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1 **[Published in Environmental Modelling and Software]**

2 **Technical assessment and evaluation of environmental models**
3 **and software: Letter to the Editor:**

4

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40

41 **Rationale**

42 This letter details the collective views of a number of independent researchers on the
43 technical assessment and evaluation of environmental models and software. The purpose
44 is to stimulate debate and initiate action that leads to an improved quality of model
45 development and evaluation, so increasing the capacity for models to have positive
46 outcomes from their use. As such, we emphasise the relationship between the model
47 evaluation process and credibility with stakeholders (including funding agencies) with a
48 view to ensure continued support for modelling efforts.

49 Many journals, including EM&S, publish the results of environmental modelling studies
50 and must judge the work and the submitted papers based solely on the material that the
51 authors have chosen to present and on how they present it. There is considerable variation
52 in how this is done with the consequent risk of considerable variation in the quality and
53 usefulness of the resulting publication. Part of the problem is that the review process is
54 reactive, responding to the submitted manuscript. In this letter, we attempt to be proactive
55 and give guidelines for researchers, authors and reviewers as to what constitutes best
56 practice in presenting environmental modelling results. This is a unique contribution to
57 the organisation and practice of model-based research and the communication of its
58 results that will benefit the entire environmental modelling community. For a start, our
59 view is that the community of environmental modellers should have a common vision of
60 minimum standards that an environmental model must meet. A common vision of what a
61 good model should be is expressed in various guidelines on Good Modelling Practice.
62 The guidelines prompt modellers to codify their practice and to be more rigorous in their
63 model testing. Our statement within this letter deals with another aspect of the issue - it

64 prompts professional journals to codify the peer-review process. Introducing a more
65 formalized approach to peer-review may discourage reviewers from accepting invitations
66 to review given the additional time and labour requirements. The burden of proving
67 model credibility is thus shifted to the authors. Here we discuss how to reduce this burden
68 by selecting realistic evaluation criteria and conclude by advocating the use of
69 standardized evaluation tools as this is a key issue that needs to be tackled.

70

71

72

73 **Background**

74

75 The use of models for any practical purpose entails the risk of misuse. If a model's
76 limitations are not completely understood, the model outputs may be easily
77 misinterpreted (Jakeman et al., 2009). To reduce this risk, every model should be
78 assessed and evaluated by domain experts - that is, by modellers experienced in model
79 development and application.

80

81 Such assessment and evaluation is normally undertaken when an article describing a
82 model (or software) passes through a peer-review system of a professional journal (Fig 1)
83 such as EM&S, for example. Most experienced modellers are involved in the peer-review
84 process and periodically evaluate models made by their colleagues. Therefore, the
85 community of environmental modellers needs to have a common vision of minimum
86 standards that an environmental model must meet.

87

88 A common vision of what a good model is has been expressed in guidelines on Good
89 Modelling Practice (STOWA/RIZA, 1999; Murray-Darling Basin Commission, 2000;
90 Jakeman et al., 2006; Gaber et al., 2008; Robson et al., 2008; Welsch et al., 2008). The
91 guidelines prompt modellers to codify their practice and to be more rigorous in their
92 model testing. The purpose of this letter is to deal with another aspect of the issue: that of
93 prompting professional journals to codify the peer-review process. The objective is to
94 highlight the obstacles to model evaluation and to provide possible solutions. This is not
95 however a review on the state of model evaluation, the latter being given in a recent

96 paper by Bellocchi et al. (2010). Rather we seek to promote improvement within the
97 quality of model evaluation as part of the peer-review process. In doing so, we have also
98 highlighted issues that potential reviewers need to be aware of.

99

100 Peer review is normally considered as an essential component of research dissemination
101 and remains the principal mechanism by which the quality of research is judged (Council
102 of Science Editors, 2006; Müller, 2009). At the same time, there is common
103 understanding that peer-review cannot be expected to detect fraud and ensure perfection
104 (Hames, 2007): *“even the most-respected journals have been caught out and, despite*
105 *extensive peer review, have ended up publishing fraudulent or seriously flawed material”*
106 (Wager, 2006). Then, what is the main purpose of peer-review? There is no general
107 agreement on this issue now. One may suggest that the peer-review system initially
108 introduced for filtering out unreasonable claims to new research results still serves this
109 purpose (Walker, 1998; Alexandrov, 2006).

110

111 In the case of complex models, it is likely the process will result in reviews not
112 evaluating the components of the model (especially if referenced to other sources), on the
113 defence that journal readers and end users who are specialists on those components will
114 make their own judgments. In reality, reviewers will not have sufficient time or resources
115 to conduct detailed evaluation of individual components or the whole model let alone the
116 software coding. Hence, the emphasis must be on model developers to provide accurate
117 evidence, covering sufficient complexity interactions, to demonstrate adequate testing to
118 achieve a stated level of model reliability and utility. We feel this requires clearer

119 statements (supported by evidence) from the model developers on known limitations and
120 areas of uncertainty. Such an open approach should, if communicated correctly, i.e.
121 positively through addressing the consequences of any uncertainty, actually increase
122 credibility with end users rather than diminish it. This is important as perceptions of
123 uncertainty and how it is handled amongst researchers, policy makers and politicians
124 have changed recently, especially since the rise of climate change modelling and
125 planning for adaptation. Previously end users (particularly policy makers and politicians)
126 were reluctant to deal with the realities of the uncertainty associated with modelling.
127 Reduction of uncertainties in the models may be pursued by, for instance, model-data
128 integration techniques (e.g. Wang et al., 2009). However, it is clear that the skill in
129 handling uncertainty not only lies within statistical and other forms of model testing, but
130 also in how it is communicated to end users. Hence, our view that the establishment of a
131 standardized set of criteria and methods for model evaluation is needed to set a minimum
132 standard for 'proof of testing' that would serve to support uncertainty communication. The
133 absence of such standardized criteria and methods risk modelling becoming unacceptable
134 as a form of research for predictive purposes.

135

136 **The major obstacles to a more formalized approach to model** 137 **evaluation**

138

139 Currently there is no requirement to detail a full set of model specifications. The first task
140 in standardization therefore would be to have a scheme whereby published models could

141 be fully specified (Fig 2). Depending on the rationale for the research exercise, modelling
142 for theoretical scientific purposes and modelling for decision-making may follow
143 separate paths (Haag and Kaupenjohann, 2001) and hence require different specifications
144 for assessment and evaluation. In general, this would require a definition of the modelling
145 objective, its formulation, implementation and parameterization, further supplemented by
146 information on how they have been evaluated and the conclusions of that process.

147

148 A standardized set of criteria with which models should be assessed and evaluated will at
149 least ensure the minimum of review effort is made. The risk, however, is that a more
150 formalized approach to peer review requiring the achievement of a minimum standard
151 may discourage reviewers from accepting invitations to review given the additional time
152 and labour requirements. Further to this, a limitation of past model development and
153 application has been that funding organizations have been reluctant to accept the
154 additional costs of performing appropriate model assessment and evaluation within
155 proposals from researchers. Hence, model development has often been on tight budgets
156 causing assessment and evaluation to take a lower priority. Specification of minimum
157 standards for assessment and evaluation and how it is reported should hence also form the
158 basis for the minimum level of validation effort written into funding proposals. Similarly,
159 organizations awarding grants need to include in their calls for proposals more explicit
160 details on the requirements for evaluation and testing and be prepared to provide the
161 required funds.

162

163 This implies that funding organizations have to take on board a greater level of
164 responsibility in supporting modelling work that includes increased assessment and
165 evaluation efforts. Funders could effectively impose minimum standards for model
166 development, evaluation and specification, and progress could be made in this area if
167 'lead' funders introduced such requirements. For example, in the United Kingdom
168 context if the national research councils were to introduce minimum standards other
169 funders would follow in time.

170

171 A further obstacle to overcome lies within the community of environmental modellers
172 itself, which has to take on board a greater level of responsibility in developing standards.
173 The procedures to perform the evaluation task are not widely accepted (Cheng et al.,
174 1991) and appear in several forms, depending on data availability, system characteristics
175 and researchers' opinion (Hsu et al., 1999). Environmental models are made up of
176 mixtures of rate equations, comprise approaches with different levels of empiricism, aim
177 at simulating systems which show non-linear behaviour and often require numerical
178 rather than analytical solutions. Therefore, the computer program, including technical
179 issues and possible errors, is tested rather than the mathematical model representing the
180 system (Leffelaar et al., 2003). Hence, given the applied nature of models in representing
181 a system, their usefulness can be evaluated only in specific case studies. Gardner and
182 Urban (2003) suggested assessing model usefulness based on its appropriateness and
183 performance. Model appropriateness describes the extent to which the model meets the
184 objectives of the study. The appropriateness usually deals with the model structure,
185 although the necessity to identify model parameters brings observation data into the scene

186 (e.g. Confalonieri et al., 2009b). The availability or unavailability of observational data
187 largely predetermines the structure of a model. Model performance is evaluated based on
188 reported testing results in such terms as “goodness of fit” between simulated values of
189 model variables and observation data and required computational time. Our observation
190 is that quantification of uncertainty is less often reported.

191

192 Evaluation of model uncertainty is an important part of model assessment, yet application
193 specific since it depends on model parameterization. On different sets of parameter
194 values, the same mathematical equations may exhibit substantially different dynamic
195 features. Thus, in dynamic models, changes in model parameters can trigger a switch
196 from stable solution to an unstable one, causing a significant increase in model
197 uncertainty (e.g. van Nes and Scheffer, 2003). Stability analysis of a solution must be a
198 part of model investigation, but the analysis may become complicated for complex
199 models, and has therefore not often been undertaken.

200

201 However, we recognise that a complete evaluation of model uncertainty is hardly
202 possible. Usually, the analysis is confined to quantifiable sources, such as initial values of
203 state variables and parameters. Indeed as pointed out by Harremoës (2003) not all
204 uncertainty sources can be ‘quantified’, and that the fraction of uncertainty source terms
205 being ‘ignored’ might be high in environmental investigations. The investigation of the
206 model structural uncertainty is uncommon. Even if an estimate of uncertainty is obtained,
207 its interpretation is not straightforward. The term ‘high uncertainty’ is ambiguous and
208 was defined rather intuitively. Reichert and Borsuk (2005) considered the uncertainty as

209 'high' when the width of predicted distribution of model solutions is larger than the
210 difference between expected outcomes of different simulated alternatives. Strictly
211 speaking, an absolute value of the uncertainty is not important as long as simulations
212 allow for a clear distinction between considered scenarios and for comparison of
213 projected outcomes against some known objectives. In other words, the interpretation of
214 model uncertainty is also application dependent. Codifying the testing process by the
215 model authors will establish an uncertainty range of at least one application case.

216

217 It is often stated that a clear understanding of the model's purpose is central to its
218 evaluation. In other words, it should be 'fit for purpose'. In fact the use of this phrase can
219 be helpful, as it places the purpose 'up front' and emphasizes that generally perfection is
220 not sought, merely the fitness for the given purpose. It is important to distinguish between
221 cases where the purpose is prediction to underpin a decision-making process, and those
222 cases where the model serves as a test bed for scientific hypotheses (even though the
223 same underlying model may be used in both situations). In the decision support case, the
224 accuracy of the predictions for the given purpose is important, as are other factors such as
225 the input data requirements, the safe operating domain of the model and stakeholders'
226 acceptance of the model. In the scientific method case, the evaluation generally needs to
227 be more sophisticated. It is not enough to confirm the hypotheses contained in the model
228 based on the agreement between predictions and observations. A further test is required
229 to rule out the possibility that alternative model formulations (i.e. different hypotheses)
230 could also have described the observations available. This relates to the 'equifinality'

231 thesis of Beven and Freer (Beven and Freer, 2001; Beven, 2006) and the issue of choices
232 in model formulation (e.g. Cox et al., 2006; Crout et al., 2009).

233

234 **The solutions: realistic criteria for model evaluation**

235 Since the range of modelling situations is wide, we recognise that generally applicable
236 standards can be formulated only in a generic form. They form a framework for model
237 evaluation leaving the details of a particular implementation, such as quantification of
238 criteria, up to the reviewers. Starting with the technical assessment of a model, we
239 suggest reviewers first answer the questions below and evaluate the developers' claim on
240 the usefulness of an environmental model:

- 241 • Do developers delineate the domain of model application?
- 242 • Do they highlight advanced model features against the prior art?
- 243 • Do they provide an example of model application illustrating model performance?

244 Then, they may proceed to assessment of the “proofs” of model usability, which are
245 expected to show that:

- 246 • The domain of model application is delineated correctly;
- 247 • The model has certain advantages over a prior art;
- 248 • The example of model application shows credibility of the model as a tool for
249 environmental assessment.

250 In the next sections, we expand our views on the above points.

251 ***How to delineate the domain of model application***

252 An environmental model is normally developed using a four-tier approach: conceptual
253 scheme, model formulation, computer code, and specific parameterization. Consequently,
254 delineating the domain of its applicability one should clearly make a distinction between
255 applicability of each tier. A conceptual scheme may be applied over a large range of
256 environmental states, whereas its specific parameterization may be intended for use under
257 very restrictive conditions. In addition, the model code may be suitable for use only
258 within a certain range of model parameters and inputs.

259

260 The four-tier description of model domain should answer the following questions:

261

- 262 • Which environmental states may fall within the conceptual scope of the model?
- 263 • Which environmental states may be assessed (or explored) using the current
264 version of a model in question or its computer code?
- 265 • Which environmental states may be assessed (or explored) using a specific
266 parameterization of the model?

267

268 The conceptual scheme of a model is derived from the model developer's perceptual
269 model of the real system at hand. The perceptual model is known to be an approximation
270 (to a greater or lesser extent). Moreover, it is common to have a range of scientific
271 opinions regarding the best representation of the perceptual model. Nevertheless, it is
272 always possible to make the distinction between environmental conditions that may fall
273 within the conceptual scope of the model and those that may not. For example, if the

274 conceptual scheme of a model does not address some environmental factors, the model
275 may not assess the environmental impact of this factor.

276

277 In general, the correct description of the model domain must guarantee that the model
278 will not produce results that go beyond empirically (or theoretically) established bounds.

279 A related part of the technical assessment is to find the “regions” of the declared model
280 domain, where the model produces obviously erroneous results, or confirm that no such
281 “regions” were found. The latter helps to evaluate model reliability defined by Mankin et
282 al. (1975).

283

284 ***How to show that a model has an advantage over the prior art***

285 The purpose of developing a new model is to make visible progress in the state-of-the-art
286 (Jørgensen et al., 2006). This can be done in different ways. The simplest of them is
287 improving either the conceptual scheme or computer code of a prior model. In this case,
288 the advantage over the prior art may be highlighted by providing some proof that:

289 • The model addresses environmental situations that do not fall within the scope of
290 the prior model(s);

291 or that:

292 • The model code is more efficient than that of the prior model(s) (e.g., needs less
293 initial information) in addressing some environmental situations;

294 or that:

295 • The specific parameterization of the model shows better performance than that of
296 the prior model(s) in addressing specific environmental conditions.

297

298 In the well-developed fields of environmental modelling, the multi-model approach is
299 considered to be more reasonable than the best-model approach. Multi-model
300 combinations outperform best models. In other words, the progress in the state-of-the-art
301 is achieved through improving performance of a multi-model ensemble.

302

303 The examples of testing in such cases include multi-model analysis (MMA) for
304 developing multiple plausible models by considering alternative processes, using
305 alternative modelling codes, or by defining alternative boundary conditions (Pachepsky et
306 al., 2006). Quantitative MMA methods assign performance scores to each candidate
307 model (e.g. Burnham and Anderson, 2002; Ye et al., 2008). The scores are utilized to
308 rank and select the best models or to assign importance weights (e.g., for use in an
309 ensemble forecasting). Qualitative MMA methods can also rely on expert elicitation,
310 stakeholder involvement, and quality assurance/quality control procedures to assess
311 relative merits of alternative models (Funtowicz and Ravetz, 1990; van der Sluijs, 2007).

312

313 Improving the mathematical formulation of a given conceptual scheme is also a way for
314 improving the state-of-the art. The selection of a suitable formulation relates to model
315 comparisons that cannot be fully ‘automated’ or formalized due to a confounding effect.
316 Confounding appears when two or more factors cause a combined measurable effect and
317 the contribution of each individual factor cannot be estimated separately. Thus, a
318 particular value of a model parameter depends not only on the corresponding state
319 variable and processes included in the model, but also on a given formula used to

320 describe each process. The majority of environmental models require a number of
321 parameters that must be identified for a given case study. In such a case, the comparison
322 of different models becomes dubious because it is hard to differentiate (in the overall
323 model uncertainty) the effect created by model structure from the effect generated by the
324 assigned values of model parameters.

325

326 Moreover, even a small change in a sub-model introduced to correct its functionality may
327 produce a different interpretation on simulated processes. The reason for these unwanted
328 changes lies in the lack of independence/wrong dependencies of parts of the code, which
329 is not completely avoidable. This aspect might go beyond a simple evaluation by once
330 again comparing against previously acceptable results (Huth and Holzworth, 2005) and
331 poses the need for formal model evaluation against observed data at each published stage
332 of model development (van Oijen, 2002). Each version of a model, throughout its
333 development life cycle, should be subjected to output testing, designed by identifying test
334 scenarios, test cases, and/or test data.

335

336 ***How to show model credibility***

337 The establishment of credibility is a prerequisite for model acceptance and use.
338 Credibility is in itself a complex issue extending beyond just model testing (e.g
339 authenticity of problem ownership, skills and motivation of the research team developing
340 a model, etc.). Model evaluation is, however, the key starting point for establishing
341 credibility. Hence, a strengthened peer review procedure will have an essential role in the
342 credibility building process. However, model evaluation must not be seen as a one-off

343 event or a “once-and-for-all” activity (Janssen and Heuberger, 1995), but as an on-going
344 process to check for model compatibility to current evidence and variations (e.g. in
345 spatial, climatic and hydrological conditions). Moreover, according to Sinclair and
346 Seligman (2000), demonstration that a models’ output more or less fits a set of data is a
347 necessary but not sufficient indication of validity. This is because model validity is rather
348 the capability to analyze, clarify, and solve empirical and conceptual problems. Empirical
349 problems in a domain are, in general, about the observable world in need of explanation
350 because a model does not adequately solve it, rival models solve it in different ways, or it
351 is solved/unsolved depending on the model. Conceptual problems arise when the
352 concepts within a model appear to be logically inconsistent, vague and unclear, or
353 circularly defined, and when the definition of some phenomenon in a model is hard to
354 harmonize with an ordinary language or definition (e.g. Parker, 2001). This raises the
355 issue of widening beyond numerical testing by also including stakeholders’ evaluation
356 and expert interpretation through soft systems approaches (Bellocchi et al., 2002;
357 Matthews et al., 2008). For example, non-scientific end users may be more persuaded of
358 model validity by graphical representations than statistical tests or indices, especially
359 where historical events or familiar phenomena are shown and are recognizable by them.

360

361 Thus, to evaluate a model as a credible one, a reviewer should confirm at least that:

- 362 • Its conceptual scheme is theoretically adequate to the declared domain of
363 applicability;
- 364 • Its computer code is verifiable;
- 365 • The accuracy of its specific parameterization is consistent with intended usage.

366

367 **Adequacy and prediction**

368 The model adequacy cannot be assessed regardless of the domain of its applicability
369 (Rykiel, 1996). The context within which models are used affects the required
370 functionality and/or accuracy (French and Geldermann, 2005). This is particularly
371 apparent when comparing models developed to represent the same process at different
372 scales and for which different qualities of input, parameterization and validation data will
373 be available, for example soil water balances at plot, farm, catchment and region (e.g.
374 Keating et al., 2002; Vischel et al., 2007). This has led to the development of application
375 specific testing of models and the idea of model benchmarking, by comparing simulation
376 outputs with outputs of another simulation that is accepted as a “standard” (e.g. Vanclay,
377 1994). Such approaches typically use multi-criteria assessment (e.g. Reynolds and Ford,
378 1999) with performance criteria weighted by users depending on their relative
379 importance.

380

381 Such indications of adequacy are essential in relation to the use of models for future
382 predictive purposes. Papers on modelling often state that they aim to produce an
383 instrument for prediction (van Oijen, 2002). A fundamental issue is to quantify the degree
384 to which a model captures an underlying reality and predicts future cases (Marcus and
385 Elias, 1998; Li et al., 2003). Predictions pose special problems for testing, especially if
386 prediction focuses on events in the far future. Predictive models can be accepted if they
387 explain past events (*ex-post* validation). The probability of making reasonable projections
388 decreases with the length of time looked forward. A continuous exchange of validation

389 data among developers and test teams should either ensure a progressive validation of the
390 models by time, or highlights the need for updated interpretations of the changed system.

391

392 In many cases, predictive models are mixed with exploratory models. The distinction
393 between them can be drawn on the basis of data availability. Predictive models are
394 normally used in connection with an observing system established for environmental
395 monitoring. Exploratory models, in contrast, are normally used where observations are
396 limited.. Therefore, testing methods need to be appropriate for each case, in order to
397 demonstrate adequacy for each purpose.

398

399 **Code verifiability**

400 Computer code is a translation of mathematical clauses from the mathematical language
401 to a computer language. The one-to-one correspondence is not always achieved. There is
402 some consensus (after Glasow and Pace, 1999) that component-based development is
403 indeed an effective and affordable way of creating model applications and conducting
404 model evaluation.

405

406 In such a case, it is our view that particular emphasis should be placed on designing and
407 coding object-oriented simulation models to properly transfer simulation control between
408 entities, resources and system controllers and on techniques for obtaining a
409 correspondence between simulation code and system behaviour. It is crucial to consider
410 the issue of model component validity when considering model re-use as it needs to be a
411 fundamental part of any re-use strategy.

412

413 The distribution of already validated model components (mathematical and coded
414 algorithms) can substantially decrease the model validation effort when re-used. A key
415 step in this direction is the coupling between model components and evaluation
416 techniques, the latter also being implemented into component-based software. Such
417 evaluation systems should stand at the core of a general framework where the modelling
418 system (i.e. a set of modelling components) and a data provider supply inputs to an
419 evaluation tool (e.g. Bellocchi et al., 2006). Such an evaluation tool is also meant as a
420 component-based system, both communicating with the modelling component and the
421 data provider via a suitable protocol and allowing the user to interact in some way (e.g.
422 via a graphical user interface) to choose and parameterize the evaluation tools.

423

424 The output from an evaluation system can be offered to a deliberative process (e.g.
425 stakeholder review) for interpretation of results. Adjustments in the modelling system or
426 critical reviewing of data used to evaluate the model can be a next stage, if the results are
427 assessed as unsatisfactory for the application purpose. A new evaluation-interpretation
428 cycle can be run any time new versions of the modelling system are developed and
429 plugged in to the evaluation component. Again, a well-designed, component-based
430 evaluation system can be easily extended towards including further evaluation
431 approaches to keep up with evolving methodologies, e.g. statistical, neural networks or
432 fuzzy-based (e.g. Bellocchi et al., 2008). Hence, further purpose of this letter is to
433 stimulate debate on the positive and negative aspects of rigid model structures or
434 component-based ones, and how the review process can best evaluate them.

435

436 **Reliability**

437 Model reliability cannot be assessed regardless of a presumed range of accuracy. A
438 specific parameterization of a model can be considered as reliable, if it produces results
439 that fall within a well-defined range of accuracy. In the case of a predictive model, the
440 range of accuracy can be defined statistically, proceeding from tests against observations.
441 In the case of an exploratory model, the range of accuracy may be defined through
442 sensitivity analysis, assuming that inaccuracy results from uncertainty in the values of
443 model parameters (e.g. Confalonieri et al., 2010).

444

445 Reliability is also a key aspect of credibility, where measures are influenced by the ability
446 to establish reliability with available past observations. It cannot be assumed, however,
447 that statistical (or any numerical) analysis is all that is required for model outputs to be
448 accepted particularly when models are used with and for stakeholders. The numerical
449 analysis provides credibility within the techno-scientific research community yet, while
450 necessary; this may be insufficient to achieve credibility with decision makers and other
451 stakeholders. Possibly a real test of model validity is whether stakeholders have sufficient
452 confidence in the model to use it as the basis for making management decisions (Vanclay
453 and Skovsgaard, 1997).

454

455 Reliability can also be interpreted as versatility of the model, that is, how well does the
456 model perform in situations for which it was not originally designed, or respond to
457 extreme conditions beyond that which calibration data represent? Sometimes, it is

458 characterized by a ratio of the real world observed data described by the model outputs
459 (Mankin et al., 1975). The assessment of model versatility is based on the qualitative
460 analysis of model structure (i.e. mathematical expressions) and potential results the
461 model in question can generate. In many cases, only qualitative assessment can lead to
462 subjective conclusions. The quantification of the concept is difficult or hardly possible
463 due to limited observation data that is insufficient to understand environmental
464 behaviour, model complexity limiting evaluation of possible model outcomes, and
465 uncertainty in modelling results.

466

467 ***How to legitimate model usage***

468 For well-developed environmental applications, model evaluation and selection
469 techniques are heavily influential and can be used to build scientific and perceived
470 credibility. However, establishing credibility is not straightforward for larger-scale
471 environmental applications with many sources of uncertainty, decision-makers with
472 different interests, and plausible future states that can be markedly different from
473 observed past states. In these cases, credibility can be influenced by subjective measures
474 and contingencies in the decision-making process (e.g., Aumann, 2008).

475

476 Establishing model credibility with end users / stakeholders can be problematic since they
477 may have preconceived, and sometimes immovable, conceptions (Carberry et al., 2002).

478 The task then falls on the model developers to show sufficient evidence in a form
479 understandable by the end user to persuade them to challenge their beliefs and to consider
480 alternatives.

481

482 Given the number of potential outcomes and stakeholders involved, more inclusive
483 modelling approaches such as multiple model and ensemble forecasting approaches can
484 be useful for establishing credibility. In particular, approaches that allow for multiple
485 model inference where differing models and perspectives are not excluded (e.g., Min and
486 Hense 2006). Instead, different models are weighted and synthesized using quantitative
487 criteria such as statistical support. This is important in determining quantitative reliability
488 and model evaluation (Burnham and Anderson, 2002), but can also assist with qualitative
489 aspects of credibility when models are used to inform a contentious decision process. The
490 resulting consideration of multiple models serves as a proxy for including different
491 scientific and subjective views of how environmental systems function and the resulting
492 ensemble forecasts are considered to be more broadly representative of the perspectives
493 of the decision-making participants.

494

495 Our view is that the key to successfully legitimating model usage is making model
496 outputs be seen by stakeholders as relevant to their decision making process. Legitimacy
497 of model usage can be seriously compromised when research outputs refer to geographic,
498 temporal, or organizational scales that do not match those of decision-making. Hence,
499 though adequate assessment and evaluation of a model in one location may be shown,
500 acceptance by stakeholders may be limited when applied where testing has not been
501 conducted.

502

503 Where models are used for decision support or evidence based reasoning, credibility is a
504 complex mix of social, technological and mathematical aspects that require developers to
505 include social networking (between developers, researchers and end users / stakeholders)
506 to determine model rationale, aim, structure etc., and importantly a sense of co-
507 ownership. Again, evidence of testing and results from a standardised peer-review
508 procedure aids dialogue with stakeholders, as the researchers applying the models can
509 demonstrate independent testing.

510 In this respect, a key component to credibility building is that a model should make
511 available all the key management options that the decision maker considers important and
512 should to an acceptable degree respond to management interventions in a way that
513 matches with the decision maker's experience of the real system. In terms of models of
514 natural processes, management can be substituted with alternatives, such as external
515 shocks and/or perturbations to the drivers of the system.

516

517 Using the 'see-saw' analogy, where environmental models' estimates are used in
518 contentious issues, credibility becomes the focal balance point around which opposing
519 parties construct their arguments. Hence, credible models can serve to unite opposing
520 parties, rather than serve to allow them to argue at increasing distance from each other's
521 viewpoints and expertises. For such cases, subjective decisions on the selection and
522 assessment of evidence may be as important as the accuracy of the measurement or
523 forecasting of a particular phenomenon (Matthews et al., 2008).

524

525 Lack of transparency is frequently cited as the reason for the failure of model based
526 approaches. It is important to challenge some of the assumptions and conclusions that are
527 drawn on how to respond to the issue of transparency. One response is to make models
528 simpler and hence the argument becomes easier to understand. Yet while simplicity is in
529 itself desirable (Raupach and Finnigan, 1988) and the operation of simpler models may
530 indeed be easier to understand, it may well be that the interpretation of their outputs is no
531 simpler and indeed their simplicity may mean that they lack the capability to provide
532 secondary data which can ease the process of interpretation. There is also a trade-off
533 between simplicity and flexibility and this flexibility may be a crucial factor in allowing
534 the tools to be relevant for counter-factual analyses. The current best practice for
535 balancing simplicity and flexibility within the model development process seems to be
536 the reusable component approach combined with a flexible model integration / evaluation
537 environment. A set of standards applied within the peer review procedure therefore needs
538 to address the issues of simple versus complex models and so look beyond the numerical
539 testing and consider the flexibility of the model, ability of it to shed new light on an
540 environmental issue, and aid the process of interpretation.

541

542 A constraint to both scientific credibility and transparency of models is the necessarily
543 inherent inter-dependency of the modelled processes. A 'fault' in a model may be
544 difficult to locate as many other related modelled processes confound it. Similarly, an
545 effective modelled description of a specific sub-process may not be readily identified due
546 to its dependence on less than satisfactory descriptions of other system features. Ranges
547 of sensitivity and uncertainty analyses have been deployed to address this issue, although

548 the results are not always easy to interpret in terms of the original model formulation.
549 Comparison of alternative model formulations can provide useful information in this
550 context (e.g. Confalonieri et al., 2009a) but still suffers from the difficulty of
551 disentangling inter-dependencies in the model. Crout et al. (2009) have proposed simple
552 model reduction methods based on the approach of Cox et al (2006) which systematically
553 explored the role of individual model variables on the models' predictive performance.
554 This procedure frequently locates variables whose formulation has a detrimental effect on
555 model performance.

556

557 **The way forward: standardized evaluation tools**

558 Based on the above views and highlighting of issues, we now explore options for future
559 model evaluation. Turning back to the fact that model developers are normally lacking
560 resources for adequate model evaluation, we conclude that introducing a more formalized
561 set of evaluation criteria demands a standardised set of evaluation tools.

562 ***Identifying the prior art***

563 It is common to believe that the total amount of environmental models is huge and that
564 they cover almost all environmental situations. Nevertheless, the recent review of models
565 used by the European Environment Agency in its recent environmental assessments and
566 reports identified gaps in the availability, accessibility and applicability of current
567 modelling tools (EEA, 2008). Indeed, journal articles reporting modelling efforts
568 normally focus on the scientific interpretation of the findings, not on model
569 documentation. There is no guarantee that a model, on which a published article several

570 years ago, is still readily available or even existing in any form that makes it possible to
571 reproduce reported results. Can we therefore consider models that are not readily and
572 completely available as the prior art? Scientific etiquette suggests that model
573 documentations must be conveniently accessible, complete and mutually comparable
574 (Benz and Knorrenschild, 1997; Voinov et al., 2009). We therefore suggest a register of
575 models that can be considered as the prior art is needed for the technical assessment and
576 evaluation of newly developed models.

577

578 ***Developing a comprehensive numerical library***

579 A disciplined approach, effective management, and well-educated personnel are some of
580 the key factors affecting the success of a software development project. Professionals in
581 environmental modelling can learn a lot from software engineering, commercial product
582 testing (especially in aircraft design and other areas where there is a very high safety
583 standard required), stakeholders' deliberation and scientific developments from other
584 disciplines. In so doing, we can expand our horizons to include the necessary knowledge
585 to conduct successful model evaluation. Whilst some research has been undertaken
586 focusing on establishing a baseline for evaluation practice, rather less work has been done
587 to develop a basic, scientifically rigorous approach to be able to meet the technical
588 challenges we currently face. We believe model evaluation software tools can valuably
589 support this activity, allowing consolidated experience in evaluating models to be formed
590 and shared. Whether model evaluation is a scheduled action in modelling projects, little
591 work is published in the open literature (e.g., conference proceedings and journals)
592 describing the evaluation experience accumulated by modelling teams (including

593 interactions with the stakeholders). Failing to disseminate the evaluation experience may
594 result in the repetition of the same mistakes in future modelling projects. Based on past
595 experience, establishing a better quality assurance program for a new modelling project
596 may certainly increase the probability of success for that project. Learning from the
597 experience of others is an excellent and cost-effective educational tool. The return on
598 such an investment can easily be realized by preventing the failures of modelling projects
599 and by avoiding wrong simulation-based decisions. Where complex models are to be
600 evaluated, options are available to combine detailed numeric and statistical tests of
601 components and sub-processes with a deliberative approach for overall model
602 acceptance. Future model development should aim to incorporate automated evaluation
603 checks using embedded software tools, with the aim of achieving greater cost and time
604 efficiency and to achieve a higher level of credibility. Information from evaluation tools
605 employed by the model developers needs to be made available to the peer review process.
606 Beyond this, providing third parties with the capability of extending methodologies
607 without re-compiling the component will ensure greater transparency and ease of
608 maintenance, also providing functionalities such as the test of input data versus their
609 definition prior to computing any simple or integrated evaluation metric. Making it in
610 agreement with the most modern developments in software engineering, components for
611 model evaluation will better serve as a convenient means to support collaborative model
612 testing among the network of scientists involved in creating component-oriented models
613 in the environmental field.
614

615 ***Moving from software to webware***

616 Modern information and communication technologies offer the opportunity for a
617 revolution in the area of technical assessments of environmental models (Alexandrov and
618 Matsunaga, 2008; Hoffman et al., 2008). Moving from software to webware makes
619 models (and data used to test them) available through a web-browser. It seems a time has
620 come to think seriously about an Environmental Modelling Server (EMS) - a
621 supercomputer (or a computing grid) for deploying environmental models and running
622 them through web-browsers. The EMS may also do the routine work on technical
623 assessment of models, providing the necessary resource currently lacking.

624 **Our position**

625 Concluding this letter, we emphasize that having standardized evaluation tools is the
626 issue that needs to be tackled. Standardised model evaluation can consist of evaluation
627 tools for use during and after the model development process, which can feed into a
628 codified procedure during peer review of articles based on the model. The articles
629 published in this thematic volume of EM&S are suggesting “*the evaluation of models*
630 *should be a central part of the model development process, not an afterthought*” (Crout et
631 al., 2009). This implies a clear demand for relevant software tools and acceptance by
632 journals to adopt a minimum standard for peer review. Evaluation tools, in contrast to
633 models, are generic by their nature, based on shared information and on re-using data
634 from previous research exercises. The burden of developing evaluation tools is too hard
635 for every single modeller. This and improving the peer review process are tasks that need

636 a communal effort based on International Environmental modelling and Software
637 Society's (iEMSs) leadership.

638

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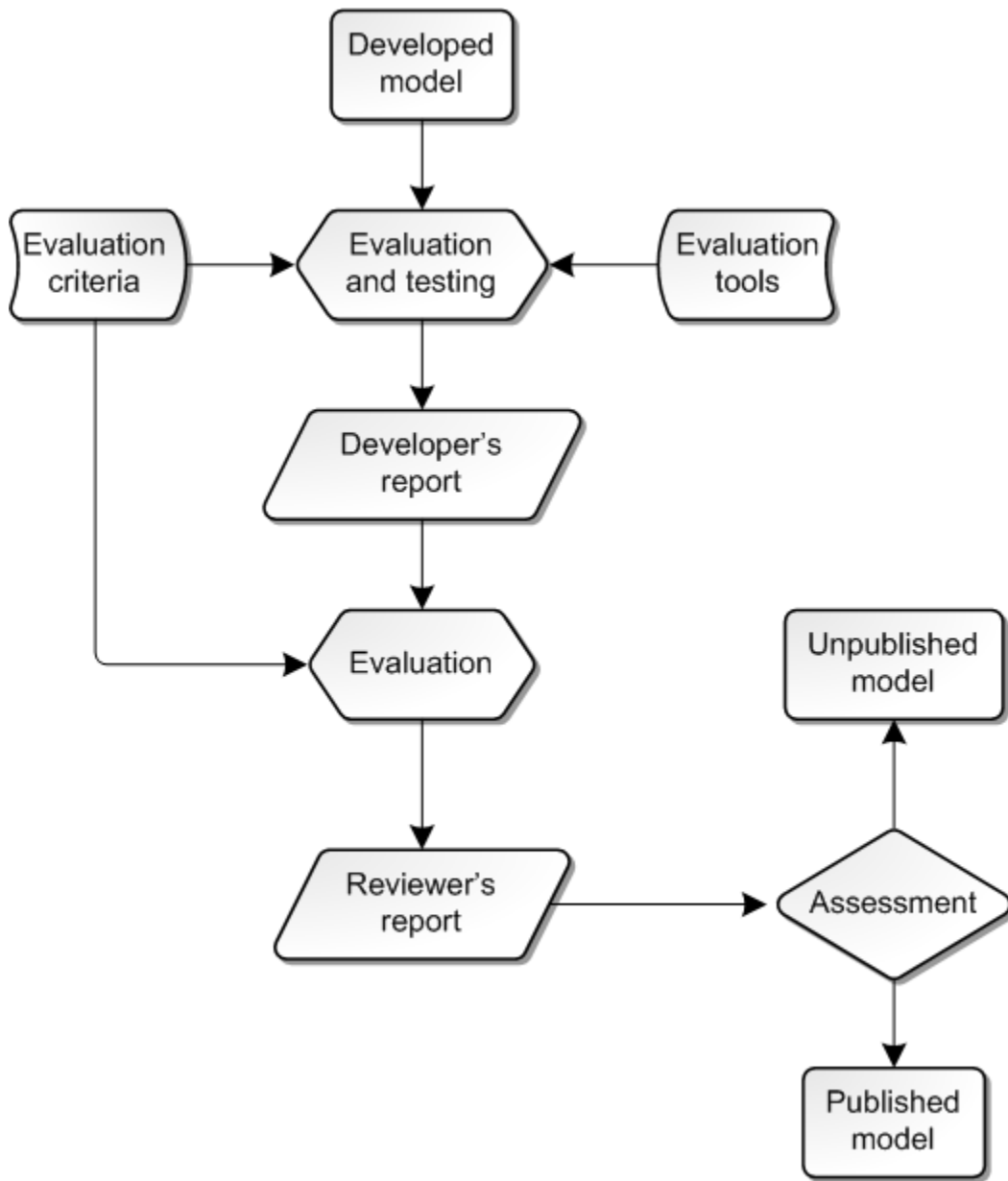
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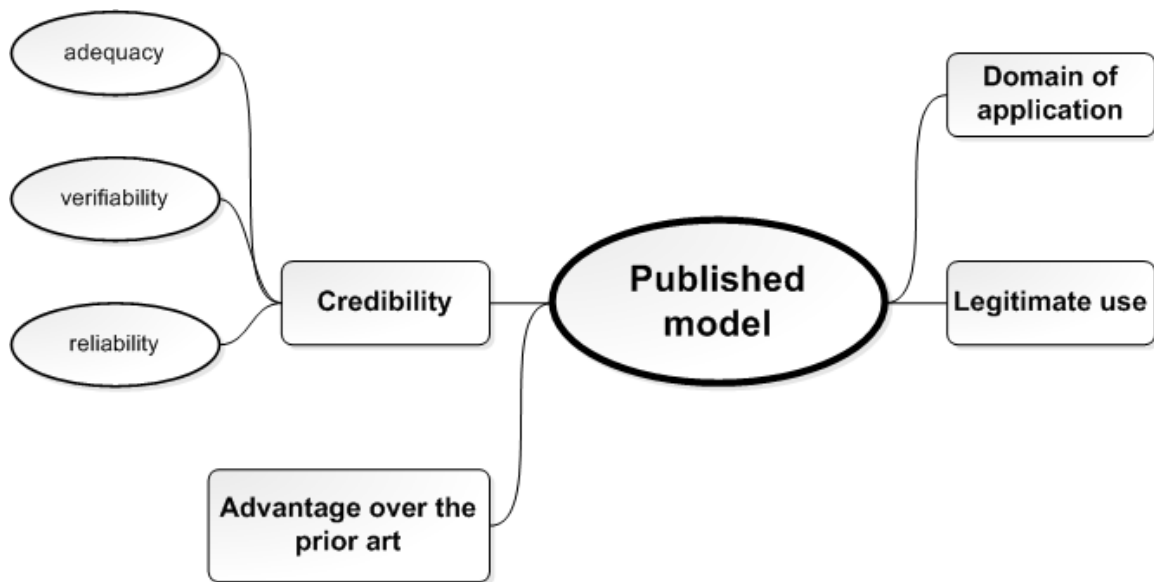
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914 Figure 1. A flow-chart of peer-review process

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929 Figure 2. A scheme for specifying a published model.

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