

Perceptual models of uncertainty for socio-hydrological systems: a flood risk change example

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Motivation and aim of this commentary

Characterising, understanding and better estimating uncertainty related to changing socio-hydrological systems are key concerns for the IAHS scientific initiative “Panta Rhei: Change in Hydrology and Society” (Montanari et al., 2013; McMillan et al., 2016). New types of questions and uncertainties come into focus when the hydrological system is expanded to a changing socio-hydrological system (Fig. 1). These add to the already significant uncertainty about how to deal with uncertainty in hydrology (Juston et al., 2014; Nearing et al., 2016; Montanari, 2007; Brown, 2010; Brugnach et al., 2008; Beven, 2012; 2016). This second order uncertainty is not surprising since many of the uncertainties that we have to deal with in both hydrology and socio-hydrology result from a lack of knowledge about processes, boundary conditions and the limitations of data, which means that there can be no right answer. Consequently, any analysis of uncertainty will depend on the person who is doing the analysis and their perceptions of what is important. Eliciting and discussing different peoples’ perspectives can therefore expand our knowledge about uncertainty – as well as reduce our exposure to surprises (Merz et al, 2015). For similar reasons, many authors have argued for an open and explicit treatment of uncertainty in environmental research and risk assessment (Stirling, 2010; Refsgaard et al., 2007; Beven, 2012; Brown, 2010; Juston et al., 2013; Spiegelhalter and Riesch, 2011).

A perceptual model is a qualitative (and personal) summary of our knowledge about a system and its complexities, which evolves over time (Beven, 1991). It is useful in any analysis, and is therefore not necessarily related to the use of a conceptual or mathematical model or to management decision support (e.g. McGlynn et al., 2002; Ocampo et al., 2006). Here we suggest developing a *perceptual model of uncertainty* that is complementary to the perceptual model of a socio-hydrological system. It summarises the uncertainties inherent in our knowledge about the system and aims at making all relevant uncertainty sources – and different perceptions thereof – explicit in a structured way. Such a model would be particularly useful in a collaborative field like socio-hydrology, by helping structuring dialogue, communication, and understanding about uncertainty between researchers and stakeholders focusing on different aspects

48 of the coupled system – such as social scientists and hydrologists (Faulkner et al., 2007;
49 Krueger et al., 2016).

50

51 We expect any perceptual model to be application-specific. Here we suggest a general
52 methodological approach for identifying and assessing sources of uncertainty that aims
53 to be applicable to complex coupled socio-hydrological systems. We apply our
54 methodology to a flood risk example, where mapping uncertainty about causal
55 phenomena and system response in terms of future flood-generating processes,
56 exposure and vulnerability is central to modelling, reducing and managing risk (Beven
57 et al., 2014; Merz et al., 2015). We believe that the method can be useful as a way of
58 building consensus about uncertainty related to flood risk change – while openly
59 recognizing ignorance and the diversity of perspectives on risk and uncertainty arising
60 from inter- or trans-disciplinary work (van der Sluijs et al., 2010).

61

62 #Fig. 1 approximately here#

63

64 **The nature and characteristics of uncertainty**

65 We first shortly review how uncertainty has been defined in the literature to provide a
66 background to the categories we propose to describe the nature of uncertainty in the
67 perceptual model. Many authors propose to differentiate between uncertainty that arises
68 because of imperfect knowledge (epistemic uncertainty) and aleatory uncertainty that
69 is a result of inherent, stochastic variability (Walker et al., 2003; Ferson et al., 2004;
70 Koutsoyiannis, 2010; Rougier and Beven, 2013). In practice, uncertainty estimates
71 often contain aspects of both these types of uncertainty, e.g., Refsgaard et al. (2007)
72 give the example of the uncertainty in a 100-year flood estimate that depends both on
73 the methods of data collection and analysis (epistemic) and the natural weather
74 variability (aleatory). However, there is disagreement in the literature as to whether
75 epistemic and aleatory are useful labels. Nearing et al. (2016), for example, argue that
76 all uncertainty is fundamentally epistemic and that processes only appear inherently
77 random (aleatory) because we do not understand the underlying processes. Brown
78 (2004) provides a wider definition of uncertainty as *a state of confidence in knowledge*,
79 occurring along the spectrum between certainty and *indeterminacy* (recognising that
80 there are things we cannot know). In between these extremes there may be both
81 *bounded* uncertainty (we know all possible outcomes but not necessarily all
82 corresponding probabilities) and *unbounded* uncertainty (we do not know all possible
83 outcomes and corresponding probabilities). For example, in flood risk analysis we
84 know the possible flood inundation depths over a Digital Terrain Model through
85 physical reasoning, though we often do not know the probability of a certain depth in a
86 particular location for a given flood scenario. This is a case of bounded uncertainty
87 without all probabilities known. Other cases of bounded uncertainty may be constructed
88 where we are more confident we know the complete probability distribution over all
89 possible states of the system (bounded uncertainty with all probabilities known). An
90 example of unbounded uncertainty in the case of flood risk would be the ways of
91 responding to flooding that inhabitants in flood prone areas continuously invent against
92 the background of the regulatory, economic and political systems. We can imagine a
93 set of possible responses even if they have never been observed before, but we just do
94 not know what people's ingenuity will come up with next, let alone attaching
95 probabilities to these possibilities. An example of indeterminable uncertainty (i.e.

96 things we cannot know and that will therefore always lead to an element of surprise) is
97 the timing of flood events happening in the distant future.

98
99 This wider definition of uncertainty as a state of confidence in knowledge is useful as
100 it incorporates the conditional nature of uncertainty as dependent on the methods and
101 people used to estimate it – including the underlying framing of the research problem
102 that we bring to the analysis (see also Brugnach et al., 2008). It puts focus on social
103 influences such as ambiguity of language and scientific philosophy, and psychological
104 factors such as cognitive biases or heuristics in uncertainty treatment (Brown, 2010;
105 Kahneman et al., 1982). It also highlights the role of ignorance (lack of awareness), i.e.
106 that we are really not aware of how imperfect our knowledge is and that we may thus
107 be surprised when “unknown unknowns” occur (Brown, 2010; Merz et al., 2015; Di
108 Baldassarre et al., 2016). Ignorance is personal and can be actively constructed by
109 ignoring extraneous information (that others might find relevant) in closing a problem
110 (Brown, 2010).

111 **A perceptual model of uncertainty**

112 In the same way that a perceptual model of hydrological processes is a qualitative (and
113 personal) summary of the complexity of hillslope and catchment responses – a
114 perceptual model of uncertainty is a similar qualitative summary of uncertainty. The
115 perceptual model of processes is (at least implicitly) the foundation for any
116 mathematical description of hillslope and catchment responses (and for an appreciation
117 of the limitations of a mathematical description). This could also be the case for the
118 perceptual model of uncertainty, and it should likewise evolve over time as we learn
119 about, reduce and expand different uncertainties. In cases where different research
120 and/or stakeholder groups are involved (e.g. scientists, flood warning officers, and
121 floodplain residents), it would be useful for each group to develop their own perceptual
122 models first, and then compare and discuss them.

123
124 Our approach to building the perceptual model consists of three steps: 1) Identifying
125 uncertainty in the framing of the studied system and problem; 2) Identifying uncertainty
126 sources in the socio-hydrological system; and 3) Defining the nature, interactions and
127 relative importance of the uncertainty sources. These steps are described in further
128 detail in the following sections. In Table 1 we list a set of general questions to help
129 identify the relevant uncertainty sources (that depend on the application) and
130 investigate their characteristics.

131

132 **1) Identifying uncertainty in the framing of the studied system and problem**

133 The first step in building the perceptual model of uncertainty is to define the coupled
134 socio-hydrological system under study (Fig. 1) and the particular problem to be
135 addressed. Starting with hydrological systems, these are open systems but they need to
136 be approximated by a closed system to be able to apply mass, energy and momentum
137 balance equations (Beven, 2006). How the system is defined and closed, i.e. which
138 system properties and cross-boundary fluxes are considered and which are ignored,
139 therefore constitutes an important source of uncertainty (Brown, 2010). For example,
140 Graham et al. (2010), study how deep-seepage processes affect water balance closure
141 and show that explicit consideration of uncertainty about different fluxes and flow
142 pathways is needed to draw robust conclusions. Uncertainties about the cross-boundary

143 fluxes that affect the boundary conditions of the system should therefore be identified,
144 including identification of those fluxes that are being excluded. Moving to social
145 systems, we first need to decide which of the systems coupled to hydrology should be
146 included – i.e. which cultural, political and economic systems should be considered?
147 Coupled systems that may potentially be important but have been left out of the analysis
148 should be noted as a source of uncertainty. Then we need to consider how we delineate
149 social systems given the diversity of human impacts and the disparity of social
150 boundaries, e.g. administrative regions, which often do not correspond to river basins
151 (Moss, 2012), how we define social entities (e.g. individuals, groups, practices), and
152 how we relate these to each other and their environment/the hydrological system (e.g.
153 through communication, power, economic exchange). Acknowledging uncertainty in
154 the framing of the research problem itself would be a necessary part of this first step of
155 building the perceptual model, incorporating perspectives of scientists from different
156 disciplines and non-academic stakeholders. This includes recognition of different
157 philosophical research foundations in social and natural sciences, including different
158 views on reality, knowledge and research aims (Owusu, 2016; Krueger et al., 2016).
159

160 **2) Identifying the uncertainty sources in the socio-hydrological system**

161 The uncertainty sources are application-specific, but would generally include
162 uncertainties in hydrological and social data, process representations, socio-
163 hydrological impacts of hydrological events, and societal response to hydrological
164 events (Table 1 and 2). Non-stationarity of uncertainty in space and time is important
165 to consider, not least when it comes to uncertainty in hydrological and social data – e.g.
166 discharge data uncertainty characteristics vary temporally because of changing river-
167 bed conditions (Westerberg et al., 2011). Uncertainties related to drivers and feedbacks
168 within the system mainly relate to the interplay between social processes and
169 hydrological dynamics, e.g. seasonal and permanent migration patterns in areas
170 affected by flood events (Penning-Rowsell et al., 2013). Conceptual models can be used
171 a tool to explore and learn about such uncertainties, e.g. to what extent socio-
172 hydrological developments are path-dependent so that the history of events exerts
173 control over future behaviour (Beven, 2015; Viglione et al., 2014). Long-term socio-
174 hydrological predictions can be used as tools to explore uncertainties related to possible
175 future system states and boundary conditions, by investigating alternative, plausible
176 and co-evolving trajectories of the coupled human-water system under different
177 conditions (Srinivasan et al., 2016). Finally, we must remember that there may be
178 uncertainty sources that we are not aware of, and that surprises emerging from unknown
179 unknowns or incorrect formulations of emergent behaviour (unforeseen consequences)
180 can play a major role in shaping the actual dynamics of socio-hydrological systems (Di
181 Baldassarre et al, 2016). Merz et al. (2015) suggest approaches such as spatial, temporal
182 and causal information expansion to reduce the potential for surprise in flood risk
183 systems.
184

185 **3) Defining the nature, interactions and relative importance of the** 186 **uncertainty sources**

187 For each identified uncertainty source in steps 1 and 2, we propose that the nature of
188 the uncertainty is classified in three classes according to whether it is 1) Bounded, 2)
189 Unbounded, or 3) Indeterminable (Table 1 and 2). Here the bounded category could be
190 further sub-divided according to whether the probabilities associated to the possible

191 states are known or are problematic to define (as discussed in the section The nature
192 and characteristics of uncertainty above). Any interactions between the uncertainty
193 sources are then analysed (see example in Table 2) – this will be an important aspect to
194 consider in any prediction of future change. For example, uncertainties in how the
195 system is closed will directly interact with the uncertainties related to future flood risk.
196 The final step in building the perceptual model is to assess the relative importance of
197 the different uncertainty sources in relation to the formulated research problem. We
198 propose that a quantitative or qualitative scale is first agreed upon and that the
199 importance of each source is then ranked independently by the relevant researchers and
200 stakeholders before the rankings are shared, discussed and potentially reconciled (see
201 van der Sluijs et al. (2005) for a similar approach for model-based assessments). This
202 is expected to help prioritise research efforts and generate a better understanding of the
203 importance of uncertainties from different viewpoints. For example, a political
204 ecologist and a hydrologist may have very different views on the importance of
205 uncertainty sources related to the effectiveness of flood control measures like planting
206 of riparian forests or blocking of upland drainage channels to create wetlands. For the
207 latter, a hydrologist may focus on uncertainty related to flow pathways in the wetlands
208 in relation to their moisture state and position in the landscape. A political ecologist,
209 instead, may focus on uncertainty related to the particular rationality underlying this
210 flood control measure and whether this is contested by local knowledge and creates
211 conflicts with local communities’ livelihoods. This is important since political
212 consequences may arise from closing the system in a particular way or using particular
213 uncertainty representations at the expense of competing ones in a decision-making
214 context. Zeitoun et al. (2016), for example, argue that a probabilistic representation of
215 uncertainty where it is not warranted (in the case of unbounded uncertainty) will lead
216 to water security policies that are vulnerable to those uncertainties that the probabilistic
217 representation leaves out and too inflexible in the face of future surprises.

218

219 #Table1 approximately here#

220 **A flood risk example**

221 We now present an example of the methodological approach proposed above (steps 1–
222 3) for the analysis of changes in flood risk, defined here as a combination of hazard,
223 exposure and vulnerability. Our example is generic and therefore lists a set of typical
224 uncertainty sources, questions and areas to be assessed in an application to a particular
225 flood risk case. In practical applications the distinction between bounded and
226 unbounded for some uncertainty sources may be different depending on the type of
227 information available. Hydrological studies have focused on the uncertainty in the
228 hazard component, which is mainly caused by the existence of various climate
229 projections and numerous downscaling techniques (e.g. Prudhomme and Davies, 2009).
230 Meanwhile, socio-economic studies have emphasized the role of socio-economic trends
231 in increasing a society’s exposure (e.g. Hallegatte et al., 2014). Lastly, it has been
232 shown how changes in society’s vulnerability driven by the experience of past flood
233 events can significantly reduce flood damage (e.g. Mechler and Bouwer, 2014). Policy
234 and decision makers have often complained about the lack of clarity about these
235 different sources of uncertainty and the relative importance of knowledge gaps.
236 Moreover, many authors have argued that the spatial and social distribution of risk is
237 often overlooked as measures of flood risk reduction for some might lead to increased
238 flood risk for others (e.g. Collins, 1999).

239

240 When building a perceptual model of uncertainty for flood risk change analyses, the
241 socio-hydrological cycle depicted in Fig. 1 can be used as a starting point by clarifying
242 the propagation of the various sources of uncertainty. By following the feedback loop
243 of Fig. 1 from the top-left (*Regional/global climate change*), the diagram can be used
244 to describe how uncertainty in climate change projections affect the estimation of
245 changes in flood hazard (*Hydrology*), which are then experienced by society (*Impacts*
246 *and Perceptions*), which in turn can respond by changing its vulnerability or exposure
247 (*Policies and Measures*) as well as by introducing new structural measures, which again
248 alter the flood hazard. The influence of hydrology on impacts/perceptions and
249 impacts/perceptions on society are likely to be the most uncertain feedbacks in this
250 loop. Sometimes the feedback can go beyond the system boundaries such as for
251 example the floods in Thailand in 2011, which had worldwide consequences for the
252 manufacturing industry because of global supply chain limitations (Haraguchi and Lall,
253 2015). Table 2 lists the main sources of uncertainty following the three steps of
254 developing the perceptual model (Table 1) and the feedback loop of the socio-
255 hydrological cycle (Fig. 1).

256
257 Many of the sources of uncertainty have unbounded characteristics and relate to how
258 we actively close the system we study (Table 2). This will allow some stakeholders to
259 push certain representations of uncertainty (or neglect some sources of uncertainty
260 altogether) if this fits their interests. For example, emphasising or not the uncertainty
261 of nature-based solutions for flood risk mitigation such as blocked drains, or beaver
262 dams (Nyssen et al., 2011). A situation of uncertainty is often a welcome state for all
263 parties as it allows enlisting a selective interpretation of the unknown into one's pre-
264 existing political agenda (Milman and Ray, 2011). The advantage of being explicit
265 about sources of uncertainty, and their perceived importance, in this context is to
266 facilitate an open discussion of how to address each source – as well as the meaning of
267 the resulting uncertainty estimates. Agreement on what sources of uncertainty are to be
268 considered, and assumptions about their nature, will also provide an audit trail that can
269 later be reviewed and reconsidered as necessary (Beven et al., 2014).

270
271 #Table2 approximately here#

272 **Summary**

273 Identifying, characterising, and discussing the uncertainties inherent in our
274 understanding of socio-hydrological systems through a perceptual uncertainty model is
275 a first step to assessing uncertainty in system outcomes. It can raise awareness not only
276 about different sources of uncertainty, but also about different perceptions of
277 uncertainty and can thus help us deal with and eventually reduce uncertainty about
278 uncertainty treatment. We demonstrated how this concept can be applied to flood risk
279 change analysis, but it can be extended to many other areas in socio-hydrology. We
280 posit that open and explicit consideration of uncertainty does not only contribute to the
281 production of more robust and reliable conclusions in socio-hydrology, but that it is an
282 essential part of building trust and possibly consensus between actors in water and risk
283 management – notwithstanding the political forces that will work against trust and
284 consensus and that may benefit from particular perceptions of uncertainty or from
285 ignoring it.

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412

413 **TABLES**

414

415

416 Table 1. The different steps and questions to be addressed in building the perceptual
417 model of uncertainty

Step in building the perceptual model	Questions to address
1) Identifying uncertainty in the framing of the studied system and problem	What uncertainties are related to identifying the boundaries of each coupled system?
	What potentially important coupled systems have been left out of the analysis?
	What uncertainties are related to cross-boundary fluxes?
	Is the framing of the research problem different between different researchers and stakeholders?
2) Identifying uncertainty sources in the socio-hydrological system	What uncertainties are there in process representations?
	What uncertainties are there in the data used to study the system?
	Is there spatial and temporal variability in some uncertainties and what is known about it?
	What uncertainties are related to drivers and feedbacks within the system?
	What uncertainties are there related to future boundary conditions?
3) Defining the nature, interactions and relative importance of the uncertainty sources	What is the nature of the uncertainty; is it 1) Bounded, 2) Unbounded, or 3) Indeterminable?
	Which uncertainty sources interact with each other?
	What is the relative importance of the different uncertainty sources from the perspective of different scientists and stakeholders?
	Does the selection and exclusion of particular uncertainty sources have consequences for policy and risk management?

418

419

420 Table 2. Sources of uncertainty in flood risk change analysis and their characteristics. Relative importance (last column) is left blank as these
 421 issues should be openly discussed to reflect different opinions and perspectives from different disciplines and stakeholders.

Source of uncertainty	Nature of uncertainty			Interactions with other sources	Relative importance
	Bounded	Unbounded	Indeterminable		
1) Uncertainty in the framing of the studied system and research problem					
1.1) System boundary: closing the socio-hydrological system	Measurement error in defining divide for river basins from digital terrain model Where are the administrative boundaries?	Are there processes that make the divide non-stationary? What fluxes need to be considered to close the system and study flood characteristics? What coupled systems that may potentially be important have been excluded from the analysis? What alters the frequency and magnitude of floods? Who is affected by floods – large-scale/global impacts? Who responds to them?		1.2	
1.2) Research problem framing		Which socio-hydrological aspects need to be considered?		1.1	
2) Uncertainty sources in the socio-hydrological system					
<i>2.1 Hydrology: Data</i>					
2.1.1 Extreme precipitation: Observation	Gauge errors, radar reflectivity residuals	Neglect of, or incorrect corrections for, gauge errors and		1.1	

		radar error estimates. Errors associated with lack of knowledge of spatial heterogeneity. Data processing errors, unrecorded limitations of past data.			
2.1.2 Extreme precipitation: Spatial distribution	Residuals for any storm given choice of interpolation method	Choice of interpolation method might not be appropriate for all storms, unobserved cells, non-stationary spatial covariance characteristics		1.1, 2.1.1	
2.1.3 River discharge	Water level observation errors, rating curve errors	Data processing errors, unrecorded limitations of past data, extrapolation of rating curve, non-stationarity of measurement conditions		1.1	
<i>2.2 Hydrology: Process representation</i>					
2.2.1 Flood-generation processes: Contributing source area	Variability of the source area contributing to peak flow			1.1 to 2.1.3, 2.2.2	
2.2.2 Flood-generation processes: Event propagation along the river		Effect of upstream flood-protection measures on downstream flooding		1.1 to 2.2.1	
<i>2.3 Impacts and Perceptions</i>					
2.3.1 Flood damage	Error in estimated direct losses to infrastructure	Discrimination between direct and indirect, as well as tangible and intangible losses		1.1, 1.2	
2.3.2 Risk perception	Limited sample for surveys and interviews	Assumptions on the link between flood perception and flood awareness		1.1,1.2, 2.5.1	
<i>2.4 Society: Data</i>					

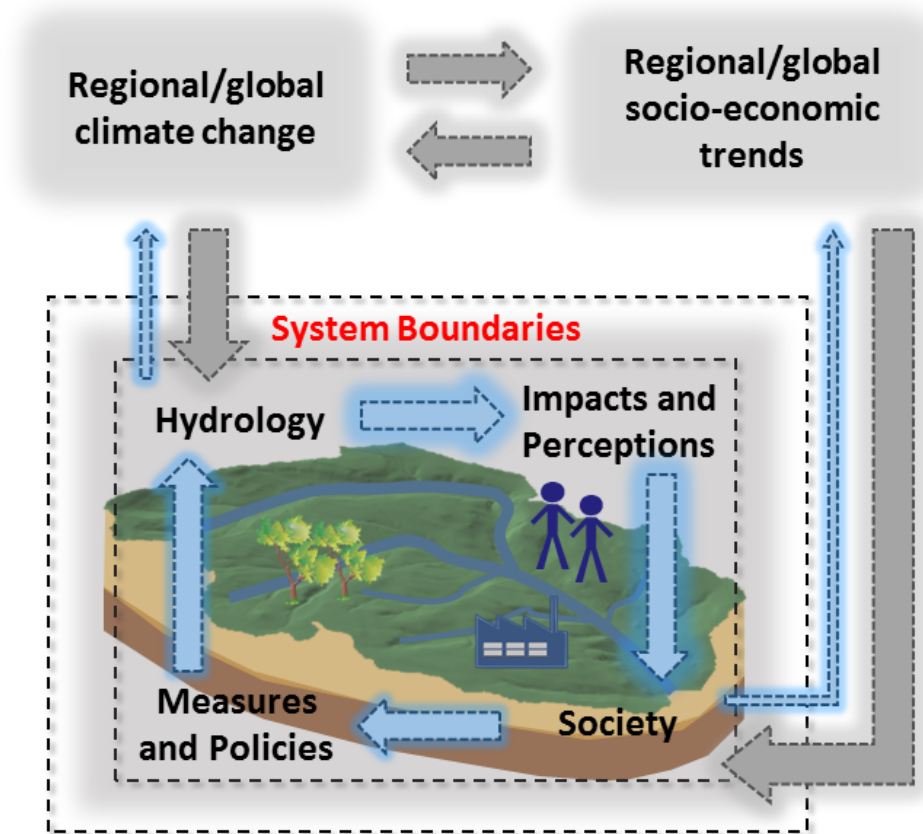
2.4.1 Human population and socio-economic indicators: Observation	Error in population and gross domestic product data	What happens between two censuses, temporary versus permanent migration		1.1, 1.2	
2.4.2 Human population and socio-economic indicators: Spatial distribution	Errors in spatial data of human population dynamics	Official demographic data cannot properly account for informal human settlements		1.1, 1.2, 2.4.1	
<i>2.5 Society: Process representation</i>					
2.5.1 Vulnerability generating processes	Vulnerability gap (proportion of population living below certain threshold of well-being)	Relationship between flood awareness and flood preparedness		1.1, 1.2, 2.3.2	
<i>2.6 Measures and policies</i>					
2.6.1 Human response to floods and feedbacks	Error in estimated migration patterns	Informal changes in governance and institutions		1.1, 1.2	
2.6.2 Human impact on floods	Error in estimated impact of structural measures, such as major reservoirs, on flood attenuation	Informal processes affecting floods, such as individual measures of protection and regulation of minor structures		1.1, 1.2	
3) Uncertainty in regional/global climate change and socio-economic trends					
3.1 Future flood hazard	Parameterization of flood inundation models	Realism of climate change scenarios, downscaling to hydrological extremes	Surprises in future flood-generating processes	1.1, 1.2	
3.2 Future vulnerability to floods		Change in human vulnerability, e.g. similar events can lead to different losses (adaptation and learning effect versus forgetting and levee effects). Technical innovations? Rapid changes in socio-economic conditions? Future	Unpredictable timing of future events (will e.g. lead to different losses if it happens on Sunday morning or Friday)	1.1, 1.2	

		focus on sustainability and environment?	evening). Unexpected technical paradigm shifts		
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424 FIGURE
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427 Fig. 1. Uncertainty in the socio-hydrological cycle. The diagram show the internal feedback loop between hydrological and social processes and
428 illustrates the associated uncertainty (thicker arrows indicate more uncertain interactions). It also shows drivers and feedbacks with large-scale
429 (global) climate and socio-economic trends.