

# 1 **Linking transdisciplinary research projects with science and practice at large:** 2 **Introducing insights from knowledge utilization**

3

4 Sabine Hoffmann<sup>a</sup>, Julie Thompson Klein<sup>b,c</sup>, Christian Pohl<sup>b</sup>

5

6 <sup>a</sup> Eawag: Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology, Ueberlandstrasse 133, CH-8600  
7 Duebendorf, Switzerland, [sabine.hoffmann@eawag.ch](mailto:sabine.hoffmann@eawag.ch)

8 <sup>b</sup> TdLab, Department of Environmental Systems Science, ETH Zurich, Universitätstrasse 16, CH-  
9 8006 Zürich, Switzerland, [christian.pohl@usys.ethz.ch](mailto:christian.pohl@usys.ethz.ch)

10 <sup>c</sup> Wayne State University, 42 W Warren Ave, Detroit, MI 48202, USA, [julietklein@comcast.net](mailto:julietklein@comcast.net)

11

## 12 **Abstract**

13 Recent empirical studies show a persistent gap between ‘socially robust’ knowledge produced by  
14 transdisciplinary research projects and its ability to promote change on a large scale. Current  
15 discourses about the ‘project-to-science-and-practice-at-large gap’ have focused mainly on exploring  
16 various conditions that need to be fulfilled to produce ‘socially robust’ knowledge. Yet, those  
17 discourses have rarely built on the broader literature of knowledge utilization, which Greenhalgh and  
18 Wieringa (2011) emphasize acknowledges ‘the fundamentally social ways in which knowledge  
19 emerges, circulates, and gets applied in practice.’ Their insights are helpful in advancing our  
20 understanding of why transdisciplinary research projects do or do not contribute to sustainability on a  
21 large scale. Expanding Jahn et al. (2012) model of transdisciplinary research, we present a revised  
22 conceptual model of an ideal-typical, interactive, and iterative transdisciplinary research process that  
23 adds two new phases from the field of knowledge utilization to their original three-phase model and  
24 accounts for the social and relational nature of knowledge utilization. The revised model includes five  
25 phases through which transdisciplinary projects operate in different order: (i) defining sustainability  
26 problems, (ii) producing new knowledge, (iii) assessing new knowledge, (iv) disseminating new  
27 knowledge in realms of both science and practice, and (v) using new knowledge in both realms.

28

## 29 **Keywords**

30 transdisciplinary research; socially robust knowledge; knowledge dissemination; knowledge  
31 utilization; conceptual model; sustainability

32

## 33 1. Introduction

34 Transdisciplinary sustainability research is often expected to contribute to both societal and scientific  
35 progress (Jahn et al., 2012). The underlying assumption in this positive relationship is that fruitful  
36 collaboration among scientific and societal actors in a particular context, combined with ‘constructive  
37 combination or integration’ (O’Rourke et al., 2016) of different perspectives being brought together,  
38 produce ‘socially robust knowledge’ (Nowotny, 1999) that contributes to solving sustainability  
39 problems (Polk, 2014).

40 Current conceptual models of transdisciplinarity build on this underlying assumption including those  
41 of Jahn et al. (2012) and Lang et al. (2012). Jahn et al. (2012)’s model is one of the most cited ones. It  
42 differentiates three phases of an ideal-typical transdisciplinary research process: (i) forming a  
43 common research object, (ii) producing new knowledge, and (iii) evaluating new knowledge for its  
44 contribution to both societal and scientific progress. This model, though, assumes that once new  
45 ‘socially robust’ knowledge is assessed for relevance to science and society, transdisciplinarity  
46 intervenes in both discourses about a given sustainability problem. It does so, they assert, “*by means*  
47 *of targeted or non-targeted knowledge transfer by both scientists and societal actors*” (Jahn et al.,  
48 2012, p. 7). The impacts of such transfer—which involve implementing new strategies, amending  
49 current legislation, or applying innovative technologies—might trigger new transdisciplinary research  
50 processes starting from an altered understanding or framing of an initial problem.

51 Jahn et al. (2012)’s model of transdisciplinarity, however, does not conceptualize the link between  
52 new ‘socially robust’ knowledge and societal and scientific progress in a detailed way, raising a  
53 number of research questions. For instance, what constitutes knowledge and how does it impact on  
54 science and practice beyond particular contexts in which transdisciplinary research processes are  
55 embedded? How does transdisciplinarity intervene in scientific and societal discourses about a given  
56 sustainability problem, and how does it enhance knowledge utilization by intended target groups in  
57 science and practice at large?

58 In the present article, we address this gap—which we call the ‘project-to-science-and-practice-at-large-  
59 gap’—by building on valuable insights from the literature on knowledge utilization. These insights are  
60 helpful in advancing our theoretical understanding why transdisciplinary research projects, which  
61 produce ‘socially robust’ knowledge, do or do not promote change in science and practice at large. In  
62 introducing the wider knowledge utilisation literature to the transdisciplinary research community, we  
63 draw particularly on Landry et al. (2001a), Belkhodja et al. (2007), Ward et al. (2009), Greenhalgh  
64 and Wieringa (2011), and Heinsch et al. (2016). In particular, we conceptualize the link between  
65 transdisciplinary research projects and science and practice at large while building on emerging  
66 models of knowledge utilization that acknowledge “*the fundamentally social ways in which*  
67 *knowledge emerges, circulates, and gets applied in practice*” (Greenhalgh and Wieringa, 2011, p.

68 502). By integrating insights from the knowledge utilization literature and Jahn's model of  
69 transdisciplinary research, we then introduce a revised conceptual model of an ideal-typical,  
70 interactive, and iterative transdisciplinary research process that goes beyond evaluation of new  
71 knowledge into knowledge adaptation, dissemination and utilization. It distinguishes among five  
72 phases: (i) defining sustainability problems, (ii) producing new knowledge, (iii) assessing it, (iv)  
73 disseminating it in the realms of both science and practice, (v) and finally using new knowledge,  
74 again, in both realms. The article closes by discussing overlaps between the fields of knowledge  
75 utilization and transdisciplinary research.

76

## 77 **2. Linking transdisciplinary research projects with science and practice at large**

78 Despite recent efforts to conceptualize the link between transdisciplinary research processes and how  
79 different types of effects may (or may not) unfold in science and practice (current Special Issue,  
80 Hansson and Polk (2018)), studies show a persistent gap between 'socially robust' knowledge  
81 produced by transdisciplinary sustainability research and its ability to promote change at a larger scale  
82 (Cornell et al., 2013; Polk, 2014; Technopolis Group, 2018). Discourses about the 'project-to-science-  
83 and-practice-at-large gap' in transdisciplinary sustainability research have tended to mainly focus on  
84 various conditions that need to be fulfilled to produce 'socially robust' knowledge that then  
85 contributes to solving sustainability problems (Polk, 2014). These conditions include (i) participation  
86 of a variety of actors from both science and practice in transdisciplinary research and (ii) integration  
87 of knowledge from both science and practice. However, as Polk (2014) pointed out fulfillment of both  
88 conditions "*presumes the fulfillment of the third, which has two main interrelated parts, namely the*  
89 *creation of a specific type of knowledge and the consequent effectiveness of that knowledge*" (Polk,  
90 2014, p. 442). Moreover, she added, it condenses underlying assumptions in the following claim: "*In*  
91 *transdisciplinary research, in-depth participation of stakeholders and the integration of relevant*  
92 *knowledge from both practice and research in real-world problem contexts produce socially robust*  
93 *results that contribute to solving sustainability-related problems*" (Polk, 2014, p. 442).

94 Exploring how this claim is fulfilled in five case studies, Polk (2014, p. 447) concluded that "*there*  
95 *are a number of practical barriers between socially robust knowledge and the ability to contribute to*  
96 *social change that persist even when these conditions are fulfilled.*" By focusing on the various  
97 conditions needing to be fulfilled to produce 'socially robust' knowledge that then somehow  
98 'miraculously' contributes to solving sustainability-related problems on a larger scale, discourses have  
99 rarely built on the broader literature of knowledge utilization. This literature, however, offers  
100 important insights on the inherently social process of knowledge utilization, which incorporates  
101 different forms of knowledge from both science and practice and takes place within a complex system  
102 of dynamic interactions between researchers and potential users (Ward et al., 2012). Such insights

103 suggest that the ‘project-to-science-and-practice-at-large gap’ in transdisciplinary research might  
104 better be conceived as being a problem of knowledge utilization, rather than solely a problem of  
105 ‘socially robust’ knowledge production.

106 In this article, we treat knowledge utilization as a complex interactive and iterative process in which  
107 different forms of knowledge emerge, circulate, and are applied in practice. In a recent literature  
108 review of knowledge utilization, Heinsch et al. (2016) identified a wide range of terms that describe  
109 all or part of this complex process, including transfer, exchange, translation, diffusion, transmission,  
110 absorption, implementation, and dissemination. Although these terms all address the knowledge  
111 utilization process, Heinsch et al. (2016) found they often underpin different assumptions about  
112 knowledge utilization. They also revealed that sometimes different disciplines used different terms to  
113 refer to the same phenomenon; yet, at other times, the same term referred to different phenomena. For  
114 some, knowledge utilization was a process rather than a discrete event that took place at a certain time  
115 (Pregernig, 2006), while for others it involved multiple stages that occurred sequentially and  
116 sometimes iteratively, ranging from reception, cognition, reference, effort, influence to application  
117 (Landry et al., 2001a; Landry et al., 2003). Further, for others, knowledge utilization was one stage  
118 within a larger process including, for instance, ‘knowledge generation, exchange, and utilisation’ (cf.  
119 Beal et al. (1986) cited originally in Estabrooks et al. (2008). Based on their review, Heinsch et al.  
120 (2016, p. 100) concluded that “*the lack of definitional and conceptual clarity in the knowledge  
121 utilisation field might be an obstacle to its capacity to inform changes in practice.*”

122 This conclusion from the literature review notwithstanding, the field of knowledge utilization offers  
123 important insights that are helpful for conceptualising the link between transdisciplinary research  
124 projects and science and practice at large. In recent years, scholars in this field have moved away  
125 from the *science-push* or *demand-pull model* of knowledge utilization elaborated in section 3, which  
126 emphasizes the technical quality of research results (i.e. their validity, reliability, accuracy, etc.) as  
127 crucial for knowledge utilization to the *interaction model* (Heinsch et al., 2016). This model  
128 emphasizes relationships and interactions between researchers and potential users at different stages  
129 of knowledge production, dissemination, and utilisation as essential for research results to be taken up  
130 in practice. In addition, some scholars have even moved beyond the ‘*two communities perspective*’  
131 (Heinsch et al., 2016), which considers science and practice as two separate spheres or systems and  
132 scientific and practical knowledge as two essentially different entities. Gredig and Sommerfeld (2007,  
133 p. 2) explained, “*scientific knowledge is the result of abstraction and generalization. The standard it  
134 seeks to satisfy is validity or truth. Practical knowledge is concrete, case based, and situational. The  
135 standard it seeks to satisfy is that of appropriateness or adequacy. The dividing line between science  
136 and practice can be transcended in the form of a transfer.*” In critiquing the model of knowledge  
137 transfer, the authors supported a *hybrid one* in which different forms of knowledge combine and relate  
138 to one another to produce what Dewe (2005, p. 368), cited in Gredig and Sommerfeld (2007, p. 36).

139 termed a “*third sphere of knowledge in its own right*” resulting from encounters between scientific  
140 knowledge and practical knowledge. Commenting on this notion, Heinsch et al. (2016, p. 101) called  
141 it “*an endless cycle of knowledge production and utilization (that) ensues as the process of using*  
142 *research leads to the creation of new knowledge, and so on.*” In the same vein, they also cited Davies  
143 and Nutley (2008) definition of knowledge utilization as a ‘transformation process’ rather than the  
144 simple transfer of prepackaged research results to passive users. This recent conceptualization in the  
145 field of knowledge utilization offers an opportunity for enhancing understanding of the social and  
146 relational nature of knowledge and its use in practice while acknowledging “*the blurring, and even*  
147 *dissolving, of boundaries between research and practice*” (Heinsch et al., 2016, p. 98).

148

### 149 **3. Models of knowledge utilization**

150 The field of knowledge utilization evolved in the 1940s with a core set of scholars from different  
151 disciplines ranging from rural sociology to anthropology, geography, social and organizational  
152 psychology, communication and information (Estabrooks et al., 2008). Though different disciplines  
153 were subsumed within the field, scholars had a strong common interest in exploring knowledge  
154 utilization proper, i.e. what knowledge is, often in the form of scientific research, and how it impacts  
155 practice. In the mid-1980s the field of evidence-based practice (EBP) subsequently emerged in  
156 medical sciences, drawing more widely from the fields of technology transfer, knowledge utilization,  
157 and innovation diffusion (Estabrooks et al., 2008). Heinsch, et al’s (2016) review of the literature  
158 showed that EBP and knowledge utilization are often considered synonymous since both are  
159 essentially concerned with linking scientific research with practice. Yet, they identified both  
160 similarities and differences between knowledge utilization and EBP, while Hering (2018) explored  
161 EBP for environmental sciences. For a review of the intellectual structure and substance of the  
162 knowledge utilization field see Estabrooks et al. (2008).

163 In recent years, scholars in the field of knowledge utilization have developed a range of different  
164 models to explain the link between research projects and practice at large. The various models can be  
165 arranged into four categories which differ with regard to main determinants of knowledge utilization  
166 (Landry et al., 2001b): *science push*, *demand pull*, *dissemination*, and *interaction*. The models were  
167 developed during a period when the relationship between production and utilization of knowledge  
168 was reconsidered from different angles. Stokes (1997, p. 10) for instance, criticized as too simplistic  
169 “[t]he belief that scientific advances are converted to practical use by a dynamic flow from science to  
170 technology (...).” He coined the term ‘use-inspired basic research’ to highlight basic research that has  
171 a specific use in mind. Another criticism originated in discussion of public understanding of science.  
172 Lewenstein (2002) introduced the term ‘deficit model’ to express a overly simplistic idea of lay

173 people. According to the deficit model lay people are eager to be informed by experts, while assuming  
174 “that better understanding leads to greater support” (Lewenstein, 2002, p. 2).

175 The distinction of two modes of knowledge production is a third influential discussion (Gibbons,  
176 1994; Klein, 1990, 1996; Nowotny et al., 2001): ‘Mode 1’ knowledge production is located in  
177 scientific institutions and structured by scientific disciplines. Problem-definition, problem-solution,  
178 and peer review take place inside the academic context with the aim to provide reliable, universal and  
179 context free knowledge. In ‘Mode 2’, knowledge is produced and assessed by heterogeneous teams in  
180 transdisciplinary collaborations among research, policy and practice. Whereas ‘Mode 1’ knowledge  
181 needs to be ‘translated’ to be applied in practice, ‘Mode 2’ knowledge is produced in the context of  
182 application and considered contextualized and ‘socially robust’ (Gibbons, 1994; Greenhalgh and  
183 Wieringa, 2011; Van de Ven and Johnson, 2006). Though the notion of ‘Mode 2’ knowledge  
184 production has raised considerable criticism (Hessels and van Lente, 2008), the four models can be  
185 located between these two extremes with the *science push model* on one extreme (‘Mode 1’) and the  
186 *interactive model* on the other (‘Mode 2’) and the *demand pull* and *dissemination model* in-between.

### 187 3.1. *Science push model*

188 The *science push model* emphasizes supply of research results as the major determinant of knowledge  
189 utilization. As Landry et al. (2001b, p. 334) noted, “*in this model, the researchers are the major*  
190 *source of ideas for directing research, and the users are simple receptacles for research results.*” The  
191 model assumes a linear sequence from supply of research advances to utilization in practice and an  
192 alignment of knowledge utilization with the technical quality of research results. Previous studies  
193 have considered many dimensions of research results potentially impacting utilization, including (1)  
194 attributes of content, especially, efficiency, compatibility, complexity, observability, trialability,  
195 validity, reliability, divisibility, applicability and radicalness and (2) types of research: basic/applied,  
196 general/abstract, quantitative/qualitative and research domains and disciplines. However, as pointed  
197 Landry et al. (2001b, p. 334), “*some empirical studies have found no relation between the technical*  
198 *quality of research results and utilization.*” Given this lack of empirical evidence, they formulated  
199 two main criticisms of the science push model: (1) “*transfer of knowledge to users is not automatic in*  
200 *a context where no one assumes responsibility for this transfer, and (2) raw research information is*  
201 *not usable knowledge and there is a process for transforming it into one usable*” in practice (Landry  
202 et al., 2001b, p. 334).

### 203 3.2. *Demand pull model*

204 The *demand pull model* stresses demand of research results as the major determinant of knowledge  
205 utilization. In this model, Landry et al. (2001b) explained, users are the major source of ideas for  
206 directing research. Similar to the *science push model*, *demand pull* follows a linear sequence, which,

207 in this case, starts with identification of a research problem by users. This model explains knowledge  
208 utilization by users' needs, i.e. research results are more likely to be used in practice when they  
209 address specific needs of users instead of focusing solely on research advances for science. However,  
210 Landry et al. (2001b) added, it falls short of considering that even research aimed at contributing to  
211 problem solving can be pushed aside because it may conflict with organizational (or political)  
212 interests of users. This criticism stimulated emergence of a variant of the *demand pull model*, that of  
213 *organizational interests* (Rich and Oh, 1993). It emphasizes organizational structures, rules, norms,  
214 procedures and routines as the major determinants of knowledge utilization and assumes that research  
215 results are more likely to be used in practice when they support interests and objectives of  
216 organizations. The *demand pull model* and its variant, however, is criticized for (1) focusing largely  
217 on the instrumental use of research results, (2) emphasizing essentially users' or organisations'  
218 interests, and (3) neglecting interactions between researchers and users (Landry et al., 2001b).

### 219 3.3. Dissemination model

220 The *dissemination model* emerged in response to criticisms that transfer of knowledge to potential  
221 users is not automatic, and that 'traditional' transfer mechanisms (e.g. scholarly publications) are not  
222 tailored to users' needs. As Landry et al. (2001b) explained, this model defines knowledge utilization  
223 in terms of two main determinants. The first is adaptation of research results, which includes  
224 according to Huberman and Thurler (1991) efforts to make written documents more readable, more  
225 appealing and easier to understand, to make conclusions and recommendations more specific and  
226 more operational, and to focus on variables amenable to interventions. The second is dissemination of  
227 research results to potential users. Taken together the two determinants of this model assume research  
228 results are more likely to be used in practice when researchers identify and select useful results; adapt  
229 results (and products) to particular user needs in terms of content, calendar, form, and mode of  
230 diffusion; and disseminate adapted results to potential users. However, as Landry et al. (2001b)  
231 highlighted, mere reception of research results by potential users does not imply their 'use' in  
232 practice. The main criticism of this model is that potential users are neither involved in identification  
233 and selection of useful results, nor in their production.

### 234 3.4. Interaction model

235 The *interaction model* surfaced in response to criticisms of the *science push*, *demand pull*, and  
236 *dissemination* models. It assumes that knowledge utilization depends on disorderly interactions  
237 between researchers and potential users at different stages of knowledge production, dissemination,  
238 and utilization rather than linear sequences starting solely with needs of researchers or needs of users.  
239 As Landry et al. (2001b) explained, the *interaction model* incorporates all determinants of knowledge  
240 utilization in previous models: research types and scientific disciplines, users' needs and  
241 organizational interests, and mechanisms of adaption and dissemination. Unlike previous models,

242 however, it pays particular attention to formal and informal linkage mechanisms between researchers  
243 and users including informal personal contacts; participation in committees, seminars, workshops; and  
244 active transmission and discussion of results. Thus, this model draws a stronger connection between  
245 processes of knowledge production, dissemination, and utilization. It presumes the more sustained  
246 and intense interaction between researchers and potential users, the more likely knowledge utilization  
247 will occur. As noted earlier some scholars, notably Gredig and Sommerfeld (2007), have moved even  
248 beyond the *interaction model* with its focus on informal and formal linkage mechanisms to dissolve  
249 boundaries between science and practice altogether. They conceptualize an intermediary social sphere  
250 between science and practice in which knowledge that is intrinsically different in quality is generated  
251 in the process of combining different types from different sources. This recent shift in the field of  
252 knowledge utilization is mirrored in alternative metaphors for knowledge as ‘created’, ‘embodied’,  
253 ‘performed’, ‘collectively negotiated,’ ‘socially constructed’ (Greenhalgh and Wieringa, 2011),  
254 ‘transformed’ (Heinsch et al., 2016), and ‘situated’ (Suchman, 1991).

255 The shift in recent conceptualizations is the most promising for exploring the project-to-science-and-  
256 practice-at-large gap. It is notable for widely capturing current conceptualizations of knowledge co-  
257 production in the field of transdisciplinary research. Such conceptualizations emphasize integration of  
258 locally adapted and theoretically generalized knowledge (Krohn, 2008), as well as academic  
259 transgression of disciplinary boundaries (Polk and Knutsson, 2008), constructive combination of  
260 different types and sources of knowledge (O'Rourke et al., 2016), and informal and formal  
261 interactions among different actors from research, policy and practice in a functional and dynamic  
262 way (Krütli et al., 2010) (see section 5 and 6).

263 However, it is important to acknowledge the various models of knowledge utilization presented above  
264 remain largely unrefined and untested, so their applicability is largely unknown (Heinsch et al., 2016,  
265 p. 102). It is also important to underscore they focus mainly on explaining the link between research  
266 projects and practice at large, so fall short of conceptualizing the link between research projects and  
267 science at large. The main determinants of knowledge utilization outlined above also apply to  
268 knowledge utilization in science.

269

#### 270 **4. Implications for transdisciplinary sustainability research**

271 In her critical exploration of the relationship between transdisciplinary research and societal problem  
272 solving, Polk (2014, p. 449) gained some important insights to understanding this relationship. She  
273 found that “*successful transdisciplinary approaches must create a space where science and policy*  
274 *can meet and interact on equal terms. To be successful, this hybrid space must exist beside the formal*  
275 *confines of both disciplinary, and administrative and political cultures. It is important to note that*  
276 *these meeting places are not separate from the surrounding societal and scientific practices; they are*



277 *highly embedded in both. Such a space enables individuals to break the boundaries between different*  
278 *types and sources of knowledge and expertise, and creates sites of interaction that are needed for*  
279 *producing the degree of participation and knowledge integration that can more effectively bridge the*  
280 *gaps between science and policy spheres.” Polk (2014)’s insights support the *interaction model* or its*  
281 *even more progressive variant, the *hybrid model* in which different forms of knowledge from both*  
282 *science and practice combine and relate to one another to produce a ‘third’ sphere of knowledge. This*  
283 *inherently dynamic, iterative and interactive process takes place in the hybrid space, which Gredig*  
284 *and Sommerfeld (2007) argue tends to blur, or even dissolve, boundaries between realms of science*  
285 *and practice/policy as Polk (2014) recognized.*

286 Polk (2014) also found that ‘socially robust’ knowledge produced in such social spaces needs to be in  
287 a form that is substantively and temporally compatible with formal and informal decision making as  
288 well as planning processes, in addition to identifying relevant target groups (users/organisations) in  
289 order to achieve substantive impact. These findings resonate with major determinants of knowledge  
290 utilization outlined above: namely adaptation of research results to needs of particular target groups in  
291 terms of content, form, time and mode of diffusion; their subsequent dissemination to such groups;  
292 and incorporation of research results into existing organizational structures, rules, norms, procedures  
293 and routines that Belkhdja et al. (2007) highlighted to ensure knowledge use in science and practice  
294 at large. Polk (2014, p. 450) concluded her critical exploration by stressing that “*transdisciplinary*  
295 *processes need to be sufficiently anchored in formal and informal policy (and science) contexts, and*  
296 *the results packaged and disseminated in both science and policy contexts in ways that address (...)*  
297 *institutional, political and sector-based boundaries.” Her conclusions mirror important findings from*  
298 *the knowledge utilization field, which emphasize the need to embed research processes in realms of*  
299 *(science and) practice and to invest in formal and informal linkage mechanisms between researchers*  
300 *(or project teams) and intended target groups at different stages of knowledge production,*  
301 *dissemination, and utilization in order to ensure greater use in (science and) practice at large.*

302

### 303 **5. Linking models of knowledge utilization and transdisciplinary research**

304 Based on a current conceptual model of transdisciplinarity developed by Jahn et al. (2012) we now  
305 present a revised conceptual model of an ideal-typical, interactive, and iterative transdisciplinary  
306 research process that integrates pertinent insights from emerging models of knowledge utilization and  
307 accounts for the social and relational nature of knowledge and its use. As illustrated in Fig. 1, our  
308 revised model adds two new phases from the field of knowledge utilization–disseminating new  
309 knowledge, and using new knowledge–to the three phases established in Jahn et al (2012)’s original  
310 model-forming a common research object, producing new knowledge, and evaluating new  
311 knowledge. Our revised model thus includes five main phases: (A) defining sustainability problems,

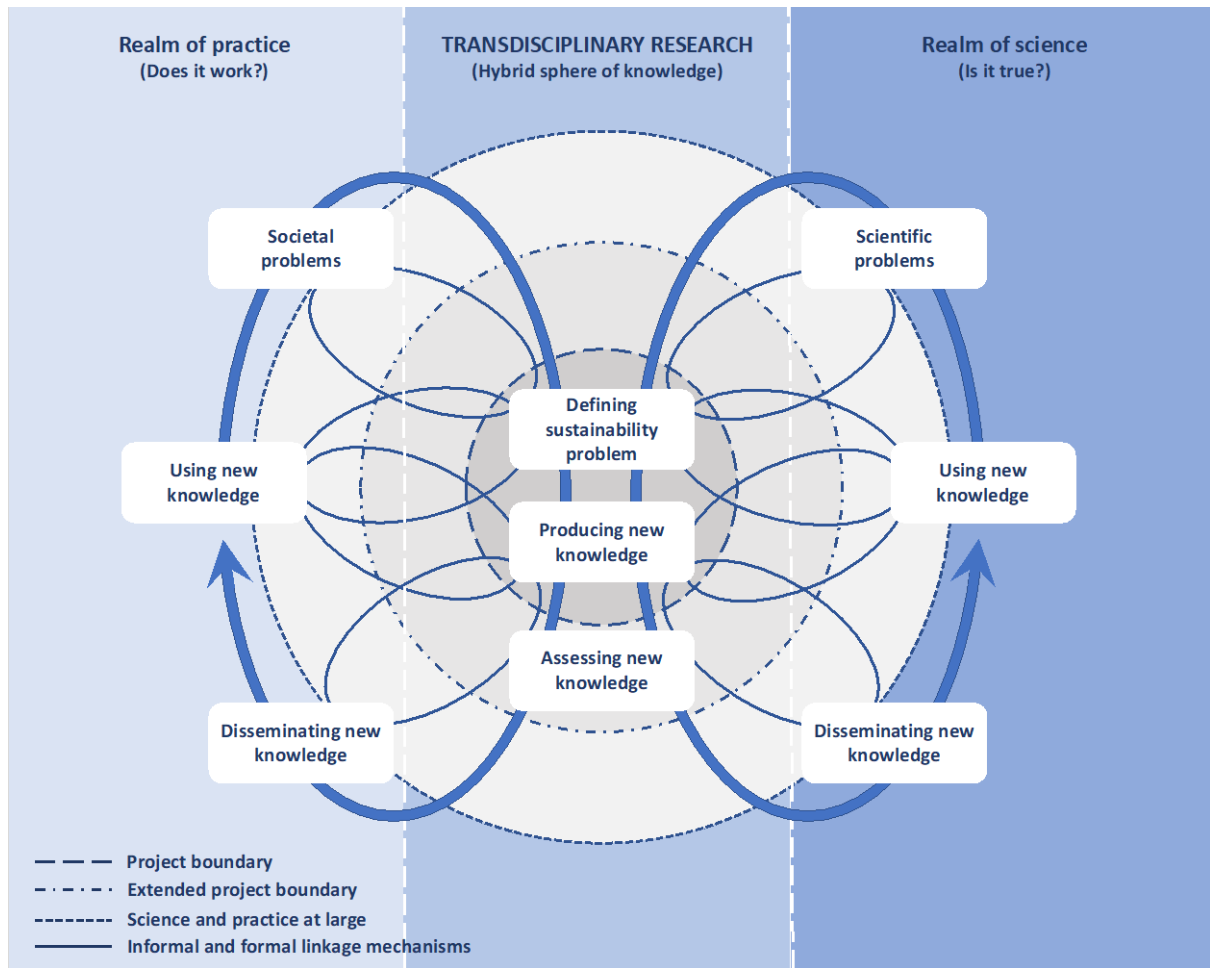
312 (B) producing new knowledge, (C) assessing new knowledge, (D) disseminating new knowledge (in  
313 the realms of both science and practice), and (E) using new knowledge (here too in both science and  
314 practice). Transdisciplinary research projects run disorderly through these five phases and extend  
315 progressively their boundaries into the realms of both science and practice when assessing and  
316 disseminating new knowledge. As acknowledged in the knowledge utilization literature, the key  
317 elements to bridge the ‘project-to-science-and-practice-at-large gap’ are informal and formal linkage  
318 mechanisms between the project team and intended target groups in both science and practice  
319 (Gredig, 2011; Landry et al., 2001b). Ideally, these linkage mechanisms transcend all phases of an  
320 ideal-typical transdisciplinary research process.

321 Extending the work of Bergmann et al. (2005), Jahn et al. (2012), and Lang et al. (2012), we  
322 conceptualize transdisciplinary research processes as an effort to combine two processes of  
323 knowledge production: a societal process, in which users/organisations address a particular  
324 sustainability problem, and a scientific process, in which researchers carry out research on that  
325 particular problem. We reframe the societal process as the realm of practice to emphasize the standard  
326 it seeks to satisfy: appropriateness or adequacy (as compared to the scientific process that seeks to  
327 satisfy the standard of validity and truth (Pohl et al., 2017, p. 44)). In the following we briefly  
328 describe the five phases of our revised model of an ideal-typical, interactive and iterative  
329 transdisciplinary research process.

### 330 *5.1. Defining sustainability problems*

331 Drawing on Lang et al. (2012) this phase involves formation of a collaborative project team involving  
332 actors from the realms of both science and practice and definition of a particular sustainability  
333 problem that triggers scientific research questions to be addressed by the team. This phase includes:  
334 (i) anchoring research process widely in both realms; (ii) determining the right level of informal and  
335 formal interactions between actors from both realms throughout the entire process of knowledge  
336 production, dissemination, and utilization; (iii) developing a joint vision for integrating different types  
337 and sources of scientific and practical knowledge (Hoffmann et al., 2017b); and (iv) developing an  
338 outcome/impact model that specifies scientific and societal outcomes/impacts and defines indicators  
339 to assess whether outcomes/impacts are achieved or not (Pohl and Hirsch Hadorn, 2007).

340



341

342 Figure 1: Revised conceptual model of an ideal-typical, interactive and iterative transdisciplinary research  
 343 process to bridge the ‘project-to-science-and-practice-at-large-gap’, connecting processes of knowledge  
 344 production, dissemination and utilization (larger round arrows) and establishing informal and formal linkage  
 345 mechanisms between the project team and intended target groups in the realms of both science and practice (thin  
 346 spirals). The transdisciplinary research process consists of five phases: (i) defining sustainability problems, (ii)  
 347 producing new knowledge, (iii) assessing new knowledge, (iv) disseminating new knowledge (in the realms of  
 348 both science and practice), and (v) using knowledge also in both realms. Transdisciplinary research projects run  
 349 through these phases in different order (thin spirals) and progressively extend their boundaries into the realms of  
 350 both science and practice, when assessing new knowledge (dashed-pointed line) and disseminating new  
 351 knowledge (dashed line). Two rationalities (or goals) need to be balanced in the process: the goal in science of  
 352 satisfying standards of validity and truth as well as the goal in practice of satisfying standards of appropriateness  
 353 and adequacy. Different types and sources of scientific and practical knowledge need to be combined and  
 354 related to one another to produce a ‘hybrid sphere of knowledge’ in which boundaries between science and  
 355 practice are blurred or even dissolved. The figure is adapted from Jahn et al. (2012), Lang et al. (2012), Pohl et  
 356 al. (2017), and Gredig (2011).

357

358

359

360 *5.2. Producing new knowledge*

361 This phase involves generation of new knowledge and/or integration of existing knowledge from  
362 science and practice with a view to establishing novel and previously unrecognized connections  
363 between them (Jahn et al., 2012; Specht et al., 2015). It implies differentiation and subsequent  
364 integration of different types and sources of scientific and practical knowledge, recognized by Lang et  
365 al. (2012), and Pohl and Hirsch Hadorn (2007). This phase presupposes informal and formal  
366 interactions between actors from science and practice in a functional and dynamic way (Krütli et al.,  
367 2010). It also presumes collaborative leadership involving cognitive, structural, and procedural tasks  
368 (Gray, 2008).

369 *5.3. Assessing new knowledge*

370 Drawing on Jahn et al. (2012) this phase involves assessing new knowledge with regard to its  
371 contribution to both societal and scientific problem solving. i.e. its relevance and usefulness for  
372 tackling the sustainability problem at hand and for advancing science in the field of sustainability.  
373 Building on Landry et al. (2001b), it also implies extending the boundaries of transdisciplinary  
374 research projects into the realms of both science and practice and integrating intended target groups  
375 (users/organizations) not involved in phases A and B in (i) identifying and selecting knowledge  
376 deemed to be relevant and useful from their respective perspective, and (ii) scrutinizing the potentials  
377 and limits of that knowledge for both science and practice at large.

378 *5.4. Disseminating new knowledge*

379 Building on Landry et al. (2001b) and Pohl and Hirsch Hadorn (2007), this phase involves  
380 disseminating useful results to intended target groups (users/organizations) not involved in phases A,  
381 B, and C. It includes concerted efforts to adapt and tailor research results/products to particular needs,  
382 interests, and objectives as well as to specific structures, rules, norms, procedures and routines of  
383 intended target groups, and to develop strategies to communicate research results at a time that suits  
384 their agendas (Rich and Oh, 1993). It implies (i) using different social media to reach intended target  
385 groups, (ii) meeting and exchanging with specific target groups, and (iii) participating in particular  
386 workshops, seminars, forums as well as in advisory boards and expert commissions (Hering et al.,  
387 2012). It also involves intervening in relevant disciplinary, inter- or transdisciplinary debates and  
388 contributing to journals, networks or conferences (Pohl and Hirsch Hadorn, 2007).

389 *5.5. Using new knowledge*

390 Building on insights from the knowledge utilization field, this phase involves enhancing knowledge  
391 utilization in the realms of both science and practice including six stages that occur sequentially and  
392 sometimes iteratively (Landry et al., 2001b; Landry et al., 2003): (i) reception: intended target groups

393 such as researchers, practitioners, professionals, and funders receive research results/reports/papers  
394 tailored to their particular needs, interests and objectives; (ii) cognition: target groups read and  
395 understand research results/reports/papers; (iii) reference: target groups cite research  
396 results/reports/papers; (iv) efforts: target groups adopt research results, (v) influence: research  
397 results/reports/papers influence decision-making by researchers, practitioners, professionals and  
398 funders, with a view to, for instance, initiate new research projects or programs, and ensure academic  
399 capacity building and academic career opportunities as pointed out by Pohl and Hirsch Hadorn  
400 (2007); and (vi) application/implementation: target groups implement research results.

401 In light of our revised model of an ideal-typical transdisciplinary research process, we suggest an  
402 extended definition for transdisciplinary sustainability projects that aim at larger scale changes in both  
403 science and practice (Hoffmann et al., 2017a): Such transdisciplinary projects (i) address societally  
404 relevant sustainability problems that trigger scientific research questions; (ii) grasp complexity of the  
405 problem by involving a variety of scientific and societal actors while accounting for diversity of  
406 perspectives on the problem (Lang et al., 2012; Pohl and Hirsch Hadorn, 2007); (iii) generate new  
407 ‘social robust’ knowledge by integrating various perspectives being brought together in creative and  
408 critical ways (Klein, 2012; O’Rourke et al., 2016); (iv) assess new knowledge together with intended  
409 target groups (users/organizations) with respect to its relevance and usefulness for both science and  
410 practice; (v) adapt and tailor relevant and useful knowledge in terms of content, form, time and mode  
411 of diffusion to intended target groups not involved in the research process and disseminates useful  
412 knowledge to target groups; and (vi) enhance knowledge utilization from cognition to implementation  
413 by establishing informal and formal linkages between the project team and intended target groups  
414 throughout the entire process of knowledge production, dissemination, and utilization. In this  
415 extended understanding, transdisciplinary research can be regarded as a comprehensive, multi-  
416 perspective, problem- and solution-oriented approach that transgresses boundaries between science  
417 and practice with the aim of contributing to both societal and scientific problem solving for  
418 sustainability at large (cf. Pohl (2011) and Hoffmann et al. (2017a)).

419

## 420 **6. Conclusion**

421 Reviewing the literature on knowledge utilization revealed how close the interaction model is to  
422 current conceptualizations of knowledge co-production in the literature on transdisciplinary research,  
423 an observation also addressed in Pohl et al. (2010), Polk (2015), and Enengel et al. (2012). Scholars of  
424 both fields have emphasized the importance of iterative formal and informal interactions with various  
425 target groups in the realms of both science and practice over the course of knowledge generation,  
426 dissemination, and utilization to induce change in both realms. Concepts of transdisciplinary research  
427 processes are, however, diverse and some include testing, evaluating and adjusting new knowledge in

428 experimental areas as the final step (Rogga et al., 2018). Recently this step has been elaborated and  
429 explored under the label of real-world laboratories, learning laboratories, or living laboratories (see  
430 Rogga et al. (2018), Krütli et al. (2018), Renn (2018), Schöpke et al. (2018)). Experimental  
431 implementation of new knowledge in real-world laboratories extends project boundaries to include  
432 more societal (and scientific) actors in processes of knowledge generation, dissemination and  
433 utilization. However, real-world laboratories explore such processes on a small scale, and do not  
434 address the question of how to induce changes in both science and practice at larger scale. For larger  
435 scale changes, the interactive model of knowledge utilization suggests adding informal and formal  
436 linkage mechanisms between the project team and intended target groups in the realms of both  
437 science and practice and including as many (members of) the target groups as possible.

438 This combination of insights from the fields of transdisciplinary research and knowledge utilization is  
439 clear and straight forward on a conceptual level. However, practical consequences how to actually  
440 conduct transdisciplinary research are less clear, raising a number of future research questions. For  
441 instance, what does it exactly mean to include informal and formal linkage mechanisms in each phase  
442 of a transdisciplinary research project? Are some phases—such as defining a sustainability problem—  
443 more open to such mechanisms than others? And, if yes, should this phase then be conceptualized as  
444 an encompassing process of joint problem framing with the target groups? However, all target groups  
445 in the realms of both science or practice can never be involved or will be interested in such process,  
446 meaning that there will always be a boundary between science and practice at large. And what are  
447 realistic expectations for the extent to which transdisciplinary research projects will contribute to  
448 changes in science and practice at large? Furthermore, where does the responsibility of individual  
449 projects start, and where does it end? And, could there be different types of transdisciplinary research  
450 projects, some aiming at inducing larger scale changes and some aiming at exploring impact in  
451 smaller real-world laboratories? And might both of these types require different strategies for formal  
452 and informal linkage mechanisms in different phases?

453 Finally, for transdisciplinary research projects that aim at inducing changes in science and practice at  
454 large, we suggest future empirical research to be carried out to validate and further refine each of the  
455 five phases of our revised conceptual model of an ideal-typical, interactive and iterative  
456 transdisciplinary research process: (i) defining sustainability problems, (ii) producing new knowledge,  
457 (iii) assessing it, (iv) disseminating it in the realms of both science and practice, and (v) using it in  
458 both realms. To this end, our current research employs the revised model as a basis for developing  
459 indicators to assess processes, results, and effects of transdisciplinary research projects that aim at  
460 inducing large scale changes in both science and practice. The indicators will enable us to provide  
461 empirical evidence from different case studies with the aim of testing, validating, and refining our  
462 model. This article thus summarizes the first phase of our effort to bridge theory and practice of  
463 transdisciplinary research.

464 **Acknowledgements**

465 This research was supported by Eawag, the Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and  
466 Technology, and USYS TdLab, ETH Zurich. We thank the editors of this Special Issue and two  
467 anonymous reviewers for their thoughtful comments that helped to strengthen our original  
468 manuscript.

469

470 **References**

471 Beal, G.M., Dissanayake, W., Konoshima, S., 1986. Knowledge Generation, Exchange, and  
472 Utilization. Westview Press, Boulder.

473 Belkhdja, O., Amara, N., Landry, R., Ouimet, M., 2007. The extent and organizational determinants  
474 of research utilization in Canadian health services organizations. *Science Communication* 28,  
475 377-417.

476 Bergmann, M., Brohmann, B., Hoffmann, E., Loibl, C.M., Rehaag, R., Schramm, E., Voß, J.-P., 2005.  
477 Quality Criteria of Transdisciplinary Research. A Guide for the Formative Evaluation of  
478 Research Projects. Institute for Social-Ecological Research (ISOE), Frankfurt am Main

479 Cornell, S., Berkhout, F., Tuinstra, W., Tàbara, J.D., Jäger, J., Chabay, I., de Wit, B., Langlais, R.,  
480 Mills, D., Moll, P., Otto, I.M., Petersen, A., Pohl, C., van Kerkhoff, L., 2013. Opening up  
481 knowledge systems for better responses to global environmental change. *Environmental*  
482 *Science & Policy* 28, 60-70.

483 Davies, H.T.O., Nutley, S.M., 2008. Learning More about How Research-Based Knowledge Gets  
484 Used: Guidance in the Development of New Empirical Research. William T. Grant  
485 Foundation, New York.

486 Dewe, B., 2005. Von der Wissenstransferforschung zur Wissenstransformation:  
487 Vermittlungsprozesse—Bedeutungsveränderungen, In: Antos, G., Wichter, S. (Eds.),  
488 Wissenstransfer durch Sprache als gesellschaftliches Problem Lang, Bern, Switzerland, pp.  
489 365-379.

490 Engel, B., Muhar, A., Penker, M., Freyer, B., Drlik, S., Ritter, F., 2012. Co-production of  
491 knowledge in transdisciplinary doctoral theses on landscape development—An analysis of  
492 actor roles and knowledge types in different research phases. *Landscape and Urban Planning*  
493 105, 106-117.

- 494 Estabrooks, C.A., Derksen, L., Winther, C., Lavis, J.N., Scott, S.D., Wallin, L., Profetto-McGrath, J.,  
495 2008. The intellectual structure and substance of the knowledge utilization field: a  
496 longitudinal author co-citation analysis, 1945 to 2004. *Implementation science* : IS 3, 1-22.
- 497 Gibbons, M., 1994. *The new production of knowledge : the dynamics of science and research in*  
498 *contemporary societies*. SAGE Publications, London.
- 499 Gray, B., 2008. Enhancing transdisciplinary research through collaborative leadership. *Am J Prev*  
500 *Med* 35, S124-132.
- 501 Gredig, D., 2011. From research to practice: Research-based Intervention Development in social  
502 work: developing practice through cooperative knowledge production. *European Journal of*  
503 *Social Work* 14, 53-70.
- 504 Gredig, D., Sommerfeld, P., 2007. New Proposals for Generating and Exploiting Solution-Oriented  
505 Knowledge. *Research on Social Work Practice* 18, 292-300.
- 506 Greenhalgh, T., Wieringa, S., 2011. Is it time to drop the 'knowledge translation' metaphor? A critical  
507 literature review. *J R Soc Med* 104, 501-509.
- 508 Hansson, S., Polk, M., 2018. Assessing the impact of transdisciplinary research: The usefulness of  
509 relevance, credibility, and legitimacy for understanding the link between process and impact.  
510 *Res Evaluat* 27, 132-144.
- 511 Heinsch, M., Gray, M., Sharland, E., 2016. Re-conceptualising the link between research and practice  
512 in social work: A literature review on knowledge utilisation. *International Journal of Social*  
513 *Welfare* 25, 98-104.
- 514 Hering, J.G., 2018. *Implementation Science for the Environment*. *Environmental science &*  
515 *technology* 52, 5555-5560.
- 516 Hering, J.G., Hoffmann, S., Meierhofer, R., Schmid, M., Peter, A.J., 2012. Assessing the Societal  
517 Benefits of Applied Research and Expert Consulting in Water Science and Technology.  
518 *GAIA - Ecological Perspectives for Science and Society* 21, 95-101.
- 519 Hessels, L.K., van Lente, H., 2008. Re-thinking new knowledge production: A literature review and a  
520 research agenda. *Research Policy* 37, 740-760.
- 521 Hoffmann, S., Pohl, C., Hering, J.G., 2017a. Exploring transdisciplinary integration within a large  
522 research program: Empirical lessons from four thematic synthesis processes. *Research Policy*  
523 46, 678-692.



- 524 Hoffmann, S., Pohl, C., Hering, J.G., 2017b. Methods and procedures of transdisciplinary knowledge  
525 integration: empirical insights from four thematic synthesis processes. *Ecology and Society*  
526 22, 27.
- 527 Huberman, M., Thurler, G., 1991. *De la recherche à la pratique: Éléments de base?* . Lang, Bern.
- 528 Jahn, T., Bergmann, M., Keil, F., 2012. Transdisciplinarity: Between mainstreaming and  
529 marginalization. *Ecological Economics* 79, 1-10.
- 530 Klein, J.T., 1990. *Interdisciplinarity: History, theory, and practice*. Wayne State University Press,  
531 Detroit.
- 532 Klein, J.T., 1996. *Crossing boundaries: Knowledge, disciplinarity, and interdisciplinarity*.  
533 University Press of Virginia, Charlottesville.
- 534 Klein, J.T., 2012. Research Integration: A Comparative Knowledge Base, In: Repko, A.F., Newell,  
535 W.H., Szostak, R. (Eds.), *Case studies in interdisciplinary research*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, pp.  
536 283-298.
- 537 Krohn, W., 2008. Learning from Case studies, In: Hirsch Hadorn, G., Hoffmann-Riem, H., Biber-  
538 Klemm, S., Grossenbacher-Mansuy, W., Joye, D., Pohl, C., Wiesmann, U., Zemp, E. (Ed.),  
539 *Handbook of Transdisciplinary Research*. Springer Dordrecht pp. 369–384.
- 540 Krütli, P., Pohl, C., Stauffacher, M., 2018. Sustainability Learning Labs in Small Island Developing  
541 States: A Case Study of the Seychelles. *GAIA - Ecological Perspectives for Science and*  
542 *Society* 27, 46-51.
- 543 Krütli, P., Stauffacher, M., Flüeler, T., Scholz, R.W., 2010. Functional-dynamic public participation  
544 in technological decision-making: site selection processes of nuclear waste repositories.  
545 *Journal of Risk Research* 13, 861-875.
- 546 Landry, R., Amara, N., Lamari, M., 2001a. Climbing the Ladder or Research Utilization. *Science*  
547 *Communication* 22, 396-422.
- 548 Landry, R., Amara, N., Lamari, M., 2001b. Utilization of social science research knowledge in  
549 Canada. *Research Policy* 30, 333-349.
- 550 Landry, R., Lamari, M., Amara, N., 2003. The extent and determinants of the utilization of university  
551 research in government agencies. *Public Administration Review* 63, 192-205.

- 552 Lang, D.J., Wiek, A., Bergmann, M., Stauffacher, M., Martens, P., Moll, P., Swilling, M., Thomas,  
553 C.J., 2012. Transdisciplinary research in sustainability science: practice, principles, and  
554 challenges. *Sustain Sci* 7, 25-43.
- 555 Lewenstein, B.V., 2002. Editorial: A decade of public understanding. *Public Understanding of*  
556 *Science* 11, 1-4.
- 557 Nowotny, H., 1999. The Need for Socially Robust Knowledge. *TA-Datenbank Nachrichten* 8, 12-16.
- 558 Nowotny, H., Scott, P., Gibbons, M., 2001. Re-thinking science knowledge and the public in an age  
559 of uncertainty. Polity, Cambridge.
- 560 O'Rourke, M., Crowley, S., Gonnerman, C., 2016. On the nature of cross-disciplinary integration: A  
561 philosophical framework. *Stud Hist Philos Biol Biomed Sci* 56, 62-70.
- 562 Pohl, C., 2011. What is progress in transdisciplinary research? *Futures* 43, 618-626.
- 563 Pohl, C., Hirsch Hadorn, G., 2007. Principles for designing transdisciplinary research. Oekom Verlag,  
564 München.
- 565 Pohl, C., Krütli, P., Stauffacher, M., 2017. Ten Reflective Steps for Rendering Research Societally  
566 Relevant. *GAIA - Ecological Perspectives for Science and Society* 26, 43-51.
- 567 Pohl, C., Rist, S., Zimmermann, A., Fry, P., Gurung, G.S., Schneider, F., Speranza, C.I., Kiteme, B.,  
568 Boillat, S., Serrano, E., Hadorn, G.H., Wiesmann, U., 2010. Researchers' roles in knowledge  
569 co-production: experience from sustainability research in Kenya, Switzerland, Bolivia and  
570 Nepal. *Science and Public Policy* 37, 267-281.
- 571 Polk, M., 2014. Achieving the promise of transdisciplinarity: a critical exploration of the relationship  
572 between transdisciplinary research and societal problem solving. *Sustain Sci* 9, 439-451.
- 573 Polk, M., 2015. Transdisciplinary co-production: Designing and testing a transdisciplinary research  
574 framework for societal problem solving. *Futures* 65, 110-122.
- 575 Polk, M., Knutsson, P., 2008. Participation, value rationality and mutual learning in transdisciplinary  
576 knowledge production for sustainable development. *Environmental Education Research* 14,  
577 643-653.
- 578 Pregernig, M., 2006. Transdisciplinarity viewed from afar. *Science and Public Policy* 33, 445-455.

579 Renn, O., 2018. Real-World Laboratories - the Road to Transdisciplinary Research? GAIA -  
580 Ecological Perspectives for Science and Society 27, 1-1.

581 Rich, R.F., Oh, C.H., 1993. The utilization of policy research In: Nagel, S. (Ed.), Encyclopedia of  
582 Policy Studies, 2nd ed. Marcel Dekkar, New York.

583 Rogga, S., Zscheischler, J., Gaasch, N., 2018. How Much of the Real-World Laboratory Is Hidden in  
584 Current Transdisciplinary Research? GAIA - Ecological Perspectives for Science and Society  
585 27, 18-22.

586 Schöpke, N., Bergmann, M., Stelzer, F., Lang, D.J., Guest, E., 2018. Labs in the Real World:  
587 Advancing Transdisciplinary Research and Sustainability Transformation: Mapping the Field  
588 and Emerging Lines of Inquiry. GAIA - Ecological Perspectives for Science and Society 27,  
589 8-11.

590 Specht, A., Gordon, I.J., Groves, R.H., Lambers, H., Phinn, S.R., 2015. Catalysing transdisciplinary  
591 synthesis in ecosystem science and management. The Science of the total environment 534,  
592 1-3.

593 Stokes, D.E., 1997. Pasteur's quadrant basic science and technological innovation. The Brookings  
594 Institution, Washington.

595 Suchman, L.A., 1991. Plans and situated actions: The problem of human machine communication.  
596 Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

597 Technopolis Group, 2018. Impact evaluation of National Research Programmes 59, 60 and 61. Final  
598 report. Technopolis Group, Brighton, p. 103.

599 Van de Ven, A., Johnson, P., 2006. Knowledge for theory and practice. Academy of Management  
600 Review 31, 802-821.

601 Ward, V., House, A., Hamer, S., 2009. Developing a framework for transferring knowledge into  
602 action: a thematic analysis of the literature. J Health Serv Res Policy 14, 156-164.

603 Ward, V., Smith, S., House, A., Hamer, S., 2012. Exploring knowledge exchange: a useful framework  
604 for practice and policy. Soc Sci Med 74, 297-304.

605

606