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Article:

Chambers, JM, Wyborn, C, Ryan, ME et al. (39 more authors) (2021) Six modes of co-production for sustainability. *Nature Sustainability*, 4. pp. 983-996. ISSN 2398-9629

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-021-00755-x>

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1 Co-productive agility and four collaborative pathways to sustainability transformations

2

3 Abstract

4

5 Research and practice are increasingly co-produced to facilitate sustainability transformations. Yet, there
6 is still poor understanding of how to navigate the tensions that emerge in these processes. Through
7 analyzing 32 initiatives worldwide that co-produced knowledge and action to attempt to address a range of
8 social-ecological sustainability challenges, we conceptualize ‘co-productive agility’ as an emergent feature
9 vital for turning tensions into transformations. Co-productive agility refers to *the willingness and ability of*
10 *diverse actors to iteratively engage in reflexive dialogues to grow shared ideas and actions that would not*
11 *have been possible from the outset*. It relies on embedding knowledge production within processes of
12 change to constantly recognize, reposition, and navigate tensions and opportunities. Co-productive agility
13 opens up multiple pathways to transformation through: (1) *elevating marginalized agendas* in ways that
14 maintain their integrity and broaden struggles for justice; (2) *questioning dominant agendas* by engaging
15 with power in ways that challenge assumptions, (3) *navigating conflicting agendas* to actively transform
16 interlinked paradigms, practices, and structures; (4) *exploring diverse agendas* to foster learning and mutual
17 respect for a plurality of perspectives. We explore six process considerations that vary by these four
18 pathways and provide a framework to enable agility in sustainability transformations. We argue that
19 research and practice spend too much time closing down debate over different agendas for change – thereby
20 avoiding, suppressing, or polarizing tensions, and call for more efforts to facilitate better interactions among
21 different agendas. We suggest that this tendency to ‘close down’ rather than ‘open up’ agendas is related
22 the standards of ‘success’ that researchers and practitioners are held accountable to.

23

24 **Key words:** co-production, transformative processes, social-ecological sustainability, tensions, power
25 relations, impact

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37 **1. Introduction**

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39 ‘Co-production’¹ and ‘transformation’² have gained momentum in sustainability science and practice.
40 While co-production efforts seek to generate interlinked knowledge and action more capable of resolving
41 complex social-ecological problems (Mauser et al. 2013; Wyborn et al. 2019; Knapp et al. 2019), the
42 increasing focus on transformation pushes initiatives to consider what actions are needed to fundamentally
43 address widespread societal challenges (Abson et al. 2017; Bennett et al. 2019; Scoones et al. 2020). A
44 growing body of literature connects the two, showing that collaborative knowledge- and action-making
45 processes are fundamental to achieving just, creative, and durable transformations (Mitlin 2008; Leach et
46 al. 2012; Page et al. 2016; Klenk et al. 2017; Bennett et al. 2019; Pereira et al. 2019). Yet, co-production
47 discourse and practice is also often critiqued for insufficiently attending to conflicts and power relations
48 and overlooking ‘root’ problems (Turnhout et al. 2020; Jagannathan et al. 2020; Blythe et al. 2018). This
49 paper bridges this gap between insufficient practice and transformative potential by offering an empirically
50 derived conceptual and practical framework for *navigating tensions and power dynamics among diverse*
51 *actors to create broad ownership and action for transformative social-ecological change.*

52

53 Existing co-production frameworks often focus on how particular practices can help achieve *intended aims*,
54 such as influencing decisions towards particular social-ecological outcomes (e.g. Mauser et al. 2013; Beier
55 et al. 2017; Djenontin & Meadow 2018). However, this may overlook important *differences among aims*
56 and the relative *transformative potential* of different approaches (Abson et al. 2017; Moore et al. 2014;
57 Klenk et al. 2017). In contrast, sustainability transformations literature dissects the stages of transformation
58 processes, from preparatory activities, such as collective problem exploration, to post-intervention
59 activities, like resilience building (Olsson et al. 2004; Lang et al. 2012). Scholars increasingly distinguish
60 between types and subprocesses of sustainability transformations (Leach et al. 2012; Westley et al. 2013;
61 Moore et al. 2014; Scoones et al. 2020), and the role of different types of co-production processes
62 (██████████ et al. under review; Pereira et al. 2019; Schneider et al. 2019). However, normative principles
63 and practical guidance are often framed in generic terms (Moore et al. 2014; Norström et al. 2020). There
64 is scant empirically derived guidance on the tensions faced in *different* types of co-production processes
65 seeking transformation, and how they can be navigated in ways that address conflicts and power struggles.

66

67 Much attention has been given to ‘scaling up’ or ‘out’ by identifying and replicating transformative frames
68 and approaches in new locations (Westley et al. 2011; Moore et al. 2014; Termeer & Dewulf 2019). Yet,
69 any bottom-up transformation process is likely to encounter active resistance by those with power (Avelino
70 & Rotmans 2009). There is limited understanding of how to work within and across scales to break down

¹ “Processes that iteratively unite ways of knowing and acting – including ideas, norms, practices, and discourses – leading to mutual reinforcement and reciprocal transformation of societal [including environmental] outcomes” (Wyborn et al. 2019 p. 320).

² “A fundamental, system-wide reorganization across technological, economic and social factors, including paradigms, goals and values” (IPBES 2019 p. 14).

71 resistance, such as by ‘scaling deep’ (i.e. “changing values and mindsets”; Lam et al. 2020 p. 2). Various
72 studies have cautioned that co-production and transformation discourse and practice can reinforce existing
73 power relations by shifting the burden onto vulnerable parties or exacerbating conflicts (Blythe et al. 2018;
74 Avelino 2017; Goldman 2007). This has led to calls for improved guidance on understanding and
75 addressing conflicts (Turnhout et al. 2020; Bennett et al. 2019; Klenk & Meehan 2015). Finally, there are
76 growing concerns over the privileged role that scientific researchers often hold over other actors in co-
77 production processes (██████████ et al. under review; Moore et al. 2014; Polk 2015; Klenk 2018; Knapp et
78 al. 2019). This has sparked efforts to foster transformative processes that balance the power of different
79 roles and constructively navigate divergent views (Drimie et al. 2018; Pereira et al. 2019; Fuller
80 Transformation Collaborative 2019).

81
82 This paper examines how existing co-production initiatives have navigated tensions among perspectives in
83 ways that can either hinder or enable transformations. We analyzed 32 case studies that employ a range of
84 approaches to co-produce knowledge, action, and diverse social-ecological outcomes at local, regional, and
85 international scales. In a companion piece (██████████ et al. under review), we demonstrate that the potential
86 of co-production to transform paradigms, practices, *and* institutions depends on fostering the willingness
87 and ability of diverse actors to iteratively engage in reflexive dialogues to grow shared ideas and actions
88 that would not have been possible from the outset. In this paper, we define this collective, emergent feature
89 as ‘co-productive agility’ and draw upon case studies to explore the *actual processes and roles* entailed to
90 constructively navigate tensions and broaden collective pathways to more just and sustainable practices.

91
92 Our paper is structured as follows. First, we develop and operationalize the concept of ‘co-productive
93 agility’, drawing upon literature from various fields. We then provide a brief overview of our 32 cases and
94 explain our methodological approach. This is followed by our empirical results. In section 4, we present
95 critical tensions that emerged in our cases. The next section demonstrates how avoiding or exacerbating
96 these tensions can in some cases hinder transformation (i.e. ‘co-productive rigidity’). Following this, we
97 share diverse empirical examples to illustrate how particular approaches navigated emerging tensions in
98 ways that broadened ownership and action for sustainability transformations (i.e. ‘co-productive agility’).
99 By outlining four different pathways in which co-productive agility can turn tensions into transformations,
100 our analysis shows that co-productive agility can ‘open up’ and facilitate multiple pathways to sustainability
101 (Stirling 2008). Fostering co-productive agility in these pathways requires facilitative leadership that
102 embeds research in practice to explicitly navigate tensions and grow transformative action. We present an
103 empirically derived framework that provides guidance for navigating different phases of collaborative
104 transformation processes, from setting the project boundaries to iteratively tracking changes. We conclude
105 by exploring how the four identified pathways can connect in synergistic ways, and examine how and why
106 research and practice can hinder rather than enable co-productive agility.

107

108 2. Operationalizing ‘agility’ in collaborative transformations

109
110 This paper foregrounds the potential of ‘agility’ to strengthen the growing link between the co-production
111 of knowledge, action, and change by diverse actors, and just and durable sustainability transformations.
112 The constructive exploration of tensions and conflict is increasingly recognized as a critical leverage for
113 social learning and transformation (Maclean et al. 2015; Cockburn et al. 2018; Skrimizea et al. 2020). Other
114 studies have shown how overlooked tensions among contradictory ‘logics’ or ‘rationalities’ can challenge
115 the viability of collaborative governance (Bäckstrand et al. 2010; van der Hel 2016; Montana 2020; Dekker
116 et al. 2020). Organizational change literature explores the productive role that tensions can play to spur
117 transformation, such as through concepts like ‘collective agility’ (Zheng et al. 2011), ‘integrative
118 ambidexterity’ (Andriopoulos & Lewis 2008), and ‘organizational improvisation’ (Hadida et al. 2015).
119 These concepts seek to move beyond a ‘defensive’ approach to managing tensions (i.e. valuing one side
120 and devaluing the other), to a willingness to understand such elements as “complex interdependencies rather
121 than competing interests” (Jarzabkowski et al. 2013 p. 249).

122
123 An emphasis on ‘agility’ can therefore support actors to engage with seemingly contradictory agendas.
124 Here, we focus on ‘agendas’ to acknowledge the ways that knowledge, values, and goals are intertwined in
125 claim-making regarding what kind of change is needed and how it can be achieved. ‘Agility’ among
126 agendas in co-production spaces is cognitive, relational, and organizational. It is *cognitive* in terms of the
127 competency to understand different viewpoints and opportunities, and craft skillful tactics and solution
128 pathways that draw support from team members (Body & Kendall 2020; Haider et al. 2018; Reed et al.
129 2020). It is *relational* in the sensitivity and responsiveness it demands of participants to adjust goals and
130 practices to new knowledge and changing social relations among team members (Vardy 2020; Gren &
131 Lenberg 2020). Finally, it is *organizational* in requiring forms of leadership, project management, and
132 resource allocation that are flexible, robust, and collaborative (Walter 2020; Howlett et al. 2018).

133
134 Co-productive agility is an inherently political concept. It enables the constructive exploration of tensions
135 to support transformation in roles, paradigms, practices, relationships and structures. In framing tensions as
136 a productive force for transformation, we build on the concept of “agonistic public spaces” (Mouffe 2013),
137 where the primary purpose of politics is not to seek consensus and resolve tensions, but rather to learn to
138 “stay with the trouble” of difference and the discomfort it brings (Haraway 2016). From this struggle
139 emerges new possibilities for collective action across diverse social groups. In contrast to previous terms
140 that emphasize resources and capacities that *underpin* possible interactions (e.g. "coproductive capacities"
141 – van Kerkhoff & Lebel 2015), we directly examine these interactions. Agility means moderating
142 responsiveness to different pulls and pushes within and outside co-production processes in ways that do not
143 compromise the individual positionality of the diverse actors involved, nor the creation of collective
144 concerns. Working with(in) tension between the individual and the collective requires collaborative forms
145 of leadership that can take people on collective journeys that reveal what matters to whom, as opposed to
146 activities that presuppose fixed stakes (Klenk & Meehan 2017; Steyaert & Jiggins 2007).

147 **3. Methods**

148

149 **3.1. Overview of co-production initiatives**

150

151 Our analysis examines 32 initiatives that sought to co-produce knowledge and action to address diverse
152 sustainability issues at local to global scales related to, for example, ecosystem degradation, climate change,
153 wildfires, unsustainable supply chains, and cities (Fig. 1). These initiatives (Table 1) employed diverse
154 approaches; for example, participatory ecosystem modelling (e.g. Mitchell et al. 2015; Rondeau et al. 2017),
155 research-informed co-management processes (e.g. Dumrongrojwatthana & Trébuil 2011; Haller & Merten
156 2018), (trans)national learning networks (e.g. Steyaert & Jiggins 2007; Goldstein et al. 2018) and global
157 dialogue platforms (e.g. Österblom et al. 2017; Christie et al. 2017). Some cases involved actors with
158 relatively aligned values and goals (e.g. Charli-Joseph et al. 2018; Fischer et al. 2019), while others
159 navigated polarized disputes (e.g. Brandt et al. 2018; Brennan 2018). We note that not all cases adopted the
160 precise language of ‘sustainability transformations’; however, all cases sought to transform nature-society
161 relations to varying degrees and using different approaches.

162

163 ----- INSERT FIGURE 1 & TABLE 1 NEAR HERE -----

164

165 **3.2. Data collection and analysis**

166

167 All 32 cases were extensively implemented and/or researched by at least one of the 42 co-authors of this
168 paper. Following an information-oriented, maximum variation approach to sampling, these cases were
169 selected to assemble a set of cases that maximized diversity in types of co-production practice, scalar
170 engagement, and geographical locations (Flyvbjerg 2006). First, eight diverse cases were selected through
171 two exploratory workshops in the United States and Mexico. They were then supplemented by a search
172 process in Google Scholar which paired 10 variants of the term ‘social-ecological sustainability’ such as
173 ‘social-ecological’ and ‘nature conservation’ with 22 variants of ‘co-production’ such as ‘co-design’,
174 ‘social learning’, and ‘transdisciplinary’ to identify cases that further diversified the sample (Appendix A).
175 As a result, our cases provide a rich and diverse set of co-production experiences to examine the emergence
176 and navigation of tensions, with the majority of cases spanning at least three sectors and four academic
177 disciplines. To develop a robust interpretation and comparative analysis of all cases, the lead author (■)
178 interviewed a leading researcher/practitioner in each case and analyzed a mean of six
179 documents/publications per case. While the lead author conducted all initial analyses (for independence),
180 case contributors (also co-authors) iteratively interrogated emerging concepts and validated interpretations.

181

182 We conducted iterative qualitative analyses to identify and examine the rationales expressed in each case
183 for why co-productive efforts were designed and implemented in particular ways. A common enquiry
184 framework drawn from the exploratory workshops and key literature debates was used to gather case data
185 on varying co-production rationales and challenges. Based on an initial analysis of this data, we refined
186 these categories, and then conducted a systematic analysis of how all 32 cases varied for each identified

187 rationale. Further analysis of the relative expression of different rationales within and across cases revealed
188 that some cases expressed strong tensions between rationales, while others fostered complementarities –
189 which we found to be linked to improved navigation of challenges and the emergence of more
190 transformative aims and outcomes³. Our analysis also revealed that particular rationales were linked to
191 distinct pathways to transformation. For each of four pathways, we subsequently selected 5-6 cases that had
192 addressed emerging tensions in agile ways, and analyzed the strategies they used to address challenges and
193 enable transformation towards sustainability. This analysis led to the identification of six crucial processes
194 across all four pathways. Cases were then analyzed according to each process to identify shared wisdom
195 and salient examples in publications and interviews.
196

197 **4. Critical tensions in co-production processes**

198
199 The analysis of competing rationales revealed two major tensions (Table 2). The first tension – “*why/how*
200 *does the initiative contribute to transformation?*” – embodied the struggle between using co-production to
201 advance desired solutions (justified by rationales such as showing relevance, impact, and efficiency) versus
202 facilitating a co-production process to redefine how “problems” are understood (justified by rationales such
203 as fostering engagement, learning, and trust). The related tension – “*who decides why/how to pursue*
204 *transformation?*” – entailed struggles over who holds power to influence co-production decisions, such as
205 whether particular solutions are questioned or pursued, and how different actors are involved. In particular,
206 there existed a tension between initiators maintaining power (justified by rationales such as controlling
207 outcomes and achieving consensus) versus yielding power to participants (based on rationales such as
208 engendering humility, inclusivity, and plurality).

209
210 These tensions were sometimes treated as incompatible binaries by favoring one side and either suppressing
211 or opposing the potential value of the other. For example, some cases expressed that opening up decisions
212 to debate could hinder efficiency and results, while other cases expressed that defining solutions early on
213 could undermine process quality and learning opportunities (Table 2). In contrast, other cases managed to
214 transcend these dual tensions by articulating rationales for their interdependency, such as by showing how
215 prioritizing process could further transformative impacts. Table 3 spotlights how an agile approach to
216 managing these tensions (i.e. neither suppressing nor romanticizing the agendas of different actors
217 involved) enabled the transformation of sustainability paradigms and practices; for example, in fostering
218 co-management possibilities amidst a marine protected area dispute in Scotland (Brennan 2018), cutting
219 across silos to conserve rivers and wetlands of South Africa (Nel et al. 2016), connecting Indigenous and
220 scientific knowledge systems in global biodiversity assessments (Tengö et al. 2017), and restoring a
221 degraded river along the Israel-Palestine border (Brandeis 2005).
222

³ In our companion piece (██████████ et al. under review), we present the methods which empirically show a positive relation between iteratively navigating tensions and more transformative aims and outcomes.

223
224

----- INSERT TABLE 2 & TABLE 3 NEAR HERE -----

225 **5. Co-productive rigidity: avoiding or exacerbating tensions**

226

227 Our analysis revealed four main ways in which avoiding or exacerbating these dual tensions could hinder
228 sustainability transformations. We present this in terms of four archetypal roles in co-production processes
229 (Fig. 2; boxes in the rigid space: hero; host; woodpecker; genie), building on previous distinctions such as
230 the “Art of Hosting” hero vs. host roles⁴ (Frieze & Wheatley 2011), and distinct roles of science in society
231 (Pielke 2007; Turnhout et al. 2013).

232

233 The “hero” archetype represents how some co-production initiators maintained substantial control over
234 processes to pursue *their* desired sustainability outcomes (e.g. ambitious conservation plans, innovative
235 scientific papers), based on *their* perception of the problem. In contrast, the “woodpecker” archetype
236 indicates how other co-production efforts sought to critique and reframe widespread solution agendas, for
237 example, by co-producing knowledge that revealed unsustainable or unjust impacts of dominant practices.
238 This distinction is reminiscent of the “pure scientist” vs. “issue advocate” framing in Pielke (2007); yet,
239 our broadened archetypes acknowledge how scientists *and* societal actors may equally control co-
240 production processes to either reinforce or challenge existing power relations. In both hero and woodpecker
241 roles, fears were expressed that opening up initial agendas to debate and yielding power to participants
242 might dilute the transformative nature of their efforts, or worse, give power to actors (local or international)
243 who could co-opt the process. Although legitimate fears, projects dominated by one particular set of values
244 or expertise often struggled to engage actors with alternative views who were not interested in operating
245 within the project’s dominant frame. In some cases, this led to increased polarization if actors chose to
246 actively oppose the efforts. The resistance of these two archetypes to genuinely open up debate over
247 transformative agendas (on paper) therefore risked hindering transformative potential (in practice).

248

249 In contrast, two other archetypes demonstrate the flip side – how weak control by co-production initiators
250 could hinder transformation by avoiding tensions. For example, the “genie” archetype represents how some
251 project initiators explicitly chose to release control, such as by looking to policy-makers or communities to
252 set research agendas (reminiscent of Pielke’s “science arbitrator” role). While this approach helped *further*
253 *existing* motivations and goals, it also limited the ability to *challenge* and *change* agendas with existing
254 priority, and to productively navigate tensions among groups supporting different priorities. Finally, the
255 “host” archetype entailed opening up spaces for reflection and learning, often among relatively like-minded
256 actors. While these processes generated learning and shifts in perspectives, they struggled to connect this

⁴ As indicated on the website (<https://www.artofhosting.org/>), The Art of Hosting is “an approach to leadership that scales up from the personal to the systemic using personal practice, dialogue, facilitation and the co-creation of innovation to address complex challenges”. The approach supports people to shift from heroic forms of leadership to facilitative forms of leadership they call “hosts” – i.e. “calling together people from all parts of the system to work together to solve seemingly intractable problems” (Frieze & Wheatley 2011 p. 1).

257 to tangible changes in practice due to less focus on action and little engagement (and thus avoided tensions)
258 with external actors positioned against desired changes. The “host” role (also outlined in Frieze & Wheatley
259 2011), somewhat relates to Pielke’s (2007) “honest broker” role, but further emphasizes bridging and
260 facilitating repertoires that blur the boundaries between scientific and societal knowledge production and
261 use roles (see Turnhout et al. 2013).

262
263 Co-production initiatives were therefore constantly challenged to find a middle space between these
264 archetypal roles – by creating space for all views (host), yet also bringing a critical angle (woodpecker); by
265 not unjustly imposing agendas (hero), but also not romanticizing others’ agendas (genie). A common factor
266 behind co-productive rigidity across all roles was a separation between knowledge- and action-making
267 processes, as this hindered the ability to diversify notions of problems and relevant expertise, and generate
268 reflexive practices and relations. In some cases, actors explicitly sought to develop this agility, yet broader
269 contextual issues presented barriers to taking such an approach.

270
271 ----- INSERT FIGURE 2 NEAR HERE -----
272

273 **6. Co-productive agility: four collaborative pathways from tensions to transformations**

274
275 An important question that follows is: *how to foster co-productive agility (instead of rigidity) in practice?*
276 Essentially this asks how processes can bring actors with disparate agendas together and nurture a
277 willingness to reshape their perspectives and identify and develop more transformative actions over time.
278 Our study found four distinct pathways for co-productive agility: (1) *elevating marginalized agendas*
279 supports marginalized actors to elevate their own perspectives and claims in ways that maintain their
280 integrity while broadening struggles for justice; (2) *questioning dominant agendas* deeply engages actors
281 who hold stakes in dominant systems by reflecting on their agendas and exploring more inclusive actions;
282 (3) *navigating conflicting agendas* embraces the political aspect of bringing actors together to decide upon
283 and undertake transformations to interlinked paradigms, relations, practices, policies, and institutions; (4)
284 *exploring diverse agendas* connects actors through exploratory processes that do not aim to empower any
285 particular agenda, but rather foster mutual understanding and respect for a plurality of perspectives. Each
286 pathway slightly favors different sides of the dual tensions, related to their purpose (Fig. 2; boxes in the
287 agile space). For example, efforts to elevate marginalized agendas and explore diverse agendas require a
288 relatively greater degree of control by participants in transformation processes than the other two pathways.

289
290 We identified six processes that foster co-productive agility, which are navigated differently within each
291 pathway: 1) *setting boundaries* of what actors and approaches are relevant; 2) *creating agile spaces* for co-
292 production to occur; 3) *initiating processes* of transformation; 4) *opening up pathways* by engaging
293 upwards; 5) *enacting transformations* to mobilize sustained change; and 6) *examining changes* to iteratively
294 understand implications of approaches (Fig. 3). These six processes pull together different aspects of other

295 frameworks which have emerged to support transformation (e.g. Moore et al. 2014; Hermans et al. 2016;
296 Fuller Transformation Collaborative 2019; Scoones et al. 2020). Below, we share specific considerations,
297 practices, and methods that were found to foster co-productive agility within each of the four pathways.
298 The six processes do not outline a linear journey; indeed, many initiatives undertook them iteratively and
299 simultaneously, supported by embedded process monitoring, reflection, and adaptation. However, they are
300 explained in the order most likely to be pursued by a single project.

301

302 ----- INSERT FIGURE 3 NEAR HERE -----

303

304 **6.1. Elevating marginalized agendas for change**

305

306 *Elevating marginalized agendas* involves being responsive to the potential contributions of perpetually
307 suppressed agendas or novel/creative seeds of change. Broadly, initiatives sought to elevate either social-
308 ecological agendas with local and Indigenous communities (e.g. Reid et al. 2016; Tengö et al. 2017; Hill et
309 al. 2020), or environmental agendas marginalized by decision-makers (e.g. Nel et al. 2016; Cockburn et al.
310 2016; Fernández-Giménez et al. 2019). In the former, marginalized groups held the agency for change (cf.
311 Latulippe & Klenk 2020). The latter risked promoting agendas that further marginalize people who have
312 historically suffered the burden of environmental (and other) agendas; for example, conservation agendas
313 that prioritize biodiversity over local livelihoods (cf. Bennett & Dearden 2014). It was therefore critical to
314 question: who decides *what agendas are unjustly “marginalized”*? If particular agendas are elevated, how
315 will they influence the status quo and affect other marginalized agendas? And how can actors (who may be
316 marginalized) redefine such agendas? Here, we especially focus on the initiatives of marginalized groups
317 who have historically had less power and resources to inform and shape decisions that impact their lives.

318

319 These cases *cultivated spaces of humility to build trust*, where all actors could both contribute to and
320 question knowledge, with no one group framed as the “expert”. For example, a collaboration between
321 Indigenous peoples and climate researchers in central Australia sought to move beyond common narratives
322 that frame communities as either the *solution to* or *victims of* climate change by co-creating a process that
323 carefully navigated Indigenous *and* climate expertise (Hill et al. 2020). Such navigation required facilitators
324 experienced in both Indigenous and scientific cultures to avoid disempowering discourses or actions, such
325 as “building capacity”, which assumes the “other” “needs” your knowledge. It was therefore crucial that
326 scientists were held directly accountable to how they might impose their knowledge and interests on societal
327 groups, and that the emphasis was on growing genuine partnerships rooted in mutual trust and humility.

328

329 Over time, some cases sought to *broaden struggles for justice*, recognizing that the initial goals of
330 partnerships that focus only on the “marginalized agenda” can hinder broader transformations. Yet, it is
331 ultimately the choice of marginalized groups to decide whether and how to broaden their own struggles,
332 given recognition of broader systems that perpetuate unjust marginalization. For example, the collaboration
333 between Indigenous peoples and climate researchers in Australia experienced a shift in frame over time;

334 they realized there was a need to go beyond Indigenous adaptation strategies, which were blocked by the
335 state, and towards addressing higher level “articulation complexes” that produce vulnerability and constrain
336 community generated pathways (Hill et al. 2020). This project critiqued the state’s role in keeping the
337 colonized in a position of subordination, all the while emphasizing the existing agency of traditional owners
338 with sovereign rights, and that the upliftment of Indigenous peoples' socio-economic disadvantage is a key
339 shared goal of all Australians and worldwide (*ibid*). Similarly, another case broadened environmental
340 agendas within government policies by reframing views that separated water and land ecosystems to a
341 broader frame that recognizes their fundamental interconnections (Nel et al. 2016).

342
343 Having initiated processes, ***expanding legitimacy in spaces of power*** helped efforts gain political traction.
344 For example, the collaborative process described in Tengö et al. (2017) enhanced the legitimacy of
345 Indigenous knowledge holders as experts within global biodiversity assessment processes, and strategically
346 influenced procedures that constrained how Indigenous knowledge could be included. This entailed co-
347 producing an approach for viewing indigenous and local knowledge as equally valid and the creation of
348 high-level fora with contributions from different kinds of experts (Tengö et al. 2014, 2017). Boundary
349 organizations (such as International Indigenous and Local Knowledge) played a vital role for connecting
350 the legitimacy of Indigenous organizations with science-policy platforms. In East Africa, Reid et al. (2016)
351 created a similar boundary organization (Reto-o-Reto Foundation) to connect pastoral communities to
352 national policy processes. Such boundary organizations strengthened links between research and societal
353 impact, yet also posed unique challenges to the positionality of science, such as instances where community
354 groups and policy-makers sought to wield scientific information as an instrument of power. Fostering
355 relations of trust and multiple communication pathways was crucial for navigating these challenges.

356
357 Having built legitimacy at higher levels, cases set about ***mobilizing agendas for justice with integrity***. In
358 the case of weaving multiple knowledge systems (Tengö et al. 2017), this required asking: what happens to
359 different kinds of knowledge when they come together? Tengö et al. (2017) advocate for considering how
360 knowledge systems are woven together in ways that maintain the integrity of marginalized knowledge to
361 interact on equal ground – more akin to braiding multiple strands, rather than knowledge blending into an
362 ocean. Similarly, in East Africa, Reid et al. (2016) showed how boundary organizations can support
363 continual engagement across knowledge systems over 20+ years, rooted in relations of trust. In mobilizing
364 agendas, cases struggled to remain true to complexities while developing powerful consensus narratives to
365 challenge dominant narratives. For example, diverse university, NGO, government, community actors co-
366 produced research in rural Mongolia which showed that degradation estimates of pastoral social-ecological
367 systems had been overstated, yet the NGO collaborators felt this framing undermined the urgency of their
368 cause (Fernández-Giménez et al. 2019). This illustrates the importance of discussing data management and
369 use upfront to diffuse future tensions around data integrity and accessibility (*ibid*).

370
371 Finally, ***examining what elevated agendas do*** facilitated learning and improvement. Here, project leaders
372 found that it was critical to focus on process and not just outputs, such as focusing on the role of boundary

373 objects to facilitate new types of collective meaning and actions (cf. Diver 2017). Impacts took on many
374 forms. For example, cases supported community members and scientists from disadvantaged backgrounds
375 to pursue careers in science and policy (Cockburn et al. 2016; Reid et al. 2016; Fernández-Giménez et al.
376 2019), catalyzed new management actions (Cockburn et al. 2016; Reid et al. 2016; Hill et al. 2020), and
377 also supported community dialogue with government actors to challenge broader narratives and policies
378 (Reid et al. 2016; Fernández-Giménez et al. 2019; Malmer et al. 2019). One initiative identified 37 different
379 policy use contexts for their co-produced maps (Nel et al. 2016). Finally, several cases demonstrated the
380 power of iterative and reflective methods, such as interviews, surveys, reflective essays and team retreats,
381 to discuss and address issues that are often left ‘unsaid’ (Cockburn et al. 2016; Fernández-Giménez et al.
382 2019). This helped projects stitch together multiple types of outcomes that mattered to different actors
383 involved (Reid et al. 2016; Tengö et al. 2017; Fernández-Giménez et al. 2019).

385 **6.2. Questioning dominant agendas for change**

386
387 By **questioning dominant agendas**, projects sought to deeply engage with powerful actors who hold stakes
388 in dominant systems to question and challenge their positions of power, or how they use their power. Project
389 boundaries were set by asking **what dominant agendas create marginalization** of sustainable and just
390 futures? For example, some cases identified particular narratives and policies that reinforced elite power at
391 the expense of local communities, such as protectionist or ‘win-win’ conservation paradigms, and sought
392 to directly question that power (Brandt et al. 2018; Chambers et al. 2019). Other cases engaged powerful
393 actors to support them to understand how dependent they are on functioning ecosystems and community
394 trust, with an aim to direct their power to also produce common goods (Österblom et al. 2017; Christie et
395 al. 2017). For example, Österblom et al. (2015) began such work by identifying “keystone actors” that
396 disproportionately influence global marine ecosystems. Cases noted the importance of examining power
397 relations within systems prior to initiating collaboration to ensure that research questions and designs are
398 not co-opted by powerful actors, thereby further marginalizing groups whose lives are often most affected.

399
400 These initiatives depended on **cultivating legitimate spaces for transformation** – spaces where actors saw
401 the primary purpose as learning and questioning existing approaches, rather than fulfilling pre-defined
402 goals. An important starting point was to acknowledge the values of actors involved, but then to frame
403 learning and transformation as an essential enabler of broader collective values (instead of individual
404 positions). For example, a project “future-proofing” conservation in Colombia used the metaphor of an
405 “evolutionary learning lifeboat” to foster values for shared learning in an open and undefined process (van
406 Kerkhoff et al. 2019). A global dialogue platform for ocean stewardship (Keystone Dialogues) cultivated a
407 legitimate space for companies to understand and engage in the concept of ocean stewardship, which
408 necessitated initiating discussions between only CEOs and scientists to enable open exploration (Österblom
409 et al. 2017). These processes were best facilitated by well-respected individuals who were seen as relatively
410 “neutral” brokers (Brandeis 2005; Österblom et al. 2017; Christie et al. 2017). Cases with polarized conflict
411 required a strong reason for collaboration, such as a mutual desire to restore a degraded river that impacted

412 everyone (Brandeis 2005). Failing to develop a shared legitimate purpose of learning could lead to certain
413 actors attempting to co-opt the process over time to serve their vested interests (Brandt et al. 2018).

414
415 These cases sought to *foster frame visibility and reflexivity* by focusing participants on a higher common
416 purpose. For example, the Keystone Dialogues began with an inspirational speech by Her Royal Highness
417 Crown Princess Victoria of Sweden that legitimized a set of collective concerns for ocean stewardship
418 (Österblom et al. 2017). Two other cases fostered reflection among conservation proponents over strategies
419 which fell short of promises for people and nature in Peru and Colombia (Chambers et al. 2019; van
420 Kerkhoff et al. 2019). Collective reflection explored problematic assumptions underpinning dominant
421 strategies; for example, notions that the “problem” causing deforestation or weak climate adaptation could
422 be reduced to lack of knowledge or resources. In Peru, participatory games enabled actors to directly
423 experience and discuss the many ways strategies were failing, prompting discussion about how to address
424 contradictions between assumptions and practices.

425
426 Critically, various initiatives *strengthened broader openings for change*. For example, protected area
427 managers in Colombia were eager to explore options for changing current governance models, facilitating
428 the implementation of project activities (van Kerkhoff et al. 2019). For an initiative in South Africa, making
429 a “dent” in dominant “win-win” narratives took time, requiring long-term presence to engage with higher
430 level actors when they were ready (Brandt et al. 2018). For this initiative, gaining trust among stakeholder
431 networks, regular team meetings and engaging with local legal advice was critical to mitigate attempts to
432 co-opt data for political pursuits. This project also constructively addressed donor pressures to push for
433 policy outcomes that could undermine the process. Some projects developed outputs which proved useful
434 for gaining policy influence at a later date when the institutional context became more supportive, such as
435 an internationally co-produced “Code of Conduct for Marine Conservation” (Bennett et al. 2017).

436
437 Many initiatives fell short in *developing pathways for transformation*, due to overemphasis on knowledge
438 production and confined learning events. Initiatives that communicated the value of long-term communities
439 of practice and institutional structures showed the greatest potential to link learning to transformation. For
440 example, a successful demonstration project in the Israel-Palestine river restoration case mobilized public
441 and political interest to create an institution to continue the work (Brandeis 2005). Similarly, the Keystone
442 Dialogues created task forces, where scientists and business representatives collaboratively developed
443 actionable activities, in collaboration with NGOs, governments and other actors (Österblom et al. 2017).
444 Yet, for other cases, donors focused on measurable outputs and tangible impacts struggled to see the value
445 of supporting ongoing collaborations or networks (Christie et al. 2017; van Kerkhoff et al. 2019). As a
446 result, some initiatives were unable to pursue their identified transformative agendas and activities.

447
448 Efforts to *examine shifts in dominant agendas* were vital for sustaining motivations of participants while
449 fostering accountability for claimed social-ecological transformations. Studies examining these processes
450 provide novel conceptual and practical contributions on how science can contribute to transforming the

451 agency of powerful actors (Österblom et al. 2017; Christie et al. 2017; Brandt et al. 2018; van Kerkhoff et
452 al. 2019). These transformations included shifts in beliefs, changes to dominant narratives and policies, and
453 new networks and institutions positioned to support future transformations. Embedded monitoring of how
454 frames, interests and expectations shifted throughout the process played an important role in identifying
455 minority views to elevate through dialogues and ideological positions that were likely to hinder learning.
456

457 **6.3. Navigating conflicting agendas for change**

458
459 The pathways described above can strengthen the foundation for *navigating conflicting agendas*, which
460 embraces the politics of bringing actors together across power differentials to transform interlinked
461 paradigms, relations, practices, policies and institutions. By connecting the boundary setting questions of
462 the previous pathways, this approach asks *what systems create (un)just relations?* For example, Haller &
463 Merten (2010) examined the dynamics that eroded local fishery management systems to the detriment of
464 river health and community livelihoods in the Kafue Flats, Zambia. Formulating shared perceptions of
465 political problems is therefore a critical first step towards navigating conflicting agendas. Some projects
466 mapped differences in agendas and perceptions of problems across different parts of the world (e.g. Virah-
467 Sawmy et al. 2019; Guerrero et al. 2021), but no cases connected this to explicitly political processes to
468 reshape relations. This was often seen as outside the control of typically locally or regionally bounded work.
469

470 *Cultivating fair spaces for contestation* was critical to navigate conflicting agendas. This necessitated
471 sufficient time and energy to establish trust between actors, requiring process facilitators to refrain from
472 advocating for a position amidst pressure from interest groups to do so, or forcing an impact agenda too
473 early, such as explicitly trying to “resolve” a conflict. These actors had to carefully walk a line in between
474 different agendas to find ways of opening up space for different narratives to emerge (Haller & Merten
475 2018; Brennan 2018). For several initiatives, researchers saw themselves as *part of* the system where critical
476 self-reflection is essential and *everyone* is challenged to change. Explicit recognition of different groups
477 upfront, as well as the role of existing institutions, was important for nurturing fair spaces.
478

479 Once spaces for engagement were perceived as fair, initiatives *developed stepwise processes to span*
480 *conflicts*. For example, Haller et al. (2016) developed a “constitutionality” approach by examining how
481 institution-building processes can foster local ownership. In Zambia, this approach created platforms for
482 different interest groups to openly discuss locally relevant issues in the absence of power asymmetries.
483 Over time, these groups were brought together by recognizing the knowledge of different local groups and
484 rebuilding respected customary institutions to preempt individualistic concerns from co-opting the process
485 (Haller & Merten 2018). Several cases used creative methods to surface the voices of more marginalized
486 groups; for example, by mapping stories, songs and art that expressed local cultural values for the sea
487 (Brennan 2018), or using companion modeling to foster co-learning over actors’ understandings of systems
488 and management scenarios (Dumrongrojwatthana & Trébuil 2011). It was critical to wait until relatively
489 marginalized stakeholders felt confident enough to invite decision-makers from higher levels in the social

490 hierarchy to join the process. Emphasizing process over impact during initial stages allowed actors to move
491 beyond any particular “stake”, to see their roles and values as evolving towards collective purpose (i.e.
492 “stake-holding”) (Steyaert & Jiggins 2007). In cases where powerful economic interests and private
493 property rights reinforced existing stakes, such as Chasseral Regional Nature Park (RNP), actions were
494 limited to either smaller scale conservation projects, or larger scale development projects (Gerber 2018).

495
496 Efforts to strengthen emerging institution-building processes depended on *creating an enabling political*
497 *environment*. Several cases noted the risks of failing to do so. For example, in the Zambian fishery example,
498 implementation was hindered by failure to obtain state support to ratify the co-management by-laws (Haller
499 & Merten 2018). Thus, the researchers have since given greater attention to studying legal and institutional
500 dimensions of administrations (Haller 2019). In the Thai companion modeling case (Dumrongrojwatthana
501 & Trébuil 2011), changes in park leadership resulted in a fortress approach that blocked co-management
502 possibilities. In the Chasseral RNP case, the bottom-up park management approach was supported by
503 changes to Swiss Federal legislation that incentivized landscape actors to align their interests. However,
504 they faced challenges on the ground that limited possible coordination between public and private actors
505 (Gerber 2018). In contrast, the evolving co-management process in Scotland convinced policy actors to
506 support a genuinely bottom-up approach where ongoing dialogue enabled government officials to genuinely
507 understand the expertise, drive and commitment of local people to manage their resources (Brennan 2018).

508
509 An emphasis on process created mutual understandings, relations and institutional forms to mobilize the
510 *transformation of systems for collective justice*. These transformations were supported by strategically
511 bringing in actors with needed expertise and agency to implement identified solutions. For example, the
512 Zambian case involved the local Department of Fisheries because of their experience and authority in
513 crafting by-laws (Haller & Merten 2018). For many cases, bringing in more powerful actors to formulate
514 implementation plans became less problematic once they had access to views from diverse interest groups.
515 As researchers were often integral in establishing these new institutional spaces, it was critical to transition
516 power to prevent processes from becoming dependent on their facilitating role and to guard against future
517 co-option by vested interests.

518
519 Embedded reflexivity was essential; thus, *examining the implications of system changes* required careful
520 attention to intangible outcomes, such as shifts in perceptions of ownership and the meaningfulness of
521 participation. For example, The SLIM project used reflective meetings and external project reviews to
522 inform ongoing project directions (Steyaert & Jiggins 2007). These cases fundamentally transformed how
523 stakeholders interacted, including their perceptions of each other, the nature of conflicts, and the
524 opportunities to constructively move forward to co-create more just relations that are embedded in new
525 institutional forms and policies designed to sustain them. All cases recognized, however, that these
526 processes never reach a final state of resolution and require ongoing hard work to ensure usefulness and
527 foster ownership for all actors involved.

528

529

530 **6.4. Exploring diverse agendas for change**

531

532 Finally, *exploring diverse agendas*, brings actors together through processes that foster mutual
533 understanding and respect for a plurality of perspectives. This opens up space for learning which is not
534 possible when the aim is to shift power or promote a particular agenda. Here, setting the scope starts by
535 asking – *where is plurality and learning most beneficial?* All cases enhanced learning among change
536 agents who were *already* motivated to foster transformation, but could benefit from expanding their
537 perceptions, connections and agency (e.g. Steyaert & Jiggins 2007; Charli-Joseph et al. 2018; Goldstein et
538 al. 2018; Chatterton et al. 2018; Fischer et al. 2019; Riechers et al. 2019). For example, Charli-Joseph et al.
539 (2018) brought together change agents to foster collective agency within the Xochimilco Social-Ecological
540 System (Mexico), while the Fire Adapted Communities Learning Network (FAC Net) joined U.S. wildfire
541 practitioners to share lessons and improve practice (Goldstein et al. 2018). This raises the question: what
542 combination of actors can most benefit collective agendas by engaging in collective learning?

543

544 These initiatives sought to *cultivate safe spaces for learning* by striking a careful balance: maximizing the
545 diversity of ideas present, while creating a socially cohesive identity. For example, the FAC Net
546 purposefully excluded environmental advocates and fire scientists in order to avoid a top-down approach
547 to network building. They instead built a “fire doing” network of people actively engaged in managing
548 wildfire. The focus meant that participants have tended to be relatively socio-economically homogeneous;
549 thus, they have tried to actively involve Indigenous and Hispanic groups. Another case, the Leeds City Lab,
550 involved diverse sectors across Leeds (Chatterton et al. 2018). This initiative faced some tensions between
551 the more task-oriented and faster-paced practices of the private sector with the slower and
552 methodologically-preoccupied approach of the university sector, and the risk-averse, and potentially more
553 cautious third and public sectors. This generated fear that others might profit from sharing ideas and
554 reinforce third-sector precarity. The project managed these tensions by emphasizing the emotional aspects
555 of co-production and the need to embrace vulnerability and ‘not knowing’ rather than seeking to resolve
556 differences (Chatterton et al. 2018).

557

558 Safe learning spaces enabled the uncomfortable but potentially empowering task of *facilitating reflection*
559 *on perceptions of agency*. For example, the Mexican Transformation-Lab (Charli-Joseph et al. 2018)
560 engaged those who both depended on the wetland and had a real direct impact on its evolution to explore
561 their individual agency, and how to develop a collective sense of agency that could be mobilized in novel
562 ways. The researchers positioned themselves as facilitators and conveners, primarily concerned with how
563 the process could facilitate agency, instead of producing a specific action or pathway of change. Other cases
564 used diverse methods such as facilitated discussions around stories or past failures, “walkshops”, serious
565 games, and creating art to surface different emotions and views. Similarly, the researcher learning network
566 in SLIM (Steyaert & Jiggins 2007) deliberately avoided matching case comparisons or statistical analysis,
567 as this would have limited their potential to build a reflexive and emergent process.

568

569 *Managing bridges to solutions/impacts* was a substantial challenge faced by these learning processes. It
570 was uncomfortable and potentially disempowering for actors to think that the process might not lead to any
571 solution. This was exacerbated by broader institutional requirements to produce papers (researchers), or
572 show impact (NGOs). This created a fundamental tension whereby researchers who did not want to push
573 an impact agenda, eventually felt responsible to support emerging solutions, which then depended on
574 additional funding. The major risk was that institutions (alongside promises of funding) could exploit these
575 processes for their own interests, and thus crowd out learning. Navigating these tensions therefore required
576 long term independent income and facilitation, alongside equitable governance that included those
577 positioned to re-embed learning in institutional contexts and programs. For example, both the FAC Net and
578 SLIM network were established to generate learning from and embed it back into practice (Steyaert &
579 Jiggins 2007; Goldstein et al. 2018). Reflexivity was essential to ensure that academics did not become too
580 dominant, and research outputs were not biased by the political agendas of non-academic partners.

581

582 Through productive engagement with emerging impact rationales, several initiatives showed how learning
583 processes can *foster expanded agency for justice*. For example, in the case of the Transylvania Leverage
584 Points project, fragmented NGOs developed a sense of “we are all in this together” by creating a common
585 vision “Balance Brings Beauty” and sharing strategies (Fischer et al. 2019). The project saw collective
586 agency emerge in previously conflictual settings; for example, when farmers requested that they play a
587 “serious game” with a mayor who they were in conflict with. The neutral space provided by the game
588 context enabled real-life adversaries to meet and discuss joint strategies, while at the same time building an
589 understanding that they might actually share common interests. Other initiatives facilitated spaces where
590 people could reflect on their emotions to recognize their own disempowering narratives and co-create more
591 empowering ones (Charli-Joseph et al. 2018; Riechers et al. 2019). Fostering expanded agency required
592 pushing the boundaries of traditional spaces for interaction, such as by developing more diverse spaces
593 where different actors can meet rather than creating a single co-productive space (Chatterton et al. 2018).

594

595 To *examine shifts in collective agency*, cases emphasized emergent shared notions of “success” to reduce
596 pressures and expectations. Several cases noted the difficulty of tracking learning impacts that permeate
597 throughout networks in unexpected ways. Yet, for these initiatives, embedded monitoring and reflection
598 was inherent to facilitating learning and change. For example, the Mexican Transformation-Lab used
599 cognitive mapping and social network analysis to understand people’s perceptions of agency *and* track how
600 they changed over time (Charli-Joseph et al. 2018). Like many initiatives, this case showed how people
601 reinterpreted their own narratives, developed empathy for new actors and forged new alliances; for
602 example, from seeing “two conflicting worlds” and focusing on technological solutions, to seeing “many
603 worlds” and emphasizing social solidarity. The FAC Net, used social network analysis to examine how it
604 functions as a network, and Ripple Effects Mapping to gather stories of how the network influenced
605 practices and results (Medley-Daniel & Troisi 2019). Some cases broadly shared their methods and lessons,

606 such as through blogs and methodological guides (e.g. Ruizpalacios et al. 2019). Participant ownership over
607 their own data was critical to protect confidentiality while maximizing exchange.

608 **7. Fostering co-productive agility for sustainability transformations**

609
610 This paper makes conceptual and practical contributions to understanding *how to navigate tensions and*
611 *power dynamics among diverse actors to collaboratively define and implement transformative change for*
612 *social-ecological sustainability*. These actors may not have been willing to set shared goals from the outset,
613 but become willing to do so over time as they foster trust, reframe their views, and build collective purpose
614 and action. We empirically explore what constitutes co-productive agility in four identified pathways to
615 transformation: 1) elevating marginalized agendas; 2) questioning dominant agendas; 3) navigating
616 conflicting agendas; and 4) exploring diverse agendas. These pathways entail distinct considerations; for
617 example, each pathway cultivated agile spaces by prioritizing different values – humility, legitimacy,
618 fairness, and safety (see Fig. 3). Cultivating these spaces required different forms of facilitative leadership
619 – from taking a more leading role in spaces of power, to stepping back in spaces of marginalization.

620
621 While there is transformative potential in co-productive agility, there are also critical barriers to fostering
622 it. Challenges emerged, for example, when people used co-production to empower their own agendas, rather
623 than creating space to discuss a plurality of agendas. Even if agendas were potentially transformative on
624 paper, if they failed to actually navigate the tensions and politics inherent to the transformation they
625 proposed *within* co-production processes, those politics nevertheless emerged – often to the detriment of
626 intended transformations. Thus, research and practice may spend too much time empowering and debating
627 *which* agenda for change is best, and too little time considering *how to facilitate better interactions among*
628 *different agendas*. A tendency to close down debate over co-production agendas, and cover up
629 disagreements for sake of convenient consensus, is linked to the standards of “success” by which scientists
630 and practitioners are held accountable to, and pressure to show immediate tangible outcomes (Edmunds &
631 Wollenberg 2001; Klenk & Meehan 2017; Cockburn et al. 2019). Such time pressure can incentivize the
632 rapid creation of large ‘inclusive’ multi-stakeholder platforms; yet, co-productively agile initiatives
633 consistently *limited* participation in important ways (e.g. Haller & Merten 2018; Österblom et al. 2017).

634
635 These challenges raise the question: *how can co-productively agility be recognized, nurtured, and evaluated*
636 *in research and practice?* Facilitative leadership that enables the emergence of co-productive agility is not
637 actively supported by most institutional structures in which researchers and practitioners are embedded
638 (Balvanera et al. 2017; Clark et al. 2016). Such a facilitative role, if properly cultivated, would be freed
639 from predetermined measures of progress, instead embracing more emergent process-based criteria. Other
640 fields, such as that of design and systems theory, have already begun to explore what this kind of societal
641 transformation design leadership looks like (Banerjee 2008; Fuller Transformation Collaborative 2019).
642 Indeed, we found that embedding research into practice moved initiatives into spaces of co-productive
643 agility, as otherwise the initial problem frame was too fixed as either “lack of knowledge” or “lack of the

644 kinds of solutions we are already invested in”. An important aspect is to consider how existing knowledge
645 (and other) governance models might facilitate or hinder embedding researchers into practice (van Kerkhoff
646 & Pilbeam 2017; Múnera & van Kerkhoff 2019). Enabling cognitive, relational and organizational aspects
647 of co-productive agility may therefore necessitate shifts in institutional environments and funding criteria,
648 to recognize the value of processes that carefully and iteratively navigate tensions (Cockburn et al. 2018;
649 Arnott et al. 2020).

650

651 We have created a space and structure to further study and understand what co-productive agility is and
652 how it can matter for sustainability transformations. A key aspect appears to be “staying with the trouble”
653 of difference to proactively transform power relations (Haraway 2016), instead of avoiding, suppressing,
654 or polarizing difference. Further research and practice could explore novel approaches to these four
655 pathways, as well as how they are relational with each other and can enable broader transformations across
656 scales. For example, elevating marginalized agendas may help question dominant agendas, and vice versa
657 (e.g. Hill et al. 2020; Brandt et al. 2018; Christie et al. 2017), and generally also entails exploring diverse
658 agendas in a safe way (e.g. Tengö et al. 2017). These pathways may support more productive efforts to
659 navigate conflicting frames, even amidst polarized disputes (e.g. Brennan 2018). Learning networks and
660 processes may also play a central role in supporting all pathways towards transformation (e.g. Steyaert &
661 Jiggins 2007; Goldstein et al. 2018). Finally, particular practices such as future visioning may draw upon
662 multiple pathways by jointly elevating, questioning, exploring and navigating conflicting agendas (Mitchell
663 et al. 2015).

664

665 The co-production efforts we examined disproportionately sought to elevate marginalized agendas to
666 pursue change, yet what is seen as “marginalized” was subjective. In some cases, “marginalized” agendas
667 could be seen as “dominant” agendas by others (e.g. Guerrero et al. 2021). We therefore suggest reflecting
668 on how to elevate agendas in ways that help broaden (rather than hinder) struggles for justice. This also
669 includes broadening research to better understand marginalized actors’ experiences of these tensions – an
670 aspect which is notably absent from our study, which foregrounds researcher/practitioner experiences. We
671 also highlight the need for greater attention to questioning dominant agendas, navigating conflicting
672 agendas, and exploring diverse agendas. In particular, it is critical to examine how all pathways can extend
673 beyond local initiatives to enable broader transformations across scales and geographies, but at the same
674 time ensure that global and national co-production efforts do not undermine local and/or marginalized
675 actors. We hope that by sharing our collective experiences in navigating the tensions and politics of
676 transformation, we can enable more agile and powerful pathways to just and sustainable futures.

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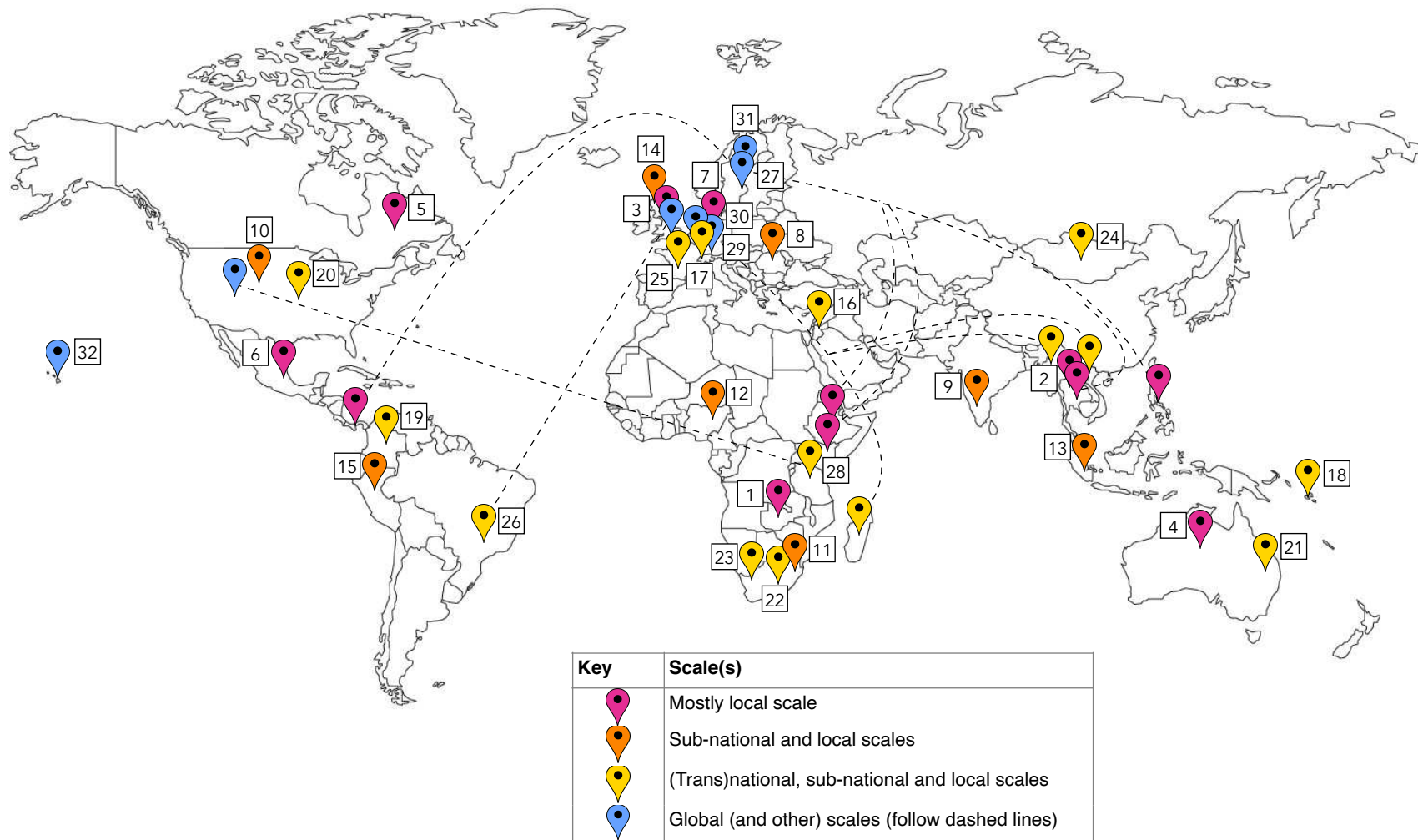


Figure 1. Case study locations. The map shows the locations where the co-production work took place, and the key indicates at what scale(s). Case details are available in Table 1, with the same case IDs. See section 3 for details on the case selection process.

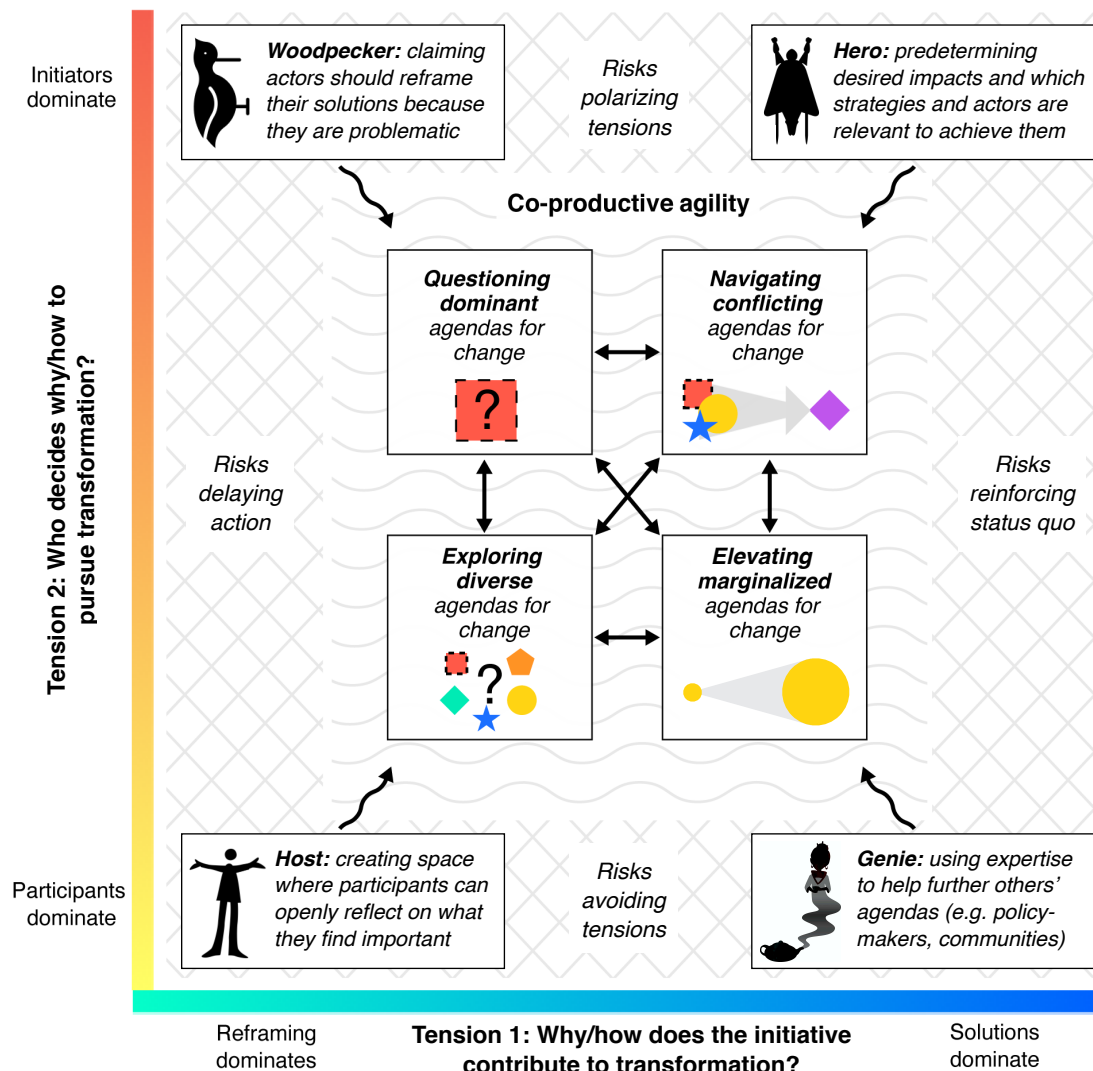


Figure 2. Four complementary pathways towards sustainability transformations

Co-productive agility supports initiatives to move beyond the limitations associated with more binary approaches to managing these tensions (four archetypal roles/processes in the corner boxes: Woodpecker; Hero; Host; Genie) and towards collaborating in more agile ways to enable transformative changes (four center boxes). Facilitative leadership of each of the four pathways entails a slightly stronger focus on two sides of the tensions, related to their purpose; e.g. questioning dominant agendas benefits from a design that especially prioritizes reframing and gives initiators of reframing slightly greater control. These four pathways do not neatly follow the four categories outlined in Tables 2 and 3, and rather use multiple approaches to balancing power and connecting process and impact.

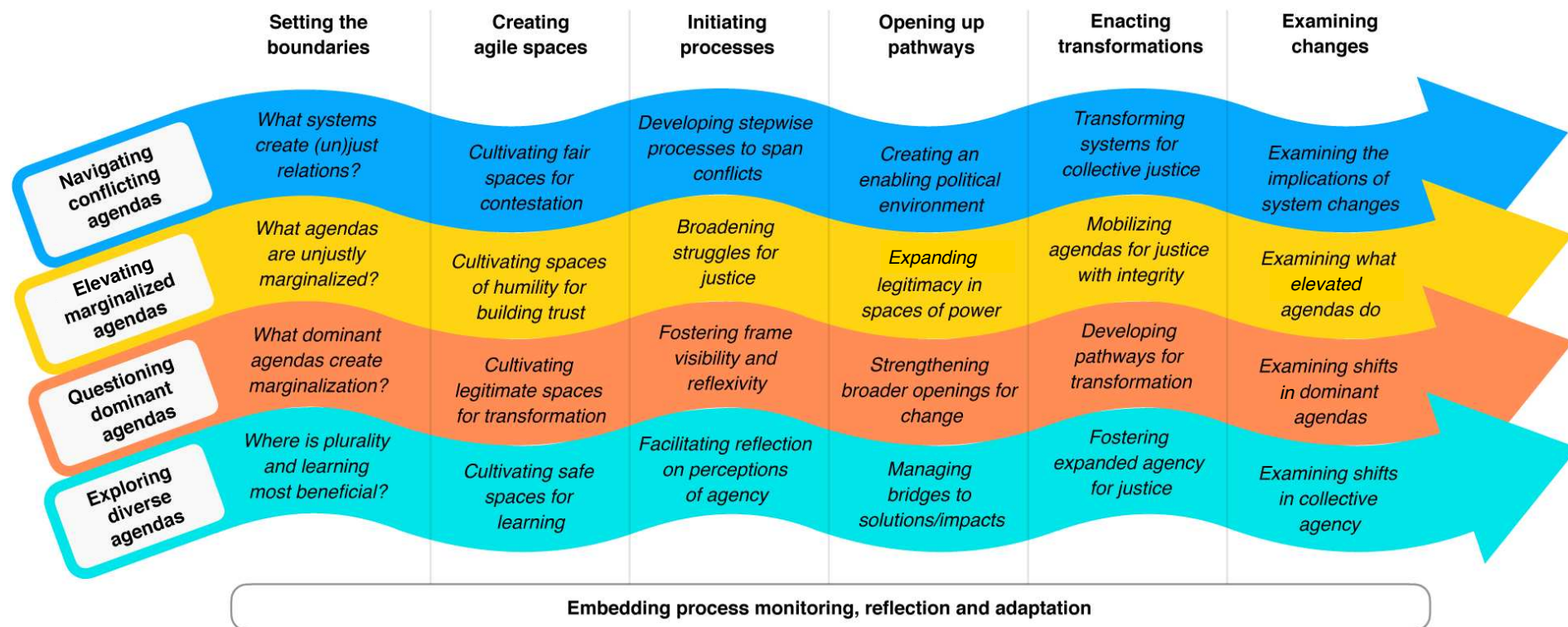





















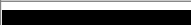







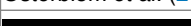


Figure 3. Critical processes to foster co-productive agility in each of the four pathways to sustainability transformations. The lower positioned pathways may especially help enable higher positioned pathways, yet can be more difficult to justify funding due to less emphasis on direct impact.

Table 1. Overview of the 32 case studies. Case ID numbers are associated with the map in Fig. 1

ID	Case title	Dates	Main aim	Case contributor(s)* & links
1 	Crafting local ownership of institution-building processes (I.e. Constitutionality): The case of the Kafue Flats fisheries in Zambia	2005 - 2010	To craft local by-laws for the fisheries in the Kafue Flats Floodplain in Zambia to manage conflicts which have arisen from the overuse of fisheries due to the erosion of governance institutions	 Haller & Merten (2017; 2008); Haller et al. (2016)
2 	Gaming and simulation for co-learning and collective action in Northern Thailand	2007 - 2010	To use a Companion Modeling approach to mitigate a conflict over the access to ambiguous forest-farmland between local herders and forest conservation agencies	 Dumrongrojwatthana et al. (2017); Dumrongrojwatthana et al. (2011); Dumrongrojwatthana & Trébuil (2011)
3 	Recasting Urban Governance through Leeds City Lab	2015 - 2017	To explore radically different institutional personae that can respond to deficits in contemporary urban governance	 Case website (accessed 2020); Chatterton et al. (2018); Campbell et al. (2016)
4 	Managing Indigenous lands under a changing climate	2013 - 2019	To produce a book for Indigenous communities and others to learn and talk more about climate change and what will help their communities deal with these changes in the weather	 Hill et al. (2020); Hill et al. (2015); Co-produced book: Mooney et al. (2014)
5 	Montérégie Connection: linking landscapes, biodiversity, and ecosystem services to improve decision making	2011 - 2014	To develop an ecosystem services, biodiversity and connectivity modeling framework to support communities to manage land	 Mitchell, Bennett, et al. (2015); Ziter, Bennett, et al. (2013); Mitchell, Bennett, et al. (2014); Mitchell, Bennett, et al. (2015); Lamy et al. (2016); Renard et al. (2015)
6 	Promoting Agency For Social-Ecological Transformation: A Transformation-Lab In The Xochimilco Social-Ecological System	2016 - 2019	To promote collective agency through the use of "Transformation Labs" (T-Labs) in Xochimilco, Mexico City	 Case overview (2016); Case video (2019); Charli-Joseph et al. (2018); Eakin et al. (2019); Methodological guide: Ruizpalacios, Charli-Joseph et al. (2019)
7 	Stories of favourite places in public spaces: Emotional responses to landscape change	2017 - 2018	To explore issues of landscape change and people's emotional responses towards it through engaging with social landart (land art)	 Riechers et al. (2019)
8 	Amplifying sustainability initiatives in Southern Transylvania	2016 - 2019	To support and enable sustainability-transformation processes in the region by identifying and analyzing leverage points and amplifying beyond the local scale	 Case website (accessed 2020); Green book: Fisher, Horcea-Milcu et al. (2019); Lam, Horcea-Milcu et al. (2019)
9 	Assessing the socioeconomic and environmental implications of land sharing and land sparing strategies	2013 - 2018	To explore the real-world implications of land sparing and land sharing strategies in local communities	 Serban (2018)
10 	Building Social-Ecological Climate Resilience in Southwestern Colorado	2013 - 2017	To facilitate climate change adaptation that contributes to social-ecological resilience, ecosystem and species conservation, and sustainable human communities	 Case website (accessed 2020)
11 	Durban Research Action Partnership for local land-use planning and management	2011 - ongoing	To build science-action partnerships to improve local land-use planning and management	 Cockburn et al. (2016); Taylor, Cockburn et al. (2016)
12 	Establishing inclusive participatory protected areas management: GyaraYankari	2016 - 2018	To update the highly outdated and expired protected area management plan through a process that is participatory and inclusive, particularly of surrounding communities	 Management report available upon request (contact)

ID	Case title	Dates	Main aim	Case contributor(s)* & links
13 	Knowledge co-production for negotiating payment for watershed services (PWS) in Indonesia	2012 - 2015	To investigate how knowledge sharing towards collaborative products helps to clarify the performance-based indicators for effective PWS negotiation	██████████ Leimona et al. (2015)
14 	Probing the cultural depths of a nature conservation conflict in the Outer Hebrides, Scotland	2009 - 2015	To create a space for articulation and recognition of different value systems shaping conservation and natural resource management decisions by making visible the socio-cultural relations attached to landscape and seascape	██████████ Brennan (2018a; 2018b); Cultural map (accessed 2020)
15 	Transforming 'win-win' conservation and development theory and practice in northeast Peru	2014 - 2019	To explore dominant approaches to joint conservation and development, explore their implications, and shape discourse and practice	██████████ Chambers et al. (2019); Chambers (2018)
16 	Alexander River Restoration Project	1995 - ongoing	To restore a heavily polluted cross border river and foster cooperation and peace between Israeli and Palestinian neighbors amidst the conflict	██████████ Case website (accessed 2020); Brandeis (2005); Press release (2005)
17 	Between top-down and bottom-up institution building for landscape management: Chasseral Regional Nature Park	1997 - ongoing	To reconcile regional economic development and landscape conservation through a new institutional structure bringing together actors with various interests at different levels of government	██████████ Gerber (2018); Case website (accessed 2020)
18 	Building adaptive capacity to climate change in the South Pacific	2013 - 2014	To develop new climate models and projections to support fishers/farmers in the South Pacific region and improve the uptake of these models by Pacific communities and NGOs	██████████ Cvitanovic et al. (2016)
19 	Future-Proofing Conservation: Enabling adaptive governance in protected areas	2015 - 2018	To strengthen protected area adaptive governance through tools for strategic thinking and collective learning to anticipate and respond to long-term social and ecological change amidst uncertain information	██████████ Case overview (accessed 2020); Múnera & van Kerkhoff (2019); van Kerkhoff, Múnera et al. (2019)
20 	The Fire Adapted Community Learning Network (FAC-NET)	2013 - pres.	To enhance fire-adaptation capacity at multiple scales through a learning network	██████████ Case website (accessed 2020); The Nature Conservancy (2016)
21 	eWater Cooperative Research Centre in Australia (Source Catchments)	2005 - 2012	To develop Australia's first national eco-hydrological modelling and decision support platform to help inform decision-making at a range of scales for improved water, environment and societal outcomes	██████████ Case website (accessed 2020); Waltham et al. (2014); Welsh et al. (2013)
22 	Farm dwellers, the forgotten people? Consequences of conversions to private wildlife production	2007 - 2014	To address the socio-ecological impacts of the conversion to game farming amidst post-Apartheid conflicts and power imbalances	██████████ Spierenburg (2019); Brandt et al. (2018)
23 	Knowledge co-production and boundary work to promote implementation of conservation plans	2008 - 2011	To apply co-production concepts to regional conservation planning stages within a national planning project aimed at identifying areas for conserving rivers and wetlands and developing an institutional environment to promote their conservation	██████████ Case overview (accessed 2020); Roux, Nel et al. (2017); Nel et al. (2015); Roux, Nel et al. (2015)

ID	Case title	Dates	Main aim	Case contributor(s)* & links
24 	Mongolian Rangelands and Resilience (MOR2) Project	2008 - 2015	To integrate across knowledge boundaries to understand how climate, socio-economic and political changes and pastoral social-ecological systems in rural Mongolia mutually influence each other, and the implications of community-based resource management regimes	 Fernández-Giménez et al. (2019); Jamsranjav et al. (2019); Ulambayar & Fernández-Giménez (2019); Jamsranjav, Fernández-Giménez et al. (2019); Khishigbayar, Fernández-Giménez et al. (2015)
25 	Social learning for integrated water management (SLIM)	2001 - 2004	To understand the application of social learning as a conceptual framework, an operational principle, a policy instrument or governance mechanism, and a process of systemic change in the fields of natural resource management and water catchments	 Steyaert & Jiggins (2007); Ison et al. (2007); Collins et al. (2007); Final report: Ison, Steyaert et al. (2004)
26 	Contacted: Managing Biodiversity Risks in Global Supply Chains	2014 - 2018	To develop a science-policy-practice framework to reduce environmental risks from production and trade of soy in Cerrado, Brazil	 Case overview (accessed 2020); Final report: Virah-Sawmy, Durán, Green, Guerrero (2018); Virah-Sawmy et al. (2019); Guerrero et al. (2021); Durán et al. (2020); Green et al. (2019)
27 	Connecting diverse knowledge systems at multiple scales in IPBES assessments and related science-policy contexts	2011 - ongoing	To collaboratively develop tools and theory to equitably include local and indigenous knowledge into global biodiversity assessments for the benefit of ecosystems governance	 Case website (accessed 2020); Tengö et al. (2017); Tengö et al. (2014); Malmer et al. (2020); Malmer & Tengö (2020)
28 	Balancing wildlife conservation and pastoral development in East Africa	1999 - ongoing	To use science to support both local community-level and national-level action on wildlife conservation and pastoral development issues, driven by the needs of local pastoral communities	 Reid et al. (2016); Galvin, Reid et al. (2016); Galvin et al. (2018); Case video (2011)
29 	Managing telecoupled landscapes for the sustainable provision of ecosystem services and poverty alleviation	2015 - 2020	To devise and test innovative strategies and institutional arrangements for securing ecosystem service flows and human well-being in and between telecoupled landscapes	 Case website (accessed 2020); Zaehring et al. (2019)
30 	Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES)	2012 - ongoing	To strengthen the science-policy interface for biodiversity and ecosystem services for the conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity, long-term human well-being and sustainable development	 Case website (accessed 2020); Pascual et al. (2017); Díaz et al. (2015); Montana (2017)
31 	SeaBOS (Seafood Business for Ocean Stewardship) - resulting from the Keystone Dialogues	2012 - ongoing	To lead a global transformation towards sustainable seafood production and a healthy ocean where businesses are stewards of the world's ocean and aquaculture environments	 Case website (accessed 2020); Case goals (2020); Österblom et al. (2017); Österblom et al. (2020)
32 	Think tank on the human dimensions of Large Scale Marine Protected Areas (LSMPAs)	2014 - 2017	To be proactive in understanding the issues and developing best management practices and a research agenda that address the human dimensions of Large Scale Marine Protected Areas (LSMPAs)	 Christie, Bennett et al. (2017); Bennet et al. (2017); Gray, Bennett et al. (2017)

Case contributor attributes: ¹ Researcher ² Practitioner *Senior leadership role in the case

Table 3. Illustrative examples of how cases establish interdependencies among tensions. For each tension, we highlight two cases that illustrate how agility can be achieved by prioritizing each side of the tension. However, several cases did not neatly fit into these categories and established interdependencies through a combination of approaches over time.

Tension 1: Why/how does the initiative contribute to transformation? Impact vs. Process

Process leads to impacts	Impacts helped by process
<p>The initiative “Probing the cultural depths of a nature conservation conflict in the Outer Hebrides, Scotland”, contributed by ██████████ is an art science collaboration which helped inspire a different approach to a marine protected area dispute between a local community and the Scottish government (Brennan 2018). As ██████████ explained: “My aim was NEVER to ‘resolve’ a conflict. The reason I chose to explore different understandings of conservation was because my initial fieldwork revealed that the islanders I interviewed perceived the government as understanding conservation as ‘hands-off, keep out, draw a line around’ whereas the islanders understood conservation as ‘hands-on, use and develop wisely’. This led me to framing the problem as clashes between different values systems and worldviews.” Art science collaborations therefore created “a space for islanders to articulate and value aspects of their bio-physical/cultural heritage to open up possibilities for new narratives to emerge within community-government marine protected area conflict”, which sparked a co-management process, which is evolving and faces ongoing challenges.</p>	<p>The initiative “Knowledge co-production and boundary work to promote implementation of conservation plans”, contributed by ██████████ had a strong impact mandate from the start - to map out proposed sites for freshwater protection across South Africa, and to build relationships between the separated water and environmental sectors to collectively manage and conserve these (Nel et al. 2016). Up until this point, freshwater ecosystem protection was largely invisible to both sectors. The project carefully designed a process engage end users and departments in the provincial and national spheres of government. Given the broad buy in, the initiative was able to flexibly adapt the process as needed. For example, when they realized some national-scale knowledge was sometimes misused at the local level, they ran a follow up training program for local users. The widespread involvement of institutions ensured legitimate and well disseminated products, and the engagement with local residents has since supported their appeals to oppose mining licenses by providing information on water ecosystem impacts.</p>

Tension 2: Who decides why/how to pursue transformation? Control vs. Release

Participants are facilitated	Initiators guide process
<p>The initiative “Connecting diverse knowledge systems at multiple scales in IPBES assessments and related science-policy contexts”, contributed by ██████████, sought to move “from studies ‘into’ or ‘about’ indigenous and local knowledge systems, to engagement with and among these knowledge systems to support mutual investigations into our shared environmental challenges” (Tengö et al. 2017). In particular, the work sought to connect critical local knowledge systems with global science-policy processes on biodiversity. The iterative dialogue process was collaboratively designed to support diverse local and global knowledge systems to interact whilst maintaining their integrity and placing them on more equal ground. A key activity was walking workshops in indigenous communities, where “the local hosts were experts on their own landscape, and the strength of their knowledge systems is undeniable - which leverages the power asymmetries between them and scientists”. As a result, they achieved shifts in mind-sets especially among natural scientists in how they view indigenous and local knowledge and knowledge holders.</p>	<p>The initiative “Alexander River Restoration Project”, contributed by ██████████ brought Israeli and Palestine restorationists, engineers and officials together to engage the public to restore the heavily polluted cross-border Alexander River (Brandeis 2005). ██████████ explained how the brokering role by German colleagues was critical to put both sides on equal ground: “Israelis supplied the tent; Palestinians supplied the chairs. Palestinians brought the food; Israelis brought the drinks. Each invited exactly 75 guests”. A very high level of control was necessary to manage the deep tensions and orient discussions towards collective purpose; for example, ██████████ described how “one of the most tense secret meetings held in a hospital during one of the worst times of the armed conflict began with a clear statement from both mayors: ‘We talk sewage, only sewage. Whoever will say anything related to political issues will have to leave the room immediately.’” In this case, the common language fostered by addressing a common environmental concern helped forge relations that could indirectly help heal deeper conflicts.</p>