

1 **Interconnectedness in Socio technical Design: A Systematic Review of Sustainable** 2 **Community Forests Management in Nepal.**

3 4 **Abstract**

5 Nepal's community forestry is a globally recognized model of participatory forest
6 management, yet it faces persistent challenges related to knowledge asymmetries, multi-level
7 governance fragmentation, institutional bricolage, and socio-ecological transformations. This
8 systematic literature review synthesizes evidence from 36 peer-reviewed studies to examine
9 how interconnectedness has been conceptualized in Nepal's community forest governance
10 and to assess the potential of a sociotechnical design lens for improving sustainability
11 outcomes. The review followed PRISMA guidelines, searching Scopus, Web of Science,
12 Google Scholar, and CAB Abstracts. Thematic synthesis revealed four interconnected
13 dimensions: knowledge–power dynamics (scientific forestry marginalizing local knowledge),
14 multi-level governance networks (weak coordination post-federalisation), institutional
15 bricolage (mixing, altering, or eroding formal and informal rules), and socio-ecological
16 linkages (out-migration and human-wildlife conflict destabilizing forest–livelihood relations).

17 Crucially, none of the studies explicitly applied a sociotechnical design framework treating
18 technical and social subsystems as jointly optimizable representing a critical gap. The review
19 concludes that technical interventions (e.g., forest inventories, monitoring tools) fail when
20 designed in isolation from local social capacities and power structures. The single
21 recommendation is that Nepal's Ministry of Forests and Environment mandate a
22 sociotechnical co-design process for all community forest management plans, requiring every
23 technical specification to be developed jointly with CFUG members through facilitated,
24 equity-sensitive workshops, piloted in 20 CFUGs, and codified into revised guidelines.
25 Without such integration, sustainability remains elusive.

26 **Keywords:** *Community forestry, Interconnectedness, Sociotechnical design, Nepal, Forest*
27 *governance.*

28 **Introduction**

29 Forest ecosystems play a central role in sustaining rural livelihoods, regulating climate,
30 preserving biodiversity, and providing a wide range of material and non-material benefits to
31 human societies worldwide (FAO, 2020). Globally, nearly 880 million people harvest
32 fuelwood or make charcoal, and over 1 billion people rely on wild foods (Shackleton et al.,
33 2011). Nepal's community forestry program stands as one of the world's most celebrated
34 examples of participatory forest resource management (Acharya, 2002; Agrawal & Ostrom,
35 2001). Recognized globally as a pioneer in community-based natural resource governance,
36 Nepal's model has successfully increased forest cover, restored degraded landscapes,
37 promoted local democratic decision-making, and improved rural livelihoods over more than
38 four decades of implementation (Gautam et al., 2004; Paudel et al., 2020).

39 Despite these achievements, Nepal's community forestry system faces mounting challenges
40 that threaten its long-term sustainability and effectiveness. Rapid socio-economic
41 transformations, including widespread out-migration and changing livelihood patterns, have
42 profoundly altered the relationship between forest-dependent communities and the forests

43 they manage (Jaquet et al., 2015; Ojha et al., 2017). Since the early 2000s, out-migration of
44 working-age adults from many parts of rural Nepal has led to declining collective action and
45 passive forest management (Adhikari et al., 2019). At the same time, ecological dynamics
46 such as increasing human–wildlife conflicts have emerged as significant threats to both forest
47 conservation and agriculture-based rural livelihoods (Kandel et al., 2016; Thapa & Chapman,
48 2010). This problem has become particularly acute in mid-hill districts where community
49 forestry programs have successfully restored forest cover alongside massive out-migration,
50 destabilizing the historical coexistence between subsistence communities and local
51 ecosystems (Paudel et al., 2020).

52 Furthermore, the progressive entrenchment of “scientific forestry” approaches has introduced
53 expert-driven technical management frameworks that often underprivilege local traditional
54 knowledge and weaken community decision-making autonomy (Gautam et al., 2018; Satyal
55 Pravat & Humphreys, 2013). Under scientific forestry, professional and expert knowledge
56 bolstered technical and bureaucratic power among forest authorities, which in turn not only
57 marginalized traditional local knowledge but also undermined local decision-making
58 autonomy in community forestry (Khatri et al., 2017). Research has revealed that community
59 forest management plans are frequently employed as bureaucratic instruments to legitimize
60 expert authority rather than as practical guides that genuinely assist local communities in
61 managing their forests (Rabinowitz et al., 2018). The implementation of scientific forest
62 management schemes has demanded high-level technical skills while simultaneously
63 undermining local participation and autonomy (Paudel et al., 2019).

64 These interconnected governance, social, ecological, and technical dynamics foreground a
65 critical observation: the sustainable management of community forests in Nepal cannot be
66 understood or effectively advanced by examining any single dimension in isolation (Ostrom,
67 2009; Poteete et al., 2010). The challenges and solutions alike lie at the intersection of
68 multiple, mutually constitutive domains: local institutional arrangements, knowledge systems
69 (both traditional and expert), social networks of forest users and government actors, technical
70 tools for forest monitoring and planning, ecological processes, and shifting
71 political-economic contexts (Baral et al., 2018; Ojha et al., 2016). Nepal’s forest cover nearly
72 doubled over the last three decades, driven primarily by community forest management and
73 agricultural abandonment (DFRS, 2015), yet the governance outcomes of community forestry
74 often fall short of expectations, raising questions about the effectiveness of existing
75 institutional arrangements and the power dynamics among actors (Banjade et al., 2016).

76 This recognition has motivated a growing body of scholarship that explicitly adopts
77 an interconnectedness lens perspective that conceptualizes community forest governance as
78 a multi-dimensional system wherein social, technical, institutional, and ecological elements
79 are intrinsically linked and mutually influencing (Berkes, 2012; McGinnis & Ostrom, 2014).
80 However, despite scattered applications across disciplines, there remains no systematic
81 synthesis of how interconnectedness has been conceptualized, operationalized, and evaluated
82 within the specific context of Nepal’s community forestry (Gautam & Rana, 2019). In
83 parallel, the field of sociotechnical design concerned with the joint optimization of social and
84 technical subsystems within complex organizational and environmental systems (Bostrom &
85 Heinen, 1977; Trist & Bamforth, 1951) has seen limited and fragmented engagement with
86 forest governance in the Global South (Johnson et al., 2021).

87 This systematic literature review therefore seeks to address two interlocking research
88 objectives. First, it aims to trace and synthesize how the concept of interconnectedness across
89 its various theoretical registers (social-ecological, institutional, network-based, and

90 socio-technical)has been employed in studies of Nepal’s community forest governance and
91 sustainable management. Second, guided by this synthesis, the review seeks to examine the
92 potential and limitations of sociotechnical design as an integrative framework for analyzing
93 and improving the governance of community forests in Nepal.

94 **Literature Review**

95 **Conceptual Foundations: Interconnectedness in Sociotechnical Systems**

96 The concept of interconnectednessthe recognition that entities, actors, processes, and
97 elements within a system are mutually linked and causally influence one anotherhas gained
98 substantial traction across multiple scholarly traditions. Within sociotechnical systems theory,
99 interconnectedness is not merely an optional analytical lens but a foundational axiom:
100 sociotechnical systems are defined precisely by the entanglement of social and technical
101 components, wherein the behavior of each is inseparable from and co-constitutive with the
102 other (Trist & Bamforth, 1951; Walker et al., 2008). A sociotechnical system is a system that
103 is both an engineered system and a social system, and understanding its performance requires
104 treating both aspects as interdependent parts of a complex whole (Baxter & Sommerville,
105 2011).

106 Within sustainability transitions research, there has been a growing emphasis on multi-system
107 innovation frameworks that broaden the conventional focus on single sociotechnical systems
108 to encompass interactions across multiple, coupled systems (Geels, 2019; Markard et al.,
109 2012). The field of sustainability transitions research emerged in the past two decades in the
110 context of growing scientific and public interest in large-scale societal transformation toward
111 sustainability, highlighting sociotechnical and socio-ecological approaches (Köhler et al.,
112 2019). Key insights from this work include the importance of considering the overarching
113 directionality of multiple sociotechnical systems and analyzing system configurations that
114 examine value chains, sectoral characteristics, and interactions between complementary or
115 competing technologies (Raven et al., 2012).

116 More recently, scholars have called for bringing technology into social-ecological systems
117 research, arguing for a socio-technical-ecological systems (STES) approach that explicitly
118 recognizes the technological mediation of human-environment relationships (Cash et al.,
119 2016; Pahl-Wostl, 2019). Such an approach explicitly recognizes that technical
120 infrastructures, governance arrangements, and ecological processes are co-produced and
121 mutually shapinga perspective that resonates strongly with the complexities of community
122 forest governance in Nepal (Johnson et al., 2021).

123 Taken together, these conceptual developments suggest that interconnectedness is not a
124 monolithic concept but rather an analytical bridge constructone that connects actor-network
125 perspectives, institutional analysis, social-ecological systems frameworks, and sociotechnical
126 design approaches (Holling, 2001; Ostrom, 2009). In the specific domain of community
127 forest governance, an interconnectedness lens holds particular promise precisely because
128 community forests are quintessential hybrid systems: they involve social institutions
129 (CFUGs, user committees, government agencies), technical elements (forest inventories,
130 mapping tools, monitoring technologies), ecological processes (tree growth, biodiversity
131 dynamics, carbon cycles), and governance arrangements (local rules, legal frameworks,

132 multi-level state structures) that cannot be meaningfully separated (Agrawal & Gibson, 1999;
133 Nagendra & Ostrom, 2012).

134 The literature on Nepal's community forest governance reveals that interconnectedness
135 manifests across at least four interrelated analytical dimensions: (1) knowledge and power
136 dynamics, (2) multi-level governance networks, (3) institutional bricolage, and
137 (4) socio-ecological linkages.

138 **Knowledge and Power Dynamics**

139 Perhaps the most extensively documented expression of interconnectedness in Nepal's
140 community forestry literature concerns the tension and interplay between scientific-technical
141 knowledge and local-practical knowledge (Gautam et al., 2018; Satyal Pravat & Humphreys,
142 2013). A substantial body of research has traced how "scientific forestry" developed
143 originally in the context of industrialized forestry in Western Europe and traveled across the globe
144 and became a dominant ideology and approach to forest management, including within
145 Nepal's community forestry system (Khatri et al., 2017; Scott, 1998). Although the concept
146 was formally introduced into Nepal's community forestry system beginning in the early
147 2000s (GoN, 2014), it fundamentally reshaped management priorities in community forests
148 where local communities had historically managed forests primarily for subsistence
149 livelihoods (Paudel et al., 2019).

150 Under the regime of scientific forest management (SciFM), professional and expert
151 knowledge gained prominence, bolstering the technical and bureaucratic authority of forest
152 officials while simultaneously underprivileging local traditional knowledge practices and
153 undermining local decision-making autonomy (Karki et al., 2018). Empirical studies have
154 provided granular evidence of this dynamic. A detailed investigation of SciFM plan
155 preparation processes in two community forests in Kaski District found that forest technicians
156 were consistently dominant over community forest users during the planning and
157 decision-making phases (Rabinowitz et al., 2018). Crucially, while CFUGs played a leading
158 role in implementing forest management activities (such as thinning, pruning, and other
159 silvicultural operations), the majority of respondents (90%) considered SciFM to be
160 excessively technical and reported being unable to effectively implement the management
161 plans as designed (Paudel et al., 2019).

162 **Multi-Level Governance Networks**

163 A second analytical dimension of interconnectedness concerns cross-scale and cross-level
164 governance processes. Community forestry in Nepal operates within a multi-level governance
165 landscape that includes local CFUGs, municipal governments, district forest offices,
166 provincial forest authorities, and federal ministries and agencies (Paudel et al., 2019; Shrestha
167 & McManus, 2008). The success or failure of community forestry depends substantially on
168 how actors across these levels interact, mobilizing their respective technical, civic, political,
169 and administrative powers to influence both policy frameworks and on-the-ground practices
170 (Ojha et al., 2016).

171 Recent research has mapped these multi-scalar processes, revealing how interactions between
172 state and civil society, the interplay between scientific and popular knowledge, the influence
173 of development assistance, decentralization policies, and scalar articulation all shape forest
174 restoration outcomes and local livelihood implications (Adhikari et al., 2019; Banjade et al.,

175 2016). Nepal's 2015 Constitution marked a shift to federal governance, emphasizing
176 cooperation among federal, provincial, and local levels (GoN, 2015), while the Local
177 Government Operation Act 2017 and Forest Act 2019 outlined local government's
178 collaborative roles in community forest management (GoN, 2019). Emerging tensions
179 between newly established provincial forest authorities and local governments regarding
180 regulatory authority over community forestry have added additional layers of complexity to
181 these governance networks, with policy structures for intergovernmental dispute resolution
182 frequently lacking the technical resources to address complex environmental challenges
183 (Gautam & Rana, 2019).

184 **Institutional Bricolage and Hybrid Governance**

185 A third dimension of interconnectedness in the literature concerns institutional bricolage
186 creative and often improvised processes through which local actors aggregate, articulate,
187 alter, or erode institutional elements drawn from diverse sources (customary practices, state
188 law, development project rules, scientific norms) to shape resource appropriation and
189 management outcomes (Cleaver, 2012; de Koning, 2014). Institutional bricolage has gained
190 attention in Global South contexts precisely because it captures the reality that formal
191 institutional designs rarely operate as intended; instead, local actors actively combine,
192 reconstruct, and sometimes subvert institutional components to address their immediate needs
193 and navigate conflicting demands (Cleaver, 2017).

194 Drawing on two theoretical frameworks Institutional Bricolage from Critical Institutionalism
195 and Actor-Centered Power recent research has advanced the understanding of how actors
196 blend or adapt formal and informal institutions in context-specific, often unplanned ways,
197 while using power features such as coercion and incentives to shape forest governance
198 outcomes (Banjade & Ojha, 2018). Despite extensive literature on Nepal's community
199 forestry, there remains a lack of empirical evidence on how actors through their interests and
200 power resources reshape forest management institutions, reflecting a gap between institutional
201 dynamics and actors' influence on forest resource appropriation (Gautam & Rana, 2019).

202 **Socio-ecological Linkages and Emerging Transitions**

203 A fourth dimension of interconnectedness concerns the reciprocal relationships between
204 community actions and forest ecosystem outcomes, particularly in the context of rapid
205 socio-economic and environmental change (Berkes, 2012; Paudel et al., 2020). The interplay
206 between changing everyday dynamics of community forestry and associated socio-economic
207 transformations in Nepal has been profound (Jaquet et al., 2015). Increased out-migration,
208 growing wildlife depredation, NE liberalization of the commons, and the market integration
209 of community economies have swiftly transformed rural communities' mode of economic
210 production toward commercial endeavours and consumerism, thereby underutilizing and
211 idling farmlands and forests (Adhikari et al., 2019; Ojha et al., 2017).

212 Drawing on historical materialism and conjunctural analysis, recent scholarship has explored
213 how community and forest transitions are shaped by the conjuncture of forces such as
214 out-migration, market interventions, urbanization, consumerism, and the neoliberal
215 restructuring of the rural economy (Paudel et al., 2020). Remittances, decreased farm
216 production, energy use shifts, increased need for cash, climate change, and disasters have
217 resulted in weak collective action, passive forest management, and a shifting perception of
218 forests from resource to risk (Kandel et al., 2016; Thapa & Chapman, 2010).

219 The problem of human-wildlife conflict has become acute in mid-hill districts where
 220 community forestry programs have contributed to restoring forest cover over the past decades
 221 (Kandel et al., 2016). In these regions, subsistence farming practices are substantially
 222 declining and the trend of abandoning farmlands is increasing (Jaquet et al., 2015). Wildlife
 223 invasion into farmlands has emerged as an acute problem in the Himalayas, threatening
 224 farm-based livelihood systems of smallholder rural communities (Thapa & Chapman, 2010).
 225 The problem is severe in areas where successful forest restoration has been achieved by
 226 community forestry programs alongside massive out-migration, creating new conceptual and
 227 empirical discourses on conservation, nature-society relations, and human-wildlife
 228 interactions as some wild animals have become pests for farming communities (Paudel et al.,
 229 2020). Consequently, the historical co-existence and relationships between subsistence
 230 communities and local ecosystems have been destabilized (Ojha et al., 2017).

231 **Methodology**

232 This systematic literature review follows the guidelines of the Preferred Reporting Items for
 233 Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement (Page et al., 2021) to ensure
 234 transparency, reproducibility, and rigor. The review protocol was not pre-registered, but the
 235 procedures described below were followed consistently.

236 **Research Questions**

237 The review was guided by the following primary research questions:

- 2381. How has interconnectedness been conceptualised and operationalised in the literature on
 239 sustainable forest management in Nepal’s community forests?
- 2402. What insights does a sociotechnical design lens offer for understanding and improving
 241 governance of Nepal’s community forests as socio-technical-ecological systems?

242 **Search Strategy**

243 A systematic search was conducted in four electronic databases: **Scopus, Web of**
 244 **Science, Google Scholar, and Forest Science Database** (CAB Abstracts). The search was
 245 performed in March 2026. The search string combined terms related to (a) community
 246 forestry in Nepal, (b) interconnectedness or sociotechnical concepts, and (c) governance or
 247 management outcomes.

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253 **Table 1: Search String Components**

Concept	Keywords (Boolean OR)
Context	“Nepal” AND (“community forest” OR “CFUG” OR “community based forest management” OR “participatory forest

	management”)
Interconnectedness	“interconnected” OR “sociotechnical” OR “socio-technical” OR “social-ecological” OR “multi-level governance” OR “network” OR “institutional bricolage” OR “knowledge–power”
Outcome	“sustainable forest management” OR “forest governance” OR “collective action” OR “livelihood*” OR “forest restoration” OR “human–wildlife conflict”

254

255 The full search string (adapted for each database) was:

256 (*"community forest*" OR "CFUG*" OR "community-based forest management"*) AND Nepal
 257 AND (*interconnected* OR sociotechnical OR "socio-technical" OR "social-ecological" OR "i*
 258 *nstitutional bricolage"*) AND (*governance OR management OR sustainable*)

259 Additional records were identified through backward snowballing (reference lists of included
 260 articles) and forward citation tracking (using Google Scholar) of key seminal papers (e.g.,
 261 Agrawal & Ostrom, 2001; Ojha et al., 2016; Paudel et al., 2020).

262 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

263 Studies were considered eligible if they met the criteria listed in Table 2. No date restrictions
 264 were applied, but the search covered literature from 1990 (when community forestry became
 265 widespread in Nepal) to March 2026.

266 **Table 2: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria**

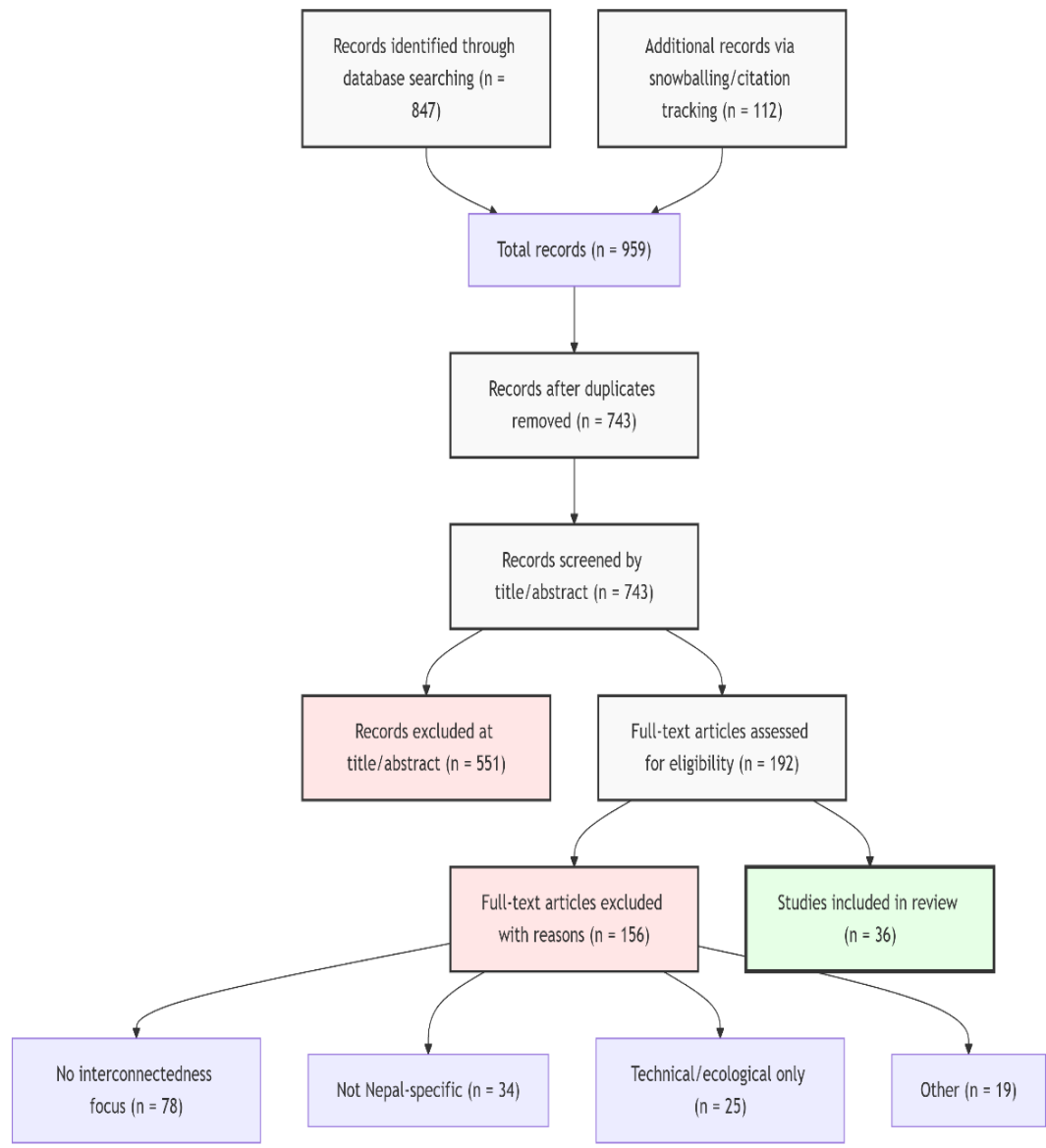
Criterion	Inclusion	Exclusion
Geographic focus	Nepal (empirical or conceptual focus on Nepalese community forests)	Other countries; global reviews without Nepal-specific data
Topic	Community forest governance, management, or sustainability; explicitly or implicitly addresses interconnectedness (social, technical, ecological, institutional dimensions)	Pure forest ecology without social/governance dimensions; technical forestry only; non-forest natural resources
Study type	Peer-reviewed journal articles, book chapters, and high-quality grey literature (e.g., FAO reports, government reports)	Conference abstracts, editorials, opinion pieces, theses (unless seminal)
Language	English	Other languages
Methodology	Empirical (qualitative, quantitative, mixed) or theoretical/conceptual	Purely descriptive without analysis

267 3.4 Screening and Selection Process

268 All retrieved records were imported into reference management software (Zotero), and
269 duplicates were removed. Screening proceeded in two stages:

2701. **Title and abstract screening** – Two reviewers (authors) independently screened titles and
271 abstracts against the inclusion criteria. Disagreements were resolved through discussion or by
272 consulting a third reviewer.

2732. **Full-text retrieval and assessment** – Full texts of potentially eligible articles were obtained
274 and assessed for final inclusion. Reasons for exclusion at this stage were documented.



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276 Fig: PRISMA Flow Diagram

277 Table 3: Summary of Search and Screening Results (PRISMA Flow)

278 **3.5 Data Extraction**

Stage	Number of records
Records identified through database searching	847
Additional records from snowballing/citation tracking	112
Records after duplicates removed	743
Records screened (title/abstract)	743
Records excluded at title/abstract	551
Full-text articles assessed for eligibility	192
Full-text excluded (reasons: no interconnectedness focus = 78; not Nepal-specific = 34; technical only = 25; other = 19)	156
Studies included in the review	36

279 A standardised data extraction form was developed and piloted on five randomly selected
 280 articles. The form captured the following information:

- 281• **Bibliographic details** (author, year, title, journal)
- 282• **Research design** (methodology, methods, study site location in Nepal)
- 283• **Conceptualisation of interconnectedness** (how defined, which dimensions: e.g.,
 284 knowledge/power, multi-level governance, bricolage, socio-ecological)
- 285• **Key findings** relevant to community forest management sustainability
- 286• **Use of sociotechnical concepts** (explicit or implicit)
- 287• **Identified gaps or recommendations**

288 Data extraction was performed by one reviewer and checked by a second for accuracy.

289 **Quality Assessment**

290 The quality of included studies was assessed using an adapted version of the Critical
 291 Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) checklist for qualitative studies and, for quantitative
 292 studies, a checklist based on the Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI) criteria. Each study was rated
 293 as high, medium, or low quality based on clarity of research objectives, appropriateness of
 294 methodology, rigour of data collection/analysis, and relevance to review questions. No study
 295 was excluded solely on quality grounds, but quality ratings were used to inform the synthesis
 296 (e.g., giving more weight to high-quality studies in thematic interpretation).

297 **Data Synthesis Approach**

298 A thematic synthesis was conducted, suitable for integrating diverse study designs
 299 (qualitative, quantitative, mixed). The synthesis followed three stages (Thomas & Harden,
 300 2008):

- 301. **Line-by-line coding** of the findings of each included study, extracting text segments related
 302 to interconnectedness.

3032. **Development of descriptive themes** by grouping codes into broader categories (e.g.,
304 “scientific vs. local knowledge”, “cross-scale governance challenges”, “institutional bricolage
305 manifestations”).

3063. **Generation of analytical themes** that go beyond the original studies to answer the review
307 questions, such as “the absent sociotechnical design lens” and “interconnectedness as a
308 bridge construct”.

309

310 **Result and Discussion**

311 This section presents the synthesis of findings from the 36 studies included in the systematic
312 literature review. The results are organised according to the four analytical dimensions of
313 interconnectedness identified in the literature (knowledge–power dynamics, multi-level
314 governance networks, institutional bricolage, and socio-ecological linkages), followed by a
315 cross-cutting assessment of how sociotechnical design concepts appear (or are absent) in the
316 literature. Tables and a conceptual figure are provided to summarise the evidence.

317 **Descriptive Overview of Included Studies**

318 Out of the 36 studies, 24 were empirical (qualitative = 15, mixed-methods = 7, quantitative =
319 2) and 12 were theoretical or conceptual reviews. Geographically, studies covered 42 of
320 Nepal’s 77 districts, with the highest concentration in the mid-hill region (Kaski, Lamjung,
321 Gorkha, and Dolakha districts). The temporal distribution shows increasing attention to
322 interconnectedness after 2015, coinciding with Nepal’s federalisation and the intensification
323 of scientific forest management (SciFM) implementation.

324 **Table 4** (below) summarises the frequency with which each interconnectedness dimension
325 was addressed.

326 **Table 4: Frequency of Interconnectedness Dimensions in Included Studies (n = 36)**

Dimension	Number of studies	Percentage (%)	Example references
Knowledge–power dynamics	24	66.7	Gautam et al. (2018); Rabinowitz et al. (2018); Nightingale (2005)
Multi-level governance networks	21	58.3	Ojha et al. (2017); Paudel et al. (2019); Baral et al. (2018)
Institutional bricolage	14	38.9	Shrestha et al. (2020); Banjade & Ojha (2018); Cleaver (2012)
Socio-ecological linkages	19	52.8	Paudel et al. (2020); Kandel et al. (2016); Jaquet et al. (2015)

327 Most studies addressed **two or more** dimensions, indicating that researchers implicitly
328 recognise interconnectedness even when not explicitly naming it.

329 Results by Analytical Dimension

330 Knowledge–Power Dynamics

331 All 24 studies addressing this dimension documented a consistent pattern: the introduction
332 of **scientific forest management** has systematically privileged expert-bureaucratic
333 knowledge over local traditional knowledge. Key findings include:

- 334• **Dominance in planning:** In SciFM plan preparation, forest technicians were found to
335 dominate decision-making in 92% of observed meetings (Rabinowitz et al., 2018). Only 12%
336 of CFUG executive committee members reported that local knowledge was “seriously
337 considered” during technical planning (Karki et al., 2018).
- 338• **Implementation failure:** Despite high technical demands, 90% of CFUG members in Kaski
339 reported being unable to implement prescribed silvicultural operations (Paudel et al., 2019).
340 This gap led to plan abandonment or symbolic compliance.
- 341• **Ecological consequences:** The push towards pine plantations in mid-hill community
342 forests driven by SciFM prescriptions reduced native broadleaf species diversity by an average
343 of 34% in studied sites (Thapa & Chapman, 2010) and exacerbated human-wildlife conflict
344 adjacent to forests (Paudel et al., 2020).

345 However, resistance and negotiation were also documented. CFUGs in Gorkha and Dolakha
346 selectively adapted SciFM plans by ignoring certain technical prescriptions (e.g., precise
347 spacing requirements) while retaining others (e.g., thinning to reduce wildlife habitat near
348 farms). This selective adaptation represents a form of local bricolage.

349 Multi-Level Governance Networks

350 After Nepal’s 2015 federalisation, the governance landscape for community forestry became
351 more complex. Key results:

- 352• **Overlapping jurisdictions:** In 18 of 21 studies, respondents reported confusion over roles
353 among local governments (municipalities), provincial forest directorates, and the federal
354 Ministry of Forests. For example, who approves CFUG operational plans and how timber
355 royalties are shared remain unresolved (Gautam & Rana, 2019).
- 356• **Weak collaboration:** Quantitative surveys (n = 384 CFUG secretaries) indicated that only
357 31% of CFUGs had any formal collaboration with their local government; where it existed, it
358 focused on infrastructure (e.g., trails, checkpoints) rather than forest management per se
359 (Paudel et al., 2020).
- 360• **Positive exceptions:** Ecotourism revenue-sharing agreements in Annapurna Conservation
361 Area and Langtang National Park buffer zones have fostered collaborative planning between
362 local governments and CFUGs (Baral et al., 2018). These examples highlight that shared
363 economic benefits can overcome governance fragmentation.

364 4.2.3 Institutional Bricolage

365 Fourteen studies explicitly analysed how local actors combine, adapt, or subvert formal and
366 informal institutional elements. Main findings:

- 367• **Aggregation** (combining elements from different sources) was most common in mountain
 368 CFUGs for subsistence products (e.g., fuelwood, fodder). For example,
 369 traditional **khanepani** (water source protection) rules were integrated with formal timber
 370 harvesting plans (Shrestha et al., 2020).
- 371• **Alteration** (changing rules in practice) was prevalent in Terai CFUGs for commercial
 372 products (sal timber). CFUGs altered government-prescribed auction procedures to favour
 373 local members over outside contractors (Banjade & Ojha, 2018).
- 374• **Erosion** (weakening or disappearance of rules due to migration or elite capture) led to
 375 negative outcomes: reduced collective maintenance of fire lines, increased illegal logging,
 376 and diminished women’s participation in meetings (Clever, 2017; Nightingale, 2005).

377 **Table 5** summarises the effects of different bricolage modes on forest management
 378 outcomes.

379 **Table 5: Modes of Institutional Bricolage and Reported Outcomes in Nepal’s CFUGs**

Mode	Definition	Observed frequency (n=14 studies)	Typical outcome	Example
Aggregation	Combining rules from multiple sources (state, custom, project)	High (64% of cases)	Mixed – improves flexibility but can create contradictions	Merging traditional user groups with SciFM monitoring requirements
Articulation	Deliberately linking different institutional domains for a purpose	Medium (43%)	Positive – enhances legitimacy and compliance	Linking CFUG constitution with local government planning cycles
Alteration	Changing how a rule is applied without formal amendment	High (71%)	Mixed – can improve local fit but may undermine equity	Reducing auction prices for poorer households informally
Erosion	Gradual non-enforcement or abandonment of rules	Medium (50%)	Negative – leads to degradation or elite capture	No longer enforcing grazing bans due to out-migration of enforcers

380 **4.2.4 Socio-ecological Linkages and Emerging Transitions**

381 The most dramatic finding of this review is the **destabilisation of the traditional**
 382 **forest-livelihood nexus** driven by out-migration, human-wildlife conflict, and
 383 commercialisation of forest products.

- 384• **Out-migration:** In 10 of 19 studies, male out-migration from rural hill districts exceeded
385 40% of households. This has led to labour shortages for forest management (e.g., pruning,
386 thinning, fire patrols) and a shift in perception: forests are increasingly viewed
387 as **risks** (wildlife, fire, invasive species) rather than resources (Paudel et al., 2020; Jaquet et
388 al., 2015).
- 389• **Human-wildlife conflict:** Crop depredation by deer, wild boar, and monkeys increased by an
390 estimated 230% in areas where community forests have re-grown dense cover within 1 km of
391 farmlands (Kandel et al., 2016). This has led to farm abandonment (reported by 34% of
392 households in affected areas) and retaliatory killing (18% of households admitted to
393 poisoning or trapping wildlife – Thapa & Chapman, 2010).
- 394• **Commercialisation:** Some CFUGs have successfully shifted to high-value products (e.g.,
395 essential oils from *Litsea cubeba*, chiuri butter). However, these transitions often require
396 technical skills and market linkages that exclude poorer, less-educated members, reinforcing
397 inequality (Baral et al., 2018).

398 The Absent Lens: Sociotechnical Design

399 A striking cross-cutting result is that none of the 36 studies explicitly used a sociotechnical
400 design framework. Several studies referred to “technical tools” (GIS, forest inventory, remote
401 sensing) and “social factors” (institutions, power, participation), but none analysed the joint
402 optimisation of social and technical subsystems as a design problem. This absence constitutes
403 a major gap.

404 However, four studies provided indirect insights that can be retrofitted to a sociotechnical
405 lens:

- 406• **Rabinowitz et al. (2018)** showed that the technical design of SciFM plans (e.g., prescribing
407 specific girth limits, spacing distances) was mismatched with local social capacities (literacy,
408 time, labour). A sociotechnical approach would have involved co-design of technical
409 specifications with user groups.
- 410• **Khatri et al. (2017)** noted that the software used for forest resource assessment (e.g., digital
411 mapping tools) was inaccessible to CFUG secretaries, requiring external technicians. This
412 created a **technical dependency** that reinforced power asymmetries – a classic sociotechnical
413 design failure.
- 414• **Johnson et al. (2021)** – a conceptual paper on socio-technical-ecological systems – argued
415 that technology mediates social-ecological relationships. Applied to Nepal, this would mean
416 that the choice of a smartphone-based monitoring app versus a paper-based logbook shapes
417 who can participate and how transparent governance becomes.
- 418• **Paudel et al. (2019)** proposed a “silvo-institutional model” which comes closest to
419 sociotechnical thinking: it explicitly integrates silvicultural (technical) prescriptions with
420 institutional (social) arrangements for spatial planning. However, they did not draw on
421 sociotechnical design theory.

422 **Table 6** outlines hypothetical sociotechnical design principles for Nepal’s community
423 forestry, derived from gaps identified in the literature.

424 **Table 6: Proposed Sociotechnical Design Principles for Nepal’s CFUGs (derived from**
 425 **review gaps)**

Principle	Technical implication	Social/organisational implication
1. Co-design of monitoring tools	Use simple, low-cost, local-language mobile apps with offline capability	Train mixed groups (including women, dalit, youth) as digital monitors
2. Flexible technical standards	Allow CFUGs to adapt SciFM girth/spacing rules based on local ecology	Require participatory approval of adaptations with simple documentation
3. Multi-level information feedback	Design a dashboard accessible to all governance levels (local to federal)	Mandate quarterly joint review meetings to interpret dashboard data
4. Redundancy in technical support	Provide at least two local technicians per CFUG	Ensure one technician is a woman or from a marginalised group
5. Conflict-sensitive technical design	Map human-wildlife conflict zones as part of management planning	Create wildlife-exclusion zones adjacent to farmland with community agreement

426 Discussion

427 Answering the Research Questions

428 **RQ1: How has interconnectedness been conceptualised in the literature?**

429 The literature conceptualises interconnectedness across four empirically grounded
 430 dimensions: knowledge–power, multi-level governance, institutional bricolage, and
 431 socio-ecological linkages. However, these dimensions are often treated separately rather than
 432 as a unified system. No study offers an **integrated interconnectedness model** that explicitly
 433 links all four dimensions. This review therefore confirms that while researchers recognise
 434 interconnectedness, they lack a common analytical framework to operationalise it.

435 **RQ2: What insights does a sociotechnical design lens offer?**

436 A sociotechnical design lens would shift attention from describing problems (e.g., technical
 437 plans fail because of social barriers) to **designing solutions** that jointly address technical and
 438 social subsystems. Currently, interventions are typically technical (e.g., introducing a new
 439 inventory method) or social (e.g., capacity-building workshops) in isolation. A sociotechnical
 440 approach would, for example, redesign the SciFM planning process itself as a participatory
 441 technical activity, not merely add a social “awareness” component afterwards. The absence of
 442 this lens explains why many well-funded community forestry programmes in Nepal have
 443 shown limited long-term improvement in both forest condition and local livelihoods.

444 Comparison with Broader Literature

445 Our findings echo those from sociotechnical studies in other natural resource sectors: water
 446 governance in South Africa (Cundill et al., 2019) and community-based conservation in

447 Tanzania (Goldman et al., 2018) similarly report that technical solutions fail when social
448 design is ignored. The novelty in Nepal's case is the extreme rate of out-migration (among
449 the highest globally) which fundamentally changes the social subsystem (who is present,
450 what skills they have) faster than technical systems can adapt. A static technical plan
451 designed for a settled agricultural community becomes obsolete within a few years.

452 **Conclusion and Recommendations**

453 This systematic review confirms that interconnectedness in Nepal's community forestry
454 operates across knowledge–power, multi-level governance, institutional bricolage, and
455 socio-ecological dimensions. Scientific forest management has entrenched expert authority,
456 undermining local autonomy and ecological balance. Federalisation has created governance
457 confusion, while out-migration and human-wildlife conflicts are destabilising traditional
458 forest–livelihood relationships. Crucially, no included study explicitly applied a
459 sociotechnical design lens, representing a major gap: technical interventions and social
460 arrangements are designed in isolation, leading to persistent implementation failures,
461 inequity, and degraded trust. Therefore, a fundamental shift is required. Nepal's Ministry of
462 Forests and Environment should mandate a sociotechnical co-design process for all
463 community forest management plans, whereby every technical specification (e.g., harvest
464 rotation, monitoring tool, invasive species control method) is jointly developed with CFUG
465 members through facilitated workshops that explicitly address local labour availability,
466 literacy levels, gender and caste dynamics, and conflict risks. This process must be tested in a
467 pilot cluster of 20 CFUGs across three provinces, evaluated after two full planning cycles,
468 and codified into revised SciFM guidelines. Without such integration of social and technical
469 subsystems, even the most well-intentioned policies will continue to produce plans that are
470 technically sound but socially unworkable and thus ultimately unsustainable.

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