

1 **Place as a boundary device for the sustainability sciences: concepts of place,**  
2 **their value in characterising sustainability problems, and their role in**  
3 **fostering integrative research and action**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Sustainability science is *difficult* to conceptualise, plan and conduct, given the broad range of  
10 epistemological commitments, methodological practices, and approaches to problem-framing taken  
11 by its constituent disciplines. This special issue is based on the idea of place as a boundary *device* for  
12 the sustainability sciences, in the belief that it can foster integrative work, guide theoretical  
13 reflection, encourage methodological innovation, and inform empirical research. Here we reflect on  
14 place concepts, before developing a series of arguments on the relationship of place to sustainability  
15 science. We first emphasise that place is not solely an interpretivist or post-positivist perspective on  
16 sustainability, as it is also congenial to mechanistic or positivist ontologies. Secondly, we argue that  
17 place does not entail a retreat from theory into particularism or thick description; it is coherent with  
18 attempts to provide explanations. Thirdly, we claim that it does not imply a sedentary, parochial  
19 approach to sustainability science that neglects interactions across scale or location. Fourthly, we  
20 caution that public spheres for tackling environmental issues can act to close-down deliberation and  
21 marginalise informal knowledge, if institutions retain norms that emphasise abstract, placeless  
22 evidence. We highlight how these ideas have been cashed out in the collected papers in this special  
23 issue, in domains ranging from biofuels governance, to estuary management, to marine governance,  
24 to ecosystem stewardship, to community-led low energy transitions, and to climate change more  
25 broadly. We end by suggesting that a place-based approach to sustainability science entails a  
26 relentless focus on context. It takes the spatially patterned, heterogeneous, fluid, networked, and  
27 contextually modified form of socio-environmental processes as central points of investigation,  
28 rather than as mere modifiers of more general mechanisms.

29 **Keywords**

30 Risk governance, environmental policy, boundary objects, sense of place, interdisciplinarity

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## 4 1. Sustainability science: a plural and difficult field

5 Sustainability science is motivated by the challenge of meeting the needs of a growing but stabilising  
6 population, whilst at the same time sustaining basic planetary life support systems and substantially  
7 reducing global hunger and poverty (NRC, 1999; Clark, 2007). Its broad scope and problem-driven  
8 nature means that it draws on a wide array of disciplines, notably geography, physics, economics,  
9 ecology, political science, the environmental social sciences (Clark, 2007), and more recently the  
10 humanities (Hulme, 2011). This has yielded substantive advances in both fundamental and applied  
11 areas, yet multi-disciplinary work is famously *difficult* (Pahl-Wostl *et al.*, 2013). Widely varying  
12 epistemological commitments, methodological practices, and approaches to problem framing make  
13 integrative research programmes hard to conceptualise, plan, and implement. At the heart of these  
14 difficulties are some fundamental disputes over the objects and purposes of science. Many academic  
15 disciplines have been forever conflicted, and often “at war” (Gieryn, 2006), over whether science  
16 should be concerned with description or explanation; with uncovering causes or with capturing  
17 regularities; with the normative or the positive; and with the contingent or the universal. This special  
18 issue is based on the idea of place as a “boundary device” (c.f. Star and Griesemer, 1989) for the  
19 sustainability sciences (building on NRC, 1999), the suggestion being that it is a concept of shared  
20 interest, and sufficient flexibility, to allow plural disciplines to organise around in the absence of  
21 consensus on epistemological, methodological, and ontological matters. Moreover, we emphasise  
22 that place has potential value beyond merely playing an organising function; putting the idea to  
23 work can foster theoretical and methodological innovation in sustainability research. In this paper  
24 we seek to clarify the concept(s) of place; explore how it might inform theory, method and practice  
25 in sustainability science; and reflect on how in turn this may contribute to theorisation of place. It  
26 motivates, synthesises, and builds upon the contributions within this special issue.

## 27 2. Place and scientific enquiry

### 28 2.1. Place and the (de)construction of scientific knowledge

29 It may seem at first glance rather odd to suggest place as an organising concept for sustainability  
30 science. Indeed, scientific enquiry has classically been viewed as a “placeless” phenomenon  
31 (Finnegan, 2008), with covering-law accounts portraying scientific knowledge as transcendent,  
32 universal, and timeless. When science was shown to be placed, it was typically a form of  
33 deconstruction or critique (Ophir and Shapin, 1991), *e.g. your knowledge is not quite as transcendent  
34 as you claim it to be; see how the manner in which it was produced and evaluated was shaped by  
35 social relations, cultural contexts, and institutional interests*. This (caricature of) deconstruction  
36 typically focusses on how various dimensions of context – history, politics, institutions – shape the  
37 construction of scientific knowledge, and on the often labour intensive social and material activities  
38 (*e.g.* standardisation, experimental design) required to make facts travel across time and space  
39 (Latour, 1993; Law and Mol, 2001). Our focus, however, is more on how scientists go about creating  
40 knowledge *about* places, *i.e.* where place is an *object* of scientific study, rather than some  
41 orthogonal influence that impinges on the development of universal knowledge.

### 42 2.2. Place as an object of scientific study

1 Why focus on places in sustainability science? For example, is it not simply a brute fact that many of  
2 the major ecological threats that the world faces – from climate change to biodiversity losses – are  
3 driven by processes that operate at global-scales (*e.g.* planetary heat balance; market processes),  
4 causal mechanisms that are relatively invariant across space (*e.g.* between population and  
5 environmental impact), and involve entities that have universal, fixed properties (*e.g.* the radiative  
6 properties of greenhouse gases) (see Hulme, 2010 and Jasanoff, 2010, for critical analyses of such  
7 global framings)? And is globalisation not acting to homogenise the social, cultural, and economic  
8 drivers of sustainability problems across space, rendering place “phantasmagoric” (Giddens, 2013)?  
9 On this reading, a focus on place may seem fundamentally misconceived or even defeatist: a retreat  
10 into the safety blanket of parochial case studies in the face of global scale risks. Yet recent years  
11 have seen a renaissance of interest in place across a range of academic disciplines concerned with  
12 sustainability, and, crucially, across researchers working at scales spanning the macro to the micro  
13 (*e.g.* Hulme, 2008; Adger *et al.*, 2011; Lambin *et al.*, 2001; for an influential early statement on the  
14 importance of place, see NRC, 1999). Place, it seems, is gaining increasing analytic purchase in our  
15 modern globalised world, and not just within research traditions that adopt a localist perspective.  
16 Later we clarify and develop various conceptualisations of place in an attempt to account for this  
17 apparent puzzle, but first we distinguish between macro and micro scale approaches to  
18 sustainability science.

### 19 *2.3. Localist vs. macro schools of sustainability science: shared objects of concern, and important* 20 *divisions*

21 For analytic convenience, we distinguish two broad research traditions in sustainability science: a  
22 macro scale approach that analyses processes at a relatively aggregated level, and a localist tradition  
23 often (self) described as “place-based.” The former focuses on relations between relatively abstract  
24 categories such as population, technology, and environmental impacts (*e.g.* IPAT, Dietz and Rosa,  
25 1997; planetary boundaries, Rockström *et al.*, 2009; and early generation integrated climate models,  
26 Smith *et al.*, 2001). The latter is motivated by the idea that sustainability problems are often best  
27 understood by analysing human-environment interactions in particular locations and at relatively  
28 small scales (reviewed in Wilbanks, 2015). The former is (implicitly) based on the *ceteris paribus*  
29 notion, in the sense that it conceives of the drivers of environmental impacts as more or less fixed  
30 and stable, with modifying interactions often fleshed out as the research progresses (*e.g.* research  
31 exploring modifying role played by institutions within the IPAT framework). The localist tradition is  
32 typically sceptical of this level of idealisation. They argue that the proper scale of analysis of  
33 sustainability processes is often the local one, either for reasons of analytical tractability, or on the  
34 grounds that macro level approaches involve the sacrifice of process detail, or in the belief that  
35 human-environment interactions are strongly context-sensitive (and that this heterogeneity is not  
36 captured or is averaged out in macro scale approaches; *e.g.* Clifford and Richards, 2005; Wilbanks,  
37 2015; Butzer, 2012). However, the localist tradition often practices its own form of idealisation or  
38 isolation – for example in focussing on a relatively small number of locations, drawing on data from  
39 micro level units (*e.g.* individuals or households), and neglecting contextual effects that do not vary  
40 within the immediate environment (*e.g.* political institutions, culture, *etc.*).<sup>1</sup> See Liu *et al.* (2013) for a  
41 recent critique along these lines, but see also Richards and Clifford (2008) for the argument that  
42 isolation or bounding in field studies can often be a virtue, rather than a flaw. Moreover, it is a  
43 category error to view macro approaches as intrinsically place-insensitive. The distinction between  
44 the two traditions turns on the scale at which context is taken into account, not on whether context  
45 is taken account of at all. Researchers in the localist tradition often favour sustainability action (*i.e.*

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<sup>1</sup> We owe this point to Tom Dietz.

1 policy or technological responses) at relatively local scales and that is tailored to context. An  
2 important critique of this stance is that locally optimal policies may come at the cost of shifting  
3 externalities to other regions (Wiener and Graham, 2009). Finally, where there are important scalar  
4 interactions (and spatially explicit datasets are available), techniques such as multi-level modelling  
5 can allow for the integration of macro and micro approaches (*e.g.* Soranno *et al.*, 2014; see Cash and  
6 Moser, 2003, and Wilbanks and Kates, 1999 for influential discussions of scale). More on some of  
7 these issues later.

#### 8 *2.4. Concepts of place: a rough sketch of objectivist and interpretive accounts*

9 One enters dangerous territory when trying to mark out a clear set of meanings of place. Outside of  
10 human geography it remains a rather under-theorised notion, often plays a latent rather than  
11 explicit role in conceptual and empirical work (Casey, 1996, 2013), and is notoriously resistant to  
12 formalisation. However, recent work has helped to clarify some core interpretations (Massey, 2005;  
13 Casey, 1996, 2013), which, together with the burgeoning interest in the concept (or cognate terms)  
14 in various disciplines (Casey, 1996, 2013; Kohler, 2002; NRC, 1999; Sampson, 2012, 2013; Escobar,  
15 2001; Williams, 2014), makes now a good time for theoretical reflection and some first steps  
16 towards taxonomy building. We begin by classifying a weak objectivist interpretation of the term,  
17 wherein place is conceived of as the stage upon which one explores general or universal aspects of  
18 the world. Place here is the location where universal or macro level processes play out or become  
19 realised. On this account, places have no real agency of their own; they are passive recipients of  
20 supervening forces. However, they may carry certain features which make them useful sites for  
21 enquiry, or they may simply be of value to us *qua* places. At the opposite of the scale, we classify a  
22 strong objectivist account, which conceives of place as the fundamental context in which social and  
23 environmental mechanisms operate (Sampson, 2012, 2013; MacGillivray, 2015). This perspective  
24 conceives of places as possessing agency of a sort, and views causal mechanisms and their form and  
25 contributions as being crucially dependent on the setting in which they are embedded (an  
26 unwavering commitment to the placed nature of social and environmental objects and processes). In  
27 between these strong and weak poles we might position spatial analysis, which explores the  
28 dimensions of context (or place) that moderate otherwise relatively general spatial relationships  
29 (Johnston *et al.*, 2014). In a somewhat orthogonal tradition, the interpretivist perspective views  
30 place in opposition to space – places, roughly speaking, are spaces filled up with meanings, with  
31 narratives, with interpretations (Tuan, 1977; Gieryn, 2000). These senses or meanings of place are  
32 contested, negotiated, and fluid (Gieryn, 2000), which implies that understanding place has a  
33 temporal dimension as well as a spatial one. This perspective is closely linked to the view of place as  
34 central to the development of informal or experiential knowledge and worldviews (Basso, 1996);  
35 those factual beliefs, folk theories, norms, and values that come from being *in situ* for a given period  
36 of time.

#### 37 *2.5. On boundary objects and boundary devices*

38 Boundary objects are things that have some shared identity, whilst retaining a degree of plasticity  
39 that allows them to be moulded or re-interpreted to fit the needs, interests, or perspectives of  
40 diverse actors and social groups (Star and Griesemer, 1989). They allow heterogeneous groups to  
41 work together in the absence of consensus. Place seems to carry such characteristics – interpretive  
42 flexibility, together with *some* commonality in understanding – that suggest its usefulness for  
43 performing an integrative role in sustainability science (NRC, 1999). Here we use the term boundary  
44 *device* – rather than object – to emphasise our instrumental, normative intensions. That is, we are  
45 suggesting place not simply as an idea around which diverse research traditions can *organise*, but  
46 also because we think that it can make substantive contributions to sustainability science as a

1 concept. It can contribute to theoretical reflection, guide methodological innovation, and inform  
2 empirical research. Our logic is that even though many drivers of sustainability problems are global  
3 (e.g. atmospheric levels of greenhouse gases), their impacts are mediated through variables that are  
4 spatially clustered at multiple scales, moderated by contextual features of the local environment,  
5 and interact with other (localised) stressors. In other words, they are fundamentally placed  
6 (MacGillivray, 2015; NRC, 1999). Moreover, taking place as a central concept may also help publics  
7 and researchers find some common ground on sustainability issues – for example, it can act as an  
8 engagement device by highlighting the concrete and local implications of otherwise fairly abstract  
9 global threats such as climate change (Adger *et al.*, 2011; MacGillivray, 2015), and by drawing  
10 attention to the relevance and legitimacy of informal and often local ways of understanding and  
11 evaluating risks (e.g. indigenous knowledge systems). Attention to place may also act as a bridge  
12 between research and policy. Although common wisdom tends to see policy-making as favouring  
13 relatively abstract, general, timeless forms of knowledge (the “view from nowhere;” Nagel, 1989),  
14 this is perhaps an over-simplification, and in some situations may be more false than true  
15 (MacGillivray and Richards, 2015; MacGillivray, 2015; but see Porter, 1996). In some policy domains  
16 and regimes, the cautious language of contingency, context, and heterogeneity can find favour. In  
17 short, place can *do* things for sustainability science and action. As such, boundary device seems an  
18 appropriate term.

### 19 **3. Conceptual developments on place, and their implications for sustainability science**

20 Here we distil and build upon the contributions of the special issue to develop four core arguments.

21 *3.1. Place is not solely an interpretivist or post-positivist perspective on sustainability, it is also*  
22 *congenial to mechanistic or positivist ontologies.*

23 Given that various threads of the place literature take critiques of positivism as their points of  
24 departure (Williams, 2014), there is perhaps a natural tendency to view place as a solely interpretive  
25 or phenomenological concept. However, the concept of place as location or context has a long  
26 history of (perhaps latent) use in statistical theory (e.g. the related notions of external validity and  
27 generalizability; Cox, 1958) and by extension in the host of disciplines and problem areas that rely on  
28 statistical principles for experimental design or the analysis of observational data. Moreover, whilst  
29 it is true that philosophers of science have historically had little to say about place, the shift from  
30 covering law models of explanation towards causal accounts has led methodologists and  
31 philosophers towards a renewed interest in mechanism-context relations (e.g. Sampson, 2012, 2013;  
32 Cartwright, 1999). MacGillivray’s contribution (2015) builds on these ideas in developing a  
33 mechanistic account of place as the fundamental context in which social and environmental  
34 mechanisms operate, before deploying this account to characterise recent transitions towards  
35 spatially explicit approaches to climate change science and policy. He suggests that this reflects a  
36 shift within climate science from a Galilean ontology which views place as a mere stage on which  
37 general laws play out, towards an Aristotelian perspective that sees places as an active ingredient in  
38 constituting and shaping social and environmental mechanisms. He concludes that a focus on place,  
39 heterogeneity, and context can enhance the policy relevance of climate change science, and inform  
40 robust and effective climate governance. This shows place to be congenial to positivist and realist  
41 perspectives (the distinction turning on whether the mechanisms are observable). Chapin and  
42 Knapp’s (2015) contribution highlights another subtlety, which is that interpretive, humanistic  
43 perspectives on place can also be analysed in mechanistic terms, for example in considering how  
44 narratives, senses, or attachments to place can shape, encourage, and constrain ecosystem  
45 stewardship. Individuals, groups and institutions act based (in part) upon their subjective  
46 interpretations, meanings, and senses of the places that they inhabit, and these actions can have

1 implications for a range of micro-macro sustainability issues, from climate change to habitat loss. In  
2 short, interpretations may carry material consequences – they can be shaped by, and reshape,  
3 places.

4 *3.2. Place does not entail a retreat from theory into particularism or thick description; it is coherent*  
5 *with attempts to provide explanations*

6 The notion of place is often associated with scepticism for general, universal knowledge, but this  
7 does not imply that place-based research is restricted to the collection and cataloguing of *particular*  
8 facts about the world, tied together only by thick descriptions rather than theoretical accounts.  
9 MacGillivray's (2015) contribution emphasises that a focus on the placed or located nature of social  
10 and environmental facts and mechanisms is entirely coherent with attempts to provide  
11 *explanations*. Or at least, this is true under accounts that view the identification and analysis of  
12 causes as the heart of explanation, rather than the subsumption of facts under covering laws (*e.g.*  
13 Kincaid, 2012, Lane, 2001, Richards, 1996). Causes, rather than laws, are what matters for sound  
14 policy making, as one can reliably plan to intervene on causes (whether via technology, incentives, or  
15 communication), but not on purely statistical or phenomenological regularities. Moreover, analyses  
16 that are placed in this sense may also *in principle* uncover explanations of a somewhat general  
17 nature – although this is a thornier issue. For example, the Chicago school of sociology –  
18 characterised by an unwavering commitment to the located nature of social facts in both space and  
19 time (Abbott, 1997) – regularly faced the critique: *it's only Chicago*. They often countered with the  
20 riposte that Chicago was the ideal sort of place for understanding the mechanisms or processes or  
21 urban life in a fairly general way (Gieryn, 2006). With this intellectual move, Chicago became a  
22 placeless kind of place – the particularities and contingencies were waved away, and it was  
23 portrayed as a location where truths about *cities* can be discovered in a particularly efficient and  
24 clear way (Gieryn, 2006). Parkhill *et al.*'s contribution (2015) attempts such a move in arguing for the  
25 general relevance of their analysis of three community-based energy initiatives in the UK. Their case  
26 studies highlight the critical role of social capital and collective efficacy in developing and  
27 maintaining locally-driven transitions towards low carbon trajectories.

28 *3.3. Place does not imply a sedentary, parochial approach to sustainability science that neglects*  
29 *interactions across scales and with distant places.*

30 The local-scale tradition within sustainability science has at times been critiqued for practising its  
31 own form of isolation of idealisation (whilst simultaneously critiquing macro approaches for being  
32 reductive). The rough charge is that its localist commitments often lead it to neglect or pay  
33 insufficient attention to: micro-macro scalar interactions; dimensions of context that play  
34 fundamental roles in moderating social and environmental processes yet that exhibit limited  
35 variation within the geographic scope of typical case studies; and important interactions across  
36 distant places that are characteristic of many modern sustainability problems (*e.g.* see Liu, 2013).  
37 These charges have often carried force. However, in their emphases on scale (Wilbanks, 2015),  
38 network relations (Bush and Mol, 2015), and assemblages (Palmer and Owens, 2015), many of our  
39 contributors reject static and isolated conceptions of place. They highlight instead its fluid nature,  
40 the ways in which places are often inextricably linked with distant locations, and the manner in  
41 which local processes often shape, and are reshaped by, processes operating at meso and macro  
42 scales. In putting these ideas to work, they implicate the homogenising instincts characterising the  
43 governance of biofuels (Palmer and Owens, 2015) and tuna fisheries (Bush and Mol, 2015) in the lack  
44 of substantive progress towards sustainability in these domains. In a similar vein, Chapin and  
45 Knapp's contribution (2015) explores how sense of place may take form in non-local contexts,  
46 suggesting that individual and group attachment to *types* of places (*e.g.* rainforests), and to places

1 with particular *attributes* (e.g. reserves holding iconic species), may play a critical role in progressing  
2 stewardship and conservation goals at regional and trans-national levels. When one conceives of  
3 places as possessing agency of a sort (rather than mere passive recipients or containers), then it  
4 becomes natural to think of them as being continually in the process of shaping, and being shaped  
5 by, a range of mechanisms and networks at various scales and locations. Put another way, places are  
6 not sedentary, they are continually evolving. Conceptualising and analysing places as being on  
7 (contingent) trajectories may suggest intervention points that could re-orient them towards more  
8 sustainable pathways.

9 *3.4. Building public spheres for deliberating upon environmental problems is not equivalent to*  
10 *“placing” democracy –local forms of participation can act to close-down deliberation and marginalise*  
11 *informal knowledge if they impose norms that emphasise abstract, context-independent evidence.*

12 Plato was famously fearful of the public sphere, and in particular of the danger that unfettered  
13 democracy may be held hostage to rhetoric and passion, rather than reason or formal  
14 argumentation (Hacking, 2014). He sought comfort in the idea that logic and mathematics could  
15 discipline the reasoning of potentially unruly democratic participants, and by extension secure  
16 rational governance (Hacking, 2014). On this vision, public spheres would be located yet at the same  
17 time curiously placeless forums for deliberation, where arguments would stand or fall based on how  
18 they stacked up with regard to the universal and context-independent norms that define  
19 mathematical and logical reason. Move forward a few millennia and we often find similar  
20 commitments embedded in institutions responsible for public engagement on risk and sustainability  
21 issues (Wynne, 2006). That is, alongside official statements on the importance of conducting two-  
22 way, upstream public engagement on risk, technology, and environmental issues, one often finds  
23 institutional routines, practices, and methodologies that reflect a restrictive sort of pluralism  
24 (Wynne, 2006). Common critiques are that they bracket off certain ethical concerns, impose narrow  
25 problem frames (e.g. constructing environmental problems as “risk issues” whose characterisation  
26 will turn largely on propositional facts), are exclusionary to informal knowledge (favouring evidence  
27 that fits within formal frameworks, and that is context-independent and universal), and are often  
28 pursuing engagement for narrow instrumental reasons such as to dampen or manage controversy  
29 (Stirling, 2008; Wynne, 2006; Wynne, 1982). Bremer and Funtowicz’s contribution (2015) highlights  
30 some of these issues, in tracing out attempts to construct a participatory approach to resource  
31 management in New Zealand’s Waikaraka Estuary. They caution against what they call a Cartesian  
32 approach to synthesising strands of evidence within a framework that emphasises abstract, general  
33 knowledge, and argue instead for post-normal approaches to resource management, drawing on  
34 ideas such as extended peer review. Designing public spheres for deliberation that are meaningfully  
35 placed and participatory is a non-trivial task, but seems to require at a minimum institutions that  
36 respect place-based sustainability science (defined below), that draw upon informal knowledges that  
37 are difficult to fit within mathematical frameworks such as cost-benefit analysis, that seek to open  
38 up rather than close-down the bounds of reasonable ethical enquiries, and that have the humility to  
39 recognise that the possibility to secure timeless, universal knowledge of human-environment  
40 interactions – and by extension the practices of complete prediction and control – is often illusory  
41 (Stirling, 2008; Wynne, 2006; Bremer and Funtowicz, 2015). Equally, of course, one should be wary  
42 of romanticising local knowledge systems, at least if we are to take the idea of expertise at all  
43 seriously, and cautious not to idealise local value commitments, as they may carry their own forms  
44 of power or domination (Escobar, 2001).

45 Regrettably, the scope of our special issue does not extend to poverty alleviation or economic  
46 development. But see Scott (1998), Deaton (2010), Lambin *et al.* (2001), Luers *et al.* (2003), and

1 Easterly (2001) for analyses of the critical role of place in these domains (*e.g.* the role of context in  
2 shaping mechanisms of development, and the relevance of local, often informal knowledge  
3 systems), and of the implications of the (frequent) failure to take account of this in the design and  
4 implementation of development policy.

#### 5 **4. Conclusions**

6 We end by (immodestly) sketching out a working definition of place-based sustainability science,  
7 drawing upon the work of our contributors and the ideas of Sampson (2012, 2013) and Cartwright  
8 (1999). We suggest that a place-based approach to sustainability science entails a relentless focus on  
9 context. It requires sensitivity to: the spatial patterning of socio-environmental processes; to the  
10 way that various dimensions of context moderate such processes; to heterogeneity in the  
11 mechanisms that govern human-environment interactions; to the networked nature of places; and  
12 to the fluid, contested, and constructed subjective interpretations of those interactions and their  
13 implications. Moreover, it takes these aspects as central points of investigation, rather than as mere  
14 modifiers of more general, universal, and abstract processes. Cashing out this perspective in practice  
15 faces substantial methodological and epistemological challenges, a fact that many sustainability  
16 scientists working from micro-macro levels will be intimately familiar with. Hopefully the papers in  
17 this issue have made useful progress along these lines.

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23 caveats remain.

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