

# All models are wrong. Some models are useful

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## Abstract

*Models are considered to be representations of reality with suitable omissions. On the one hand, there is increasing reliance on models to inform policy design which are based on mathematics and scientific rigour as they are considered free of any biases. However, on the other hand, there is a call within and outside the scientific community to subject models to increased scrutiny due to value-based assumptions and uncertainties especially with respect to the prediction of future scenarios. In case of climate change and water resources management, while climate predictions are increasingly called upon to make policies for mitigation and adaptation, questions have been raised on the effectiveness of models due to various reasons. Cape Town in South Africa is currently at the centre of this debate as it is in the midst of the worst water crisis it has ever seen. This paper highlights the debate on the reliance of models and the issues with the reliance on modelling using the case of the current water crisis in Cape Town, South Africa. This piece argues that while models are simplified and based on assumptions, there is a need for transparency in communicating the values underlying the models in order to avoid crises like the one in Cape Town. The author concludes that the onus of communicating the uncertainties, assumptions and limitations of models effectively lies with the scientific community as countries enter a new era of policy-making in light of the Paris Agreement and the Sustainable Development Goals.*

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Cape Town in South Africa is being watched keenly by climate scientists, hydrologists, water managers and policy-makers alike as it goes through the worst water crisis the city has ever seen. Its main water source, “Thewaterskloof Dam”, is depleting everyday and a disaster relief plan is in place which includes heavy restrictions in water consumption, water supply to public water collection points, and deployment of armed forces to manage crowds in the city (Chambers, 2018). This severe drought in the Western Cape region is being attributed to the

27 effects of climate change (Welch, 2018). The media has begun questioning the failure to  
28 forecast the severity of the drought and a political blame game has ensued (Welch, 2018).

29 At this point, George Box's profound aphorism to the scientific as well as decision-making  
30 communities in 1976, "All models are wrong; some are useful" is more pertinent than ever.  
31 The policy-makers in Cape Town did not prepare for the falling water levels in the reservoirs  
32 due to the prediction of a wet summer this year (December-January-February) (Wolski, et al.,  
33 2017). However, they did not account for the fact that seasonal forecasts are probabilities and  
34 not certainties of a weather event occurring (Davis, 2011).

35 This paper uses the Cape Town water crisis as an example to discuss Box's aphorism. The  
36 paper first conducts a literature review on policy responses to drought and the role of  
37 modelling in drought risk management. It highlights that while there is an increasing reliance  
38 on models for policy-making on climate change and water resources management, there is a  
39 call both within and outside the scientific community to subject models to increased scrutiny.  
40 The paper argues that while models are useful tools which are simplified representations of  
41 reality, there is a need for transparency in communicating the assumptions and uncertainties  
42 underlying the models in order to avoid a crisis scenario like the one in Cape Town. The role  
43 of models is not to avert risks but to inform policy makers of the risks, and then plan for them.  
44 The paper concludes that the onus lies on the scientific as well as decision-making  
45 communities to bridge this gap through responsible communication.

## 46 **Policy Responses to Drought – A Review of Literature**

47 Droughts are related to images of knee-jerk policy reactions, often to pacify disappointed  
48 constituencies and manage demand when situations have reached crisis points. A drought  
49 has impacts on ecology, economy and the society in various ways because of the shortage of  
50 water due to variations in the hydrological cycle. It is difficult to estimate the spatial and  
51 temporal extent of drought, which means that the start and end of a drought as well as exact  
52 locations that it affects are difficult to determine. Hence, drought is little understood at  
53 present, and a lot of effort has gone into understanding and measuring droughts.

54 Africa has been especially vulnerable to the impacts of droughts. Drought has been the cause  
55 of 95% of the disaster-related death toll in the continent (Sivakumar, et al., 2014). It has direct  
56 as well as indirect effects on crops, livestock and the larger economy due to environmental  
57 degradation, water scarcity, and the increased vulnerability of households exposed to drought  
58 shocks. The indirect effects can often be larger than the direct effects (Shiferaw, et al., 2014).  
59 Long-term drought resulted in widespread starvation and famine in many parts of Sub-  
60 Saharan Africa, which faces a higher risk of failed crops due to droughts (Shiferaw, et al.,  
61 2014). Countries of eastern and southern Africa have been dependent on crisis management  
62 as a policy response to drought, which has been rendered ineffective due to lack of data,  
63 monitoring capacity, and coordination in governance (Shiferaw, et al., 2014; Sivakumar, et al.,  
64 2014).

65 Management of droughts requires planning for water shortages that would affect sowing  
66 season for farmers, domestic consumption, and wildlife in biodiverse regions. It is important  
67 for regions to recognise the risk of droughts and plan for the risk through appropriate policy  
68 interventions. A risk-based approach towards management of droughts may involve a  
69 portfolio of interventions including increasing resilience of agriculture, augmentation of  
70 water provisioning capacity for domestic and industrial supply by diversifying the supply  
71 options to include waste water reuse, managing demand and restoring the natural resilience  
72 of ecosystems as well. Sayers et al (Sayers, et al., 2016) have argued that the challenge of  
73 managing droughts requires a change in approach from crisis management to strategic risk  
74 management. They have outlined a Strategic Drought Risk Management framework that  
75 relies on a strong scientific understanding of drought indicators for monitoring, planning, and  
76 decision-making.

77 Risk management approaches are generally strategies created with the awareness of the  
78 inevitable risks while “pursuing positive goals” (Hansen et al, 2014 in Shiferaw et al, 2014).  
79 Sayers et al (2016) define a risk management approach as “a continuous process of data  
80 gathering, analysis, adjustment and adaptation of policies and actions to manage drought  
81 risks (over the short term and long term)”. Sivakumar et al (2014) argue for National Drought

82 Policies in countries that “place emphasis on risk management rather than crisis  
83 management” by using drought indicators in monitoring and forecasting droughts. While  
84 they give clear details of early warning and prediction systems for African countries based on  
85 global circulation models, they do not outline any roadmap for a regime for measurement of  
86 local data in these data-sparse conditions. Thus, management of droughts using a risk-based  
87 approach involves the identification and monitoring of variability in hydro-meteorological  
88 cycles.

89 Moreover, droughts should be viewed as a long-term development challenge which requires  
90 investment in preparedness and transformative policy responses. Decision-making for  
91 droughts should include planning, preparedness, and monitoring using reliable drought  
92 indices which are suitable for the geography and context of East Africa. There is a need for  
93 better data gathering and monitoring capabilities to change the approach of drought  
94 management from a crisis-based approach to that of risk management.

#### 95 **The Role of Modelling in Water Policy – A Case of Cape Town**

96 The regions of eastern and southern Africa are characterized by mainly sub-humid and semi-  
97 arid climates. They have a pronounced dry season in the year and the variability of  
98 precipitation is concentrated in shorter time scales. The rainfall variability is directly  
99 dependent on the global circulation phenomena such as El Niño-Southern Oscillations  
100 (ENSO) and the La Niña cycles as well. The Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) passes  
101 through the sub-Saharan African region, and ENSO also impacts the ITCZ and global wind  
102 currents. Thus, ENSO has a strong influence on the anomalies in rainfall over many parts of  
103 the sub-Saharan African countries (Masih, et al., 2014). These impacts may vary seasonally  
104 and geographically within the region.

105 The Western Cape region has a climate with winter rainfall and dry summers. The region has  
106 been historically drought-prone with long-term forecasts predicting more prolonged dry  
107 periods (Jaubert & Hewitson, 1997). Cape Town is completely dependent on surface water,  
108 with all its rivers dammed, and the impacts of droughts are a common phenomenon.

109 However, the city continues to manage droughts in a crisis mode with the municipality  
110 enforcing restrictions on domestic consumption every time there is a drought (Sorensen,  
111 2017).

112 The current drought in Cape Town is supposed to have a return period of 400 years, although  
113 this is based on limited, coarse resolution or bad quality data (Wolski, et al., 2017).The  
114 prolonged dry period that led to Cape Town's current drought was not predicted by most  
115 weather forecasts. As far as weather models are concerned, there are issues of limited data,  
116 coarse resolution, and scale of models used for seasonal forecasting in Southern Africa (Davis,  
117 2011). Further, at present the decadal forecasting of climate change is experimental at this  
118 stage, while water infrastructure planning is medium to long-range in nature. Moreover,  
119 while the models are either regional or global in scale, the policy response towards adaptation  
120 of water resources management is expected at a municipal scale (Mukheibir & Ziervogel,  
121 2007).

### 122 **A Philosophical Perspective to Modelling - Why are Models Wrong?**

123 Chorley and Hagett (1967) define models as "a simplified version of reality built in order to  
124 demonstrate certain properties of reality." Models can be descriptive, visual, iconic or  
125 numerical. Based on this concept, models can range from definitions, maps, case studies, flow  
126 charts to complex numerical models that simulate the material world (Brunet, 2001). In case  
127 of climate change and water resources management, models are increasingly used to measure  
128 historic patterns and predict future events within environmental systems.

129 Why are models wrong? The answers to this question such as the neglecting of processes of  
130 society, over-parameterization and their mechanistic nature (Brunet, 2001) seem superfluous  
131 when one scratches the surface to reveal a more fundamental philosophical basis  
132 underpinning this statement. In order to examine these philosophical issues in present-day  
133 modelling, it is necessary to understand what makes a useful model.

134 Models are essentially tools to test hypotheses regarding the material world. They should be  
135 deductive in nature instead of purely inductive or data-based, since deductive methods use

136 both scientific and empirical techniques and involve “logical comparison of conclusions,  
137 comparing with other theories and the empirical application of the final conclusion” (Popper,  
138 1959). Further, unlike normal research, models should continue to challenge the “paradigm  
139 choice” of science and not tend towards cumulative research based on methods and concepts  
140 already in existence (Kuhn, 1962). Problems should be tested using models keeping in mind  
141 that that they are most useful when they challenge existing theories instead of demonstrating  
142 the truth in them (Oreskes, et al., 1994).

143 However, Oreskes et al (1994) highlight that models for policy-making cannot demonstrate  
144 the truth (verify) or lend legitimacy (validate) to the predictions because the natural world is  
145 an open system. They also argue that there is a bias of “affirming the consequent” in the  
146 scientific community and that there is no absolute way to know if models truly represent all  
147 the phenomena of the natural world or only exhibit the relative performance of dependent  
148 parameters with respect to empirical observations. This argument of theirs is in line with  
149 Hume (1999) who examines the nature and foundation of human reasoning and states that  
150 demonstrative reasoning entails all ideas, including models, that judge the future based on  
151 past experience. He further states that “whatever is intelligible and can be distinctly conceived  
152 implies no contradiction and can never be proven false by demonstrative reasoning.” Beven  
153 (2018) tries to bridge this gap in modelling by suggesting “model rejection” and “limits to  
154 acceptance” as the basis for acceptance of models for decision-making in order to introduce  
155 the rigour that Oreskes et al (1994) have pointed out is lacking.

#### 156 **Towards Drought Risk Management - But, Can Models Be Useful?**

157 The failure of seasonal forecasts in Cape Town is a symptom of the very issues that have been  
158 highlighted in this paper. However, despite limitations of models and data in the Western  
159 Cape Region, there is a need for modelling to underpin the policy responses to droughts.  
160 Drought management needs to be risk-based with the acknowledgement of inevitability of  
161 drought risk, rather than a crisis management response. Existing literature in drought science  
162 and drought policy highlights the role of modelling droughts for more effective policy

163 responses. Measuring and understanding drought risk while being cognisant of embedded  
164 uncertainties is the foundation of robust drought risk management policies.

165 Thus, models are extremely useful tools that support decision-making in these times of  
166 increasing uncertainty. The issues of uncertainty, validation, verification, and confirmation of  
167 models should be communicated beyond the scientific community to the end-consumers of  
168 the forecasts from these models – the policy-makers as well as the public. There is a need for  
169 increased transparency and responsible communication by the scientists and decision-makers  
170 to retain the usefulness of models and prudently identify trade-offs.

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