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# Advancing understanding of natural resource governance: a post-Ostrom research agenda

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43

## 44 **Abstract**

45 Institutions are vital to the sustainability of social-ecological systems, balancing individual  
46 and group interests and coordinating responses to change. Ecological decline and social  
47 conflict in many places, however, indicate that our understanding and fostering of effective  
48 institutions for natural resource management is still lacking. We assess theoretical and  
49 methodological challenges facing positivist institutional analysis, focusing on natural  
50 resource governance according to Ostrom’s social-ecological systems (SES) framework.  
51 Rather than adding more variables, progress requires a clearer, more consistent approach to  
52 selecting, defining and measuring institutional elements; stronger links between theory and  
53 empirical research; a greater focus on mechanisms and causality; and the development and  
54 application of new methods, including quantitative approaches. Strengthening the  
55 connections between theory, models, and data suggests several promising avenues for  
56 advancing institutional analysis through the study of relationships between institutional  
57 structure, process, function, context, and outcomes.

58

## 59 **Introduction**

60 In our current context of global environmental change [1], the need for effective institutions  
61 (i.e., formal laws, rules, norms and customs [2]) to moderate human impacts, through

62 environmental governance and management, has never been greater. Institutions are essential  
63 to coordinate resource use across different jurisdictions, resolve trade-offs between individual  
64 and group interests, and allocate benefits and costs among actors [3-5]. While there are many  
65 approaches to institutional analysis and design (e.g., [6-9]), and some are incompatible with  
66 the perspective we adopt here, the strongest influence on environmental sustainability science  
67 has been the ‘Bloomington School’ [10], and particularly Ostrom’s IAD (Institutional  
68 Analysis and Design) and Social-Ecological Systems (SES) frameworks [11-14].

69         Despite its widespread use in environmental science, the application of the IAD/SES  
70 framework is limited by a set of theoretical and methodological challenges. Although  
71 research into environmental governance has identified many institutional characteristics and  
72 arrangements (or subsets thereof) that have proven effective at different scales [15-17],  
73 successful models of governance are often difficult to transfer across environmental issues,  
74 contexts or scales [18,19], suggesting that we do not fully understand how models of  
75 governance must change with context and scale. We first provide a short critique and then  
76 focus on challenges and new directions, proposing a post-Ostrom agenda for institutional  
77 research on natural resource governance as the study of the relationships between  
78 institutional structure, process, function, context, and outcomes (Box 1).

79  
80 **A Critique of Institutional Analysis in Social-Ecological Systems and Environmental**  
81 **Science**

82 Institutional analysis is central to understanding the management and governance of natural  
83 resources [3]. Institutional solutions for natural resource governance [20,21] highlight the  
84 importance of interactions among a wide range of social, ecological and institutional factors  
85 [22], and have contributed to analytical tools for interdisciplinary inquiry and empirical  
86 synthesis [11,23]. Theoretical and practical progress in SES analyses of institutions have,

87 however, run into barriers in recent years as scholars have struggled to connect high-level  
88 general principles and detailed case studies [24].

89         The Bloomington School has excelled at identifying salient features of SES  
90 governance, resulting in long lists of potentially influential factors; but has struggled to  
91 explain why, how, and under which social-ecological conditions specific institutional  
92 elements contribute to specific outcomes (as defined in Box 1) for at least three major  
93 reasons. First, despite repeated calls for coordination and integration [13,25], inconsistent  
94 definitions and measures of the elements in Box 1 continue. The SES framework was  
95 designed to address this challenge, but lacks definitions and measures for core concepts  
96 [14,26-29]. Further development is also needed in defining and categorising relevant  
97 outcomes, the processes and interactions that create them, and trade-offs.

98         Second, institutional analysis using the IAD and SES frameworks says little about the  
99 longer-term processes by which institutions emerge, change, and interact with resource use  
100 and management decisions. Ostrom's institutional design principles contribute to sustainable  
101 management in certain local contexts [15,30], but the pathways through which they are  
102 implemented, the relevance of history and path dependence (Epstein et al., this issue), and the  
103 role of embedded agency are poorly understood [31,32]. For example, decentralization  
104 programs for community-based management may fail if policymakers, bureaucrats or local  
105 elites respond strategically to maintain or enhance their influence over resources [33,34].

106         Third, institutional analysis using the IAD/SES framework has focused on local  
107 communities and resources, often neglecting broader scales (or occasionally, *vice versa*).  
108 Institutions at different scales often interact. For example, local depletion of resources can be  
109 driven by connections to global markets [35], which can have a range of broader impacts on  
110 other ecosystems [36]. Local framings may also ignore cross-scale power dynamics and the  
111 relationships between power, efficiency, sustainability, and effectiveness [37]. While the

112 notion of polycentric governance [38] formally recognizes the existence of multiple  
113 interdependent centers of decision-making, it has traditionally suffered from many of the  
114 same methodological challenges as institutional analysis [39,40].  
115 Key theoretical and methodological challenges relate to (1) specification (i.e., consistently  
116 describing, measuring, and relating the elements of institutional analysis across different  
117 studies and disciplines); and (2) causal relations (mechanisms) by which institutional  
118 elements of SESs influence outcomes over time.

119

## 120 **Theoretical Challenges for Institutional Analysis of Social-Ecological Systems**

### 121 *Specification*

122 Applications of Ostrom's SES framework generally take an *ad hoc* approach to selecting and  
123 defining variables, resulting in limited overlap between studies. Differences in measurement,  
124 terminology and definitions, and a lack of precision in concepts, measurements, and theory,  
125 threaten the validity of attempts to compare, contrast, or synthesize findings between studies  
126 [41].

127         A particularly important challenge is to define and measure environmental  
128 governance systems, which are heterarchies that incorporate elements of both networks and  
129 hierarchies [42,43]. Although they include a wide range of actors, networks, power relations,  
130 and tasks (e.g. rulemaking, monitoring, and maintenance), comparative empirical studies  
131 usually rely on binary measures of environmental governance, such as community vs.  
132 government-owned forests or presence/absence of local autonomy in making rules [44,45].  
133 This can result in the grouping of vastly different models. For instance, local autonomy in  
134 rulemaking might encompass decisions made by a single community or a group of  
135 communities in a system of nested governance; communities operating independently of  
136 other stakeholders; and communities that receive significant support from external partners.

137 Although a more precise understanding of relational structure is developing through network  
138 analysis [46], systematic coding of the attributes of institutional statements (i.e. formal and  
139 informal rules, norms and strategies) using the institutional grammar tool [47] and mapping  
140 of power relations [48], important gaps remain.

141         Second, while many theories of governance exist [49], few are specific enough to  
142 permit robust empirical tests or quantitative formalization. Both abstract theories about  
143 institutions and context-specific hypotheses derived from local case studies can be difficult to  
144 empirically operationalize and falsify [50]. For instance, institutional theory often highlights  
145 the importance of institutional fit, or matching institutions to the problems they are meant to  
146 address [51-53]. However, few theories explicitly identify the combinations of social and/or  
147 ecological conditions and the elements of institutions (Box 1) that give rise to fit.

148

#### 149 *Causal relations and dynamics*

150 Institutional theory analyzes the outcomes of institutions, but there is a growing demand for  
151 an improved theoretical understanding of the processes by which institutions emerge, change,  
152 and influence environmental outcomes [54]. The SES literature focuses on explaining system  
153 states and resource robustness (with exceptions; [3,55]), while feedback loops, historical  
154 influences, and changes in dynamics of power, culture, and beliefs that provide a broader  
155 social context often receive limited attention [48,56]. The same is true of the responses of  
156 institutional structures to ecological dynamics and uncertainty.

157         Second, additional challenges are raised by theories that endogenize the development  
158 of institutions. Environmental governance can involve many decision-making venues [5,57],  
159 tasks (e.g., enforcement, conflict resolution, environmental monitoring [58]), and competing  
160 interests [59], that interact with biophysical processes as well as technological expertise  
161 [29,60]. Three possible entry points into endogenizing the dynamics of these environmental

162 governance components include (i) the ecology of games, (ii) the network of action  
163 situations, and (iii) social-ecological network analysis.

164         The ecology of games framework [5,61] focuses on the structure, function and  
165 process of complex (e.g. polycentric) environmental governance. It has contributed to  
166 understanding decision-making, as well as the potential implications of participants,  
167 institutions and network structures for coordination and cooperation [62]. Nonetheless, by  
168 focusing on collective decision-making in multiple venues, the ecology of games framework  
169 typically does not clarify or trace the processes by which collective-choice decisions  
170 influence implementation and resource use.

171         The network of action situations approach [63] has been used to follow institutions  
172 from their development to their outcomes [54,64]. It has promise for understanding feedbacks  
173 and other dynamic elements of institutional change, but generally neglects the diversity of  
174 venues in which decisions are made, venue specialization around particular functions or  
175 action situations, and biophysical processes.

176         Social-ecological network analysis shows promise for understanding the implications  
177 of biophysical processes (e.g. fragmentation, dispersal) for environmental governance  
178 systems [65,66]; but the ways in which links are conceptualized typically vary across study  
179 systems, and ecological and/or social processes are often simplified, resulting in a loss of  
180 information about human-biophysical interactions [67]. In addition, although networks  
181 provide a context for an institution, the geographic and economic contexts of individual  
182 nodes and entire networks (e.g., location on an environmental gradient) are often ignored or  
183 hard to integrate. Network studies in SES research often lack a well-developed structure-  
184 function theory with associated methodology, making rigorous hypothesis development and  
185 testing difficult.



186           In sum, social-ecological outcomes emerge from the interplay of a wide range of  
187 processes [11]. These include (i) social processes by which actors interact (e.g. rulemaking,  
188 enforcement and conflict resolution); (ii) biophysical processes involving interactions among  
189 the natural and built components of ecosystems (e.g. predation, water flows through canals);  
190 and (iii) two-way, social-ecological interactions between actors and the natural and built  
191 environment (e.g. appropriation, monitoring, maintenance, recreation; [23]) over multiple  
192 spatial and temporal scales. While many of these processes are well-recognized in Ostrom's  
193 IAD/SES frameworks and related SES approaches, others (e.g., predation, ecological  
194 competition, non-extractive SES interactions) are not; and we lack a contextual  
195 understanding of their inter-relationships. Lessons learned in other fields (e.g., epidemiology,  
196 physics) suggest that a stronger interaction between empirical data and models may result in  
197 faster progress.

198

## 199 **Methodological challenges for institutional analysis of Social-Ecological Systems**

### 200 *Specification*

201 Differences in conceptualising and measuring institutions frequently result in  
202 incommensurable data, leaving findings open to interpretation and argument. Better  
203 coordination between researchers and the adoption of formal approaches, such as ontological  
204 databases designed for knowledge sharing and re-use, would facilitate translation and  
205 synthesis of case studies from different conceptual settings [68]; but three additional  
206 problems arise.

207           First, system structure is often weakly defined or undefined. Methods are needed to  
208 clearly define system boundaries and the relative placement of different actors in  
209 *heterarchical* systems of governance, including weak and informal ties that may nonetheless  
210 be vital during times of change or reorganisation [69]. Defining and bounding the study

211 system explicitly facilitates definition of ‘context’, and its role in constraining or confounding  
212 the relationships between institutional structure, process, function, and outcomes.

213         Second, institutional analysis often involves both aggregation and selection; the  
214 subjectivity of current approaches for aggregating and selecting study elements contributes  
215 further to our inability to compare between studies. And third, we lack rigorous approaches  
216 for measuring and comparing the roles of formal and informal rules (*de jure* vs. *de facto*).  
217 Promising quantitative approaches include multilevel networks, which consist of two or more  
218 separate but interconnected networks [70]; and multiplex/multilayer networks, which can  
219 incorporate heterogeneous nodes connected through different types of social and ecological  
220 relationships [71] or agent-based models [72].

221

### 222 *Causality and dynamics*

223         Institutional analysis in SESs faces practical difficulties (e.g., short-term funding,  
224 respondent attrition, career incentives and competition between researchers) in collecting  
225 long-term panel data. Ecologists have developed a range of long-term, broad-scale system  
226 manipulations and controls, as exemplified by fence-line contrasts, exclusion plots, and  
227 fragmentation experiments, to test hypotheses about the ecological components of SESs [73].  
228 Corresponding long-term observations and experiments treating institutions as elements of  
229 SESs are needed [74,75], although research on these themes must confront and resolve the  
230 ethical challenges of working on human subjects as well as methodological issues related to  
231 operating in complex adaptive systems [74]. Top priorities include methods and measurement  
232 of fast-changing process-related variables, such as perceptions, attitudes and certain kinds of  
233 behaviour [76], as well as environmental outcomes through time (and their interactions with  
234 social tradeoffs and outcomes) in a greater diversity of cases.

235           Second, the lack of a clear understanding of causality in SES institutional analysis  
236 makes it difficult to relate heterogeneity in institutional elements to outcomes. For example,  
237 greater actor diversity in decision-making may lead to more effective problem-solving, via a  
238 mechanism similar to that of natural selection; but tests of this hypothesis are easily  
239 confounded by the formal and informal institutions that guide decisions. Methods that can  
240 deal more effectively with heterogeneity in SESs are needed.

241

## 242 **New Directions and Opportunities for Institutional Research in Social-Ecological** 243 **Systems**

244 We perceive a strong need in SES research to (1) develop clear, fully specified models of the  
245 relationships between different institutional elements (Box 1); (2) use these to generate  
246 hypotheses about institutional emergence and influences on SESs; and (3) test such  
247 hypotheses systematically with data and models (Fig. 1). Several related avenues of enquiry  
248 again seem particularly important.

249           First, reliable generalisations about populations of cases depend on rigorous  
250 measurement. In ecology, which experienced similar problems [77], standard approaches to  
251 description and measurement (e.g., Linnaeus's taxonomy; areas of quadrats) were developed  
252 by deliberately testing and comparing alternative empirical approaches and their feasibility,  
253 cost, and associated errors. For institutions, the equivalent is to combine simulation models,  
254 case study data, and experiments (Fig. 2) over time and across levels and scales. One possible  
255 entry point for measuring governance systems as continuous entities is the concept of  
256 heterarchy, which unifies the perspectives of hierarchy (i.e., top-down or bottom-up controls)  
257 and network (i.e., peer-to-peer controls) in a single framework [43]. Analysts could use the  
258 heterarchical approach, for example, to compare and evaluate different types of polycentric

259 systems, catering for both hierarchies and networks in a single system [40], and thereby  
260 moving beyond normative prescription toward practical insight.

261         Second, system definitions must be consistent, while coping with change and  
262 transformation. At the very least, the analyst must know whether they are still working on the  
263 same system after a perturbation, intervention, or regime shift. System identity resides in the  
264 spatiotemporal continuity of key system elements and interactions [78]. Social-ecological  
265 identity can be measured both qualitatively (e.g., observations of customary practices) and  
266 quantitatively (e.g., proportion of community engaged in farming; area of forest) in relation  
267 to the subjective or normative goals of an analysis, and tracked through time [79].

268         Third, modelling approaches for understanding causality have been under-exploited in  
269 SES research, particularly in relation to understanding inconsistency in the outcomes  
270 resulting from individual institutions. In particular, we propose (i) using a diversity of theory-  
271 oriented and empirically-based models more deliberately to develop and test hypotheses; and  
272 (ii) clarifying the scope of generalizations by defining populations of relevant cases to which  
273 they apply. Theory-oriented or stylized models, which focus on key system components and  
274 interactions to develop principles of broad general relevance, are tools for both understanding  
275 causality and directing empirical research [80] and have additional value in clarifying  
276 concepts, framing potential outcomes and counterfactuals, and improving rigour. In SES  
277 research they can, for example, connect social and ecological dynamics via feedbacks [81], or  
278 be used to assess how theoretical understandings of human behaviour explain observations  
279 [82,83]. Models can and should guide theory testing [84]; while empirical research should  
280 generate and assess hypotheses that in turn drive new modelling enquiries. Clarifying the  
281 scope of generalisations about SESs means acknowledging that not all case studies will yield  
282 the same general conclusions; understanding why; and using this knowledge to build partial  
283 theories with bounded applicability. Middle-range theories, which are contextualized

284 generalizations of phenomena [85], may provide the missing link [86] once clarity is attained  
285 on which theories relate to a particular question or context [49]. Archetype analysis, another  
286 form of mid-range theory, identifies recurrent ‘building-blocks’ and dynamics that explain  
287 outcomes in multiple cases [87] and can help to move beyond analysis of single pairs of  
288 variables.

289 Fourth, consistent use of theories and terminology is vital for comparative research.  
290 Few institutional studies explain how frameworks should be used to collect and store data  
291 (for an example, see [88]). Key ‘necessary developments’ include (1) improving practices for  
292 writing and publishing social-ecological analyses [41], (2) developing incentives to resolve  
293 collective action problems in science, and (3) developing public infrastructure to document  
294 and curate SES knowledge [26,89-91].

295 In summary, institutions are a critical interface between people and ecosystems, and  
296 they play a vital role in regulating and directing social-ecological dynamics. Here we call for  
297 more effectively formalised methods and theory, and a stronger push to connect structure and  
298 process. This research direction can help institutional analysis transcend its current case-  
299 based, ‘list of variables’ approach to achieve much greater levels of generality and a more  
300 rigorous understanding of how to design or foster effective, resilient institutions for  
301 environmental governance and management.

302

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306

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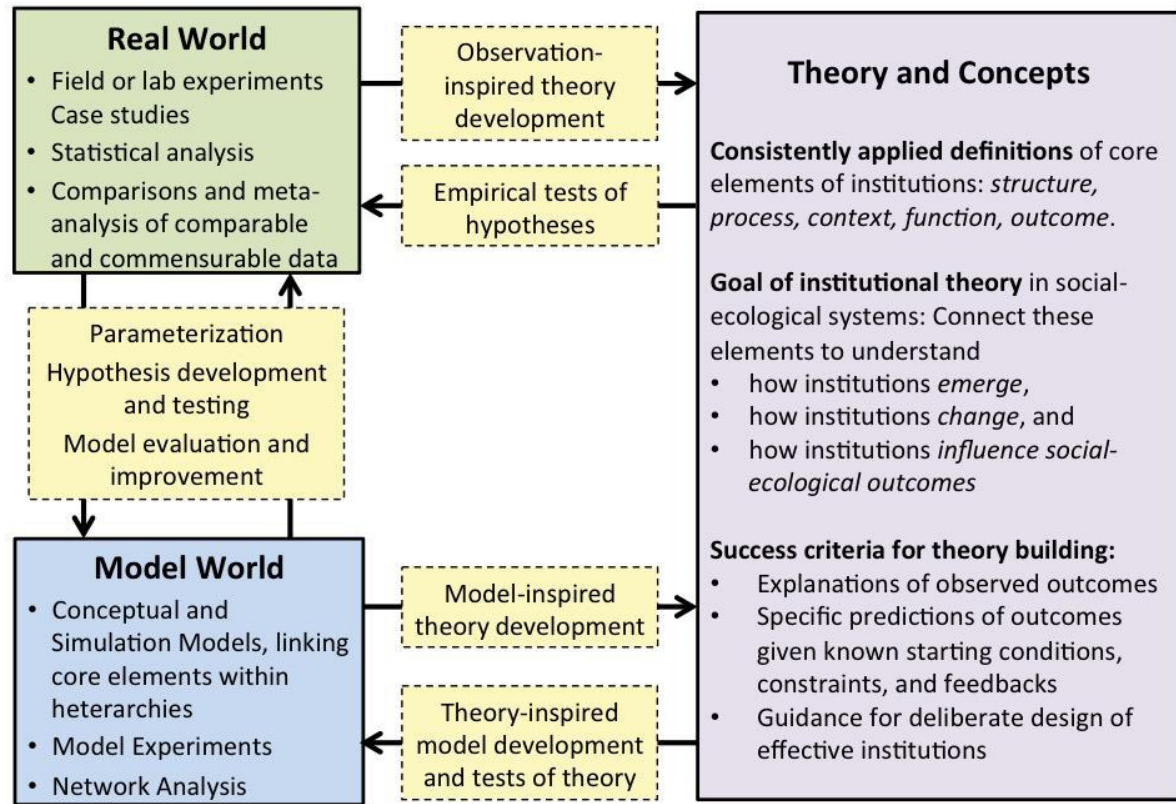
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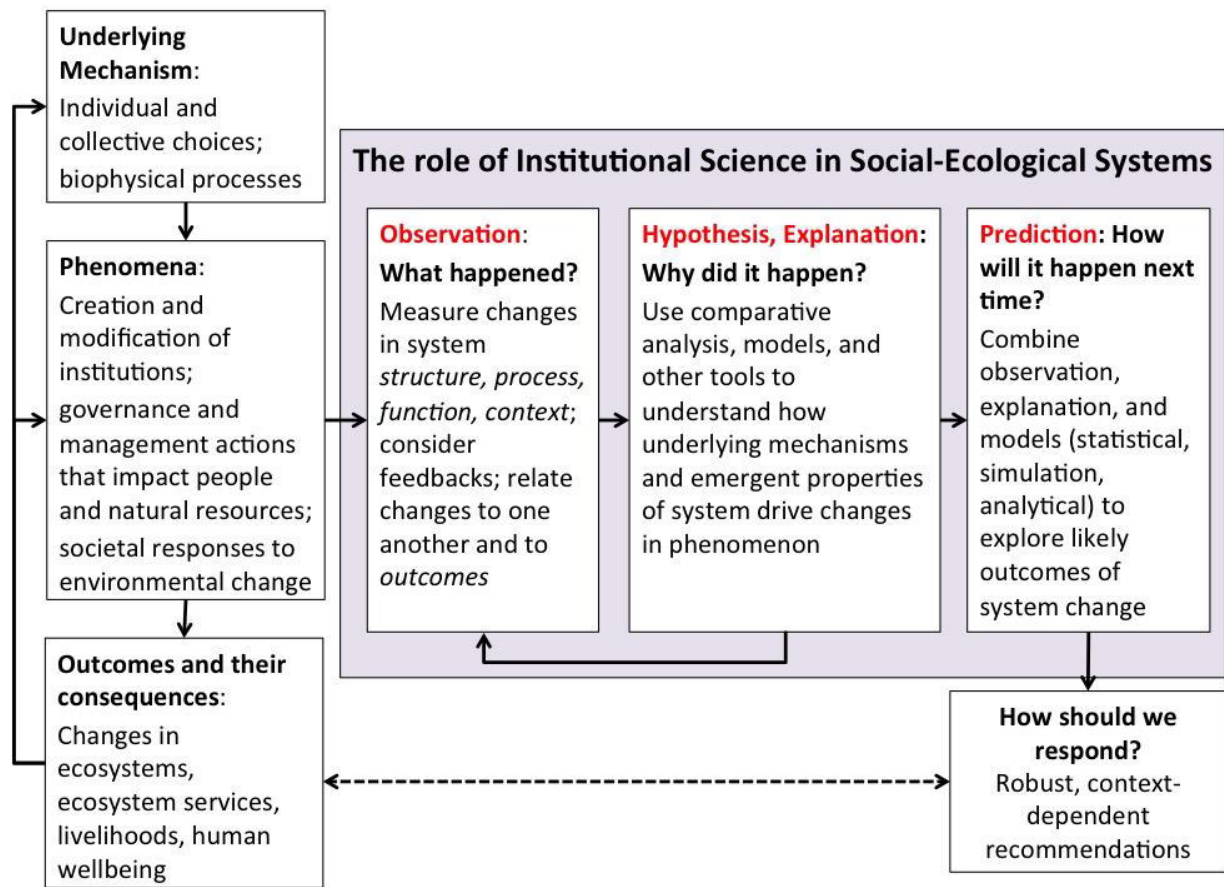




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567 **Fig. 1.** The interaction between theory, models, and empirical data. We propose that the  
 568 primary goal of institutional analysis in environmental and sustainability science is to  
 569 understand how institutions emerge, change, and influence social-ecological outcomes.  
 570 Theory and concepts (including frameworks) should be both inspired and tested through  
 571 observations of real-world phenomena. Models have a critical role to play in the process of  
 572 theory development, acting as a mediator between empirical data and theory as well as an  
 573 approach for generating hypotheses.

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578 **Fig. 2.** The role of institutional science in social-ecological systems research. Institutional  
 579 science seeks to understand how underlying mechanisms, both social and ecological, produce  
 580 phenomena relating to the different elements of institutions. These in turn have consequences  
 581 for ecosystems and societies. The scientific process involves observation, explanation, and  
 582 prediction. Once our scientific understanding of the nature of a problem has been improved,  
 583 it can inform responses that lead to desirable outcomes in ecological and social systems.

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### Box 1: Elements of Institutions for Analysis of Social-Ecological Systems

**Institutions** are the laws, rules, norms and customs governing human behavior and human-environment interactions. They often act as intermediaries between people and resources by structuring incentives and property rights that influence resource management decisions. In the study of institutions, identifying general patterns and trends from case studies requires that we describe different institutions in comparable ways and compare equivalent (commensurable) examples. However, broad understandings of institutions and applications of idiosyncratic theories to diverse case studies often render analysis and comparison difficult. To overcome this impasse, we identify five key elements of institutions:

- **Structure**, or system architecture, defines the composition, spatial pattern, and nature of the connections (e.g., power relations, dependencies, and spatial patterns; nestedness) between different components of the study system. Institutions also have their own relational structure ('the grammar of rules') that defines allowable, prohibited, and required uses of natural resources. Analysts often measure institutional structure using networks (nodes and links, i.e. system components and their relationships), or through hierarchical descriptors such as scale. For example, locally specific applications of environmental law may be hierarchically constrained by a principle, such as the right to use navigable waterways for transportation, which is contained in national legislation.
- **Process** refers to interactions (e.g., cooperation, learning, bargaining) that occur over time between and among actors, institutions, and the components of the natural and built environment, resulting in outcomes. For example, democracies often rely on a voting process where voters choose between candidates for leadership roles. Process is influenced or directed by structure, and *vice-versa* (e.g. links between system components emerge through different processes, and the existence of these links can constrain processes). Where processes lead demonstrably and causally to outcomes, they are often described as **mechanisms**. For example, the institutional structure of a commons governance system can be described using the number of different rules in use and their relationships to one another (e.g., rules about livestock access to water may be subordinate to rules relating explicitly to human drinking water). Structural change can be described as the difference in these rules and relationships between two points in time. Understanding why institutional change has occurred depends on understanding the processes that underlie it, such as the ways in which rules can be changed. Such processes will interact with, and often depend upon, the existing structure.
- **Function** describes the role or objective of an institution in relation to broader system dynamics or societal goals. For example, rules that limit over-grazing and over-fishing function to prevent a tragedy of the commons situation. Functions may be purposive (i.e., the system has been designed to achieve a given function), unintentional, or subverted. Subversion occurs when a rule that has been introduced for one purpose is co-opted to support another purpose. For example, Article VIII of the International Convention for the Regulation of Whaling allows countries to undertake whaling for scientific research. This loophole continues to be exploited by Japan to harvest whales without a genuine scientific justification (Clapham, 2017).
- **Context** describes the dynamic environment that is considered exogenous or fixed within the study system for the purposes of analysis. Context has spatial and temporal dimensions and includes both biophysical and social components, such as geography, land use history, or power relations.
- **Outcomes** describe the impact or difference that institutions and institutional processes make to the social and ecological context. For example, in Madagascar, the radiated tortoise *Astrochelys radiata* was historically abundant because the Mahafaly and the Antandroy people had a taboo against eating it. Movement of people from other groups into the tortoise's range has resulted in the taboo being abolished leading to widespread radiated tortoise consumption and IUCN Red-Listing of the tortoise as critically endangered (Lingard et al., 2003).