

Land-Grant Lessons for Anthropocene Universities

Robert E. Kopp

*Rutgers Institute of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Sciences
and Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences,
Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey, USA
Email: robert.kopp@rutgers.edu / ORCID: 0000-0003-4016-9428*

This is a post-peer-review, pre-copyedit version of an article published in *Climatic Change*.
Submitted: August 6, 2020. Revised: January 3, 2021. Accepted: February 1, 2021.

ABSTRACT: Established amidst the bloodshed of the Civil War, land-grant universities, together with the associated agricultural experiment stations and cooperative extension services, have played a crucial role in democratizing scientific knowledge and addressing intertwined educational, environmental, economic, and democratic challenges within the United States. Indeed, they have arguably pioneered the idea of ‘usable science.’ Today, the urgent challenges of the Anthropocene demand a more robust relationship between scientific research and on-the-ground action, strong networks sharing local lessons globally, and channels for injecting global, long-term perspectives into the noise of short-termism. The land-grant experience provides lessons for ‘Anthropocene universities’ seeking to tackle these challenges, including the importance of: (1) establishing or expanding university-based boundary organizations akin to cooperative extension, (2) incentivizing the integration of engagement into the university’s research, teaching, and service missions, (3) centering values of democracy, justice, equity, and inclusion in engagement, and (4) cooperating across institutions and sectors. Given the urgency of fully engaging academic institutions as players and connectors in the real-world challenges of addressing climate change and biodiversity loss, there is little time to waste.

Keywords: Land-grant universities, higher education, extension, Anthropocene

30 In 1862, amidst the bloodshed of the US Civil War, President Abraham Lincoln signed
31 the Morrill Act, establishing the US land-grant college system. Together with the Morrill Act of
32 1890, the Hatch Act of 1887, and the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, this legislation transformed US
33 higher education. These Congressional acts established a network of publicly funded universities
34 devoted to training the next generation of farmers and engineers, conducting innovative and
35 useful research to advance agriculture, and engaging with farmers to disseminate the fruits of this
36 research. The land-grant universities, together with their associated agricultural experiment
37 stations and cooperative extension services, have played crucial roles in rural development and
38 the democratization of scientific knowledge within the United States (Gavazzi & Gee, 2018);
39 indeed, they have arguably pioneered the idea of ‘usable science’ (Kopp et al., 2019). The land-
40 grant experience provides insights into how to leverage higher-education institutions to address
41 problems with intertwined educational, environmental, economic, and democratic facets. Today,
42 these land-grant lessons can inform a crucially important, global mission: driving usable Earth
43 system science that links researchers and educators to communities and decision makers, in order
44 to enable society to tackle one of the greatest challenges of our century — humankind’s new role
45 as an increasingly self-aware, planetary force.

46

47 **Usable Earth system science needs for the Anthropocene**

48 Over the course of the last two centuries, humankind has become one of the principal
49 drivers of many of the central processes of our planetary home: from climate and ecological
50 change to sedimentation and the nitrogen cycle. Increasing recognition of this role – and of the
51 footprints this role is leaving in the geological record – has led to a recent effort by the
52 International Commission on Stratigraphy to formally identify a new geological epoch, the
53 Anthropocene (Zalasiewicz et al., 2011). As yet unclear, however, is whether the Anthropocene
54 will be a short-lived blip in the geological record – a thin temporal horizon as the bright light of
55 civilization briefly blazes and then extinguishes itself – or a long new era of self-aware planetary
56 stewardship, what some have dubbed the “good Anthropocene” (Bennett et al., 2016). Drawing

57 on the lessons of the land-grant model, higher-education institutions can play a crucial role in
58 tilting the scales toward the good Anthropocene.

59 The planetary challenges of the Anthropocene all involve complex systems that require
60 the intertwined perspectives of multiple traditional scientific disciplines to understand. It is
61 impossible to understand the future of Earth's climate, for example, without insights from
62 geology, oceanography, atmospheric science, ecology, economics, sociology, and political
63 science, among other disciplines. The last four decades have therefore seen the emergence of
64 Earth system science, which aims to understand how the different elements of the Earth system
65 interact and behave as a whole. And while Earth system science originally focused primarily on
66 the Earth's biogeophysical subsystems, the 21st century has seen a growing emphasis on more
67 comprehensive integration of human processes (Steffen et al., 2020).

68 But the planetary challenges of the Anthropocene are too profound – indeed, in some
69 cases, existential – to wait for ivory-tower academics to develop a comprehensive understanding
70 of complex planetary systems before science is translated into action. While assessments and
71 syntheses, such as those of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), have long
72 been a key tool within Earth system science (Steffen et al., 2020), on their own, they form a
73 relative narrow and slow channel of communication between the research community and global
74 publics.

75 The recognition of the urgent need for scientific knowledge to inform action related to
76 complex, coupled natural-human systems has led to the development of transdisciplinary science
77 (Hadorn et al., 2008). Transdisciplinary approaches to system science go beyond
78 interdisciplinarity by recognizing stakeholders outside of academia as critical partners
79 throughout the research process. Transdisciplinary research may be focused either primarily on
80 expanding fundamental insight or on applying existing understanding; in either case, the ultimate
81 use of the research – the real-world problem the research is trying to solve – is a guide-star
82 throughout. (The concept of 'convergence research,' promoted by the US National Science
83 Foundation, is essentially a charismatic renaming of this concept (National Research Council,
84 2014), and both concepts fit within the umbrella of 'Public Impact Research' (Association of
85 Public & Land-Grant Universities, 2019).)

86 True transdisciplinarity is hard – it requires a considerable investment on the part of
87 researchers or their institutions in maintaining strong, working, trusting relationships with
88 stakeholders. And building such relationships is slow – if it must be done from scratch, it does
89 not sit well with the incentives or time pressures faced by pre-tenure faculty or graduate students.
90 Moreover, just and equitable transdisciplinary science requires deliberate efforts to engage
91 historically marginalized populations, not simply those most ready to build partnerships – a task
92 which requires further investment of time, money, and expertise.

93 The necessity of sustained relationships lasting beyond individual projects leads to a
94 critical role for boundary organizations that have long-term relationships with and therefore
95 accountability to both researchers and stakeholders (Cash et al., 2003; Guston, 2001). Such
96 boundary organizations create spaces for the groups to interact iteratively over boundary objects
97 that are meaningful to all parties involved. Researcher-stakeholder interactions, mediated by
98 skilled professionals, help ensure that co-produced science is viewed as credible, legitimate,
99 salient – and therefore usable – by stakeholders (Cash et al., 2003; Sarkki et al., 2015).
100

101 **The tripartite land-grant mission**

102 Although the language of ‘transdisciplinarity’ is relatively new, its practice has long been
103 central to the land-grant mission. The land-grant model rests on three pillars: instruction,
104 represented in the agricultural college vision of the Morrill Acts; research, represented in the
105 agricultural experiment stations and the Hatch Act, and extension, represented by the cooperative
106 extension system and the Smith-Lever Act. The Hatch Act established agricultural experiment
107 stations at land-grant institutions to both conduct original research and “aid in acquiring and
108 diffusing among the people of the United States useful and practical information” (Ferleger,
109 1990).

110 Expanding the educational mission of the experiment stations, the Smith-Lever Act
111 established cooperative extension services, jointly funded by federal and state governments, with
112 the aim of bringing scientific knowledge about agriculture and home economics out of the
113 universities and into the country. Over the past century, extension services have placed agents in

114 almost every US county and built networks of trust that link the land-grant institutions to the
115 (primarily rural) community. These extension agents, land-grant faculty who are scientifically
116 trained and embedded in their local communities, work closely with extension specialists, based
117 at the land-grant institution, who lead research and education programs and serve as bridges
118 between other land-grant faculty and the extension agents (Brugger & Crimmins, 2015). Many
119 other faculty in the agricultural schools of land-grant universities are also partially supported
120 through cooperative extension or experiment station funds, expanding the pool of researchers
121 involved.

122 While the three land-grant pillars map onto the tripartite mission of instruction, research,
123 and service common to all modern research universities, they are all tinted by an externally
124 focused, democratizing, and use-inspired mission, and all receive federal and state funding at an
125 institutional level to support this mission. Though this mission can sometimes be obscured in
126 twenty-first century land-grant universities, which in the face of an environment of declining
127 government support for public higher education have often come to resemble other research
128 universities, in the land-grant ideal it is at the heart of the university. Integrating research,
129 instruction, and action is not a novel “Fourth Purpose” (Bollinger, 2019); it cross-cuts and
130 integrates the three traditional purposes of research universities.

131 Cooperative extension services serve as boundary organizations that facilitate the
132 integration of university scholarship and real-world problem solving. Cash (2001) highlights the
133 way this has worked to advance water management in Kansas and Nebraska. There, cooperative
134 extension helps “negotiate the boundary between science and decision making,” while
135 “exist[ing] between two distinct social worlds with definite responsibility and accountability to
136 both sides of the boundary.” It also serves to coordinate across scales, bringing university
137 researchers and extension specialists together with federal, state, and local actors to address a
138 challenge that spans the three-state region hosting the Ogallala Aquifer.

139 The engagement enabled by cooperative extension strengthens the ability of the
140 university to undertake usable research by enhancing the credibility, relevance, and legitimacy of
141 the research through iterative researcher-stakeholder interactions (Cash, 2001; Sarkki et al.,
142 2015). As McDowell (2003) writes:

143 [S]ynergistic power derives from scholarship practiced where tests of workability
144 and relevance are institutionalized—the power of engagement. Further synergy is
145 generated when access to the knowledge is ensured for users who will find it
146 useful in their lives. Some of the power from engagement and access to
147 knowledge is intellectual by virtue of the contribution to both the quality and
148 relevance of the science practiced. Other power is political, resulting from the
149 engagement with users of the knowledge, the access they have to the scholarly
150 product, and the usefulness of the new knowledge to them.

151 More than a century of sustained federal and state funding for the land-grant enterprise
152 provides one qualitative indicator of the model’s success (McDowell, 2003). Economically, the
153 US agricultural knowledge and information system as a whole, of which the land-grant
154 universities are key components, has historically had a rate of return on investment of about 20-
155 40% (Alston & Pardey, 1996; McDowell, 2003). Econometric analysis finds that the initial
156 designation of the land-grant colleges led to about 45% increases in population density and 60%
157 increases in manufacturing productivity over the ensuing eighty years (Liu, 2015). Such
158 quantitative economic metrics, however, address just a narrow slice of the land-grant mission; as
159 Liberty Hyde Bailey, the founding dean of the New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell
160 University, wrote in a 1907 address (quoted in Peters, 2006a):

161 While the College of Agriculture is concerned directly with increasing the
162 producing power of land, its activities cannot be limited narrowly to this field. It
163 must stand broadly for rural civilization.... The task before the colleges of
164 agriculture is nothing less than to direct and to aid in developing the entire rural
165 civilization; and this task places them within the realm of statesmanship.

166 Further complicating evaluation of the land-grant enterprise is the limited attention given to its
167 most unique element, that of cooperative extension. Nonetheless, as McDowell (2003) writes,
168 “The extension function is certainly a necessary if not sufficient condition to system success, and
169 extension’s influence on the research agenda may go a long way in explaining the high
170 productivity of the system.”

171

172 **The democratic mode of cooperative extension**

173 Throughout its history, cooperative extension has exhibited two modes of operation,
174 corresponding to two alternative narratives and one counter-narrative about the role of the
175 university in the agricultural knowledge system (Peters, 2006b, 2008). In the technocratic mode,
176 extension is a conduit by which the scholars at the land-grant university provide knowledge to
177 extension's largely agricultural clients. In the associated 'heroic' narrative, described by Peters
178 (2006b),

179 [F]armers are beset by technical problems they cannot understand, let alone solve.
180 A scientific expert comes to the rescue. He or she diagnoses the technical
181 problems, develops solutions (in the form of new knowledge and/or technologies),
182 and applies them. The problems are solved, agricultural efficiency and
183 productivity are improved, and the material interests of everyone are
184 simultaneously advanced.

185 The technocratic mode is reflected in Bailey (1893)'s early view that the "office of universities is
186 primarily a mission to the people." It sees land-grant researchers as missionaries, bringing the
187 fruits of science to the farmer, and aligns closely with the flawed 'deficit model' of science
188 communication (Cook & Overpeck, 2019).

189 This technocratic missionary mode has spurred a populist counter-narrative in which the
190 land-grant universities, by helping drive agricultural modernization, fostered "technocratic
191 colonization and environmental destruction", promoting a "rural society organized almost
192 entirely by a managerial elite" (Peters, 2006a). Indeed, as control of the agricultural system in
193 the US has increasingly fallen into the hands of a corporate managerial elite, the land-grant
194 system has become more aligned with that elite. McDowell (2003) concluded that "describing
195 the system as being held hostage by agricultural interest groups [was] considered a fair
196 characterization of the relationship between Land-Grant extension and the agricultural client
197 groups at the beginning of the twenty-first century." Market pressures have also pushed the land-
198 grant universities in that direction, for instance encouraging the patenting and licensing of
199 innovations, such as new crop varieties, once developed as public goods (Collins, 2015). Indeed,
200 as McDowell (2003) notes:

201 For many academics, the exposure to real-world problems comes through
202 consulting activities rather than through public service. Indeed, consulting, like
203 public service, makes a positive contribution to scholarship through both the test
204 of workability and the test of relevance. However, understanding the direction in
205 which the flow of benefits is moving and not to confuse this benefit from
206 consulting with public service is important. Similar observations can be made
207 about the corporatization of the university. While the corporate owner provides
208 real-world input (and funding) to the scholarly agenda, it is a far cry from an
209 institutionalized test of scholarly relevance, where relevance is measured in
210 societal terms. In the current scramble for funding support for higher education
211 from corporate business, the danger is that university administrators will confuse
212 usefulness to corporate America with usefulness to the society.

213 A further element of this counter-narrative notes the ways the land-grant system has supported
214 settler colonialism and racist hierarchies. The land that was granted to fund the institution was
215 taken from dispossessed American Indians (Nash, 2019). In addition, until the 1970s, the
216 historically Black 1890 land-grant institutions, established as ‘separate-but-equal’ institutions in
217 former Confederate and border states, were subordinated in federal extension support to their
218 (historically white) 1862 land-grant institution counterparts (Comer et al., 2006).

219 Alongside these original inequities, however, a democratic mode of extension and an
220 associated liberatory narrative is also deeply rooted in land-grant history. The democratic mode,
221 “compels and authorizes scholars to establish reciprocal relationships between the university and
222 the public that hold both democratic and academic promise” (Peters, 2008). In Bailey’s later
223 view, engagement “needed to take the form of a democratic association that is deeply educative”
224 (Peters, 2006b) and advances “real democratic expression on the part of the people” (Bailey,
225 1915). This view is likewise represented in a 1930 assessment of the US agricultural extension
226 system (Smith & Wilson, 1930; quoted in Peters, 2002) (emphasis added):

227 There is a new leaven at work in rural America. It is stimulating to better
228 endeavor in farming and home making, bringing rural people together in groups
229 for social intercourse and study, solving community and neighborhood problems,
230 fostering better relations and common endeavor between town and country,
231 bringing recreation, debate, pageantry, the drama and art into the rural community,
232 developing cooperation and enriching the life and broadening the vision of rural
233 men and women. This new leaven is the cooperative extension work of the state

234 agricultural colleges and the federal Department of Agriculture, which is being
235 carried on *in cooperation with the counties and rural people throughout the*
236 *United States.*

237 This democratic mode, with its emphasis on sustained stakeholder cooperation, is consistent with
238 modern best practices for transdisciplinary engagement.

239

240 **Universities as scale-crossing institutions**

241 The traditional land-grant mission focuses on the problems of each institution's home
242 state, and within each state, the institutions have built strong networks of trust. As Cash (2001)
243 notes, regional cross-scale coordination, for instance within a watershed, has also been part of
244 land-grant practice. The need for regional coordination was also recognized by the early leaders
245 of the land-grant system. For example, Kenyon Butterfield, then president of the Massachusetts
246 Agricultural College (now the University of Massachusetts Amherst), urged the development of a
247 New England-wide agricultural federation that included the region's agricultural colleges and
248 experiment stations, as well as other key stakeholders in the regional agricultural system
249 (Butterfield, 1907).

250 Nested spatial scales are even more pervasive in the environmental challenges of the
251 Anthropocene: global change creates local difficulties and opportunities; conversely, local
252 changes, accumulating to global scale, create global threats and opportunities. The sea-level rise
253 that threatens coastal communities arises from the global accumulation of greenhouse gas
254 pollution, while leaky natural gas distributions systems in areas with dated infrastructure can
255 drive a substantial portion of national methane emissions. Conversely, innovative local models
256 for advancing adaptation and mitigation can provide globally transferable lessons.

257 Universities are natural bridges across spatial scales. As a core part of their work,
258 university-based scholars share knowledge through globally read journals and international
259 professional societies. They are often active in international research collaborations. Their
260 service mission encompasses participation in national institutions such as the National
261 Academies and global institutions such as the IPCC and the International Union for the
262 Conservation of Nature. In these regards, scholars at public and land-grant universities differ

263 crucially from other public servants, for whom participation in such venues is at best a secondary
264 or tertiary priority, and who may experience difficulty getting funding or authorization for
265 activities outside their core geographic domain.

266 At their best, universities are also natural bridges across temporal scales. In much of the
267 private and public sector, short-term perspectives are dominant. Publicly traded corporations are
268 often driven by the ‘tyranny of quarterly earnings’ (Carey et al., 2018), while political leadership
269 in democratic countries often suffers from the ‘not-in-my-term-of-office’ (NIMTOF) perspective
270 (Kunreuther, 2006). Across society, the consistently increasing pace and noise of the news cycle
271 also makes it more difficult to take the long-term perspective.

272 Universities, by contrast, are inherently cross-generational institutions. Today’s faculty
273 are training undergraduates who will have careers that run through the 2060s and lives that will
274 run through the 2080s. Doing so well requires that students be equipped to analyze the complex
275 set of human and natural systems that will reshape the planet over their lives. This mission
276 provides some countervailing force against the ever-present pressure to focus instead on
277 preparing students for the jobs of the 2020s, and echoes Bailey’s exhortation that the agricultural
278 college’s education be “fundamental in character, of such a nature that it interests the listener in
279 the subject because of its intellectual relish, and thereby sets him [*sic*] to thinking” (Bailey,
280 1896; quoted in Peters, 2006b).

281 Indeed, the intertwining nature of universities’ educational, research and service missions
282 means that government investments in transdisciplinary research at universities can also serve as
283 an investment in the rising generation. This contrasts with government expenditures on private-
284 sector consulting studies and research, which may return immediately usable knowledge but
285 generally neither advance fundamental understanding nor provide educational benefits, with
286 returns being captured by corporate shareholders rather than the general public.

287 Moreover, the crucial traditions of tenure and academic freedom – both still fairly strong
288 though also under significant pressure – enable academic scholars to voice longer-term
289 perspectives that may be unpopular or unremunerative in the short-term. This, too, provides a
290 key contrast between scholars at public universities and other public servants, as well as between
291 scholars and private consultants.

292 Further, universities are themselves long-lived institutions. Most of the US land-grant
293 institutions originated in the nineteenth century and are likely to continue into the twenty-second.
294 With appropriate career incentives for the participating scholars, they thus provide natural homes
295 for the long-term observation systems needed to track regional and global environmental change
296 and understand these changes. Through enduring relationships with host jurisdictions and
297 communities, they can feed emergent knowledge into decision-making processes and thus play a
298 key role in long-term adaptive environmental strategies, such as flexible adaptation pathways
299 (Haasnoot et al., 2019; Rosenzweig & Solecki, 2014).

300

301

Paths forward

302 Many land-grant universities have extended the cooperative research and extension
303 concept beyond agriculture and rural development. At Rutgers, for example, the experiment
304 station hosts programs that help coastal communities increase their resilience to storm and sea-
305 level rise (e.g., Lathrop et al., 2014). Outside the formal experiment station and extension
306 service, Rutgers staff have built partnerships, such as the New Jersey Climate Change Alliance,
307 that link communities, NGOs, and businesses to university climate science expertise (Kaplan et
308 al., 2018). Building off these partnerships, Rutgers now hosts the New Jersey Climate Change
309 Resource Center, which has a statutory mission to leverage the state’s academic institutions to
310 “create and support the use of impartial and actionable science to advance government, public,
311 private, and nongovernmental sector efforts to adapt to, and mitigate, a changing climate” (New
312 Jersey Climate Change Resource Center, 2020). Similar examples at other land-grant institutions
313 include the Pennsylvania State University’s Center for Climate Risk Management (e.g., Sriver et
314 al., 2018), the University of Arizona’s Center for Climate Adaptation Science and Solutions, and
315 the University of Connecticut’s Connecticut Institute for Resilience & Climate Adaptation. Other
316 large public research universities are building transdisciplinary efforts with significant extension
317 components, such as the University of Washington’s EarthLab and Scripps Institution of
318 Oceanography’s Center for Climate Change Impacts and Adaptation.

319 Unlike the core agricultural work of the Smith-Lever Act's cooperative extension,
320 however, many of the extended extension missions are sustained in large part by strength of
321 personality or by relatively short-term sponsored projects. They lack the multidecadal stability of
322 traditional cooperative extension, which limits their potential – particularly in the Anthropocene
323 context, where the crucial planetary challenges differ from the classical agricultural extension
324 challenges in spatial and temporal scales. The urgent challenges of the Anthropocene demand a
325 more robust relationship between scientific research and on-the-ground action, strong networks
326 sharing local lessons globally, and a channel for injecting global, long-term perspectives into the
327 noise of short-termism. These needs call for Anthropocene universities — including but not
328 necessarily limited to traditional land-grant institutions — that adopt a re-envisioned land-grant
329 mission.

330 First, Anthropocene universities should support engagement through long-lived,
331 university-based boundary organizations, like cooperative extension. Sustained engagement in
332 transdisciplinary research and education requires shifting the maintenance of stakeholder
333 networks that extend beyond cooperative extension's traditional agricultural networks away from
334 individual investigators and sponsored projects and to the institution (Gee et al., 2019).
335 Transdisciplinary research will never reach its full potential if stakeholder networks must be built
336 anew when investigators leave an institution or grants end. It will also be hampered if
337 stakeholders suffer fatigue after being repeatedly engaged by different, but uncoordinated,
338 researchers eager to put the transdisciplinary approach into practice. Usable Earth system science
339 calls for sustained, coordinated, and substantial investment in internal boundary organizations –
340 extension, broadly conceived. Such investments may come most readily at land-grant
341 universities and other public universities that already have an extension tradition, but can be
342 adopted by other schools as well.

343 Second, Anthropocene universities should not view engagement focused on solving the
344 challenges of the Anthropocene as an add-on to the university's research, teaching, and service
345 missions. It should instead be integral to these missions, much as engagement has infused the
346 missions of the agricultural colleges, experiment stations, and extension services. Anthropocene
347 universities should seek opportunities to encourage and remove barriers to such integration.

348 For example, the current tenure process at most land-grant and research universities
349 increasingly prioritizes research above all else and measures success by metrics such as citations
350 and external grant funding. Transdisciplinary research is inherently slower than more ivory-tower
351 research, requiring that researchers invest time in engaging stakeholders in the research process.
352 Especially if coordinated as part of an institutional extension network, this engagement can
353 contribute substantially to the success of the institution in linking science and action. For this
354 reason, land-grant institutions often apply more engagement-focused scholarship criteria to
355 extension faculty (e.g., Wise et al., 2002). More flexible tenure evaluation processes that
356 recognize the value of engagement and apply more broadly than extension faculty can help
357 advance engagement at Anthropocene universities (Association of Public & Land-Grant
358 Universities, 2019).

359 Anthropocene universities should also invest more heavily in undergraduate and graduate
360 education that links science to action and provides the systems-level perspective that equips
361 students to cope with the planetary changes they will experience over their lives. Project-based
362 courses that bring students into contact with stakeholders and help stakeholders solve real-world
363 challenges are an approach that works well in some professional education programs – think of
364 law school clinics, public policy workshops, or urban planning studios – and are ripe for
365 expanded implementation in the environmental arena (e.g., Ferraro et al., 2020). Many of the
366 students who receive such education may later become leaders of stakeholder organizations with
367 whom the university partners.

368 Third, Anthropocene university-based boundary organizations and the researchers who
369 work with them must be cognizant of how their activities interact with existing power structures
370 and should center values of democracy, justice, equity, and inclusion. Anthropocene universities
371 should be receptive listeners and facilitators, avoiding the failings of the technocratic, missionary
372 mode of extension, the ‘information deficit’ model of science communication, and the populist
373 counter-narrative they can inspire. They should also seek to address inequities that underlie
374 current strengths. For the land-grant universities, for example, more equal partnerships between
375 the 1862 land grants and the historically Black 1890 land grants, as well as with the tribal

376 colleges and universities that were given land-grant status in 1994, could help redress past
377 wrongs.

378 Fourth, Anthropocene universities should play close attention as to how they fit into and
379 can cooperate with the broader set of organizations working to solve Anthropocene problems.
380 Butterfield (1907) called upon land-grant colleges, experiment stations, and extension to
381 cooperate with a broader ecosystem of agencies addressing the problem of rural development,
382 which included primary and secondary schools, the farm press, the country churches, and the
383 cooperative farmers' organization known as the Grange. Butterfield's perspective highlights the
384 importance of universities examining their own role as players in the broader ecosystem of
385 institutions addressing the challenges of the Anthropocene and partnering with organizations,
386 like the Grange, that represent populations affected by Earth system risks. Universities with
387 different types of stakeholder networks – for instance, state research universities, historically
388 black colleges and universities, tribal colleges, and global elite universities – can all play
389 complementary roles in addressing Anthropocene challenges, and will be most effective if they
390 cooperate in a manner that leverages their different strengths and relationships. Doing so while
391 centering justice, equity, and inclusion requires a degree of institutional humility that scales with
392 a university's level of resources.

393 Understanding how best to make the Anthropocene university work is itself a research
394 project, and it will require funding from governments and private donors willing to experiment.
395 While the Morrill Act of 1862 brought the land-grant model to national scale, it built on the
396 model of the Agricultural College of the State of Michigan (today's Michigan State University),
397 established seven years earlier. Likewise, the 1914 Smith-Lever Act built upon the extension
398 experience of Cornell University's New York State College of Agriculture, established in 1904.
399 The federal/state co-funding model of the land-grant system, which allows the details of
400 institutional structures to reflect the conditions of different states, facilitates such
401 experimentation and could serve as a model for federal investment. Initial federal seed grants to
402 states, for example, could allow states the flexibility to leverage their higher-education
403 institutions in a manner that reflects their distinctive circumstances while helping spur the
404 establishment of a national Cooperative Climate Research, Education and Extension Service.

405 Given the urgency of fully engaging academic institutions as players and connectors in the real-
 406 world challenges of addressing climate change and biodiversity loss, there is little time to waste.
 407

408 **Acknowledgements:** I thank A. Broccoli, S. Gavazzi, J. Herb, M. Kaplan, M. McDermott, R. Noland, M. Pinsky,
 409 and the participants in the November 2019 interdisciplinary workshop on “Usable Climate Science and the Uses of
 410 History” for helpful comments on prior versions of this manuscript. This work was supported in part by National
 411 Science Foundation grant DGE-1633557.
 412

413 **References**

- 414 Alston, J. M., & Pardey, P. G. (1996). *Making Science Pay: The Economics of Agricultural R&D Policy*. American
 415 Enterprise Institute.
- 416 Association of Public & Land-Grant Universities. (2019). *Public Impact Research: Engaged Universities Making*
 417 *the Difference*. [https://www.aplu.org/library/public-impact-research-engaged-universities-making-the-](https://www.aplu.org/library/public-impact-research-engaged-universities-making-the-difference/file)
 418 [difference/file](https://www.aplu.org/library/public-impact-research-engaged-universities-making-the-difference/file)
- 419 Bailey, L. H. (1893). *Agricultural education and its place in the university curriculum*. Andrus & Church.
 420 <https://repositories.lib.utexas.edu/handle/2152/25663>
- 421 Bailey, L. H. (1896). *Extension Work in Horticulture*. Cornell University.
- 422 Bailey, L. H. (1915). *The Holy Earth: The Birth of a New Land Ethic*. Counterpoint.
- 423 Bennett, E. M., Solan, M., Biggs, R., McPhearson, T., Norström, A. V., Olsson, P., Pereira, L., Peterson, G. D.,
 424 Raudsepp-Hearne, C., Biermann, F., Carpenter, S. R., Ellis, E. C., Hichert, T., Galaz, V., Lahsen, M.,
 425 Milkoreit, M., López, B. M., Nicholas, K. A., Preiser, R., ... Xu, J. (2016). Bright spots: Seeds of a good
 426 Anthropocene. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, 14(8), 441–448. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fee.1309>
- 427 Bollinger, L. (2019). *The Future of the University*. European Strategy and Policy Analysis System.
 428 <https://president.columbia.edu/content/future-university>
- 429 Brugger, J., & Crimmins, M. (2015). Designing Institutions to Support Local-Level Climate Change Adaptation:
 430 Insights from a Case Study of the U.S. Cooperative Extension System. *Weather, Climate, and Society*, 7(1),
 431 18–38. <https://doi.org/10.1175/WCAS-D-13-00036.1>
- 432 Butterfield, K. L. (1907). *Chapters in Rural Progress*. University of Chicago Press.
- 433 Carey, D., Dumaine, B., Useem, M., & Zimmel, R. (2018, May 31). Why CEOs Should Push Back Against Short-
 434 Termism. *Harvard Business Review*. [https://hbr.org/2018/05/why-ceos-should-push-back-against-short-](https://hbr.org/2018/05/why-ceos-should-push-back-against-short-termism)
 435 [termism](https://hbr.org/2018/05/why-ceos-should-push-back-against-short-termism)
- 436 Cash, D. W. (2001). “In Order to Aid in Diffusing Useful and Practical Information”: Agricultural Extension and
 437 Boundary Organizations. *Science, Technology, & Human Values*, 26(4), 431–453.
 438 <https://doi.org/10.1177/016224390102600403>
- 439 Cash, D. W., Clark, W. C., Alcock, F., Dickson, N. M., Eckley, N., Guston, D. H., Jäger, J., & Mitchell, R. B. (2003).
 440 Knowledge systems for sustainable development. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*,
 441 100(14), 8086–8091. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1231332100>
- 442 Collins, C. S. (2015). Land-Grant Extension: Defining Public Good. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and*
 443 *Engagement*, 19, 37–64.
- 444 Comer, M. M., Campbell, T., Edwards, K., & Hillison, J. (2006). Cooperative Extension and the 1890 Land-Grant
 445 Institution: The Real Story. *Journal of Extension*, 44(3). <https://www.joe.org/joe/2006june/a4.php>

- 446 Cook, B. R., & Overpeck, J. T. (2019). Relationship-building between climate scientists and publics as an alternative
447 to information transfer. *WIREs Climate Change*, 10(2), e570. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.570>
- 448 Ferleger, L. (1990). Uplifting American Agriculture: Experiment Station Scientists and the Office of Experiment
449 Stations in the Early Years after the Hatch Act. *Agricultural History*, 64(2), 5–23.
- 450 Ferraro, C., Jordan, R., Kopp, R. E., Bond, S. L., Gong, J., Andrews, C. J., Auermuller, L. M., Herb, J., &
451 McDonnell, J. (2020). Training students to improve coastal resilience. In A. S. Zimmerman (Ed.),
452 *Preparing students for community-engaged scholarship in higher education* (pp. 347–360). IGI Global.
- 453 Gavazzi, S. M., & Gee, E. G. (2018). *Land-Grant Universities for the Future: Higher Education for the Public*
454 *Good*. Johns Hopkins University Press.
- 455 Gee, E. G., Gavazzi, S. M., Rennekamp, R., & Bonanno, S. (2019, February 19). Cooperative Extension Services
456 and the 21st Century Land-Grant Mission. *The EvoLLLution*. [https://evollution.com/revenue-](https://evollution.com/revenue-streams/extending_lifelong_learning/cooperative-extension-services-and-the-21st-century-land-grant-mission/)
457 [streams/extending_lifelong_learning/cooperative-extension-services-and-the-21st-century-land-grant-](https://evollution.com/revenue-streams/extending_lifelong_learning/cooperative-extension-services-and-the-21st-century-land-grant-mission/)
458 [mission/](https://evollution.com/revenue-streams/extending_lifelong_learning/cooperative-extension-services-and-the-21st-century-land-grant-mission/)
- 459 Guston, D. H. (2001). Boundary Organizations in Environmental Policy and Science: An Introduction. *Science,*
460 *Technology, & Human Values*, 26(4), 399–408. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016224390102600401>
- 461 Haasnoot, M., Brown, S., Scussolini, P., Jimenez, J., Vafeidis, A. T., & Nicholls, R. (2019). Generic adaptation
462 pathways for coastal archetypes under uncertain sea-level rise. *Environmental Research Communications*.
463 <https://doi.org/10.1088/2515-7620/ab1871>
- 464 Hadorn, G. H., Biber-Klemm, S., Grossenbacher-Mansuy, W., Hoffmann-Riem, H., Joye, D., Pohl, C., Wiesmann,
465 U., & Zemp, E. (2008). The Emergence of Transdisciplinarity as a Form of Research. In G. H. Hadorn, H.
466 Hoffmann-Riem, S. Biber-Klemm, W. Grossenbacher-Mansuy, D. Joye, C. Pohl, U. Wiesmann, & E. Zemp
467 (Eds.), *Handbook of Transdisciplinary Research* (pp. 19–39). Springer Netherlands.
468 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6699-3_2
- 469 Kaplan, M. B., Kopp, R. E., Herb, J., Auermuller, L. M., & Campo, M. (2018). The New Jersey Climate Adaptation
470 Alliance: A Statewide Business-NGO-Municipal-Academic Collective Impact Partnership Furthering
471 Climate Adaptation. *AGU Fall Meeting Abstracts*, 34.
472 <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2018AGUFMPA34C..37K>
- 473 Kopp, R. E., Gilmore, E. A., Little, C. M., Lorenzo-Trueba, J., Ramenzoni, V. C., & Sweet, W. V. (2019). Usable
474 Science for Managing the Risks of Sea-Level Rise. *Earth's Future*, 7, 1235–1269.
475 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018EF001145>
- 476 Kunreuther, H. (2006). Risk and reaction. *Harvard International Review*, 28(3), 37–42.
- 477 Lathrop, R., Auermuller, L., Trimble, J., & Bognar, J. (2014). The Application of WebGIS Tools for Visualizing
478 Coastal Flooding Vulnerability and Planning for Resiliency: The New Jersey Experience. *ISPRS*
479 *International Journal of Geo-Information*, 3(2), 408–429. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijgi3020408>
- 480 Liu, S. (2015). Spillovers from universities: Evidence from the land-grant program. *Journal of Urban Economics*,
481 87, 25–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jue.2015.03.001>
- 482 McDowell, G. R. (2003). Engaged Universities: Lessons from the Land-Grant Universities and Extension. *The*
483 *ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 585(1), 31–50.
484 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716202238565>
- 485 Nash, M. A. (2019). Entangled Pasts: Land-Grant Colleges and American Indian Dispossession. *History of*
486 *Education Quarterly*, 59(4), 437–467. <https://doi.org/10.1017/heq.2019.31>
- 487 National Research Council. (2014). *Convergence: Facilitating Transdisciplinary Integration of Life Sciences,*
488 *Physical Sciences, Engineering, and Beyond*. <https://doi.org/10.17226/18722>
- 489 New Jersey Climate Change Resource Center, Pub. L. No. P.L.2019, c.442, 18A:65-103 New Jersey Statutes (2020).
490 <http://njlaw.rutgers.edu/cgi-bin/njstats/showsect.cgi?title=18A&chapter=65§ion=103&actn=getsect>

- 491 Peters, S. J. (2002). Rousing the People on the Land: The Roots of the Educational Organizing Tradition in
492 Extension Work. *Journal of Extension*, 40, 3FEA1.
- 493 Peters, S. J. (2006a). *Changing the Story About Higher Education's Public Purposes and Work: Land-Grants,*
494 *Liberty, and the Little Country Theatre* (No. 3; Imaging America). <https://surface.syr.edu/ia/3>
- 495 Peters, S. J. (2006b). "Every Farmer Should Be Awakened": Liberty Hyde Bailey's Vision of Agricultural Extension
496 Work. *Agricultural History*, 80(2), 190–219. <https://doi.org/10.1525/ah.2006.80.2.190>
- 497 Peters, S. J. (2008). Reconstructing a Democratic Tradition of Public Scholarship in the Land-Grant System. In D.
498 W. Brown & D. Witte (Eds.), *Agent of Democracy: Higher Education and the HEX Journey* (pp. 121–148).
499 Kettering Foundation Press.
- 500 Rosenzweig, C., & Solecki, W. (2014). Hurricane Sandy and adaptation pathways in New York: Lessons from a
501 first-responder city. *Global Environmental Change*, 28, 395–408.
502 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2014.05.003>
- 503 Sarkki, S., Tinch, R., Niemelä, J., Heink, U., Waylen, K., Timaeus, J., Young, J., Watt, A., Neßhöver, C., & van den
504 Hove, S. (2015). Adding 'iterativity' to the credibility, relevance, legitimacy: A novel scheme to highlight
505 dynamic aspects of science–policy interfaces. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 54, 505–512.
506 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2015.02.016>
- 507 Smith, C. B., & Wilson, M. C. (1930). *The Agricultural Extension System of the United States*. John Wiley & Sons.
- 508 Sriver, R. L., Lempert, R. J., Wikman-Svahn, P., & Keller, K. (2018). Characterizing uncertain sea-level rise
509 projections to support investment decisions. *PLOS ONE*, 13(2), e0190641.
510 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0190641>
- 511 Steffen, W., Richardson, K., Rockström, J., Schellnhuber, H. J., Dube, O. P., Dutreuil, S., Lenton, T. M., &
512 Lubchenco, J. (2020). The emergence and evolution of Earth System Science. *Nature Reviews Earth &*
513 *Environment*, 1(1), 54–63. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-019-0005-6>
- 514 Wise, G., Retzlaff, D., & Reilly, K. (2002). Adapting "Scholarship Reconsidered" and "Scholarship Assessed" To
515 Evaluate University of Wisconsin-Extension Outreach Faculty for Tenure and Promotion. *Journal of*
516 *Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 7(3), 5–18.
- 517 Zalasiewicz, J., Williams, M., Fortey, R., Smith, A., Barry, T. L., Coe, A. L., Bown, P. R., Rawson, P. F., Gale, A.,
518 Gibbard, P., Gregory, F. J., Hounslow, M. W., Kerr, A. C., Pearson, P., Knox, R., Powell, J., Waters, C.,
519 Marshall, J., Oates, M., & Stone, P. (2011). Stratigraphy of the Anthropocene. *Philosophical Transactions*
520 *of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences*, 369(1938), 1036–1055.
521 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2010.0315>