

1 **On the merits and pitfalls of introducing a digital platform to aid**
2 **conservation management: volunteer data submission and the mediating**
3 **role of volunteer coordinators**
4

5 **Abstract**

6 Against a backdrop of accelerating digital innovation in nature conservation and
7 environmental management, a real-world experiment was conducted with the research
8 aims of assessing: 1) the effects of introducing a digital data-entry platform on volunteer
9 data submission; and 2) the extent to which coordinators influence digital platform use by
10 their volunteers. We focussed on a large-scale volunteer-based initiative aimed at
11 eradicating the non-native American mink (*Neovison vison*) from northern Scotland. This
12 geographically dispersed conservation initiative adopted a digital platform that allowed
13 volunteers to submit records to a central database. We found that the platform had a direct
14 and positive effect on volunteer data submission behaviour, increasing both the number
15 and frequency of submissions. However, our analysis revealed striking differences in
16 coordinator engagement with the platform, which in turn influenced the engagement of
17 volunteers with this centrally introduced digital innovation. As a consequence, the intended
18 organisation-wide rolling out of a digital platform translated into a diversely-implemented
19 innovation, limiting the efficacy of the tool and revealing key challenges for digital
20 innovation in geographically-dispersed conservation initiatives.

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22 **Highlights:**

- 23 • Digital innovation is often enthusiastically employed but effects poorly studied
- 24 • We build a data-entry platform to assist a geographically-dispersed organisation
- 25 • The centralised platform increased data submission by volunteers
- 26 • The digital orientation of project coordinators influenced volunteer platform use
- 27 • Digital tools need be introduced with caution and attention for mediating effects

29 **Key words:** Volunteer-based management; Technological innovation; Environmental citizen
30 science; Human-computer interaction; Invasive species control; Volunteer coordination.

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1. Introduction

Environmental management increasingly makes use of digital technologies (Arts et al., 2015; Bakker and Ritts, 2018; Sullivan et al., 2014). The prominent use of the internet in environmental citizen science is a clear example (Dickinson et al., 2010; Kelling et al., 2015; Kobori et al., 2016). Digital technologies provide new and often user-friendly ways of generating, handling, organising, analysing, and communicating data and information (Chapron, 2015; Stein, 2008). The promise of more data and opportunity to scale up operations has led many conservation organisations to adopt advanced digital hardware and software such as drones and apps (Galán-Díaz et al., 2015; Miller-Rushing et al., 2012). While the practical benefits may be taken for granted, they are not guaranteed (Druschke and Seltzer, 2012; Gallo and Waite, 2011; Jordan et al., 2012). For example, the interpretation of citizen science data is often clouded by concerns regarding their accuracy, quality and reliability (Kremen et al., 2011; Wiersma, 2010). Also, without online tools that engage and are well aligned with project goals, projects may fail to acquire sufficiently large datasets over prolonged periods of time (Van der Wal et al., 2016; Wald et al., 2016). New tools may change the nature of a volunteers' engagement with conservation, and this may in turn be influenced by how coordinators of conservation volunteers (hereafter conservation coordinators) decide to introduce such tools to their volunteers. This paper engages that topic. Social processes are known to strongly influence volunteering (Asah and Blahna, 2012; Bruyere and Rappe, 2007; Pagès et al., 2018). Yet, in spite of the 'mission-driven' character of nature conservation (Mace, 2014), many digital innovations in this realm are introduced without their social impacts being studied (Arts et al., 2015). Here, we focus on a common innovation in nature conservation, namely the introduction of a new

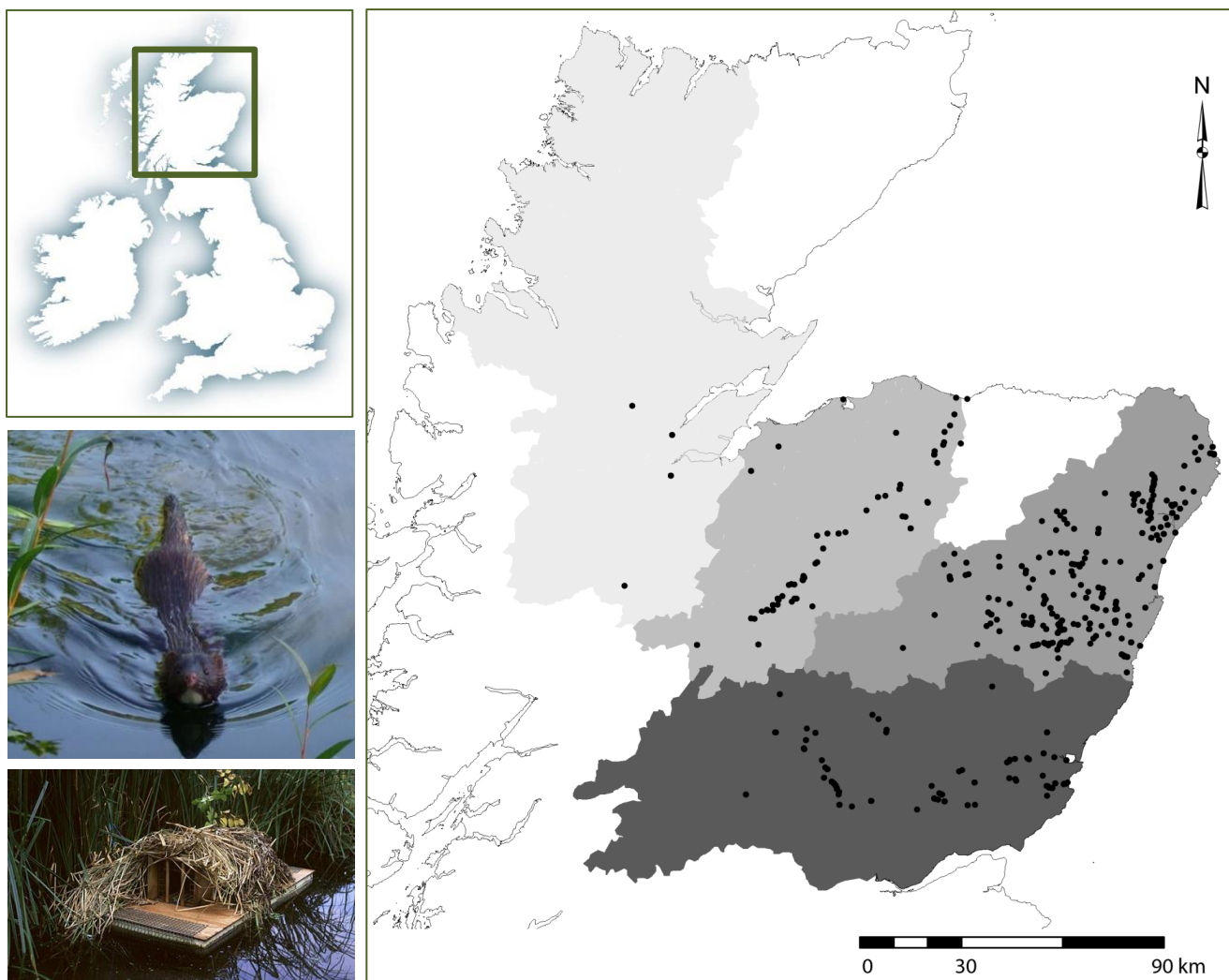
55 data reporting platform, and set out to address two research aims: 1) to assess whether
56 volunteer data submission (i.e. number and frequency of submission, and number of
57 records in a single submission, a.k.a. batch size) changes with the use of a digital platform;
58 and 2) to determine to what extent coordinators influence the usage of a digital platform by
59 their volunteers. The first aim was addressed by means of a randomised experimental set-
60 up linked to a real-world nature conservation case (Section 3.1). The second aim was
61 investigated through mixed qualitative methods (Section 3.2).

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63 **2. Materials and methods**

64 ***2.1 Context of study***

65 This study revolved around the Scottish Mink Initiative (SMI), one of the world's largest
66 volunteer-based invasive species management programmes in terms of area covered
67 (approximately 29,500 km²). The objective of the initiative was the detection and
68 subsequent removal of the invasive American mink (*Neovison vison*, mink hereafter) across
69 northern Scotland (Bryce et al., 2011; Melero et al., 2015). Volunteers were recruited by SMI
70 to adopt and operate one or more rafts used for monitoring. The rafts were required to be
71 checked every 10-14 days, when practical. If mink were detected, then volunteers could
72 request and operate a trap. At the time of study, volunteers were directed by four full-time
73 employed coordinators, each operating in regions of different size and geography (Figure 1).



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 75 *Figure 1. Images of an American mink and raft, and maps of northern Scotland with*
 76 *mink captures (black dots) from April 2011 to January 2013 in the four experimental*
 77 *focal regions of the volunteer coordinators (C), from lightest grey to darkest grey*
 78 *respectively: C-Highlands, C-Cairngorms, C-Aberdeenshire, and C-Tayside. Mink*
 79 *control also took place in the area in white surrounded by grey but was part of a*
 80 *separate funding scheme.*
 81

82 Volunteers were assigned to the coordinator operating in their area; there was no option for
 83 volunteers to choose their coordinator. Volunteers were asked to report all mink signs
 84 recorded on their raft to their regional coordinator. Typical means for doing so included
 85 phoning, texting, emailing, and face-to-face interaction. Raft check records were either
 86 ‘absence records’ (no signs of mink) or ‘positive records’ (footprints or scats). To assess

87 whether volunteer data submission changes with the use of a digital platform, a digital data-
88 entry submission platform was developed with SMI that allowed volunteers to report to a
89 central database through a web browser (on e.g. a desktop, laptop, mobile phone or tablet)
90 (Figure 2).

The screenshot shows a web form titled "Raft Check Form". At the top right, there is a link "Add More Raft Check Data". The form contains a table with the following columns: Raft Code, Date, Mink Prints, Bird, Otter, Rat, Other Prints, and Comments/Flickr image link. There are two rows of data. The first row has Raft Code "ML05", Date "2012-10-18", Mink Prints "NO", Bird, Otter, and Rat checkboxes all unchecked, Other Prints an empty text box, and Comments "clay washed,". The second row has Raft Code "ML06", Date "2012-10-17", Mink Prints "YES", Bird unchecked, Otter checked, Rat unchecked, Other Prints an empty text box, and Comments an empty text box. To the right of the second row is a "Remove This Raft Check Data" link. At the bottom left, there is a link "Click here to see sample footprints". At the bottom right, there is a "Submit Record(s)" button.

Raft Code	Date	Mink Prints	Bird	Otter	Rat	Other Prints	Comments/Flickr image link
ML05	2012-10-18	NO	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		clay washed,
ML06	2012-10-17	YES	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		

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92 *Figure 2. Screenshot of the 'raft check form' as part of the newly introduced digital*
93 *submission platform.*

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95 The primary goal for SMI with respect to new submission platform, was to improve
96 efficiency of data collection and data submission in this geographically dispersed initiative.
97 Of particular importance, was the need for volunteers to report that mink were not present
98 upon a raft being checked, a metric of success of the project. The platform was tested and
99 improved upon for over a year, and then launched as an experiment. Thereafter, SMI
100 continued on a smaller funding base with a changed organisational structure, providing a
101 natural end to us studying the digital innovation.

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103 **2.2 Experimental approach**

104 At the start of the experiment, all volunteers conducting raft checks were randomly divided
 105 into a control group (one-third) and treatment group (two-thirds), using the Excel
 106 randomization function. Control volunteers were not informed about the online platform.
 107 Treatment volunteers were invited (up to 3×) to use the platform (i.e. submit raft checks
 108 online), receiving full instruction via email or hard copy letters depending on their preferred
 109 mode of communication. Coordinators were asked to take into account treatment allocation
 110 when dealing with their volunteers. Three control group volunteers became aware of the
 111 platform through interactions with treatment group social acquaintances and requested
 112 permission to use it. Some shifting was expected and permission was granted. During the
 113 9.5 months long experimental period, 60 different volunteers (15 control, 45 treatment)
 114 contributed 776 raft check submissions. The experimental approach led to four distinct
 115 groups (Table 1).

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Table 1. Groups and volunteer platform usage for each coordinator (cells with a darker background indicate treatment group). Sum of submissions by all volunteers indicated in subscript.

	Coordinator Tayside	Coordinator Highlands	Coordinator Cairngorms	Coordinator Aberdeenshire	<i>Total</i>
A. Control group but using platform	2 ₄₂	0 ₀	1 ₂₀	0 ₀	3 ₆₂
B. Treatment group and using platform	8 ₉₇	4 ₈₁	9 ₂₇₁	4 ₉₁	25 ₅₄₀
C. Control group and not using platform	6 ₁₇	6 ₅₀	0 ₀	0 ₀	12 ₆₇
D. Treatment group but not using platform	14 ₄₁	5 ₅₃	1 ₁₃	0 ₀	20 ₁₀₇
<i>Total</i>	30 ₁₉₇	15 ₁₈₄	11 ₃₀₄	4 ₉₁	60 ₇₇₆

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123 Differences in submission were tested for by contrasting control (A+C) and treatment (B+D)
124 groups, and two specific further comparisons (B vs. C and B vs. D groups, respectively).
125 These specific comparisons promised to be the most meaningful ones as a consequence of
126 our experimental set-up – paying heed to a real world situation with autonomous, in-situ
127 participants – because they denoted more directly the actual effects of the platform.
128 Submission behaviour was appraised on the basis of three indicators: 1) number of raft
129 checks submitted per volunteer; 2) frequency of submission, i.e. the number of times each
130 volunteer logged in to submit their data, with a higher frequency pointing at a more
131 convenient and direct way for volunteers to submit data; and 3) mean batch size, i.e. the
132 number of raft checks submitted per volunteer divided by their frequency of submission,
133 with low mean batch size indicating less delay between raft checks and submission of
134 records. This led to a total of nine statistical models (three indicators x three pre-defined
135 contrast). Differences in the number and frequency of submissions were tested for using
136 GLMs with negative binomial error distribution and log-link function to model the over-
137 dispersed count data appropriately. Differences in mean batch size were also tested for with
138 GLMs but using a gamma distribution with log-link as the coefficients of variation were
139 positive, continuous, skewed to the left and increasing with the mean (Bates et al. 2015). All
140 GLMs were run using the lme4 package of R 3.2.2. For each volunteer submission behaviour
141 indicator three global models were built, one per pre-defined treatment group comparison
142 (control vs. treatment, B vs. C or B vs. D). All models included coordinator as categorical
143 factor, to account for their effect on volunteer behaviour. Initial fixed effects in the models
144 were therefore group, coordinator and their two-way interaction. Subsequent model
145 simplification was based on minimum AIC selecting models with $\Delta AIC < 2$ (Table S1).

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147 **2.3 Qualitative social analysis**

148 To investigate how coordinators engaged with the new digital platform, we determined how
149 they approached their role in relation to SMI and the platform, using the concepts of
150 respectively 'organisational orientation' and 'innovation orientation' (cf. Pruden, 1973;
151 Tibbles et al., 2008). Three sources of data were used:

- 152 - Semi-structured, face-to-face interviews (n=9, mean duration: 39 minutes) conducted
153 during the platform's development phase with the coordinators participating in the
154 experiment (n=4), people who had previously acted as coordinator (n=2), a coordinator
155 operating in a different Scottish region (n=1), a scientific advisor to SMI (n=1) and SMI's
156 director (n=1). These interviews were aimed at understanding the methods and social
157 structures of the organisation, SMI's relationship with its volunteers, and the perceived
158 potential role of digital technology. For reflections on the impact of the platform and
159 volunteer-related matters, follow-up interviews were conducted with SMI's director and
160 coordinators at the end of the experiment period (n=5, mean duration: 37 minutes). All
161 14 interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim.
- 162 - *Email communications with coordinators* concerning questions posed after the end of
163 the experiment relating to: best volunteers, impacts of platform on e.g. volunteer
164 retention and volunteer performance.
- 165 - *Coordinators' diaries* to capture all daily interaction with their volunteers for two
166 months. Diary entries comprised duration, medium and initiator of contact, as well as
167 the reason for contact. This resulted in 13 handwritten A5 pages by coordinator C-
168 Aberdeenshire, 45 by C-Cairngorms, 4 by C-Highlands and 31 by C-Tayside.

169 Analysis of these sources of data consisted of qualitative classifications of the text; common
170 themes in the data were abstracted by means of deductive coding using NVivo software (cf.
171 discourse analysis – Hajer et al., 2006; Jørgensen and Phillips, 2002; Thomas, 2006).

172 Subsequently, as an inductive part of the analysis (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006), these
173 themes were used to assess the coordinators' organisational and innovation orientation
174 using the following two typologies:

175 - Organisational orientation (typologies of employees – McCroskey et al., 2005; Pruden,
176 1973): *upward mobiles* (react positively to key managerial decisions [such as the
177 introduction of a digital platform] and can thrive in the new situation); *indifferents* (by
178 and large uncommitted to a key managerial decision); *ambivalents* (show signs of both
179 positivity and lack of commitment).

180 - Innovation orientation (perspectives on Information and Communications Technology
181 (ICT) – Arts et al., 2016; Bekkers et al., 2006; Siguaw et al., 2006): *technological*
182 *perspective* (ICT approached as a set of tools to achieve specific goals); *organisational*
183 *perspective* (emphasising capacities of ICT to process information, organise work and
184 improve communication); *conceptual perspective* (ICT used as a lens to understand
185 practices).

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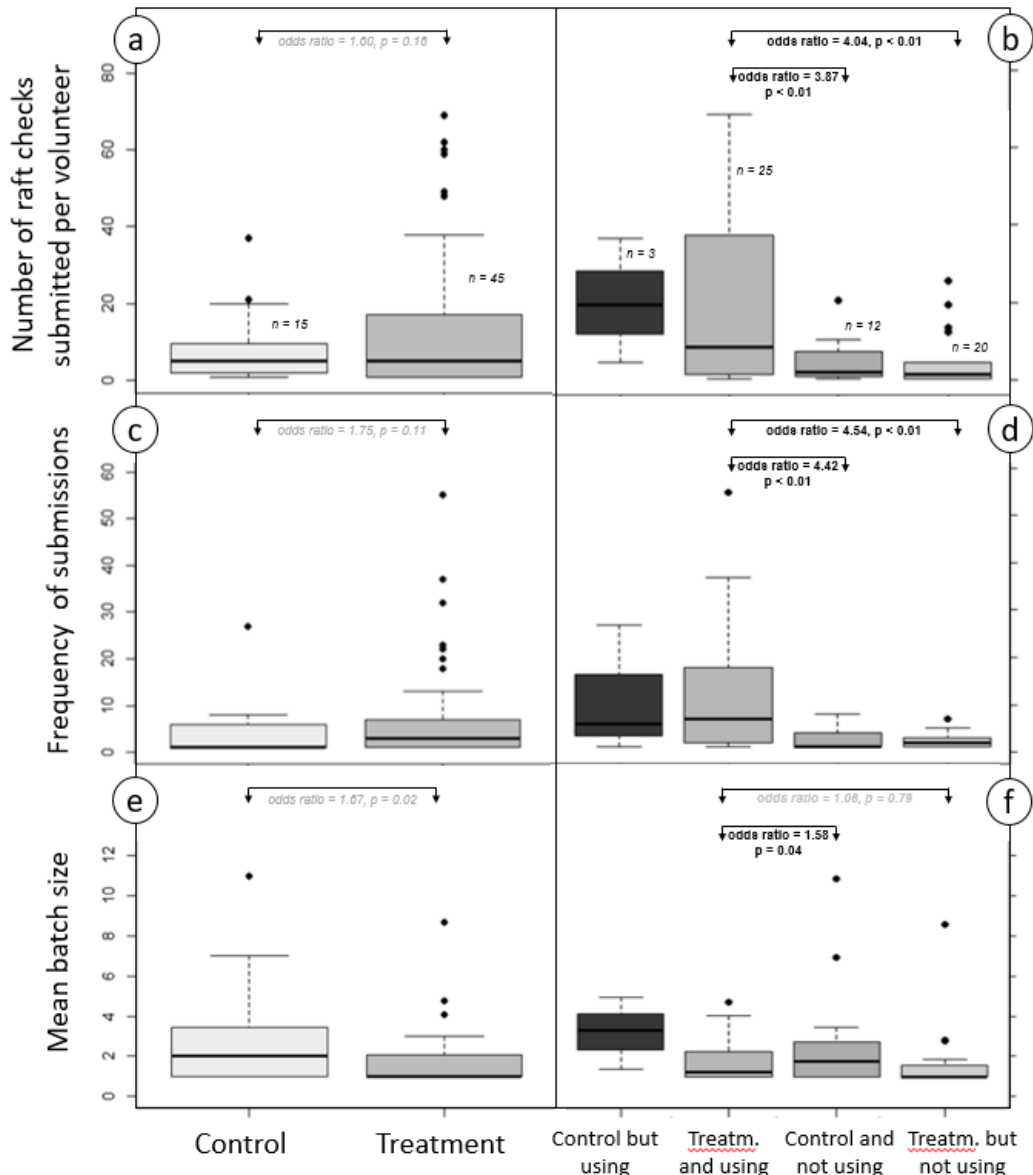
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188 **3. Results**

189 ***3.1 Experimental approach***

190 Best models for all three indicators tested for (number of submissions, frequency of
191 submission and mean batch size) included (volunteer) 'group' and 'coordinator' but not

192 their interaction (all $\Delta AIC > 4$; Table S1). Treatment volunteers (group B+D) provided 1.6×
193 more submissions, and did so 1.8× more frequently than control volunteers (group A+C),
194 though neither odds-ratio was significant (Figure 3; Table S2). Most prolific were control
195 group volunteers who nevertheless used the platform (group A, n=3), but their low number
196 precluded statistical testing. Treatment volunteers using the platform (group B) generated
197 3.9× more submissions than control volunteers not using the platform (group C) and 4.0×
198 more than treatment volunteers not using the platform (group D) (Figure 3; Table S2). With
199 regard to frequency of submission, treatment volunteers using the platform (group B)
200 scored again higher, with 4.4× (vs. group C) and 4.5× higher values (vs. group D). As a result,
201 the mean batch size was 1.7× lower in the treatment group compared to the control group.
202 A similar (1.6×) yet non-significant difference was found when comparing batch sizes of
203 treatment volunteers using the online system (group B) with control volunteers not using
204 the system (group C) (Figure 3; Table S2).



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Figure 3. Boxplots of number of raft checks submitted per volunteer (a, b), frequency of submissions (c, d) and mean batch size (e, f). Panels a, c and d provide summary statistics for the two intended treatment groups (control vs. treatment) and panels b, d and f for the four realised treatment groups. Depicted are the median, 1st and 3rd quartiles, 95% confidence intervals (whiskers) and outlying points. Summary test results are given for the respective contrasts; those in black indicate statistically significant differences between groups.

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215 Striking differences emerged when inspecting volunteer submissions across the four

216 coordinators (Figure 4; Table S2). C-Aberdeenshire had very few associated volunteers

217 (n=4), all of which were of the treatment group (100%) and indeed using the web portal as
218 such (group B). C-Cairngorms had considerably more associated volunteers (n=11), and
219 those were primarily also from the treatment group B (90%) and none from group C, the
220 'offline' control group. The other two coordinators (C-Highlands and C-Tayside) had both
221 more volunteers (n=15 and n=30) and fewer of them were from the treatment group (44%
222 and 36%). This included several volunteers who submitted a low number of records once or
223 twice, which significantly reduced the average number of submissions per volunteer and
224 frequency of submission compared to the other two coordinators (Fig. 4, Table S2). In fact,
225 the coordinator with the largest number of volunteers (C-Tayside, n=30) had also the
226 greatest number of volunteers from the control group, submitting occasionally and via the
227 coordinator.

229 *Figure 4. (a) Number of volunteer submissions, (b) frequency of submissions and (c)*
 230 *mean batch size, by coordinator (C-Tayside, n=30; C-Highlands, n=15; C-Cairngorms*
 231 *n=11; and C-Aberdeenshire, n =4), and in relation to the experimental treatment*
 232 *categories (A=Control group but using platform, n=3; B=Treatment group and using*
 233 *platform, n=25; C=Control group and not using platform, n=12; and D=Treatment*
 234 *group but not using platform, n=20). Values on the x-axis are slightly offset to aid*
 235 *visualisation. Points represent individual volunteers.*
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238 **3.2 Qualitative social analysis**

239 The intention of SMI’s director was to roll out the digital platform uniformly across northern
 240 Scotland. The director observed that “it is extremely difficult for us to be able to get data
 241 and be able to manage such large areas, especially in a strategic way”. Moreover, he
 242 believed that the platform would be key to the continuity and stability of the organisation:
 243 “All the future work that we are doing (...) is going to be through the [platform].” Our
 244 qualitative analysis showed, however, that there were strong differences among
 245 coordinators in their engagement with the platform. This was underpinned by the different
 246 coordinators’ organisational and innovation orientations. Five dimensions of ‘organisational
 247 orientation’ emerged from the qualitative data, and for each dimension, coordinators
 248 demonstrated diverging views (Table 2).

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250 *Table 2. Classification of coordinators in relation to organisational and innovation*
 251 *orientations.*

					Coordinator			
					C-Tayside	C-Highlands	C-Cairngorms	C-Aberdeenshire
Organisational orientation	<i>Upward mobile:</i>				<i>Ambivalent:</i>			

- Own role within organisation	Compliance with organisational agreements and rules	Catching mink	Establishing volunteer networks	Catching mink and using volunteers where to do this
- Importance of data	Promoting collection of records	Little emphasis on data collection	Promoting collection of records	Little emphasis on data collection
- Ideal volunteer	Complies with organisation	Catches lots of mink	Keeps in touch	Catches lots of mink
- Interaction with volunteer	Making it easy for them	No news is no mink	Putting communication onus with volunteers	No news is no mink
- Volunteer feedback about the platform	Both positive and negative responses	Possibly little used	Both positive and negative responses	Not keen on new technology
<i>Innovation orientation</i>	<i>Technological perspective:</i>	<i>Organisational perspective:</i>	<i>Organisational perspective:</i>	<i>Technological perspective:</i>
- Own interaction with platform	Proficient	Proficient	Proficient	Struggled to operate
- Expectations and opinion of platform	Still double-checking data but better than before	Reduced workload, stressed platform importance	Reduced workload, improvements needed but helped structuring SMI	Reduced workload, important for uniform approach to data collection

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253 First, regarding their *own role within organisation*, C-Tayside put emphasis on compliance
254 with the organisational agreements and rules conveyed by the director. C-Highlands was
255 primarily focussed on catching mink himself. The same applied to C-Aberdeenshire who
256 approached volunteers largely to help decide where to concentrate his efforts. C-
257 Cairngorms stressed the importance of establishing self-operating volunteer networks to
258 minimise future coordinator input.

259 Second, on the *importance of data*, C-Highlands and C-Aberdeenshire put relatively little
260 emphasis on data collection by volunteers; for them data was foremost a means to catching
261 mink. C-Tayside and C-Cairngorms, on the other hand, kept promoting the submission of
262 ‘absence records’ – deemed important to demonstrate mink absence and ‘active volunteer’
263 presence.

264 Third, on what comprises an *ideal volunteer*, C-Tayside described this as an eager volunteer
265 who checks rafts frequently and communicates findings timely and accurately. Moreover, to
266 her, ideal volunteers understand the “bigger picture” and “do things the way they are
267 supposed to”. C-Highlands said: “as far as I am concerned the best one is always the one
268 that catches a lot of mink”. For C-Cairngorms, the ideal volunteer was one that is keen and
269 keeps in touch, while C-Aberdeenshire described the ideal volunteer as someone with a
270 vested interest in the environment, who is “always vigilant”.

271 Fourth, regarding *interaction with volunteer*, C-Tayside mentioned: “If you want people to
272 do something you have got to (...) give it to them on a plate”. This contrasted starkly with C-
273 Aberdeenshire and C-Highlands who assumed that “if you do not hear anything there is
274 nothing out there” (C-Highlands). C-Cairngorms explained that she generally speaks to
275 “every single person in the same way”, and that she tried to encourage volunteers “to
276 contact me when they need to, rather than me having to contact [them]”.

277 Fifth, *volunteer feedback about the platform* was the final dimension. C-Tayside and C-
278 Cairngorms received mixed messages, with some volunteers submitting more records now
279 than they did before, but with other volunteers who “do not want to have to sit in front of
280 the computer” (C-Tayside). C-Highlands said he only received feedback from two volunteers
281 about the platform, and concluded “I am not sure if [volunteers] actually use [it]”. Likewise,

282 C-Aberdeenshire noted: “The problems I have found (...) is that they are not overly keen in
283 adopting new technology”.

284

285 Two key dimensions of ‘innovation orientation’ were identified, and for each diverging
286 views were demonstrated among the coordinators (Table 2). The first dimension was that of
287 *own interaction with platform*. The data revealed that all coordinators showed proficiency
288 from the onset except for C-Aberdeenshire, who struggled to operate the platform on his
289 own during the experiment and needed help from another coordinator. C-Highlands and C-
290 Cairngorms seemed to have used the data collected by the platform at face value. Yet, C-
291 Tayside used the platform to provide feedback to volunteers and to control the quality of
292 incoming data: “when I get a message from the [platform] saying that somebody has
293 entered data, I double-check it”. Regarding the second dimension, *expectations and opinion*
294 *of platform*, three coordinators believed the platform led to reduced administration
295 workload, or that it would do so in the near future. C-Tayside, however, stressed that she
296 still had to double-check all data that came in. But she also compared it to the situation
297 before: “we needed to do something because it was no good the way it was”; “we had excel
298 spreadsheets and they were just on our computers (...) that is never a good plan”. She also
299 expected the platform to become central to SMI’s work in the future. C-Highlands said he
300 had little dealings with it, but also stressed the importance of the platform for the future:
301 “[no more] Excel sheets (...) a brilliant way to go”. C-Cairngorms felt that improvements
302 around the interface were still needed, but that it had helped in structuring SMI’s
303 operations. C-Aberdeenshire stressed the value of the “uniform approach” to data
304 collection across SMI as a result of the platform.

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307 **4. Discussion**

308 By experimentally launching a new data submission system we were able to demonstrate
309 the gains this digital innovation pursued: more submissions, offered in smaller batch sizes at
310 greater frequency. Yet, our approach was bound by some limitations related to this type of
311 participatory research, such as an experimental runtime of 9.5 months and whether this was
312 long enough to capture ‘wear-off’ from curiosity about a new digital platform. In addition,
313 the generation of four experimental groups reveals that the implementation of a digital
314 platform acts as a selector, attracting some and repelling others, and therefore likely
315 changing volunteer demographics (Pagès et al., 2018). This raises the question whether
316 volunteers who use such an innovation as intended are also those who serve the
317 organisation best otherwise (e.g. the most active and persistent). Indeed, platform
318 development revolving around data collection, as arguably is common amongst volunteer-
319 based conservation organisations (Arts et al., 2015; Will et al., 2015), can sit at odds with
320 drivers of volunteer motivation and retention. Our qualitative findings provide evidence for
321 previous suggestions in this direction (Andow et al., 2016; Asah and Blahna, 2013; Bell et al.,
322 2008; Bruyere and Rappe, 2007).

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324 While the innovation was introduced organisation-wide, and highly valued by the director,
325 each coordinator moderated the platform use by volunteers. Spanning much of Scotland,
326 the coordinators operated in starkly differing physical environments, with different mink
327 densities and ‘types’ of volunteers. Hence, it is possible that the nature of the regions

328 indirectly demanded different engagement of coordinators towards the platform. But
329 viewing the coordinators' operations in the context of their organisational and innovation
330 orientations made understandable the differential use of the platform regardless of
331 differences in environmental context. While we did not have enough quantitative data to
332 statistically detect 'volunteer group' x coordinator interaction terms in our statistical models
333 (Table S1), our qualitative data points at the engagement of employees with new
334 technology what is at stake here, whilst finding no evidence for region specificity as
335 additional key factor. With regard to the struggles of one coordinator with the technology,
336 there is firstly the reality of a top down innovation decision by an organisation for its staff:
337 not all employees might be able or willing to promote or use the innovation. This seems a
338 regularly overlooked element of innovation introduction in natural resource management
339 (Arts et al., 2015; Jordan et al., 2012). Secondly, conservation organisations likely look for
340 more computer-savvy staff if digital technology is to play a larger role in their futures (Arts
341 et al., 2013). While both aspects are important, we have also found that – in light of the
342 financial challenges that many conservation organisations or projects face (Sauer mann and
343 Franzoni, 2015; Will et al., 2015) – a digital platform may provide a backbone for continuity
344 and stability; a central system to underpin effective data governance.

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346 Whilst our studied initiative has characteristics that may differ from other organisations
347 operating in natural resource management, such as being geographically highly dispersed
348 and possibly demanding region-specific engagement of coordinators with their volunteers,
349 we observe that the introduction of digital data submission platforms is a common
350 innovation. Many conservation organisations face similar challenges in terms of lack of

351 technical expertise, varying degrees of volunteer motivation, inefficient path-dependencies,
352 and funding limitations (Bell et al., 2008; Newman et al., 2012, Pagès et al., 2019). These
353 aspects are likely to drive leadership of conservation organisation (Dietz et al., 2004;
354 Bruyere, 2015), with managers pushing more and more for digital innovation in order “to be
355 more effective in achieving positive results” (Black et al., 2011: 329).

356 Such top-down technological innovation is usually meant to be rolled out uniformly by
357 conservation organisations. The role of the ‘human layer’ in between volunteers on the
358 ground and conservation organisation policies is often taken for granted; yet, it is central to
359 effective implementation of innovation (Newman et al., 2012). Our analysis has brought to
360 light striking differences in how volunteers and coordinators engage with a newly
361 introduced digital platform, collectively turning centralised innovation into new local
362 realities. Our findings show that uniform implementation of digital innovation may not be
363 achieved because of different organisational and innovation orientations of coordinators,
364 and that differential appreciation among volunteers can directly affect data submission
365 behaviour, and thus impact on a conservation organisation’s goals and interests.

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367 **5. Conclusion**

368 Following the co-development and introduction of a digital data-entry platform to aid
369 conservation management, we set out to address two research aims: 1) to assess whether
370 volunteer data submission changes with the use of a digital platform; and 2) to determine to
371 what extent coordinators influence the usage of a digital platform by their volunteers. The
372 merits of introducing a digital platform to aid conservation management resided primarily in
373 changes in volunteer data submission: the number and frequency of submissions increased

374 and batch sizes reduced. Moreover, the platform functioned as a backbone for continuity
375 and stability, an aspect of digital innovation that may be particularly valuable for
376 geographically dispersed initiatives.

377 Still, several pitfalls were identified too. Likely as a result of different organisational and
378 innovation orientations, coordinators seemed to have influenced the adoption of a
379 technology by volunteers, which was planned to be rolled out evenly across the initiative.

380 This uniform implementation affected the organisation's goals and interests. In addition, the
381 introduction of the technology acted as a selector, attracting some volunteers but deterring
382 others. This could change the 'type' of volunteers in the longer term, which may or may not
383 suit the organisation's direction of travel. In particular, it remains to be seen whether
384 digitalisation serves both the volunteer and the conservation initiative alike. Volunteer-
385 based conservation initiatives are often grounded in physical work, which requires and
386 attracts 'hands-on' volunteers (Pages et al 2019). Computer tasks may sit at odds with this,
387 and thus with a key motivation of volunteers to become involved.

388 Our conclusions lead to a message of caution in relation to the introduction of digital
389 technologies: increased efficiency and efficacy of data collection and information handling
390 are not without pitfalls. These pitfalls notably relate to human factors: volunteer attraction,
391 retention and coordination. Conservation organisations should therefore not just blindly
392 develop or implement digital tools, but also reflect on mediating factors and mechanisms
393 that ensure uptake and continued use of those tools.

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395

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403

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517 *Table S1. AIC mode values per model. Model selection based on AIC for all nine models, best models were selected by $\Delta AIC < 2$. The best model*
 518 *in each set is indicated by bold text.*
 519

Model	Explanatory variables	Response Variable		
		Number of records	Frequency of records	Batch Size
Control (A+C) vs Treatment (B+D)	Group * Coordinator	402.95	401.34	245.44
	Group + Coordinator	396.74	359.02	212.34
	Group	430.71	360.33	216.34
B vs. C	Group * Coordinator	289.21	410.11	279.04
	Group + Coordinator	272.32	348.21	252.45
	Group	277.53	354.32	257.01
B vs. D	Group * Coordinator	229.95	362.44	122.24
	Group + Coordinator	197.28	233.01	118.74
	Group	203.54	265.47	210.82

520

521 *Table S2. Parameter estimates and their associated standard errors for variables included in the best model for each of the three proxies of*
522 *volunteer submission behavior (number of records, frequency of records, and batch size), for three different subsets of volunteers: control (A+C*
523 *group) versus treatment (B+D group), B vs. C, and B vs. D groups. For each model the intercept relates to that of Coordinator Tay and control*
524 *(Control vs Treatment model) and Coordinator Tay and B (for the other two models), respectively.*
525

Model	Variable	Number of records				Frequency of records				Batch size			
		Estimate	SE	z	P	Estimate	SE	z	P	Estimate	SE	z	P
Control (A+C) vs Treatment (B+D)	Intercept	1.79	0.33	5.36	<0.001	1.28	0.32	3.95	<0.001	0.71	0.20	3.51	<0.001
	Treatment (B+D)	0.13	0.35	0.37	0.71	0.18	0.34	0.54	0.59	-0.45	0.22	-2.09	0.04
	C-Highlands	0.62	0.36	1.73	0.08	0.47	0.35	1.36	0.17	0.62	0.22	2.78	0.01
	C-Aberdeenshire	1.41	0.40	3.54	<0.001	1.11	0.38	2.94	<0.001	0.51	0.25	2.05	0.05
	C-Cairngorms	1.20	0.60	2.01	0.04	1.02	0.57	1.80	0.07	0.35	0.38	0.93	0.36
B vs. C	Intercept	2.41	0.34	7.00	<0.001	2.02	0.56	-0.55	0.58	0.25	0.43	0.09	0.05
	Group C	-1.21	0.45	2.66	0.01	-1.64	0.62	-2.62	0.008	-0.46	0.47	-0.98	0.33
	C-Highlands	0.80	0.46	1.75	0.08	-1.59	0.32	1.74	0.08	0.69	0.23	3.40	0.003
	C-Aberdeenshire	1.00	0.49	2.05	0.04	0.64	0.36	1.77	0.07	0.50	0.27	1.80	0.07
	C-Cairngorms	0.72	0.63	1.15	0.25	0.47	0.52	0.90	0.37	0.36	0.40	0.89	0.38
B vs. D	Intercept	2.34	0.33	7.08	<0.001	2.03	0.56	-0.55	0.58	0.26	0.43	0.09	0.05
	Group D	-1.14	0.38	3.00	<0.001	-1.59	0.58	-2.76	0.006	-0.78	0.42	-1.68	0.08
	C-Highlands	0.97	0.43	2.26	0.02	-1.60	0.33	1.74	0.08	0.70	0.24	3.40	0.003
	C-Aberdeenshire	1.10	0.45	2.45	0.01	0.66	0.36	1.77	0.07	0.52	0.27	1.80	0.07
	C-Cairngorms	0.79	0.62	1.28	0.20	0.45	0.52	0.88	0.37	0.35	0.42	0.87	0.39

526