

Title:

Co-producing science for sustainability: can funding change knowledge use?

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Abstract:

There is widespread belief that meaningful interaction between scientists and practitioners, or co-production, increases use of scientific knowledge about sustainability and environmental change. Although funders are increasingly encouraging co-production, there have been few empirical studies assessing the outcomes of these efforts in shaping knowledge use. In this study, we systematically analyze research project reports (n=120) and interview project participants (n=40) funded by the U.S. National Estuarine Research Reserve System from 1998 to 2014 to support coastal management. Our analysis shows that escalating funding requirements for collaboration with users change research practice and strengthen connections between research outcomes and knowledge use. In consequence, a new model for science funding emerges, where sponsor, researcher, and user are more interactive with one another.

Author contributions:

JCA and MCL conceived and designed this study. JCA and RJN conducted documentary analysis and interviews. JCA conducted statistical analysis. All authors contributed to the manuscript.

Keywords:

Science-practice interaction; science policy; environmental management; coastal management; research utilization; societal impact of science; co-production; science funding

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1 **1. Introduction**

2
3 Identifying how science can best help society manage risk and solve sustainability problems
4 remains a grand challenge for practitioners, scientists, and funders. Meeting this challenge may
5 require systemic changes to the way research is practiced, funded, and disseminated. But making
6 changes to the scientific enterprise while preserving its ability to generate new knowledge and
7 societal value requires more evidence as to what drives scientific impact. This study analyzes
8 new empirical data about how science funding requirements for interaction between researchers
9 and users can increase the use of scientific knowledge for environmental decision-making. In
10 particular, we test how changes in funding program structure shape scientific practices and how
11 such changes may lead to increased use of scientific knowledge.

12
13 Scholars have long speculated that a gap between the science and policy communities in their
14 norms, language, incentives, and goals works as a barrier for the use of scientific knowledge
15 (Caplan, 1979). Accordingly, there has been growing interest in how the co-production of
16 scientific knowledge can help to narrow this usability gap. However scientific knowledge co-
17 production (hereafter, ‘co-production’) itself is not without controversy, ranging from different
18 conceptualizations of what co-production means to divergent ideas for realizing goals and
19 evaluating outcomes (Lemos et al., 2018; for a rich discussion on different definitions of co-
20 production, see Bremer & Meisch, 2017). And while studies have shown that interaction between
21 research and practice fosters improved use across various environmental research settings (Cash
22 et al., 2003; Dilling & Lemos, 2011; Fujitani et al., 2017; Vogel, McNie, & Behar, 2016), others
23 have warned about the need to fully attend to issues of equity and ethics in co-production (Klenk
24 et al., 2015). Whether inspired by the evidence of increased use, or perhaps by deeper aspirations
25 for a more inclusive and collaborative research culture, many funders, researchers, and
26 practitioners across environmental research domains are keen to pursue co-production, which
27 they often define as a meaningful interaction between these communities (Asrar et al., 2013;
28 Beier et al., 2017; Vano et al., 2017).

29
30 Yet, despite promising reports about co-production and related approaches, the evidence for how
31 it drives use remains relatively sparse and context dependent (Posner and Cvitanovic, 2019; Wall
32 et al., 2017). Furthermore, to the extent that co-production works, more insight is needed about
33 how to scale it up both across different scientific fields and contexts of application. As influential
34 organizations well-poised to collect relevant data, funding agencies may play an important part
35 in building this evidence base. However, existing science policy research presents mixed
36 evidence about the influence of funders on the practice of science and offers little on the question
37 of what drives it. While some studies reported benefits of funding approaches that encourage
38 interaction with various practitioners (e.g., DeLorme, Kidwell, Hagen, & Stephens, 2016; Moser,
39 2016), others are concerned with unintended consequences and perverse incentives arising from
40 interventions by funders (Lövbrand, 2011). Finally, studies also point to researchers sidestepping
41 changes in rules to maintain the status quo, in spite of the best laid plans of funders and science
42 policy-makers to effect change in research practices (Davis and Laas, 2014; Holbrook, 2012;
43 Reale and Zinilli, 2017).

44
45 In this study, we analyze research projects funded by the National Estuarine Research Reserve
46 System (NERRS, a program of the U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration--

47 NOAA). Over the period between 1998-2014, the program periodically increased requirements
48 for collaboration between researchers and coastal managers. This history affords a rich database
49 for testing the hypotheses that funding can stimulate co-production and that co-production
50 increases knowledge use. Using this data, we ask:

51 Can funding requirements that encourage more interaction between scientists and users
52 substantively influence research practice?

53
54 Can changes in research practices, especially those related to co-production, result in
55 more knowledge use?

56
57 We investigate four distinct generations of funding administered by NERRS, wherein each
58 progressively requires more co-production by the grantees. By comparing each generation
59 against the initial one – which closely approximates a traditional model of research funding and
60 practice wherein funders allocate resources to scientists for largely independent investigations –
61 we are able to study the shift toward more impact-oriented science funding. Using data from 120
62 final project reports and 40 interviews we find significant changes to research practice resulting
63 from funding program design. We also find that more intensive interaction between researchers
64 and users significantly increases the likelihood of use.

65
66 We organize this paper as follows. Section 2 describes knowledge co-production as a general
67 strategy to increase the use of environmental knowledge, briefly reviews existing evidence about
68 funders' influence on research practice, and introduces the National Estuarine Research Reserve
69 System as the focus of our study. In Section 3, we present a detailed accounting of our mixed
70 research methods approach, the results of which are presented in Section 4. Section 5 discusses
71 these findings and their implications, and in 6 we state our conclusions. The appendices provide
72 a detailed codebook (A-1), interview guide (A-2), additional coding results and analysis (A-
73 3&4), and coding data (A-5).

74 75 **2. Funding co-production of usable environmental change research**

76 77 *2.1. Knowledge co-production & research use*

78 The assumption that science achieves more impact through intensive interaction with non-
79 scientists challenges a long-held expectation that science serves society best when working in
80 relative independence. Yet scholars of science have often described scientific knowledge as
81 being unavoidably shaped and reshaped through interactions between scientists and the society in
82 which they work, a process termed co-production (Jasanoff, 2004). When defined as a form of
83 “iterative interaction,” knowledge co-production can also refer to research-practice collaboration
84 during one or more phases of the research process such as study design, implementation,
85 analysis, or dissemination (Bremer and Meisch, 2017; Cash et al., 2006; Meadow et al., 2015;
86 Michaels, 2009; Reed, 2008). In environmental research, this more instrumental sense of co-
87 production has recently diffused more widely by advancing the idea that increased interactions
88 between research and practice will increase knowledge use (Lemos and Morehouse, 2005). The
89 extent and type of interaction may take on different forms and intensities (Klenk et al., 2015;
90 Trencher et al., 2017) and a variety of other benefits may emerge, including more participatory
91 or inclusive approaches to science. Furthermore, the use of the term co-production may
92 encompass or overlap with other strategies such as co-design (Mauser et al., 2013), research-

93 practice partnerships (Tseng, 2012), transdisciplinary research (Lang et al., 2012), and
94 collaborative research (Matso et al., 2008).

95
96 There is growing evidence that this more deliberate form of co-production drives research use.
97 For example, David Cash and colleagues (2003) found that environmental assessments generated
98 through some form of interaction between research and practice were more likely to be used.
99 Similarly, Dilling and Lemos (2011) suggest that there is a higher likelihood that seasonal
100 climate forecast will be used if co-produced between providers and potential users. In a large
101 scale experimental study, Fujitani and colleagues (2017) showed how local fishery managers
102 retained new knowledge better and were more likely to pursue sustainable resource management
103 practices when scientists interacted with the managers rather than merely presenting them with
104 information. And for now over a decade, climate scientists, hydrologists, and water managers
105 have explicitly embraced co-production as a strategy to develop climate and water projections to
106 support long-range planning (Vogel et al., 2016), leading some of the involved practitioners to
107 advocate for a more widespread practice of co-production (Beier et al., 2017)

108
109 However, gaps remain in understanding how to overcome institutional barriers that hinder co-
110 production's appeal and use (Briley et al., 2015; Moser, 2016; Wall et al., 2017). Barriers to co-
111 production include the intensive investment of time and other resources required by and from
112 participants (Lemos et al., 2014), which can sometimes be exacerbated by low expectations and
113 fatigue from non-researchers (Briley et al., 2015; Newton and Elliott, 2016). Moreover, while co-
114 production is often predicated on the assumption that closer interaction between research and
115 practice is necessarily better, it remains unclear how the outcomes of co-production can be
116 achieved at scale, especially if relying on repeated in-person interaction and trusted relationships.
117 For example, social experiments testing virtual and asynchronous options for interaction raises
118 new questions about when and how to invest time and resources into face to face interaction
119 (Kettle and Trainor, 2015; Lemos et al., 2019).

120
121 Both practical challenges and normative concerns arise in the linking between scientific
122 knowledge co-production and use. From a practical standpoint, there are persistent
123 methodological issues that constrain the ability to study the use of scientific knowledge as a
124 phenomenon (Landry et al., 2003; Larsen, 1981). Most significant are the multiple ways of
125 defining use as an outcome variable. Defining use can range from a binary construct of use and
126 non-use (Ryan and Gross, 1943) to a multi-level variable that mirrors various opportunities of
127 knowledge use in decision-making (Knott and Wildavsky, 1981). A typology introduced by Pelz
128 (1978) distinguishes use between *instrumental* (i.e. direct use in problem solving), *conceptual*
129 (i.e. informing awareness, enlightenment), and *symbolic* (i.e. supporting pre-determined
130 positions or decisions). However, scholars have argued that any typology can be difficult to
131 operationalize in systematic studies (Gitomer and Crouse, 2019). Furthermore, there are other
132 practical challenges, such as the challenge of would-be users recalling what knowledge they
133 draw upon for decisions and why (Spaapen et al., 2013) and making research design choices
134 regarding the range of factors that could explain utilization (Landry et al., 2003).

135
136 Of more fundamental concern to some is the growing emphasis by funders, policy-makers, and
137 researchers on the usability of science. Though breakthrough discoveries may occur through use-
138 inspired science, as observed in Donald Stokes' classic text *Pasteur's Quadrant*, many

139 innovations that eventually serve practical ends emerge when consideration of use is low
140 (Stokes, 1997). In the introduction to the essay *Usefulness of Useless Knowledge*, Robbert
141 Dijkraff (Flexner, 2017) articulates a concern we now frequently hear vocalized in different
142 quarters of the scientific community:

143 Driven by an ever-deepening lack of funding, against a background of economic
144 uncertainty, global political turmoil, and ever-shortening time cycles, research criteria are
145 becoming dangerously skewed toward short-term goals that may address immediate
146 problems but miss out on huge advances that human imagination can bring in the long
147 term. (p. 10)

148
149 Reasonable arguments such as these strengthen the rationale to increase the evidence base to
150 guide interventions in research practice. Similar to our lack of broad, generalizable
151 understanding about what factors drive knowledge use, expectations about the value of
152 undirected research could be as much a function of longstanding research culture as of an
153 understanding of what approaches are demonstrably better (Sarewitz, 1996). This study,
154 therefore, aims to add to this ongoing discussion by providing evidence that does not invalidate
155 the caution articulated by Dijkraff and others, but does in our view offer evidence for how to
156 accelerate the use of research on increasingly urgent societal problems related to global
157 environmental change and sustainability.

158 159 *2.2 Funder-driven changes to research practice*

160 Funders of science may be in a key position to strengthen the evidence base for, and help
161 implement, the kinds of practices that drive research use. Science policy research investigates
162 changes in how research funding is structured and how that helps achieve societal goals. For
163 example, studies evaluating the institutionalization of a Broader Impacts statement by the US
164 National Science Foundation (NSF), found that few applicants considered engagement with users
165 as a form of broader impacts and, on balance, researchers retained, as before, a high degree of
166 autonomy (Holbrook, 2012). In a broader, comparative analysis, Davis and Laas (2014)
167 contrasted the Broader Impacts funding approach of the NSF to the Responsible Research and
168 Innovation (RRI) framework applied through European Union science funding. They uncovered
169 how subtleties in messaging within each approach shape their ultimate impact. For example,
170 whereas RRI was found to stimulate changes in research culture with respect to societal
171 interaction, Broader Impacts was found to preserve autonomy of researchers by letting them
172 define the public benefits of their research on their own terms. In another example, Reale and
173 Zinilli (2017) studied new approaches to the proposal peer review process enacted by a national
174 funding program in Italy and found that reviewers side-stepped more structured approaches to
175 proposal evaluation or interpreted them in sufficiently different ways than intended. As a result,
176 the overall process remained much the same as before the restructuring.

177
178 While public funding of science in the United States has traditionally afforded researchers
179 autonomy (Bush, 1945; Sarewitz, 1996), some funders have begun to shape program goals,
180 guidelines, or requirements toward co-production with the aim of increasing research use. For
181 example, in response to seed funding for research-practice collaboration on full proposals
182 solicited by Future Earth, unanticipated research collaborations occurred across disciplines and
183 institutional boundaries, even among proposal teams not awarded full funding (Moser, 2016).
184 Similarly, when funders solicited user input to an RFP and involved them as advisors during

185 funded projects, shifts in thinking were reported by users about the kinds of research most
186 appropriate or relevant for their problems (DeLorme et al., 2016). Yet, other reports suggest
187 success is not guaranteed and new approaches warrant caution. For example, Ford, Knight, and
188 Pearce (2013) analyzed research proposals in which co-production was not required but was
189 implicit in the program's aspiration, and found that a lack of explicit guidance or requirements
190 meant that few proposals demonstrated the intention to engage with users.

191

192 *2.3 Competitive funding in the National Estuarine Research Reserve System*

193 As a funder, the National Estuarine Research Reserve System (NERRS) has operated a
194 nationally competitive funding program to generate usable research for coastal management
195 since 1998 (Trueblood et al., 2019). NERRS was created by the Coastal Zone Management Act
196 of 1972 as a network of research, stewardship, and educational centers based in ecologically
197 sensitive coastal areas (92nd U.S. Congress, 1972). NOAA's National Ocean Service oversees
198 the System of 30 reserves. Estuarine and nearby coastal regions face acute sustainability
199 challenges due to complex ecosystem dynamics stemming from the combination of
200 anthropogenic pollution, sea level rise and other impacts (Allison and Bassett, 2015).
201 Understanding the causes, consequences, and potential options for these kinds of risks is an
202 active area of research and a key concern for resource management and planning at local, state,
203 and national levels (Tribbia and Moser, 2008; Ultee et al., 2018). Included in Figure 1 are
204 example project titles funded by NERRS over time.

205

206 Previous research focusing on NERRS suggests the program to be a fertile setting to study
207 scientific practice and use. For example, based on a survey of projects between 1997-2006 Riley
208 and colleagues (2011) identified opportunities for more in-depth consideration of a sponsor's
209 role in generating usable science but also pointed to the insufficiency of available resources to
210 support the long-term cost of successful interaction. Similarly, in-depth qualitative case studies
211 by Matso and Becker (2013, 2014) found changes in program direction enabled scientists to
212 interact with users, though program resources were ultimately insufficient to fully support those
213 interactions.

214

215 **3. Methods**

216

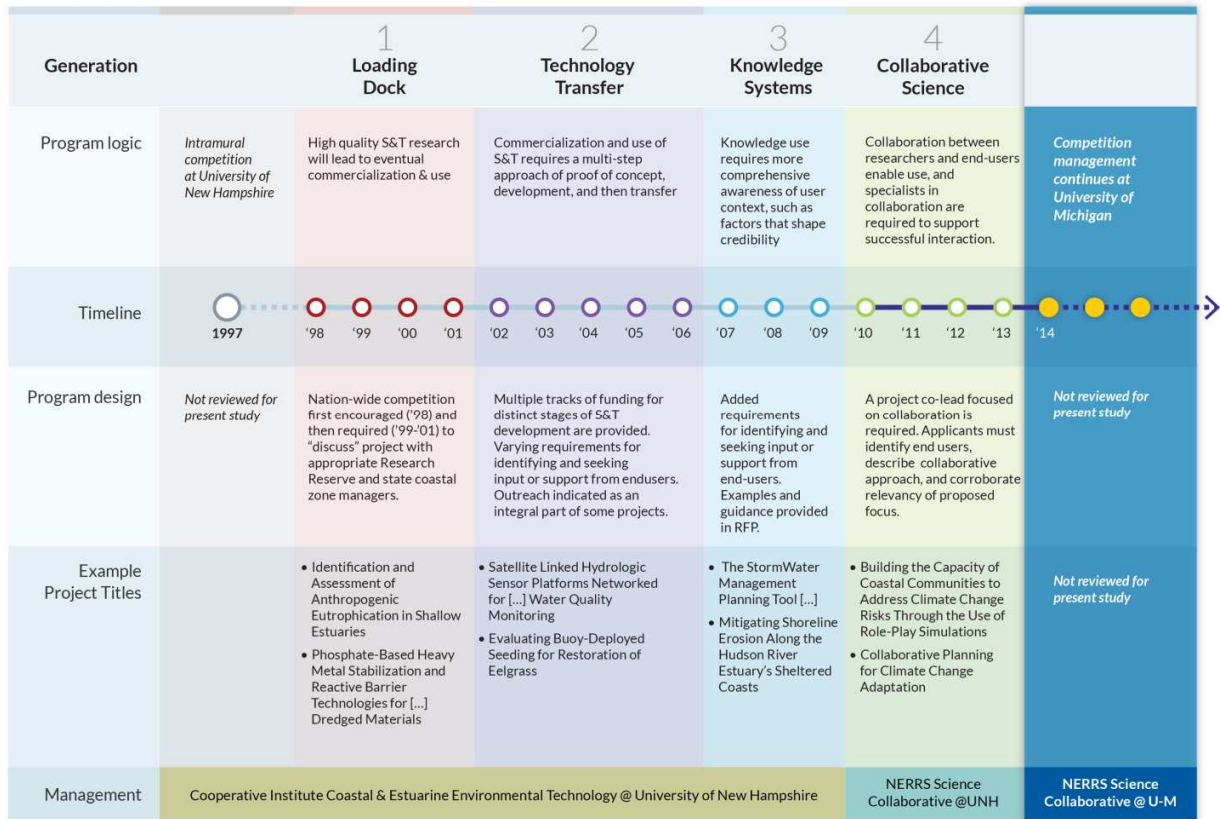
217 To understand drivers of scientific knowledge use, we created a database of 16 years of projects
218 funded by NERRS. First, we reviewed requests for proposals to identify major breakpoints in
219 program design, which we call generations (see Figure 1). Then, we conducted qualitative
220 content analysis (Bernard, 2013; Miles et al., 2014) to code 120 randomly selected final project
221 reports on attributes of usable knowledge (see Table 1), interviewed project team members and
222 users (n=40) to triangulate and add context to the results of the documentary analysis, and,
223 finally, used the software package R to analyze results using logistic and ordinal regression
224 models ("R," 2016).

225

226 *4.1 Organizing NERRS as a Natural Experiment*

227 During the study period (1998-2014), approximately 180 research projects were funded. A
228 review of Requests for Proposals during this time period revealed four distinctive generations of
229 program design, characterized by major changes in the guidelines and requirements within the
230 program's annual Request for Proposal (see Figure 1). Our understanding of the program's

231 history and the rationale for change was greatly enhanced by the perspective provided to us by a
 232 veteran program manager with extensive institutional memory of the entire study period. To
 233 create a stratified random sample across this time period, 30 projects from each of these
 234 generations were randomly selected, for a total sample of 120 projects (for a more detailed
 235 description of the shifts in historical perspective see Trueblood et al., 2019). Figure 1 shows the
 236 four generations.



237
 238 **Fig. 1** outlines the timeline of the funding program examined for this study. The generations identified by the
 239 authors are explained by substantial changes in the program design and logic.

241 **Generation 1: “Loading Dock”.** Between 1998-2001, NERRS solicited proposals from
 242 Federal and academic researchers, NGOs, and private industry to conduct research at
 243 NERRS sites in order to support the long-term conservation of the Nation’s coastal and
 244 estuarine systems. During the pre-proposal stage, applicants were required to “discuss
 245 proposed project” with a NERRS site but no further formalized engagement was
 246 encouraged or required.

248 **Generation 2: “Technology Transfer.”** Between 2002-2006, NERRS solicited ideas for
 249 research projects at different phases of development with an emphasis on technology.
 250 Small “proof of concept” projects were supported alongside larger “development” and,
 251 beginning in 2003, “technology transfer” projects, which emphasized application-focused
 252 activities. Additionally, during this period, the program began to require letters of support
 253 from potential users and changed review criteria to emphasize connections with users.
 254

255 **Generation 3: “Knowledge Systems.”** Between 2007-2009, program managers
256 consolidated technology development and deployment into a single track of funding and
257 identified other topic-specific funding tracks using surveys of coastal managers. This
258 period was initiated in part when program managers became aware of social science
259 literature on knowledge use, particularly the work of David Cash and his colleagues
260 (Cash et al., 2003) that emphasized the concept of “knowledge systems,” i.e. how
261 interactions between producers and users of knowledge can create a context in which
262 knowledge is more likely to be utilized. In a striking change of tone from earlier
263 solicitations, the 2007 RFP begins: “Investigators funded by [this program] *must*
264 collaborate with the coastal management and regulatory communities” (our emphasis).
265 Beginning in 2008, a collaborative plan for research was required in the proposal.
266

267 **Generation 4. “Collaborative Science.”** Between 2010-2014, management of funding
268 was reorganized into a new initiative called the NERRS Science Collaborative. In this
269 generation, applicants were required to provide a detailed collaboration plan and
270 designate a collaboration specialist as a co-lead of their project (for case study
271 descriptions of these types of projects see Matso & Becker, 2013, 2014). Additionally,
272 program managers invested substantial resources in providing guidance and personalized
273 support to project teams on collaboration methods and troubleshooting.
274

275 *4.2 Documentary analysis*

276 To systematically evaluate each selected project, two study authors conducted qualitative content
277 analysis of final project reports utilizing NVivo (Miles et al., 2014). The coding scheme (see
278 Table 1 for summary and A-1 for detail) was based on attributes related to research practice and
279 use that stem from literature on knowledge co-production and research utilization. These
280 included characteristics such as project activities and outcomes (Meadow et al., 2015), decision
281 relevance (Moss, 2015), the readiness of users and the research itself for utilization (Bechhofer et
282 al., 2001), science-user interaction intensity (Klenk et al., 2015), flow of information between
283 researcher and practitioner communities (Meadow et al., 2015 citing Biggs 1989), and
284 dissemination strategies (Reed, 2008). With exception of the coding cluster for Use, all coding
285 involved two authors, who coded independently and met regularly to discuss and reconcile
286 differences. Codes developed for this study are “high-inference themes” in the sense described
287 by Bernard (2013, p. 545), that is, each of the attributes entailed coder judgements based on texts
288 that usually did not directly provide direct evidence. To ensure consistency in coding over course
289 of the research process and between documents, a second cycle of coding was completed by the
290 two coders, which produced a final set of coding results for analysis. Due to resource limitations,
291 an exception to the two-coder approach was made during the coding for the variable Use. Here,
292 one author employed a secondary coding methodology, where passages previously tracked by
293 two coders for User Readiness and Research Readiness were reexamined to assess Use. Because
294 judgements pertaining to use originate from sections initially coded on User Readiness and
295 Research Readiness, we excluded those attributes from statistical models that examine the
296 outcome variable of Use.
297
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299
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301
302

Table 1. Abbreviated coding guide (see A-1 for expanded coding rubric)

1. Research Aims	Primary aim of project (produce new data or science, develop technology, test application of knowledge or tools, learn from users, build capacity)(Meadow et al., 2015).	6. Use	Evidence for use (non-use, indeterminate, use) and type of use (conceptual, instrumental) (Pelz, 1978)
2. Research Origins	How research questions and research designs were developed (by researchers, users, in combination) (Meadow et al., 2015).	7. Direction of Communication	How communication with users occurred (none at all, one-way, one-way with occasional consultation, or two-way) (Meadow et al., 2015). <i>See A-3 for results.</i>
3. Decision/ Management Relevance	Amount of detail (none, generic, specific) provided by researchers about decision-making or resource management context and criteria (Moss, 2015).	8. User Involvement	The way in which user involvement was situated in the project (none, passive, active) (Klenk et al., 2015; Meadow et al., 2015). <i>See A-3 for results.</i>
4. Dissemination	Venues and approaches to disseminating research findings (none, typical academic, loading dock (i.e. passive), active outreach to users, co-development of outreach with users) (Cash et al., 2006; Reed, 2008).	9. User Readiness	Characterization in the research report, regarding the ability of end users to apply research findings or products (Bechhofer et al., 2001). <i>See A-3 for results.</i>
5. Interaction Intensity	The extent of interaction between researchers and users (none, linking, match-making, collaborating, co-producing) (Klenk et al., 2015)	10. Research Readiness	Appraisal provided by the research team, regarding the readiness of results to be applied in decision or management contexts. <i>See A-3 for results.</i>

303
304

4.3 Interviews

306 Following the documentary analysis, we recruited grant recipients (i.e. Principal Investigators
307 and other funded project personnel listed on the front page of project reports) to participate in a
308 telephone interview. These individuals were typically scientists or workers at the boundary of
309 research and practice. Thirty-four grantees were interviewed, and each of them were asked to
310 refer us to users engaged during their project(s) for follow-up interviews, yielding an additional 6
311 interviews for a total of 40. Interviewees collectively represented 42 distinct projects, as some
312 were funded on multiple occasions. Between seven and nine projects per generation were
313 represented for Generations 1-3 and 17 projects were represented in Generation 4. Additionally,
314 two project team members considered themselves users of previous NERRS sponsored research.

315

316 We applied a semi-structured format for these interviews (see A-2 for interview guide). Some
317 questions focused on validating attributes also examined through project report coding. Other
318 questions focused on understanding more about project origins as well as its impact beyond the
319 date of the final project report. The two interviewers regularly conferred and periodically
320 conducted joint interviews to ensure consistency in approach. Interviews were recorded and
321 transcripts produced through third-party transcription services. Additionally, interviewers logged
322 interview contact reports immediately following each interview, where key themes relevant to

323 research questions and other insights were documented. We coded interview transcripts using
324 many of the same codes developed for the report coding.

325

326 *4.4 Statistical Analysis*

327 Selected coding from project report data (n=120) was analyzed in R. Coding groups related to
328 research practice and use (Table 1) were read into R as ordinal or binary variables. Using ordinal
329 or logistic regressions, we tested the magnitude and significance of change between generations
330 for each of the variables related to research practice. Additional analyses were performed by re-
331 leveling generations so that models could be run with each generation as the reference level as an
332 outcome variable in the regression (see A-4). We also used logistic regressions to test the
333 influence of multiple hypothesized drivers of the dependent variable Use (Table 2).

334

335 **4. Results**

336

337 *4.1. Sponsor influence on research practice*

338 Results from documentary analysis of final project reports shows significant change in how grant
339 recipients oriented, designed, conducted, and disseminated their research. Attributes of research
340 practice examined here included Aims, Research Origins (design and questions),
341 Decision/Management Relevance, Dissemination, and Interaction Intensity with users (Figures 2
342 -3; see also A-1). Changes identified in these coding groups mostly correspond to the changing
343 emphases of the program solicitation. For example, relative focus on New Science/Data versus
344 New Technology or Method mirror the shifting emphases on technology development (Figure
345 2a-b). Similarly, the program's increasing attention to management needs and user collaboration
346 is reflected by an increase in users helping to shape research questions and design (i.e., co-
347 design; Figure 2c-d). Over time, grantees also offered more specific descriptions of the context
348 within and criteria by which users make decisions (Figure 2e-f). Moreover, subtler changes were
349 observed with respect to Dissemination (2g-h), indicating the persistence of Typical Academic
350 outputs even as more user engagement occurred.

351

352 Our analysis focused in particular on the nature of user involvement in the research projects.
353 Figure 3 presents coding results for Interaction Intensity, adapting a typology of stakeholder
354 engagement offered by Klenk and colleagues (2015). These results depict consistent movement
355 toward more direct (i.e. working with users themselves versus intermediaries), intense (i.e. more
356 frequent and collaborative), and conversant (i.e. more two-way communication) interaction with
357 users. In each of the first three generations, more than half of projects exhibited no interaction
358 with users; yet by the final generation, nearly all projects reported some form of interaction, and
359 more than half demonstrated higher levels of interaction. We analyzed ordinal and binary coded
360 variables to generate odds ratios and other statistical values that portray the magnitude and
361 significance of change between generations (Figure 3, and Tables 1-4 in A-4). This analysis
362 shows the largest shifts in research practice occurring in Generation 4, when the most intensive
363 collaboration requirements were instituted. In the case of Interaction Intensity, the odds ratio of
364 moving from a lower level of interaction to one level higher (e.g., from Linking to Match-
365 making) is two in Generation 2, five in Generation 3, and 500 in Generation 4. Odds ratios and
366 p-values for Generation 4 relative to Generations 2 and 3 are also large and statistically
367 significant, further suggesting the marked difference in Generation 4. Additional statistics for
368 these variables with all other generations as the reference level are reported in A-4.

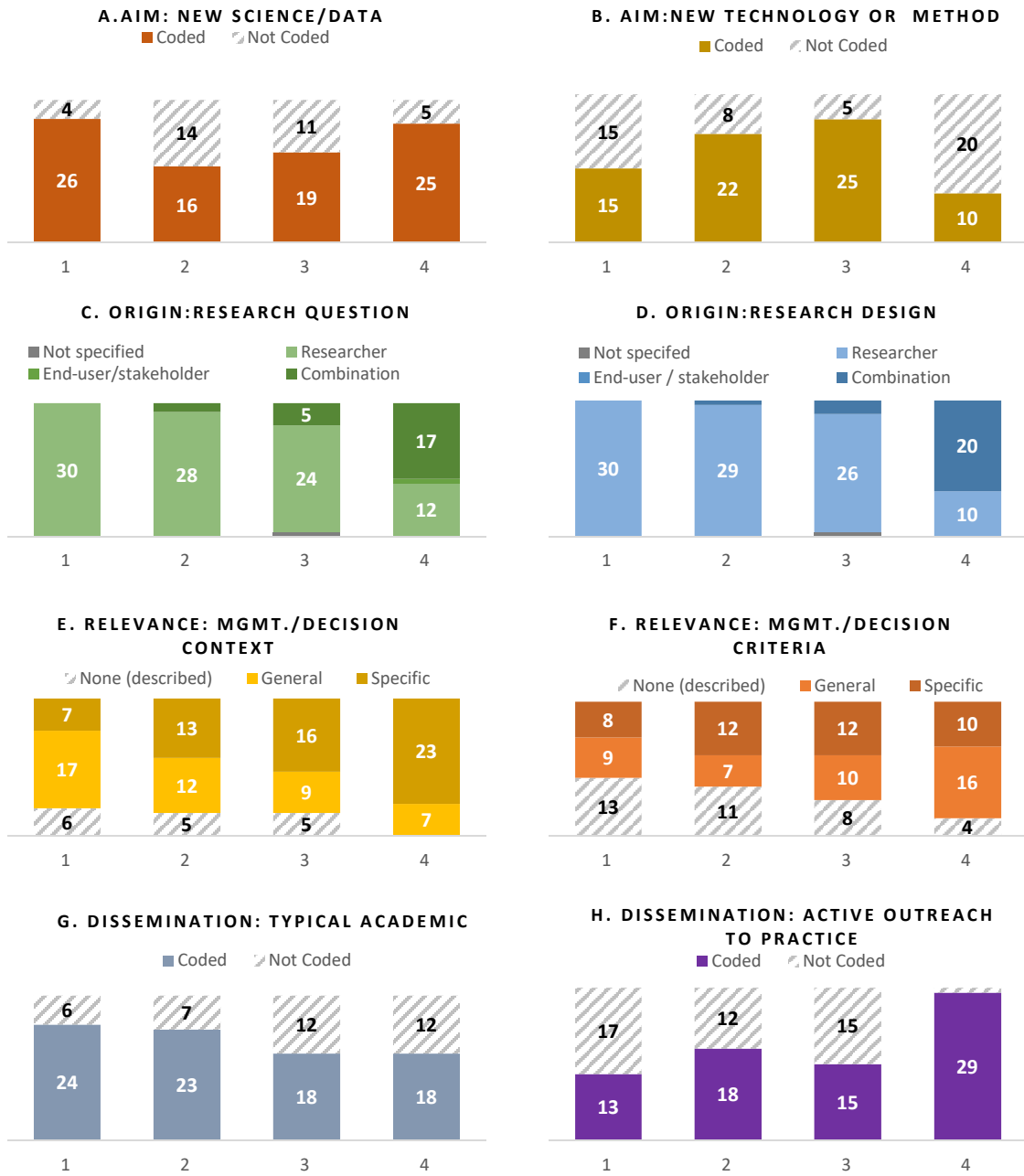
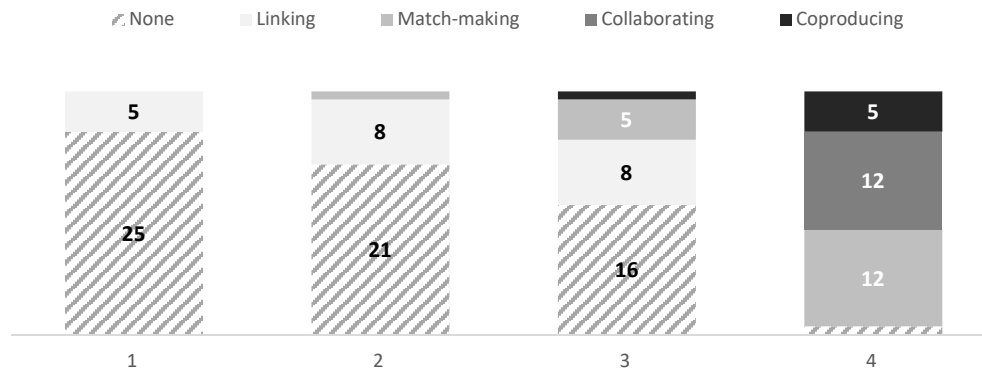


Fig. 2 (a-h) presents results of documentary analysis for each funding program generation labeled underneath bars. Thirty reports were randomly selected in each generation. Coding for Aim assessed the intended outcome of the research project: to generate New Science/Data (a), New Technology (b), and/or other (see A-1). Coding for Origin assessed who helped shape research questions (c) and Research Design (d). Coding for Relevance assessed the degree of specificity (none, general, specific) provided by the project team regarding the Management or Decision-making Context (e) or for Management or Decision-making Criteria (f). Coding for Dissemination indicated whether evidence of Typical Academic Dissemination (e.g., refereed publications, conference presentations) was present (g) and/or whether Active Outreach to Practitioners (h) occurred. The 'Not Coded' theme is used for binary themes that are either present or absent. See A-3 for additional results.

A. INTERACTION INTENSITY



385

Fig. 3 provides results for coding on Interaction Intensity. Five levels of interaction were coded, ranging from “None” where no evidence for interaction with potential users was identified, to “Co-producing” where users either led or co-led the research project and engaged substantively throughout (coding scheme adapted from Klenk et al. 2015). Additional details on coding values and additional coding results and further analysis related to interaction provided in A-3 and A-4, respectively.

386

387 Interviews with grantees provided additional depth and context to project reports and in some
 388 cases were able to characterize change in individual perspectives on research that they associate
 389 with participation in the funding program itself. Box 1 shows how the way researchers think
 390 about their role in shaping research impact has evolved through time. Additionally, interviews
 391 with users referred to us by grantees, though too few in number to be representative of the
 392 program’s multi-stage evolution, offer a helpful complementary viewpoint.

393

394 Grantees, most of whom would identify as researchers, were candid about their “*cravenly*
 395 *opportunistic*”—as one marine ecologist put it—approach to seeking funding from NERRS. In
 396 some cases, this level of entrepreneurship merely led to a self-selection process, where recipients
 397 chose to apply to a program when it was a good fit. For example, a geochemist from Generation
 398 1 said “[*the program*] had a problem that needed to be solved[...] and we had the right
 399 approach,” while another marine ecologist from Generation 4 said, “[*the program*] was just a
 400 really good fit: it gave us sort of the natural...landscape in which to implement ..the framework
 401 of the project.” One particular recipient who managed both research and outreach components of
 402 three different projects funded in Generations 3 and 4 revealed how working to meet funder
 403 requirements did not forestall opportunity for a more authentic embrace of collaborative science
 404 eventually. At the start, they confessed to “*trying to get the right answer*” when writing their
 405 proposal, and at the outset having a “*not very sophisticated idea of how to bring in an end user.*”
 406 Yet, over time, this changed. In their words, “*We really got [...] inoculated with it in phase one*
 407 *and it was just such a successful model that we’ve continued.*” As this grantee elaborated, lessons
 408 learned during earlier stages of the project helped guide their efforts toward more meaningful
 409 outcomes as they also doubled down on their commitment to a more collaborative style of
 410 research and refined their vision along the way for who their users were and how best to engage
 411 with them.

Box 1. Representative interview quotes by generation

<p>412 Generation 1: “I feel like it's my responsibility to convey this information but it's their responsibility either use it in a constructive way or ignore it.” 413 414 415 416</p> <hr/> <p>417 Generation 2: “Applied research is no longer a derogatory term. Applied research requires that you go beyond a silo in which you were trained.” 418 419 420</p> <hr/> <p>421 Generation 3: “It moves you from just a research mode to [...] thinking much more critically about factors of adoption and of use...” 422 423 424 425</p> <hr/> <p>426 Generation 4: “if you didn't have a collaborative outreach partner, you weren't going to get funded. That was clear from the get-go. I think it had a big influence on what we did and how we thought...” 427 428 429 430</p>	<p>Those who were funded only once by NERRS provide a point-in-time perspective about how the funding program shaped their research design. As indicative of early-on expectations, a Generation 2 biologist said: “<i>I didn't have any intimate knowledge...of what the needs of the sites were. I was responding specifically to what was in the solicitation package.</i>” Even without the benefit of comparison to other generations, statements by one-time recipients in Generation 4 emphasize this through comments referencing the influence of the funder, such as, “<i>I don't think we would have done anything that ambitious nor that highly connected to the communities, nor that highly networked nationally</i>” and “<i>I liked the idea of being challenged to modify the project in response to the stakeholders</i>”.</p>
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432 Those funded by NERRS over multiple generations offer complementary and longitudinal
433 perspectives. For example, a researcher funded on four occasions during Generations 1, 2, and 3
434 reflected on his early work saying, “*I think that in general the work that I had done in the past
435 would have been more successful if I had spent the time and effort on those important
436 relationships and kept those people as an integral part of these projects.*” A geospatial and data
437 scientist funded on two different generations and involved with NERRS over the entire period
438 said, “*[In the early days [...] you could fake [collaboration...] and you could get support. But as
439 time went on, [the funder] became more and more attuned to importance of those aspects and I
440 think became more and more cognizant of how the RFP structure itself could improve those
441 outcomes.*” In earlier generations, a team leader funded multiple times said that at first they
442 “*were not in knowledge co-production mode when we were doing this work with the various
443 entities. Even though we probably said something to that effect, I think it probably was not really
444 true.*”

445
446 Although grantees seemed to understand and respond to the logic of interacting with potential
447 users to increase the likelihood that their research was used, we also routinely found interviewees
448 embracing the mode of knowledge co-production for more than one reason. Frequently, when
449 responding to our question about what the most memorable aspect of the project was,
450 interviewees would describe the experience of collaboration itself. Though the utilitarian merits
451 of collaboration to increase project effectiveness and use of outputs were not neglected, a deeper,
452 oftentimes personal, embrace of collaboration was evident. This interview excerpt exemplifies
453 this blending of motivations:

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455 Interviewee: I really enjoyed working on this project. You know, perhaps more so than
456 other projects that are strictly science focused. I really enjoy working with stakeholders
457 and having that kind of involvement. So it was fun for me to do for sure.

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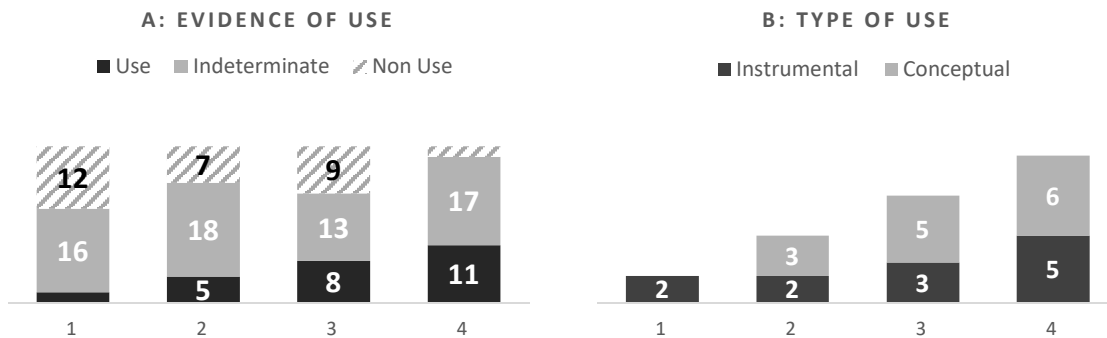
Interviewer: And anything in particular about why that's more enjoyable or meaningful?

Interviewee: It just felt like it was more useful in the end. Our goal is always to publish papers and be part of the peer reviewed scientific literature. But those don't always translate to people on the ground making decisions. They're not going out to the scientific literature to ... It's a bit more complicated than they might want to try to read. So, it was just rewarding in that aspect.

From interviews with users we gained new insights into some of the projects. From these, we identified two important themes. First, collaborative work has progressively become a part of their jobs, whether collaborating with other researchers or community stakeholders. One user referred to this as part a "*cultural shift in the way people work.*" While some described this as just a more personally satisfying approach, there was a general recognition of its efficacy. For example, a user participant in a Generation 3 project simply stated with regard to the collaborative approach, "*I don't know how it would've gotten done otherwise.*" Second, users spoke about how different forms and intensities of collaboration are appropriate to meet different objectives. From one user engaged during a Generation 1 study: "*I'm not right there with [the researcher] standing in the water with him when he is doing the work.*" In this person's view, such proximity is unnecessary except at particular stages. Another user engaged during Generation 4, emphasized the importance of enabling different individuals to engage at different levels of intensity and that different forms of collaboration may be necessary depending on the outcome. As he said, "*For a large manual like this, I think you've gotta have a big group.*"

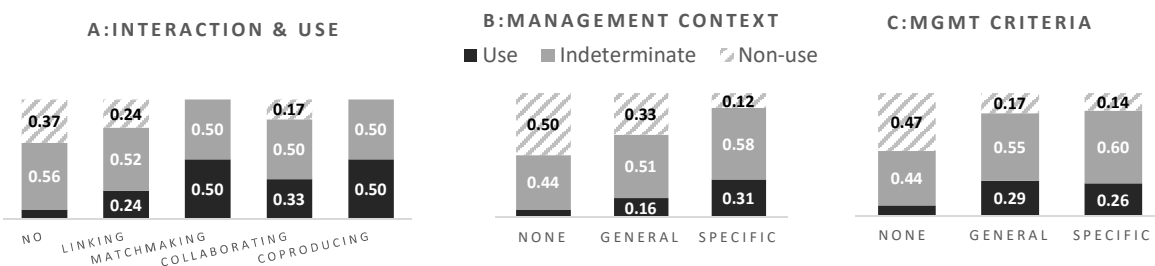
4.2 Influence of interaction with users on knowledge use

Our coding process identified where evidence of Use was presented, when it was not presented (i.e. Non-use), and when there was no basis for a judgement either way (i.e. Indeterminate). In this process, we refrained from judging quality of use but rather made a summary judgement of what grant recipients communicated. An example of reported use (redacted to preserve anonymity) reads like this: "*Our project has resulted in updates to [state agency guidance document]. [The state agency] updated the bioretention specification in the manual during the project.*" An example of definitive Non-Use could read like this: "*Because the biosensor technology is not yet at the stage where it is useful for management applications, it has not been widely transmitted.*" An "Indeterminate" judgement was made when either use was anticipated at some future point in time, when no statements were made regarding any type of use, or when text in the report referring to use was too vague to support a judgement. In this screening, dissemination activities alone did not satisfy the threshold for Use. When evidence of Use was identified, secondary codes distinguished the use type based upon on Pelz (1978): direct use for decision-making and management actions was coded as "Instrumental" and indirect use to inform priorities and increase general awareness of issues was coded as "Conceptual." We attempted to code for "Symbolic" use for when research was applied to justify pre-existing positions, but no evidence for that form of Use was presented, reinforcing the challenge of operationalizing this typology.



502 **Fig. 4** presents coding results related to use. Panel A provides the first level of coding on use. In that coding,
 503 Indeterminate refers to when evidence of use was deemed insufficient or not present. Non-use was coded when
 504 specific evidence of non-use was provided in the project report. Panel B provides coding data on the type of use
 505 identified for those projects where evidence of use was coded.
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508 Project report coding identified modest increases in evidence of research use, though this signal
 509 is likely dampened due to the nature of standard research reporting. Nevertheless, coding results
 510 for use (Figure 4) show three meaningful trends. First, in each successive funding generation
 511 there is an increase in Use as well as an overall decrease in Non-Use. Second, across all
 512 generations, the majority of projects provide no conclusive evidence for Use or Non-Use; that is,
 513 in most cases regardless of funding generation, demonstrable evidence for Use or Non-Use was
 514 not found in the final project report. This high proportion of Indeterminate codes may be
 515 explained both by the timing of when project reports are completed (90 days following project
 516 completion) and by the lack of systematic and specific reporting on research use in the context of
 517 standard research reports. Third, except for the Generation 1, there is a relative balance between
 518 Conceptual and Instrumental Use. The analysis of Use alongside attributes of research practice
 519 suggests that a stronger user-orientation of research is associated with greater Use (Figure 5).



520 **Fig. 5** presents cross tabulations between use and the previously presented research attributes of Interaction
 521 Intensity (a), Management Context (b), and Management Criteria (c).
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524 To examine drivers of scientific knowledge use, we consolidated coding data for Use as a binary
 525 outcome variable (“Indeterminate” and “Non-use” combined). Then, we ran a set of logistic
 526 regression models that tested the influence of year, generation, and other independent variables
 527 on Use (Table 2). In Model 2, odds ratios suggest that evidence for use of sponsored research
 528 increased by almost a factor of three for Generation 2, by a factor of five for Generation 3, and a
 529 factor of eight for Generation 4. In the next sequence of models presented, Interaction Intensity
 530 emerges as a consistently significant determinant of Use.
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532 **Table 2.** Logistic regression results for binary outcome variable “Use”

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		
	Coeff.	z	Coeff.	OR (95%CI)	z	Coeff.	z	Coeff.	z	Coeff.	z
Year	0.16	2.96***									
<i>Funding generations</i>											
Generation 2			1.03	2.80 (0.55, 20.78)	1.17	0.87	0.98				
Generation 3			1.63	5.09 (1.14, 35.05)	1.94*	1.10	1.25				
Generation 4			2.09	8.12 (1.91, 56.34)	2.54**	-0.00	-0.00				
<i>Research practice variables</i>											
Aim: New Science/Data										-0.60	-1.00
Aim: New Technology										-0.15	-0.28
Origin: Research Question										-0.08	-0.21
Origin: Research Design										-0.46	-1.22
Relevance: Context						0.19	0.38			0.24	0.46
Relevance: Criteria						0.30	0.79			0.31	0.77
Dissemination: Academic										-0.74	-1.38
Dissemination: Practice										0.91	1.75*
Interaction: Intensity						0.83	2.63***	0.58	2.88***	0.74	2.36**
<i>Model diagnostics</i>											
df	119 (118)		119 (116)			119 (115)		119 (116)		119 (112)	
AIC	119.6		123.95			118.1		117.94		120.5	
Res.Dev.	115.6		115.65			108.1		109.84		104.5	

p < 0.1 - *, <.05 - **, <.01 ***

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535 Since the interviews took place several years or more after the conclusion of the project and
536 included more targeted questions regarding use than prompted by project reports, they add
537 richness to the data from project report coding. Thus, we also coded interviews for Use similarly
538 to project reports. The interviewees addressed use in 49 projects. Out of those, 17 interviewees
539 provided comments regarding use that resulted in a lower level appraisal than gathered from
540 project reports, (i.e., from Use to Indeterminate, or Indeterminate to Non-use), 15 interviewees
541 provided comments that resulted in a higher-level appraisal (i.e., from Non-use to Indeterminate,
542 or Indeterminate to Use). No change occurred for the remaining 17 projects. The results from the
543 interview coding provide a similar depiction to the report coding, though with less change in any
544 of the use categories from Generations 1-3 and a lower proportion of projects coded as
545 indeterminate. This is perhaps because direct questions during the interview on use as well as the
546 additional time elapsed since final report writing enabled respondents the ability to offer more
547 detail than before.

548

549 Grant recipients and users spoke to the importance of interactions with each other as influential
550 factors that shaped the usability of end results, reinforcing the statistical analysis of project report
551 data, though with greater nuance. In trying to attribute user participation to the success of the
552 project, one grantee gave two explanations: “Part of it was being involved in a process in the
553 project that had a forward-looking, proactive, positive appeal, organizational culture... [The
554 other part was], they said they needed these things and they got them.” Others highlighted how
555 the “iterative nature provides much greater confidence [for users], in that they were involved
556 somewhat in terms of the design of the tool itself.” Additionally, user participation was also
557 linked with credibility as represented in this quote:

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559 I think that if we had just done this in a closed room with a bunch of engineers or if we

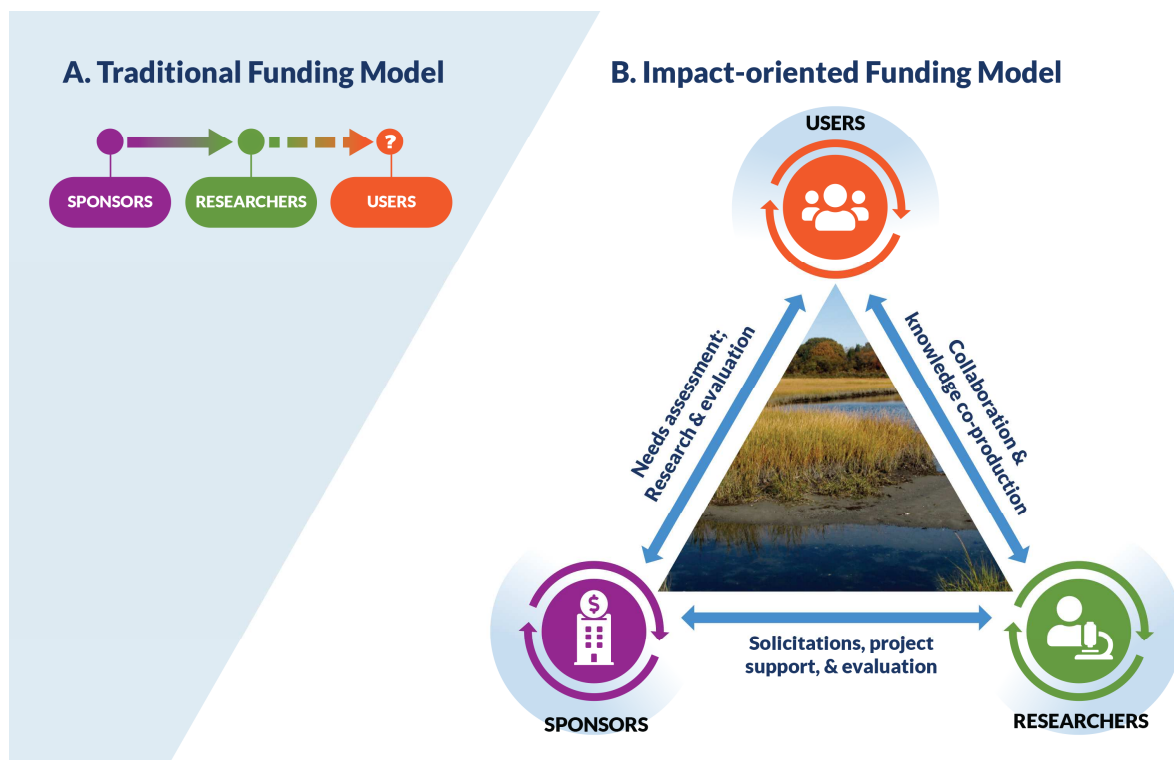
560 sat around with [organization name] and did something like this, I think nobody would've
561 paid attention, but having all these different people involved and able to provide their
562 experience and perspective really lent that credibility that was absolutely necessary.
563

564 Despite the centrality of interaction to many grantee's recollection of their project and how they
565 attributed success in generating usable outcomes, they pointed to other factors working in
566 conjunction with interaction. These included the motivation and readiness of users, the
567 demonstrable feasibility of a particular technology or method, and social and political factors that
568 shaped the broader context for use.
569

570 571 **5. Discussion**

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573 The two most compelling findings from the data analyzed here are that funding agencies have
574 significant influence on research practice and that there is a relationship between the intensity of
575 the interaction between researchers and practitioners and use. First, in contrast with studies that
576 pointed out the limitations or risks of funders' interventions (De Rijcke et al., 2016; Holbrook,
577 2012; Lövbrand, 2011; Reale and Zinilli, 2017), our evidence suggests a critically important role
578 for funders in driving meaningful changes to research practice. Second, going beyond qualitative
579 case studies, this research provides a larger and more systematically analyzed dataset that
580 suggests that more interaction between researchers and practitioners increases use, further
581 supporting earlier scholarship in this area (Dilling and Lemos, 2011; Fujitani et al., 2017).
582

583 When considering approaches to science funding program management, this evidence helps
584 compare alternative, more impact-oriented funding models with conventional, more linear
585 approaches. As described earlier, NERRS funding was initially organized similarly to most US
586 basic research programs. As described by one of its longstanding program officers, NERRS
587 began with the assumption that "*the information, knowledge, and technology resulting from the*
588 *funded research will make their way into actual management and use through the traditional*
589 *means of conveying scientific information.*" This approach, still commonplace in research
590 funding today, is often depicted as a linear, one-way pipeline of resources and knowledge from
591 funding to research to end-use (See Figure 6a). But the progression of NERRS over time—
592 represented by both the evolving spirit and letter of the program design—gathered users,
593 researchers, and the sponsor into an arrangement where two-way interaction would occur more
594 actively between the three groups and lead to changes within each. Currently, for example, the
595 program operates through a series of multi-way interactions with collaborative research
596 continuing between users and researchers. Program managers also provide ongoing feedback,
597 support, and check-ins between program managers and researchers. Finally program manager
598 administer pre- and post- questionnaires with users to more directly assess use and other
599 outcomes (Trueblood et al., 2019; see Figure 6b).
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Fig. 6 depicts two different models to structure funding for research. In a), the traditional funding model, research sponsors provide directives and financial resources to selected researchers, who are afforded general autonomy to pursue proposed research. Connections between the researchers and users are tenuous, and it frequently remains unclear whether use occurs. In b), the impact-oriented funding model—which the NERRS example is evolving towards—sponsors, researchers, and users all maintain active lines of two-way communication and interaction that can inform research program agendas, research projects aims and methods, and well as new insights for problem solving in the contexts for application.

611 Additionally, similarly to other scholars in this field, we caution against wholesale transition to
612 funding models that are guided by utilitarian principles alone (Flexner, 2017). Ultimately, our
613 data shows that not all research need to be conducted in high-intensity interaction modes in order
614 to be utilized and that not all co-produced science leads to use (Lemos et al., 2018). In this sense,
615 this study also contributes to current thread of discussion in the literature about how much
616 interaction between research and practice is optimal (Lemos et al., 2019; Trainor et al., 2016).
617 Still more research is needed to understand how different forms and intensities of interaction
618 influences use in different settings, and this research would benefit from incorporating questions
619 about how different mediums for interaction (e.g. virtual, asynchronous) help or hinder the co-
620 production process and achievement of intended outcomes. Our examination of NERRS—and
621 hopefully future studies of funding programs like it—could be fertile ground for the examination
622 of these issues in different settings. Furthermore, a methodological finding of this study is how
623 labor-intensive it can be to interpret drivers and outcomes from standard research reports –
624 hence, we encourage funders to modify project reporting structures if the goal is to foster use.

625
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6. Conclusion

627 The desire to make science usable for solving societal problems is challenging the traditional
628 conceptualization of science and society as separated realms. Guided by different motivations,
629 global change and sustainability scientists are in many cases departing from conventional
630 approaches by embracing co-production and looking to practical problems and expertise from
631 non-scientists to guide and apply their science. Given what we already know about the potential
632 benefits of co-production, this change may lead to significant increase in the societal impact of
633 science. At the same time, this study also raises important, and still unresolved, issues
634 surrounding the grand challenge we introduce at the outset: how can science best help society
635 manage risk and make progress toward sustainability in the midst of global environmental
636 change? At its core, this question begs critical examination as to whether scientific structures can
637 (or should) change to be more collaborative, inclusive, and de-siloed; and if such a move to more
638 interactive and engaged research practice will yield meaningful gains in the use of scientific
639 knowledge. Understanding in greater detail what particular benefits arise and the pathway to
640 achieving them at scale amid accelerating environmental challenges often remain unclear.

641
642 This study makes progress on this understanding by providing new empirical evidence for how
643 funders can catalyze more collaborative research and help increase its use in support of
644 environmental sustainability goals. Specifically, we examined a coastal and environmental
645 research program that, over 16 years, transformed from a traditional funding model to embrace,
646 and eventually incentivize, more engaged research. We found these changes influence research
647 practice beyond perfunctory compliance and that a movement toward co-production supports
648 increased utilization. These findings provide stronger validation—but also nuance and some
649 caveats—to the conclusions of prior literature on co-production. Indeed, we still need to be
650 cautious when designing research funding programs to ensure that research-practice relationships
651 proceed equitably, effectively, and efficiently. Ongoing research into how forms and intensity of
652 interaction can be optimized and how different approaches are deemed satisfying, or equitable,
653 by participants could help contribute to improve what works best. Research that ties together
654 cohorts of funders pursuing similar approaches simultaneously would further strengthen the
655 evidence base across contexts and foster learning more relevant to guiding program intervention.
656 In this, we see great opportunity for funders to work with science policy and evaluation
657 researchers to re-imagine project reporting approaches to reduce grantee burden while also
658 accelerating learning and safeguarding against “lip service” or exploitative arrangements with
659 stakeholders. In fact, such collaboration could be another potentially fruitful form of knowledge
660 co-production, helping to make knowledge about co-production, itself, more usable.

661
662 These results are not intended to suggest conventional forms of research funding and practice are
663 necessarily unsuitable for making progress in some areas of science intended to help to manage
664 risk from global change or to enhance sustainability. But we do see immense potential in
665 emerging and alternative designs as enabling science to better help society meet the challenges of
666 solving environmental problems. Indeed, through this research we see evidence of cultural shifts
667 underway that embrace co-production for both its practical and intrinsic benefits. We hope that
668 this research will help to guide researchers, users, and funders alike.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

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A-1. CODEBOOK

A-1 Table 1. Complete codebook for documentary analysis of final reports

Coding Group	Coding Options	Coding Criteria	Ref.	CSV Variable Name
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1. Research Aims	a. new science/data	a. Project seeks, as a primary aim, to produce new scientific understanding or data	(Meadow et al., 2015)	1.1
	b. new technology or method	b. Project seeks, as a primary aim, to develop prototype for new technology/method/practice for use by management		1.3
	c. dissemination	c. Project seeks, as a primary aim, to disseminate knowledge to communities of practice (as a primary goal)		1.2
	d. testing in applied settings	d. Project seeks, as a primary aim, to test applicability of new knowledge/technology/method in user/management contexts (not field research).		1.4
	e. learning from users	e. Project seeks, as a primary aim, to learn from information/technology users to guide applied research		1.5
2. Origins	Research question		(Meadow et al., 2015)	
	a. Not specified	a. Origin of research question not identified		5.0a
	b. From researchers only	b. Researchers develop research question		5.1
	c. From users only	c. End users develop research question		5.3
	d. From combination	d. Combination of researchers and end users develop research question		5.5
	Research design			
	a. Not specified	a. Origin of research not identified		5.0b
	b. From researchers only	b. Researchers develop research design/tech. development		5.2
	c. From users only	c. End users develop research design		5.4
	d. From combination	d. Combination of researchers and end users develop research design		5.6
3. Relevance	Decision/management context		(Moss, 2015)	
	a. None identified	a. No specific decision/management context identified		2.0a
	b. General	b. Identification of general decision/management <i>context</i> for information/technology use		2.1
	c. Specific	c. Identification of specific decision/management <i>context</i> for information/technology use		2.3
	Decision/management criteria			2.0b
a. None identified	a. No specific decision/management criteria identified		2.2	
b. General	b. Identification of general			

	c. Specific	decision/management <i>criteria</i> for information/technology use c. Identification of specific <i>criteria</i> of information to existing decision/management		2.4
4. Dissemination	a. None	a. No description of information/knowledge/technology dissemination	(Klenk et al., 2015; Meadow et al., 2015)	10.0
	b. Academic	b. Information/knowledge/technology disseminated through typical research outlets (e.g. academic conference proceedings, peer-reviewed publications, etc.)		10.1
	c. Loading-dock to practice	c. Information/knowledge/technology passively disseminated to communities of practice, such as made available on researcher website (i.e. Loading Dock approach)		10.2
	d. Active to practice	d. Information/knowledge/technology actively disseminated to communities of practice		10.3
	e. Dissemination co-designed	e. Dissemination strategy co-designed and implemented with end users		10.4
5. Intensity of interaction	a. None (described)	a. No interaction identified	(Amara et al., 2004;	7.0
	b. Linking	b. Targeted dissemination of knowledge to inform decision-making/management (Linking)	Klenk et al., 2015; Michaels, 2009)	7.1
	c. Match-making	c. Diverse types of knowledge producers are connected with users to frame research questions and interpret results (Match-Making)		7.2
	d. Collaborating	d. Knowledge users are active throughout the process, including articulation of research questions, design of projects, collection and analysis of data, and production of outputs (Collaborating)		7.3
	e. Coproducing	e. Users are empowered and have capacity to critically assess and (co-)lead project.		7.4

6. Use <i>(coded only by 1 coder)</i>	a. Evidence of use	a. Demonstrable evidence of use of research outcomes	(Landry et al., 2003)	Use
	i. Instrumental	i. direct use for decision-making and management actions (i.e. “Instrumental”)		
	ii. Conceptual	ii. indirect use to inform priorities, agendas, and awareness (i.e. “Conceptual”)		
	b. Indeterminate	b. Use was either not describe or it was anticipated without adequate evidence of eventual outcome		
	c. Evidence for non-use	c. Specific evidence of inability for use provided		
7. Directionality	a. None (described)	a. No flow of information to end users described		4.0
	b. Unidirectional	b. Unidirectional (i.e. From knowledge/technology producers to knowledge/technology users)		4.1
	c. Unidirectional w/ some consultation	c. Unidirectional but with occasional consultation (i.e. Knowledge producers consult knowledge users)		4.2
	d. Bi-directional	d. Bi-directional (i.e. Knowledge producers work with knowledge users to produce, understand, and apply knowledge in practice/decision-making)		4.3
8. User involvement	a. None (described)	a. Non-existent		8.0
	b. Primarily passive participant	b. Primarily as passive recipient of new knowledge or technology		8.1
	c. Participate in specific stages	c. Participating in specific stages only		8.2
	d. Continuously involved	d. Continuous involvement		8.3
9. User readiness	a. None (described)	a. No discernable reference to user readiness/ or explicit mention of lack of readiness.	(Bechhofer et al., 2001)	3.0
	b. Initial stages	b. Project indicated that users were only at initial stages of readiness to utilize knowledge/technology produced (i.e. planned use or early stages of initial use)		3.1
	c. Adding value	c. Research produced is adding (or very likely to) add value to existing practitioner knowledge (i.e. user readiness such that new knowledge complements/builds upon existing knowledge/practice)		3.3

10. Research readiness	a. None described	a. No discernable reference to the readiness of available knowledge/technology to meet user needs	3X.0
	b. Not yet ready	b. Knowledge/technology not yet available or ready to meet user needs, even after project completion (i.e. gaps still exist)	3X.1
	c. Partial/potential	c. Knowledge/technology potentially available to end users, may be tested at least partially in real world context, but still not indicated as fully usable form, as of project completion	3X.2
	d. Available for or in use	d. Knowledge/technology available (e.g. concluded, patented, published, or commercialized) and/or supplied in usable form as of project completion (regardless of user readiness or desire) [e.g. disseminated to communities of practice, etc.]	3X.3

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A-2. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

Potential questions to ask of funded projects, stakeholder participants, designated end users connected to projects funded by the National Estuarine Research Reserve System (1998-2014).

Interview will proceed in a semi-structured manner.

Potential interviewees:

- Project Team Leader or other (incl. reserves)
- End user (as designated, incl. reserves, with slight modifications to questions as appropriate)
- Other stakeholder (if no end user ID'd, with slight modifications to questions as appropriate)

Interview START:

- Warm welcome
- Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed today.

Informed consent

- There are some things I have to cover at the outset in order to properly obtain your participation in this study.
 - FIRST: I'm going to ask questions about your experience conducting research and the application of that research into practice.
 - SECOND: I'd like to be able to record this interview to produce a transcript to be used only by our research team for reference and analysis. While I plan to utilize the insights you share with me to complete this study, anything you share with me will not be attributed to you personally and any potentially identifying information in what you share will be removed before sharing more broadly.
 - Is it okay with you to proceed with this interview and to record it? Or do you have any questions for me before we proceed?
- If YES, say we'll put on hold for a second and be back momentarily
- If NO, ask if there are any specific questions or concerns about doing the interview. And then if concern about recording persists, offer to continue the interview with only notetaking by ---
- Thanks, ____, for agreeing to participate. We're now on a recorded line. We're hoping to talk to you

925 about the project(s), _____. Just to let you know, we've had the opportunity to read the final report your
926 team submitted on behalf of the project. We are now interested to hear from you what you recall about
927 the project since its completion as well as some specific insights you might have about how research
928 becomes utilized in practice.
929

930 Opening question:

- 931 • As a start, I want to hear any highlights you remember about the project. I realize that these activities
932 took place [quite] some time ago, so don't worry if you can't remember everything. Please just tell me
933 what you can remember that stands out as memorable or significant.
934 [ACTIVITIES/OUTCOMES/IMPACT]
 - 935 ○ *If recollection is limited, remind interviewee of few keywords from abstract, end date of*
936 *project, other collaborators, and other tidbits from abstract as needed.*
 - 937 ○ PROBE: How did the design of the project and its objectives come together? Who was
938 involved? [ORIGINS]
 - 939 ○ PROBE: What do you recall were some of the main achievements of the project?
940 [OUTCOMES]
 - 941 ○ PROBE: Is there anything noteworthy that has occurred in relation to the project since its
942 completion? [OUTCOMES]
943
944

945 *Note: Most of the interview may proceed organically from this opening question. See following questions for*
946 *follow up in key areas of research interest.*
947

948 Follow on questions

- 949 • What were the coastal/estuarine management issues this project was seeking to address?
950 [RELEVANCE/CONTEXT]
 - 951 ○ PROBE: Were there specific needs resource managers or decision-makers that you were
952 trying to provide for?
 - 953 ▪ Or, were there other types of users?
 - 954 ○ PROBE: From your position, how did you come to what decision-makers or others needed?
955 [INTERPLAY]
 - 956 ○ PROBE: Throughout the project, did your understanding about their needs change over time?
957 If so, how? [INTERPLAY]
 - 958 ○ PROBE: What were some of the aspects of the project that enabled you to better understand
959 their needs? [INTERACTION/INTERPLAY]
- 960 • [If nothing has been volunteered up to this point about interaction] During the project, to what extent
961 did you interact with decision-makers, resource managers, or other potential users? [INTERACTION]
 - 962 ○ PROBE: What was the nature of that interaction? What forms? What was communication
963 like? [INTERACTION/COMMUNICATION/REPRESENTATION]
 - 964 ○ Was the input open ended or focused?
 - 965 ○ PROBE: How often do you recall interacting? [INTERACTION]
 - 966 ○ PROBE: How did the interaction influence the project and its outcomes?
 - 967 ○ PROBE: clarify users versus advisors/stakeholders
- 968 • Either during or after the project, do you know whether outputs from the project were utilized by
969 practitioners, resource managers, or decision-makers?
 - 970 ○ PROBE [If no use]: To what do you attribute this? Was this not part of the original intent of
971 the project, or were there barriers to the ability for this to become usable?
 - 972 ▪ In your opinion was the research ready to be utilized?
 - 973 ▪ Were end users prepared to be able to utilize your research?
 - 974 ○ PROBE [if use]:
 - 975 ▪ Could you describe the way in which this new knowledge (or technology) was
976 utilized)
 - 977 ▪ How have you come to understand this?

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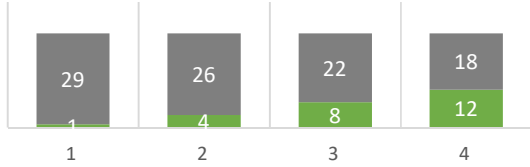
- To what do you attribute the success in uptake?
 - PROBE (as appropriate): Could this kind of uptake occurred without the participation of [end user, stakeholder, etc.]
 - PROBE: What specifically about their participation helped aid in the application?
 - What outcomes in the coastal/estuarine environmental resulted from this?
 - Do you think that funding source for this project (e.g., NERRS – CICEET or NSC) had any influence over the approach you pursued?
- [Opportunity for additional questions]
- Getting toward the conclusion of this interview... Is there anything you know now (about applied or collaborative research) that you wish you knew when you were involved with this project?
 - PROBE: Did you ever find that the interaction or collaboration was unnecessary, too much, or a hindrance?
 - Is there anything else you would like to share about your recollections of the project?
 - Is there anyone you could recommend that might fit into the category of an user that we could talk to get their perspective? This could be someone that was actively involved in the project, or if that's not possible, someone that came to utilize results from the project afterwards...

1026 **A-3. ADDITIONAL CODING RESULTS**

1027 **A-3 Figure 1. Additional coding results**

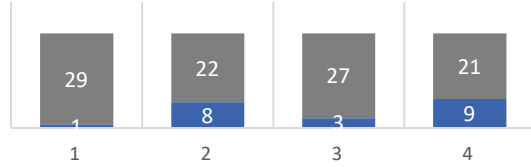
A. AIMS:DISSEMINATION TO PRACTICE

■ Coded ■ Not Coded



B. AIMS:TESTING IN APPLIED SETTINGS

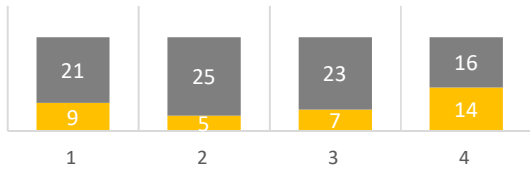
■ Coded ■ Not Coded



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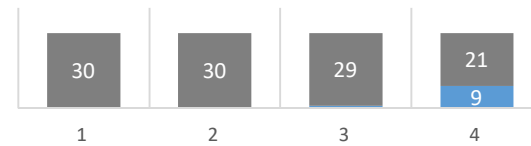
C. DISSEMINATION: LOADING DOCK

■ Coded ■ Not Coded



D. DISSEMINATION: CO-DESIGN OF OUTREACH

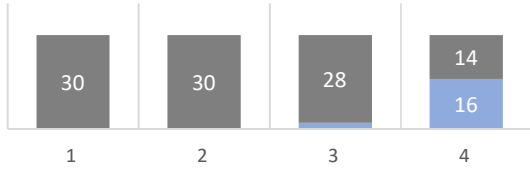
■ Coded ■ Not Coded



1029

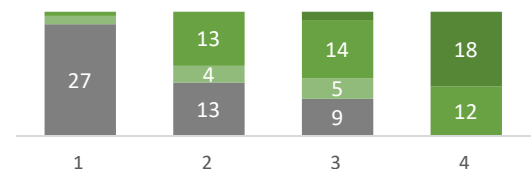
E. AIMS: LEARNING FROM USERS

■ Coded ■ Not Coded



F.INTERACTION: COMMUNICATION

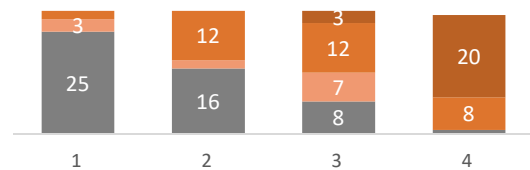
■ None ■ Unidirectional ■ Consultative ■ Bidirectional



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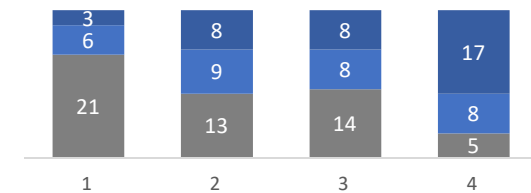
G. INTERACTION: USER INVOLVEMENT

■ Not Present ■ Passive ■ Specific Stages ■ Continuous



H. READINESS: RESEARCH

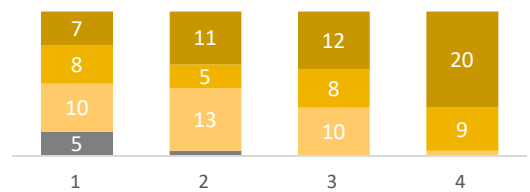
■ None ■ Initial ■ Adding Value



1031

I. READINESS: END USER

■ None ■ Not Yet ■ Partial ■ Available/In Use



1032

1033 **A-4 ADDITIONAL ANALYSIS**

1034

1035 **A-4 Table 1.** Modelling results for research practice coding relative to Generation 1. “Loading
1036 Dock.”

Coded variable	Model type	Generation 2		Generation 3		Generation 4	
		t/z-value	Odds Ratio	t/z-value	Odds Ratio	t/z-value	Odds Ratio
Aim: New Science/Data	L	-2.68***	0.18	-1.33***	0.27	-0.26**	0.77
Aim: New Technology	L	1.83*	2.75	2.63***	5.00	-1.30	0.50
Origin: Research Question	O	1.11	3.42	1.67*	7.18	3.65***	62.64
Origin: Research Design	O	0.61	2.22	1.09	4.04	3.89***	101.98
Relevance: Context	O	2.32	1.90	1.95*	2.65	3.97***	9.09
Relevance: Criteria	O	0.98	1.62	1.46	2.04	2.71*	2.24
Dissemination: Academic	L	-0.31	0.82	-1.67*	0.38	-1.67	0.38
Dissemination: Practice	L	1.29	1.96	0.52	1.31	3.36***	37.92
Interaction: Intensity	O	1.20	2.11	2.68*	5.11	6.60***	503.48

1037 $p < 0.1$ - *, $< .05$ - **, $< .01$ ***. L – logistic regression (binomial), O – ordinal logistic regression. All results
1038 relative to Generation 1. See A-4 for modelling results with other generations as reference level.

1039

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1041 **A-4 Table 2.** Modelling results for research practice coding relative to Generation 2. “Technology Transfer”

Coded variable	Model type	Generation 1			Generation 3			Generation 4		
		t/z	OR	95%CI	t/z	OR	95%CI	t/z	OR	95%CI
Aim: New Science/Data	L	2.68***	5.69	(1.71, 22.91)	0.78	1.51	(0.54, 4.31)	2.41**	4.38	(1.39, 15.77)
Aim: New Technology	L	-1.84*	0.36	(0.12, 1.05)	0.93	1.82	(0.53, 6.80)	-3.01***	0.18	(0.06, 0.53)
Origin: Research Question	O	-1.01	0.29	(0.01, 2.61)	0.86	2.10	(0.41, 13.2)	3.76***	18.31	(4.66, 104.40)
Origin: Research Design	O	-0.61	0.45	(0.02, 5.58)	0.55	1.82	(0.22, 19.64)	4.1***	45.79	(9.28, 423.82)
Relevance: Context	O	-1.32	0.53	(0.20, 0.52)	0.66*	1.39	(0.52, 3.78)	-2.82***	0.21	(0.07, 0.60)
Relevance: Criteria	O	-0.98	0.62	(0.23, 1.62)	0.46	1.26	(0.48, 3.30)	0.68	1.38	(0.54, 3.52)
Dissemination: Academic	L	0.31	1.22	(0.35, 4.31)	-1.38	0.46	(0.14, 1.37)	-1.38	0.46	(0.14, 1.37)
Dissemination: Practice	L	-1.29	0.51	(0.18, 1.41)	-0.78	0.67	(0.23, 1.85)	2.73***	19.33	(3.40, 367.45)
Interaction: Intensity	O									

1042 $p < 0.1$ - *, $< .05$ - **, $< .01$ ***. L – logistic regression (binomial), O – ordinal logistic regression. All results
1043 relative to Generation 1.

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A-4 Table 3. Modelling results for research practice coding relative to Generation 3. “Knowledge Systems”

Coded variable	Model type	Generation 1			Generation 2			Generation 4		
		t/z	OR	95%CI	t/z	OR	95%CI	t/z	OR	95%CI
Aim: New Science/Data	L	2.01**	3.76	(1.10, 15.28)	0.78	0.66	(0.23, 1.85)	1.72	2.89	(0.89, 10.51)
Aim: New Technology	L	-2.63***	0.20	(0.06, 0.63)	0.93	0.55	(0.16, 1.90)	-3.69	0.10	(0.03, 0.32)
Origin: Research Question	O	-1.66**	0.14	(0.01, 1.05)	0.86	0.48	(0.76, 2.47)	3.37***	8.73	(2.66, 34.32)
Origin: Research Design	O	-1.09	0.35	(0.01, 2.5)	0.55	0.55	(0.05, 4.60)	4.06***	25.23	(6.2, 151.60)
Relevance: Context	O	-1.95*	0.38	(0.14, 0.99)	0.66	0.72	(0.26, 1.92)	2.20**	3.43	(1.17, 10.81)
Relevance: Criteria	O	-1.46	0.49	(0.19, 1.27)	0.46	0.79	(0.30, 2.08)	0.20	1.10	(0.44, 2.74)
Dissemination: Academic	L	1.67*	2.67	(0.86, 8.95)	1.38	2.19	(0.73, 6.98)	0.00	1.00	(0.35, 2.83)
Dissemination: Practice	L	-0.52	0.76	(0.27, 2.11)	0.78	1.50	(0.54, 4.23)	3.12***	29.00	(5.13, 550.01)
Interaction: Intensity	O									

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A-4 Table 4. Modelling results for research practice coding relative to Generation 4. “Knowledge Systems”

Coded variable	Model type	Generation 1			Generation 2			Generation 3		
		t/z	OR	95%CI	t/z	OR	95%CI	t/z	OR	95%CI
Aim: New Science/Data	L	0.36	1.30	(0.31, 5.78)	0.36**	1.30	(0.31, 5.78)	-1.72*	0.35	(0.10, 1.12)
Aim: New Technology	L	1.30	2.00	(0.71, 5.81)	3.01***	5.50	(1.88, 17.54)	3.69***	10.00	(3.13, 37.28)
Origin: Research Question	O	-3.65***	0.02	(0.00, 0.10)	-3.76***	0.05	(0.01, 0.21)	-3.37***	0.11	(0.3, 0.38)
Origin: Research Design	O	-3.89***	0.01	(0.00, 0.07)	-4.07***	0.02	(0.00, 0.12)	-4.06***	0.04	(0.01, 0.16)
Relevance: Context	O	-3.97***	0.11	(0.04, 0.31)	-2.82***	0.21	(0.60, 0.60)	-2.19**	0.29	(0.09, 0.86)
Relevance: Criteria	O	-1.71*	0.45	(0.18, 1.12)	-0.68	0.72	(0.28, 1.84)	-0.20	0.91	(0.36, 2.27)
Dissemination: Academic	L	1.67*	2.67	(0.86, 8.95)	1.38	2.19	(0.73, 6.98)	0.00	1.00	(0.35, 2.83)
Dissemination: Practice	L	-3.36***	0.03	(0.00, 1.5)	-2.73***	0.05	(0.00, 0.30)	-3.12***	0.03	(0.00, 0.19)
Interaction: Intensity	O									

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A-5. COMPLETE CODING DATA (.CSV FILE)

See attachment named: “NERRS_codes.csv”