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# 1 **Information Visualization for Science & Policy:**

## 2 **Engaging Users & Avoiding Bias.**

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4  
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27

28 **ABSTRACT**

29           Visualisations and graphics are fundamental to studying complex subject matter.  
30 However, beyond acknowledging this value, scientists and science-policy programmes rarely  
31 consider how visualisations can enable discovery, create engaging and robust reporting, or  
32 support online resources. Producing accessible and unbiased visualisations from complicated,  
33 uncertain data requires expertise and knowledge from science, policy, computing and design.  
34 However, visualisation is rarely found in our training, organisations or collaborations. As  
35 new policy programs develop – e.g. ‘Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity &  
36 Ecosystem Services’ (IPBES) – we need information visualisation to increasingly permeate  
37 both the work of scientists and science-policy. The alternative is increased potential for  
38 missed discoveries, miscommunications and at worst, creating a bias towards the research  
39 that is easiest to display.

40

41 **VISUALISATION: EXPLORING AND COMMUNICATING INFORMATION**

42           Visualisations and graphics are the most universally engaging of outputs. Yet the  
43 issues of producing informative, engaging and unbiased visualisations (exploratory graphics  
44 to publication figures, all the way to interactive web interfaces) have received little attention  
45 in the Biodiversity Sciences, or Science-Policy. This is despite huge recent developments in  
46 the expertise, knowledge, software, web technologies, and the cultural understanding of both  
47 visualisation and data.

48           These developments come at a critical time. Scientific research and policy are further  
49 accelerating investments into understanding, predicting and managing changes in the global  
50 environment [1–8]. A crucial information gap has then emerged when scientists and

51 organisations come to explore and communicate the wealth of information being produced  
52 [9–11]. Turning vast amounts of often complex data and information (Figure 1) into outputs  
53 that scientists can study effectively, and that can then engage diverse users and stakeholders,  
54 requires that we value and invest in visualisation and graphics. When subject matter is  
55 intangible (e.g. due to scale, complexity or abstraction) [12,13] visualisations play a  
56 fundamental role in exploring information and generating understanding [14]. In addition to  
57 an open scientific infrastructure [15], visualisation and graphics should be amongst the main  
58 priorities for developing modern science and science-policy.

59         Written science-policy reports are often subject to a “*common approach and*  
60 *calibrated language*” [16]. Such conventions are an essential component of communication  
61 strategies and assist with building reputation - for instance, by indicating scientific  
62 confidence and framing scenario storylines [16]. The same considerations should apply to  
63 visualisations, and actually go further given how easily visuals can engage and influence non-  
64 expert audiences across language barriers. Without joined-up strategies for developing and  
65 disseminating visualisations and graphics (Box 1), those involved in science and science-  
66 policy are missing many opportunities and could bias scientific understanding and policy  
67 communications towards that which is easiest to display.

68         Whether through a lack of training or collaboration, a lack of engagement with  
69 visualisation will potentially lead to ineffective and biased visualisations. In an age of  
70 heightened scientific scrutiny [17,18], this could impact levels of engagement with science  
71 and science-policy, and reduce the reputation of both. To be effective, policy initiatives such  
72 as IPBES (Box 1) should ensure investment and innovation in visualisation and visual  
73 communications keeps pace with the advances being made in scientific research and science-  
74 policy processes. For these reasons, the current poverty of visual communication in science

75 and science-policy deserves a significant response [10]. As put by Fischhoff [19], refusing  
76 help in communication deserves heavy criticism because the stakes are so high.

77 In this article we explore four key issues for increasing the role visualisation plays in  
78 science and science-policy, which in turn introduces a host of issues in graphical  
79 representation [20], technical implementation [21], multidisciplinary collaboration [22], and  
80 user-centred design [23]. Whilst we frame some of our discussion around the newly forming  
81 IPBES (Box 1), the arguments and proposals are relevant to the use of visualisations  
82 throughout science and science-policy (Box 2). We put forward four suggestions for building  
83 capacity in visualisation for our communities (Box 3).

84

## 85 **TRUTH AND BEAUTY: WHAT WE HIDE IN VISUALISATIONS**

86 Science can have an awkward relationship with style and beauty. For instance,  
87 visualisations that are highly engaging can appear disassociated from data sources [24],  
88 appear to advocate particular information by giving it prominence [25], or good visualisations  
89 might be interpreted as effort diverted away from the science. However, irrespective of  
90 content or function, compelling graphics can also create an impression of truth [26] (a so  
91 called “*Cartohypnosis*” [27]) and a lower value or reputation can be attributed to poor designs  
92 [28–30]. Any visualisation should be produced with an understanding of these potential  
93 biases in audiences’ perceptions and take control of them.

94 *Maps* - Visualising geo-spatial data is a key example of how an image can both  
95 display and hide information. Within maps considerable amounts of content can be attractive  
96 and familiar geographic patterns (such as the relative sizing of geographic regions,  
97 boundaries, contours, spatial patterns, and other topologies). This potentially distract from the  
98 data superimposed upon them (Figure 2). When combined with the processes of analysis and

99 the crafting of maps, it can be difficult to discern what information is being displayed, and the  
100 nature of models and data underlying an analysis. For instance, models developed using just a  
101 few highly localised data points (Figure 2a) can be extrapolated to far larger regions (Figure  
102 2b) [31], then interpolated to far finer scales than the original data (Figure 2c) and then  
103 summarised for geo-political regions (Figure 2d). If we actually take control of the different  
104 ways visualisations can influence a user (e.g. differences in design and prominence [32–34],  
105 sensual, imaginative and analytical stimuli; see refs in [35]), we can make rigorous design  
106 choices that reduce bias and visual rhetoric [36]. For instance, maps might be an obvious  
107 means to display geo-spatial information outputs, but not always be the clearest way to  
108 explain quantitative features of analysis and its raw outputs.

109 *Reproducible and Reusable resources* – In order not to hide information, we must  
110 recognise that visualizations are not reality [37]. They are representations of data derived  
111 from a suite of transformations, filters and visual encodings that have produced the particular  
112 style and storyline of a visualisation. Just like any scientific model, the provenance of these  
113 choices should be recorded [38,39] so queries of, and reproducibility from, the source  
114 materials [21,40,41] are possible. Any particular visualisation could then be re-used in  
115 equivalent comparisons with alternative data sources, or alternative visual encodings can be  
116 used with the same data (e.g. map projections [42]).

117 *Uncertainty* - Balanced reporting of findings is essential in science and at the science-  
118 policy interface [16] but few visualisations convey our ignorance alongside our knowledge  
119 [26,43,44]. Omitting uncertainty can promote the apparent precision of data or models,  
120 especially if an average or single sample of all possible outcomes is displayed. In science-  
121 policy, “*calibrated and traceable*” [16] conventions are used to indicate confidence and  
122 uncertainty in text. Many conventions also exist in statistical reporting. However, equivalent

123 guidelines and conventions for visualisations and visualising uncertainty are not currently  
124 available. Visualising uncertainty is an active research domain even if it is an unresolved  
125 issue in information visualisation research (see below).

126

## 127 **DESIGNING FOR NON-SCIENTIFIC AUDIENCES**

128 Science-policy audiences are highly diverse [15,40] and often receive information in  
129 far richer digital environments (e.g. online applications, software, games) than science  
130 typically provides. The page-limited print layouts of academic journals can impose rigid  
131 technical formats onto graphics that limit their re-use [45]. For instance, where huge numbers  
132 of individually informative pixels are irretrievably crammed into small rasterised images [46]  
133 (Figure 2c) and where graphics are otherwise dependent on text, or a publication's format.  
134 Scientific outputs are then produced making numerous assumptions about audiences'  
135 numeracy, vocabulary, expertise and level of interest.

136 Experts and novices can also reason in different ways [20] and might require different  
137 design features. Decision and policy makers are obviously a key audience [47] but they too  
138 are a highly diverse user group and are not always going to be scientifically or statistically  
139 expert [16]. Thus, even if science is freely available (e.g. open, publically available science)  
140 it can remain broadly inaccessible because science produces a static explanation of research  
141 that often requires specialist expertise to understand. Ideally, science would be able to cater  
142 for multiple audiences within interactive devices that allow users to explore scientific  
143 knowledge on their own terms.

144 *Interactive visualisations* - Richer approaches to communicating scientific  
145 information could use visualizations and graphics based on those that enabled scientists' own  
146 discovery; for example, by creating exploratory web applications linking scientific data,

147 models and visuals within an interactive tool [21]. Users might then select presentation styles  
148 suiting their expertise and knowledge, and select particular abstractions, scales, locations or  
149 scenarios based on their own background, interests or serendipitous choices. Such user-driven  
150 selections should maintain some connection to the broader context of information. These  
151 principles should be applied to all types of information contributed to the IPBES (Box 1).  
152 One example comes from the ‘Protected Planet’ web interface [48] where users are  
153 encouraged to edit a community version of data records and rate submitted photographs,  
154 when accessing the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA).

155 *Design Approaches* - Scientists rarely come into contact with the full breadth of  
156 potential audiences [25] and might not always understand their characteristics and  
157 motivations. User-centred [23] and Participatory design approaches [49] explicitly involve  
158 stakeholders in the development and design processes, and could better ensure the diversity  
159 of user needs are met (Box S1). For instance, policy audiences need to re-communicate  
160 information to secondary audiences (e.g. other policy audiences, companies, public & media)  
161 and this reuse could be included in the design of visualizations in order to minimise the biases  
162 arising through a chain of communicators, especially where scrutiny can increase along that  
163 chain [17]. Likewise, ethnographic research and user studies [50] could generate insights that  
164 strengthens and shortens the information pathways between stakeholders and that increases  
165 the flow of information. Successful design requires realistic consideration of the demands  
166 that success may entail [51] - for instance, moving beyond communication of ‘facts’ towards  
167 empowering ‘understanding’[52]. Thus, many benefits will come evaluation procedures that  
168 reflect diversity in end-users (Box S2). The ‘Future Earth’ programme is embarking on taking  
169 on some of these challenges by developing a “*co-design*” process and by integrating  
170 visualisations within any data services provided [3,53]. Given the rarity of this ethos, how the  
171 co-design process is developed could be as influential as the end products.

172

173 **REDUCING THE MULTIDIMENSIONALITY OF COMPLICATED**  
174 **INFORMATION**

175 Most visual interfaces are 2-dimensional (paper, computer displays) and present  
176 considerable challenges for displaying complex multidimensional information (Figure 1)  
177 [54]. For instance, it can be difficult to include further information (such as uncertainty) into  
178 heat maps and choropleth maps (see Figure 2d) because the primary axes are already fixed to  
179 the spatial dimensions of the data. Any further information must then be incorporated by  
180 elaborating on the map by re-designing the glyphs for each spatial position (see below), or by  
181 developing an interactive interface (see above) or using an alternative visualisation design  
182 altogether.

183 Empirical information visualization research has explored some possibilities for  
184 displaying complex information [55–57] but there are very many possible design solutions  
185 and a single definitive design recipe might not exist (e.g. combinations of colours, glyphs,  
186 axes, animations, brushing, layouts, interactions...). Whatever visual strategy is ultimately  
187 used, it is important that scientific and statistical details are not altered. For instance, where  
188 data is based on multiple models, a summary heat map can be produced from an average  
189 ‘model ensemble’ [58]. However, this design choice can alter the properties of the underlying  
190 models through re-scaling (Figure S1) and so introduce a systematic bias into the scientific  
191 message.

192 *Interactive exploration and user narratives* - Multidimensional information can be  
193 difficult for experts to navigate, let alone non-experts. A robust ‘mental model’ might only  
194 develop through a user themselves exploring the complex relationships involved in a system,  
195 model, data set or process [25,59]. However, science is strongly biased towards ‘explanatory’

196 figures that summarise information, rather than producing ‘exploratory’ knowledge interfaces  
197 where audiences can ‘learn by doing’ [60]. One solution for simplifying multidimensional  
198 information is to produce a narrative that focuses on a subset of scenarios, data sources,  
199 content or otherwise contrasts information in order to create a manageable and informative  
200 storyline [61]. The narrative can focus on particular categories in a data set, or particular  
201 parameters in a model, in order to reduce guide users’ learning. In principle, users could  
202 construct and share narratives themselves through interactive features by selecting  
203 components of a data set that interest them [62] (e.g. data filters, or model and scenario  
204 selections)(Figure S2, Box 2). For instance, where user interfaces have many options [63],  
205 users can select their own visualisation, which could be recorded and then compared to those  
206 of other users [64]. Such interactivity should be carefully designed to ensure the resultant  
207 narratives, through editing or user interactions, are complementary to the whole scientific  
208 message [65–67].

209 *Re-designing components of visualisations* – Altering the graphical layouts (e.g. split  
210 views, or superimposed and summarised views [68]) and glyphs (data icons and symbols)  
211 [69] of a visualisation can offer many effective strategies for reducing the dimensionality of  
212 information displays, for instance when communicating any data with estimates of its  
213 uncertainty [70]. These design solutions should simplify a visual display, but also maintain an  
214 unambiguous relationship between our visual and non-visual terminology (e.g. metrics,  
215 definitions, abstractions, uncertainty, ignorance), and the data. Combining multiple  
216 information sources into glyphs is one of the most obvious solutions but has many potential  
217 issues, such as altering the prominence and interpretation of particular values, producing  
218 unwanted clustering and layering effects, or causing the observer to infer unintentional  
219 secondary patterns (Figure S1, *i-iv*). Practical design solutions will be broadly applicable  
220 rather than restricted to particular data resolutions, or other data characteristics such as spatial

221 pattern. Solutions should also remain simple, such that the graphical cues that users are  
222 confronted with are not overloaded and do not render an undecipherable “*visual puzzle*” [71].  
223 Perceptual stress can impede or bias users’ comprehension, or at worst cause audiences to  
224 disengage. These issues of layout and visual encoding continue to be a hot topic in science  
225 and information visualization [22] and visualisation research could be explicitly based on the  
226 context of use found in science and science policy.

227

## 228 **ADDRESSING A TRANSDISCIPLINARY PROBLEM**

229 Rather than being a design or technical service that can be outsourced as an  
230 afterthought, appropriate information visualization and communication strategies must come  
231 from early integration of visualisation tools and expertise. For instance, by linking those who  
232 contribute to, curate, and analyse data and information sources, to designers, communicators  
233 and engineers, and then to those who collate and apply that knowledge (Box 1). Vibrant  
234 research programmes exist in each of these domains, but their integration is currently  
235 insufficient [22]. If a visualisation and visual communication strategy is to be produced that  
236 befits the demands of science-policy programmes such as IPBES (see Box 1) this situation  
237 must change. There has not been significant engagement or influence on training within  
238 ecology and biodiversity sciences to fill those gaps in expertise [12].

239 Within visualisation, research programmes do exist in visualizing uncertainty [20,72]  
240 and the composition of interactive mapping tools [56]. However, this research often uses  
241 different forms of data and uses highly controlled user scenarios that do not necessarily  
242 support the challenges that scientists face. In addition, scientists might not actually be aware  
243 of this literature. The isolation of these fields then needs to be corrected through an on-going  
244 dialogue (e.g. working groups, conferences, collaborations) that can place the requirements of

245 the science and policy into visualisation research, and then use that research. This requires  
246 individuals and groups (translators) who can lead the way by verbalising the challenges,  
247 translating the research and developing examples that inspire progress.

248 *Enabling multidisciplinary collaborations* - To make advances, scientists and science-  
249 policy initiatives, (such as the IPBES and Future Earth [3]) must broker collaborations that  
250 could produce a joined-up approach to visualisation (Box 1). Potential contributors and  
251 collaborators might be unaware of these domains and a clearly defined agenda for  
252 engagement that goes beyond stating high level requirements for ‘*decision support systems*’  
253 [73], ‘*web portals*’ [74] and ‘*user friendly*’ resources [18]. We cannot expect visualisation  
254 practitioners to passively understand our outputs and practices, nor passively diffuse into key  
255 roles in our work. Moreover, science-policy programmes are complex, and might not be well  
256 understood. Then, organisations need to work hard to communicate themselves and their  
257 goals in ways that are not daunting or hindered by organisational barriers. Plans for resource  
258 provision must then account for the eligibility of key contributors (e.g. freelancers,  
259 businesses) for funding bids and pose visualisation as more than a service. In sum, a balance  
260 must be struck between outsourcing visualisation to experts (which would undoubtedly  
261 overlook expertise required from the other domains) and embedding visualisation in all other  
262 activities (which would dilute visualisation expertise). We must sow the right seeds if we are  
263 to embed the relevant expertise within our scientific and science-policy communities.

264 *Generating impact* - It is hard to argue against the huge role visually engaging web  
265 interfaces could play in reaching users [75] (Box 2). However targeted user research is  
266 needed early on in the process to ensure that the goals are realised. Much can be learned from  
267 programmes in ‘*Open Science*’ which aim to increase the accessibility of science [15], but  
268 science-policy must also generate significant levels of and user engagement [76]. There are

269 then huge opportunities and large incentives for individuals and organisations to take  
270 visualisation seriously. For instance, research can gain increased credibility and influence if it  
271 directly addresses stakeholder engagement, and potentially receive increased funding. Both  
272 top-down (science-policy; e.g. funding, publishing, hiring, policy development, engagement)  
273 and bottom-up responses (scientists; e.g. funding bids, training, collaboration) are needed to  
274 improve our visual communications, and the accessibility and usability of research more  
275 generally.

276

## 277 **CONCLUSIONS AND PRACTICAL STEPS**

278 Success in both science and policy are predicated on reliable and unbiased  
279 understanding. Furthermore, our strategies for communicating and curating of knowledge are  
280 fundamental to the structure and impact of both science and science-policy interfaces  
281 [47,73,77]. Thus, it is highly surprising, if not a major failure, that visualisation and visual  
282 communication have been so overlooked in the training of scientists [12] and within the  
283 development of science-policy work programmes [10]. Visualization should be supporting  
284 the whole information pipeline; from *acquiring and exploring data* and *analysing models*, to  
285 the *visual analytics* used to reason across research and assessment activities [13,78], all the  
286 way to *storytelling* [61] for communicating background information, results and conclusions.  
287 Objective and rigorous visualisations and communications will not be developed without  
288 addressing the challenges of their production [12,72].

289 ‘Biological visualization’ offers a great example of successfully embedding  
290 visualization into science and science-policy [14,79] – e.g. in producing visualisations that  
291 enable exploration of large, complex data sets [80,81] using an explicit understanding of user  
292 characteristics when developing visualisations [82], and by offering broader strategies for

293 further progressing the development of biological visualisation [79]. This level of success is  
294 enabled by significant levels of visualisation expertise, training, publishing opportunities, and  
295 conferences (amongst others), which is not generally the case in our sciences. Like biological  
296 visualisation, we should build recognition that visualisation is a highly valued career path in  
297 science. So far we have not seized upon the variety of visualisation opportunities available,  
298 despite the obvious and immediate benefits that have been available for some time.

299         Given the topics we have introduced and discussed, we present a number of  
300 suggestions to generate some capacity which will allow us to act upon these issues and  
301 challenges (Box 3). These suggestions target both top-down and bottom-up responses to the  
302 current poverty in information visualisation we see in our sciences. There are many reasons  
303 to think progress is possible. For instance, technological and research developments have  
304 precipitated significant expertise in information- and data- visualization, information graphics  
305 and data journalism. When combined with increased cultural awareness of data, visualization,  
306 and informatics (and given the web infrastructure) there are huge opportunities to improve  
307 the use of visualisations within and beyond science.

308         From governments [60] and research organisations to the media [83], communication  
309 strategies for complex and uncertain scientific research are being re-considered. These pieces  
310 offer the foundations for science and science policy to build on, and for scientists to work  
311 towards. The stage is then set for science and science-policy to become visually astute. What  
312 are we going to do about it?

313

---

314 **Glossary:**

315 **Brushing:** Where a user positions the cursor or pointer on a screen to activate a secondary function in  
316 an interactive application. For instance, by selecting a subset of data via a mouse which then  
317 highlights certain values by changing colour or appearance, or triggering another operation such as  
318 activating a label by hovering over a subset of the visualisation.

319 **Choropleth Map:** A map visualisation where political regions, biomes, or other areas are colour  
320 coded for the value of a variable within those areas (such as a climate variable or population size) (see  
321 figure 2d). Unlike a heat map (see below, figure 2b), producing a choropleth map might require  
322 further data manipulation to summarise results for the desired boundaries (e.g. averaging or  
323 interpolation for those areas) from a gridded model for example.

324 **Co-Design:** Defined as “*an active involvement of researchers and stakeholders during the entire*  
325 *research process*” [53]. Within this process, researchers and stakeholders work together when  
326 defining research questions, methods and defining a strategy for disseminating results, in order to  
327 produce trans-disciplinary and targeted approaches to science-policy [53]. Stakeholders can include  
328 academic research, science-policy interfaces, policy makers, funders, governments (regional, national  
329 and international), development groups, corporations, businesses and industry, public, and the media  
330 [53].

331 **Ethnography:** Research seeking to understand individual and cultural responses to tools (e.g.  
332 software, new information, methods). Ethnography may investigate how users interpret and  
333 understand the tools, build relationships with those tools, as well as define the context of use for these  
334 tools in real situations. For instance by understanding how people come in to contact with particular  
335 information resources, as well as understanding how they interact with those resources, or share those  
336 resources and information. Ethnography is highly complementary to Participatory- and User-Centred-  
337 Design methods.

338 **Future Earth:** Launched in 2012, Future Earth is an international research programme formed to  
339 provide critical knowledge on global environmental change and global sustainability [53].

340 **Glyph:** A symbol used to represent information. Simple glyphs could be circles or other shapes used  
341 to mark a location in a simple x, y plot. More complex glyphs can encode multiple sources of  
342 information by using the different visual channels (shape, size, colour, orientation, brightness, texture,  
343 location) in a variety of combinations.

344 **Graphical layout:** The relative positioning and sizing of different components of a visualisation. For  
345 instance, where multiple graphs or figures are used a layout structures the relationship of the different  
346 information sources. The layout may communicate some context, or develop a narrative. Examples  
347 include inset graphs, small multiple plots (see below), or linked views in a visualisation.

348 **Heat map:** Visualisation using a colour coding system to represent the values of a matrix or grid  
349 system (e.g. a gridded map). Heat maps can use a range of colour encodings, or have multiple features  
350 where those square glyphs are augmented (see “glyph” above).

351 **Information visualisation:** The processes of producing visual representations of data and the outputs  
352 of that work. Information Visualisation aims to enhance human’s ability to carry out a task by  
353 encoding often highly abstract information into a visual form. Visualisations can be static, or  
354 interactive and dynamics, and hosted in a variety of media (e.g. journal, poster, website, software).

355 **Intergovernmental Platform for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services:** see Box 1

356 **Linked Views:** Interaction where a user interacts with a component of a visualisation that prompts a  
357 change in one or more other visualisations. The visualisations can have different axes, glyphs,  
358 dimensions or other visual encodings. For instance, one may hover a cursor on a map which feeds that  
359 location data to a visualisation highlighting relative rank of that data amongst all locations.

360 **Model Ensemble:** A modelled representation comprising of multiple sources of information, more  
361 specifically referring to a group of models being used together rather than separately. Each model  
362 might be a different method, or use different data sources, or be based on different conditions.

363 **Narrative:** A structure developed to reveal information in a particular order, or in particular contrasts,  
364 in order to make a point, contextualise information, to pose certain questions, or otherwise create  
365 storylines. Narratives can be developed by embellishing graphics and visualisations with annotations,  
366 labels or other text, by including other information such as pictures, or via layouts, interactions and  
367 animations.

368 **Participatory Design:** A process for designing and developing a product that actively involves  
369 stakeholders within the whole design process. Unlike ‘User-Centred-Design’ (see below),  
370 participatory approaches can involve greater integration of users in the whole design process.

371 **Science-Policy:** The activities and outputs using scientific information to inform and guide general  
372 strategies or particular tactics within the policies of governments, NGOs or other organisations.

373 **Small Multiples:** A series of graphs using common axes and encodings within a single graphical  
374 layout. Small multiples allow different categories to be separated and contrasted where plotting all  
375 data simultaneously would result in occluded categories or an otherwise unclear graphic. Small  
376 multiples can also be used to develop a narrative (e.g. different patterns evolving through time).

377 **Stakeholder:** An individual, group, or organisation that is, or could be, affected by a process or  
378 output, or that can affect that process or output. Stakeholders may share a common interest but  
379 possibly for very different reasons (such as farmers, agricultural scientists, policy makers).

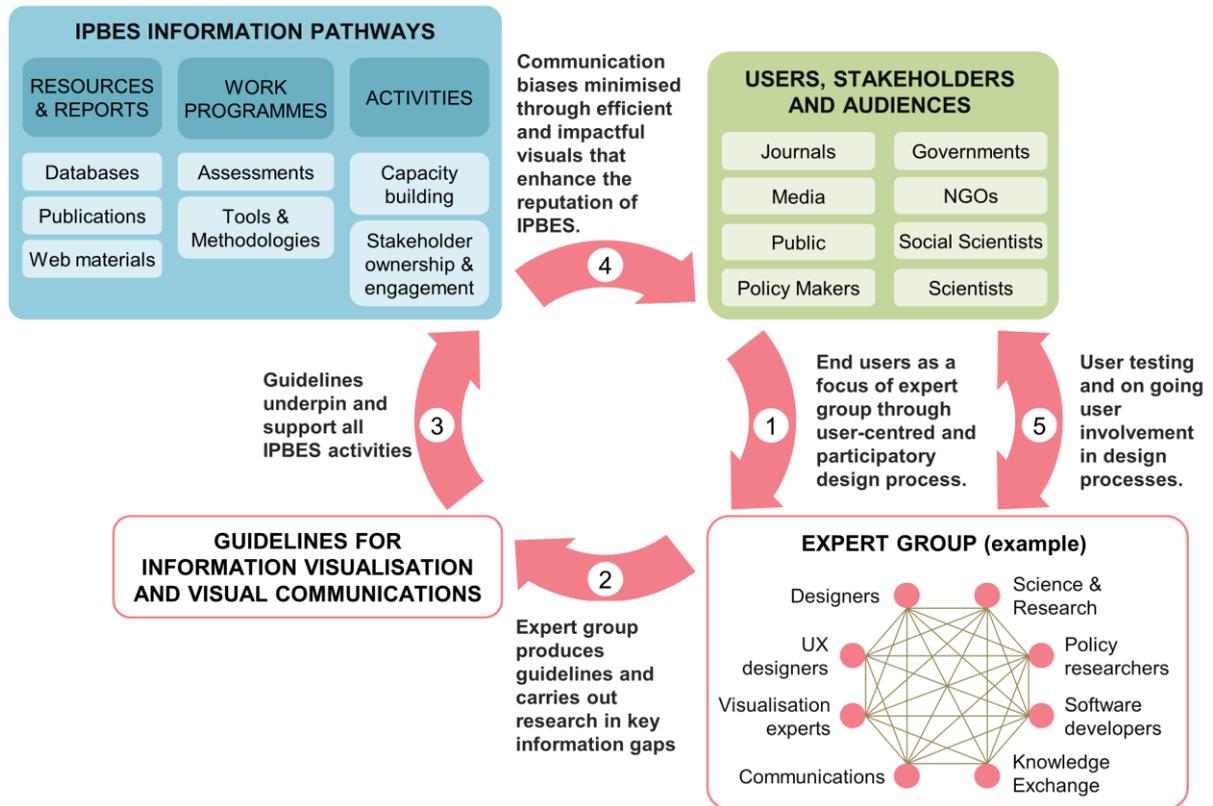
380 **User-Centred-Design:** The process which involves direct interactions with end users when defining,  
381 developing and testing a product. From the outset, user requirements are developed so that products  
382 are based on a deep understanding of users’ education and abilities, as well as their goals, behaviours  
383 and motivations, the technology they use, and in what environments (context of use). In contrast to  
384 participatory design, users may not be directly involved in the design process.

385 **Uncertainty:** Uncertainty can refer to a variety of concepts including ignorance, incompleteness,  
386 variation, and stochasticity. Uncertainty can be derived from incomplete knowledge, imperfect  
387 methods, sources of measurement or observation bias and propagation of multiple sources of  
388 uncertainty.

---

389 **BOX 1: IPBES - INTERGOVERNMENTAL PLATFORM ON BIODIVERSITY &**  
390 **ECOSYSTEM SERVICES**

391 Following the 2010 UN general assembly, the ‘Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity &  
392 Ecosystem Services’ (IPBES, [www.ipbes.net](http://www.ipbes.net)) has developed around the aims of providing an  
393 independent scientific platform for biodiversity, and generating significant policy influence. IPBES  
394 will frequently deal with complicated large-scale models and multidimensional data resources  
395 [1,78,84] that are challenging for experts to analyse let alone communicate [40,57] (Figure1). Given  
396 these goals [84] the IPBES faces some immensely demanding challenges - in addition to providing  
397 large-scale scientific assessments, the IPBES must engage diverse audiences with diverse services and  
398 outputs, whilst ensuring stakeholder ownership and engagement, and also increasing these activities’  
399 efficiency through effective communication [73]. These are demanding goals. Data visualizations and  
400 graphics could enhance all these activities within the policy reports and web interfaces that are  
401 intended to make vast amounts of data, assessments and documentation accessible (see main text). By  
402 firmly embedding visualisation and graphics into its work programmes, the IPBES can immediately  
403 go further than previous science-policy programmes, such as the IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel for  
404 Climate Change) [76].



405

406 **Figure I** (w \* h; 17.35cm \* 11.7cm; 3 column)

407 **An expert group could provide guidelines and strategy which underpin all IPBES outputs and**

408 **activities.** By contextualising communications from the perspectives of end-users, and within the

409 diverse components of the IPBES information pathways, an expert group could help generate efficient

410 and engaging visual communications. As part of a user-centred and iterative design cycle IPBES

411 information pathways could be developed to maximise their effectiveness and impact

412

413



428 The second example - “*State of the Polar Bear*” [63] - is an interactive tool designed and developed  
429 by the data visualisation company Perisopic, for the IUCN Polar Bear Specialist Group  
430 (<http://pbsg.npolar.no/en/index.html>). The Polar Bear Specialist group advises science-policy and  
431 management organisations on the latest scientific knowledge using a variety of information sources  
432 that includes more than a thousand articles. (C) Within the interactive tool, diverse and fragmented  
433 information resources are brought together into a single web application based on interactive  
434 visualisations. Users can explore and display data on spatial location, population trends, threats,  
435 pollution studies, and harvesting information, and also find refernces upon which this information is  
436 based. (D) Unlike the scientific literature resources [88], this tool is open access, accessible, dynamic  
437 and engaging. In a short time a user can become acquainted with a variety of information sources and  
438 through these experiences, and build a picture of the patterns and threats to a species in a way that  
439 collections of scientific articles cannot achieve. Also see a new tool - <http://globalcarbonatlas.org/> -  
440 for exploring carbon fluxes.

441 **B** Adapted by permission from Macmillan Publishers Ltd: Nature Watts & Strogatz [86], © 1998.

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442

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443 **BOX 3: FOUR SUGGESTIONS FOR BUILDING VISUALISATION CAPACITY IN**  
444 **OUR COMMUNITIES.**

445           Demand and nurture better quality visualisations and graphics in our science by  
446 implementing appropriate training; higher standards for visualisations in journals; and  
447 reframing the role of visualisation should play in our scientific work. Increased grass roots  
448 expertise will make all other suggestions easier.

449           Hire expertise and embed it within our organisations in order to seed exemplar  
450 projects and work practices; embed expertise that can co-ordinate and deliver appropriate  
451 training programs; and to contextualise visualisation research on problems with a direct route  
452 to application and further collaboration with visualisation communities.

453           Embed visualisation in science-policy and knowledge exchange programs by fusing  
454 expertise into the processes at an early stage; generating user-requirements and user stories to  
455 provide context for the design of visualisations; and producing visualisation and visual  
456 communication guidelines that set appropriate standards for designing and evaluating  
457 graphics, which should include strategies for engaging further expertise (see below).

458           Ensure that we can communicate our science and science-policy programmes in  
459 appropriate ways to the various areas of expertise that we need to engage – from academic  
460 visualisation researchers and visualisation practitioners, to user experience designers and  
461 informatics professionals; all the way to designers and communications specialists.

---

462

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473

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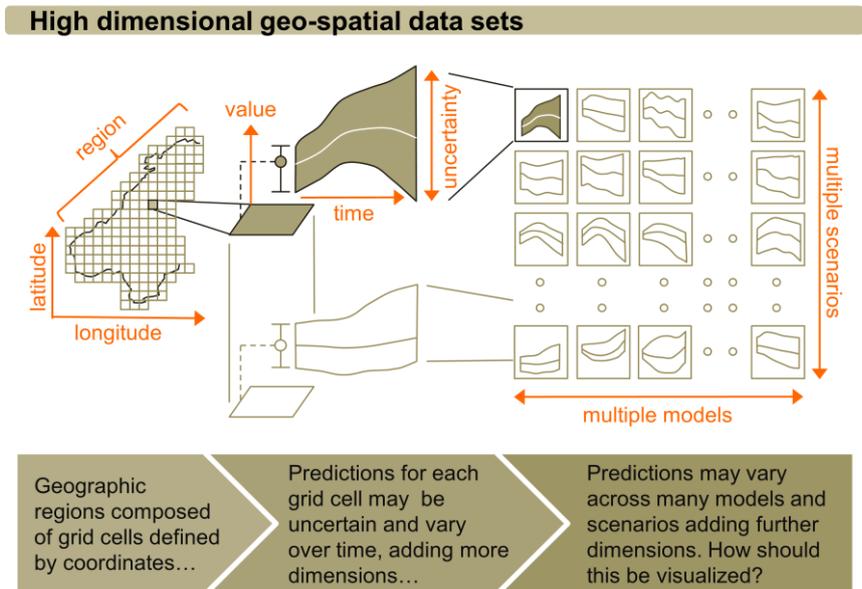
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650

651

652 **FIGURES**



653  
654 **Figure 1** (w \* h; 11.3cm \* 7.9cm; 2 column)

655

656 **Scientists and science-policy frequently deal with high dimensional modelled outputs but how**

657 **will they be visualised?** For instance, across spatial regions (e.g. defined by grid cells and spatial co-

658 ordinates) models can predict a value for a metric of interest and which has an associated uncertainty

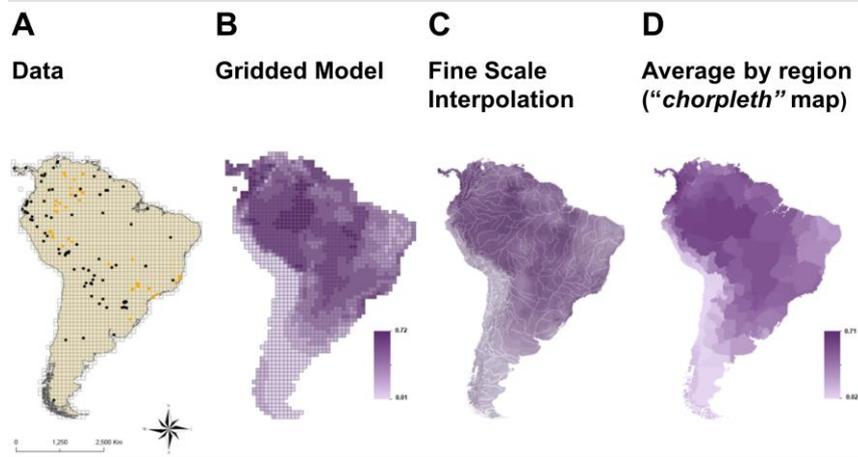
659 measure, both of which can change over time. When multiplied across a multiplicity of models and

660 scenarios (and also alternative methods and simulations) information displays become highly

661 challenging, even before including meta data or multiple variables of interest and their associated

662 uncertainties.

663



664

665 **Figure 2** (w \* h; 11.3cm \* 5.5cm; 2 column)

666

667 **Highly crafted maps can alter our perception of, and ability to query, models and data.** For  
 668 example, sparse, spatially biased data on a species distribution **(a)** (yellow dots) can be used to create  
 669 a coarse gridded model **(b)**, which can then projected onto a fine-scale map **(c)** or averaged for geo-  
 670 political regions **(d)**. Each map confers a different message on the precision and uncertainty of  
 671 biodiversity information [black dots in **(a)** represent observations not used to develop this model].  
 672 Appropriate visual communication techniques must engage users and inform, but also maintain links  
 673 with the underlying models and data. *See supplementary information for details on this species*  
 674 *distribution model of the Jaguar.*

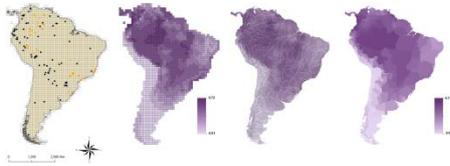
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677 **Supplementary Information**

678

679 **Information for Jaguar model shown in figure 2 of main text.**



680

681 We compare the results of a Species Distribution Model (SDM) based on a biased dataset  
682 with an independent source of data, to show that despite the beauty of the maps, they can  
683 provide information of poor quality. The geographic distribution of the jaguar (*Panthera*  
684 *onca*) was modeled using all the records of the species available in speciesLink  
685 (<http://splink.cria.org.b0072/>; yellow dots in Figure 2a), a database restricted to Brazil. These  
686 data were used to calibrate a SDM with Maximum Entropy Modelling (MaxEnt; Phillips et  
687 al., 2006), relating jaguar occurrences at 100 km width grid cells with ten climatic predictors:  
688 precipitation of coldest quarter, precipitation of warmest quarter, precipitation seasonality,  
689 annual precipitation, mean temperature of wettest quarter, mean temperature of driest quarter,  
690 maximum temperature of warmest period, minimum temperature of coldest period,  
691 temperature seasonality and annual mean temperature (all obtained from Worldclim;  
692 <http://www.worldclim.org/>, Hijmans et al., 2005).

693 The climate suitability for jaguar populations predicted by such a model (Figure 2b; the  
694 darker the purple tone, the more climatically suitable a given area is) was artificially  
695 downscaled to 10 km width pixels, using topographic relief and major rivers to represent  
696 major geographic features within the map (Figure 2c). We then compare the geographic  
697 distribution of climatic suitability with data from GBIF (<http://data.gbif.org/>, black dots in  
698 Figure 2a), a biodiversity information network that provides occurrence information at a  
699 global extent. Note that several occurrences from GBIF are located in areas of low climatic  
700 suitability according to SDM results.

701 R.J. Hijmans *et al.* Very high resolution interpolated climate surfaces for global land areas.,  
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704 S.J. Phillips *et al.* Maximum entropy modeling of species geographic distributions.,  
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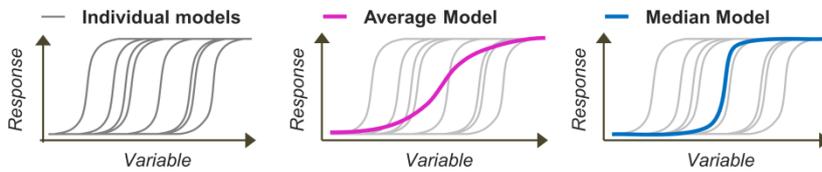
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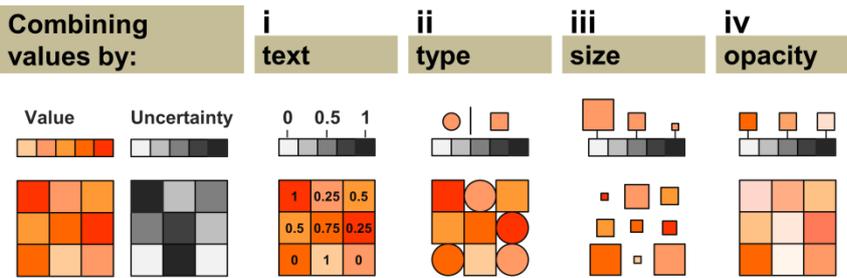
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A

Model averaging



B



710

711

Figure S1

712

Combining multiple information sources into a single graphic can be challenging.

713

Multiple models may be more easily visualised as an average model, but that average can

714

have different properties from individual models introducing a bias into the communication

715

of the models' properties (a). Other statistics (e.g. median model) can however have similar

716

properties to the individual models and may be more suitable for communication, even if the

717

range of predictions is less well represented. When attempting to integrate 'value' and

718

'uncertainty' into a single heat map the information may become difficult to read (b, i), or we

719

can introduce a bias into observers' understanding by causing viewers to perceive layers of

720

values or other secondary patterns (b, ii), or altering the prominence of certain values (b, iii),

721

or inhibiting observers' ability to assign the meaning of colours to particular a value or level

722

of uncertainty (b, iv). Uncertainty is a key focus of policy and visualizing uncertainty is an

723

active, if unresolved, research domain [14]. It may be that the separation of information

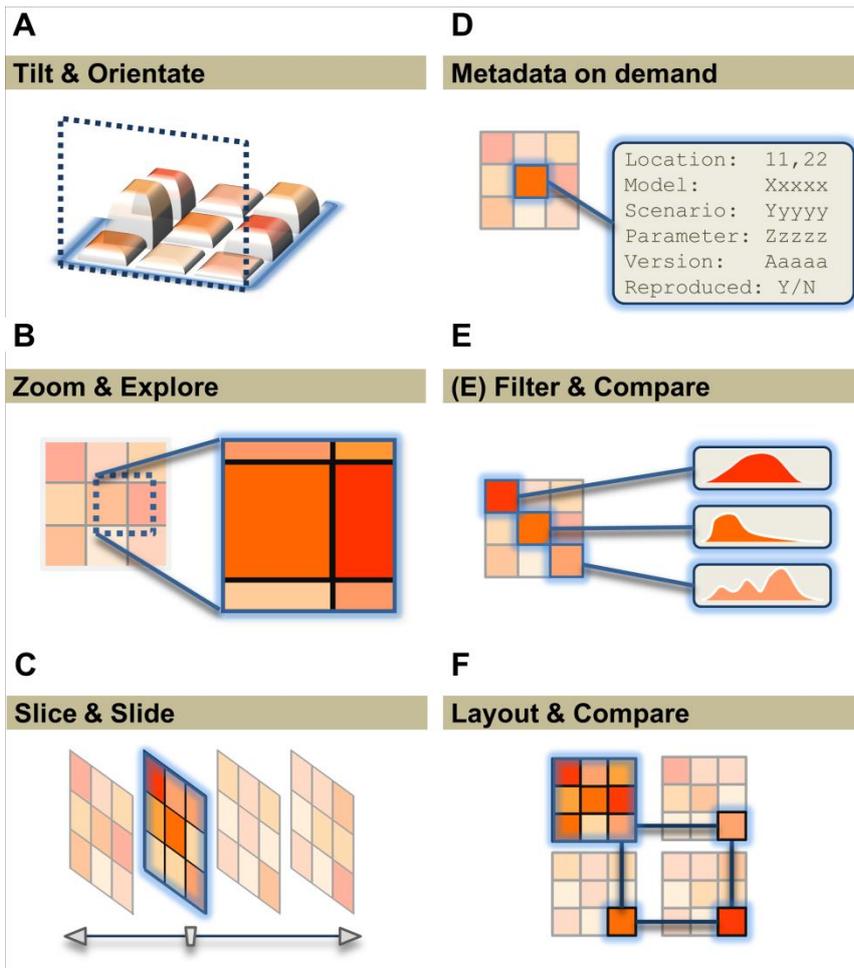
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('juxtaposition') results in the clearest strategy [51], or that having two levels gives the

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greatest clarity (e.g. (b ii) high and low uncertainty).

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**Figure S2**

**How do we enable users to explore information on their own terms?** The ability to interact and create narratives may be vital to engaging users (**a-f**). These interactions are facets of modern communication applications, such as those alluded to in the IPBES communication strategy [20]. However, interactive displays are not usually supported in the scientific literature, or generated by scientists.

735

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736 **BOX S1: A VARIETY OF DESIGN CHALLENGES**

737

738 *Example audiences:*

- 739 ○ Scientist 1 - e.g. domain specialist
- 740 ○ Scientist 2 - e.g. alternative domain
- 741 ○ Politician
- 742 ○ Policy researcher
- 743 ○ Research council
- 744 ○ Lay person 1 - e.g. numerate
- 745 ○ Lay person 2 - e.g. language difference
- 746 ○ Journalist 1 – e.g. scientific
- 747 ○ Journalist 2 – e.g. non-scientific

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749 *Example media:*

- 750 ○ Printed document
- 751 ○ Scientific publication
- 752 ○ Website
- 753 ○ Poster
- 754 ○ Oral presentation
- 755 ○ Software interface
- 756 ○ TV
- 757 ○ Radio & Internet radio

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759 **BOX S2: EXAMPLE MEASURES OF SUCCESS**

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- 761 ● Audience engagement
- 762 ● Perceptual stress avoidance
- 763 ● Sharing and re-use
- 764 ● Comprehension of information
- 765 ● Developing effective mental models
- 766 ● Reproducibility of information
- 767 ● Comparability with other sources
- 768 ● Citations in science and policy
- 769 ● Views by and impacts on the public
- 770 ● Persistence of recollection and influence
- 771 ● Immunity to developing misleading anecdotes

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