

Bridging social–ecological systems and ecological economics to navigate polycrisis

Louis Delannoy^{1,2,3,*}, Giulia Rubin^{1,2}, Bernardo A. Bastien-Olvera⁴, Felipe Benra⁵, Nicolas Choquette-Levy⁶, Jordana Composto⁷, Giorgio Dini⁸, Tarikua Erda⁹, Jacqueline Hamilton¹⁰, Mari Kawakatsu¹¹, Niak S. Koh¹², Noah Linder^{2,13}, Marius von Essen^{14,15}, Emmy Wassénus², Adam Wiechman¹⁶

¹ Global Economic Dynamics and the Biosphere, Royal Swedish Academy of Science, Stockholm, Sweden

² Stockholm Resilience Centre, Stockholm University, Stockholm, Sweden

³ Swedish Centre for Impacts of Climate Extremes (climes), Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden

⁴ Instituto de Ciencias de la Atmósfera y Cambio Climático, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Mexico City, Mexico

⁵ Social-Ecological Systems Institute, School of Sustainability, Sustainability Faculty, Leuphana University Lüneburg, Lüneburg, Germany

⁶ Department of Geosciences, Penn State University, University Park, PA, USA

⁷ Sauder School of Business, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada

⁸ Department of Economics, University of Bologna, Italy

⁹ Department of Finance, New York University, New York, NY USA

¹⁰ Department of Natural Resource Sciences, McGill University, Montreal, Canada

¹¹ Department of Biology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

¹² Nature Positive Hub, Department of Biology, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom

¹³ Beijer Institute of Ecological Economics, Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences, Stockholm, Sweden

¹⁴ Institute of the Environment and Sustainability, University of California, Los Angeles, USA

¹⁵ Emmett Institute on Climate Change & the Environment, University of California, Los Angeles, USA

¹⁶ High Meadows Environmental Institute, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ USA

*Corresponding author: Louis Delannoy (louis.delannoy@su.se)

Abstract

Human societies and ecological systems experience interacting and compounding crises, a condition often described as ‘polycrisis’. To better navigate it, we propose a synthesis agenda at the interface of ecological economics (EE) and social–ecological systems (SES) research. Through collaborative synthesis and building on a practical framework of crisis dynamics as shocks and creeping changes, we identify four research avenues that specify where integration is feasible and promising. We focus on (i) the mediating role of human-made infrastructures in shock propagation; (ii) the influence of polycrisis dynamics on risk perception and behavioral response; (iii) trust and variations in collective action in response to threats; and (iv) shifting social–ecological meaning through the lens of diverse values of nature. For each avenue, we outline frontier questions that connect EE and SES, and examine interdisciplinary methodologies to address them. We also provide three specific examples with causal loop diagrams representative of the research avenues. We conclude by discussing the implications of combining EE and SES perspectives, and invite scholars from both traditions to engage more systematically together with the infrastructures, institutions, and power relations through which crises are experienced and governed.

Keywords: resilience, shocks, creeping changes, biosphere, Anthropocene

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48 1. Introduction

49 The expansion of human activities over the past century paralleled profound biosphere degradation
 50 (Folke et al., 2021). Consequences manifest in the form of ‘crises’—climate extremes, conflicts,
 51 biodiversity loss, weakening of international cooperation, etc.—which reinforce one another. This
 52 condition is frequently referred to as a ‘polycrisis’ (Lawrence et al., 2024; Delannoy et al., 2025a,
 53 2025b), and calls for a paradigm shift in how crises are understood and managed.

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 55 Two bodies of scholarship appear well suited to navigating polycrisis¹: ecological economics (EE) and
 56 social–ecological systems (SES). EE foregrounds the economy as embedded within biophysical
 57 constraints, interpreting crises as symptoms of overshoot and of distributional conflict (Costanza et al.,
 58 2020). EE employs a large spectrum of approaches including societal metabolism, heterodox
 59 macroeconomics, ecological unequal exchange, or institutional and regulation theories (e.g., Dorninger
 60 et al., 2021; Jacques et al., 2023; Dyca et al., 2024; Bouffange, 2026; Haberl et al., 2026). On the other
 61 hand, SES focuses on how wellbeing and risks emerge from interactions between human activities and
 62 the biosphere, notably through non-linear and cross-scale feedbacks (Biggs et al., 2021). Central to SES
 63 is the interplay between fast and slow variables (Walker et al., 2012), and how it gradually builds or
 64 erodes capacity for adaptation and transformation—often framed under the umbrella concept of
 65 resilience (Biggs et al., 2012; Folke et al., 2016). While EE and SES share intellectual roots (Schandl
 66 et al., 2025), they remain largely applied separately to the study of crises. We argue that this is a critical
 67 gap, as both approaches are complementary and have the potential, when combined, to provide a
 68 coherent account of polycrisis that explains how infrastructure, institutions, and power relations shape
 69 exposure to, the spread of, and responses to crises.

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 71 In this paper we outline an agenda that synthesizes EE and SES to strengthen how polycrisis is evaluated
 72 and acted upon. We first provide a practical framework for understanding crises as the results of ‘shocks’
 73 and ‘creeping changes’. Through iterative cross-disciplinary elicitations, we identify four research
 74 avenues, each with concrete questions: (i) the mediating role of human-made infrastructures in shock
 75 propagation; (ii) the influence of polycrisis dynamics on risk perception and behavioral response; (iii)
 76 trust and variations in collective action in response to threats; and (iv) shifting social–ecological
 77 meaning through the lens of diverse values of nature. We exemplify how our framework makes the
 78 research questions practical through causal loop diagrams, drawing case studies from the ShockTracker
 79 database, a collective and continuously updated collection of social–ecological shocks with descriptions
 80 of drivers, impacts, and dynamics (Wassénus & Rubin, 2025). Finally, we present for each avenue a
 81 set of methodologies for addressing the research questions, as an open path for integrating EE and SES
 82 traditions.

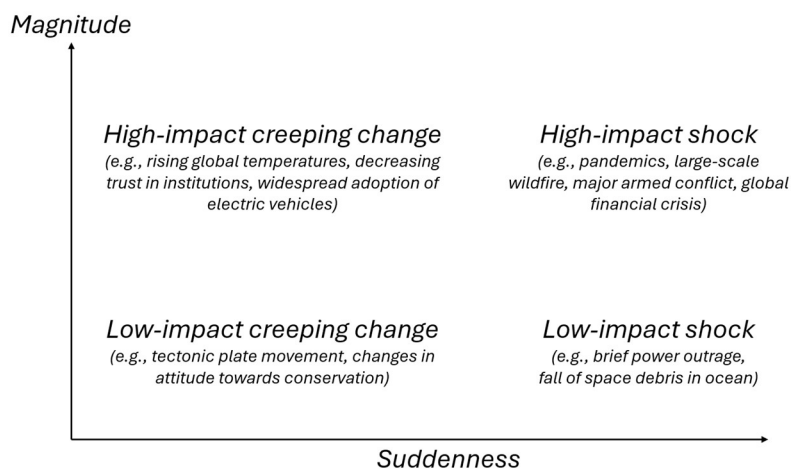
83 84 2. A practical framework for understanding polycrisis

85 Crisis is an ambiguous concept which today typically refers to prolonged and volatile turmoil unfolding
 86 across multiple scales and dimensions (Koselleck & Richter, 2006; Revault d’Allones, 2016). For
 87 practical analysis, we propose to see crises as the interrelations of two processes: ‘shocks’ and ‘creeping
 88 changes’ (Delannoy et al., 2025a). Shocks are sudden events that produce noticeable deviations in
 89 system functioning, often with non-linear propagation once critical thresholds are reached. Examples
 90 of shocks include wildfires, pandemics, market crashes, or ecosystem regime shifts. Creeping changes,
 91 by contrast, are slow processes with the potential for significant impacts on society or the biosphere
 92 (Delannoy et al., 2025a). They may be hard to detect, go unnoticed, or be ignored, such as in the cases
 93 of antimicrobial resistance, intergenerational inequities, and biodiversity loss—all of which show
 94 gradual change, yet remain unaddressed in light of the threat they pose (see respectively: Naghavi et
 95 al., 2024; Thiery et al., 2021; Keck et al., 2025).

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 97 Importantly, the concept of crisis is agent-relative. Shocks and creeping changes are positions on
 98 continuous spectra of suddenness (rate of change) and magnitude (size of change) (Fig. 1), which are

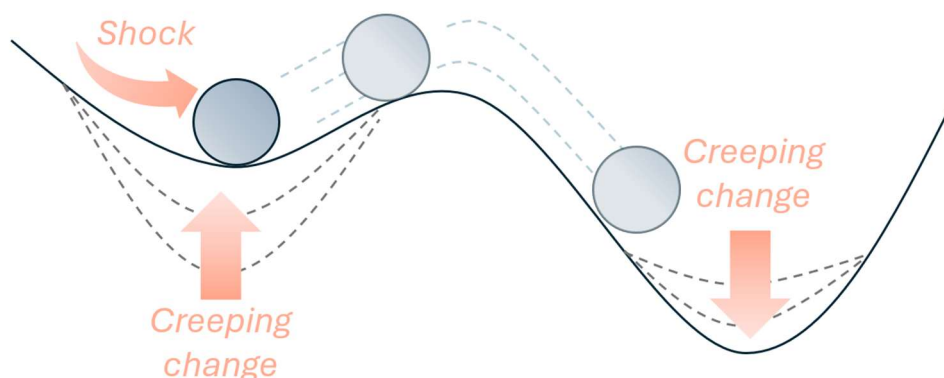
¹ We use “a polycrisis” when referring to a specific configuration of interacting crises, and “polycrisis” as a broader analytical condition or field of inquiry. This distinction reflects our view that multiple, concurrent, and cross-scales polycrises may coexist (see Section 2).

99 defined with respect to the expectations and capacities of actors (e.g., households, firms, regulators,
 100 resource users) and therefore can vary within one system. The same event may be anticipated by some
 101 actors and surprise others, and its impacts can be highly heterogeneous across groups or communities
 102 because exposure and vulnerability are uneven. This is particularly true for climate shocks, which
 103 disproportionately affect vulnerable populations, many of them in the Global South, despite these
 104 populations and countries having contributed least to the greenhouse-gas emissions driving climate
 105 change (Dong et al., 2024; Hazrana et al., 2025; Schöngart et al., 2025).
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 108 **Figure 1** | Perturbations to a system can be characterised by their magnitude (vertical axis) and
 109 suddenness (horizontal axis). While both shocks and creeping changes can vary continuously along
 110 these axes, shocks tend to be more sudden (right-hand side) whereas creeping changes tend to be less
 111 sudden (left-hand side).
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113 Shocks and creeping changes interact through feedbacks that can be reinforcing or balancing, with
 114 resilience outcomes depending on which feedbacks dominate and on whether stabilizing mechanisms
 115 are maintained, degraded, or deliberately strengthened (Walker et al., 2012). These interactions can be
 116 illustrated with the ball-and-cup metaphor (Fig. 2), where a ball represents the system state and the
 117 basin its resilience. A large shock can tip the system across a threshold even when the basin is deep.
 118 Creeping changes can hence erode resilience by making the current basin shallower, so that smaller
 119 shocks trigger regime shifts; or reinforce an emerging regime by deepening an alternative basin after a
 120 transition has begun. Conversely, policy and institutional design can aim to create balancing feedbacks
 121 that deepen the current basin (stabilization) or, in contexts where the status quo is undesirable, lower
 122 barriers to deliberate transformation while avoiding uncontrolled collapse.



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 124 **Figure 2** | Interactions between shocks and creeping changes. From left to right: as a shock impresses
 125 a force on the ball, the object is set in motion. A creeping change can make the basin in which the ball
 126 sits shallower, increasing the chance of the object skipping into the second basin, i.e., the new stable
 127 state. Creeping changes can also act as forces that deepen the basin, making it more likely to fall in, and
 128 difficult for the ball to return to its original stable state.

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130 In our framework, a polycrisis arises when crises (i.e., shocks and creeping changes) interact and
 131 produce harms greater than the sum of those generated by each alone. This definition enables viewing
 132 the interaction of crises through infrastructures, institutions, perceptions, trust relations, and values that
 133 are deeply politically and economically entrenched. These mediating conditions shape who is exposed,
 134 whose risks are recognised, whose capacities to respond are supported, and whose losses are assessed
 135 and dealt with. While we recognize this definition is one among several competing formulations (see
 136 for instance Zaki, 2025 and Bieler, 2026), its value lies in allowing for multiple, concurrent polycrises,
 137 each with distinct mechanisms, boundaries, and temporalities. In doing so, we argue that it keeps crisis
 138 dynamics analytically connected to their political–economic and social–ecological contexts, and thus
 139 lays the foundations for a fruitful dialogue between EE and SES. These considerations form the basis
 140 of the research avenues.

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142 3. Four research avenues

143 We identify four research avenues on polycrisis at the interface of SES and EE. Refined through
 144 collaborative synthesis, these avenues are used as a synthetic organising device, structured around
 145 propagation, interpretation, coordination, and meaning in polycrisis dynamics (Fig. 3). Rather than
 146 being exhaustive, they specify mediating mechanisms through which shocks and creeping changes
 147 become socially and materially organised: (i) the mediating role of human-made infrastructures in shock
 148 propagation; (ii) the influence of polycrisis dynamics on risk perception and behavioral response; (iii)
 149 trust and variations in collective action in response to threats; and (iv) shifting social-ecological
 150 meaning through the lens of diverse values of nature. Infrastructures shape how disturbances move
 151 through material and informational systems; risk perception shapes whether deterioration and disruption
 152 are noticed, interpreted, and acted upon; trust and shared expectations shape whether collective
 153 responses can be coordinated under uncertainty and unequal burdens; and values of nature shape what
 154 is recognised as loss, what is prioritised during disruption, and which forms of adaptation or
 155 transformation appear legitimate.

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158 **Figure 3** | Conceptual representation of the four research avenues.

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160 3.1. The mediating role of human-made infrastructures in shock propagation

161 Infrastructure can be understood as any coherent structure that modifies the flow of materials or
 162 information in a system (Anderies et al., 2016). Throughout history, humans have repurposed natural
 163 infrastructures (e.g., wetlands, forests) and built extensive hard infrastructures (e.g., canals,
 164 transmission lines, seawalls, transport networks, and data centres). They have also developed soft
 165 infrastructures, understood here as institutions, including rules, norms, and shared strategies that shape
 166 how information is interpreted and how actors' coordination occurs (Anderies et al., 2016).

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168 Infrastructures organise how shocks and creeping changes move through social–ecological systems.
169 Hard infrastructures, including storage systems, transport networks, monitoring devices, and
170 communication systems, mediate variation in material and informational flows and thereby increase
171 predictability (Anderies, 2015). Shocks can disrupt this function through direct damage to physical
172 assets, while creeping changes can gradually alter baselines, accelerate wear and tear, and reduce useful
173 lifetimes (Ji et al., 2024; Erda, 2026). Soft infrastructures, including rules, norms, organisations, and
174 shared strategies, shape how social–ecological change is monitored, attributed, translated into decisions,
175 and enforced through collective action (Wiechman et al., 2024; Davidson et al., 2024). Institutional
176 arrangements are also vulnerable to slow erosion and abrupt disruption. Creeping changes in trust,
177 demographic composition, values, perceived risk, and wealth concentration can weaken institutional
178 capacity, while shocks such as financial crises, disasters, regulatory change, or conflict can rapidly
179 reconfigure authority, compliance, and legitimacy (Bhalla et al., 2024).

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181 As hard and soft infrastructures are coupled, they affect where pressures accumulate, how disturbances
182 travel across sectors and places, which groups experience disruption first and longest, and how these
183 processes feed back on resilience (Hull & Liu, 2018; Yu et al., 2024). What currently remains
184 underdeveloped, however, is an account of how shocks and creeping changes propagate through
185 coupled hard–soft infrastructure configurations and when this coupling stabilises systems or converts
186 disturbances into compounding crises. For example, recent socio-metabolic research has called for
187 closer links between material-flow analysis and SES, precisely because resilience depends on more than
188 technologies or resource stocks alone (Haberl et al., 2026).

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190 On this basis, we suggest three lines of inquiry for bridging SES and EE in relation to infrastructures.
191 First, what are the conditions under which coupled hard and soft infrastructures buffer interacting
192 shocks rather than amplifying them (see Box 1) and, more specifically, which design, financing, and
193 governance attributes most strongly influence these outcomes? Second, how are creeping changes
194 linked to political–economic investment cycles, such as slow deterioration and recurrent disturbance
195 regimes, and how should evaluation of decision-making take stock of them? Third, to what extent does
196 the co-evolution of hard and soft infrastructures lock systems into brittle configurations or enable an
197 assemblage that strengthens resilience to uncontrolled cascading impact events?

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199 Addressing these questions requires expanding infrastructure research toward frameworks and models
200 of coupled hard and soft infrastructures. While infrastructure modeling is well established in
201 engineering and risk analysis (Alderson et al., 2015; Ji et al., 2024), existing approaches often
202 underrepresent institutional rules, coordination networks, investment incentives, maintenance regimes,
203 and other forms of soft infrastructure that shape how shocks and creeping changes propagate (Chester
204 et al., 2023; Davidson et al., 2024; Wiechman et al., 2024). Future work could therefore connect societal
205 metabolism data with empirical representations of soft infrastructure, including collaborative and
206 institutional networks (Bodin et al., 2016). Combined with network models of infrastructure
207 interdependence and institutional resource regime analysis (Dyca et al., 2024), this would allow
208 researchers to ask when infrastructure systems absorb disturbances, when they displace costs onto other
209 groups or ecosystems, when they amplify cascading impacts, and whether property rights or instruments
210 are coherent with the cumulative human pressures generated.

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Box 1 - Droughts in the Panama Canal

The Panama isthmus experienced a compounding series of severe droughts in 2014 and in 2023 (Carse, 2017; Tandon, 2024). In 2014, water levels in the Panama Canal fell from ~27m to 24.5m, significantly reducing water availability for domestic use, and disrupting global cargo traffic with an estimated economic impact of US\$1.25 billion (Carse, 2017). In 2023, water levels in the Canal dropped by nearly 2m, causing a 30% decline in shipping traffic (Muñoz et al., 2025) and an important displacement of local communities (Panama Canal Water Crisis, 2025).

Climate scientists identified the El Niño Southern Oscillation as one of the atmospheric drivers of the 2023 event (Tandon, 2024; Woodwell Climate Research Center, 2024; World Weather Attribution, 2024). Through the gradual reduction of rainfall intensity in the wet season and the earlier onset of the dry season, this reduction in precipitation acted as a shock to an exposed infrastructure, as its functioning is reliant on an abundance of freshwater. The drought-induced stress in the Panama isthmus was exacerbated by a growing demand for global cargo shipping and an associated increase in vessel size, which required larger volumes of water to cross the Canal's dam system (Woodwell Climate Research Center, 2024). Economic activities had already intensified freshwater demand per transit, heightening the Canal's susceptibility to drought (Woodwell Climate Research Center, 2024) as each ship transit requires on average 197,000 m³ of freshwater (Carse, 2017).

During the 2023 drought, the Panama Canal Authority, in agreement with the national government, proposed to satisfy the freshwater demand from surrounding water reservoirs to reduce operational strain (Carse, 2017; Panama Canal Water Crisis, 2025). While this intervention would have enabled shipping traffic to continue, though at a lower frequency, it aggravated the impacts of the drought on the lives of local Panamanians especially for agriculture, cattle rearing, river tourism (Chico et al., 2024; Burk, 2025) and domestic use (Woodwell Climate Research Center, 2024). Overall, the crisis in the Panama Canal involved the compounding of climatic shocks and creeping changes—including the increase in shipping traffic through the Canal, aggravated by local water management interventions (Fig. 4).

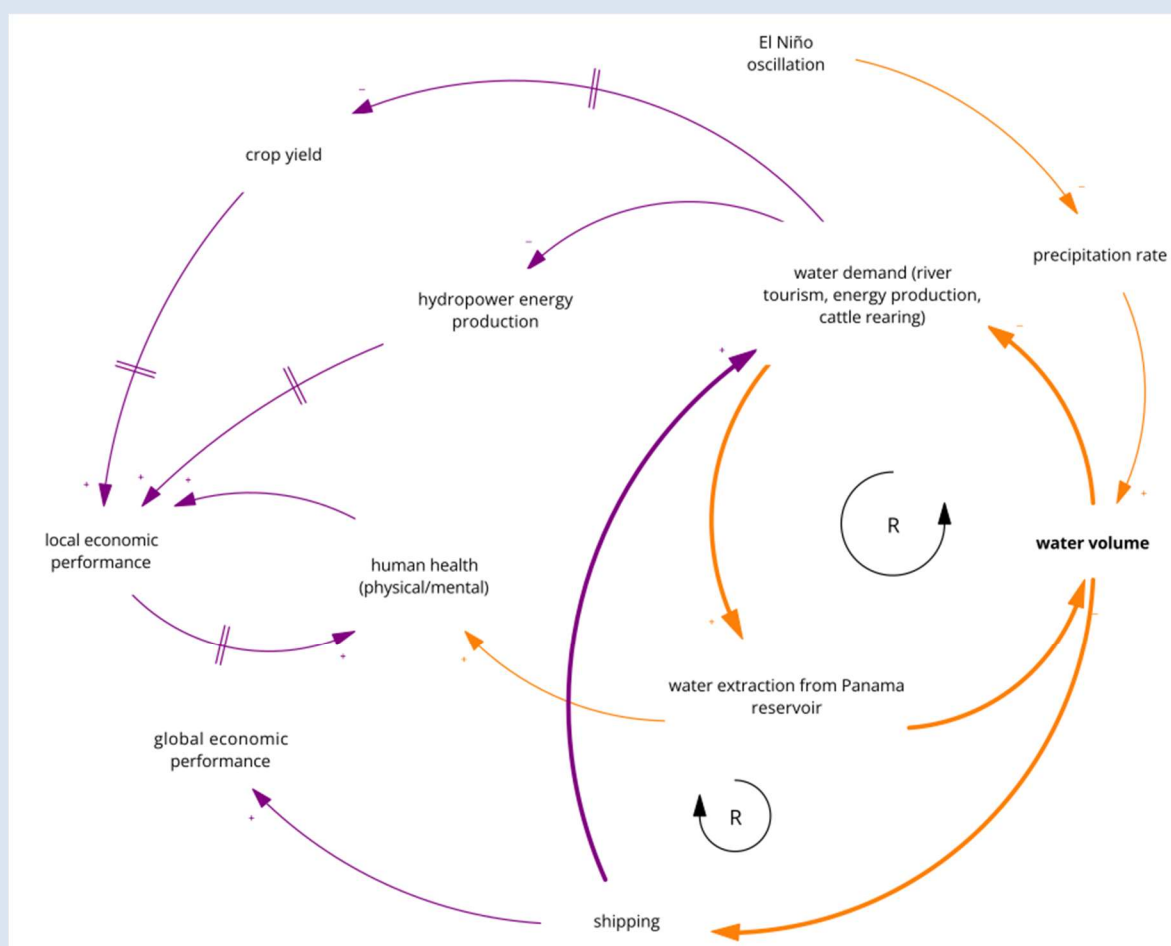


Figure 4 | Causal loop diagram describing the main interactions between creeping changes (purple) and shocks (orange) in the Panama Canal droughts of 2014 and 2023. Double lines indicate delayed relationships and R indicates a reinforcing loop. Note that the diagrams and boxes are illustrative applications of the framework rather than full causal reconstructions.

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3.2. The influence of polycrisis dynamics on risk perception and behavioral response

Risk perception is central to understanding and responding to polycrisis, yet it is also challenged by the temporal dynamics through which crises unfold. Creeping changes are especially difficult to mobilise against because their signals are gradual, contested, and often absorbed into everyday experience. As a result, people may come to treat recently experienced conditions as normal: for instance, the perceived remarkability of temperature anomalies can decay over short time windows, so that objectively unusual conditions rapidly come to be experienced as ordinary (Moore et al., 2019). This process is consistent with prospect theory and shifting baseline syndrome, both of which suggest that people judge change relative to familiar reference points rather than against fixed or absolute standards (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Soga & Gaston, 2018). As these reference points shift, the same physical deterioration may register as a smaller perceived loss than it would have under an earlier baseline. This weakens the motivation to bear present costs for prevention and helps explain why creeping changes often fail to trigger collective action. Expectations about future conditions and others' behavior therefore become central to whether people prepare for slow-onset risks and sustain cooperation over time (Andrews et al., 2024; Syropoulos et al., 2025; Tuytens & Haberstroh, 2026). Present-oriented preferences may further reduce attention to gradual change, while shocks can disrupt existing priorities and either strengthen or undermine long-horizon commitments (Law et al., 2024; see Box 2).

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Shocks pose a different challenge because they are filtered through salience, affect, and habituation. Salient events are more likely to be treated as decision-relevant, while affect shapes whether they generate urgency and protective action. This can distort probabilistic judgement, as vivid or recent shocks tend to be overweighted, while less visible or less recent risks are discounted, producing cycles of overreaction and neglect (Johnson & Tversky, 1983). Similar salience effects may also shape expert and institutional risk assessments, where highly visible risks can receive disproportionate attention relative to slower or less measurable forms of harm (Delannoy et al., 2025c). Salience, however, does not guarantee response. As harm scales up, psychophysical numbing can reduce sensitivity to additional losses, weakening motivation precisely in the high-damage tail that dominates polycrisis outcomes (Slovic & Västfjäll, 2010). Repeated or prolonged exposure can also produce habituation. During the 2009 H1N1 outbreak, anxiety and protective behaviors declined within days after initial spikes (Jones & Salathé, 2009), and precautionary measures decreased over subsequent weeks even when perceived risk remained high (Ibuka et al., 2010).

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Amidst polycrisis, the link between risk perception and response becomes more uncertain, as overlapping crises redirect attention, reshape how governance interventions are judged, and affect willingness to comply with collective measures or support investments with immediate costs and delayed benefits. This is what happened for instance following the first COVID-19 wave, when climate concern declined and acceptance of most climate policies increased, with the shifts covaried with pandemic-related beliefs and evaluations of government response (Drews et al., 2022). This raises three questions. First, what are the conditions under which compounding shocks weaken the link between public concern and support for policy action? Specifically, we support the exploration of the extent to which this effect depends on the belief of crisis interdependence and institutional effectiveness. Second, how do creeping changes and shocks reshape risk perception by shifting reference points, and which strategies may help reduce the resulting biases? Third, how do creeping changes affect behavioral readiness and support for preventive action before damages become visible?

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To better understand how polycrisis dynamics shape risk perception and affect appropriate behavioral responses, we propose the use of methods enabling the exploration of causal relationships and moderation/mediation effects, alongside longitudinal designs that capture changes over time and practice theory approaches (e.g., Iragena et al., 2026; Nolte et al., 2026). At the same time, insights from past shocks and creeping changes can be explored through comparative analyses and hybrid modeling (Brown & Rounsevell, 2020; Webster et al., 2025), to assess how different factors have influenced risk perception and responses in the past. Such approaches can support modeling of future scenarios and help mitigate biases in both perception and response to shock impacts, and should be part of the emerging synthesis of behavioral ecological economics (Della Valle et al., 2025). We contend

264 that the loss and damage literature offers a promising bridge between EE and SES for examining why
 265 risk awareness may not lead to adaptation, why responses may be delayed or maladaptive, and how
 266 unequal capacities, vulnerabilities, and responsibilities or power relationships shape the space for action
 267 in the face of crises (Gawith et al., 2020; Boyd et al., 2021).
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Box 2 - Floods in Valencia, Spain

On October 29, 2024, the eastern coast of Spain was shocked by torrential rainfall, causing extensive flooding and mudslides across the city of Valencia and the surrounding region (Copernicus, 2024; WMO, 2024). The floods led to more than 200 casualties (European Space Agency, 2024) and affected over 325,000 people, destroying 53,000 ha of cropland and damaging 3,200 km of road infrastructure (Copernicus, 2024). Due to the impact on real estate, €3.1 billion in insurance claims were requested, which contributed to nearly €11 billion in total economic losses (Munich RE, 2025).

The downpour reached 491 l/m² in specific areas (World Meteorological Organization, 2024) and was triggered by a recurring weather phenomenon referred to as DANA (Depresión Aislada en Niveles Altos, Spanish for isolated depression at high levels) in the east of the Iberian Peninsula (Copernicus, 2024; World Meteorological Organization, 2024). The isolated rainfall pocket forms when cold air travels from the Atlantic Ocean and collides with warm air from the Mediterranean Sea. Global planetary warming and land use interventions at the local level have contributed to the creeping increase of regional temperatures, and have heightened the frequency of DANA events in lower latitudes, as per Murcia and Andalusia in 2024 (BBC News, 2019).

Early forensic investigations into the institutional responses to the event identified the government's late declaration of a level 3 flooding emergency (i.e. at the national level) as the primary social aggravator of the shock (Galvez-Hernandez et al., 2025). Similar cognitive biases to the ones mentioned in Section 3.2 could have contributed to the delayed response to the flooding emergency. For example, trend-extrapolation bias, the tendency to expect change to continue at the same pace and direction, neglecting potential acceleration or threshold effects (Ostinelli & Luna, 2024), could have skewed perceptions of the true flooding risk. However, in 2024 the rainfall evolved into an event of unprecedented magnitude, which had not been accounted for in the fiscal policy decisions taken by the Valencian government in the preceding years. One such decision affected the Valencian Emergencies Unit which had been defunded in 2023. During the DANA event, the absence or weakening of dedicated emergency-response capacity may have reduced the scope for preventive coordination and increased reliance on ex-post military and police deployment (Hagan, 2024; López-Carrión et al., 2025; Galvez-Hernandez et al., 2025; Martin-Moreno et al., 2025). Eventually, roughly 15,000 troops and police officers were deployed to support existing relief efforts (Hagan, 2024), but communities had already suffered severe damage due to the vulnerability induced by the austerity measures.

Another mechanism, self–other discrepancy bias, i.e., the tendency for people to believe that they are less at risk than are others in the environmental domain, might have influenced the local policymakers to underestimate the risk of a flood of unprecedented magnitude in Valencia (Pahl et al., 2005). The hypothesis is illustrated in Fig. 5, whereby, at the beginning of the decade, several areas that should have functioned as flood plains in case of excessive rainfall were converted into residential zones, encouraged by the permits for real estate development that the government distributed despite the spatial planning guidelines (Galvez-Hernandez et al., 2025). This creeping change increased the exposure of the community and eventually led to the streets of the city to morph into urban rivers (BBC News, 2019). During the shock public spaces such as schools, libraries, and parks had to be closed to the public (BBC News, 2025).

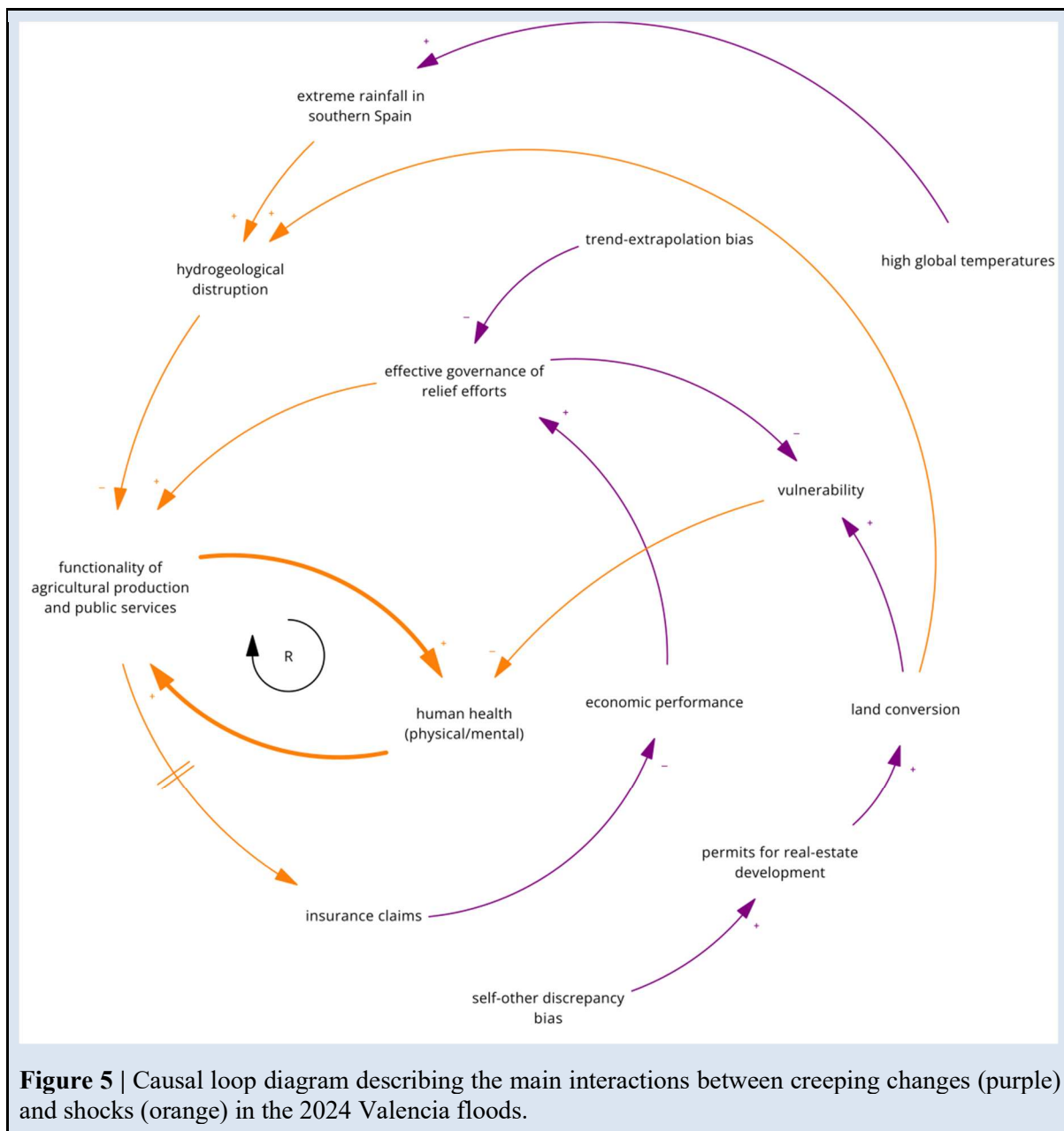


Figure 5 | Causal loop diagram describing the main interactions between creeping changes (purple) and shocks (orange) in the 2024 Valencia floods.

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3.3. Trust and variations in collective action in response to threats

271 Effective responses to polycrisis strongly depend on whether groups can sustain collective action under
 272 uncertainty. This capacity is shaped by social conditions that support coordination, including trust,
 273 shared norms and expectations, and perceptions of fairness. Trust is central to effective response
 274 because it shapes whether people are willing to accept short-term costs for longer-term collective
 275 benefits as they expect institutions and individuals to act competently and fairly (Mayer et al., 1995;
 276 Levi & Stoker, 2000). Specifically, (vertical) trust in institutions and social pacts, the subset of trust-
 277 based relationships that we focus on in this section, influences both perceived risk and willingness to
 278 follow guidance when personal experience is limited and uncertainty high (Siegrist & Cvetkovich,
 279 2000; Aldrich, 2012).

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281 Where institutional trust is strong, compliance and willingness tend to be higher. Where trust is weak,
 282 frictions in communication and resistance to guidance become more likely when coordination is most
 283 needed. Trust also varies within societies because experiences with institutions differ systematically
 284 across groups, shaped by legacies of inequality, harm, and quality of government (Kitt et al., 2021; Kim
 285 et al., 2022; Polasky et al., 2025). Our current understanding of how these initial distributions of trust

286 shape trajectories of response in polycrisis is weak, especially because evidence on trust dynamics
 287 during crises remains mixed and the interaction between shocks and the slow erosion of trust alters
 288 compliance and conflict in various ways.

289 Beyond trust, collective action under polycrisis also depends on social norms and shared expectations,
 290 which define what behaviors are considered acceptable, what risks are taken seriously, and what
 291 obligations people recognise toward others (Nyborg et al., 2016). Trust is partly sustained by
 292 expectations of competent, fair, and cooperative behavior, while norms provide anchor points that make
 293 certain responses appear appropriate or expected (Oyebode & Nicholls, 2023). These anchors can
 294 stabilise cooperation, but they can also entrench complacency or socially reinforced risk-taking: periods
 295 of apparent stability may generate overconfidence and contribute to the systematic underestimation of
 296 long-horizon risks (Jones et al., 2020). At the same time, norms are not fixed. Experimental and
 297 modeling work suggests that once a sufficiently visible minority adopts and signals an alternative norm,
 298 collective expectations can shift rapidly, with estimates around a quarter of a population in some
 299 contexts (Centola et al., 2018; Andreoni et al., 2021; Smerdon et al., 2020). Polycrisis conditions may
 300 therefore create both inertia and instability in collective action, as crises and political transitions can
 301 unsettle apparently stable patterns of institutional and interpersonal trust (Devine & Valgarðsson, 2024).
 302 In some cases, declining confidence in government may be offset by greater reliance on interpersonal
 303 networks, as observed during COVID-19 (Besley & Dray, 2024); in others, institutional failure may
 304 spill over into broader erosion of social trust (Sønderskov & Dinesen, 2016).

305 This avenue motivates three research questions. First, what are the effects of creeping changes on the
 306 social and institutional conditions that sustain trust? For example, we ask how service reliability and
 307 perceived fairness reshape trust and collective responses over time, and under what conditions shocks
 308 amplify that erosion or generate short-lived “rally” effects that support compliance. Second, how do
 309 norms and shared expectations evolve when creeping changes normalise deterioration while shocks
 310 intermittently reveal vulnerabilities? Specifically, studies are needed on how these dynamics produce
 311 non-linear shifts in behavior and cooperation. Third, to what extent do people’s beliefs about others’
 312 contributions to cooperation shift responses and efforts? In particular we encourage research on
 313 conditions that may shape preparedness and recovery, particularly when shocks and creeping changes
 314 interact and reallocate burdens across existing communities and generations.

315 Methodologically, this avenue calls for connecting work on collective action, institutional dynamics,
 316 and social–ecological networks with behavioral methods that examine cooperation under public-good
 317 dilemmas. Climate-game or experiments can test how repeated shocks, minimum contribution rules,
 318 and perceived free-riding affect willingness to cooperate, while survey-based approaches can measure
 319 conditional cooperation and beliefs about others’ contributions (Becchetti et al., 2024; Abraham et al.,
 320 2025; Milinski & Innocenti, 2025). Storylines and stress-test represent another valuable path for
 321 exploring conditions enabling resilience (Hochrainer-Stigler et al., 2025). These approaches should be
 322 combined together, and can be connected as well with case comparison and institutional analysis to
 323 examine how cooperation depends on histories of service provision, exposure to prior disturbances, and
 324 procedural fairness, especially after shocks when policy responses are implemented under uncertainty
 325 and unequal conditions. In such contexts, fairness shapes whether people accept decisions by authorities
 326 and cooperate with one another, while equity frameworks can help assess how interventions affect
 327 marginalised and vulnerable groups through procedural, distributive, and recognitional dimensions (van
 328 den Bos & Wilke, 1998; McDermott et al., 2013; Langemeyer et al., 2024).

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330 **3.4. Shifting social-ecological meaning through the lens of diverse values of nature**

331 Values play a key role in how societies understand their position with respect to nature, with framings
 332 such as “Nature despite people”, “Nature for people” or “People with nature” predominating worldwide
 333 (Reyers & Bennett, 2025). Values underpin cultural and normative shifts and therefore influence who
 334 or what is deemed important in all kinds of decisions including environmental decisions, and which
 335 losses are treated as acceptable. Shifts in these values could shape how people prepare for shocks, what

336 they protect during emergencies, and how they interpret trade-offs when risks or damages accumulate
337 slowly.

338 Values can be expressed at different hierarchical levels such as transcendental values (i.e., fundamental
339 life principles), contextual values (i.e., situation specific judgements) and as value types such as
340 instrumental concerns about benefits and livelihoods, relational concerns about identity, responsibility,
341 and reciprocity, and intrinsic concerns about nature's worth independent of human use (IPBES 2022).
342 These perspectives rarely appear in isolation in real decision-making, and their relative salience can
343 shift over time (Ortiz-Przychodzka et al., 2025). Some shifts are gradual, as when market integration
344 and institutional incentives make extractive uses more socially legitimate. Others can be abrupt, as when
345 shocks reorder priorities and reopen debates about what should be protected. Values shape both the
346 drivers of creeping change and the management of shocks. For instance, in many contemporary
347 management settings of resource governance, harvest limits are justified through instrumental aims such
348 as sustained yield for particular commodities (Pauly & Froese, 2020; Putz et al., 2022). In other
349 contexts, decision-making is anchored in reciprocity-based norms, exemplified by the Potawatomi
350 "Honorable Harvest," which emphasises taking only what is needed and giving back to the land
351 (Kimmerer 2025). These approaches can sometimes generate similar extraction levels in stable periods,
352 yet they can diverge sharply when a shock forces triage. During a wildfire regime, for instance,
353 instrumental priorities can focus response on protecting commercial timber and built assets, whereas
354 relational or intrinsic priorities can shift attention toward habitats, culturally important species, and
355 long-term ecosystem recovery.

356 In many settings, instrumental framings have been linked to marketisation and extractivist trajectories
357 that contribute to creeping ecological degradation and to vulnerabilities that amplify shocks (Hickel et
358 al., 2022). At the same time, relational values that emphasise stewardship and reciprocity are widely
359 documented, but they can be displaced through global markets, colonial legacies, and cultural
360 assimilation (Alessa et al., 2016). Such displacement can itself be understood as creeping change
361 because it shifts what is considered normal and desirable in human–nature relations. Once institutional
362 rules, livelihood strategies, and infrastructures align with instrumental priorities, value change can
363 become self-reinforcing through everyday practice. Shocks can either deepen that lock-in or disrupt it.
364 For example, the Greek economic crisis reshaped human–nature relations, in that it led to a reevaluation
365 of instrumental framings in favor of a renewed engagement with nearby nature. It also spurred a
366 rapprochement to relational values, as opposed to instrumental ones (Benessaiah & Chan, 2023). This
367 process highlighted how deeply held relational values can also persist under long-term external
368 pressure, as shown by Xhosa communities maintaining biocultural relations despite imposed
369 Eurocentric framings (Cocks et al., 2012). Value change can thus be slow and resistant, yet not
370 immovable. Shocks interact with creeping changes in shaping which values guide action (see Box 3).

371 This avenue highlights three research questions. First, how do prevailing mixes of instrumental,
372 relational, and intrinsic values shape which creeping changes are tolerated, which ones are treated as
373 urgent, and how do vulnerabilities accumulate prior to shocks? Second, when shocks occur, how do
374 different value commitments shape response priorities and burden-sharing, and how do those responses
375 feed back on the values that are reinforced through institutions, livelihoods, and daily practice? Third,
376 under what conditions do shocks accelerate ongoing shifts in values, versus triggering reversals or
377 pluralisation that expands the range of acceptable adaptation and transformation pathways?

378 Addressing these questions requires reframing economic and conservation practices around people–
379 nature relationships and more-than-human relations. Research must examine how assemblages of
380 instrumental, relational, and intrinsic values embedded in livelihoods, institutions, and practices shape
381 what societies tolerate, ignore, or treat as urgent (Trisos et al., 2021). Deliberative, spatial, survey-based,
382 and Q-methodological approaches can therefore be combined to examine how values shift before and
383 after shocks (Keeler et al., 2025; Uggeldahl et al., 2025). Building on this, attention to "more-than-
384 human synchronizations" — the intertwined rhythms of people, nature and livelihoods — can reveal
385 where resilient economies exist (Mancilla García et al., 2024). Governance experiments and
386 comparative studies across shocks and creeping changes can then track how crises redistribute

387 responsibilities and benefits, whose values guide responses, and whether disruption reinforces dominant
 388 instrumental framings or opens space for plural values and justice-oriented institutions (Langemeyer et
 389 al., 2024). This is particularly important in regard to the emerging ecological economics agenda for
 390 appropriate collaboration with communities in the Global South (Barkin et al., 2026).
 391

Box 3 - Deforestation frontier, wildfires and erosion of values in Chiquitania, Bolivia

Between June and December 2024, 3,749 active wildfires raged in the Chiquitania region of Bolivia (Plan International, 2024). The fires displaced over 600 families in the Santa Cruz department alone (ACNUR, 2024) and affected nearly 4 million hectares of dry tropical forest (Plan International, 2024). Human and animal health were severely impacted, as were public services, including in-person school classes nationwide (Plan International, 2024).

The first creeping change has to do with the agrarian extractivism activity connected to land use change, which has evolved through the convergence of national states and economic elites interested in boosting agribusiness development, cross-border land rentiers seeking new income streams, global financial investors backing agribusinesses existing in the region, and workers and settlers hoping to make a living on the edge of the frontier (Ortiz-Przychodzka et al., 2025; Llanque et al., 2024). The establishment of an agrarian commodity frontier in the region contributed significantly to the change in land use and ecological dynamics. When heavy deforestation practices clear an area to make space for monocultures, the fire-resistant qualities of the local species is lost (Global Forest Watch, 2023; Devisscher et al., 2016). In Chiquitania, this enabled wildfire to spread extensively, causing the loss of forest cover and biodiversity (Agencia de Noticias Fides, 2024; Brújula Digital, 2025; Ortiz-Przychodzka et al., 2025).

A second creeping change concerns the erosion and reconfiguration of social–ecological meanings. The change in landscape architecture and the loss of endemic biodiversity in Chiquitania concurred with the erosion of human plural values of nature including contextual (i.e., value towards a particular element of nature such as a forest patch that burned down) and transcendental values (i.e., feeling like being part of nature). Moreover, the compounding drivers have generated a shift from relational values towards instrumental values of nature, which involves seeing ecological elements as a resource for monetary gains. For instance, 1,400 people reported that their relationship with nature was eroded due to the threat arising from their environmental surroundings (Ortiz-Przychodzka et al., 2025). The reconfiguration of territorial relations can therefore be read as a societal creeping change: it gradually alters livelihoods, expectations, and people–nature relations, while increasing the likelihood that future landscapes will be organised around more homogeneous and fire-prone land uses. This is especially dramatic for Indigenous communities for whom identity and biodiversity are ontologically bound (Llanque et al., 2024). When creeping changes and ecological shocks compounded in the Chiquitania region, they produced long-lasting social–ecological damage and may have increased exposure to future shocks.

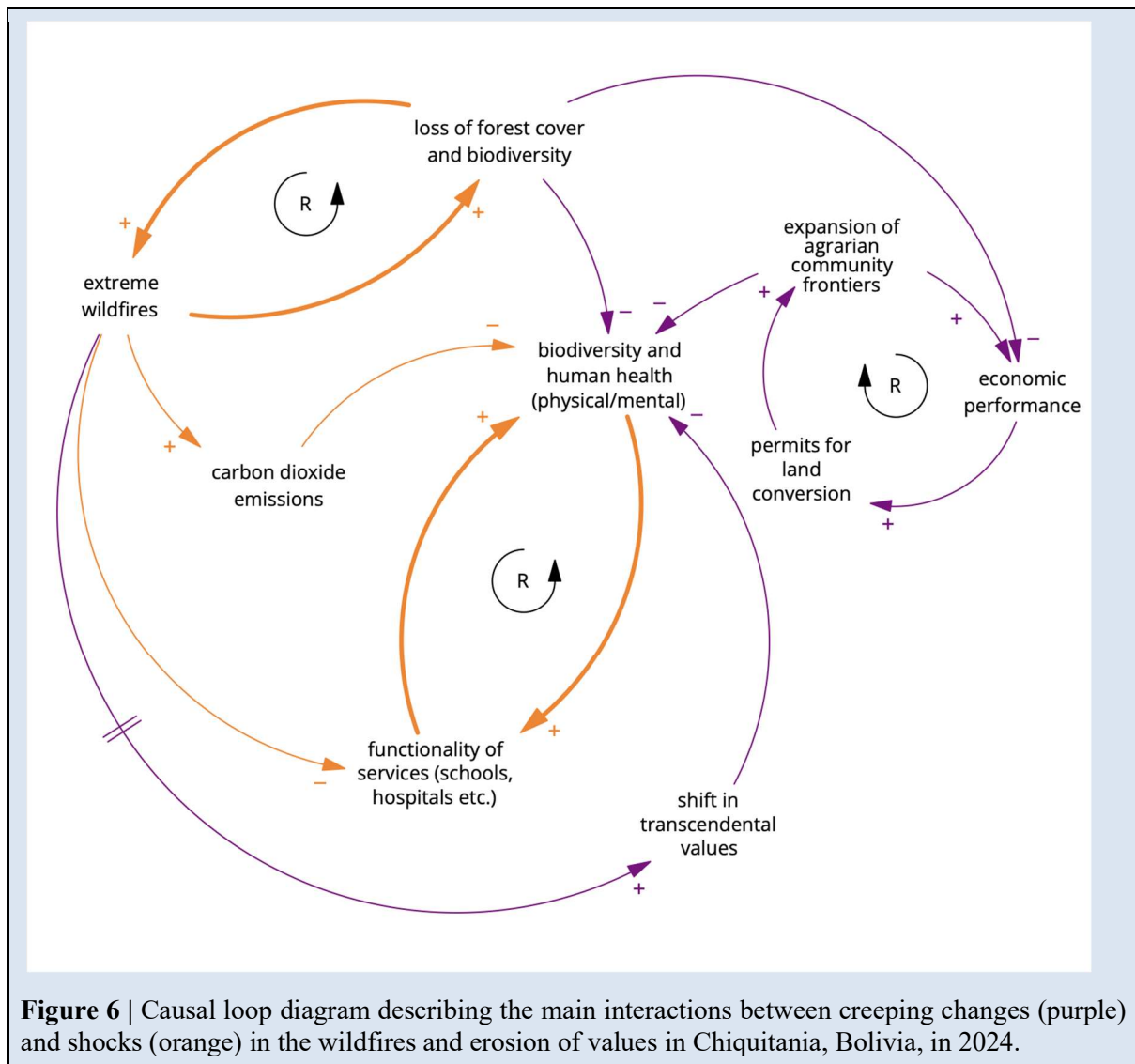


Figure 6 | Causal loop diagram describing the main interactions between creeping changes (purple) and shocks (orange) in the wildfires and erosion of values in Chiquitania, Bolivia, in 2024.

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4. Conclusion

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Ecological economics and social–ecological systems traditions each capture part of drivers and impacts of polycrises as well as potential responses to them, but common work needs to be strengthened. To support a bridge between EE and SES, we have outlined four research avenues that specify where this synthesis is feasible and promising. First, infrastructures mediate whether creeping changes and shocks are buffered or trigger cascading effects, and they provide concrete leverage points for resilience-building and deliberate reconfiguration. Second, risk perception, attention, and behavioral response shape whether slow deterioration is recognised early and whether repeated shocks generate learning or fatigue, with direct implications for the durability of prevention and investment. Third, trust, norms, and procedural fairness govern collective action under compound change and determine whether institutional guidance is followed. Fourth, plural values of nature shape what is treated as loss, what is prioritised under triage, and which adaptation and transformation pathways are seen as legitimate.

Polycrisis is not only the interaction of shocks and creeping changes. It is the interaction of shocks and creeping changes through infrastructures, institutions, perceptions, trust relations, and values that are politically and economically structured. We believe in the need to shift attention from naming crisis entanglement to explaining why vulnerability accumulates, how disturbances cascade, and under what conditions societies can redirect trajectories before disruption becomes collapse. The next step is to make these mechanisms empirically comparable across cases, while retaining the histories, values, and inequalities that make each crisis trajectory distinct.

413

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425

426 **Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the manuscript preparation process**

427 During the preparation of this work, the authors used GPT-5.4 for spellchecking and as inspiration for
 428 rewording individual sentences, and GPT Image 2.0 to generate the central element of Figure 3. After
 429 using these tools, the authors reviewed and edited the content as needed and take full responsibility for
 430 the content of the publication.

431

432 **Author contributions**

433 **L.D.:** Conceptualization, Writing - Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualization,
 434 Supervision, Project administration. **G.R.:** Conceptualization, Writing - Original draft, Writing -
 435 Review & Editing, Visualization, Project administration. **B.A.B.O.:** Conceptualization, Writing -
 436 Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing. **F.B.:** Conceptualization, Writing - Original draft, Writing
 437 - Review & Editing. **N.C.-L.:** Conceptualization, Writing - Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing.
 438 **J.C.:** Writing - Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing. **G.D.:** Writing - Original draft, Writing -
 439 Review & Editing. **T.E.:** Writing - Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing. **J.H.:** Conceptualization,
 440 Writing - Original draft. **M.K.:** Writing - Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing. **N.S.K.:** Writing
 441 - Review & Editing. **N.L.:** Conceptualization, Writing - Original draft. **M.vE.:** Writing - Review &
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444

445 **Declaration of interests**

446 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that
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448

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 458 [comun/procuraduria-y-ganaderos-acuerdan-frenar-investigacion-para-revertir-tierras-y-procesos-](https://www.noticiasfides.com/cuidado-de-la-casa-comun/procuraduria-y-ganaderos-acuerdan-frenar-investigacion-para-revertir-tierras-y-procesos-penales-por-provocar-incendios)
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