Social-ecological institutional fit in volunteer-based organizations: A study of lake management organizations in Vilas County, Wisconsin, U.S.A.

Dane Whittaker, Alise Crippen, Corinne Johnson, Marco Janssen

Center for Behavior, Institutions, and the Environment

School of Sustainability

Arizona State University

1	ABSTRACT
2	Lake organizations around lakes in North America can be seen as a natural experiment of
3	volunteer-based organizations conserving and managing lakes. This enables us to study social,
4	institutional and environmental attributes that correlate with performance of common pool
5	resource governance. In the summer of 2019, we performed an in-depth comparative study of
6	thirty-one lake organizations in Vilas County, Wisconsin using data collected through semi-
7	structured interviews, websites, and agency databases. We systematically compared the cases
8	using crisp-set qualitative comparative analysis, specifically analyzing how the eight Ostrom
9	institutional design principles lead to different outcomes for the lake social-ecological system.
10	We found that different combinations of design principles, and social and environmental
11	attributes led to the same lake S.E.S. outcomes. Although we expected that there were no
12	panaceas for lake governance, we were surprised by the high diversity in organizational goals
13	and the relative low diversity of rules in use.

14

INTRODUCTION

15 Environmental governance regimes often ignore the institutional, social, and 16 environmental conditions known to be pivotal to social-ecological system (SES) sustainability 17 (Leslie et al., 2015). Ostrom observed an overuse of one-size-fits-all SES governance solutions, 18 and called for the study of the institutional, social, and ecological conditions of systems to 19 understand what works contextually and move beyond panaceas (Ostrom, 2007). She argued the 20 goal of sustainability science research is to understand the combinations of conditions that more 21 often lead to sustainable outcomes preventing disastrous results (Ostrom, 2007). 22 Institutional fit is conditions' congruence with the rules and norms governing a system. 23 There are three types of institutional fit—ecological, social, and social-ecological (Epstein et al., 24 2015). Ecological fit is evaluated by asking whether the rules and norms effectively address the 25 biophysical challenges. Social fit occurs when the rules and norms align with the preferences, 26 values, and needs of the people involved. Social-ecological fit combines these two to ask which 27 institutions are likely to lead to sustainable social-ecological systems (Epstein et al., 2015). In 28 other words, the combinations of institutions and social and ecological conditions that lead to 29 success in a social-ecological system. Assessments made solely on ecological or social data may 30 lead to divergent conclusions (Leslie et al., 2015).

31 SES fit is used to help understand the conditions in which an institution leads to greater 32 SES sustainability. To do this, a measure or measures of success and the conditions that 33 contribute to that success must be defined (Epstein et al., 2015). The challenges of SES fit 34 include how the system and success are defined, the conditions that are included or not, and 35 success defined based on one set of criteria (Epstein et al., 2015). Most studies rely on the researcher to define success and only focus one measure of success, missing the multiple uses
that emerge in SES and differing drivers of outcomes (Agrawal & Benson, 2011; Epstein et al.,
2015). In our study we compare the conditions that lead to various outcomes as defined by the
people who are part of the SES.

40 Large-n comparisons and meta-analyses are needed to understand how institutions 41 influence SES outcomes (Cumming et al., 2020). These studies help to identify trends in the 42 conditions and institutional arrangements that lead to SES sustainability, or SES fit. In large-n 43 secondary case comparative studies, there are three types of bias that are common: investigator 44 bias introduced by missing conditions, procedural bias stemming from coding errors, and 45 substantive bias from the way individual conditions are weighted or alternative explanations 46 (Barnett et al., 2016). Conducting standardized fieldwork is an approach for generating complete, 47 consistent, comparable data to advance our understanding of common pool resource governance 48 (Barnett et al., 2016). We compare organizations—using crisp-set qualitative comparative 49 analysis as recommended by Epstein et al (2015)—that manage the same resource type but 50 operate with different goals in different conditions. We integrate qualitative and quantitative 51 datasets (Leslie et al., 2015) and explore different outcomes (Agrawal & Benson, 2011) to 52 understand SES fit.

53 Traditional commons research focuses on social-ecological systems where the resource 54 users are reliant on the resource for their livelihoods. These user groups struggle with collective 55 action problems such as: "coping with free-riding, solving commitment problems, arranging for 56 the supply of new institutions, and monitoring individual compliance with sets of rules" (Ostrom, 57 1990). Through a large-n secondary case comparison, Ostrom and her colleagues identified eight

58 institutional design principles (IDPs) that are associated with the persistence of community-59 based resource management (Ostrom, 1990). The design principles are: 1) clearly defined 60 boundaries, 2) congruence between appropriation and provision rules and local conditions, 3) 61 collective-choice arrangements, 4) monitoring, 5) graduated sanctions, 6) conflict-resolution 62 mechanisms, 7) minimal recognition of rights to organize, and 8) nested enterprises. Follow up 63 studies support the IDPs role in SES sustainability (Agrawal & Chhatre, 2006; Baggio et al., 64 2016; Cox et al., 2010; Shin et al., 2020); however, additional, rigorous studies of the institutional design principles are needed to understand their validity and generalizability (Araral, 65 66 2014). Our study confirms that the design principles play a greater role in some SES outcomes 67 than others, explores their impact on SES outcomes volunteer-based organizations without high 68 resource dependence, and addresses data completeness and consistency concerns through 69 primary data collection.

70 We explore SES fit and the validity and generalizability of the institutional design 71 principles by comparing thirty-one Vilas County, Wisconsin, USA volunteer-based lake 72 organizations using data collected through semi-structured interviews, websites, and agency 73 databases. Vilas County is home to more than 1,300 lakes and 115 lake organizations providing 74 an opportunity to compare conditions and outcomes across a landscape of lake SESs (Stedman, 75 2006). In this study, we explore how the combinations of ecological, social, and institutional 76 conditions lead to different outcomes in lake SESs. To do this, we collected primary data about 77 the goals and conditions through semi-structured interviews with lake organization leaders. 78 Few studies collect primary data about the institutional design principles (Agrawal & Chhatre, 79 2006; Shin et al., 2020).

In the next section, we explain the methods used to collect primary data to compare thirty-one lake organizations in Vilas County, Wisconsin, USA. We then present a systematic comparison of the thirty-one organizations using crisp-set qualitative comparative analysis and conclude with a discussion of our findings.

84

METHODS & DATA

85 We conducted semi-structured interviews during the summer of 2019 to collect data 86 about thirty-one lake organizations that conserve thirty-nine lakes in Vilas County, Wisconsin, 87 USA. We integrated primary qualitative data with primary with secondary quantitative data 88 derived from multiple sources. These sources included the Wisconsin Department of Natural 89 Resources (WI DNR), University of Wisconsin Extension lakes program (UW-Ext), United 90 States Geological Survey (USGS), the North Temperate Lakes US Long-Term Ecological 91 Research Network (NTL LTER), and the Jones Lab at the University of Notre Dame. We used 92 constant comparison to analyze the goals mentioned in the summer of 2019 interviews. After 93 processing the data, we used crisp-set qualitative comparative analysis to assess SES institutional 94 fit.

95 Case selection

96 The lakes and organizations in this study are in Vilas County, Wisconsin, USA
97 (Figure 1). Vilas County is in the Northern Highland Lakes District, which is characterized by a
98 patchwork of lakes and wetlands. Vilas County is home to more lakes than any other county in
99 Wisconsin. It has 1,320 of Wisconsin's 15,000 lakes (Gabriel & Lancaster, 2004; Wisconsin
100 Lakes Partnership, 2018), and there are 115 lake conservation organizations in Vilas County.

- 101 Additionally, there is extensive existing data about both the social and ecological conditions in
- 102 Vilas County and the Northern Highland Lakes District as they have been studied for decades by
- 103 the WI DNR, UW-Ext, USGS, NTL LTER, and Jones Lab. The number of Vilas County lake
- 104 SESs with available data afforded us a set of comparable cases with a variety of institutional
- 105 arrangements, social and ecological conditions, and outcomes.



Figure 1. Our sample lakes in Vilas County, Wisconsin. A) Vilas County is in the Northern part of Wisconsin on the border of Michigan. B) The sixty-two Vilas County lakes outlined in blue were eligible for our study. The lakes filled in blue are the thirty-nine lakes managed by the thirty-one organizations we interviewed. Source: County Boundaries 24K and 24K Hydro Waterbodies (Open Water) published on dnrmaps.wi.gov.

106

107 Lake organizations, formed by lake users, have a variety of goals, including preventing or 108 treating aquatic invasive species, maintaining or enhancing their fishery, protecting water 109 quality, and member education (Gabriel & Lancaster, 2004). Lake organizations are one of two 110 types: lake associations or lake districts. Lake associations are voluntary organizations made of 111 lake property owners that range from informal, social organizations to incorporated non-profit 112 organizations (Stedman, 2006). A lake district is a specialized unit of government designed to 113 protect and rehabilitate a lake or group of lakes. They can tax property in the district to levy 114 funds for lake protection and rehabilitation, own public infrastructure or expensive equipment 115 (Stedman, 2006)(Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Collective action problems are common in lake

organizations since a small number of highly committed individuals do most of the work. These
challenges are exacerbated in regions where people live part-time. In Vilas County, 57.5% of
lakefront houses are used "for seasonal, recreational, or occasional use" (Gabriel & Lancaster,
2004).

120 Vilas County lake organizations were eligible for our study (Figure 1B) if they fit three 121 criteria. First, we selected lakes with public access. Public access lakes have a boat ramp or 122 landing where non-residents can access the lake for recreation, fishing, and other uses. Lakes that 123 have public access are faced with greater collective action problems because there is potential for 124 over-use and free-riding by non-residents who are less susceptible to the negative effects of over 125 exploitation. Second, we included lakes with lake organizations that manage three or fewer lakes 126 to select organizations managing similar SESs. Finally, we selected lakes that are managed by 127 the WI DNR for their data availability. After applying these filter criteria, there were fifty-two 128 eligible volunteer-based lake organizations that manage sixty-two lakes.

129 Primary data collection

We interviewed thirty-one of the fifty-two eligible organizations, which manage a total of thirty-nine lakes. We contacted the primary contact listed on the UW-Extension Lakes Program website, lake organization websites, or provided by partners at the Vilas County Land & Water Conservation Department. Contacts from forty-one of the organizations responded. We asked the contact to invite one to four other members of the organization to the interview. The interviews lasted one to two hours and were conducted in community centers, homes, and once on a boat. We used a semi-structured interview methodology. Each interview started with the participants signing a letter of consent approved by the REDACTED Internal Review Board. Next, each participant filled out a questionnaire about changes to the lake (Appendix 1), and then the group was asked a series of questions about their use of the IDPs (Appendix 2). The questions asked were consistent, but their order and wording varied slightly following the flow of the conversation. Each interview had the same facilitator and two notetakers. The notetakers took independent notes on the discussion.

Following each interview, the notetakers immediately coded the institutional design principles as present or absent based on their notes. Each notetaker coded independently, and then the two notetakers compared their decisions. When the notetakers disagreed, the facilitator made the final decision. The two design principles that had a high level of disagreement at the beginning of the data collection period were: monitoring and low-cost conflict resolution. The disagreements were procedural, stemming from unclear definitions (Barnett et al., 2016). We refined the definitions for more consistency during the first week.

150 Social-ecological outcomes

As noted by Agrawal and Benson (2011), people living around the lakes have different uses and desired outcomes for the SES. As a result, lake organizations have a range of social and ecological goals. Figure 2 shows the goals stated during interviews by the lake organization leaders. We used constant comparison, a method whereby each statement is compared with the other statements to determine whether it is the same or different (Ragin, 1987). Using constant comparison, we identified eleven goals in the lake organization leaders' responses.



Figure 2. The eleven stated lake organization goals and the proportion of the thirty-nine lakes managed with each goal. Source: 2019 Interview Dataset.

157

158 Of the eleven goals, lake stewardship, education, and aquatic invasive species 159 management were most common; organizations stated these goals for 56% of the thirty-nine 160 studied lakes. The next three goals, stated for 20% or more of the lakes, were community 161 building, aquatic invasive species prevention, and water clarity. These findings are consistent 162 with Gabriel and Lancaster's survey results (Gabriel & Lancaster, 2004). The least common 163 goals were transition to a lake district and to enhance property values, which included 5% or less 164 of lakes. We were surprised to find that the lake organizations that we interviewed did not 165 mention fishery protection and zoning issues as often as lake organizations in the 2004 Gabriel 166 and Lancaster study of lake organizations in Wisconsin.

167 In Table 1, we map the goals to measurable outcomes for each lake. The goals stated by168 the lake organizations were general. When the participants described the steps they take to

achieve their goals, it was clear that the more general goals were established to reach a particular
lake SES outcome. We used data available via the WI DNR, UW-Extension Lakes Program, and
our 2019 Interview Dataset in this step, and mapped the seven most common of the eleven goals
to outcomes in Table 1 (See Appendix 4 for details). Habitat restoration, zoning protection,

173 transition to a lake district, and property value goals are not included in this study.

174 *Table 1.* The mapped outcomes and dichotomization of seven of the goals mentioned by lake

175 organizations during the 2019 interviews. The data for the outcomes come from several public sources.

176 *Appendix 5 shows the distribution of continuous variables.*

Goal	Outcome	Present (1)	Absent (0)	Source
Lake	Lake Management Grant	Received	Not Received	WI DNR
Stewardship				
Education	Clean Boats, Clean	Participated	Did Not	UW-Extension
	Waters (2019)		Participate	Lakes
AIS	AIS Treatment Grant	Received	Not Received	WI DNR
Management				
Community	Participation in	≥ 0.65	< 0.65	2019 Interview
Building	Organization			Dataset
AIS Prevention	Eurasian Watermilfoil	Present	Absent	WI DNR
	(2019)			
Water Clarity	Very High Water Clarity	Very High	Moderate, Low	WI DNR
Fishery	Adult Walleye per Acre	≥ 1.42	< 1.42	WI DNR
Management	• •			

The outcomes in Table 1 are used in our analysis of the ecological, social, and institutional conditions that lead to lake SES outcomes. We thought we might find a strong relationship between stating the goal and the outcome, but we did not find stating the goal to have a significant impact on its own (REDACTED). In the next section, we explore the conditions evaluated for the lake SES outcomes. Although we cannot conclude anything about outcomes from goal setting alone, we include goal setting as a condition in our analysis.

183 Environmental, social, and institutional conditions

184	The ecological, social, and institutional conditions listed in Table 2 are the product of a
185	three step selection process. First, we included the IDPs (Ostrom, 1990). Second, there were
186	conditions that the lake organization leaders described in the interviews, like Eurasian water
187	milfoil and participation in the organization. Finally, we sought input from a group of freshwater
188	ecologists and a WI DNR fish biologist for more technical conditions like conductance and total
189	phosphorous. Through an iterative process of analyzing different outcomes in dialogue with our
190	cases and the experts, we identified the following variables as most useful to understand our
191	outcomes.

Table 2. The dichotomized environmental, social, and institutional conditions and their data sources. The
 dichotomization of continuous variables uses the median value. See Appendix 5 for plots.

Condition	Present (1)	Absent (0)	Source
Ecological			
Eurasian Watermilfoil (2019)	Present	Absent	WI DNR
Lake Type	Seepage, Spring	Drainage	WI DNR
Lake Size (ac)	\geq 377	< 377	WI DNR
Lake Depth (ft)	\geq 32	< 32	WI DNR
Distance from Road (ln(m))	≥ 6.58	< 6.58	USGS
Conductance (uS/cm)	≥ 69	< 69	NTL LTER
Total Phosphorous (ug/L)	≥12.4	< 12.4	Jones Lab, NTL LTER, WI
			DNR
Stock Walleye (since 2000)	Yes	No	WI DNR
Social			
Participation in Organization	≥ 0.65	< 0.65	2019 Interview Dataset
Building Density	≥16.58	< 16.58	USGS
Lake Organization Type	Lake District	Lake Assoc.	2019 Interview Dataset
Institutional			
Graduated Sanctions	Present	Absent	2019 Interview Dataset
Accessible Conflict Resolution	Present	Absent	2019 Interview Dataset
Exclusion	Present	Absent	2019 Interview Dataset
Work with Consultant	Yes	No	2019 Interview Dataset
Town Lakes Committee	Member	Not Member	2019 Interview Dataset
Outcome as a goal	Yes	No	2019 Interview Dataset

194 The data we used for the conditions come from several sources, including the WI DNR,

195 USGS, NTL LTER, Jones Lab, and our 2019 Interview Dataset. Ten of the ecological, social,

and institutional conditions we used are categorical. For the remaining seven conditions, we evaluated the distribution (see Appendix 5 for details). We used the median to convert them into dichotomous variables, which is essential for the analysis method we used, crisp-set qualitative comparative analysis. The condition "outcome as a goal" is drawn from the goals in Figure 2. A more detailed description and discussion of the conditions can be found in REDACTED (2020).

201 Analytical approach: crisp-set qualitative comparative analysis

202 We used crisp-set qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) to systematically compare the 203 lake social-ecological systems. QCA is well-suited for evaluating conditions that lead to success 204 in SESs (Baggio et al., 2016; Epstein et al., 2015). It is a mid-sized-n comparative method that 205 uncovers the combinations of conditions that lead to SES outcomes. Charles C. Ragin developed 206 QCA as a "synthetic strategy" to "integrate the best features of the case-oriented approach with 207 the best features of the variable-oriented approach" (Cebotari & Vink, 2013). According to 208 Ragin, a case-oriented approach (qualitative) assesses a case holistically, while a variable-209 oriented approach (quantitative) separates the case into its parts. While QCA combines features 210 of both approaches, it is more clearly a case-oriented, qualitative method. The replicability of 211 QCA is a significant asset of this approach when compared to qualitative techniques without 212 formalized rules of logic (Ragin & Davey, 2016).

There are three types of QCA analyses: crisp set, fuzzy set, and multi-variate. Crisp set QCA (csQCA), the method we employ, uses dichotomized variables. All continuous and categorical variables are coded as present or absent. Based on our sensitivity analysis (Appendix 8), we do not have cause to believe that varying degrees of the remaining four factors, used in fuzzy set and multi-variate QCA, would have a significant impact on the outcomes.

218 Following the standards in the csQCA methodology, we conducted a two-step analysis 219 using the fsQCA 3.0 software developed by Ragin and Davey. First, we identified the necessary 220 conditions for each outcome. A necessary condition is always present when the outcome occurs 221 (McCluskey, 1956). We evaluated whether each condition is necessarily present, necessarily 222 absent, or not necessary for each outcome. For a condition to be considered necessary, it should 223 have a consistency score of greater than or equal to 0.90 (Cebotari and Vink, 2013). Second, we 224 identified sufficient conditions. We used the default values in our sufficiency analysis where 225 combinations with a consistency score equal to or greater than 0.80 are kept (Rihoux et al., 226 2009). fsQCA 3.0 uses the Quine-McCluskey algorithm to simplify combinations of sufficient 227 conditions (McCluskey, 1956).

We take an unconventional approach in this study, repeating csQCA's identification of necessary and sufficient conditions for multiple, participant-defined SES outcomes. Most studies identify necessary and sufficient conditions for a single outcome. In the following section, we will explain the ecological, social, and institutional conditions that lead to seven lake SES outcomes for the cases we compared.

233

RESULTS

We evaluated the necessity of the causal conditions (Table 2) for the seven outcomes
(Table 1) and found lake depth is a necessary condition for very high water clarity (Table 3).
Lake depth explains 36% of the cases with very high water clarity. There are no other necessary
conditions.

Table 3. Necessary conditions by outcome. UPPERCASE means the variable is present; lowercase means the variable is absent. Conditions are considered necessary if they have a consistency value of 0.90 or higher.

Outcome	Necessary Conditions ¹	Consistency	Coverage
Very high water clarity	DEEP	1.00	0.36
	1		

¹For abbreviations see Appendix 6

239	Lake depth (DEEP) is necessary for very high water clarity. Lake depth to be the single
240	best predictor of water clarity (Johnston & Shmagin, 2006). Lake depth is tied to phosphorous
241	cycling in the lakes and groundwater fluxes (Johnston & Shmagin, 2006). Because the necessary
242	conditions only start to explain lake SES outcomes, we next explore the sufficient conditions
243	whose combinations lead to success in our sample.
244	The analysis of sufficiency identifies the combinations of ecological, social, and
245	institutional conditions that lead to the seven lake SES outcomes (Table 4). In this analysis, the
246	conditions sufficient to explain an outcome vary by the outcome assessed. For example, the
247	conditions that explain receiving a lake management grant differ from the conditions that explain
248	very high water clarity, showing contextual variables play an important supporting the theory of
249	institutional fit. For each of the outcomes, there are multiple combinations of factors that lead to
250	success.

Table 4. The combinations of ecological, social, and institutional conditions that lead to the seven outcomes studied. Following the conventions of Boolean algebra, UPPERCASE letters mean the condition is present, and the value is "1." Lowercase letters represent absence, and the value is "0". The operators used are the logical "AND" represented by the multiplication symbol "*" and the logical "OR" represented by the addition symbol "+" (Rihoux et al., 2009). Each line represents a combination of variables that lead to the outcome.

Outcome	Combinations ¹	Consistency, Coverage
Lake Management Grant Received	[CONS] + [TLC*SANC*(stewg+dens)] + [tlc*STEWg*dens]	1, 0.97
AIS Treatment Grant Received	[DENS*road]*[(cons*AISMg)+CLAR] + [DENS*ROAD*AISMg*clar] + [EWM*road*clar*AISMg] + [EWM*CONS]	1, 0.88
Clean Boats, Clean Waters Participation	[EWM*SANC*ROAD]*[DENS+(SIZE*CONF)] + [ewm*sanc*SIZE*dens] + [road*SANC*CONF*SIZE]*[ewm+DENS]	1, 0.72
Participation in Org ≥ 0.65	[CONS*commg]*[(SANC*road)+(SIZE*EWM)] + [CONS*ROAD]*[(sanc*commg)+(sanc*SIZE)+(size*EWM)] + [cons*road*COMMg*SIZE] + [cons*commg*ROAD*SANC]	1, 0.86
Eurasian Watermilfoil Absence	<pre>[clar*dens]*[AISPg+(SANC*cond)+(TP*DEEP)] + [clar*tp*deep*cond*aispg] + [clar*DENS*SANC*COND] + [clar*sanc*AISPg] + [CLAR*tp*DEEP]*[SANC+cond] + [dens*tp]*[(cond*DEEP)+(clar*deep)]</pre>	1, 0.96
Very High Water Clarity	[DEEP*SEEP*(ROAD+CLARg)]	1, 0.88
Adult Walleye/acre ≥ 1.42	[clar*DEEP]*[(sanc*dens)+(cond*SANC)+(COND*sanc*STOCK)] + [clar*cond*dens*stock] + [CLAR*DEEP*COND*SANC]	1, 0.75

257 ¹Abbreviations used are available in Appendix 6.

258 The combinations that lead to the seven outcomes range in complexity and number. For

example, very high water clarity has one pathway comprised of four conditions. High

260 participation in the lake organization has four pathways with six conditions. All of the pathways

have a consistency of 1. A consistency score of 1 means the cases that exhibit the conditions in

that combination have the same SES outcome. The coverage ranges from 0.72 to 0.97; the
pathways explain 72-97% of the studied cases with that outcome. The outcomes are somewhat
sensitive to the way the variables have been dichotomized. When the conditions are
dichotomized on the mean, rather than the median, the same conditions explain 63-94% of the
outcomes (Appendix 8).

Outcomes can also be conditions in lake SESs. Very high water clarity is an outcome that lake organizations care about, and it also influences the appearance of EWM and adult walleye abundance outcomes. The interconnected nature of social-ecological systems blurs the line between cause and effect.

271 There are three combinations of conditions present when lake organizations receive a 272 lake management grant. These combinations explained 97% of the cases when lake organizations 273 received grants. The first combination is working with a consultant (CONS); consultants are paid 274 through grants to conduct lake studies or prepare lake management plans for lake organizations. 275 They provide scientific knowledge and have developed best practices based on experience with a 276 variety of lake organizations. The second combination includes being a member of a Town 277 Lakes Committee (TLC) and employing graduated sanctions (SANC) when there is no 278 stewardship goal (stewg), or the building density is low (dens). Town lake committees can apply 279 for grants on behalf of lake organizations and are forums for sharing information between 280 organizations. Graduated sanctions (SANC) mean that organizations are sophisticated enough to 281 enforce their rules and do it on a sliding scale, promoting learning. The third combination 282 includes organizations that have a stewardship goal (STEWg), are not town lakes committee 283 members (tlc), and have low building density (dens) around the lake. These organizations are

focused on stewardship. Lake management grants provided by the WI DNR are the best method to protect and rehabilitate the lake. Receiving a lake management grant was achieved in three ways, which involve working with information aggregators—consultants and town lakes committees—and organizational sophistication shown through graduated sanctions and goal setting.

289 Lake organizations received aquatic invasive species (AIS) treatment grants when one of 290 four combinations of conditions were present. These combinations described 88% of the cases 291 when an AIS treatment grant was received. The four combinations fall into two groups, lakes 292 with high building density (DENS) and lakes with Eurasian Watermilfoil (EWM). The first high 293 building density combination is lakes that are close to a secondary road (road). These lakes are 294 accessible, which may increase the non-resident traffic on the lake. Higher non-resident traffic 295 would lead to a greater risk of the introduction of AIS during boat launching. The second high 296 building density combination includes lake organizations with aquatic invasive species 297 management goals (AISMg) that manage moderate to low clarity lakes (clar) that are not close to 298 a secondary road (ROAD). These organizations need AIS treatment grants to reach their goals. 299 For lake organizations with EWM, a rapidly spreading AIS that chokes out other plant life 300 (Smith & Barko, 1990), one combination includes organizations with aquatic invasive species 301 management goals (AISMg) managing lakes moderate to low clarity lakes (clar) near secondary 302 roads (road). These accessible, EWM-plagued lakes need AIS treatment grants to meet their 303 goals and prevent the spread of EWM. The fourth combination includes organizations who work 304 with consultants to manage EWM-plagued lakes. Consultants help lake organizations carry out 305 the AIS treatment activities funded by the grants. Lake organizations dealing with EWM that set

AIS management goals or partner with consultants receive AIS treatment grants to manage lakesthat have high building density or are close to secondary roads.

308 Clean Boats, Clean Waters (CBCW) is an AIS education program carried out by 309 volunteers who inspect boats at launch ramps across the state of Wisconsin (UW-Extension 310 Lakes, n.d.). Three combinations explain 72% of the cases where lake organizations participated 311 in CBCW during the summer of 2019. The first combination includes lake organizations employ 312 graduated sanctions (SANC) to manage lakes with EWM (EWM) that are not close to secondary 313 roads (ROAD). These conditions indicate that they already have an AIS, but they are committed 314 to educating people about its spread through boat ramp monitoring and rule enforcement. The 315 second combination includes organizations that employ graduated sanctions (SANC), but do not 316 have Eurasian Watermilfoil (ewm). These lakes are large and have a low building density. 317 CBCW is a volunteer-based program; lakes with graduated sanctions have stronger rule 318 enforcement and perhaps less free-riding. The third combination is large lakes (SIZE) near 319 secondary roads (road) managed by organizations with graduated sanctions and conflict 320 resolution. The size and accessibility of these lakes may put them at risk, so they participate in 321 CBCW and have a developed institutions to address rule breaking and conflict. The lake 322 organizations that participate in CBCW vary in structure as do the lakes they manage. Some 323 organizations participate as a preventative measure; others have EWM and still participate. Some 324 organizations supplement CBCW with graduated sanctions, and others do not.

325 High lake organization participation, ≥ 65%, is explained by four combinations of
326 conditions. These pathways explain 86% of the cases where organization participation is high.
327 First, lake organizations that partner with consultants (CONS) and do not have a community-

328 building goal (commg). Members participate in surveys and workshops, like aquatic plant 329 identification, during lake management studies by consultants. The resulting products are 330 exciting and serve as strategy documents for the organization. These organizations, which 331 manage large (SIZE) or accessible (road) lakes, might not have a community-building goal 332 because they have high participation. The second combination includes lake organizations that 333 work with consultants (CONS) and are not close to a secondary road (ROAD). The third 334 combination is large, accessible lakes that have community building goals (COMMg). Finally, 335 organizations that are not close to a secondary road (ROAD) and employ graduated sanctions 336 (SANC) have high participation. The combinations that lead to high participation differ by lake 337 size and accessibility. Common strategies like sophisticated organizational practices, partnering 338 with a consultant, and goal setting, lead to high participation.

339 The absence of Eurasian Watermilfoil is the result of six combinations of conditions, 340 which explain 96% of the cases where EWM was absent. The first combination includes lakes 341 that have moderate to low water clarity (clar) and low building density (dens). Less light 342 penetrates water with lower clarity, which inhibits EWM growth (Smith et al., 1990). 343 Additionally, some of these lakes are deep (DEEP), which inhibits EWM growth for the same 344 reason. The next combination is shallow (deep) lakes with moderate to low water clarity (clar). 345 These lakes have low conductivity (cond) and total phosphorous (tp). Conductivity and total 346 phosphorous are different measures of lake productivity; low conductivity and low phosphorous 347 indicate low lake productivity. The third combination also includes moderate to low water clarity 348 (clar) lakes managed by organizations with graduated sanctions (SANC) in place. These lakes 349 also have high conductivity (COND) and high building density (DENS). Though the lake 350 productivity and building density may be favorable to EWM, the rule enforcement may prevent

351 EWM. The fourth and final combination with moderate to low water clarity includes 352 organizations that set AIS prevention goals (AISPg). The fifth combination is very high water 353 clarity (CLAR), low total phosphorous (tp), deep (DEEP) lakes that either have low conductivity 354 (cond) or graduated sanctions (SANC). Phosphorous is a nutrient that promotes EWM growth 355 (Johnston & Shmagin, 2006), so low levels of phosphorous in combination with the other factors 356 prevent EWM presence. The final combination includes lakes with poor growing conditions for 357 EWM that have low building density (dens). Eurasian Watermilfoil is prevented by unfavorable 358 environmental conditions like low lake productivity and water clarity; graduated sanctions and 359 goal setting also play a key role in preventing this aquatic invasive species.

360 Very high water clarity is the result of one combination, which explains 88% of the cases 361 where water clarity is very high. The lakes in this group are deep (DEEP) and either seepage or 362 spring lakes (SEEP). Both of these conditions are associated with phosphorous cycling in the 363 lakes; deep, seepage or spring lakes have less phosphorous and, therefore, slower algae and plant 364 growth (Johnston & Shmagin, 2006). These lakes were also far from a secondary road (ROAD), 365 or the organization had a water clarity goal (CLARg). The lakes far from a secondary road may 366 have less traffic, churning less sediment, or have a natural watershed leading to fewer runoff 367 nutrients. Very high water clarity is a function of the hydrology in the lake; very clear lakes are 368 deep, seepage or spring lakes.

The proportion of adult walleye per acre is higher in three combinations of conditions. These combinations explain 75% of the cases where the number of adult walleye per acre was equal to or higher than 1.42. In two of the combinations, the water clarity is low to moderate (clar). The first pathway is deep (DEEP), moderate to low clarity lakes. The low water clarity

373 and depth make these good walleye lakes. Additionally, the walleye populations benefit from 374 low building density (dens), graduated sanctions (SANC), high conductance (COND), and 375 stocking (STOCK) in various cases. The second combination is low conductance (cond) lakes 376 with low building density (dens) and organizations that do not stock (stock). These lakes have 377 low productivity and are not deep. The low density and lack of stocking may mean these lakes 378 are out of the way, without much fishing pressure. The third combination is clear (CLAR), deep 379 (DEEP), high conductance (COND) lakes that employ graduated sanctions (SANC). The natural 380 conditions in the lake are favorable to walleye, and the graduated sanctions mean that the rules, 381 like harvest limits, are enforced. The lakes with more adult walleye per acre tend to be 382 environmentally favorable and either less developed or with graduated sanctions in place.

Comparing the combinations of conditions that lead to each SES outcome (Table 5), we found that the institutional design principles were necessary to explain success. In only one outcome, receiving a lake management grant, were they necessary and sufficient. For the other six out comes, the social and ecological conditions contributed to success. Four of the outcomes relied on both social and ecological conditions and two of the outcomes were ecologically determined. These results contribute to the validity of the institutional design principles, show their generalizability to low resource dependent SESs, and support the research on SES fit.

391 392 393 Table 5. The Institutional Design Principles were necessary but not sufficient to explain all seven SES

outcomes. Four of the outcomes included social and ecological conditions to fit the institutions, two only

ecological conditions, and one outcome was not context dependent.

SES Outcome	Institutional	Social	Ecological
Clean Boats, Clean Waters Participation	Yes	Yes	Yes
AIS Treatment Grant Received	Yes	Yes	Yes
Eurasian Watermilfoil Absence	Yes	Yes	Yes
Adult Walleye/acre ≥ 1.42	Yes	Yes	Yes
Participation in $Org \ge 0.65$	Yes		Yes
Very High Water Clarity	Yes		Yes
Lake Management Grant Received	Yes		

394

DISCUSSION

395	Our mid-sized-n comparison of lake SESs for user defined outcomes, confirmed that
396	institutional design principles play a role in SES outcomes for volunteer-based organizations
397	whose resource dependence is low. csQCA was a useful method for understanding institutional
398	fit by identifying the combinations of ecological, social, and institutional conditions that lead to
399	various SES outcomes. We uncovered multiple combinations that lead to the outcomes,
400	reinforcing the risk of panaceas and the value of institutional fit.
401	The institutional design principles (IDPs) were necessary but not sufficient to explain the
402	seven user-defined SES outcomes we investigated. Graduated sanctions, conflict resolution, and
403	nested enterprises were the design principles that played a central role for success in the lake
404	SESs we studied. Araral (2014) calls for more research to confirm the generalizability and
405	validity of the design principles, we contribute to the growing number of meta-analyses that
406	show their validity (Agrawal & Chhatre, 2006; Baggio et al., 2016; Cox et al., 2010; Shin et al.,
407	2020). Additionally, we tested whether the institutional design principles, emerging from
408	community-based resource management groups who have high-dependency on the resource for

409 their livelihood (Ostrom, 1990), apply to volunteer-based organizations with low resource
410 dependency. In the thirty-one lake SESs we studied, they do.

411 Asking the lake organization leaders how they define success exposed a greater variety of 412 desired SES outcomes than we anticipated. Most studies of the commons have not considered the 413 multiple outcomes that emerge in renewable resource management (Agrawal & Benson, 2011). 414 Agrawal & Benson's observation was evident in the lake SESs we studied, which have multiple 415 uses like boating, fishing, swimming, and biodiversity conservation. Because most studies only 416 consider one measure of success, the SES outcomes may not be successful if a different set of 417 criteria were used (Epstein et al., 2015). We found that the conditions that lead to success 418 differed and that there was equifinality, or multiple pathways to success, for a given SES 419 outcome.

SES fit was critical to explaining four of the seven outcomes we studied. Without including both the social and ecological conditions in which the institutions were set, we would not have been able to explain the outcomes. For two outcomes, ecological fit was sufficient and for receiving a grant the rules were enough. Epstein et al.'s SES approach to institutional fit, though more intensive to study, provides a better understanding of a system. Our results show that context is critical to the outcomes of the system, and that context differs depending on the outcome.

427 Qualitative comparative analysis is a well-suited method for evaluating conditions that
428 lead to success in SESs (Epstein et al., 2015), and thus evaluating SES fit. QCA is a useful
429 method for conducting structured comparison of similar cases to understand the components of
430 the cases that lead to different outcomes (Ragin, 1987). QCA considers combinations of

431 conditions and allows for equifinality, which is consistent with the concept of institutional fit432 where the context is critical to the outcome.

433 Primary data collection through semi-structured interviews helped gather comparable, 434 consistent data, whose availability can stymie secondary data analysis (Araral, 2014; Barnett et 435 al., 2016). We also used selection criteria for lakes in the county that provided a mix of 436 successful and not successful cases. We compared SESs dominated by the same resource-437 lakes—in close proximity to each other, and thus used more granular and specific variables than 438 may be used to compare across regions or resource types. Consistent with Dressel et al's study 439 (2018), our regional comparison exposed social and ecological challenges to fit that would not 440 have been visible at a coarser resolution. A synthetic approach, like that employed by Leslie et al 441 (2015), to integrate quantitative social and ecological data to qualitative outcome and 442 institutional data is useful when evaluating SES fit and IDP validity and would serve future 443 researchers well.

444

CONCLUSION

445 Institutions are critical to the sustainability of natural resource systems, facilitating 446 cooperation and helping the systems adapt to change (Cumming et al., 2020). We have learned 447 that these systems are not social or ecological, but integrated social-ecological systems (Liu et 448 al., 2007; Ostrom, 2007). To understand what leads to sustainable social-ecological systems, we 449 must consider the institutional, social, and ecological conditions that lead to various outcomes 450 (Dressel et al., 2018; Epstein et al., 2015; Leslie et al., 2015; Ostrom, 2007). We found that not 451 only must the social-ecological fit be considered, but that multiple pathways may lead to the 452 same outcome and important contextual variables vary based on the outcome. As we learn more

- 453 about the institutions that lead to SES sustainability, we must be careful to consider the
- 454 conditions in which those institutions are successful.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

456	We appreciate the input and ideas from REDACTED. We are exceptionally grateful to the Vilas
457	County lake organizations who participated in this study and all the community-based
458	organizations that contribute to resource management. We thank the Wisconsin DNR, UW-
459	Extension Lakes Program, and the wonderful team at the Vilas County Land and Water
460	Conservation Department for sharing data and stories. This work was supported by the National
461	Science Foundation under Grant No. REDACTED.

REFERENCES

463	Agrawal, A., & Benson, C. S. (2011). Common property theory and resource governance
464	institutions: Strengthening explanations of multiple outcomes. Environmental Conservation,
465	38(2), 199–210. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0376892910000925
466	Agrawal, A., & Chhatre, A. (2006). Explaining success on the commons: Community forest
467	governance in the Indian Himalaya. World Development, 34(1), 149–166.
468	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2005.07.013
469	Araral, E. (2014). Ostrom, Hardin and the commons: A critical appreciation and a revisionist
470	view. Environmental Science and Policy, 36, 11–23.
471	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2013.07.011
472	Baggio, J. A., Barnett, A. J., Perez-Ibara, I., Brady, U., Ratajczyk, E., Rollins, N., Rubiños, C.,
473	Shin, H. C., Yu, D. J., Aggarwal, R., Anderies, J. M., & Janssen, M. A. (2016). Explaining
474	success and failure in the commons: The configural nature of Ostrom's institutional design
475	principles. International Journal of the Commons, 10(2), 417–439.
476	https://doi.org/10.18352/ijc.634
477	Barnett, A. J., Baggio, J. A., Shin, H. C., Yu, D. J., Perez-Ibarra, I., Rubiños, C., Brady, U.,
478	Ratajczyk, E., Rollins, N., Aggarwal, R., Anderies, J. M., & Janssen, M. A. (2016). An
479	iterative approach to case study analysis: Insights from qualitative analysis of quantitative
480	inconsistencies. International Journal of the Commons, 10(2), 467-494.
481	https://doi.org/10.18352/ijc.632
482	Cebotari, V., & Vink, M. P. (2013). A configurational analysis of ethnic protest in Europe.
483	International Journal of Comparative Sociology, 54(4), 298–324.
484	https://doi.org/10.1177/0020715213508567
485	Cox, M., Arnold, G., & Villamayor Tomas, S. (2010). A Review of Design Principles for
486	Community-based Natural Resource Management. <i>Ecology and Society</i> , 15(4).
487	http://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol15/iss4/art38/
488	Cumming, G. S., Epstein, G., Anderies, J. M., Apetrei, C. I., Baggio, J., Bodin, Chawla, S.,
489	Clements, H. S., Cox, M., Egli, L., Gurney, G. G., Lubell, M., Magliocca, N., Morrison, T.
490	H., Müller, B., Seppelt, R., Schlüter, M., Unnikrishnan, H., Villamayor-Tomas, S., &
491	Weible, C. M. (2020). Advancing understanding of natural resource governance: a post-
492	Ostrom research agenda. Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability, 44, 26–34.
493	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2020.02.005
494	Dressel, S., Ericsson, G., & Sandström, C. (2018). Mapping social-ecological systems to
495	understand the challenges underlying wildlife management. Environmental Science and
496	<i>Policy</i> , 84(September 2017), 105–112. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2018.03.007
497	Epstein, G., Pittman, J., Alexander, S. M., Berdej, S., Dyck, T., Kreitmair, U., Raithwell, K. J.,
498	Villamayor-Tomas, S., Vogt, J., & Armitage, D. (2015). Institutional fit and the
499	sustainability of social-ecological systems. Current Opinion in Environmental
500	Sustainability, 14, 34–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2015.03.005
501	Gabriel, A. O., & Lancaster, C. (2004). Management issues, characteristics and effectiveness of
502	lake associations and lake districts in wisconsin. Lake and Reservoir Management, 20(1),
503	2/-38. https://doi.org/10.1080/0/438140409354098
504	Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for
505	Qualitative Research.

506 Johnston, C. a, & Shmagin, B. a. (2006). SCALE ISSUES IN LAKE-WATERSHED 507 INTERACTIONS: ASSESSING SHORELINE DEVELOPMENT IMPACTS ON WATER 508 CLARITY. In J. Wu, K. B. Jones, H. Li, & O. L. Loucks (Eds.), SCALING AND 509 UNCERTAINTY ANALYSIS IN ECOLOGY (pp. 297–313). Springer Netherlands. 510 https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-4663-4 16 511 Leslie, H. M., Basurto, X., Nenadovic, M., Sievanen, L., Cavanaugh, K. C., Cota-Nieto, J. J., 512 Erisman, B. E., Finkbeiner, E., Hinojosa-Arango, G., Moreno-Báez, M., Nagavarapu, S., 513 Reddy, S. M. W., Sánchez-Rodríguez, A., Siegel, K., Ulibarria-Valenzuela, J. J., Weaver, 514 A. H., & Aburto-Oropeza, O. (2015). Operationalizing the social-ecological systems 515 framework to assess sustainability. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 112(19), 5979–5984. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1414640112 516 517 Liu, J., Dietz, T., Carpenter, S. R., Alberti, M., Folke, C., Moran, E., Pell, A. N., Deadman, P., 518 Kratz, T., Lubchenco, J., Ostrom, E., Ouyang, Z., Provencher, W., Redman, C. L., 519 Schneider, S. H., & Taylor, W. W. (2007). Complexity of coupled human and natural 520 systems. Science, 317(5844), 1513-1516. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1144004 521 McCluskey, E. J. (1956). Minimization of Boolean Functions*. Bell System Technical Journal, 522 35(6), 1417–1444. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1538-7305.1956.tb03835.x 523 Ostrom, E. (1990). *Governing the commons: the evolution of institutions for collective action*. 524 Cambridge University Press. 525 https://books.google.com/books?id=4xg6oUobMz4C&dq=governing+the+commons+ostro 526 m&lr=&source=gbs navlinks s 527 Ostrom, E. (2007). A diagnostic approach for going beyond panaceas. Proceedings of the 528 National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 104(39), 15181–15187. 529 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0702288104 530 Ragin, C. C. (1987). The comparative method: moving beyond qualitative and quantitative 531 strategies. Berkeley: University of California Press. 532 Ragin, C. C., & Davey, S. (2016). Fuzzy-Set/Qualitative Comparative Analysis 3.0. Department 533 of Sociology, University of California. 534 Rihoux, B., Ragin, C. C., Yamasaki, S., Bol, D., Berg-Schlosser, D., de Meur, G., Rihoux, B., 535 Ragin, C. C., Yamasaki, S., Rihoux, B., de Meur, G., Rihoux, B., & Yamasaki, S. (2009). 536 Configurational Comparative Methods: Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) and 537 Related Techniques. SAGE Publications, Inc. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452226569 538 Shin, H. C., Yu, D. J., Park, S., Anderies, J. M., Abbott, J. K., Janssen, M. A., & Ahn, T. K. 539 (2020). How do resource mobility and group size affect institutional arrangements for rule 540 enforcement? A qualitative comparative analysis of fishing groups in South Korea. 541 Ecological Economics, 174(February), 106657. 542 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2020.106657 543 Smith, C. S., Smith, C. S., Barko, J. W., & Barko, J. W. (1990). Ecology of Eurasian 544 watermilfoil. In Journal of Aquatic Plant Management (Vol. 28, pp. 55–64). 545 Stedman, R. C. (2006). Understanding Place Attachment Among Second Home 546 Owners\n10.1177/0002764206290633 . American Behavioral Scientist , 50(2), 187–205. http://abs.sagepub.com/content/50/2/187.abstract 547 548 UW-Extension Lakes. (n.d.). Clean Boats Clean Water. Retrieved January 9, 2020, from 549 https://www.uwsp.edu/cnr-ap/UWEXLakes/Pages/programs/cbcw/default.aspx 550 Wisconsin Lakes Partnership. (2018). People of the Lakes: A Guide for Wisconsin Lake 551 Organizations.

APPENDICES

555 Appendix 1. Lake Changes Worksheet

554

- 556 1. For which lake(s) are you answering the questions below?
- 557 2. Please summarize how your lake changed over the past 10 years in 3-4 sentences.
- 558 In the following questions please check the box that most accurately describes the current state
- of the lake attribute listed and indicate whether it has increased (+), stayed the same (=), or
- 560 decreased (-) over the past 10 years.

Attributo	Very	Low	Low Moderate	High	Very	Change
Attribute	Low	LUW			High	(+, =, -)
Water Clarity						
Amount of fish						
Diversity of fish						
Invasive plant						
prevalence						
Invasive animal						
prevalence						
Wildlife diversity						
Pollution levels						
Natural shoreline						
Property values						
Watershed quality						
Personal watercraft						
presence						
Fishermen						
presence						
Local visitors						
Wisconsin visitors						
Out-of-state						
visitors						
Volunteer turnout						
Annual meeting						
turnout						
Social event						
turnout						
Lake organization						
membership						
Housing density						
Amount of						
stocking						

561 3. Please list and indicate the state and change of any other attributes that you find important.

562 4. How does your lake organization compare on the attributes above to the other lake

563 organizations in Vilas County? Please include the names of the organizations.

564 Appendix 2. Semi-Structured Interview Questions

565 SECTION1

- 566 What were the biggest changes you noticed in the past decade?
- 567 What do you think has caused the changes? Has your organization influenced the changes?

568 SECTION2

- 569 When did your lake organization form? Why did it form?
- 570 Have you considered being a lake district?
- 571 How many people are on your board?
- 572 Who lives around the lake? How many homes? What % in the lake organization?
- 573 Is there other development around the lake besides homes?
- 574 Are there other organizations you work with to manage the lake? County? DNR? (*polycentricity*)
- 575 How do people use the lake? Residents vs. non-residents?
- 576 What do you consider the lake?
- 577 What is your public landing like? Do you manage it? Improve it? (*exclusion*)
- 578 Are there rules about who can or cannot use the lake? (*exclusion*)
- 579 Do you participate in CBCW? AIS monitoring? Stocking? Shoreline improvement? (*provision*)
- 580 Are lake association members involved in rule making? Non-members? (*collective choice*)
- 581 Are there no wake times, special zoning requirements or other ordinances on your lake?
- Has the organization suggested new ordinances or requested different catch limits? (*collective choice*)
- 584 What happens when someone doesn't follow the rules of the lake? (*monitoring, graduated sanc*)
- 585 What happens when there is a conflict between lake users? DNR or township? (*conflict*)
- 586 What are the goals of the organization? How do you meet them?
- 587 Have you had any challenges carrying out your goals? (*self-determination*)
- 588 Are there ordinances or regulations that you'd like to change but haven't been able to?
- 589 Have you been asked to perform certain activities by the DNR or your township?
- 590 Why do/don't you stock fish in your lake? Would you stock/not stock in the future?

Goal	Definition	Typical Exemplars	Atypical Exemplars
Lake Stewardship (STEW)	General lake, shoreline, and watershed protection, monitoring, and management.	stewards of the environment, protect the natural shoreline	keep the lake healthy, keep management plan updated, prevent runoff
AIS Management (AISM)	Managing or controlling existing AIS populations.	AIS Management	contain milfoil with available resources, control EWM, adequate funds for management
Education (EDU)	Education and outreach goals for lake organization members and lake users.	Education, outreach	communication on lake, update website with info
Community Building (COMM)	Goals focused on building the community, promoting connection between neighbors, and goodwill.	increase membership, community building, neighborhood connections	keep volunteers, good life, increase membership
AIS Prevention (AISP)	Goal specifically mentions preventing AIS or protection the lake from AIS General lake protection is considered STEW.	AIS prevention, be alert for AIS	future camera installation
Water Clarity (CLAR)	Maintain, improve, or monitor lake water clarity.	preserve and maintain water quality and clarity, water clarity	water
Fishery Management (FISH)	Fishery improvement, monitoring, and management.	fishery management, fishery protection	good fishing
Habitat Restoration (HAB)	Habitat restoration or improvement. This can refer to wildlife or vegetation. Protection does not qualify.	habitat restoration, habitat improvement	helping the loons
Zoning Protection (ZONE)	Goals to prevent changes to zoning and land use activities.	zoning preservation	enforcing the deed restrictions
Transition to LD (T2LD)	Transition organization type from a lake association to lake district.	transition org from LA.	
Property Values (PROP)	Maintain or improve property values around the lake.	property values	

591 Appendix 3. Code Definitions for Organizational Goals

593 Appendix 4. Goal to outcome mapping description.

594 We mapped seven lake organization goals to lake SES outcomes in Table 1 based on the 595 interviewees' description of their goals. When talking about lake stewardship organizations 596 mentioned general lake management and shoreline protection, lake organizations apply for lake 597 management grants to understand and make improvements to the lake. Without a grant, they 598 have no authority to make changes. Aquatic invasive species (AIS) treatment grants are specific 599 to AIS management; they allow lake organizations to apply chemical and manual treatments to 600 the lake. Education of members and lake users happens in many different ways; however, Clean 601 Boats, Clean Waters (CBCW) is the most widely adopted and recorded approach. Through 602 CBCW, volunteers educate lake users about the risks of AIS When lake organizations talked 603 about community building, they mentioned increasing membership and neighborhood 604 connections. Organization participation is a function of membership that controls for variations 605 in the number of houses around a lake. Lake organizations are very concerned about EWM 606 When they talked about AIS prevention, it was most often about EWM Water clarity is the only goal that is the same as its outcome. Fishery management like AIS prevention could be general, 607 608 but lake organizations mentioned walleye most often; this is also a fish that the WI DNR 609 manages through habitat improvement and by juvenile fish stocking. While lake organizations 610 stated general goals, the way they described the steps they take to meet them made mapping a 611 measured outcome straightforward.

612 Appendix 5. Continuous Variable Dichotomization



Appendix 5. Continuous variables were dichotomized on the mean (solid line) and median (broken line).

616 Appendix 6. Condition and Outcome Abbreviations

617 The conditions used to understand the combinations that lead to outcomes for lake SESs. The

618 condition and outcomes, values for which they are present, abbreviation used in Tables 3 & 4

619 and Appendix 7, and data source.

Present (1)	Abbreviation	Source				
Environmental Conditions						
Present	EWM	WI DNR				
Seepage, Spring	SEEP	WI DNR				
\geq 377	SIZE	WI DNR				
\geq 32	DEEP	WI DNR				
≥ 6.58	ROAD	USGS				
≥ 69	COND	NTL LTER				
≥12.4	TP	Jones Lab, NTL LTER, WI				
		DNR				
Yes	STOCK	WI DNR				
≥ 0.65	PART	2019 Interview Dataset				
≥ 16.58	DENS	USGS				
Lake District	LDST	2019 Interview Dataset				
Institutional Conditions						
Present	SANC	2019 Interview Dataset				
Present	CONF	2019 Interview Dataset				
Present	EXCL	2019 Interview Dataset				
Yes	CONS	2019 Interview Dataset				
Member	TLC.	2019 Interview Dataset				
Yes	*g	2019 Interview Dataset				
Received	GRNT	WI DNR				
Participated	CBCW	UW-Extension Lakes				
Received	APM	WI DNR				
≥ 0.65	PART	2019 Interview Dataset				
Present	EWM	WI DNR				
Very High	CLAR	WI DNR				
≥ 1.42	ABUN	WI DNR				
	Present (1)PresentSeepage, Spring ≥ 377 ≥ 32 ≥ 6.58 ≥ 69 ≥ 12.4 Yes ≥ 0.65 ≥ 16.58 Lake DistrictPresentPresentYesMemberYesReceivedParticipatedReceived ≥ 0.65 PresentVery High ≥ 1.42	Present (1)AbbreviationPresentEWMSeepage, SpringSEEP ≥ 377 SIZE ≥ 32 DEEP ≥ 6.58 ROAD ≥ 69 COND ≥ 12.4 TPYesSTOCK ≥ 0.65 PART ≥ 16.58 DENSLake DistrictLDSTPresentSANCPresentCONFPresentEXCLYesCONSMemberTLC.Yes*gReceivedGRNTParticipatedCBCWReceivedAPM ≥ 0.65 PARTPresentEWMVery HighCLAR ≥ 1.42 ABUN				

620

622 **Appendix 7. QCA Models and Assumptions used in Sufficiency Analysis** 623 Model: GRNT = f(CONS, TLC, SANC, STEWg, DENS) 624 Assumptions: 625 CONS (present) 626 TLC (present) 627 SANC (present) 628 STEWg (present) 629 **DENS** (present) 630 Model: APM = f(DENS, ROAD, CLAR, AISMg, CONS, EWM)631 Assumptions: 632 **DENS** (present) 633 ~ROAD (absent) 634 ~CLAR (absent) 635 AISMg (present) 636 CONS (present) 637 EWM (present) 638 Model: CBCW = f(ROAD, EWM, SANC, CONF, SIZE, DENS)639 Assumptions: 640 ~ROAD (absent) 641 ~EWM (absent) 642 SANC (present) 643 CONF (present) 644 SIZE (present) 645 **DENS** (present) 646 Model: PART = f(CONS, SANC, SIZE, COMMg, ROAD, EWM)647 Assumptions: CONS (present) 648 649 SANC (present) 650 EWM (present) 651 Model: ~EWM = f(CLAR, DENS, TP, SANC, DEEP, COND, AISPg) 652 Assumptions: 653 ~CLAR (absent) 654 ~DENS (absent) 655 ~TP (absent) 656 SANC (present) 657 **DEEP** (present) 658 ~COND (absent) 659 AISPg (present) Model: CLAR = f(DEEP, SEEP, ROAD, CLARg) 660 661 Assumptions: 662 DEEP (present) 663 SEEP (present) 664 ROAD (present) 665 CLARg (present) 666 Model: ABUN = f(CLAR, DEEP, COND, SANC, DENS, STOCK)

667 Assumptions:

668 ~CLAR (absent)

- 669 DEEP (present)
- 670 COND (present)
- 671 SANC (present)
- 672 ~DENS (absent)
- 673 STOCK (present)
- 674

675 Appendix 8. Sensitivity analysis of the sufficient condition combinations.

Outcome	Combinations ¹	Consistency, Coverage
Lake Management Grant Received	[CONS] + [TLC*SANC*(stewg+DENS)]	1, 0.94
AIS Treatment Grant Received	[EWM*CONS] + [EWM*clar*AISMg] + [DENS*road*(cons+CLAR)] + [DENS*ROAD*AISMg*clar]	1, 0.88
Clean Boats, Clean Waters Participation	[ewm*sanc]*[(ROAD*SIZE)+(road*dens*CONF)] + [EWM*SANC]*[DENS+(ROAD*CONF)] + [SANC*conf*SIZE*DENS]	1, 0.73
Participation in Org ≥ 0.67	[CONS*COMMg]*[(SIZE*ROAD)+(size*road*EWM)] + [CONS*commg*road*EWM]*[SIZE+SANC] + [size*commg]*[(CONS*road*ewm)+(SANC*ROAD)] + [cons*COMMg*SIZE*road]	1, 0.84
Eurasian Watermilfoil Absence	[dens*tp]*[(cond)+(SANC*DEEP)] + [CLAR*tp*DEEP]*[(SANC*AISPg)+(cond)] + [clar*dens]*[(sanc*COND)+(SANC*cond)+(SANC*DEEP)] + [clar*sanc*cond*AISPg] + [clar*DENS*TP*SANC]	1, 0.93
Very High Water Clarity	[DEPTH*SEEP*(ROAD+CLARg)]	1, 0.75
Adult Walleye/acre ≥ 3	[clar*cond*stock]*[dens+SANC] [clar*DEEP*DENS*STOCK]*[COND+SANC] [clar*DEEP*dens*stock]	1, 0.63

676