some of the guidance we lay out here. We come from different backgrounds, both
57 academic and applied. Our recommendations are focused on how to frame, conduct, and apply
58 science, but are complementary to well-developed guidelines for evidence synthesis (Dicks et
59 al. 2014, Polasky et al. 2017, Esch et al. 2018, Schwartz et al. 2018).

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

63

64 1. Identify and understand your audience

65 It is more likely that your research will be used if it answers a specific question for a specific
66 group of decision-makers (your audience, or “end users”).

67 1.1 Why it’s important

68 Knowledge informs action through people in a variety of roles who will have different
69 objectives and information needs (Table 1). For instance, the actions of land stewards are often
70 influenced by immediate and practical management needs in a specific context. Program or
71 organizational leaders require information on the broader impact or relevance of different
72 strategies. Policy makers are frequently focused on the impact an action will have on desired
73 objectives, as well as the costs, trade-offs and co-benefits. Research and scientific evidence
74 need to influence several of these different kinds of decision-makers to lead to impact. These
75 decision-makers often require different types of evidence – and research products – to address
76 their needs and motivate them to change their planned actions. To that end, impactful science
77 requires that you understand who will use the scientific information you provide and in what
78 context. It also often requires collaborative work and sustained engagement with those
79 decision-makers (Cockburn et al. 2016).

80 Understanding the audience and how they may use evidence allows you to tailor the type and
81 form of evidence to better meet their needs. For research to be applied, it should answer a
82 question that is relevant to at least one type of decision-maker. An applied research project
83 may emerge in the context of a long-standing relationship between practitioner and scientist. In
84 this case the scientist likely already understands the needs of their partner and is tailoring their
85 science to meet those needs. These relationships are powerful tools for linking science to
86 action, but do not always exist.

87 Our guidance is focused on early-stage work with the objective of developing such long-
88 standing relationships and improving the efficacy of shorter ones. Such early-stage projects may
89 come from a motivated scientist without established relationships who is seeking to apply their
90 work to solve concrete problems. Similarly, applied scientists at nonprofit organizations may
91 have a mission-driven strategy focused on influencing specific policies or land use change,
92 without having clearly identified which decision-makers are most important to influence.
93 Scientists should be clear on their motivations and role – whether they are advocating for a
94 particular action, or serving as an honest broker of options to meet an outcome without strong
95 preferences of their own. Sharpening the focus of the research – and ultimately the end
96 products – on specific users will help improve the specificity of the research for the decision at
97 hand and improve the likelihood the research will be used.

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

109 [1.2 How to do it](#)

110 Before gathering evidence, identify and engage the audience who can make things happen on
111 the ground to help solve your problem of interest.

112 [1.2.1 Identify the specific, potential audience\(s\) you want to inform](#)

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

118 1.2.2 Work with your target audience(s) to identify and clarify the problem(s) they are trying to
119 solve

120 Engage the key decision-makers to discuss their perspective on the problem (whether the same
121 as your problem, or a different one). If different, determine whether both can be solved
122 together with the same actions. Discuss possible applications which can sharpen the research
123 concept and lead to tangible collaborations.

124 1.2.3 Engage in the community of practice you are trying to influence

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

130 1.3 What you should know once you've done this step

131 You will have identified the stakeholders who influence the problem you want to help solve,
132 their needs and objectives, how they see the problem, and whether they perceive a need for
133 evidence. If they were not interested or need evidence outside of your expertise, you can
134 recommend scientists or organizations better suited to meet their needs. Alternatively, you
135 may have identified ways to modify your research proposal to better fit their needs, if you see
136 potential to inform their decision making (either now, or in the future when timing is better).

137

138 2. Clarify the need for evidence

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

142 2.1 Why it's important

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

151 Decision-makers and scientists may have different ideas of the type of evidence needed (Game
152 et al. 2018). Consider the example of mitigating climate change through soil management that
153 sequesters carbon from the atmosphere into soils (Zomer et al. 2017). To include soil
154 management in formulating national greenhouse gas emission targets for the United Nations
155 Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), evidence is needed to identify which
156 practices most effectively build soil carbon. *Why* soil carbon stocks increase is less relevant.

157 Although there is intense academic debate about the *why* (Amundson and Biardeau 2018),
158 resolving this debate may not inform action.

159 2.2 How to do it

160 The following recommendations align with established guidelines for developing theories of
161 change.

162 2.2.1 Identify if the audience thinks there is an evidence gap (and why)

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

167 2.2.2 Identify actions the decision-maker is considering

168 Usually if a decision-maker is considering taking action, they have a set of potential actions in
169 mind. Understanding actions being considered helps you hone your evidence collection to
170 increase the likelihood of impacting action.

171 2.2.3 Determine if new evidence will be enough to drive action

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

178 2.2.4 Translate actions being considered into research questions

179 The articulated need for evidence is often too broad to be actionable until it is translated into
180 key research questions. For instance, planting winter cover crops on farms is often claimed to
181 improve soil health. If asked to provide evidence evaluating this claim, one question to explore
182 could be how much carbon is built up when applying a specific cover-crop mixture. These
183 questions are often more specific than the overall evidence need, so it is important that
184 generating questions be done collaboratively with the end user to ensure data will be enough
185 to advance action (once collected, synthesized, and communicated).

186 2.3 What you should know once you've done this step

187 You will know whether new evidence is likely to inform actions taken, and what type of
188 evidence is most needed. You will also have specific research questions developed in
189 partnership with the user that fill at least part of the evidence gap in a way that will help
190 catalyze action.

191

192 3 Gather “just enough” evidence

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

195 [3.1 Why it's important](#)

196 Gathering evidence takes time and money that could be spent on implementation (Salzer and
197 Salafsky 2008). Further, the ability of new evidence to influence decisions often has a limited
198 timeframe (e.g. new legislation or incentive programs are being considered on a certain date).
199 The effort dedicated to gathering or synthesizing evidence should reflect the timeframe for
200 making a decision and the expected value of having new information. The “Value of
201 Information” (VOI) is influenced by factors such as risk associated with making a poor decision,
202 stakeholder comfort with uncertainty, and cost of gathering more information (McDonald-
203 Madden et al. 2010, Polasky et al. 2011, Runge et al. 2011, Canessa et al. 2015, Maxwell et al.
204 2015, Minelli and Baio 2015, Bennett et al. 2018).

205 For example, Fisher et al. (2018) evaluated an end user’s decision to invest in conservation to
206 improve water quality rather than building a new water pipeline. Comparing models using high-
207 resolution (1-m) spatial data to models using lower resolution data (30-m) they found the finer-
208 scale data would not have changed the decision made to invest in conservation. In this case,
209 higher accuracy did not drive better decisions, but did raise program costs. Beyond accuracy
210 and spatial resolution, “just enough” can relate to many facets of evidence synthesis and
211 creation, including depth and breadth of literature review, complexity of modeling, the extent
212 of new data collection, and the precision of estimated effects. Additional effort for evidence
213 collection should be carefully weighed against the probability of it influencing the decision
214 (Canessa et al. 2015).

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

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

232 [3.2 How to do it](#)

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

234 3.2.1 Understand the type of data your audience needs
235 Establish whether specific quantitative evidence is needed to ensure an outcome (e.g. X tons of
236 CO₂e reduced by a certain practice at a certain location and timeline) or if qualitative directional
237 evidence will suffice (e.g. intervention X will increase CO₂e captured, or will increase it more
238 than intervention Y). Explore whether site-specific information is needed, or if general
239 information will do. For example, conservation agriculture on average increases soil carbon, but
240 won't for some geographies because of soil type and climate (Govaerts et al. 2009).

241 3.2.2 Tailor the type of evidence to the value of information
242 Different approaches vary in their strengths and weaknesses, ranging from time-consuming,
243 quantitative meta-analyses usually focused on a narrow body of literature to rapid expert
244 assessments that provide a qualitative projection of outcomes but may be more inclusive of
245 available evidence (Grant and Booth 2009). If the value of new information is low and/or time
246 constraints are high, consider expert assessment or other rapid methods. If the value of
247 information is high and time allows, consider more time-intensive approaches.

248 3.2.3 Evaluate the potential for adaptive management
249 Adaptive management is a continual learning process. It emphasizes trying different practices,
250 measuring their success, and changing management accordingly (Walters 1986). If adaptive
251 management is viable (especially if the initial value of new information is low), invest more
252 effort in planning for monitoring than on generating extensive evidence up front.

253 3.2.4 Make and execute a work plan that meets the hard deadline for a decision to be made
254 Identify methods appropriate for the research question and type of data needed. Given
255 resource and other constraints, ensure that data collection or synthesis can be completed in
256 time to influence the decision.

257 3.3 What you should know once you've done this step
258 You understand the appropriate time, rigor, and approach for collecting and synthesizing "just
259 enough" evidence to best inform an action or policy given the audience's known tolerance for
260 risk.

261

262 4. Share and discuss the evidence

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

265 4.1 Why it's important

266 If evidence is not seen and understood by the relevant audience, it will have little to no impact
267 on action. Many excellent peer-reviewed papers are not read beyond researchers. Even applied
268 journals in conservation and ecology are not regularly read by environmental managers and
269 policy makers. Peer-reviewed papers are still tremendously important outlets for reporting
270 science, but are insufficient to ensure adoption of information (van Kerkhoff and Lebel 2006).
271 Even where work is co-developed (and potentially co-implemented) with potential users, the
272 highly technical language of peer-reviewed work can limit full understanding and, thus,

273 potential application. Impact can be improved by communicating results to the broadest suite
274 of relevant audiences in ways that capture attention and meet their needs.

275 4.2 How to do it

276 Building on the three steps outlined in previous sections, scientists should invest in
277 communicating their findings (Figure 2). This may require an investment in your own
278 professional development as a scientist, such as communications training.

279 4.2.1 Develop a clear, compelling message

280 You should have a consistent message summarizing your research that will motivate your
281 audience. It should include key results, why they matter, and clear recommendations or options
282 for decision-makers. A good message is short but memorable, avoids denigrating the audience's
283 beliefs, and is positive (Cook and Lewandowski 2011). People want to see solutions that show
284 how they can have positive impact, rather than avoiding what they have been doing wrong
285 (Tversky and Kahneman 1981). There are several trainings (online and in-person) publicly
286 available to help scientists craft and deliver clear messages. Examples include COMPASS'
287 Message Box training and Alan Alda's Center for Communicating Science. There are also written
288 resources like "Don't be such a scientist" (Olson 2009) and "Do I make myself clear?" (Evans
289 2017).

290 4.2.2 Document relevance and caveats associated with the evidence

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

298 4.2.3 Create a communications plan as part of the research design

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

308 4.2.4 Meet with your audience(s) face-to-face

309 Face-to-face interaction between scientists and users is one of the most important ways to
310 increase use of evidence (Seavy and Howell 2010). This can include meetings, field visits,
311 workshops, conferences, and high-quality videoconferencing. Not all face-to-face interactions
312 are equal; the quality of interaction depends, in part, on how well you communicate, which is
313 why communications training is so valuable. These personal interactions are part of a long

314 process of building relationships with decision-makers that is essential to see your work make
315 an impact in the world.

316 4.2.5 Improve your writing

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

325 4.2.6 Remove barriers to access

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

332 4.2.7 Publish accessible summaries of your work

333 Write and share non-technical summaries of your results on social media, for a blog, or other
334 online outlets (e.g. for The Conversation, a research news site dedicated to sharing scientific
335 research in a journalistic style; The Conversation US Inc. 2019). Ensure your summaries are
336 accessible and engaging. Ideally use a variety of approaches, as different people learn better
337 through diagrams, by reading, or by listening. Communicate key technical terms and concepts
338 with a good narrative — use engaging language without obscuring nuance (Dubé and Lapane
339 2014) and connect to tangible examples (Dahlstrom 2014). For example, a story about a farmer
340 who planted cover crops may be more memorable than citing the mean reduction in soil
341 erosion under cover crops. Then, promote your own work through social media with an
342 engaging tweet (or a coordinated series of tweets) that link to the summaries and the paper.

343 4.2.8 Share all data and code, not just statistically significant findings

344 Following best practices in data availability means your work is more available to both
345 academics and non-target decision-makers. A bias towards significant findings in peer-reviewed
346 literature can mask what does not work. We recommend making all results available and
347 visible, even if they are not the center-point of your communications strategy (Sutherland et al.
348 2004). Key findings should be summarized in an evidence library (e.g. Conservation Evidence;
349 ConservationEvidence.com, 2019). Data should be archived in a repository (e.g. Knowledge
350 Network for Biocomplexity or others depending on norms for a given field) that generates
351 digital object identifiers (DOIs) and cites these in publications. We recommend sharing code on
352 GitHub.

353 4.3 What you should know once you've done this step

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

360

361 Conclusion

362 Scientists need to work deliberately on shaping their science to have impact. This applies both
363 to applied scientists whose job requires influencing decision-makers, and to academic
364 researchers interested in having their work be applied. The practical steps outlined here are
365 critical elements to having a tangible influence on decision making. Ideally scientists can follow
366 them from start to finish when involved in a project from the beginning, working with
367 colleagues with complementary expertise. See Figure 2 for a potential decision tree for this
368 process. However, when asked to engage on a project where decisions have already been made
369 (e.g. defining an audience and the need for evidence) there is still value in reviewing all steps to
370 understand what has been learned and how to ensure the work going forward will have impact.
371 How you engage will likely be influenced by the context, as well as the resources available to
372 both you and the decision-makers. For example, many decision-makers are embedded within
373 organizations that have effective communications, so your role could be limited to ensuring the
374 veracity of evidence presented. However, even in this context, the scientist should remain
375 involved in development of communications materials to ensure important details from the
376 evidence are not lost.

377

378 Focusing your involvement in areas that best fit your expertise and those that the decision-
379 makers lack, will help you efficiently inform the decision process. Engaging in this process
380 should lead to a stronger relationship between scientist and user. In many organizations,
381 scientists often serve multiple roles as applied scientists and facilitators of partnerships with
382 management agencies or individual managers. We believe that strong applied science relies on
383 forming trusting relationships between scientists and their partners. Following this guidance
384 should help those relationships develop. Ideally much of our guidance will eventually feel
385 normal and become part of your established process of engagement with decision-makers.

386

387 We deeply appreciate that people spend a great deal of time developing and synthesizing
388 much-needed science to help address problems in conservation and the environment. Our
389 hope is that the recommendations we make will translate to that science being used more to
390 inform decisions about the issues you care about.

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399 **Authorship contributions**

400 All authors contributed to this work equally.

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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 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
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. The steps this paper recommended 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 (begin with Part A and proceed to Part B).

