



1 Review article: Towards a context-driven research: a state-of-the-art  
2 review of resilience research on climate change

3

4

5 Ringo Ossewaarde<sup>1</sup>, Tatiana Filatova<sup>2</sup>, Yola Georgiadou<sup>3</sup>, Andreas Hartmann<sup>4</sup>, Gül Özerol<sup>5</sup>, Karin

6 Pfeffer<sup>6</sup>, Peter Stegmaier<sup>7</sup>, Rene Torenvlied<sup>8</sup>, Mascha van der Voort<sup>9</sup>, Jord Warmink<sup>10</sup>, Bas Borsje<sup>11</sup>

7 *Correspondence to:* Ringo Ossewaarde (m.r.r.ossewaarde@utwente.nl)

8

---

<sup>1</sup> Department of Public Administration, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands

<sup>2</sup> Dept of Governance and Technology for Sustainability, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands

<sup>3</sup> Department of Urban and Regional Planning and Geo-Information Management, University of Twente, Enschede, Hengelosestraat 99, 7514AE, Netherlands

<sup>4</sup> Department of Construction Management and Engineering, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands.

<sup>5</sup> Dept of Governance and Technology for Sustainability, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands

<sup>6</sup> Department of Urban and Regional Planning and Geo-Information Management, University of Twente, Enschede, Hengelosestraat 99, 7514AE, Netherlands.

<sup>7</sup> Department of Science, Technology and Policy Studies, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands.

<sup>8</sup> Department of Public Administration, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands.

<sup>9</sup> Department of Design Production and Management, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands.

<sup>10</sup> Department of Water Engineering and Management, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands.

<sup>11</sup> Department of Water Engineering and Management, University of Twente, Enschede, Drienerlolaan 5, 7522NB, Netherlands.



9 **Abstract**

10 Since the 1970s, Holling's socio-ecological systems (SES) approach has been a most predominant  
11 theoretical force in resilience research in the context of the climate crisis. From Holling's approach,  
12 however, two contrasting scientific approaches to resilience have developed, namely, naturalism and  
13 constructivism. While naturalist resilience research takes SES as complex systems marked by non-  
14 linearity and evolutionary changes, constructivist resilience research focuses on the embeddedness of  
15 SES in heterogenous contexts. In naturalist resilience research resilience is defined as a system  
16 property, while in constructivist resilience research resilience is politically loaded and historically  
17 contingent. The aim of this paper is to review and structure current developments in resilience  
18 research in the field of climate change studies, in terms of the approaches, definitions, models and  
19 commitments that are typical for naturalism and constructivism; identify the key tension between  
20 naturalist and constructivist resilience research in terms of the widely discussed issue of adaptation  
21 and transformation, and discuss its implications for sustainable development; and propose a research  
22 agenda of topics distilled from the adaptation-transformation tension between naturalist and  
23 constructivist resilience research.

24

25 **Keywords:** adaptive resilience, climate change, constructivism, naturalism, SES, transformative  
26 resilience, transformational adaptation

27

28


29 **1. Introduction**

30

31 Since the publication of Crawford Stanley Holling's 'Resilience and Stability of Ecological Systems'  
32 (1973), the notion of resilience has become increasingly popular in a wide variety of scientific  
33 disciplines. Used as a concept, framework, style of thinking, metaphor or discourse, resilience appears



34 attractive as a theme for interdisciplinary research, including the bridging of the social sciences and  
35 engineering (Thorén, 2014). For resilience research, Holling’s socio-ecological systems (SES) approach  
36 has been widely adopted, and reinterpreted, as a lens that helps elucidate human-nature interactions  
37 (Ostrom, 2007). In the SES approach, which emerged in the 1970s, societies are thought to exist in  
38 continuous interaction with their surrounding natural, political, social, cultural, economic and  
39 technological environments. Hence, climate change is not merely ecological change, but is first of all a  
40 reformation of established modes of thought (including conceptualizations of ‘nature’ and ‘society’),  
41 of lifestyles and consumer habits, of production patterns, of health issues, of law, economy, science,  
42 technology, governance and politics (the typical research topics for the social sciences) (cf. Douglous  
43 & Wildavsky, 1983; Blühdorn, 2013; Fischer, 2017; Dryzek & Pickering, 2019). The SES approach is  
44 adopted by the Resilience Alliance, whose flagship journal, *Ecology and Society* (established in 1995),  
45 provides a platform for SES-based resilience research. The SES approach has not only been popularized  
46 but also recast and incorporated in other theoretical approaches. In fact, in resilience research, SES is  
47 typically redefined as complex systems, that is, it is incorporated in the context of the complexity  
48 theory approach. nce its development in the 1940s, complexity theory has been a widely adopted  
49 theoretical approach in the naturalist social sciences.

50 Since the Tsunami in 2004, Katrina (2005), the global economic crisis (2007-2008), Fukushima  
51 Daiichi (2011) d recent El Niño events, and increased urgencies of the climate crisis (and calls for  
52 climate action), the political, social, cultural, economic, scientific and technological contexts in which  
53 resilience research takes place have changed (Pizzo, 2015). Such climate disasters and crises have  
54 revealed that vulnerability is not a function solely of exposure to natural hazards, but it is a function of  
55 multiple dimensions of social, cultural, political and economic disadvantage (Tierney, 2015; Lockie,  
56 2016). Since 2010, global governance actors and national and local governments – including the  
57 Rockefeller Foundation’s 100 resilient cities program – have developed resilience discourses in which  
58 relationships between governments, citizens and denizens are being ideologically reconfigured. Such  
59 policy discourses of bouncing back after crises and catastrophes have triggered new resilience



60 practices, such ‘resilience humanitarianism’ based on the idea of crisis as a new normality (Hilhorst  
61 2018). These policy discourses and practices have ignited new resilience research, new outlets (such  
62 as the interdisciplinary journal *Resilience* (established in 2013)), and the establishment of resilience  
63 research programs in universities around the world. With the increased scientific interest in resilience  
64 topics, scientific approaches to resilience rapidly diversify. Many publications of the past decade  
65 address the development of different definitions and understandings of resilience. Resilience research  
66 is no longer primarily naturalist. The naturalist approach to resilience is now balanced by constructivist  
67 scientific approaches that enrich resilience research. This is particularly so in the field of anthropogenic  
68 climate change, where fundamental changes in the governance of the earth system are urgently  
69 required, if extreme catastrophes and associated suffering and oppression are to be avoided (Redman,  
70 2014; Yanarella & Levine, 2014; Lockie, 2016; Dryzek & Pickering, 2019).

71 **The aim of this paper is to retrace the current directions of naturalist and constructivist**  
72 **resilience research – and thereby order contemporary debates in a diversified and rapidly changing**  
73 **field of resilience research –, ultimately to identify upcoming research themes for the coming years.**

74 **First,** current scientific approaches in resilience research are reconstructed in terms of the differences  
75 between naturalist and constructivist resilience research in the social sciences. While naturalist  
76 resilience research typically defines resilience to climate change as a physical property (like atoms,  
77 mass, molecules, cells, DNA, etc.) of complex systems, constructivist resilience research defines  
78 resilience as a political phenomenon that is historically embedded in a changing social, cultural,  
79 political, economic, scientific, technological environment. Naturalism and constructivism are  
80 presented as two scientific approaches with different epistemological and ontological assumptions,  
81 that, to advance resilience research to a next level, need to be bridged. **Second,** contemporary key  
82 issues of debate in naturalist and constructivist resilience research are identified. **Ultimately,** naturalist  
83 and constructivist resilience research clashes on the issue of system adaptation and transformation in  
84 a context of severe disturbances or shocks that come with climate change, such as hurricanes, floods,  
85 drought and heatwaves. **The** tension between adaptation and transformation has, amongst other



86 things, implications for social scientific enquiry into the sustainable energy transformation, the  
87 relationship of resilience research to sustainability discourses, and the response of resilience research  
88 to new political and technological circumstances. **Third**, naturalist and constructivist directions for  
89 future resilience research are identified, including the bridging of naturalist and constructivist  
90 resilience research, with an emphasis on the likely impact of changing conditions – particularly in  
91 ecological, political and technological dimensions – on the questioning, theorizing, and modes of  
92 analysis in resilience research.

93

94

## 95 **2. The diversification of resilience research**

96

97 It has been widely noticed that resilience is a concept with various meanings. Resilience is a topic that,  
98 in European literature, is first encountered in one of Aesop's fables, with a tree bending to a strong  
99 wind and is thereby left unharmed. As an English word, resilience derives from Latin (*resilire*), which  
100 means rebounding. This Latin word can be found in Lucretius' *On the Nature of Things* and Cicero's  
101 *Orations* (Alexander, 2013; Pizzo, 2015). Up to the early nineteenth century, this is the predominant  
102 understanding of resilience in common language, until engineers come to employ the term to describe  
103 properties of materials and the capacity of materials to absorb stresses and release energy, and  
104 recover their original form, without breaking or disfiguring, after undergoing some external shock or  
105 disturbance, such as an extreme weather event (Estêvão, Calado & Capucha, 2017; Bergström, 2018;  
106 Davoudi, 2018). In the 1950s, psychologists turn to resilience to analyze the coping mechanisms of  
107 concentration camp survivors; later, the concept is used to study all sorts of trauma, misfortune,  
108 adversity, stress and mental recovery (Bourbeau, 2015; Estêvão, Calado & Capucha, 2017; Bergström,  
109 2018; Schwartz, 2018). In the 1970s, the ecologist C.S. Holling (1973: 14) redefines resilience as 'a  
110 measure of the persistence of systems and their ability to absorb change and disturbance.' Holling



111 incorporates resilience in a socio-ecological systems (SES) approach to analyze the stability of  
112 ecological assemblages as conditioned by, and conditioning, societies. Hence, in Holling's work,  
113 resilience has a relational and systemic focus in scientific enquiries into how nature and society interact  
114 – a line of enquiry that brings the social sciences, the natural sciences and engineering together in an  
115 overarching SES framework (Alexander, 2013; Bergström, 2018; Béné et al, 2018; Hoekstra,  
116 Bredenhoff-Bijlsma & Krol, 2018). One could say today that a ubiquitous concept like resilience  
117 expresses a 'governmental philosophy of nature and society' (Walker & Cooper, 2011: 145), the ability  
118 par excellence to survive conflict and crisis.

119 In the social sciences, resilience research that has emerged from Holling's SES approach has  
120 developed in two contrasting directions. In resilience research, resilience to climate change can mean  
121 many different things – including a concept, metaphor, ideology, governing rationality, policy, etc.  
122 (Anderson, 2015) –, yet, the particular meaning of resilience that is enacted in resilience research is  
123 typically either naturalist or constructivist. Naturalism is a type of science that seeks to explain the  
124 world in the manner of the natural sciences, with the world being modelled as consisting of physical  
125 properties (Aiken, 2006; Floridi, 2017). Resilience is likewise defined as one of the system properties  
126 (Hoekstra, Bredenhoff-Bijlsma & Krol, 2018). In naturalist research, resilience is defined as a system  
127 property: resilience is an essential measure of the dynamic equilibrium or survivability of a socio-  
128 ecological system. By contrast, constructivism is a type of science that denaturalizes and historicizes,  
129 in the sense that it defines phenomena like resilience as a historically contingent social construct. It is  
130 focused on heterogenous contexts of natural and social science itself – contexts marked by diversity  
131 of (contested) knowledges, values, practices and meanings. It is more critical and politically sensitive.  
132 It typically expresses concern for issues of equity, domination, 'climate change gentrification' and  
133 'climate apartheid' in resilience research. Its key concern and research focus is typically environmental  
134 and climate justice, which refer to (un)equal distribution of environmental burdens, struggles for  
135 recognition, claims to participation, and unequal impacts of anthropogenic climate change (Braun,  
136 2014; Yanarella & Levine, 2014; Skillington, 2015; Sjöstedt, 2015; Weichselgartner & Kelman, 2015;



137 Pizzo, 2015; Lockie, 2016; Derickson, 2016; Lyster, 2017; Schlosberg, Collins & Niemeyer, 2017;  
138 Mummery & Mummery, 2019). Duffield (2016), for instance, refers to digital humanitarianism as a  
139 'resilience of ruins'. Davoudi (2018: 5) introduces the notion of 'unjust resilience' (marked by the  
140 systematic neglect of marginalized people). And Glaser et al (2018: 3) refer to 'undesirable resilience',  
141 'bad resilience' and 'wicked resilience'.

142

### 143 **2.1. The naturalist view on resilience**

144

145 Naturalist social research, which has its origins in the logical positivism of the Vienna Circle of  
146 the 1920s and 1930s, mainly developed in the context of the Cold War, with the development of  
147 cybernetics, computational power and automation (and automated decision making) (Simbirski, 2006;  
148 Floridi, 2017; 2018; Davoudi, 2018). Naturalist social studies are based on the cybernetic idea that  
149 machines, organisms and societies show considerable similarity in structure and function; and can be  
150 described in terms of (the metaphor of) systems. Since the 1940s, such studies have typically adopted  
151 complexity theory as their distinctive overarching theoretical outlook, within which other theories (for  
152 instance, on behavioral change, decision making under risk, or social institutions) are incorporated. In  
153 complexity theory, ecology and society are modelled as complex, non-linear, evolutionary systems.  
154 Such systems are composed of many components (properties, agents, resources, governance  
155 systems). And these components interact with each other, in response to ever-changing environments  
156 (Walsh-Dilley & Wolford, 2015; Juncos, 2017; 2018). Hence, resilience to climate change is a matter of  
157 evolution: in naturalist social science resilience is presented as 'evolutionary resilience' (Pizzo, 2015:  
158 137; Davoudi, 2018: 4). When this type of science comes to embrace Holling's SES approach in the  
159 1970s, it incorporates the notion of resilience within the context of its complexity theoretic orientation  
160 (Wiese, 2016; Bergström, 2018). The ability to cope with uncertainty and complexity is found in the  
161 capacities and relations between multiple agents that are able to interact and self-organize, learn and



162 adapt (in an incremental or transformative way) making the system flexible in absorbing shocks and  
163 developing in face of changes (Jesse, Heinrichs & Kuchshinrichs, 2019).

164           Since the 1970s, when it emerged from mathematical sociology, agent-based modelling (ABM)  
165 is a much endorsed tool used in complexity-theoretic research for analyzing complex, non-linear  
166 interactions of autonomous yet interconnected (social and ecological) properties (Conte & Paolucci,  
167 2014). ABM is a computational mode of analysis that simulates an artificial society of diverse agents –  
168 households, farmers, organizations, governments – making decisions, interact and learn in their ever-  
169 changing environment, according to programmable rules (Farmer & Foley, 2009). In naturalist  
170 resilience research, ABM is widely used for analyzing the interdependencies between agents, the  
171 nonlinear interactions between agents, and the emergent adaptive behavior that arises from these  
172 interactions (Hawes & Reed, 2006; Van Duinen et al, 2015; Martin & Schlüter, 2015; Sun, Stojadinovic  
173 & Sansavini, 2019). ABM computes, in probabilistic terms, the recovery process of complex non-linear  
174 systems under stress and tracks the emergence of new states (Filatova, Polhill & Van Ewijk, 2016).  
175 Resilience could be calculated at the system level as a system property using standard the resilience  
176 metrics (Pumpuni-Lenss, Blackburn & Garstenauer, 2017). Since ABM traces feedbacks between micro-  
177 macro scale explicitly, one could also estimate resilience of individual agents, communities or  
178 (sub)groups of agents.

179

180

## 181           **2.2 The constructivist view on resilience**

182

183           In constructivist social science, also inspired by Holling’s approach, resilience to climate change  
184 presents itself as an object of scientific inquiry or guiding concept rather than as a system property  
185 (Walsh-Dilley & Wolford, 2015; Weichselgartner & Kelman, 2015; Kythreotis & Bristow, 2017). In  
186 constructivist resilience research, resilience is not researched within the framework of complexity  
187 theory. Instead, resilience, defined as a social construct, is studied from a variety of theoretical angles








188 involving a variety of (typically phenomenological and discursive) ideational orientations.  
189 Constructivist resilience research focuses on the political context of resilience discourses, emphasizing  
190 that resilience to climate change is not so much technical as political and administrative in nature  
191 Alexander, 2013; Bourbeau, 2015; Boas & Rothe, 2016; Juncos, 2018; Wessel, 2019). Resilience is  
192 typically presented as a neoliberal construct of governments that fail to address the challenges that  
193 come with anthropogenic climate change and seek to shift responsibility (for pollution, safety, welfare,  
194 health, etc.) to individuals, limit legal entitlements (including human rights), and make individuals more  
195 self-reliant in coping with their own struggles in a market-dominated world (Braun, 2014; Pizzo, 2015;  
196 Tierney, 2015; Howell, 2015; Anderson, 2015; Ksenia et al, 2016; Schwartz, 2018; Davoudi, 2018). For  
197 instance, governments that fail to provide basic access to water to millions of rural citizens advocate  
198 for community-based water management schemes, the leading paradigm for rural water access in East  
199 Africa. Such schemes ‘work’ for the state (and donors) as a means of shifting (or offloading)  
200 responsibility for public service provision to the most vulnerable citizens for whom community  
201 management may not be a preferred option (Katomero & Georgiadou, 2018). From a critical  
202 constructivist viewpoint (typically inspired by the works of Michel Foucault), resilience as neoliberal  
203 discourse is analyzed as a phenomenon that reproduces power imbalances, domination, lawlessness,  
204 inadequate public services, and injustice. Evans and Reid (2013) accuse the perspective of resilience of  
205 the character of a doctrine, according to which the resilient subject must constantly adapt to a  
206 dangerous and changing world and is willing to accept this. Ecological and societal catastrophes like  
207 Katrina (2005) and Fukushima (2011) manifest such neo-liberalized resilience that is divorced from  
208 concerns of justice (Fainstein, 2014; Tierney, 2015; Ribault, 2019). Such costly catastrophes present  
209 themselves as ‘anthropological shocks’ (Beck (2015: 80), in the sense that they open up a new  
210 consciousness (Fazey et al, 2018). Katrina, for instance, is not only an ecological, economic and deadly  
211 disaster, but it is also a ‘racial flood’ that brings back colonial patterns of racism, slavery, vulnerability  
212 and abandonment; and it is an initiator of policy transformation.



213 Resilience to climate change is addressed in constructivist research as a problematic of  
214 governing (policy-making, regulating, administering, etc.) in a complex world that is marked by unequal  
215 power relationships and their neoliberal repercussions.  the past few years, various scholars have  
216 moved beyond the idea that resilience is a neoliberal construct marked. Chandler (2014), for instance,  
217 argues that resilience can be understood as a post-neoliberal construct. In resilience discourses, the  
218 art of governing is fundamentally reframed in recognition of the self-organization of systems –  
219 capacities of everyday democracy that are embedded in the relational, creative, reflexive and  
220 transformative capacities of stakeholders (Chandler, 2014; Boas & Rothe, 2016). In such self-  
221 organization, myth-making is key in constructing resilience, in the sense that a widely embraced  
222 narrative connects diverging ideologies, values, interests, worldviews and power relations. Resilience  
223 is one of those myths. The ‘myth of resilience’ (Kuhlicke, 2013) refers to the stories that stakeholders  
224 enact to make sense of the radically surprising discovery of something entirely unknown. As narrators,  
225 stakeholders interpret their own capacities to deal with stresses and shocks, such as extreme weather  
226 events in the form of floods, droughts and heatwaves. In many regions, these events occur with  
227 increasing frequency and intensity, exposing the stakeholders to unprecedented risks and  
228 uncertainties. It is in this context of sense-making process that stakeholders develop the capacity to  
229 adapt and transform. In other words, constructing resilience to climate change, as a form of self-  
230 organization, comes with myth-making, storytelling and narratives that unify diverse stakeholders. For  
231 instance, the increasing attention on “urban climate resilience” (Tyler and Moensch, 2012) resonates  
232 with the narrative that cities, or ‘local governments’, are to lead and shape climate change adaptation.  
233 This narrative and the associated process is conceptualized as ‘responsibilization’, the increasing legal  
234 and financial responsibility of local government, private companies and individual citizens in climate  
235 change adaptation (O’Hare et al., 2016; Klein et al., 2017).

236

237 3. Bridging the naturalist and constructivist view on resilience

238



239           Given the two scientific approaches in resilience research, each based on contrasting premises,  
240 it has been widely questioned whether resilience can possibly operate as a theoretical model or  
241 unifying paradigm – and whether such a unifying paradigm would be desirable in the first place  
242 (Alexander, 2013; Thorén, 2014; Bourbeau, 2015; Fainstein, 2015; Pizzo, 2015). Although a unifying  
243 paradigm is neither possible nor desirable, naturalist and constructivist research approaches must be  
244 bridged to enrich and renew our understandings of resilience – an enrichment and renewal of  
245 resilience research that is much-needed for responding to the ecological and societal challenges of  
246 anthropogenic climate change. Naturalist resilience research has the great merit that it may help to  
247 increase complex system’s robustness to system failure when faced with shocks and disturbances.  
248 ABM may be a valuable tool for developing procedural stability, environmental risk management under  
249 conditions of uncertainty, provision of planning security, and prevention of adverse consequences  
250 from disruptive shocks (Schilling, Wyss & Binder, 2018). Constructivist resilience research has the great  
251 merit of providing a critical and most penetrating understanding of resilience as a political  
252 phenomenon that contains political intention and direction. Its interpretation of resilience to climate  
253 change as a social (political, ideological, mythical, discursive) construct is useful for generating  
254 understanding of how resilience is mobilized, taken up in climate governance, and resisted by social  
255 movements, such as the Fridays for Future and Extinction Rebellion, that push for less unsustainable  
256 trajectories.

257

258

### 259 **3.1 The debate on adaptive and transformative resilience**

260

261 In recent years, the dialectic between naturalism and constructivism in resilience research has come  
262 to revolve around the issue of adaptation and transformation (Chandler, 2014; Redman, 2014;  
263 Fainstein, 2014; Dahlberg et al, 2015; Sjöstedt, 2015; Boas & Rothe, 2016; Duit, 2016; Clément &  
264 Rivera, 2017; Lyster, 2017; Schlosberg, Collins & Niemeyer, 2017; Fazey et al, 2018; Glaser et al, 2018;



265 Hoekstra, Bredenhoff-Bijlsma & Krol, 2018; Jesse, Heinrichs & Kuchshinrichs, 2019; Dryzek & Pickering,  
266 2019). It is an urgent issue that emerges from an ambiguity in Holling's SES approach (Redman, 2014).  
267 In the 1970s, Holling (1973) reinterprets resilience as bouncing back in terms of SES adaptation. SES  
268 adaptation refers, on the one hand, to the capacity of agents to influence the socio-ecological system  
269 (and influence or strengthen resilience as a system property). And on the other hand, it alludes to  
270 adaptation to new (ecological and social) environments, as an evolutionary process (Boyd et al, 2015).  
271 Naturalist social science typically focusses on the constant refinement of simulation tools (that can  
272 cope with radical complexity, uncertainty and multiplicity of agents) and techniques of administrative  
273 regulation in favour of adaptation as evolutionary resilience (cf. Cote & Nightingale, 2012; Patriarca et  
274 al, 2018). Yet, the bouncing back of SES not only refers to a return to some previous (dynamic)  
275 equilibrium or to the persistence and endurance of systems. It also refers to socio-ecological  
276 transformation in an ongoing process of non-equilibrium and instability and reinvention in changing  
277 environments (Folke, 2006). Transformation refers to the capacity of agents to create a new system,  
278 particularly when conditions make the existing system untenable or illegitimate. Constructivist  
279 resilience research is primarily focused on transformation. Such research unsettles taken-for-granted  
280 assumptions and definitions of the situation and ignites new imaginations needed for realizing less  
281 unsustainable futures (Fazey et al, 2018). In the recent notion of 'transformational adaptations'  
282 (Mummery & Mummery, 2019: 920; Pelling, O'Brien & Matyas, 2015), adaptation and transformation  
283 are reconciled. Transformational adaptations refer to changes that are aligned to the scale of  
284 projected, possible and desirable changes that are informed by (ultimately constructivist)  
285 considerations of environmental and climate justice.

286         The naturalist emphasis on resilience to climate change as system adaptation to climate  
287 change means that resilience research focusses on the degree to which systems can build capacity for  
288 learning, as a way to respond to shocks or disturbances, embrace evolutionary change, and live with  
289 complexity and uncertainty (Thorén, 2014; Juncos, 2017; Warmink et al, 2017; Béné et al, 2018).  
290 Warmink et al (2017) point out that in Dutch river management, uncertainty analysis typically



291 complicates decision making, with typical adaptation responses being conservative and within safety  
292 margins. This leads to over-dimensioning and high costs of water engineering works (like flood  
293 defences). Given unpredictability and uncontrollability, adaptive resilience comes with short-term  
294 planning, uncertainty reductions, incremental and path-dependent changes (Borsje et al, 2011;  
295 Haasnoot et al, 2013). Adaptive resilience – the system’s re-stabilizer – is taken as inherently positive,  
296 while disturbances and shocks (de-stabilizers) are taken as negative (Duit, 2016; Lockie, 2016). As a  
297 consequence of the near flood events of 1993 and 1995 along the river Rhine in the Netherlands, the  
298 Dutch government responded by increasing the flood conveyance capacity of the large rivers, thereby  
299 decreasing flood water levels (Hamers et al, 2015). Since its completion in 2015, the Room for the River  
300 project is considered effective thus far, particularly as its secondary objective to increase ecosystem  
301 values in the river appears successful.

302           It is on the basis of the premise that adaptive resilience is good that naturalist resilience  
303 research ties up with climate risk management, as a way of managing ecosystem services (critical for  
304 survival), under conditions of ecological and societal shocks and disturbances (Boyd et al, 2015; Berbés-  
305 Blázquez et al, 2017). The constructivist emphasis on resilience to climate change as system  
306 transformation refers to the emergent transformation of systems into something new (Rothe, 2017;  
307 Béné et al, 2018). Transformative resilience is typically defined as the system’s internal capacities,  
308 capabilities and relations that enables it to create a new condition in which responsibilities may be  
309 shifted. Flood protection, for instance, is typically a governmental responsibility, but with new  
310 storytelling stakeholders can transform an established situation and realize alternative scenario’s in  
311 which responsibilities may be distributed among different stakeholders (Warmink et al., 2017).  
312 Adaptive resilience comes with evolutionary change (the definition of change that naturalist research  
313 typically endorses), whereas transformative resilience comes with ‘metamorphosis’, that is, a  
314 transfiguration of culture that is triggered by the shocks and disturbances that come with radical  
315 newness and reinventions, reassessments and rediscoveries (Beck, 2015; Fazey et al, 2018).  
316 Transformational adaptation bridges evolutionary change and metamorphosis, in the sense that such



317 adaptation attends to broader socio-political processes of transformation. The argument for  
318 transformational adaptation is that the ecological and societal challenges of climate change are  
319 unprecedented in scale and intensity and come with new risks and locations of activities (Kates, Travis  
320 & Wilbanks, 2012). The notion of transformational adaptation picks up on and challenges the  
321 transformative logic of system transfiguration with simultaneous system adaptation, based on  
322 uncertainty regarding how fast and how far disruptions will go – or whether sustainable  
323 transformations will thrive as political projects at all.

324         Although constructivist social science manifests a higher degree of sensitivity to issues of  
325 environmental and climate justice in a current oppressive situation that is marked by high degrees of  
326 injustice, naturalist resilience research does not exclude considerations of justice. On the contrary,  
327 enhancing adaptive resilience to climate change may entail liberal principles of equity, fairness and  
328 access to resources and services, so as not to privilege or marginalize certain stakeholders (Redman,  
329 2014; Thorén, 2014; Ksenia et al, 2016; Schlosberg, Collins & Niemeyer, 2017; Bergström, 2018). Yet,  
330 naturalist enquiry into adaptive resilience leaves the status quo of systems, including the problematic  
331 Global North-Global South relationship (marked by massive power inequality), typically unquestioned.  
332 It tends to treat adaptive resilience as a technical property that is devoid of political and moral  
333 substance (Swyngedouw, 2011; Pizzo, 2015; Clément & Rivera, 2017; Davoudi, 2018; Glaser et al, 2018;  
334 Dryzek & Pickering, 2019). In constructivist resilience research the justice question is placed in a  
335 context of broader socio-political processes of transformation: adaptive systems can be unjust and  
336 oppressive (Fainstein, 2014; Weichselgartner and Kelman, 2015; Huang, Boranbay-Akan and Huang,  
337 2016; McGreavy, 2016; Ribault, 2019). Short-term, incremental, adaptive response to shocks and  
338 disturbances may blur long term sustainability vision, while dominant (or dominating) stakeholders  
339 typically reify existing climate policy efforts in their (standardized) adaptive responses (Lockie, 2016;  
340 Derickson, 2016; Rothe, 2017; Estêvão, Calado and Capucha, 2017; Ribault, 2019). Kythreotis & Bristow  
341 (2017) call this phenomenon the 'resilience trap' reinforcement of established power relations  
342 and contemporary resilience discourse (Hindorn, 2013; Redman, 2014; Yanarella & Levine, 2014;



343 Lockie, 2016; VanderPlaat, 2016; Schilling, Wyss & Binder, 2018; Glaser et al, 2018; Ribault, 2019).  
344 Transformational adaptation, accordingly, must include a process of filtering out resilience traps that  
345 come with adaptive resilience. Transformational adaptation includes the constructivist understanding  
346 that adaptive resilience to climate change may well enforce a governance of unsustainability (cf. Van  
347 de Ven, 2017).

348

349

### 350 **3.2 Transformative resilience and sustainability**

351

352 In constructivist resilience research, the notion of sustainability is transformative. Sustainability is  
353 based on the idea that existing systems can be transformed – with respect to social, cultural, political,  
354 administrative, economic, technological and environmental factors –, with the right governance  
355 interventions and reconfigurations of the ecological and social underpinnings of SES (Pizzo, 2015;  
356 Weichselgartner & Kelman, 2015; VanderPlaat, 2016; Hughes, 2017; Jesse, Heinrichs & Kuchshinrichs,  
357 2019). Currently, the sustainable energy transformation is no doubt the best example of such a  
358 reconfiguration (Park et al, 2012; De Haan & Rotmans, 2018). Fossil energy sources like coal, oil and  
359 gas are largely responsible for carbon dioxide emissions, which generate global warming. The  
360 sustainable energy transformation, accordingly, is, amongst other things, a response to climate  
361 change. From the (typically naturalist) perspective of strengthening ‘energy resilience’ (Béné et al,  
362 2018: 120; Jesse, Heinrichs & Kuchshinrichs, 2019: 21) – energy systems must adapt to changing  
363 environments in which high levels of greenhouse gas emissions comes from burning fossil fuels for  
364 electricity, heat and transportation. Energy resilience means that energy systems can limit the risk of  
365 power outage and continue providing reliable energy supplies at stable costs, even in a turbulent  
366 ecological and political environment (Wiese, 2016). The notion of energy resilience, as a form of  
367 adaptive resilience to climate change, implies that the energy transition, including the use of  
368 renewables, can only go via incremental changes, to avoid system collapse (Berbés-Blázquez et al,



369 2017; Schilling, Wyss & Binder, 2018). Transformational adaptation includes this notion of energy  
370 resilience, but aligns it to the scale of desirable ecological and societal changes that are informed by  
371 justice considerations and political direction towards less unsustainable futures.

372 From the (typically constructivist) perspective of strengthening transformative resilience,  
373 energy resilience comes with the enactment of an energy political status quo. This is a status quo that  
374 includes powerful agents that have a vested interest in promoting fossil energy – and it uses all sorts  
375 of tactics (including sponsoring the climate change denial movement) – to secure its power position  
376 (Stegemann & Ossewaarde, 2018; Szablowski & Campbell, 2019). It is an energy political constellation  
377 that enacts a condition of ‘energy injustice’, particularly in the Global South. The notion of energy  
378 injustice refers to current energy systems that distribute the ecological and economic benefits and  
379 burdens of energy systems in unfair ways; dominate, degrade and devalue certain stakeholders; and  
380 exclude certain agents from processes that govern the benefits, burdens and recognitions (Jenkins et  
381 al, 2016; Heffron & McCauley, 2017). The transformative resilience of energy systems, which is tied  
382 up with the notion of ‘energy justice’, refers to agents’ negation of a fossil-based energy system and  
383 its oligarchical power structure; and the creation of a renewable-based system, energy commons and  
384 collaboratives beyond the energy establishment (Acosta et al, 2018; Jesse, Heinrichs & Kuchshinrichs,  
385 2019). In other words, the sustainable energy transformation comes with transformative resilience  
386 and energy justice that typically assumes the form of resistance to the most hegemonic powers  
387 (VanderPlaat, 2016; Bourbeau & Ryan, 2018; Juncos, 2018; Schwartz, 2018). Transformational  
388 adaptation includes the long-term vision of energy governance, but it searches for realizing such  
389 transformation through adaptations by the status quo. Transformational adaptation means that the  
390 sustainable energy transformation comes with the change of the energy establishment into agents of  
391 sustainability – a change that comes from within the power complex, for instance, via stakeholder  
392 participation.

393 Adaptive resilience to climate change comes with short-term systematic adjustments to a  
394 changing technological environment that is currently increasingly dominated by smart urbanism and





395 artificial intelligence (AI) technologies. Such technologies reshape systems and their ecological and  
396 societal environments (cf. Taddeo & Floridi, 2018). Particularly in naturalist resilience research, AI is  
397 identified as a new systems property that permeates systems to generate productivity gains, improve  
398 efficiency, lower costs, predict climate change stress, track carbon emissions, monitor flood risks, etc.  
399 (Rajan & Saffiotti, 2017; Khakurel et al, 2018; Vahedifard, et al, 2019; Miller, 2019; Saravi et al, 2019).  
400 Strengthening adaptive resilience to climate change through AI primarily means that an integrated  
401 data system for circulating information among agents needs to be developed. In an AI technological  
402 environment, resilience implies close collaboration between agents (data stakeholders, community-  
403 level stakeholders, state-level institutions, etc.) (Vahedifard, et al, 2019). AI comes in both for  
404 converting datasets into usable information and as a monitoring method (like change detection  
405 algorithms). Identifying, harnessing, synthesizing, and communicating pertinent yet unstructured data  
406 (weather data, cell phone GPS data, social media feeds, traffic cameras, smart city sensors, images,  
407 videos, audio data, etc.) enables agents to better forecast, prepare for, respond to, and recover from  
408 disturbances and shocks (Rajan & Saffiotti, 2017; Vahedifard et al, 2019). By being able to predict  
409 (estimate or forecast) more accurately and learn from past disturbances and shocks, lessons can be  
410 learned and applied in building adaptive resilience against disturbances (Saravi et al, 2019). AI  
411 quantifies the probabilities of occurrence of extreme events, essential in predicting and preparing for  
412 future natural hazards, such as floods. For instance, with advances in machine learning, water  
413 availability, ice surfaces and melting rates, pollution, deforestation, etc. can be more precisely or  
414 smartly monitored so that changes over time can be tracked. Yet, with monitoring also learning of  
415 agents and organizations is needed.

416 More specifically, strengthened adaptive resilience typically weakens the transformative  
417 resilience that is needed for materializing sustainable transformations (Khakurel et al, 2018).  
418 In constructivist resilience research, it is typically emphasized that AI, like resilience, not only has a  
419 positive impact on sustainable trajectories, but also enacts resilience traps (typically via adapting and  
420 rebadging existing short-term strategies) and enforces injustice and unsustainability (for instance, via



421 massive energy usage and the production of electronic waste). Big data and AI are typically in the hands  
422 of giant tech oligarchs like Google, Amazon, Apple, Microsoft, Facebook and Chinese forces (Miller,  
423 2019), that, like the oil barons, are established powers that have a vested interest in the further  
424 acceleration and consumption of technological devices (Khakurel et al, 2018). Given such an  
425 oligarchical power structure, AI typically tends to obstruct transformative resilience, exerting power  
426 beyond rule of law and democratic will and understanding (as found in the many recent privacy rights  
427 violations, scandals (like the Facebook-Cambridge Analytica data scandal (2018), the many Google  
428 scandals, etc.), and mistrust of new technologies). Given such problematic power structures, AI  
429 thereby weakens transformative resilience (cf. Taddeo & Floridi, 2018). In other words, from the critical  
430 angle of constructivist resilience research, AI typically comes with unjust resilience and tends to close  
431 down alternative futures. Transformative resilience to climate change, accordingly, comes with  
432 resistance to big tech firms and their handling of data and digital surveillance and domination of  
433 vulnerable people. Reconciling adaptive and transformative resilience – in the form transformational  
434 adaptation – comes with the change of big tech firms from within the oligarchical complex, with AI  
435 redesigned and politically (democratically or technocratically) controlled for the making of less  
436 unsustainable futures.

437

438

#### 439 4. Six upcoming themes in diversified resilience research

440

441 The diversification of resilience research and the tension between, and the reconciliation of,  
442 naturalism and construction in theorizing (and, in their practical implications, pushing for) change as  
443 adaptation, transformation or transformational adaptation triggers new research themes for the study  
444 of anthropogenic climate change. Theorizing change has become the key issue in resilience research,  
445 in the wake of changing political, ecological and technological environments. In naturalist research,  
446 resilience to climate change is presented as ‘evolutionary resilience’ and as ‘adaptive resilience’, with



447 the key issue of changing environments being the survivability of complex systems under stress.  
448 Change is, accordingly, evolutionary change. In constructivist research, resilience to climate change is  
449 presented as mythical (the ‘myth of resilience’) and as transformative resilience, with the key issue of  
450 change being the overcoming of ‘resilience to change’, ‘resilience traps’ and ‘unjust resilience’ or ‘bad  
451 resilience’. Such overcoming is presented as an indispensable condition for enhancing change. Such  
452 change refers to metamorphosis and comes with transformative politics and governance. The  
453 reconciliation of naturalism and constructivism in terms of change can be found in the notion of  
454 transformational adaptation, which ties incrementalism to long term sustainability visions. It is a  
455 notion that comes with the search for the conditions and tempo of transformations in different  
456 ecological and societal contexts. Ultimately, the overarching challenge for future research is to ensure  
457 that resilience to climate change does not compromise sustainability and considerations of justice.

458         A first promising direction for future resilience research that emerges from the diversification  
459 of resilience research concerns the reconciliation of naturalism and constructivism. Resilience cannot  
460 operate as a theoretical model or unifying paradigm, given that naturalism and constructivism are  
461 grounded in contrasting epistemological and ontological assumptions; and reflect contrasting scientific  
462 universes and manifest different scientific and political commitments (Mummery & Mummery, 2019).  
463 Yet, as a metaphor resilience provides a sound basis for reconciling types of science, mainly because  
464 of its heterogeneity and high level of abstraction (Thorén, 2014). Intellectually, the reconciling of  
465 naturalism and constructivism implies an appreciation of diverse scientific vocabularies, many visions  
466 of what counts as scientific knowledge, other sciences’ scientific worlds, a certain embracing (which  
467 includes making manifest) of the tensions between the contrasting types of science, and creating  
468 spaces for constructive contestation (Pfeffer & Georgiadou, 2019). Thereby, new resilience  
469 perspectives may develop. New questions may be posed (or new answers to long-standing questions  
470 may be provided). The resilience trap – typically marked by the promotion of adaptive strategies that  
471 reify responses and corresponding power structures in the short-term – may be avoided (via  
472 challenging current assumptions underpinning resilience research). Current adaptation and



473 transformation and transformational adaptation approaches may be further refined. And much-  
474 needed new ways of scientific thinking and possibilities may be opened up in resilience research,  
475 beyond old conceptualizations and modes of analyses (cf. Fazey et al, 2018). These developments ask  
476 for new collaboration frameworks and platforms that empower all types of stakeholders to bring both  
477 their resilience research questions and their assets to the table to collectively explore and define  
478 potential futures from the perspective of all present world views.

479 A second theme for future resilience research comes with a change in political environment,  
480 in which the legitimacy of adaptive, transformative and transformational adaptive responses to climate  
481 change is constantly contested. Anthropogenic climate change comes with a political-administrative  
482 crisis, which manifests itself in the form of a legitimacy crisis, authority crisis (including the crisis of  
483 scientific authority), crisis of democracy, a crisis of human rights, a crisis of modernity (Swyngedouw,  
484 2011; Blühdorn, 2013; Fischer, 2017; Ossewaarde, 2018; Stegemann & Ossewaarde, 2018; Dryzek &  
485 Pickering, 2019). Crisis has been widely constructed as the new normal (Hilhorst, 2018). In an  
486 increasingly toxic political environment – marked by climate change denial, anti-immigration policies,  
487 and nationalist protectionism – adaptive and transformative resilience and transformational  
488 adaptation may be expressed and contested in manifold ways. For instance, on the one hand,  
489 environmental protest movements are stakeholders that develop a leverage required to change  
490 established systems (such as energy systems) and their governance arrangements, while on the other  
491 hand agents who gain power by such arrangements typically use tactics of repression and  
492 criminalization, particularly in the extractive sectors of the Global South (Szablowski & Campbell,  
493 2019). New research questions emerge on the one hand from polarization and the exercise of  
494 (il)legitimate power in the governing of and for resilience to climate change. This is the question of  
495 how the adaptation and reconfiguration of systems under pressures of climate change comes with  
496 power inequalities, polarization, battle for resources, democratic deficits and post-democratic  
497 tendencies, climate change denial tactics, attacks on legal rights, climate injustice, and the resilient  
498 governance of unsustainability. To put it in more positive terms, urgent questions concern the



499 meanings of transformation, the theorization of transformation in terms of just resilience, the linkage  
500 of resilience to desirable futures, the development of a transformation agenda in participative,  
501 proactive and deliberative ways, and the comparison of different administrative capacities and new  
502 governance arrangements that explain differences in system adaptation and reconfiguration (cf.  
503 Blühdorn, 2013; Fischer, 2017; Davoudi, 2018; Köhler et al, 2019; Mummery & Mummery, 2019).

504           A third promising topic for future resilience research concerns the relationship between  
505 adaptive resilience and transformative resilience and transformational adaptation in the reactive and  
506 proactive governance responses to anthropogenic climate (Clément & Rivera, 2017). In the coming  
507 decade, questions like how adaptive and transformative resilience to climate change is strengthened  
508 or weakened; how the current performance of systems when it comes to responding to possible  
509 disturbance (for instance, through the use of monitoring systems) can be better understood; how  
510 unjust resilience can be disabled; and how transformational adaptation manifests itself (how multiple  
511 adaptations may lead to transformational adaptation and what are the tipping points for igniting  
512 transformation), become urgent ones for resilience research (Grove & Chandler, 2017; Glaser et al,  
513 2018). The notion of ‘tentative governance’ appears particularly relevant in the context of  
514 transformational politics, when it comes to phasing out systems and weakening adaptive resilience.  
515 Tentative governance is marked by interventions that are designed as preliminary rather than as  
516 persistent, for purposes of probing and learning rather than for stipulating definite targets or fixating  
517 existing systems and their underlying assumptions (Kuhlmann, Stegmaier & Konrad, 2019). It is likely  
518 that stakeholder engagement in transformational politics and tentative governance varies, and  
519 manifests itself differently, across different policy fields. For instance, the sustainable energy  
520 transformation may include multi-layer governance challenges, many pro-active stakeholders, new  
521 investment opportunities and job opportunities. Given that multiple public and private actors are  
522 responsible for the performance of different parts of a system, tentative governance comes with  
523 transformational adaptations that must be arranged. Hence arises the question which adaptations  
524 allow for transformation? Sea level rise and the disruption and relocation of coastal cities, by contrast,



525 may trigger a more limited transformative politics, despite inevitable transfiguration of systems due to  
526 shocks and disturbances (metamorphosis). Yet, in the coming decade, transformational politics and  
527 tentative governance – including anthropogenic topics like population displacement, privatization of  
528 climate adaptation, conflict organized around scarce resources (like water resources),  
529 intergenerational environmental conflict, and the closing of old infrastructures that are too costly to  
530 maintain – becomes a more urgent research topic.

531 A fourth topic for future resilience research concerns the relationship between phasing out of  
532 unsustainable systems and societal transformations. The sustainable energy transformation is a most  
533 obvious phasing out of old systems (like coal energy systems) and change of worldviews, middle class  
534 values, lifestyles, etc. towards new energy systems, given that burning fossil fuels has such a major  
535 impact on climate change. Adaptive and transformational responses to climate change are  
536 intermingled with responses to other societal and ecological developments. Hence, a response like  
537 investment in transportation systems that aims to address increasing transportation demand must  
538 accordingly include possible climate change impacts. In the Anthropocene epoch, systems typically  
539 face pressures to change, to establish new (less unsustainable) interactions between society and  
540 ecology. Pressures on existing systems – typically those that are marked by unjust resilience and  
541 resilience traps (like established energy systems) – not only emerge from ecological adversity, over-  
542 exploitation, resource depletion, etc., but particularly from new ways of thinking, new lifestyles, new  
543 contestations (like the Fridays for Future, the Anti-Mining, the Transition Towns and Degrowth  
544 movements), etc. At the same time, anthropogenic climate change comes with the development of a  
545 multi-trillion market of the emerging climate economy, which proves new climate investment  
546 opportunities. Given such societal pressures and opportunities, new research topics include the  
547 governing and accelerating of the decline of existing systems (Stegmaier, Visser & Kuhlmann, 2014;  
548 Hoffmann, Weyer & Longen, 2017; Stegmaier, Visser & Kuhlmann, 2020); the particular circumstances  
549 in which accelerations can manifest themselves; the identification of, and coping with, uncertainties  
550 in processes of adaptation and transfiguration and transformational adaptation; and the construction



551 of new incentive structures, for accelerating sustainable transformation (cf. Clément & Rivera, 2017;  
552 Warmink et al, 2017; Köhler et al, 2019). This branch of discontinuation research assumes that socio-  
553 technical systems influence socio-ecological systems, so that some technologies threaten resilience  
554 while others enhance it (Smith & Stirling 2010). Such research informs that political objectives like  
555 drastic reduction of CO2 emissions will hardly be achieved by using single cleaner technologies alone,  
556 but structural SES transformations are needed to qualitatively alter established systems (Vögele, Kunz,  
557 Rübhelke & Stahlke 2018; Rogge & Johnston, 2017; Stegmaier 2019). One of the challenges for the  
558 coming decade is to reverse the negative image of climate change: transformational adaptation comes  
559 with stakeholders taking a pro-active view on climate change, with new opportunities emerging from  
560 responses to climate change. How can climate change be regarded as an opportunity rather than as a  
561 risk in the governance of transformational adaptation to climate change?

562 A fifth theme for future resilience research concerns the role of environmental, energy and  
563 climate justice in theorizing, modeling, interpreting and explaining resilience to climate change (cf.  
564 Skillington, 2015; Fazey et al, 2018; Mummery & Mummery, 2019). For future research, theories of  
565 environmental justice, energy justice and climate justice, that is, theoretical insights on (un)equal  
566 distribution of environmental and social burdens, struggles for recognition, claims to participation, and  
567 unequal impacts of climate change, can be conducive to helping furthering comprehension of adaptive  
568 and transformative resilience and transformational adaptation. How can justice claims be made more  
569 responsive to newly unfolding ecological and societal circumstances and uncertainties? How can  
570 principles of equity, fairness and access to resources and services be secured in a toxic political  
571 environment? And how can – in the problematic context of climate-induced migration and a political  
572 environment marked by anti-immigration policies – the wellbeing of migrants be ensured? Theories of  
573 environmental, energy and climate justice are also highly relevant for developing understanding of  
574 how adaptive and transformative resilience and transformational adaptation are perceived and  
575 experienced in everyday life by different stakeholders that face anthropogenic challenges.  
576 Constructivist enquiry into perceptions, experiences and prioritizations of resilience is a promising



577 topic for future resilience research. In this regard, insurance decisions of citizens against the risks  
578 associated with climate extremes can gain further research attention. As addressed by O'Hare et al.  
579 (2016), citizens are faced with an increasing responsibility to make decisions to 'insure' themselves  
580 and their assets against the possible damages of climate change. Such decisions can have diverse  
581 justice implications in different political and economic contexts that influence how citizens perceive,  
582 experience and prioritize climate risks. Similarly, the cross-sectional dimensions of justice, particularly  
583 gender relations, is becoming increasingly relevant and yet challenging to understand and integrate  
584 into climate justice (Terry, 2009), and energy justice (Feenstra and Özerol, 2018) frameworks. And in  
585 the Global South, addressing issues of corruption, violence, poverty and lack of access to resources  
586 (and violent battles for resources) and services (like education and sanitation), and treatment of nature  
587 as a sacred entity (rather than as an economic resource), may have a higher priority than global  
588 environmental considerations (Köhler et al, 2019).

589 A sixth theme for future resilience research comes with a changing (geo)technological  
590 environment, that is, the so-called 'AI revolution' in the making. Given worldwide investments and top-  
591 down AI strategies that global governance actors and national governments have recently published,  
592 AI will most plausibly become a major force that shapes adaptive and transformative resilience to  
593 climate change by means of monitoring and learning. A relevant example of big data is the G-Earth  
594 Engine, which opens up an unprecedented dataset of satellite images for scientific research. Such  
595 extensive datasets, marked by high temporal resolution, are essential for monitoring a changing earth  
596 system. In the past decade, resilience discourses have increasingly incorporated phenomena like big  
597 data, AI, cybersecurity and smart city; in the coming decade, resilience discourses may increasingly  
598 become technology discourses. New interplays between automation, (un)sustainability, and adapting  
599 and transforming systems trigger new questions for future resilience research (cf. Köhler et al, 2019).  
600 For instance, in the near future, not only the number of climate disasters is expected to rise but also  
601 the data – satellite data, drone data, sensor data, social media data, volunteer geographic information  
602 (VGI) data, Internet of Things data, etc. – available on such disasters is expected to increase in size,





603 amounting to vast volumes of climate disaster data. However, AI, due to the unstructured nature of  
604 input data, may omit those phenomena, places and social groups that are not present in the data  
605 (Hoefsloot et al. 2019). Alternative ways of knowing can refine or contribute complementary insights  
606 to the precise measurements and data gaps (Pfeffer and Georgiadou 2019). New research questions  
607 for naturalist and constructivist research emerge from challenges of organizing big data and how to  
608 make it available and usable, given the variety of public and private stakeholders, workflows and  
609 incentive structures involved in the (social) construction of big data (Wright, 2016). How can AI be  
610 augmented with alternative ways of knowing to strengthen adaptive/transformational resilience? How  
611 to incorporate the socio-spatial dimension in resilience research, in order to pronounce the different  
612 capabilities of different groups and places? And what role can AI play in creating a dialogue between  
613 the naturalist and constructivist resilience research? In the coming years, AI tools – mainly tracking (for  
614 instance, tracking of deforestation tracking or energy/water consumption) and machine learning  
615 techniques – are expected to be widely used, among other things, for detecting and predicting how  
616 climate disasters probably develop, for locating areas or communities at risk, for analyzing the  
617 consequences of climate disasters, and for assisting in climate disaster responses. Working with AI for  
618 purposes of learning from data – for instance, via the use of data mining or deep learning techniques  
619 for dissecting patterns in satellite images – comes with the design of procedures for data analytics,  
620 forecasting and intervention (Rodríguez-González, Zanin & Menasalvas-Ruiz, 2019) and requires  
621 domain and local knowledge as well as a dialogue between naturalist and constructivist researchers.  
622 In contrast to the official national statistics of the past, which diffused societal controversies, big data  
623 analytics create a myriad parallel realities, stand in the way of achieving a minimal consensus about  
624 basic facts and amplify controversies. In sum, next to technologization of resilience discourses, social  
625 processes of big data construction, the inclusion and exclusion of diverse stakeholders, the  
626 embeddedness of AI in everyday practices, the various uses of AI in the exploitation of data as well as  
627 the integration and inclusion of alternative knowledges are promising fields of resilience research.



628            In the coming decade, several AI challenges are most likely to increasingly come to the fore in  
629 resilience research. First, monitoring systems (for instance, monitoring the status and behavior of  
630 infrastructure or human settlement dynamics) that incorporate machine learning make that systems  
631 are automatically checked rather than regularly inspected by experts. When AI is integrated with  
632 knowledge of how systems work, expertise is outsourced to AI, which implies that expert knowledge  
633 may get lost or become obsolete. Moreover, AI classifications may have unintended consequences for  
634 certain places or communities. For example, by labelling areas at risks, property prices may go down  
635 or insurance agencies are not willing to provide an insurance certificate. Second, the digitalization of  
636 SES makes systems vulnerable to, for instance, breakdowns, power outages and cyberattacks – hence  
637 resilience strategies and digital strategies are intertwined (Wessel, 2019). ‘Digital resilience’ has  
638 recently become a key concept in resilience research that refers to strengthening resilience of digital  
639 systems to potential cyberattacks, including the adaptive capacity to respond to such attacks (Wright,  
640 2016). The making of digital resilience typically implies bringing in tech firms for the protection of SES,  
641 whose algorithms are typically opaque. Third, because of the reliance on AI and associated data, other  
642 realities are neglected, excluding certain places or communities from digital resilience strategies.  
643 Fourth, AI systems facilitate governing at a distance, with governing becoming more invisible and  
644 possibly unaccountable. For instance, when disaster management (for instance, in the context of an  
645 extreme weather event) becomes ‘digital humanitarianism’, the distance between the saviors and  
646 survivors becomes big, with survivors becoming reified abstract entities that inspire limited empathy.  
647 In fact, survivors are confronted with the risks of AI systems, in terms of privacy breaches and identity  
648 frauds. In other words, while AI is expected to become a key theme in resilience research, a promising  
649 topic for future resilience research concerns the challenge of uncovering resilience traps and  
650 neutralizing the ecological and societal damage and injustice done through the reinforcement of AI  
651 technologies in governance processes like digitally-based service provision or humanitarian  
652 interventions in the Global South.

653



654

655

656 **5. Conclusion**

657

658 In the social sciences, resilience to climate change is a concept that is incorporated in different  
659 theoretical approaches that are linked to contrasting types of science. Holling originally reinterpreted  
660 and incorporated resilience in a SES approach, which was then picked up by naturalist scientists who  
661 incorporated Holling's reinterpretation of resilience in cybernetic complexity theory. The naturalist  
662 complexity theoretic approach to resilience as system adaption was dominant in the social sciences,  
663 until the ecological and political context of resilience research changed. When actors at global, national  
664 and local governance levels drafted their resilience policies in the wake of socio-ecological  
665 catastrophes, financial crises, climate crises, governance failures and the breakdown of infrastructures,  
666 constructivist approach developed to take resilience research far beyond complexity theory. And it  
667 introduced a variety of new concepts for resilience research, such as the myth of resilience, just  
668 resilience, resilience trap, transformative resilience and transformational adaptation. Resilience  
669 cannot operate as a unifying paradigm, given that naturalism and constructivism are grounded in  
670 different epistemological and ontological assumptions, definitions of what counts as scientific  
671 knowledge, and definitions of change (evolutionary change and metamorphosis). But resilience can  
672 facilitate the reconciliation of naturalism and constructivism, so that the two types of science can  
673 provide a liberating perspective on each other (without the one repressing the other) and brought into  
674 a theory-energizing tension with each other. The urgent challenges that come with anthropogenic  
675 climate change – which may potentially cause extreme degrees of human misery in the coming  
676 decades –, necessitate the reconciliation of naturalist and constructivist resilience research. Such  
677 reconciling – igniting theory-energizing tension – is needed for reimagining resilience to climate change  
678 which is needed for specifying how new political-administrative institutions and practices can respond



679 in legitimate ways (taken justice considerations into account) to the challenges of climate change, in  
680 different ecological, political and technological contexts (cf. Johnsson et al., 2018).

681           Given the development of resilience research in the past decade, with the rise of constructivist  
682 resilience research and its reconciliation with naturalism, the key issue in resilience research concerns  
683 the political response in the form of adaptation, transformation and transformational adaptation in  
684 newly unfolding environments. The six resilience themes for the coming decade that this paper has  
685 identified are all connected to the issue of the political-administrative response to the challenges that  
686 come with anthropogenic climate change. A first theme concerns the reconciliation of naturalism and  
687 constructivism, to be able to move beyond established assumptions, theories, concepts and modes of  
688 analysis; and to trigger new imaginations to be able to create new, theory-rich, resilience perspectives.  
689 A second theme is the legitimacy of the political response in a toxic political environment, in which  
690 top-down and bottom up responses, including new governance arrangements and system  
691 reconfigurations, may suffer from legitimacy deficits. A third theme is how, in a toxic political  
692 environment, adaptation, transformation and transformational adaptation can be materialized; and  
693 under which conditions are such governance responses enough for addressing climate change  
694 challenges. A fourth theme is how systems are under pressure due to climate change, ultimately  
695 igniting a phasing out of systems and a departure from consumerist lifestyles, values and assumptions.  
696 A fifth theme is how governance responses can be made legitimate, by incorporating considerations  
697 of environmental and climate and energy justice – thereby strictly connecting resilience to justice  
698 considerations. A sixth theme is how AI comes to intermingle with resilience: what is its role in political-  
699 administrative responses to challenges that come with climate change? And, correspondingly, what  
700 are the undesired consequences that come with AI, when it comes to responding to climate change.  
701 How does AI enact existing power structures, thereby reinforcing resilience traps?

702

703

704



705 **References**

706

707 Aiken, S.F. (2006) 'Pragmatism, Naturalism, and Phenomenology', *Human Studies* 29: 317-340.

708 Acosta, C., M. Ortega, T. Bunsen, B.P. Koirala & A. Ghorbani (2018) 'Facilitating energy transition  
709 through energy commons: an application of socio-ecological systems framework for integrated  
710 community energy systems', *Sustainability* 10: 366.

711 Alexander, D.E. (2013) 'Resilience and disaster risk reduction: an etymological journey', *Natural  
712 Hazards and Earth System Sciences* 13, 2707-2716.

713 Anderson, B. (2015) 'What Kind of Thing is Resilience?', *Politics* 35(1): 60-66.

714 Beck, U. (2015) 'Emancipatory catastrophism: What does it mean to climate change and risk society?',  
715 *Current Sociology* 63(1): 75-88.

716 Béné, C, L. Mehta, G. McGranahan, T. Cannon, J. Gupte & T. Tanner (2018) 'Resilience as a policy  
717 narrative: potentials and limits in the context of urban planning', *Climate and Development* 10(2): 116-  
718 133.

719 Berbés-Blázquez, M., C.L. Mitchell, S.L. Burch & J. Wandel (2017) 'Understanding climate change and  
720 resilience: assessing strengths and opportunities for adaptation in the Global South', *Climatic Change*  
721 141: 227-241.

722 Berendt, B. (2019) 'AI for the Common Good?! Pitfalls, challenges, and ethics pen-testing', *Paladyn:  
723 Journal of Behavioral Robotics* 10 (1): 44-65.

724 Bergström, J. (2018) 'An archaeology of societal resilience', *Safety Science* 110: 32-38.

725 Blühdorn, I. (2013) 'The governance of unsustainability: ecology and democracy after the post-  
726 democratic turn', *Environmental Politics* 22(1): 16-36.

727 Boas, I. & D. Rothe (2016) 'From conflict to resilience? Explaining recent changes in climate security  
728 discourse and practice', *Environmental Politics* 25(4): 613-632.

729 Borsje, B.W., van Wesenbeeck, B., Dekker, F., Paalvast, P., Bouma, T.J., de Vries, M.B. (2011) 'How  
730 ecological engineering can serve in coastal protection – a review', *Ecological Engineering* 37: 113-122.



- 731 Bourbeau, P. (2015) 'Resilience and International Politics: Premises, Debates, Agenda', *International*  
732 *Studies Review* 17: 374-395.
- 733 Bourbeau, P. and C. Ryan (2018) 'Resilience, resistance, infrapolitics and enmeshment', *European*  
734 *Journal of International Relations* 24(1): 221-239.
- 735 Boyd, E., B. Nykvist, S. Borgström & I.A. Stacewicz (2015) 'Anticipatory governance for social-ecological  
736 resilience', *Ambio* 44 (supplement 1): 149-161.
- 737 Bracking, S. (2019) 'Financialisation, Climate Finance, and the Calculative Challenges of Managing  
738 Environmental Change', *Antipode* 51(3): 709-729.
- 739 Braun, B.P. (2014) 'A new urban dispositif? Governing life in an age of climate change', *Environment*  
740 *and Planning D: Society and Space* 32: 49-64.
- 741 Chandler, D. (2014) 'Beyond neoliberalism: resilience, the new art of governing complexity', *Resilience*  
742 2(1): 47-63.
- 743 Ching, L. (2016) 'Resilience to climate change events: The paradox of water (In)-security', *Sustainable*  
744 *Cities and Society* 27: 439-447.
- 745 Clément, V. & J. Rivera (2017) 'From Adaptation to Transformation: An Extended Research Agenda for  
746 Organizational Resilience to Adversity in the Natural Environment', *Organization & Environment* 30(4):  
747 346-365.
- 748 Conte, R. and M. Paolucci (2014) 'On agent-based modeling and computational social science',  
749 *Frontiers in Psychology* 5: 668.
- 750 Cote, M. & A.J. Nightingale (2012) 'Resilience thinking meets social theory: Situating social change in  
751 socio-ecological systems (SES) research', *Progress in Human Geography* 36(4): 475-489.
- 752 Dahlberg, R., C.T. Johannessen-Henry, E. Raju & S. Tulsiani (2015) 'Resilience in disaster research: three  
753 versions', *Civil Engineering and Environmental Systems* 32(1-2): 44-54.
- 754 Davoudi, S. (2018) 'Just resilience', *City & Community* 17(1): 3-7.
- 755 Derickson, K.D. (2016) 'Resilience is not enough', *City* 20(1): 161-166.



- 756 Douglas, M. & A. Wildavsky (1983) *Risk and Culture. An Essay on the Selection of Technological and*  
757 *Environmental Dangers*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- 758 Dryzek, J.S. & J. Pickering (2019) *The Politics of the Anthropocene*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 759 Duffield, M. (2016) 'The resilience of the ruins: towards a critique of digital humanitarianism',  
760 *Resilience* 4(3): 147-165.
- 761 Duit, A. (2016) 'Resilience thinking: Lessons for public administration', *Public Administration* 94(2):  
762 364-380.
- 763 Estêvão, P., A. Calado and L. Capucha (2017) 'Resilience: Moving from a "heroic" notion to a  
764 sociological concept', *Sociologia, Problemas E Práticas* 85: 9-25.
- 765 Evans, B. & J. Reid (2013) 'Dangerously exposed: the life and death of the resilient subject', *Resilience*,  
766 1(2): 83-98.
- 767 Fainstein, S. (2014) 'Resilience and justice', *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 157-  
768 167.
- 769 Farmer, J.D. & D. Foley (2009) 'The economy needs agent-based modelling', *Nature* 460: 685-686.
- 770 Fazey, I., P. Moug, S. Allen, K. Beckmann, D. Blackwood, M. Bonaventura, K. Burnett, M. Danson, R.  
771 Falconer, A.S. Gagnon, R. Harkness, A. Hodgson, L. Holm, K.N. Irvine, R. Low, C. Lyon, A. Moss, C. Moran,  
772 L. Naylor, K. O'Brien, S. Russell, S. Skerratt, J. Rao-Williams & R. Wolstenholme (2018) 'Transformation  
773 in a changing climate: a research agenda', *Climate and Development* 10(3): 197-217.
- 774 Feenstra, M. & G. Özerol (2018) 'Using energy justice as a search light for gender and energy policy  
775 research: a systematic review', 12th ECPR General Conference, Hamburg, Germany, August 2018.
- 776 Filatova, T., J.G. Polhill & S. van Ewijk (2016) 'Regime shifts in coupled socio-environmental systems:  
777 Review of modelling challenges and approaches', *Environmental Modelling & Software* 75: 333-347.
- 778 Fischer, F. (2017) *Climate crisis and the democratic prospect: participatory governance in sustainable*  
779 *communities*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 780 Floridi, L. (2017) 'A plea for non-naturalism as constructionism', *Minds & Machines* 27: 269-285.



- 781 Folke, C. (2006) 'Resilience: The emergence of a perspective for social–ecological systems analyses',  
782 *Global Environmental Change* 16(3): 253-267.
- 783 Frost, T. (2019) 'The *Dispositif* between Foucault and Agamben', *Law, Culture and the Humanities*  
784 15(1): 151-171.
- 785 Geels, F. W., & J. Schot (2007) 'Typology of sociotechnical transition pathways', *Research Policy*, 36(3),  
786 399-417.
- 787 Gim, C., C.A. Miller and P.W. Hirt (2019) 'The resilience work of institutions', *Environmental Science*  
788 *and Policy* 97: 36-43.
- 789 Glaser, M., J.G. Plass-Johnson, S.C.A. Ferse, M. Neil, D.Y. Satari, M. Teichberg & H. Reuter (2018)  
790 'Breaking Resilience for a Sustainable Future: Thoughts for the Anthropocene', *Frontiers in Marine*  
791 *Science* 5: 34.
- 792 Grove, K. & D. Chandler (2017) 'Introduction: resilience and the Anthropocene: the stakes of  
793 'renaturalising' politics', *Resilience* 5(2): 79-91.
- 794 Haan, F.J. de & J. Rotmans (2018) 'A proposed theoretical framework for actors in transformative  
795 change', *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* 128: 275-286.
- 796 Haasnoot, M., J.H., Kwakkel, W.E. Walker & J. ter Maat (2013) 'Dynamic adaptive policy pathways: A  
797 method for crafting robust decisions for a deeply uncertain world', *Global Environmental Change* 23(2):  
798 485-498.
- 799 Hamers, T., J.J. Kamstra, J. van Gils, M.C. Kotte-Albertus & G.M. van Hattum (2015) 'The influence of  
800 extreme river discharge conditions on the quality of suspended particulate matter in Rivers Meuse and  
801 Rhine (The Netherlands)', *Environmental Research* 143 A: 241-255.
- 802 Hawes C. & C. Reed (2006) 'Theoretical Steps Towards Modelling Resilience in Complex Systems'.  
803 In: Gavrilova M. et al. (eds) *Computational Science and Its Applications*. ICCSA 2006. Lecture Notes  
804 in Computer Science, vol 3980. Berlin: Springer.
- 805 Heffron, R.J. & D. McCauley (2017) 'The concept of energy justice across the disciplines', *Energy Policy*  
806 105: 658-667.





- 807 Hilhorst, D. (2018) 'Classical humanitarianism and resilience humanitarianism: making sense of two  
808 brands of humanitarian action', *International Journal of Humanitarian Action* 3: 15.
- 809 Hoefsloot, F. I., Pfeffer, K., & Richter, C. (2019). *People and Places Uncounted: Legibility in the Water*  
810 *Infrastructure of Lima, Peru*. 1-17. Paper presented at City Futures 2019, Dublin, Ireland.
- 811 Hoekstra, A.Y., R. Bredenhoff-Bijlsma & M.S. Krol (2018) 'The control versus resilience rationale for  
812 managing systems under uncertainty', *Environmental Research Letters* 13: 103002.
- 813 Hoffmann, S., Weyer, J., & J. Longen, (2017) 'Discontinuation of the automobility regime. An  
814 integrated approach to multi-level governance', *Transportation Research, Part A* 103, 391-408.
- 815 Holling, C.S. (1973) 'Resilience and Stability of Ecological Systems', *Annual Review of Ecology and*  
816 *Systematics* 4: 1-23.
- 817 Howell, A. (2015) 'Resilience as Enhancement: Governmentality and Political Economy beyond  
818 "Responsibilisation"', *Politics* 35(1): 67-71.
- 819 Huang, H., S. Boranbay-Akan and L. Huang (2016) 'Media, Protest Diffusion, and Authoritarian  
820 Resilience', *Political Science Research and Methods* 7(1): 23-42.
- 821 Hughes, S. (2017) 'The Politics of Urban Climate Change Policy: Towards a Research Agenda', *Urban*  
822 *Affairs Review* 53(2): 362-380.
- 823 Jenkins, K. D. McCauley, R. Heffron, H. Stephan & R. Rehner (2016) 'Energy justice: A conceptual  
824 review', *Energy Research & Social Science* 11: 174-182.
- 825 Jesse, B-J., H.U. Heinrichs & W. Kuchshinrichs (2019) 'Adapting the theory of resilience to energy  
826 systems: a review and outlook', *Energy, Sustainability and Society* 9: 27.
- 827 Johnson J.L. et al. (2018) 'Interplays of Sustainability, Resilience, Adaptation and Transformation'. In:  
828 W. Leal Filho, R. Marans & J. Callewaert (eds) *Handbook of Sustainability and Social Science Research*.  
829 World Sustainability Series. Springer, Cham.
- 830 Johnston, P., & A. Stirling (2018) 'Comparing nuclear trajectories in Germany and the United Kingdom:  
831 From regimes to democracies in sociotechnical transitions and discontinuities', *Energy Research and*  
832 *Social Science*, 59, 101245.



- 833 Juncos, A.E. (2017) 'Resilience as the new EU foreign policy paradigm: a pragmatist turn?', *European*  
834 *Security* 26(1): 1-18.
- 835 Juncos, A.E. (2018) 'Resilience in peacebuilding: Contesting uncertainty, ambiguity, and complexity',  
836 *Contemporary Security Policy* 39 (4): 559-574.
- 837 Kates, R.W., W.R. Travis & T.J. Wilbanks (2012) 'Transformational adaptation when incremental  
838 adaptations to climate change are insufficient', *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the*  
839 *United States of America* 109 (19): 7156-7161.
- 840 Katomero, J. & Y. Georgiadou (2018) 'The Elephant in the Room: Informality in Tanzania's Rural  
841 Waterscape', *ISPRS International Journal of Geo-Information* 7: 437.
- 842 Khakurel, J., B. Penzenstadler, J. Porras, A. Knutas & W. Zhang (2018) 'The Rise of Artificial Intelligence  
843 under the Lens of Sustainability', *Technologies* 6, 100.
- 844 Klein, J., S. Juhola & M. Landauer (2017) 'Local authorities and the engagement of private actors in  
845 climate change adaptation', *Environment and Planning C: Politics and Space* 35(6): 1055-1074.
- 846 Köhler, J., F.W. Geels, F. Kernc, J. Markard, E. Onsongo, A. Wieczorek, F. Alkemade, F. Avelino, A.  
847 Bergek, F. Boons, L. Fünfschilling, D. Hess, G. Holtz, S. Hyysalok, K. Jenkins, P. Kivimaa, M. Martiskainen,  
848 A. McMeekin, M.S. Muhlemeier, B. Nykvist, B. Pel, R. Raven, H. Rohracher, B. Sandén, J. Schot, B.  
849 Sovacool, B. Turnheim, D. Welch & P. Wells (2019) 'An agenda for sustainability transitions research:  
850 State of the art and future directions', *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions* 31: 1-32.
- 851 Kolers, A. (2016) 'Resilience as a Political Ideal', *Ethics, Policy & Environment* 19(1): 91-107.
- 852 Ksenia, C., G. Lizarralde, A. Dainty and L. Boshier (2016) 'Unpacking resilience policy discourse', *Cities*  
853 58: 70-79.
- 854 Kuhlicke, C. (2013) 'Resilience: a capacity and a myth: findings from an in-depth case study in disaster  
855 management research', *Natural Hazards* 67: 61-76.
- 856 Kuhlmann, S., P. Stegmaier & K. Konrad (2019) 'The tentative governance of emerging science and  
857 technology—A conceptual introduction', *Research Policy* 48(5): 1091-1097.



- 858 Kythreotis, A.P. & G.I. Bristow (2017) 'The 'resilience trap': exploring the practical utility of resilience  
859 for climate change adaptation in UK city-regions, *Regional Studies* 51 (10): 1530-1541.
- 860 Lockie, S. (2016) 'Beyond resilience and systems theory: reclaiming justice in sustainability discourse,  
861 *Environmental Sociology* 2(2): 115-117.
- 862 Lund, J.R. (2015) 'Integrating social and physical sciences in water management', *Water Resources*  
863 *Research* 51: 5905–5918.
- 864 Lyster, R. (2017) 'Climate justice, adaptation and the Paris Agreement: a recipe for disasters?',  
865 *Environmental Politics* 26(3): 438-458.
- 866 Martin, R. and M. Schlüter (2015) 'Combining system dynamics and agent-based modeling to analyze  
867 social-ecological interactions—an example from modeling restoration of a shallow lake', *Frontiers in*  
868 *Environmental Science* 3: 66.
- 869 Marvin, S., Luque-Ayala, A., & McFarlane, C. (2016). *Smart urbanism: Utopian vision or false dawn*.  
870 New York, NY: Routledge.
- 871 McGreavy, B. (2016) 'Resilience as Discourse', *Environmental Communication* 10(1): 104-121.
- 872 Miller, T. (2019) 'Explanation in artificial intelligence: Insights from the social sciences', *Artificial*  
873 *Intelligence* 267: 1-38.
- 874 Mummery, J. & J. Mummery (2019) 'Transformative climate change adaptation: bridging existing  
875 approaches with post-foundational insights on justice', *Local Environment* 24(10): 919-930.
- 876 Ogunbode, C.A., G. Böhm, S.B Capstick, C. Demski, A. Spence & N. Tausch (2019) 'The resilience  
877 paradox: flooding experience, coping and climate change mitigation intentions', *Climate Policy* 19(6):  
878 703-715.
- 879 O'Hare, P., I. White & A. Connelly (2016) 'Insurance as maladaptation: Resilience and the 'business as  
880 usual' paradox', *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy* 34(6): 1175-1193.
- 881 Ostrom, E. (2007) 'A diagnostic approach for going beyond panaceas', *Proceedings of the National*  
882 *Academy of Sciences* 104(39): 15181–15187.



- 883 Paradiso, M. (2006) 'Information Geography: A Bridge between Engineering and the Social Sciences',  
884 *Journal of Urban Technology* 13(3): 77-92.
- 885 Park, S.E., N.A. Marshall, E. Jakku, A.M. Dowd, S.M. Howden, E. Mendham & A. Fleming (2012)  
886 'Informing adaptation responses to climate change through theories of transformation', *Global*  
887 *Environmental Change* 22: 115-126.
- 888 Patriarca, R., J. Bergström, G. Di Gravio and F. Costantino (2018) 'Resilience engineering: Current status  
889 of the research and future challenges', *Safety Science* 102: 79-100.
- 890 Pelling, M., K. O'Brien & D. Matyas (2015) 'Adaptation and transformation', *Climatic Change* 133(1):  
891 113-127.
- 892 Pfeffer, K. & Y. Georgiadou (2019) 'Global Ambitions, Local Contexts: Alternative Ways of Knowing the  
893 World', *ISPRS International Journal of Geo-Information* 8, 516.
- 894 Pietrapertosa, F., M. Salvia, S. De Gregorio Hurtado, V. D'Alonzo, J.M. Church, D. Geneletti, F. Musco &  
895 D. Reckien (2019) 'Urban climate change mitigation and adaptation planning: Are Italian cities ready?',  
896 *Cities* 91: 93-105.
- 897 Pizzo, B. (2015) 'Problematizing resilience: implications for planning theory and practice', *Cities* 43:  
898 133-140.
- 899 Pumpuni-Lenss, G., T. Blackburn and A. Garstenauer (2017) 'Resilience in complex systems: An agent-  
900 based approach', *Systems Engineering* 20(2): 158-172.
- 901 Rajan, A. and A. Saffiotti (2017) 'Towards a science of integrated AI and robotics', *Artificial Intelligence*  
902 247: 1-9.
- 903 Redman, C. L. (2014) 'Should sustainability and resilience be combined or remain distinct  
904 pursuits?', *Ecology and Society* 19(2): 37.
- 905 Ribault, T. (2019) 'Resilience in Fukushima: Contribution to a Political Economy of Consent',  
906 *Alternatives: Global, Local, Political* 44 (2-4) 94-118.
- 907 Rodríguez-González, A., M. Zanin & E. Menasalvas-Ruiz (2019) 'Public Health and Epidemiology  
908 Informatics: Can Artificial Intelligence Help Future Global Challenges? An Overview of Antimicrobial



- 909 Resistance and Impact of Climate Change in Disease Epidemiology', *IMIA Yearbook of Medical*  
910 *Informatics*: 224-231.
- 911 Rogge, K. S., & P. Johnston (2017) 'Exploring the role of phase-out policies for low-carbon energy  
912 transitions: The case of the German Energiewende', *Energy Research & Social Science*, 33, 128-137.
- 913 Rogge, K. S., Kern, F., & M. Howlett (2017) 'Conceptual and empirical advances in analysing policy mixes  
914 for energy transitions', *Energy Research & Social Science*, 33, 1-10.
- 915 Rothe, D. (2017) 'Gendering Resilience: Myths and Stereotypes in the Discourse on Climate-induced  
916 Migration', *Global Policy* 8: 40-46.
- 917 Ruinen, R. van, T. Filatova, W. Jager & A. van der Veen (2015) 'Going beyond perfect rationality:  
918 drought risk, economic choices and the influence of social networks', *The Annals of Regional Science*  
919 57(2-3): 335-369.
- 920 Samarakoon, S. (2019) 'A justice and wellbeing centered framework for analysing energy poverty in  
921 the Global South', *Ecological Economics* 65(C), 106385.
- 922 Saravi, S., R. Kalawsky, D. Joannou, M. Rivas Casado, G. Fu & F. Meng (2019) 'Use of Artificial  
923 Intelligence to Improve Resilience and Preparedness Against Adverse Flood Events', *Water* 11, 973.
- 924 Schilling, T., R. Wyss and C.R. Binder (2018) 'The Resilience of Sustainability Transitions', *Sustainability*  
925 10, 4593.
- 926 Schlosberg, D., L.B. Collins & S. Niemeyer (2017) 'Adaptation policy and community discourse: risk,  
927 vulnerability, and just transformation', *Environmental Politics* 26(3): 413-437.
- 928 Schwartz, S. (2018) 'Resilience in psychology: A critical analysis of the concept', *Theory and Psychology*  
929 28(4): 528-541.
- 930 Sjöstedt, M. (2015) 'Resilience revisited: taking institutional theory seriously', *Ecology and Society*  
931 20(4): 23.
- 932 Simbirski, B. (2006) 'Cybernetic Muse: Hannah Arendt on Automation, 1951-1958', *Journal of the*  
933 *History of Ideas* 77(4): 589-613.



- 934 Skillington, T. (2015) 'Climate justice without freedom: Assessing legal and political responses to  
935 climate change and forced migration', *European Journal of Social Theory* 18(3): 288-307.
- 936 Stegmaier, P., Visser, V. R., & S. Kuhlmann (2020) 'The incandescent light bulb phase-out. Exploring  
937 patterns of framing the governance of discontinuing a socio-technical regime' (under review).
- 938 Stegmaier, P. (2019) 'Killing the Coal. On governing the discontinuation of coal energy production',  
939 Paper presented at the Nordic STS Conference; Session: How do technologies die?, Tampere.
- 940 Stegmaier, P., Kuhlmann, S., & V.R. Visser (2014) 'The Discontinuation of Socio-Technical Systems as  
941 Governance Problem'. In: Borrás, S. & J. Edler (eds.) *Governance of Systems Change* (pp. 111-131).  
942 Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- 943 Strunz, S. (2014) 'The German energy transition as a regime shift', *Ecological Economics*, 100, 150-  
944 158.
- 945 Szablowski, D. & B. Campbell (2019) 'Struggles over extractive governance: Power, discourse, violence,  
946 and legality', *The Extractive Industries and Society* 6 (2019) 635–641.
- 947 Stegemann, L. and M. Ossewaarde (2018) 'A Sustainable Myth: A Neo-Gramscian Perspective on the  
948 Populist and Post-Truth Tendencies of the European Green Growth Discourse', *Energy Research &*  
949 *Social Science* 43: 25-32.
- 950 Swyngedouw, E. (2010) 'Apocalypse forever? Post-political populism and the spectre of climate  
951 change', *Theory Culture & Society* 27 (2-3): 213-232.
- 952 Swyngedouw, E. (2011) 'Depoliticized environments: the end of nature, climate change and the post-  
953 political condition', *Royal Institute of Philosophy Supplement* 69: 253-274.
- 954 Sun, L., B. Stojadinovic and G. Sansavini (2019) 'Agent-Based Recovery Model for Seismic Resilience  
955 Evaluation of Electrified Communities', *Risk Analysis* 39(7): 1597-1614.
- 956 Taddeo, M. & L. Floridi (2018) 'How AI can be a force for good', *Science* 361 (6404): 751-752.
- 957 Terry, G. (2009) 'No climate justice without gender justice: an overview of the issues', *Gender &*  
958 *Development* 17(1): 5-18.



- 959 Thorén, H. (2014) 'Resilience as a Unifying Concept', *International Studies in the Philosophy of Science*  
960 28 (3): 303-324.
- 961 Tierney, K. (2015) 'Resilience and the Neoliberal Project: Discourses, Critiques, Practices—And Katrina',  
962 *American Behavioral Scientist* 59(10): 1327-1342.
- 963 Tyler, S. & M. Moench (2012) 'A framework for urban climate resilience', *Climate and Development*,  
964 4(4): 311-326.
- 965 Ungar, M. (2018) 'Systemic resilience: principles and processes for a science of change in contexts of  
966 adversity', *Ecology and Society* 23(4): 34.
- 967 Vahedifard, F., A. Ermagun, K. Mortezaei and A. AghaKouchak (2019) 'Integrated data could augment  
968 resilience', *Science* 363 (6423), 134.
- 969 VanderPlaat, M. (2016) 'Activating the sociological imagination to explore the boundaries of resilience  
970 research and practice', *School Psychology International* 37(2): 189-203.
- 971 Ven, A. van de (2017) 'The innovation journey: you can't control it, but you can learn to maneuver it',  
972 *Innovation* 19(1), 39-42.
- 973 Verrest, H. & K. Pfeffer (2019) 'Elaborating the urbanism in smart urbanism: distilling relevant  
974 dimensions for a comprehensive analysis of Smart City approaches', *Information, Communication &*  
975 *Society* 22 (9): 1328-1342.
- 976 Vögele, S., Kunz, P., Rübhelke, D. & T. Stahlke (2018) 'Transformation pathways of phasing out  
977 coal-fired power plants in Germany', *Energy, Sustainability and Society*, 8(25): 1-18.
- 978 Walker, J. & M. Cooper (2011) 'Genealogies of resilience: from systems ecology to the political  
979 economy of crisis adaptation', *Security Dialogue*, 42(2): 143-160.
- 980 Walsh-Dillely, M. & W. Wolford (2015) '(Un)Defining resilience: subjective understandings of  
981 'resilience' from the field', *Resilience* 3(3): 173-182.
- 982 Warmink, J.J., M. Brugnach, J. Vinke-de Kruijf, R. M. J. Schielen & D. C. M. Augustijn (2017) 'Coping with  
983 Uncertainty in River Management: Challenges and Ways Forward', *Water Resources Management* 31:  
984 4587-4600.



- 985 Weichselgartner, J. and I. Kelman (2015) 'Geographies of resilience: Challenges and opportunities of a  
986 descriptive concept', *Progress in Human Geography* 39(3): 249-267.
- 987 Wessel, R.A. (2019) 'Cybersecurity in the European Union: Resilience through Regulation', in E. Conde  
988 Pérez, Z. Yaneva & M. Scopelliti (eds.), *Routledge Handbook of EU Security Law and Policy*. London:  
989 Routledge, pp. 283-300.
- 990 Wiese, F. (2016) 'Resilience Thinking as an Interdisciplinary Guiding Principle for Energy System  
991 Transitions', *Resources* 5, 30.
- 992 Wright, D.J. (2016) 'Towards a *digital* resilience', *Elementa: Science of the Anthropocene* 4: 000082.
- 993 Yanarella, E.J. & R.S. Levine (2014) 'From Sustainability to Resilience: Advance or Retreat?',  
994 *Sustainability* 7(4): 197-208.
- 995
- 996
- 997