

A typology of barriers and enablers of scientific evidence use in conservation practice

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Highlights

- We developed a comprehensive taxonomy of barriers & enablers to research use
- 230 factors limit or enable the use of scientific evidence in conservation practice
- Organization structure & decision-making processes are key barriers to evidence use
- Links between researchers & practitioners strengthen science-practice interface
- Conservation professionals can use this typology to improve evidence use

1 **A typology of barriers and enablers of scientific evidence use in conservation practice**

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 Over the last decade, there has been an increased focus (and pressure) in conservation practice
25 globally towards evidence-based or evidence-informed decision making. Despite calls for increased
26 use of scientific evidence, it often remains aspirational for many conservation organizations.
27 Contributing to this is the lack of guidance on how to identify and classify the array of complex
28 reasons limiting research use. In this study, we collated a comprehensive inventory of 230 factors
29 that facilitate or limit the use of scientific evidence in conservation management decisions, through
30 interviews with conservation practitioners in South Africa and UK and a review of the healthcare
31 literature. We used the inventory, combined with concepts from knowledge exchange and research
32 use theories, to construct a taxonomy that categorizes the barriers and enablers. We compared the
33 similarities and differences between the taxonomies from the conservation and the healthcare fields,
34 and highlighted the common barriers and enablers found within conservation organizations in the
35 UK and South Africa. The most commonly mentioned barriers limiting the use of scientific evidence
36 in our case studies were associated with the day-to-day decision-making processes of practitioners,
37 and the organizational structures, management processes and resource constraints of conservation
38 organizations. The key characteristics that facilitated the use of science in conservation decisions
39 were associated with an organization's structure, decision-making processes and culture, along with
40 practitioners' attitudes, and the relationships between scientists and practitioners. This taxonomy
41 and inventory of barriers and enablers can help researchers, practitioners and other conservation
42 actors to identify aspects within their organizations and cross-institutional networks that limit
43 research use – acting as a guide on how to strengthen the science-practice interface.

44 Key words: environmental decision making, evidence-based conservation, knowledge-action,
45 knowledge exchange, research implementation, science-practice

46 **1. Introduction**

47 **1.1 Conservation science-practice interface**

48 The science-practice divide in conservation is a well described phenomenon, and is an ongoing
49 concern among researchers and practitioners (Knight et al. 2008; Sunderland et al. 2009; Arlettaz et
50 al. 2010; Esler et al. 2010; Habel et al. 2013). Numerous studies have shown that practitioners
51 seldom use scientific sources to inform their conservation management decisions, relying mostly on
52 other forms of information including personal experience, anecdotal evidence and advice of
53 colleagues (Pullin et al. 2004; Cook et al. 2010, 2012; Seavy & Howell 2010; Bayliss et al. 2011;
54 Young & Van Aarde 2011; Matzek et al. 2014; Cvitanovic et al. 2014). This means that research is
55 often not used effectively to inform practice (Sutherland et al. 2004; Dicks et al. 2014). Failing to
56 incorporate scientific evidence into decisions could potentially lead to less effective or detrimental
57 conservation management actions (Walsh et al. 2015).

58 We apply a broad definition of research use, encompassing three types of knowledge use –
59 instrumental, conceptual and symbolic (Weiss 1979; Nutley et al. 2007a), while also recognizing
60 that ‘use’ of scientific evidence could include transmission, cognition, reference, adoption, influence
61 and application of the information (Landry et al. 2001). Evidence is information that supports or
62 refutes a hypothesis, opinion or a course of action (Walsh 2015), and scientific evidence is derived
63 from social or natural science research methods. This study focuses specifically on the integration of
64 scientific evidence into practice; addressing the call for improved research use in conservation
65 (Legge 2015). However, we acknowledge that scientific evidence is just one form of information
66 considered in conservation decisions, alongside expert opinion and local and traditional knowledge
67 (Raymond et al. 2010; Adams & Sandbrook 2013; Tengö et al. 2017).

68 Many factors limit the fuse of scientific information in conservation decision making and
69 management (van Wyk et al. 2008; Young & Van Aarde 2011; Cvitanovic et al. 2015a, 2016;
70 Bertuol-Garcia et al. 2018). However, a comprehensive detailed list of these disparate barriers and
71 enablers to research use in conservation has not been captured or described within a single
72 framework, making it difficult for conservation actors (including practitioners, researchers and
73 knowledge brokers) to navigate the science-practice space effectively. For example, practitioners
74 may not have access to peer-reviewed publications (Fuller et al. 2014), they have insufficient time to
75 read scientific papers, and they may lack necessary skills or resources to apply the information to
76 their practice (Pullin et al. 2004; Sunderland et al. 2009; Cook et al. 2010). The research produced
77 may be irrelevant, the findings may contradict practitioners' past experience or researchers may not
78 have time, skills or motivation to disseminate their research and interact with practitioners
79 effectively (Roux et al. 2006; Balme et al. 2014; Matzek et al. 2014; Cossarini et al. 2014). Other
80 reasons include when political, social, economic or cultural factors take priority, or where values or
81 attitudes of leaders drive the outcomes. A typology that collates and organizes these factors into a
82 comprehensive list would be a useful starting point for conservation actors to identify the factors
83 that are limiting use of scientific evidence in conservation management, and to better understand
84 how and where to focus their efforts on strengthening the science-practice interface.

85 **1.2 Existing knowledge exchange and research use conceptual frameworks**

86 Before identifying the barriers and enablers, it is important to consider the conceptual frameworks
87 and theories that describe how research is produced, exchanged and used. These can be broadly
88 divided into two bodies of research: (i) knowledge exchange and (ii) the implementation of
89 innovations and technology (Appendix S1). Several conceptual frameworks in the environmental
90 literature describe how knowledge can be produced and exchanged effectively between the research

91 and practice spheres (Reed et al. 2014; Cvitanovic et al. 2016; Nguyen et al. 2017), why the science-
92 practice gap exists (Bertuol-Garcia et al. 2018), and the implementation of evidence-based practice
93 (Pullin & Knight 2009; Dicks et al. 2014). Most of the initial research on knowledge exchange and
94 use of scientific evidence, however, has been developed in other fields, particularly in medicine,
95 healthcare, management practice, social welfare, education and agricultural science (e.g., Mitton et
96 al. 2007; Nutley et al. 2007b; Rycroft-Malone & Bucknall 2010). Common themes arise from
97 conceptual frameworks and theories across these sectors that describe influential factors facilitating
98 research use and knowledge exchange: the nature of the research (or innovation to be adopted),
99 aspects of communication and presentation, characteristics of the practitioner and other knowledge
100 actors; the institutional setting; the links between science and practice; the implementation or
101 decision processes; and the environmental or external context (Appendix S1). Many of these
102 components originate from the ‘diffusion of innovations’ theory (Rogers 2003) and variations of
103 these themes have been widely applied in taxonomies to specifically categorize barriers and enablers
104 to research use in healthcare (Rycroft-Malone et al. 2004; Kajermo et al. 2010; Zwolsman et al.
105 2012; Humphries et al. 2014).

106 While the existing environmental management conceptual frameworks mention versions of these
107 concepts (Reed et al. 2013; Cvitanovic et al. 2015b; Nguyen et al. 2017; Bertuol-Garcia et al. 2018),
108 they do not provide a comprehensive list of barriers and enablers associated with the use of
109 scientific evidence in conservation decisions under each of these themes. To complement these
110 overarching frameworks of knowledge exchange and research use, we developed a detailed
111 taxonomy and classification of barriers and enablers, drawing on data collected from a diverse group
112 of conservation practitioners and relevant systematic reviews in healthcare. This inventory and
113 taxonomy could be used to develop a practical checklist for researchers, practitioners and their

114 organizations to diagnose the barriers that are most limiting within their context and identify
115 facilitators that could strengthen the conservation science-practice interface.

116 The aims of this paper were three-fold:

- 117 1. First, to collate an inventory of the enablers and barriers to using scientific research in
118 conservation practice and develop an overarching taxonomy (or typology) to classify these
119 factors. The purpose of the inventory was to provide a comprehensive, organized list of
120 specific factors in one place.
- 121 2. Secondly, to explore the salience and applicability of existing conceptual frameworks from
122 healthcare to address the research-practice divide in conservation. While the barriers
123 experienced by conservation scientists and practitioners mirror those found in more
124 developed fields of evidence-based practice (Pullin & Knight 2001), conservation may have
125 other barriers specific to this discipline.
- 126 3. Finally, to identify the most common barriers and enablers to using science in practice as
127 perceived by practitioners in the UK and South Africa, to gain more insight into which
128 factors to focus on.

129 In this study, we focused primarily on the conservation science-practice interface rather than the
130 science-policy interface, as they involve distinct processes, knowledge and actors. However, we
131 acknowledge that these sectors acutely intersect, and that similar issues exist within the policy realm
132 (Rose et al. 2018; Young et al. 2014).

133 **2. Methods**

134 To develop a comprehensive inventory of barriers and enablers, we used thematic analysis to
135 inductively code nodes and themes from interviews with conservation practitioners and from

136 relevant systematic reviews in the healthcare sector. Then, we used central themes from existing
137 knowledge exchange and research use frameworks (Appendix S1) to inform the taxonomy we
138 developed to classify the barriers and enablers.

139 **2.1 Interviews**

140 We conducted semi-structured interviews with 18 practitioners from five organizations in KwaZulu-
141 Natal, South Africa, and 17 practitioners from seven conservation organizations in East Anglia,
142 United Kingdom. We focused on the United Kingdom (UK) and South Africa as examples with
143 distinct conservation and socio-economic contexts, to ensure that the inventory was internationally
144 relevant (Appendix S2). We defined ‘conservation practitioners’ as people who were involved in the
145 planning, decision making and/or implementation of conservation and environmental management,
146 with the aim of managing and conserving ecosystems, ecological communities, species and
147 environmental services (Gossa et al. 2015). To capture perspectives from a diversity of
148 organizations differing in their management scales, mandates, context, resources and capacity, we
149 interviewed practitioners from local, regional and national government agencies, and regional and
150 national non-government organizations (NGOs) across both countries. We selected the organizations
151 based on their prominence within the study areas and their interest in this study.

152 Practitioners were selected using purposive sampling, as recommended by key informants, to give a
153 diverse range of perspectives. The factors used to select practitioners included their organization
154 type, their role (i.e. manager or advisor), and their level of decision making within the organization.
155 Participants included managers ($N_{SA} = 10$, $N_{UK} = 11$) and scientific advisors ($N_{SA} = 8$, $N_{UK} = 6$). We
156 defined managers as professionals predominantly responsible for decision making, planning and
157 implementing conservation work (e.g. protected area managers, reserve wardens). We defined
158 advisors as being responsible for providing advice to managers (usually within the same

159 organization), with some remit for onsite monitoring or research, and often had scientific training
160 (e.g. ecologists, scientific advisors). We were also interested in interviewing practitioners at several
161 levels of decision making within their organization, including on-ground managers and advisors (i.e.
162 operational), those involved in regional or mid-level management decisions (mid-level), and
163 practitioners involved in policy development and strategic oversight of the organization (strategic).
164 While we aimed to interview advisors and managers from each level, it was not possible given the
165 structure and size of the organizations involved in our study. A summary of the demographic
166 information of participants is included in Appendix S2: Table S1.

167 Interviewees were asked what factors they thought assisted or limited the use of scientific research
168 in management decisions within their organization (Appendices S2 & S3). We gave participants the
169 interview questions one week in advance to prepare answers. We received written consent from
170 practitioners about their willingness to participate and record the interviews. Their responses were
171 confidential. We reached saturation (i.e. no new ideas and concepts arose in the last few interviews)
172 within each country. This research was approved by the University of Cambridge Research Ethics
173 Committee.

174 **2.2 Literature Review**

175 In addition to the interviews, we reviewed categorization schemes of barriers and enablers to using
176 science in practice, developed in the medical, allied healthcare and public health literature. We
177 focused on the healthcare literature due to the initial development and wide-spread implementation
178 of evidence-based practice in this sector (Cochrane 1972; Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group
179 1992). Given the extensive volume of literature available, we restricted the search to English peer-
180 reviewed systematic reviews (quantitative and qualitative) that provided lists of barriers and
181 facilitators to research use, knowledge transfer and knowledge exchange. We conducted the search

182 in the Web of Knowledge in October 2014, using specific word search terms (Appendix S2: Table
183 S2).

184 The search delivered a total of 635 papers (after duplicates were removed). After excluding 460
185 irrelevant or ineligible (i.e. not systematic reviews) articles based on the title, and a further 113 after
186 reading the abstract, 62 articles remained. The medical and healthcare systematic reviews covered a
187 broad range of topics, including barriers that limit general practitioners, nurses and physiotherapists
188 using evidence-based practice, reasons why guidelines are implemented in clinical practice settings,
189 and how political and institutional factors influence the use of science in public health policy. Due to
190 time restrictions, 15 reviews with broad, more generalized scopes were identified as priority for data
191 extraction and analysis. We also included eight additional papers that were not found in the search, a
192 relevant book (Nutley et al. 2007) and a report (Walter et al. 2004), thus generating a total of 25
193 references (listed in Appendix S2).

194 **2.3 Data analysis: development of inventory and taxonomy**

195 We constructed the inventory of barriers and enablers associated with the use of scientific research
196 in conservation practice using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke 2006), facilitated with the
197 qualitative analysis software NVivo. Before initial coding, the first author (JCW) read all
198 practitioner interviews in full. The initial stage of code involved the first author systematically
199 analyzing each sentence or section of each interview and creating codes that described the possible
200 factor/s that could limit or facilitate use of scientific evidence. Multiple codes were assigned to
201 sections where relevant. The entire script of each interview was coded, and co-authors reviewed the
202 coding from sections of the interviews that were difficult to interpret.

203 We then grouped and sorted the individual codes from the interviews into broad themes and sub-
204 themes, using an inductive approach, which formed an initial version of the taxonomy's categories
205 and sub-categories. The themes and sub-themes were based on what or who the influential factor
206 referred to. At this stage the interview data within each code and theme was identified as either
207 acting as a 'barrier' or an 'enabler' (description in Appendix S2), forming the basis of the inventory.

208 From the 25 healthcare references, the first author coded the barriers and enablers listed following
209 the same process. We analyzed the interview data first to ensure that the initial codes and themes
210 identified from the conservation practitioners were not influenced by those found in the healthcare
211 literature.

212 The next stage of analysis was to merge the themes and codes from the interviews and literature,
213 categorize and revise the codes and themes to avoid duplications and improve clarity. The interview
214 scripts and healthcare references were then checked to ensure the new versions of the codes and
215 themes matched the raw data. This iterative process was conducted by the first author with in-depth
216 feedback and discussions with other authors to ensure the categorization of the themes and codes
217 accurately reflected the data and that the typology was intuitive.

218 Then, we overlaid the categories and sub-categories from this initial inductive analysis with the
219 themes commonly found across multiple existing conceptual frameworks and theories of knowledge
220 exchange and research use (Appendix S1). This comparison was to determine deductively whether
221 the existing structure and components of the framework could inform our taxonomy and identify
222 similarities and differences between the themes and sub-themes occurring within the conservation
223 and healthcare sectors. Most of the broad categories aligned, however, the sub-categories and codes
224 were mostly developed inductively by the data on practitioners' perspectives and the healthcare
225 literature. The final version of the taxonomy and inventory of barriers and enablers captured all

226 aspects of existing conceptual frameworks, but used a more detailed categorization of themes and
227 sub-themes to ensure it was comprehensive, self-explanatory, and relevant to the conservation
228 context.

229 There were two layers of subjectivity in this analysis: (i) the practitioners' perceptions of what they
230 regarded to be barriers and enablers, and (ii) our interpretation of the interview data. Practitioners
231 may have been more likely to identify barriers that were easier to observe and explain, and
232 symptoms rather than underlying causes of the science-practice divide. Practitioners may have
233 different baseline standards of acceptable practice, which would affect whether they considered a
234 factor (e.g. level of access to research) to be a barrier or an enabler. They may also have been less
235 likely to report barriers that could damage their organization's reputation. To reduce this
236 subjectivity, we interviewed a diverse range of people from different levels and roles, ensured
237 confidentiality to the interviewees and supplemented these data with barriers and enablers found in
238 medical field. To address the subjectivity of our interpretations, we reported all barriers or enablers
239 that practitioners explicitly mentioned, even if we did not necessarily agree with each statement.

240 **2.4 Major barriers and enablers in practice**

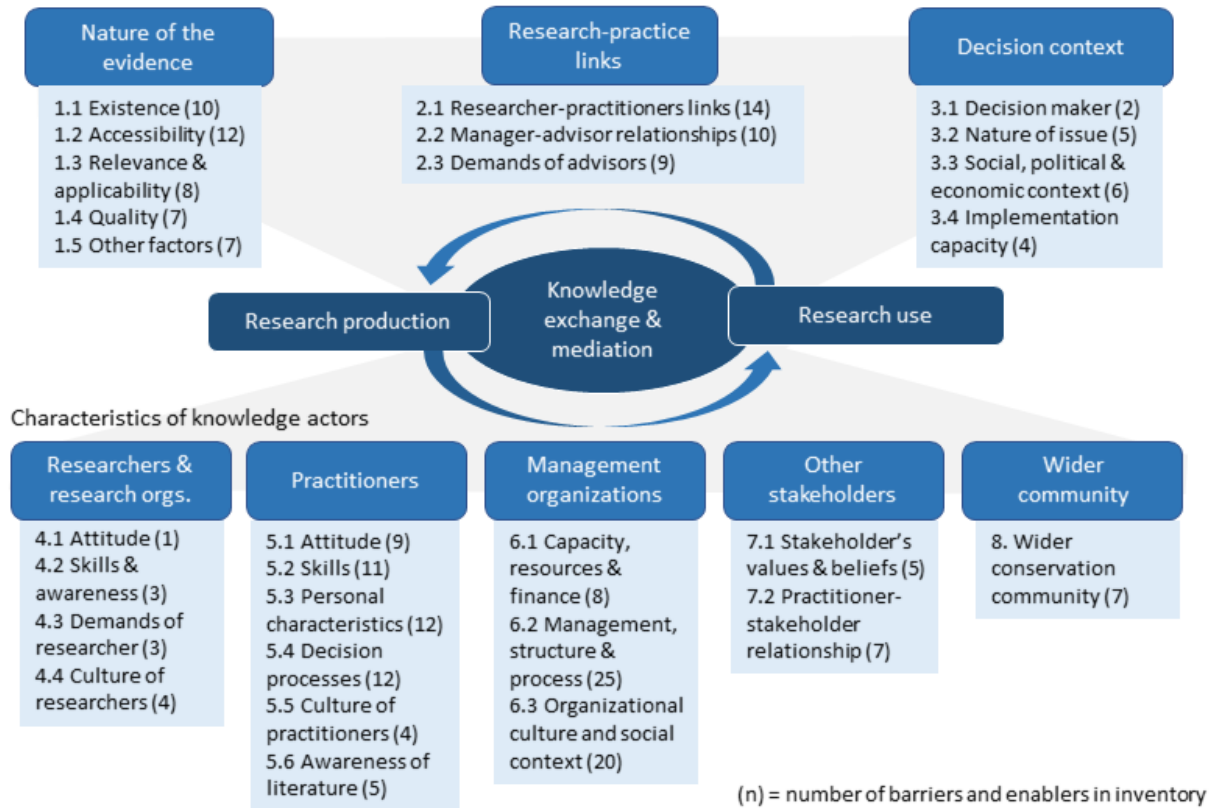
241 We identified the most common barriers and enablers for practitioners in the UK and South Africa,
242 by quantifying the number of practitioners who mentioned or alluded to barriers and enablers within
243 each sub-category of the taxonomy. This was based on whether each influencing factor was referred
244 to in a positive or negative context (Appendix S2). We emphasize that these results are qualitative in
245 nature, providing a relative indication of which barriers and enablers are the most obvious and
246 readily expressed by practitioners. The small sample of practitioners interviewed was selected to
247 capture diverse perspectives, and their views were not intended to be representative of conservation
248 practitioners in each country, or globally.

249 **3. Results**

250 **3.1 Taxonomy of barriers and enablers to using scientific evidence in conservation**
251 **management decisions**

252 The overarching taxonomy and inventory of barriers and enablers for using scientific evidence in
253 conservation management decisions is broadly supported by existing frameworks and theories on
254 knowledge exchange and research use (Appendix S1 & S2). The taxonomy is structured into eight
255 categories and 27 sub-categories (Fig. 1). The categories are: (1) the nature of the evidence; (2) the
256 links and relationships between researchers and practitioners; (3) context of the decision; (4)
257 characteristics of researchers and research organizations; (5) characteristics of the practitioners; (6)
258 characteristics of the management organizations; (7) other stakeholders; and (8) the wider
259 conservation context. The full inventory of 230 barriers and their corresponding enablers is provided
260 in the Supporting Information (Appendix S4).

Typology of 230 barriers and enablers to research use within the conservation knowledge-action framework



261

262 Figure 1: The taxonomy of barriers and enablers to using scientific evidence in conservation

263 management and planning decisions, with 8 categories and 27 sub-categories, relating to the

264 processes of knowledge production, exchange and use (Reed et al. 2013; Nguyen et al. 2017). The

265 full inventory of 230 barriers and enablers are listed in Appendix S4. [color online only, 2 column

266 width]

267 Barriers and enablers associated with the nature of the evidence are influenced by: the existence of

268 scientific evidence; its accessibility; relevance and applicability; quality; and other inherent factors

269 of science and research (Fig. 1, Appendix S4: categories 1.1-1.5).

270 The links and relationships between researchers and practitioners are key factors influencing the use

271 of scientific evidence in conservation management and the facilitation of knowledge co-production,

272 knowledge exchange and the feedback loop from practitioners to researchers (Fig. 1, Appendix S4:

273 categories 2.1-2.3). We identified three sub-categories present in the interview data, including: (i)
274 the divide between academic researchers (usually external to the management organization) and
275 practitioners (both managers and advisors); (ii) the divide between managers and scientific advisors
276 (usually within the same organization); and (iii) the unique pressures and demands that scientists
277 embedded in management organizations (i.e. advisors, ecologists and internal researchers) face,
278 working at the science-practice interface.

279 The likelihood of applying research in conservation practice can relate to the decision context and
280 depend on: who the decision maker is; the nature of the issue; the social, political and economic
281 context; and the implementation capacity (Fig. 1, Appendix S4: categories 3.1-3.4). Many of these
282 factors are inherent and are unlikely to be shifted from a barrier to an enabler.

283 Barriers or enablers associated with characteristics of researchers and their organizations include:
284 the researchers' attitudes towards science dissemination; their communication and awareness skills;
285 academic pressures; and the academic culture (Fig. 1, Appendix S4: categories 4.1-4.4).

286 The characteristics of practitioners (i.e. managers and advisors), including: their attitudes; skills;
287 individual characteristics; decision-making processes; workplace culture; and awareness of the
288 scientific literature, can influence the extent to which they use scientific information to inform their
289 conservation decisions (Fig. 1, Appendix S4: categories 5.1-5.6).

290 The use of scientific evidence in conservation decisions can depend heavily on a conservation
291 management organization's: financial and resource capacity; the internal management, decision-
292 making processes and underlying organizational structure; and the organizational culture and social
293 context (Fig. 1, Appendix S4: categories 6.1-6.3).

294 Characteristics of other stakeholders (i.e. the public, landowners and local communities), such as:
295 their values and beliefs; and their interactions with practitioners, can limit or facilitate the use of
296 scientific research (Fig. 1, Appendix S4: categories 7.1-7.2). In addition, the external context and the
297 wider conservation community can have an overarching influence on the use of scientific evidence
298 in management and policy decisions (Fig. 1, Appendix S4: category 8).

299 Despite attempts to minimize overlaps within the typology, several interactions and links across
300 categories and sub-categories should be acknowledged. In particular, factors associated with the
301 decision context such as the nature of the decision maker (category 3.1) relate to the characteristics
302 of practitioners (category 5); the capacity to implement a decision (category 3.4) is likely to be
303 affected by a management organization's capacity and finances (category 6.1); and the links
304 between research and practice (category 2) are directly or indirectly influenced by the characteristics
305 of the researchers, practitioners and management organizations (categories 4-6). We emphasize that
306 the process of knowledge exchange and research use is not linear, but iterative and messy.

307 **3.2 Comparison between barriers and enablers in healthcare and conservation**

308 The eight broad categories described in our typology were well aligned from multiple conceptual
309 frameworks of knowledge exchange and research use, with a few distinctions described in Appendix
310 S2). At a finer scale, the categories and sub-categories of barriers and facilitators suggested by
311 conservation practitioners in our case studies and the systematic reviews in the healthcare literature
312 were similar, with one main exception.

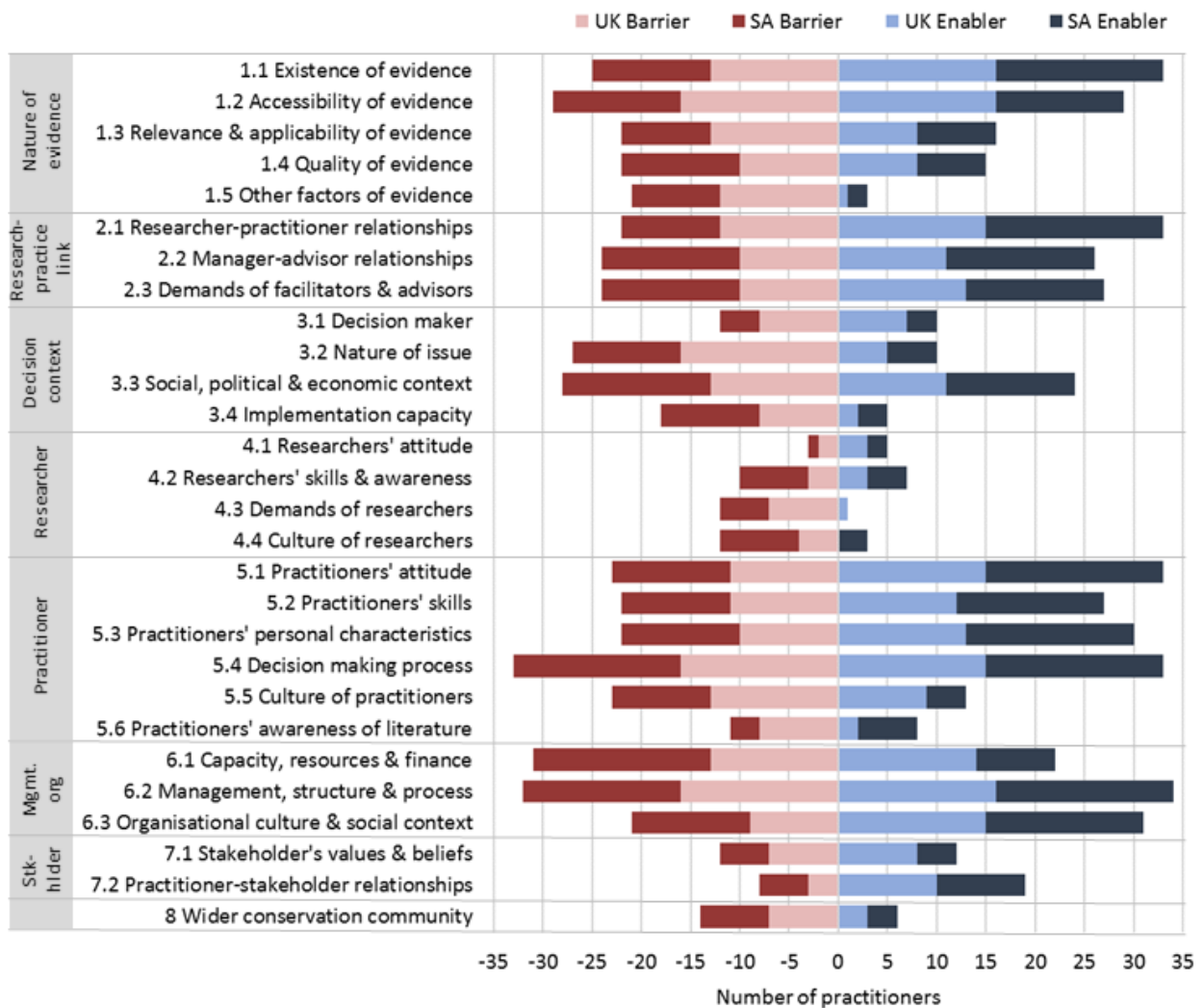
313 The healthcare systematic reviews rarely mentioned factors associated with the links and
314 interactions between researchers and practitioners (category 2, three of the 25 references included
315 this theme: Appendix S1). However, the link between science and practice was a dominant theme

316 mentioned often by conservation practitioners (Fig. 2). This included the collaborations between
317 academic researchers (external to the management organization) and practitioners (category 2.1),
318 and the relationships between managers and advisors, usually within the same conservation
319 organization (category 2.2). Many of the managers who had access to internal ecologists said they
320 relied heavily on their advice to learn about new research and scientific ideas, demonstrating their
321 value to the organization: “*we’re very, very reliant on the ecologists to digest this information and*
322 *... feed it down [to us]*” (UK reserve manager). However, several practitioners identified a lack of
323 mutual respect between the managers and advisors/scientists for their respective roles, priorities,
324 skills or values: “*scientists not respecting practitioners, [and] practitioners being cynical or*
325 *suspect, [and] suspicious of scientists as these blue sky idealists*” (South African strategic advisor).
326 Importantly, several advisors and scientists positioned within management organizations mentioned
327 the difficulties of having sufficient time and capacity to provide up-to-date advice to managers,
328 while also struggling to maintain credibility as respected scientists (category 2.3). This sub-category
329 was completely absent from the healthcare literature. We also found many differences at the level of
330 individual barriers between the barriers and enablers found in the medical and conservation fields,
331 which are presented in Appendix S2.

332 **3.3 Major barriers and enablers to using scientific evidence in the UK and South Africa**

333 From our interviews with conservation practitioners in the UK and South Africa, the three most
334 common sub-categories describing barriers to using science in practice were management
335 organizations’ limited capacity and available resources (category 6.1), aspects of the organizations’
336 structure, management and decision-making processes (category 6.2), and practitioners’ decision-
337 making processes (category 5.4), where each was mentioned or alluded to by over 85% of
338 interviewed practitioners (Fig. 2, Table 1, further described with quotes and examples in Appendix

339 S2). However, in total, interviewed practitioners mentioned more enabling factors than those
 340 limiting their use of science in practice (Fig. 2) and they gave many examples of how scientific
 341 research had been influential in their management decisions. Over 85% of practitioners mentioned
 342 the following factors as enablers, including the existence of the necessary evidence (category 1.1),
 343 management organizations' structure and processes (category 6.2), aspects of their organizational
 344 culture and social context (category 6.3), practitioners' attitudes (category 5.1), the processes and
 345 information practitioners use to make management decisions (category 5.4), and positive
 346 relationships between academics, managers and advisors (category 3.1, Fig. 2, Table 2, further
 347 described with quotes and examples in Appendix S2).



348

349 Figure 2: The number of South African and UK practitioners who mentioned each broad sub-
350 category, either as a barrier (left side) or an enabler (right side). South Africa (SA): dark bars, n=18.
351 United Kingdom (UK): light bars, n=17. [color online only, 2 column width]

352 Management organizations play an important role in facilitating or limiting research use,
353 demonstrated by the high diversity of individual factors within these decision-making institutions (n
354 = 53, i.e. 23% of all factors in the inventory, Fig. 1) and by the frequency of these factors mentioned
355 by practitioners. All three sub-categories within the ‘management organization’ category were
356 considered by over 85% of practitioners as enablers and/or barriers to using scientific evidence in
357 decisions (Fig. 2). Within the organizations included in our study, financial resources and capacity
358 were considered by practitioners to be mostly limiting, while the organizational cultures and social
359 contexts were reported to be overall facilitating research use (Fig. 2). For example, 20 practitioners
360 thought there was a lack of funding for conducting internal research, monitoring and knowledge
361 exchange activities within their organization (Table 1), yet 23 practitioners mentioned that their
362 organization recognized the value of internal scientific staff (Table 2).

363 Almost every practitioner identified aspects of the organizational management, structure and
364 decision-making processes (category 6.2) as both enabling or limiting the use of science in practice
365 (Fig. 2, Appendix S2). Problems with communication across organization departments was the most
366 common barrier in this category (Table 1), yet similar numbers of practitioners mentioned that
367 collective decision-making including input from scientists, and having scientists, advisors and
368 knowledge brokers embedded within the organization enabled research use (Table 2). These
369 institutional decision-making processes are closely linked with the individual practitioners’
370 behaviors and decision-making processes (category 5.4), which also featured as common barriers
371 and enablers in the interviews.

372

373 Table 1: Examples of barriers within the sub-categories most commonly mentioned by practitioners
 374 in the UK and South Africa about using scientific research to inform conservation management
 375 decisions

Common barriers to research use	Number of practitioners who mentioned barrier
5.4 Practitioner's management decision process and behavior	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of time to read scientific papers & reports 23 • trust common sense, trial and error or 'gut feel' 14 • rely on personal experience 13 • assume guidelines and advice are based on science 13 	
6.1 Management organization capacity, resources and finance	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of funding for conducting internal research, monitoring and knowledge exchange activities 20 • lack of staff capacity (time and skills) 15 • inadequate resources, administrative support and facilities required to implement changes in practice and behavior 14 • lack of funding for general management operations 12 • poor databases or dysfunctional/inefficient information management systems 12 • lack of resources to provide access to scientific research 5 • poor internet connection 5 	
6.2 Management organization structure, process and internal management	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • internal communication problems e.g. managers and advisors working in silos 19 • adaptive management and planning cycle not functioning or not adopted 11 • no department or staff to conduct internal experiments & research 8 • no internal policy to encourage use of science 6 • decisions are made with no input from scientists 6 	

376 * For detailed explanations see Supporting Information Appendices S2 & S4.

377

378 Table 2: Enablers within the sub-categories that were most frequently mentioned by practitioners in
 379 the UK and South Africa that facilitate the use of scientific research in conservation decisions

Common enablers of research use	Number of practitioners who mentioned enabler
1.1 Existence of scientific information	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • management outcomes are recorded and evaluated • data and research about specific management questions exists • trials are set in place to test effectiveness of management 	10 9 7
2.1 Academic researcher-practitioner links and relationships	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • formal collaborations exist with other management organizations and practitioners • practitioners support research where possible and work with academic experts in field • formal collaborations exist between management & research organizations • strong interactions, personal networks, partnerships and relationships exist between researchers and practitioners • information channels, forums and networks exist between and within organizations • students conduct research projects within management organization • practitioners actively seek out academics' advice • practitioners are affiliated with universities • practitioners are involved in academic research (opportunities exist) 	25 13 16 6 11 12 6 5 5
5.1 Practitioner's attitude	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • positive attitudes to research and using science in decisions • belief that science benefits practice • open and willing to change and try new things • trust scientific information 	26 20 12 5
5.4 Practitioner's decision-making process and behavior	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rely on several sources of scientific and experiential information • have time to read scientific papers & reports 	14 7
6.2 Management organization structure, process and internal management	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • collective decision-making including input from scientists • embedded scientists, advisors and knowledge brokers • dedicated department or staff to conduct internal experiments & research • outcomes of management are monitored • adaptive management and planning cycle in place & functioning • management plans are efficient and reviewed frequently • internal policy exists to ensure or encourage use of science 	22 19 13 14 14 8 7
6.3 Organizational culture and social context	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • recognize benefits of scientific staff within organization 	23

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • leaders, senior management and administration support use of scientific evidence 	11 8
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organizational culture in workplace supports research use and change 	10
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • strong organizational culture, staff satisfaction and high morale 	7
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • monitoring is an important aspect of management 	

380 * For detailed explanations see Appendices S2 & S4.

381 **4. Discussion**

382 Without fully understanding the barriers that researchers, practitioners and their organizations face
383 when integrating research into management, the conservation community has limited capacity to
384 efficiently improve the integration of scientific evidence into decision making. Building on a
385 combination of frameworks from the healthcare and environmental management sectors (Appendix
386 S1), we developed (i) an inventory of 230 factors that limit and facilitate knowledge exchange and
387 research use (Appendix S4), and (ii) a typology – or classification scheme – that organizes these
388 factors into categories and sub-categories (Fig. 1). At a broad level, the categories were consistent
389 with, and thus reinforce, the components of existing conceptual frameworks (Appendix S1). Indeed,
390 the major themes and most barriers and enablers captured in this study, such as limited capacity,
391 resource constraints, institutional barriers and lack of time (Fig 1, Tables 1 & 2) have been
392 previously found in other contexts (Pullin et al. 2004; Sunderland et al. 2009; Esler et al. 2010;
393 Young & Van Aarde 2011; Matzek et al. 2014; Cvitanovic et al. 2015a). However, the novelty and
394 value of our study is in the comprehensiveness and level of detail provided by the inventory and
395 typology. This typology could assist researchers, practitioners, their institutions and the wider
396 conservation community to navigate through this vast array of factors and help identify the areas
397 within their contexts that could be improved.

398 We provide three other insights that contribute to the wider understanding of barriers and enablers to
399 research use in conservation. First, we demonstrate the importance of addressing the finer details of

400 each sub-category and individual barrier, rather than considering the broad categories superficially.
401 Without providing details about the three sub-categories and 53 potential barriers associated with
402 organizations, it would be difficult for managers to know where or how to improve research use
403 within their institutions. Similarly, through our development of sub-categories within the science-
404 practice links category, we identified the need to provide advisors with sufficient support and
405 resources to improve their capacity as effective knowledge brokers and change agents (category
406 2.3). The second development from our study is the identification of complex and diverse factors
407 associated with the decision-making processes at the individual, institutional and wider context
408 levels (categories 5.4, 6.2 & 3), which addresses a knowledge need identified by Nguyen et al.
409 (2017). Third, we identified which aspects of the typology the conservation community could look
410 to the healthcare literature for guidance, which we discuss below.

411 **4.1 Relevance of healthcare evidence-based frameworks for conservation**

412 We found that most issues faced in conservation overlap with the healthcare sector suggesting that
413 their longer history of evidence-based practice and extensive research on how to improve research
414 use is relevant for conservation management (Appendix S2). Several enablers present in the
415 healthcare field could be adopted by conservation organizations and practitioners to increase the
416 uptake of evidence-based decision making. These include providing decision makers with best-
417 practice guidelines, role models, training courses and educational materials to boost their skills,
418 while ensuring the management organizations encourage the use of scientific evidence through
419 supportive policies, funding and capacity (Appendix S4).

420 Our comparison of literature on barriers and enablers in healthcare with the views of interviewed
421 conservation practitioners led to a key difference. The links and relationships between researchers,
422 practitioners and advisors were an important component of conservation decision making (category

423 2, Figs. 1 & 2). This category was largely absent from the healthcare literature, perhaps due to their
424 stronger focus on ‘knowledge transfer’ from medical research to health practitioners – rather than
425 ‘knowledge exchange’. Health professionals may have more access to scientific evidence that has
426 been synthesized, appraised for quality and relevance, and presented in formats that can be quickly
427 accessed, digested and applied, such as systematic reviews, synopses or guidelines (Dicks et al.
428 2014), thus reducing the need for direct contact between researchers and clinicians. The medical
429 field also has wide-spread recognition, dedicated resources and demand for systematic reviews,
430 evidence summaries and decision support tools. In contrast, efforts to collate the existing
431 conservation literature is still in progress (Pullin & Knight 2009; Sutherland et al. 2019), and there is
432 large potential for evidence synthesis in conservation to expand in the future.

433 Two-way interactions between scientists and decision makers have been repeatedly emphasized in
434 the conservation and environmental management literature, suggesting that these relationships are
435 more complex and influential than in healthcare (Roux et al. 2006; Young et al. 2014; Reed et al.
436 2014; Cvitanovic et al. 2015b; Nguyen et al. 2017; Bertuol-Garcia et al. 2018). Research in the
437 agricultural sector could inform this space in the future, given its strong focus on extension workers,
438 social networks and communities of practice. For example, providing opportunities for decision
439 makers to be involved in knowledge and research co-production and recognizing the diversity of
440 cultures and perspectives (Blackstock et al. 2010), could be useful strategies for understanding and
441 influencing behavior change. A better understanding of how to effectively engage across the social
442 network structure of advisors could also enhance knowledge exchange (Klerkx & Proctor 2013).

443 **4.2 Pathways towards evidence-informed conservation practice**

444 The reasons for the science-practice divide are complex (Nguyen et al. 2017; Bertuol-Garcia et al.
445 2018). Conservation professionals could use the typology (Fig. 1) and inventory of influential

446 factors (Appendix S4) as a guide to systematically identify the unique factors that limit or enable
447 research use within their organization or specific decision contexts. Appendix S4 describes the
448 relevant barriers and enablers for each group of conservation actors, including conservation funders,
449 publishers, educators and policy makers.

450 Practitioners and their organizations could focus on sections associated with the relationships and
451 links with scientists (category 2), their attitudes, skills, decision processes, culture and awareness
452 (category 5) and all aspects of the management organization (category 6). Management
453 organizations can be instrumental in facilitating research exchange and research use across all levels
454 of staff, through the culture, visions and policies, their organizational structure, planning processes
455 and resource allocation (category 6, Table 2). For example, embedding scientists and advisors
456 within decision-making organizations and boundary organizations have been suggested as effective
457 solutions (Cook et al. 2013; Cvitanovic et al. 2015b).

458 Researchers could use this typology to identify opportunities for facilitating existence, accessibility,
459 relevance and quality of scientific information (categories 1.1-1.4), building links with practitioners
460 (category 2.1) and improving their attitudes, skills, academic demands and culture (category 4). In
461 all cases, overcoming the existing barriers remains challenging. Solutions to address these barriers
462 will need to be tailored and multi-faceted, depending on the context and situation to increase
463 success.

464 **4.4 Limitations of the inventory and taxonomy**

465 Some barriers and enablers may have been missed, as our review on healthcare systematic reviews
466 was not itself systematic and the interviews were conducted with a small, but diverse, subsection of
467 the global conservation community. Reporting frequencies of people mentioning barriers and

468 enablers is not a true measure of importance, given the nature of qualitative data and our sample was
469 unlikely to be representative of all practitioners. The barriers and enablers frequently mentioned
470 may not be those of greatest concern, but rather a description of the factors that are easily observed
471 and described. Absence does not imply a barrier is not important, as practitioners may not have
472 mentioned factors they assumed were obvious, ones they forgot or dismissed as irrelevant. It is
473 possible that practitioners interviewed in this study were more inclined to speak positively about
474 their use of scientific evidence, which may explain why we identified more enablers than barriers
475 overall.

476 At the conceptual level, our study investigated how and why knowledge is a limiting factor in
477 conservation practice, but we acknowledge that many other factors are involved in decisions, such
478 as power relationships between individuals and groups and different value lenses (Raymond et al.
479 2019), and the links between knowledge, values and rules (Colloff et al. 2017), that lead to different
480 priorities in conservation management. Despite these limitations, our qualitative data provide a solid
481 platform to further develop and expand the inventory of barriers and enablers to using science in
482 practice.

483 **4.5 Future steps**

484 Further research is needed to understand which barriers are driving the science-practice divide,
485 rather than simply focusing on symptoms of an underlying cause; how the barriers are causally
486 linked or interdependent; and trade-offs between barriers and enablers in specific organizational
487 contexts. There is scope to expand the classification scheme and the inventory of barriers and
488 enablers to include aspects of the science-policy interface, which suffer from similar limitations
489 (Rose et al. 2018). Most critically, research is needed on which solutions effectively transform each
490 barrier into an enabler, and how each of these enablers facilitate the use of scientific evidence in

491 conservation practice. This would outline actions for individual practitioners and researchers,
492 organizations, and international consortiums, such as the European Union knowledge synthesis
493 project EKLIPSE (EKLIPSE 2019) or the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on
494 Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES).

495 **4.6 Conclusion**

496 By compiling the barriers and enablers from healthcare and conservation perspectives, this study
497 presents a comprehensive inventory of the factors contributing to the use of scientific evidence in
498 conservation. Even though many barriers occur simultaneously in each conservation setting, this list
499 enables practitioners and researchers to break down the problem into manageable pieces and identify
500 possible methods of overcoming these issues.

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509 **6. Supporting Information**

510 A summary of knowledge exchange and research use conceptual frameworks (Appendix S1),
511 additional methods and results (Appendix S2), interview script (Appendix S3), and the inventory of

512 barriers and enablers to using scientific evidence in conservation decisions (Appendix S4) are
513 available online.

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- 664

Figure 1 Inventory of 230 barriers and enablers to research use within the conservation knowledge-action framework
[Click here to download Figure: Fig1_Conceptual-framework-taxonomy.pdf](#)

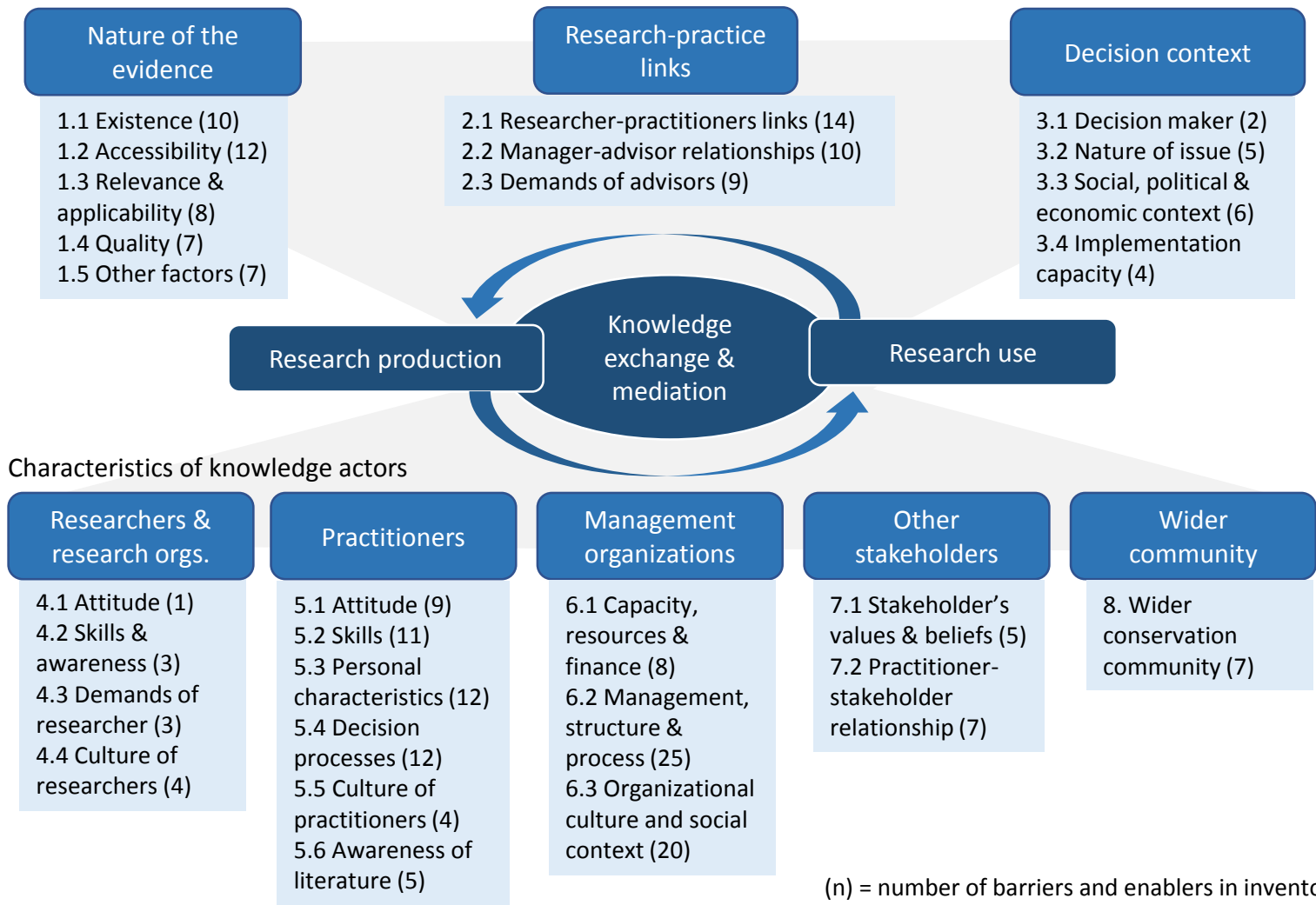
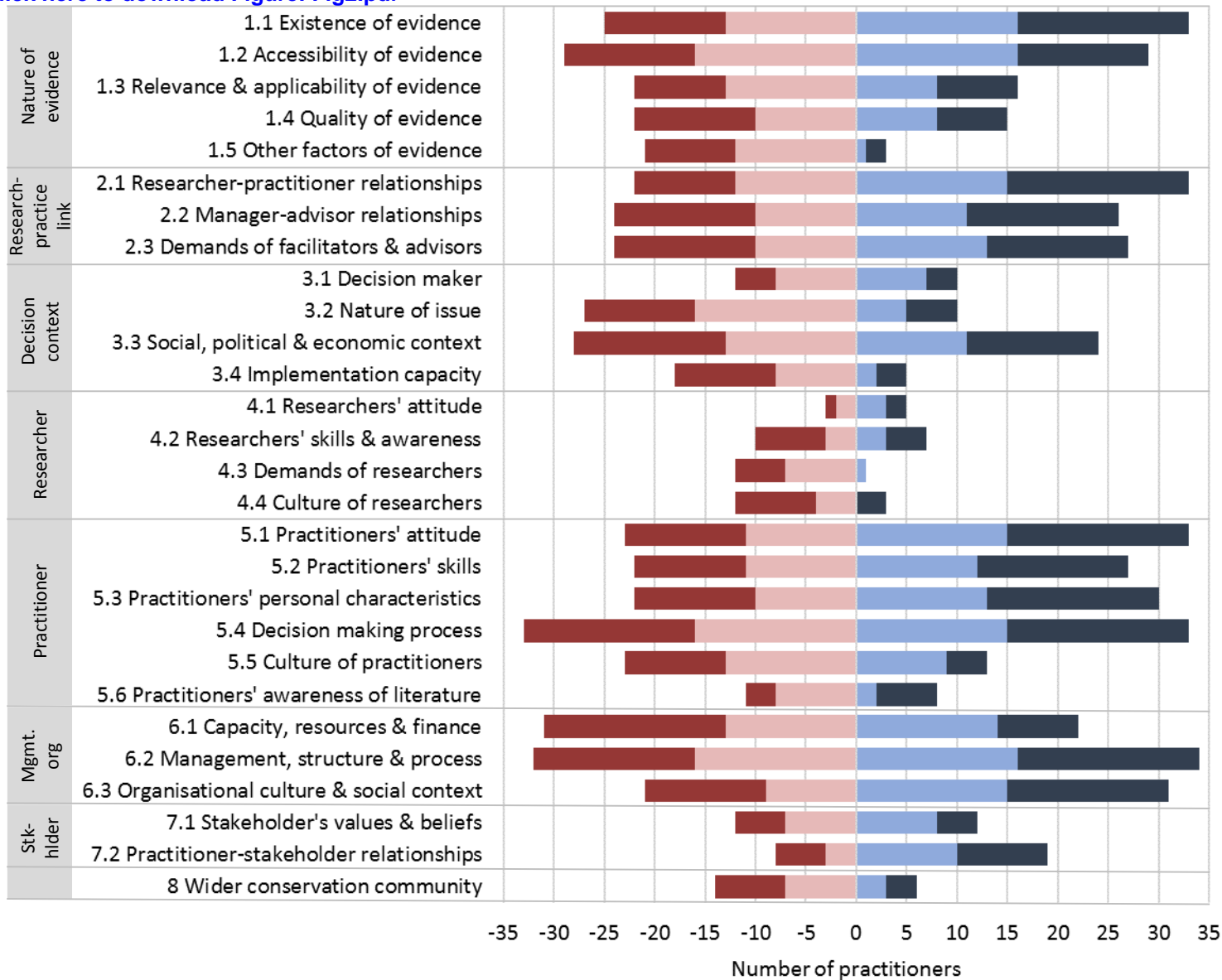


Figure2

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UK Barrier SA Barrier UK Enabler SA Enabler



Appendix S1

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e-component

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Appendix S3

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Appendix S4

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