Environmental Modelling & Software 26 (2011) 328–336

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Environmental Modelling & Software

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/envsoft

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

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 1 April 2009
Received in revised form
6 August 2010
Accepted 12 August 2010
Available online 24 September 2010

Keywords:
Model evaluation
Model credibility
Software verification
Environmental assessment

ABSTRACT

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

Many journals, including EM&S, publish the results of environmental modelling studies and must judge the work and the submitted papers based solely on the material that the authors have chosen to present and on how they present it. There is considerable variation in how this is done with the consequent risk of considerable variation in the quality and usefulness of the resulting publication. Part of the problem is that the review process is reactive, responding to the submitted manuscript. In this letter, we attempt to be proactive and give guidelines for researchers, authors and reviewers as to what constitutes best practice in presenting environmental modelling results. This is a unique contribution to the organisation and practice of model-based research and the communication of its results that will benefit the entire environmental modelling community. For a start, our view is that the community of environmental modellers should have a common vision of minimum standards that an environmental model must meet. A common vision of what a good model should be is expressed in various guidelines on Good Modelling Practice. The guidelines prompt modellers to codify their practice and to be more rigorous in their model testing. Our statement within this letter deals with another aspect of the issue – it prompts professional journals to codify the peer-review process. Introducing a more formalized approach to peer-review may discourage reviewers from accepting invitations to review given the additional time and labour requirements. The burden of proving model credibility is thus shifted to the authors. Here we discuss how to reduce this burden by selecting realistic evaluation criteria and conclude by advocating the use of standardized evaluation tools as this is a key issue that needs to be tackled.

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doi:10.1016/j.envsoft.2010.08.004

1. Background

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

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

A common vision of what a good model is has been expressed in guidelines on Good Modelling Practice (STOWA/RIZA, 1999; Murray-Darling Basin Commission, 2000; Jakeman et al., 2006; Gaber et al., 2008; Robson et al., 2008; Welsh, 2008). The guidelines prompt modellers to codify their practice and to be more rigorous in their model testing. The purpose of this letter is to deal with another aspect of the issue: that of prompting professional journals to codify the peer-review process. The objective is to highlight the obstacles to model evaluation and to provide possible solutions. This is not however a review on the state of model evaluation, the latter being given in a recent paper by Bellocchi et al. (2010). Rather we seek to promote improvement within the quality of model evaluation as part of the peer-review process. In doing so, we have also highlighted issues that potential reviewers need to be aware of.

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

In the case of complex models, it is likely the process will result in reviews not evaluating the components of the model (especially if referenced to other sources), on the defence that journal readers and end users who are specialists on those components will make their own judgments. In reality, reviewers will not have sufficient time or resources to conduct detailed evaluation of individual components or the whole model let alone the software coding. Hence, the emphasis must be on model developers to provide accurate evidence, covering sufficient complexity interactions, to demonstrate adequate testing to achieve a stated level of model reliability and utility. We feel this requires clearer statements (supported by evidence) from the model developers on known limitations and areas of uncertainty. Such an open approach should, if communicated correctly, i.e. positively through addressing the consequences of any uncertainty, actually increase credibility with end users rather than diminish it. This is important as perceptions of uncertainty and how it is handled amongst researchers, policy makers and politicians have changed recently, especially since the rise of climate change modelling and planning for adaptation. Previously end users (particularly policy makers and politicians) were reluctant to deal with the realities of the uncertainty associated with modelling. Reduction of uncertainties in the models may be pursued by, for instance, model-data integration techniques (e.g. Wang et al., 2009). However, it is clear that the skill in handling uncertainty not only lies within statistical and other forms of model testing, but also in how it is communicated to end users. Hence, our view that the establishment of a standardized set of criteria and methods for model evaluation is needed to set a minimum standard for 'proof of testing' that would serve to support uncertainty communication. The absence of such standardized criteria and methods risk modelling becoming unacceptable as a form of research for predictive purposes.

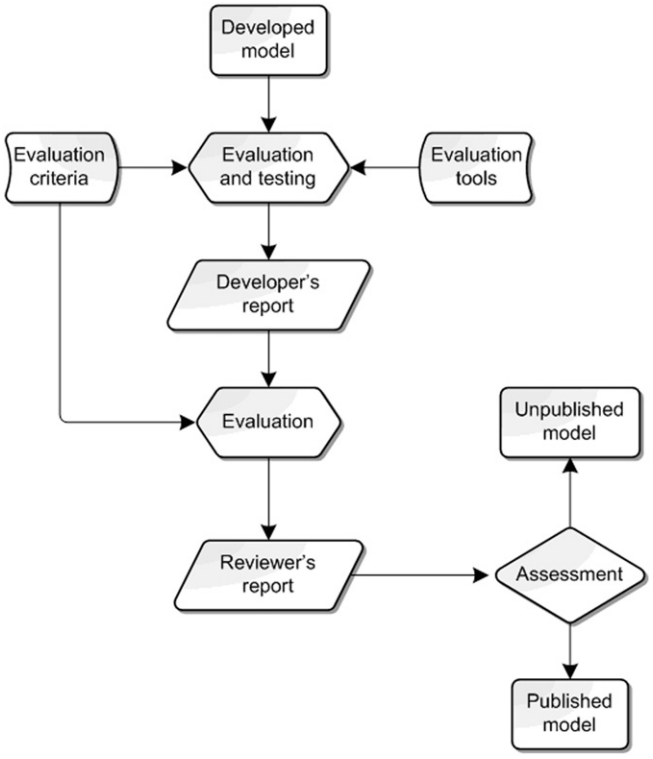

Fig. 1. A flow-chart of peer-review process.

2. The major obstacles to a more formalized approach to model evaluation

Currently there is no requirement to detail a full set of model specifications. The first task in standardization therefore would be to have a scheme whereby published models could be fully specified (Fig. 2). Depending on the rationale for the research exercise, modelling for theoretical scientific purposes and modelling for

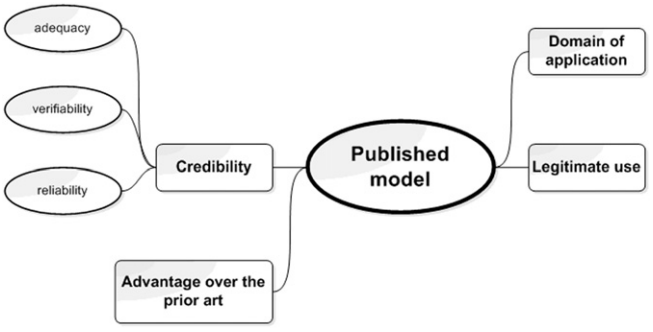

Fig. 2. A scheme for specifying a published model.

decision-making may follow separate paths (Haag and Kaupenjohann, 2001) and hence require different specifications for assessment and evaluation. In general, this would require a definition of the modelling objective, its formulation, implementation and parameterization, further supplemented by information on how they have been evaluated and the conclusions of that process.

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

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

A further obstacle to overcome lies within the community of environmental modellers itself, which has to take on board a greater level of responsibility in developing standards. The procedures to perform the evaluation task are not widely accepted (Cheng et al., 1991) and appear in several forms, depending on data availability, system characteristics and researchers' opinion (Hsu et al., 1999). Environmental models are made up of mixtures of rate equations, comprise approaches with different levels of empiricism, aim at simulating systems which show non-linear behaviour and often require numerical rather than analytical solutions. Therefore, the computer program, including technical issues and possible errors, is tested rather than the mathematical model representing the system (Leffelaar et al., 2003). Hence, given the applied nature of models in representing a system, their usefulness can be evaluated only in specific case studies. Gardner and Urban (2003) suggested assessing model usefulness based on its appropriateness and performance. Model appropriateness describes the extent to which the model meets the objectives of the study. The appropriateness usually deals with the model structure, although the necessity to identify model parameters brings observation data into the scene (e.g. Confalonieri et al., 2009b). The availability or unavailability of observational data largely predetermines the structure of a model. Model performance is evaluated based on reported testing results in such terms as "goodness of fit" between simulated values of model variables and observation data and required computational time. Our observation is that quantification of uncertainty is less often reported.

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

However, we recognise that a complete evaluation of model uncertainty is hardly possible. Usually, the analysis is confined to quantifiable sources, such as initial values of state variables and parameters. Indeed as pointed out by Harremoës (2003) not all uncertainty sources can be 'quantified', and that the fraction of uncertainty source terms being 'ignored' might be high in environmental investigations. The investigation of the model structural uncertainty is uncommon. Even if an estimate of uncertainty is obtained, its interpretation is not straightforward. Further, high uncertainty can be also a result of lack of knowledge about some processes that are not completely understood (among others, Willems, 2008; Freni et al., 2009a; Mannina and Viviani, 2010). The term 'high uncertainty' is ambiguous and was defined rather intuitively. Reichert and Borsuk (2005) considered the uncertainty as 'high' when the width of predicted distribution of model solutions is larger than the difference between expected outcomes of different simulated alternatives. Strictly speaking, an absolute value of the uncertainty is not important as long as simulations allow for a clear distinction between considered scenarios and for comparison of projected outcomes against some known objectives. In other words, the interpretation of model uncertainty is also application dependent. Codifying the testing process by the model authors will establish an uncertainty range of at least one application case.

It is often stated that a clear understanding of the model's purpose is central to its evaluation. In other words, it should be 'fit for purpose'. In fact the use of this phrase can be helpful, as it places the purpose 'up front' and emphasizes that generally perfection is not sought, merely the fitness for the given purpose. It is important to distinguish between cases where the purpose is prediction to underpin a decision-making process, and those cases where the model serves as a test bed for scientific hypotheses (even though the same underlying model may be used in both situations). In the decision support case, the accuracy of the predictions for the given purpose is important, as are other factors such as the input data requirements, the safe operating domain of the model and stakeholders' acceptance of the model. In the scientific method case, the evaluation generally needs to be more sophisticated. It is not enough to confirm the hypotheses contained in the model-based on the agreement between predictions and observations. A further test is required to rule out the possibility that alternative model formulations (i.e. different hypotheses) could also have described the observations available. This relates to the 'equifinality' thesis of Beven and Freer (Beven and Freer, 2001; Beven, 2006) and the issue of choices in model formulation (e.g. Cox et al., 2006; Crout et al., 2009), that generally lead to identifiability issues (among others, Brun et al., 2001; Freni et al., 2009b, 2010).

3. The solutions: realistic criteria for model evaluation

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

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

Then, they may proceed to assessment of the "proofs" of model usability, which are expected to show that:

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

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

3.1. How to delineate the domain of model application

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

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

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

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

In general, the correct description of the model domain must guarantee that the model will not produce results that go beyond empirically (or theoretically) established bounds. A related part of the technical assessment is to find the "regions" of the declared model domain, where the model produces obviously erroneous results, or confirm that no such "regions" were found. The latter helps to evaluate model reliability defined by Mankin et al. (1975).

3.2. How to show that a model has an advantage over the prior art

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

- The model addresses environmental situations that do not fall within the scope of the prior model(s); or that:
- The model code is more efficient than that of the prior model(s) (e.g. needs less initial information) in addressing some environmental situations; or that:
- The specific parameterization of the model shows better performance than that of the prior model(s) in addressing specific environmental conditions.

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

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

Improving the mathematical formulation of a given conceptual scheme is also a way for improving the state-of-the art. The selection of a suitable formulation relates to model comparisons that cannot be fully 'automated' or formalized due to a confounding effect. Confounding appears when two or more factors cause a combined measurable effect and the contribution of each individual factor cannot be estimated separately. Thus, a particular value of a model parameter depends not only on the corresponding state variable and processes included in the model, but also on a given formula used to describe each process. The majority of environmental models require a number of parameters that must be identified for a given case study. In such a case, the comparison of different models becomes dubious because it is hard to differentiate (in the overall model uncertainty) the effect created by model structure from the effect generated by the assigned values of model parameters.

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

3.3. How to show model credibility

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

event or a "once-and-for-all" activity (Janssen and Heuberger, 1995), but as an on-going process to check for model compatibility to current evidence and variations (e.g. in spatial, climatic and hydrological conditions). Moreover, according to Sinclair and Seligman (2000), demonstration that a models' output more or less fits a set of data is a necessary but not sufficient indication of validity. This is because model validity is rather the capability to analyze, clarify, and solve empirical and conceptual problems. Empirical problems in a domain are, in general, about the observable world in need of explanation because a model does not adequately solve it, rival models solve it in different ways, or it is solved/unsolved depending on the model. Conceptual problems arise when the concepts within a model appear to be logically inconsistent, vague and unclear, or circularly defined, and when the definition of some phenomenon in a model is hard to harmonize with an ordinary language or definition (e.g. Parker, 2001). This raises the issue of widening beyond numerical testing by also including stakeholders' evaluation and expert interpretation through soft systems approaches (Bellocchi et al., 2002; Matthews et al., 2011). For example, non-scientific end users may be more persuaded of model validity by graphical representations than statistical tests or indices, especially where historical events or familiar phenomena are shown and are recognizable by them.

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

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

3.3.1. Adequacy and prediction

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

Such indications of adequacy are essential in relation to the use of models for future predictive purposes. Papers on modelling often state that they aim to produce an instrument for prediction (van Oijen, 2002). A fundamental issue is to quantify the degree to which a model captures an underlying reality and predicts future cases (Marcus and Elias, 1998; Li et al., 2003). Predictions pose special problems for testing, especially if prediction focuses on events in the far future. Predictive models can be accepted if they explain past events (*ex-post* validation). The probability of making reasonable projections decreases with the length of time looked forward. A continuous exchange of validation data among developers and test teams should either ensure a progressive validation of the models by time, or highlights the need for updated interpretations of the changed system.

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

3.3.2. Code verifiability

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

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

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

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

3.3.3. Reliability

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

Reliability is also a key aspect of credibility, where measures are influenced by the ability to establish reliability with available past observations. It cannot be assumed, however, that statistical (or any numerical) analysis is all that is required for model outputs to be accepted particularly when models are used with and for

stakeholders. The numerical analysis provides credibility within the techno-scientific research community yet, while necessary; this may be insufficient to achieve credibility with decision-makers and other stakeholders. Possibly a real test of model validity is whether stakeholders have sufficient confidence in the model to use it as the basis for making management decisions (Vanclay and Skovsgaard, 1997).

Reliability can also be interpreted as versatility of the model, that is, how well does the model perform in situations for which it was not originally designed, or respond to extreme conditions beyond that which calibration data represent? Sometimes, it is characterized by a ratio of the real word observed data described by the model outputs (Mankin et al., 1975). The assessment of model versatility is based on the qualitative analysis of model structure (i.e. mathematical expressions) and potential results the model in question can generate. In many cases, only qualitative assessment can lead to subjective conclusions. The quantification of the concept is difficult or hardly possible due to limited observation data that is insufficient to understand environmental behaviour, model complexity limiting evaluation of possible model outcomes, and uncertainty in modelling results.

3.4. How to legitimate model usage

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

Establishing model credibility with end users/stakeholders can be problematic since they may have preconceived, and sometimes immovable, conceptions (Carberry et al., 2002). The task then falls on the model developers to show sufficient evidence in a form understandable by the end user to persuade them to challenge their beliefs and to consider alternatives.

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

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

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

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

Using the 'see-saw' analogy, where environmental models' estimates are used in contentious issues, credibility becomes the focal balance point around which opposing parties construct their arguments. Hence, credible models can serve to unite opposing parties, rather than serve to allow them to argue at increasing distance from each other's viewpoints and expertises. For such cases, subjective decisions on the selection and assessment of evidence may be as important as the accuracy of the measurement or forecasting of a particular phenomenon (Matthews et al., 2011).

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

A constraint to both scientific credibility and transparency of models is the necessarily inherent inter-dependency of the modelled processes. A 'fault' in a model may be difficult to locate as many other related modelled processes confound it. Similarly, an effective modelled description of a specific sub-process may not be readily identified due to its dependence on less than satisfactory descriptions of other system features. Ranges of sensitivity and uncertainty analyses have been deployed to address this issue, although the results are not always easy to interpret in terms of the original model formulation. Comparison of alternative model formulations can provide useful information in this context (e.g. Confalonieri et al., 2009a) but still suffers from the difficulty of disentangling inter-dependencies in the model. Crout et al. (2009) have proposed simple model reduction methods based on the approach of Cox et al. (2006) which systematically explored the role of individual model variables on the models' predictive performance. This procedure frequently locates variables whose formulation has a detrimental effect on model performance.

4. The way forward: standardized evaluation tools

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

4.1. Identifying the prior art

It is common to believe that the total amount of environmental models is huge and that they cover almost all environmental situations. Nevertheless, the recent review of models used by the European Environment Agency in its recent environmental assessments and reports identified gaps in the availability, accessibility and applicability of current modelling tools (EEA, 2008). Indeed, journal articles reporting modelling efforts normally focus on the scientific interpretation of the findings, not on model documentation. There is no guarantee that a model, on which a published article several years ago, is still readily available or even existing in any form that makes it possible to reproduce reported results. Can we therefore consider models that are not readily and completely available as the prior art? Scientific etiquette suggests that model documentations must be conveniently accessible, complete and mutually comparable (Benz and Knorrenschild, 1997; Voinov et al., 2009). We therefore suggest a register of models that can be considered as the prior art is needed for the technical assessment and evaluation of newly developed models.

4.2. Developing a comprehensive numerical library

A disciplined approach, effective management, and well-educated personnel are some of the key factors affecting the success of a software development project. Professionals in environmental modelling can learn a lot from software engineering, commercial product testing (especially in aircraft design and other areas were there is a very high safety standard required), stakeholders' deliberation and scientific developments from other disciplines. In so doing, we can expand our horizons to include the necessary knowledge to conduct successful model evaluation. Whilst some research has been undertaken focusing on establishing a baseline for evaluation practice, rather less work has been done to develop a basic, scientifically rigorous approach to be able to meet the technical challenges we currently face. We believe model evaluation software tools can valuably support this activity, allowing consolidated experience in evaluating models to be formed and shared. Whether model evaluation is a scheduled action in modelling projects, little work is published in the open literature (e.g. conference proceedings and journals) describing the evaluation experience accumulated by modelling teams (including interactions with the stakeholders). Failing to disseminate the evaluation experience may result in the repetition of the same mistakes in future modelling projects. Based on past experience, establishing a better quality assurance program for a new modelling project may certainly increase the probability of success for that project. Learning from the experience of others is an excellent and cost-effective educational tool. The return on such an investment can easily be realized by preventing the failures of modelling projects and by avoiding wrong simulation-based decisions. Where complex models are to be evaluated, options are available to combine detailed numeric and statistical tests of components and sub-processes with a deliberative approach for overall model acceptance. Future model development should aim to incorporate automated evaluation checks using embedded software tools, with the aim of achieving greater cost and time efficiency and to achieve a higher level of credibility. Information from evaluation tools employed by the model developers needs to be made available to the peer-review process. Beyond this, providing third parties with the capability of extending methodologies without re-compiling the component will ensure greater transparency and ease of maintenance, also providing functionalities such as the test of input data versus their definition prior to computing any simple or integrated evaluation metric. Making it in agreement with the most modern developments in software engineering, components for model evaluation will better serve as a convenient means to support collaborative model testing among the network of scientists involved in creating component-oriented models in the environmental field.

4.3. Moving from software to webware

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

5. Our position

Concluding this letter, we emphasize that having standardized evaluation tools is the issue that needs to be tackled. Standardized model evaluation can consist of evaluation tools for use during and after the model development process, which can feed into a codified procedure during peer-review of articles based on the model. The articles published in this thematic volume of EM&S are suggesting "*the evaluation of models should be a central part of the model development process, not an afterthought*" (Crout et al., 2009). This implies a clear demand for relevant software tools and acceptance by journals to adopt a minimum standard for peer-review. Evaluation tools, in contrast to models, are generic by their nature, based on shared information and on re-using data from previous research exercises. The burden of developing evaluation tools is too hard for every single modeller. This and improving the peer-review process are tasks that need a communal effort based on International Environmental modelling and Software Society's (iEMSs) leadership.

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