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# **Knowledge needs for the operationalisation of the concept of ecosystem services**

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## **Key words**

Ecosystem services; operationalisation; knowledge needs; transdisciplinary research

## **Abstract**

As environmental challenges and their management are increasingly recognised as complex and uncertain, the concept of ecosystem services has emerged from within scientific communities and is gaining influence within policy communities. To better understand how this concept can be turned into practice we examine knowledge needs from the perspective of the different stakeholders directly engaged with the operationalisation of ecosystem systems concept within nine socio-ecologically different case studies from different countries, levels of governance and ecosystems.

We identify four different but interrelated areas of knowledge needs, namely; (i) needs related to develop a common understanding, (ii) needs related to the role of formal and informal institutions in shaping action on the ground, (iii) needs related to linking knowledge and action, and (iv) and needs related to accessible and easy to use methods and tools. These findings highlight the need to view knowledge as a process which is orientated towards action. We discuss the potential to develop

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36 transdisciplinary research approaches and the development of tools and methods explicit as boundary  
37 objects in the ecosystem service science community to develop more collaborative practices with other  
38 stakeholders and facilitate the operationalisation of the concept of ecosystem services across contexts.

## 39 **Introduction**

40 Environmental challenges and their management are increasingly recognised as complex and uncertain.  
41 As our understanding of these issues increases so does our awareness of the gaps in our knowledge and  
42 the need to address these gaps to increase societies' capacity to manage these issues effectively (Van  
43 Kerkhoff and Lebel, 2015, Pahl-Wostl, 2009). In addition to the need to develop scientific ecological  
44 understanding, the importance of understanding social and institutional processes, the interactions  
45 between governance levels, policy sectors and the need to include a broader range of stakeholder groups  
46 and their goals and values is recognised to help shape action that protects ecosystems (Wyborn, 2015b,  
47 Carmen et al., 2015, Prager et al., 2012). It is within this backdrop that the concept of ecosystem services,  
48 which presents a more integrated, systematic view coupling social and ecological components into one  
49 system, emerged from within scientific communities and is gaining influence within policy communities  
50 (Carpenter et al., 2009). The aim of this paper is to examine knowledge needs from the perspective of the  
51 different social actors directly engaged in decision making processes aimed at applying the concept of  
52 ecosystem services to better understand how the concept of ecosystem services can be operationalised  
53 and turned into practice more widely.

54 The ecosystem services concept focuses attention on the fundamental links and feedbacks between  
55 nature and society (Mace et al., 2012). Specifically the concept frames these links in terms of the benefits  
56 derived from ecosystem functions and processes to diverse social groups (Hauck et al., 2013). Critically,  
57 the main aim behind the development of the ecosystem services concept has been to more explicitly  
58 incorporate environmental dimensions into decision making and action (Daily et al., 2009), thus  
59 operationalising the concept of ecosystem services into practice.

60 Within the scientific community there has been a focus on developing various frameworks, knowledge  
61 and tools to assess and quantify these benefits (Bagstad et al., 2013). This has resulted in new  
62 collaborations, particularly between economists and ecologists to develop tools and knowledge on the  
63 economic value of ecosystem services, reflecting the increasing recognition of the need to work across  
64 disciplinary boundaries within scientific processes relating to the ecosystem services concept (Cornell,  
65 2011). These developments have contributed to our understanding of the dynamics of different socio-  
66 ecological dimensions across contexts, but to a lesser degree have helped developed our understanding  
67 of the social and institutional factors that shape decision making processes, environmental practice and  
68 change processes more broadly to improve socio-ecological outcomes (Luederitz et al., 2015).

69 We use the term 'knowledge needs' to refer to the emerging recognition of different gaps in our capacity  
70 to help turn the concept of ecosystem services in practice. In this study we provide empirical evidence of  
71 these knowledge needs. First, we briefly outline the different conceptualisations of knowledge,  
72 highlighting different and often overlapping interpretations of knowledge, and current focus of enquiry in  
73 the ecosystem services science community. Secondly, we explain the inductive approach taken in this  
74 study to identify knowledge needs from the perspective of the multiple stakeholders involved in case

75 studies driven by the ecosystem services research community and of EU level policy experts. Thirdly, we  
76 present our findings organised around four key themes identified from the data. Lastly, we examine the  
77 implications of these findings for scientific communities to help facilitate the operationalisation of the  
78 concept of ecosystem services in practice. Specifically, this focuses on a critical reflection of knowledge  
79 production processes in a scientific context.

## 80 **Conceptualisations of knowledge**

### 81 **Different types of knowledge**

82 Knowledge is not easy to define and, as such, has led authors to conceptualise it and classify it in a variety  
83 of ways (Nutley et al., 2007). This includes distinguishing between traditional ecological knowledge and  
84 scientific knowledge (Berkes et al., 2000). Nutley et al. (2007) highlight distinctions made between  
85 empirical, theoretical and experimental knowledge. Empirical knowledge is often the most explicit and  
86 based on quantitative or qualitative research. Theoretical knowledge relies on theoretical frameworks  
87 (Potschin-Young et al., This issue) for thinking about problems either informed by research but more often  
88 than not based on intuition and informal approaches. Finally experimental knowledge, which is often  
89 tactic, based practice implicitly accumulated through operational experience from routines and  
90 behaviours in particular social setting and more challenging to articulate (Fazey et al., 2006, Boiral, 2002).  
91 Vink et al. (2013) distinguish between organised knowledge and unorganised knowledge. Organised  
92 knowledge being characterised as formal knowledge involving a wide consensus and therefore stability of  
93 understanding often crystallized in written or modelled form. Unorganised knowledge is characterised as  
94 involving collective puzzlement whilst moving towards wider agreement through interactive processes  
95 involving deliberation, learning and sharing. Failing et al. (2007) distinguish between fact-based  
96 knowledge claims and value based knowledge claims, the former referring to descriptive claims about the  
97 way the world is or might be and the latter referring to normative claims about how things should be, thus  
98 presenting more explicitly that knowledge is contested. It is however now more commonly agreed that  
99 knowledge is socially constructed and value laden (Adams and Sandbrook, 2013) and cannot be separated  
100 from its social and political context (Hannigan, 1995). Importantly, different types of knowledge are not  
101 mutually exclusive, rather knowledge is a continuum, for example between explicit and tactic knowledge  
102 or unorganised and organised knowledge, thus approaching knowledge as a static product may be overly  
103 restrictive (Boiral, 2002).

### 104 **Knowledge production processes**

105 Moving away from the linear, positivist view of knowledge as a static, tangible product that is easily  
106 defined and articulated which can then be readily inserted into decision making processes, there is an  
107 increasing focus on the flow of knowledge, as an dynamic, interactional process (Fazey et al., 2014). For  
108 example, through interactions between science, policy and practitioner communities to frame knowledge  
109 as a problem oriented process or the coming together of people and practices from different social groups  
110 to work together to produce new knowledge for mutual benefit and to facilitate change (Waylen and  
111 Young, 2014, Van Kerkhoff and Lebel, 2015, Rosendahl et al., 2015). In this study we use this broader,  
112 processes based perspective of knowledge. The broader perspective that views knowledge production as

113 an interactional process is often referred to as knowledge co-production, where multiple stakeholders  
114 work collaboratively to share, explore, learn and shape new knowledge orientated around a real world  
115 problem. More broadly if this approach is taken in research it is referred to as transdisciplinary research  
116 and represents a deliberate lack of any clear boundary between 'science' and 'policy' and 'experts' and  
117 'users' in the collaborative production of knowledge (Wyborn, 2015a, Lejano and Ingram, 2009). This  
118 process-based perspective explicitly recognises different perspectives, knowledge gaps, uncertainty and  
119 thus not only known unknowns, but also unknown unknowns (Luks and Siebenhuner, 2007, Pawson et al.,  
120 2011). Importantly this methodological shift to a more process-based perspective of knowledge in  
121 research is often defined as a move from *mode 1* knowledge production, which involves the research  
122 community organised into disciplines objectively examining the outcomes of change, towards *mode 2*  
123 knowledge. *Mode 2* knowledge processes explicitly recognise subjective perspectives and mutual  
124 dependence between different social groups in society, and thus emphasises the importance of involving  
125 them in knowledge processes across different applicable contexts (Buizer et al., 2011, Lemos and  
126 Morehouse, 2005, Lang et al., 2012). One example of an approach that embodies mode 2 knowledge is  
127 adaptive co-management (Stringer et al., 2006, Armitage et al., 2009). However, a gap has been identified  
128 in many studies between the rhetoric of this approach and its application (Plummer & Armitage, 2007).  
129 This has led to calls for a focus on the methodological assumptions underpinning adaptive management,  
130 moving away from viewing ecosystem management as a technical problem towards broader perspectives  
131 that also embrace the social and institutional factors that shape these process Conservation Biology  
132 (Plummer & Hashimoto, 2011, Cundill et al., 2012). As a concept that embodies the need for an integrated  
133 approach, the operationalisation of the ecosystem services concept into decision making is also an  
134 excellent example of such an applicable context.

135 Current literature relating to transdisciplinary research and biodiversity and ecosystem services science-  
136 policy interface processes (Rosendahl et al., 2015, Carmen et al., 2015) highlight the advantages of taking  
137 a broader view of knowledge as a process that involve multiple stakeholder groups to increase the  
138 likelihood of shaping solution orientated, policy relevant knowledge and outputs (Cash et al., 2003, Young  
139 et al., 2014). This includes new ideas, tools and methods to better inform decision making and support  
140 practical action. Often however transdisciplinary research is an ideal, and in reality stakeholders may be  
141 engaged in the process, but their knowledge may not be perceived as equally valid within an implicit  
142 hierarchy of knowledge which prioritises specific knowledge types. Indeed, this hierarchy is still often  
143 evident within scientific processes between qualitative and quantitative data (Adams and Sandbrook,  
144 2013).

145 Within the scientific literature relating to ecosystem services two critical areas of enquiry currently involve  
146 of firstly, diagnosing problems across contexts, sometimes involving the views of different stakeholders,  
147 and secondly, identifying gaps in our knowledge (Carpenter et al., 2009, Hauck et al., 2013). Often studies  
148 are framed around the implicit assumption that this focus is sufficient to influence decision making beyond  
149 the realms of science (Daily et al., 2009, De Groot et al., 2010, Fisher et al., 2009). However,  
150 operationalisation involves going beyond simply highlighting the potential usefulness of the concept of  
151 ecosystem services for different social groups to facilitating its application in real world decision making  
152 processes to demonstrate its usefulness in addressing real world issues through practical experience (Jax,  
153 this issue). Despite the aim of the ecosystem services concept for the better use of knowledge in decision

154 making, knowledge production so far has focused more on generating knowledge with less attention on  
155 better understanding the links between values, institutions, decisions and actions in knowledge  
156 production and how to facilitate change that moves the concept of ecosystem services from an ideal into  
157 reality more widely (Braat and de Groot, 2012, Daily et al., 2009). From a broader perspective Flyvbjerg  
158 (2001) emphasises the need to not only focus on developing knowledge on why problems arise ('know  
159 why') that has been the more traditional domain of science, but also to develop knowledge on 'the how'  
160 ('know how'), which relates to what Aristotle termed as 'techne' and 'phronesis'. Whereas 'techne' is  
161 'know how' that leads to developing knowledge products to meet a known goal, 'phronesis' is often  
162 equated with intuition, wisdom and judgment. In essence 'phronesis' is knowledge embodied in practical  
163 experience that, through time and reflectivity, helps shape capacity to navigate through unique  
164 combinations of factors embedded within particular settings (Shotter and Tsoukas, 2014). Phronesis  
165 encompasses both 'know-why' and 'know-how', which are all essential domains of knowledge to '*get*  
166 *things done*' (Bengt, 2011). From an ecosystem services research perspective a 'phronetic approach'  
167 focuses also on the development of capacity to engage in transdisciplinary research processes across  
168 different contexts to move from ecosystem services as way of thinking, to a way of doing.

169 This current focus in the ecosystem services literature and linear impact assumptions highlights the  
170 importance of not only taking a broad approach when examining knowledge needs in addition to  
171 examining these needs from the perspective of multiple stakeholders to better understand leverage  
172 points for the application of potentially useful concepts such as the ecosystem services beyond research  
173 communities. Our aim is firstly to take an inductive approach to examine the knowledge needs for the  
174 operationalisation of the concept of ecosystem services from the perspective of the multiple stakeholders  
175 exploring the usefulness of this concept in real world situations. Secondly, we aim to explore how the  
176 ecosystem services scientific community can better facilitate the use of the concept of ecosystem services  
177 beyond the traditional boundaries of science.

## 178 **Methods and materials**

179 Acknowledging diverse interpretation and the subjectivity of knowledge needs, an inductive, qualitative  
180 semi-structured strategy was used to provide a depth of understanding of knowledge needs from the  
181 perspective of the multiple stakeholders involved in the operationalisation of ecosystem service (Bryman,  
182 2004). This provided contextual accounts of knowledge needs and gaps by exploring participants'  
183 perspectives and feelings on topics that matter to them (Mason, 2002, Arksey and Knight, 1999).  
184 Participants included stakeholders from research, practitioner and policy-based communities involved in  
185 nine cases studies with varying socio-ecological characteristics exploring the challenges and successes for  
186 the operationalisation of the concept of ecosystem services into practice by working with multi-  
187 stakeholder advisory groups. These case studies involved different levels of governance, aspects of the  
188 policy cycle and different policy sectors, reported in a basic questionnaire completed by each cases study  
189 leader (see Table 1). In addition a further case study was included from the EU level, involving 20 EU level  
190 stakeholders from different EC directorates and European Agencies and NGO's. The aim here was to  
191 ensure a range of socio-ecological contexts in the study to enable a broad understanding of knowledge  
192 needs widely applicable across the ecosystem services research community. Further background  
193 information on these case studies is outlined by Dick et al. (This issue). This multiple case study design

194 supported the identification of generalisations on knowledge needs applicable across contexts (Wiek et  
195 al., 2012). The aim of this study was not to undertake a comparative analysis of different knowledge needs  
196 between stakeholder groups, levels of governance or ecological settings.

197 **Table 1: Reported context of the participating case studies**

Case study focus									
	1 Finland (SIBB)	2 Slovakia (TRNA)	3 Spain (BARC)	4 Germany (BIOG)	5 Scotland (CNPM)	6 Netherlands, Belgium, UK (GIFT)	7 Italy (GOMG)	8 Scotland (LLEV)	9 Kenya (KEGA)
<b>Governance level</b>									
<b>EU</b>				✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>National</b>		✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	
<b>Regional</b>		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
<b>Local</b>	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	
<b>Governance focus</b>									
<b>Legal</b>	✓	✓		✓				✓	
<b>Administrative</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		✓
<b>Political</b>	✓			✓					
<b>Planning</b>	✓	✓			✓	✓			
<b>Policy sector</b>									
<b>Agriculture</b>		✓		✓	✓	✓			✓
<b>Forestry</b>				✓	✓	✓			✓
<b>Freshwater</b>						✓	✓	✓	
<b>Urban</b>	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓		
<b>Protected area</b>					✓	✓		✓	✓
<b>Wildlife</b>					✓			✓	✓
<b>Bio-energy</b>				✓					

198



199

200 The involvement of stakeholders in this study was voluntary and a combination of data collection  
201 methods was used. This involved a focus group methodology with groups of stakeholders from each  
202 case study and from the EU level and semi structured interviewing with researchers leading case  
203 studies 1-9. The combination of methods used for each case study are outlined below (see Table 2).

204 **Table 2: Data collection methods**

<b>Case study and data collection context</b>	<b>Data collection methods</b>	<b>Date</b>
<b>1. Operationalising ecosystem services in urban land-use planning in Sibbesborg, Helsinki Metropolitan Area, Finland</b>	Focus groups and interview	February 2015
<b>2. Landscape-ecological planning in the urban and peri-urban areas of Trnava, Slovakia</b>	Interview	February 2015
<b>3. A Green Infrastructure strategy in Vitoria-Gasteiz, Spain</b>	Interview	February 2015
<b>4. Bioenergy production in Saxony, Germany</b>	Interview	February 2015
<b>5. Improved, integrated management of the natural resources within the Cairngorms National Park, Scotland</b>	Focus group	October 2014
<b>6. Planning with Green Infrastructure in five linked cases in the Netherlands, Belgium and UK</b>	Interview	January 2015
<b>7. Nature-based solution for water pollution control in Gorla Maggiore, Italy</b>	Focus group report and interview	January 2015
<b>8. Quantifying the consequences of the European water policy for ecosystem service delivery at Loch Leven, Scotland</b>	Focus group	September 2014
<b>9. Operationalising ecosystem services for improved management of natural resources within the Kakamega Forest, Kenya</b>	Focus group and interview	March 2015
<b>10. EU Level stakeholders</b>	Two parallel focus groups	January 2014

205

206 Focus group discussions were used to gather data with EU level stakeholders and from six of the nine  
207 case studies. Semi structured interviews were used in combination with focus groups in three of these  
208 six case studies. This combination of methods was used with stakeholders with higher levels of  
209 engagement in the cases study who spoke a language other than English. It involved the case study  
210 research leaders coordinating and facilitating the focus group discussion in the native language of the  
211 stakeholders and feeding back issues discussed and exploring their own views and perspectives on  
212 knowledge needs through semi structured interviews. In a further three case studies semi structured  
213 interviews with case study coordinator team members were used to collect data when it was to not

214 possible to bring together a group of stakeholders, which is an essential requirement for the focus  
215 group methodology (Morgan, 1996).

216 The focus group method involves a facilitator actively stimulating discussions within a group on a  
217 predefined topic (Morgan, 1996). Thus, group interaction is a key feature which distinguishes focus  
218 groups from other qualitative methods (Smithson, 2000). A key advantage of group interaction is that  
219 it can provide a more in depth understanding of issues by bringing together and exploring perspectives  
220 in detail collectively (Peek and Fothergill 2009, Bryman 2004). Similarly, the semi structured  
221 interviewing method also enables a predefined topic to be explored in detail, although this is explored  
222 individually rather than collectively. Applying a semi structured approach to focus groups and  
223 interviews involved developing a guide outlining the topics to be explored and during the discussion  
224 the facilitator/ interviewer intervening only to probe responses and uncover more detail. Thus, the  
225 facilitator surrendered a certain degree of control to the participants to take the discussions in  
226 directions which they saw as important (Smithson, 2000).

227 To enable the lead case study researchers to apply the focus group method a detailed guide was  
228 produced and discussed in depth before applying this method of data collection. This set out a clear  
229 and consistent process for data collection across the different situations, types and numbers of  
230 stakeholders in each case study. These guides set out how to begin the discussion by asking about the  
231 conceptual frameworks of ecosystem services being used to frame the problem in each case study  
232 which brought together existing knowledge on different components of socio-ecological systems and  
233 set out relationships between them being explored. This enabled the discussions to identify  
234 knowledge needs already considered in the initial phases of the case study. The discussions were then  
235 steered towards exploring wider knowledge needs. Discussions were audio recorded with full,  
236 informed consent obtained from participants before each focus group or interview. Audio recording  
237 ensured that an accurate and full description of all the issues discussed. Recordings were then  
238 transcribed verbatim and anonymity of the participants was maintained during the transcription,  
239 analysis and reporting phase of the research.

240 Qualitative data analysis was undertaken using aspects of grounded theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1990)  
241 using a thematic approach, as described by Ryan and Bernard (2003) which did not rely on a  
242 predefined definition of knowledge. The analytical process firstly involved developing a familiarity  
243 with all the data by thoroughly reading all the focus group and interview transcripts. Open coding was  
244 then applied in an iterative process to organise segments of data from each transcript into sub themes  
245 based on repetitions, similarities and differences in issues within the data. The sub themes were  
246 labelled based on short phrases and words used to explain knowledge needs by the research  
247 participants and organised into an analytical framework (Bryman, 2016). These sub themes and the  
248 data segments within them were then grouped into four higher order themes to move from a  
249 descriptive to an abstractive level of understanding from the data with a clear chain of evidence  
250 connecting back to the raw data (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Each of the themes identified in the  
251 analytical process are explained below. Following this the importance of these themes for the  
252 ecosystem services research community in efforts to operationalise this concept into practice are  
253 explored.

## 254 **Results**

255 Four themes were identified in the analytical process, which are described in this section.

256 **Knowledge needs to develop a common understanding**

257 The need for knowledge to develop a common understanding of the concept of ecosystem services  
258 was highlighted as important by stakeholders who participated in this study to ensure that the core  
259 principles of the concept were not diluted or 'lost in translation'. This relates to the need for more  
260 effective communication and dialogue between stakeholders from different levels of governance,  
261 policy sectors and from science, policy or practice based communities. These core principles  
262 identified by stakeholders included embracing an integrated, systems perspective that cuts across  
263 traditional disciplinary and sector boundaries, which requires the involvement of diverse groups of  
264 actors across levels of governance from within research, policy and practice based communities.  
265 Delivering multiple benefits is another core principle explicitly linked to the concept of ecosystem  
266 services. Stakeholders recognised that developing a common understanding across diverse groups  
267 takes time. However, building on existing relationships and networks was identified as one way to  
268 help speed up this process. Alternatively, the role of boundary organisations or knowledge brokers  
269 (boundary people) was identified by stakeholders as another possible way to develop a common  
270 understanding between different stakeholder groups, for example between science based  
271 stakeholders and policy based stakeholders.

272 To develop a common understanding of the concept of ecosystem services the need for a common  
273 language was also identified. This involved the need for clear definitions, however some  
274 stakeholders identified the usefulness of some ambiguity in terminology to facilitate dialogue and  
275 the development of a common understanding between the different stakeholders in a specific  
276 situation. Similarly, the need to translate language to link with the terminology used in policy and  
277 practice based communities was also identified as a clear knowledge need by stakeholders to frame  
278 decision making and shape action on the ground across levels of governance. For example, linking  
279 with terms such as landscape services or green infrastructure. Adapting language in this way was  
280 identified as a way to help facilitate a common understanding of the principles embedded in the  
281 concept of ecosystem services across groups of actors with different perspectives.

282 Furthermore, knowledge needs identified also related the development and use of positive frames  
283 to facilitate a common understanding of issues to bring together diverse groups of actors. Positive  
284 messages may help in this way by signalling the synergistic opportunities and benefits from taking  
285 integrated action. Conversely, stakeholders suggested that many arguments for the  
286 operationalisation of ecosystem services applied negative frames that emphasise loss, adverse  
287 impact and often focus on moral responsibilities. Sharing examples that explicitly highlight the  
288 importance of and application of positive framing to meet a range of policy goals was identified as a  
289 need. Stakeholders suggested this was an important step to help facilitate shared understanding of  
290 the need for more integration and collaborative working across policy sectors.

291 Within a specific operational context once multi-stakeholders are brought together, stakeholders  
292 identified the need for conceptual frameworks to help frame problems and develop a common  
293 understanding of the need for an integrated approach. Specifically, stakeholders identified the  
294 usefulness of frameworks for reducing complexity, whilst highlighting the links and feedbacks  
295 between different components of the socio-ecological system. However, some stakeholders  
296 emphasised the need to avoid presenting a linear relationship between different social and  
297 ecological system components represented in frameworks to better acknowledge different but  
298 equally important perspectives. Nonetheless, stakeholders highlighted the potential for frameworks

299 to help bring together different types of knowledge at the start of processes to develop a common  
 300 understanding of the problem and specific knowledge gaps to be addressed between those involved.  
 301 Overall developing a common understanding was identified as an overarching knowledge need to  
 302 contribute to the operationalising the concept of ecosystem services by helping to bring together  
 303 and facilitate dialogue between different stakeholder groups, across different contexts as an  
 304 important first step towards collaborative working to addresses context specific needs. A summary  
 305 of the knowledge needs to contribute towards developing a common understanding is provided in  
 306 table 3.

307 **Table 3: Summary of the knowledge needs to develop a common understanding between different**  
 308 **stakeholder groups**

<b>Knowledge needs to develop a common understanding between the different stakeholder groups</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Maintain the core principles of an integrated approach and delivering multiple benefits that are embedded within the concept of ecosystem services.</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop a common language across different stakeholder groups</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Communicate by linking with existing policy concepts</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use positively framed messages to signal the potential relevance of the concept for different stakeholder groups</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use socio-ecological frameworks that emphasis the importance of an integrated approach involving multiple stakeholders</li> </ul>

309  
 310 **Knowledge needs on the role of formal and informal institutions in shaping action on the**  
 311 **ground**

312 Stakeholders identified the need to better understand how policy frameworks, structural and  
 313 organisational units (formal institutions) and norms (informal institutions) interact to shape action  
 314 on the ground. This included understanding how specific EU policy frameworks influence action in  
 315 relation to sustaining ecosystem services. For example, the Water Framework Directive and the  
 316 Common Agricultural Policy. Also included however was understanding the role of national policies  
 317 that are aimed at transferring management responsibilities of natural resources to the community  
 318 level by developing more meaningful interactions between policy/practice-based stakeholders and  
 319 local community stakeholders. Furthermore, the link between local policies and action aimed at  
 320 implementation was also identified as important, for example, the match between integrated  
 321 strategies and projects on the ground. This knowledge was emphasised as important to better  
 322 understand if and how to avoid the dilution of the principle of integration through the policy process  
 323 and across levels of governance.

324 Stakeholders also identified the need to better understand the role of norms in shaping how  
 325 organisations and groups of stakeholders think and act in approaching the operationalisation of an  
 326 integrated approach that is core to the ecosystem services concept. Specifically, stakeholders  
 327 emphasised the importance of organisational, sectoral and disciplinary cultures where integrated,  
 328 collaborative practices were normal. Thus reducing the likelihood of a mismatch between the goals  
 329 of different groups in planning and delivering integrated actions to manage ecosystems and the  
 330 services they provide. Examples of important collaborations were highlighted as including  
 331 governmental organisations, different departments and between scientists and local practice based

332 stakeholders, for example engineers and planners, in addition the current focus in science on  
 333 working with policy makers. Furthermore, the need to facilitate the multi-directional flow of  
 334 knowledge between different societal groups was also identified to enhance learning across  
 335 contexts. For example, across sectors and levels of governance levels. This included EU policy based  
 336 stakeholders identifying the need to understand why and how voluntary action to adopt a  
 337 perspective more in line with the ecosystem concept is applied in different organisations and  
 338 businesses.

339 Overall understanding the role of formal and informal institutions was identified as an overarching  
 340 knowledge need to help strengthen the development of integrated approaches, collaborative  
 341 working and learning between different stakeholder groups to better shape action on the ground. A  
 342 summary of the knowledge needs on the role of formal and informal institutions in shaping action  
 343 on the ground is provided in table 4.

344 **Table 4: Summary of the knowledge needs on the role of formal and informal institutions in**  
 345 **shaping action on the ground**

<b>Knowledge needs on the role of formal and informal institutions in shaping action on the ground</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understand the role of formal institutions across levels of governance in shaping action on the ground (for example, the EU Common Agricultural policy)</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Overcome the cultural barriers (informal institutions) to collaboration in different stakeholder groups to normalise and strengthen collaborative practices between groups</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop a better match between formal institutions (for example, local policies setting out the need for integration) and informal institutions (for example, implementation practice)</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitate the flow of knowledge (formally and informally) between levels of governance and sectors to help learning and spreading of ideas more widely</li> </ul>

346

347 **Knowledge needs to link knowledge and action**

348 Stakeholders across case study contexts recognised that both knowledge and decision making  
 349 processes are complex and dynamic. However, the need for a strong link between these processes  
 350 was emphasised to produce ‘actionable’ knowledge. At the EU level this also included the need to  
 351 develop credible, useful data and information to feed back into knowledge and decision making  
 352 processes. Stakeholders emphasised the importance of an iterative process to both knowledge  
 353 production and action, which recognises the reality that decision making and action often has to  
 354 occur in the context of known knowledge gaps in policy processes. Thus knowledge production  
 355 should not be prioritised over action, with a need to bring these activities closer together.  
 356 Specifically stakeholders stressed that an iterative approach to collecting data, developing  
 357 knowledge and taking action was important and could help identify and address knowledge gaps  
 358 more quickly. The importance of relationships, trust and transparency between stakeholder groups  
 359 was emphasised as particularly important in this process. Furthermore, stakeholders also

360 emphasised a need to produce outputs with clear levels of uncertainty and guidance on its use to  
 361 minimise the likelihood of misuse of this information more widely in decision making processes.  
 362 Some researchers leading the case studies however emphasised the need to not link knowledge and  
 363 decision making too closely. This related to the need to provide a flexible space to experiment with,  
 364 adapt and develop scientific tools and scientific knowledge emerging from this. Researcher  
 365 stakeholders involved in the case studies also highlighted a lack of knowledge about if and how  
 366 knowledge being produced in multi-stakeholder processes was being used in decision making  
 367 processes.

368 All stakeholders involved in this study identified the need to better include a wider range of  
 369 stakeholder groups in processes aimed at applying the concept of ecosystem services in practice.  
 370 Although there are current multi-stakeholder groups from science and policy working together in  
 371 research processes framed around the ecosystem services concept and the core principle of  
 372 integrated perspectives to environmental management, the need for wider and deeper involvement  
 373 of other stakeholders in these processes was identified, for example businesses and local people.  
 374 Some research based stakeholder involved in the case studies identified the usefulness of  
 375 stakeholder involvement in knowledge production processes to help facilitate the development and  
 376 spread of ideas into the wider activities of all stakeholders involved.

377 Policy based stakeholders at the EU level identified the need for high quality knowledge from  
 378 research to help increase the credibility of action on the ground. There was also an emphasis on the  
 379 need for knowledge production to involve different stakeholder groups and their knowledge  
 380 alongside scientific stakeholders and their knowledge. EU policy based stakeholders identified the  
 381 need for this involvement throughout knowledge processes to provide a strong focus on the  
 382 development of useable/ relevant knowledge. More widely, stakeholders identified the need to  
 383 understand how to better facilitate this in practice, specifically relating to the challenges of bringing  
 384 together knowledge in different formats, from different stakeholder groups and from wider society.

385 Developing an understanding about how to overcome some of the barriers hindering closer working  
 386 and knowledge exchange across groups was identified by stakeholders as important. This included  
 387 knowledge on how to collaborate when only limited resources are available, for example developing  
 388 more innovative ways to involve wider social groups. Furthermore, the need to overcome low levels  
 389 of trust, for example shaped by previous difficulties with specific stakeholder or as a relic of  
 390 communist regimes was identified as an important need which influenced interactions between  
 391 stakeholders. The structure and transparency that some tools and methods provided was identified  
 392 as helping to facilitate trust and balance of perspectives in multi-stakeholder processes.

393 Overall, this theme draws attention to the need for knowledge production processes to be more  
 394 closely linked with action orientated processes, applying a collaborative, iterative approach involving  
 395 a wide range of stakeholders. A summary of the knowledge needs to bring knowledge orientated  
 396 processes and action orientated processes closer together is provided in table 5.

397 **Table 5: Summary of the knowledge needs to better link action and knowledge orientated**  
 398 **processes**

<b>Knowledge needs to link knowledge</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Apply an iterative approach to bring these more closely together whilst recognising that both knowledge and action are equally important.</li> </ul>
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<b>production and action orientated processes</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop collaborations that involve multiple stakeholders and their knowledge from the start. For example, practice and policy based stakeholders.</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Involve a wide range of stakeholders from policy based and science based communities collaborating from the start to develop relevant, useable knowledge that can readily feed into decision making processes</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Meaningfully include a wide range of perspectives and knowledge from different stakeholder groups, including societal groups, for example businesses and local people</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop closer multi-stakeholder collaborations by developing trust and being transparent.</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ensure space is created in collaborations for sharing of existing knowledge and developing new knowledge through experimental learning</li> </ul>

399

400 **Knowledge needs relating to methods and tools**

401 A common knowledge need identified by stakeholders involved the development of simple,  
402 transparent tools and methods that could be applied across contexts. This need was identified to  
403 help assess the supply and demand of ecosystem services, synergies, conflicts and trade-offs across  
404 temporal and spatial scales and policy sectors and the different values attributed to them.  
405 Specifically, tools and methods were considered important to identify wider, less tangible benefits  
406 and services from ecosystems across society, for example cultural services and the value attributed  
407 to them. Although stakeholders acknowledged that some tools and methods already existed, the  
408 ability to bring together knowledge dispersed across different types of stakeholders and across large  
409 geographic areas was identified as a particular need. This related to the need identified by EU level  
410 stakeholders to up-scale methods and tools for application across larger areas, including across  
411 political boundaries to contribute to transnational coordination for improved environmental  
412 management. Conversely, the need for tools and methods to include assessments of regulatory  
413 services, which are often the focus of assessments across larger scales, was identified as a need for  
414 assessments focusing on smaller areas. Stakeholders also identified the importance of tools to  
415 undertake monetary valuation and incorporate the full range of services for this, particularly to  
416 influence policy makers. Stakeholders also highlighted the importance of tools for non-monetary  
417 valuations and to move beyond the current strong focus on monetary valuation for ecosystem  
418 services. This was identified as important to better represent the full range of services and wider  
419 stakeholder perspectives in knowledge emerging from processes. This was an important need for a  
420 range of stakeholders but particularly for some local non-government organisations and local  
421 business stakeholders to better capture less tangible benefits and services, and thus present a more  
422 realistic picture of the diversity of benefits, services and values on the ground.

423 EU policy based stakeholders also identified the need to develop indicators to monitor and evaluate  
424 action on the ground. Linked to this was an emphasis on the importance of tools and methods to

425 better understand feedbacks in socio-ecological systems and to help avoid negative impacts and  
 426 unintended consequences of decisions and actions on the ground. Predominantly this related to the  
 427 need to gather quantitative data, particularly at the EU level. However more broadly the need for  
 428 qualitative data was also identified to better integrate different sources and types of knowledge into  
 429 decision making. This included stakeholders focusing on action at smaller scales, for example the  
 430 knowledge of local people, and larger scales, although at this scale the need to convert qualitative  
 431 into quantitative data to inform decision making was emphasised.

432 Overall, this group of knowledge needs relates to the need for tools and methods that improve  
 433 integrated approaches in the assessment of ecosystem services across different scales, to involve  
 434 and inform the decision making of different stakeholder groups. A summary of the knowledge needs  
 435 relating to tools and methods is provided in table 6.

436 **Table 6: Summary of the knowledge needs relating to tools and methods**

<b>Knowledge needs relating to methods and tools</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide simple, transparent tools and methods that can be applied across contexts to identify synergies and trade-offs across different spatial and temporal scales to inform decision making</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop tools and methods to bring together different types and sources of knowledge to improve the assessment of the supply and demand of the full range of ecosystem services</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understand the different data and information needs across stakeholder groups (for example, non-monetary valuation may be more relevant for local stakeholders)</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Include a wider range of ecosystem services across the different scales at which assessments of ecosystem services are undertaken (for example, local assessment to transboundary assessments involving more than one European Union Member State)</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop quantitative indicators to monitor and evaluate the implementation of ecosystem services across large geographic areas (for example at the EU level)</li> </ul>

437

438 **Discussion**

439 This study aimed to identify knowledge needs for the operationalisation of ecosystem services  
 440 across different contexts, involving different sectors, stakeholders and levels of governance. In the  
 441 analytical process four overarching themes were identified, namely; (i) knowledge needs to develop  
 442 a common understanding, (ii) knowledge needs on the role of formal and informal institutions in  
 443 shaping action on the ground, (iii) knowledge needs to link knowledge and action, an (iv) knowledge  
 444 needs relating to tools and methods. Here the implications of these findings to contribute to the  
 445 operationalisation of the concept of ecosystem services are explored.

446

447 **Knowledge needs for the operationalisation of the concept of ecosystem services**



448 These four themes are interrelated and represent important aspects that require attention to help  
449 operationalise the concept of ecosystem services more widely into policy and practice. The  
450 importance of developing a common understanding through the selective use of language, with the  
451 ideas and meanings attached with this, is widely recognised as critical in the literature focusing on  
452 environmental discourse, message framing and science-policy interfaces to help identify shared  
453 goals and prime the development of collaborative processes. Specifically, effective communication  
454 and translation using the language and experiences of key target stakeholder groups can speed up  
455 understanding and identify potential areas of mutual benefit to then move to exploring the  
456 application of the concept within a specific context (Cash et al., 2003). In this way selecting and  
457 adapting language can help develop more effective arguments to mobilise capacities and share  
458 resources (Carmen et al., 2016). Developing a common understanding relates to the knowledge  
459 need to develop and apply 'know how' to engage a broad range of stakeholder groups to stimulate  
460 their interest in developing collaborations and applying integrated approaches to socio-ecological  
461 issues as set out within the ecosystem services concept. This involves knowledge on how to use  
462 linguistic, cognitive and technical tools to help change mindsets to develop 'collaborative readiness'  
463 (Stokols, 2006, Potschin-Young et al., This issue)) for better working across traditional boundaries,  
464 for example between science and policy and between policy sectors for more integrated policy  
465 development and with practitioners in policy implementation. There is often a strong link between  
466 formal institutions such as policy frameworks and the goals of stakeholders in policy and practice  
467 based communities. Indeed, analysing current policy frameworks and how they can be strengthened  
468 to better align with the concept of ecosystem services is one strand of the current ecosystem  
469 services literature, for example see Matzdorf and Meyer (2014). Policy processes are complex  
470 involving layers of decisions, stakeholders and their actions (Keeley and Scoones, 1999). Within this  
471 process a mismatch between policy rhetoric and practice may develop. Understanding the role of  
472 informal institutions in shaping action on the ground is therefore an important knowledge need for  
473 operationalising the concept of ecosystem services. This involves norms and cultures of different  
474 practitioner groups, that help shape the attitudes and behaviours of stakeholders who may have an  
475 important role in turning the concept of ecosystem services into action on the ground, for example  
476 local government officers. Importantly attitudes and behaviours that encourage integrated  
477 approaches need to be identified and fostered. More specifically, understanding how to move from  
478 cooperation, where working together is focused on individual ends, into collaboration, which  
479 involves working together for a common goal, is crucial (Jeffrey, 2003). A stronger focus on changing  
480 practice for ecosystem services is an essential step towards building practical knowledge, which is  
481 embedded in learning through experience to bring the gap between wider goals, attitudes and  
482 behaviours closer together (Flyvbjerg, 2001, Boiral, 2002). The concept of ecosystem services  
483 involves core principles that emphasises a need to adopt integrated approaches and deliver mutual  
484 benefits for diverse social groups. The need to foster collaborative thinking and practices implicitly  
485 connects these principles and is therefore an important leverage point to help turn this concept into  
486 practice more widely.

487 This study has a number of limitations. It is limited in so far as a break-down of knowledge needs  
488 across different stakeholder groups, levels of governance and broader socio-ecological context was  
489 not possible due to the different levels of engagement of stakeholders across the case studies  
490 included in the study and language barriers. Both of these factors meant that data collection was  
491 undertaken using both interviews and focus groups which relied on collaboration with the local case

492 study research teams to collect data. Despite the development of data collection protocols this  
493 makes a comparative analysis problematic. Instead, the data was combined and broad areas of  
494 knowledge needs identified for the ecosystem services community. At the EU level some difference  
495 in knowledge needs were identified, for example for collaborating across policy sectors, consistency  
496 in data, methods and monitoring across large geographic areas and political boundaries. However,  
497 more interestingly, there are subtle differences in the orientation between the four themes  
498 identified in this study, not only about types of knowledge need, but also whose knowledge.  
499 Whereas developing a common understanding relates to the ecosystem services community working  
500 with other stakeholder groups, the role of formal and informal institutions predominately focuses  
501 attention towards knowledge for and by science and practice. The need to develop tools and  
502 methods and the need to link knowledge and action however predominantly focuses on knowledge  
503 needs from specifically within the ecosystem services scientific community. Together these four  
504 interrelated themes mirrors a broad perspective of knowledge as a multidimensional, dynamic  
505 process. However, addressing these knowledge needs may help provide more credence to the  
506 importance of considering an understanding of socio-ecological in decision making processes, these  
507 processes are complex and dynamic and may be influenced by a range of other factors. These  
508 knowledge needs may be necessary but insufficient to fully operationalise the concept of ecosystem  
509 services into action on the ground.

510

#### 511 **Contribution from the ecosystem services scientific community to better operationalise the** 512 **concept**

513 There is a growing recognition in scientific communities of the importance of developing knowledge  
514 that is legitimate, for example by including wider stakeholders, and relevant to provide knowledge  
515 to more readily feed into decision making in policy communities (Sarkki et al., 2013, Carmen et al.,  
516 2015). In relation to ecosystem services this has often focused on two key areas. The first is the  
517 development of methods, frameworks, models and tools to better capture and therefore  
518 understand the dynamics of issues. Increasingly these are being used to recognize a range of  
519 perspectives of different stakeholder groups. This knowledge need for the development of tools and  
520 methods relates to improving technical capacity, or 'know-how', to apply these to help understand  
521 the dynamics of issues in different contexts, leading to explicit knowledge products, such as  
522 environmental assessments, that focus on 'know why' (Flyvbjerg, 2001). Secondly more recently  
523 research has begun to more explicitly focus on informing policy development at larger scales at the  
524 national, European and global levels and bring knowledge and action closer together, for example  
525 through the Intergovernmental Platform for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (Koetz et al., 2012).  
526 More widely therefore discussions are turning towards a need to develop and apply *Mode 2*  
527 knowledge processes to better influence decision making across levels of governance. Despite this,  
528 there has been very little attention in the ecosystem service literature to date focusing on the need  
529 for more inclusive, collaborative approaches more broadly that orientate to both knowledge  
530 production *and* action. In the sustainability science literature however there has been a growing  
531 discussion about the need to apply more collaborative transdisciplinary research approaches that  
532 take place within real life situations and actively engage in the messy realities of helping to facilitate  
533 change (Brandt et al., 2013). Specifically this involves teams of stakeholders from science and policy/  
534 practice developing processes for mutual benefit that actively bring together different sources of

535 knowledge and perspectives to develop solutions to real world problems. Transdisciplinary research  
536 not only promises to help better understand problems and potential solutions across contexts, but  
537 also invitingly encapsulates the potential to more readily facilitate change across different social  
538 settings.

539 The transdisciplinary literature broadly encompasses terms such as co-production of knowledge and  
540 action-research (Lang et al., 2012, Wyborn, 2015a, Checkland and Holwell, 1998, Cameron and  
541 Gibson, 2005). Transdisciplinarity is emerging as a research topic in its own right and this has helped  
542 stimulate critical examination at conceptual, methodological and practical level (Rosendahl et al.,  
543 2015, Klay et al., 2015, Lang et al., 2012). At a conceptual level transdisciplinary research embraces  
544 an interactional model of knowledge production, involving collaborations between scientists from  
545 different disciplines and non-academic stakeholders to create solution orientated knowledge that is  
546 socially robust and can be applied to both scientific and societal practice (Stokols, 2006). Conversely,  
547 inter disciplinary research crosses disciplinary boundaries within scientific communities to produce  
548 knowledge (Lyall et al., 2015). Methodologically, transdisciplinary research has been linked to  
549 poststructuralism in so far as it recognises multiple types of knowledge as equally valid (Cameron  
550 and Gibson, 2005). The design of such research processes has also been connected to a broader  
551 form of experimental design (Moses and Knutsen, 2012). Critical however is the iterative coupling  
552 between knowledge production and integration into action orientated process through reflective  
553 practice in the process. Specifically, for the concept of ecosystem services this could involve specific  
554 coupling with, exploring and learning about decision making processes across different levels.  
555 Practically, a number of principles have been outlined to guide the development of transdisciplinary  
556 research processes. This involve the importance of the composition of the research team, which  
557 should involve scientific and non-scientific stakeholders to foster collaborative working and feedback  
558 from the start. Lang et al. (2012) outline three critical phases of transdisciplinary research. The first  
559 phase is collaboratively framing the problem to identify a shared goal and shape the research  
560 questions. At the same time this helps develop a common understanding about language, capacities  
561 and perspectives within the team (Cash et al., 2003, Jeffrey, 2003). The second phase is co-  
562 production of solution oriented knowledge by applying collaborative research practices and  
563 methods. The third phase focuses on the re-integration of knowledge, involving tangible outputs and  
564 less tangible learning outcomes emerging from the process. This re-integration is orientated towards  
565 decision making, action and practice however also provides opportunities to reveal gaps in  
566 knowledge and also continue to develop scientific practice.

567 An important component of any knowledge production process is the use and development of  
568 methods, tools, techniques, frameworks and models. Critically these need to be aligned with the  
569 research approach and design. Thus in transdisciplinary research approaches methods and tools  
570 need to be explicitly developed for and applied as boundary objects, for example to bring  
571 stakeholders and their knowledge together to jointly examine an issue, identify patterns, links and  
572 gaps for the assessment and valuation of ecosystem services. Star and Griesemer (1989) defined a  
573 boundary object as an artefact, for example a tool or framework, that is adaptable to different needs  
574 and perspectives yet robust enough to maintain a common identify across different contexts and  
575 scales. In this way boundary objects explicitly facilitate collaborative action orientated research  
576 processes by helping to bridge ontological and epistemological boundaries between different groups  
577 of stakeholders, issues and scales (Keshkamat et al., 2012, Brand and Jax, 2007). There is a strong  
578 focus on the use and development of frameworks, method and tools in the ecosystem services

579 literature with the aim of continuing to improve knowledge presented in assessments across scales  
580 (Nelson et al., 2009, Daily et al., 2009, Rodríguez-Loinaz et al., 2015). Nonetheless, there is often  
581 very little critical discussion about the research approaches and assumptions that shape the context  
582 within which tools are applied and the outcomes that emerge from them more broadly. This critical  
583 reflection is an important part of ensuring tools and methods operate and maximise their potential  
584 to be boundary objects in practice. More importantly however this can help move beyond dominant  
585 perspectives in scientific ecosystem services communities that primarily view stakeholders and their  
586 involvement in research processes purely as sources of data.

587 Widely recognised in the transdisciplinary research literature is how challenging it is to apply these  
588 approaches in practice. This relates to both formal and informal institutional constraints. Examples  
589 of formal institutional constraints includes a research system that still often approaches the  
590 processes of knowledge production, exchange and integration as separate (Stokols, 2006).  
591 Transdisciplinary research with a specific framing around the concept of ecosystem services also face  
592 structural constraints in working with and bringing together a range of practitioners organised  
593 around separate policy areas. Additional, informal institutional constraints also exist in both science  
594 and practice orientated communities. Specifically this involves norms, attitudes and behaviours that  
595 shape the type of relationships developed over time, for example across science-policy/ practice  
596 interfaces and the move from cooperation to more meaningful collaborative practices. Formal  
597 institutions can help develop spaces to bring different groups together, however these often focus  
598 on specific issues and values (Wyborn and Bixler, 2013). A critical need therefore for scientific  
599 stakeholders is to focus on developing relationships and trust across groups of stakeholders and to  
600 develop the capacity, or 'know how', within ecosystem services scientific teams to collaborative  
601 more broadly and more effectively around the issue of ecosystem services. For scientific  
602 communities to contribute to the operationalisation of ecosystem services an important aspect of  
603 this is developing an understanding about, experience of and skills to contribute to and shape  
604 transdisciplinary research processes to develop action-orientated outcomes to facilitate change and  
605 mutual learning outcomes (Van Kerkhoff and Lebel, 2015). For the ecosystem services science  
606 community the knowledge needs highlighted in this study therefore broadly relate to two interlinked  
607 objectives: to turn the concept of ecosystem services into practice and to develop transdisciplinary  
608 research approaches and practice.

## 609 **Conclusions**

610 At the heart of the ecosystem services concept is the core principle of applying an integrated  
611 approach to better shape our understanding of and actions around ecosystems and the services they  
612 provide to human society. This requires collaborative, multi-stakeholder processes and practices.  
613 The current focus across much of the ecosystem services literature is concerned with examining  
614 impacts and identifying constraints. There is a real need for science to not only observe change but  
615 also understand and engage in change processes more actively (Daily et al., 2009). Transdisciplinary  
616 research approaches provides a promising opportunity for the ecosystem services science  
617 community itself to embrace the core principle of integration embedded within the concept whilst  
618 contributing to the operationalisation of this concept more broadly. A greater orientation towards  
619 transdisciplinary research processes in the ecosystem services science community requires engaging  
620 in the messy realities of real world socio-ecological problems, involving different combinations of  
621 stakeholder, perspectives, practices, tools and structural constraints. Science is predicated on its

622 ability to critically build on existing knowledge (Klay et al., 2015). Only by actively engaging in  
623 transdisciplinary research processes will the ecosystem services science community begin to develop  
624 the experience and, more importantly the knowledge about how to more effectively collaborative  
625 with diverse stakeholder groups, apply integrated approaches across contexts, bring knowledge and  
626 action together and facilitate change in practice.

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