

1 **A toolbox to quantify human activity in protected areas for park**
2 **management**

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34 **Abstract**

- 35 1. Recreation in protected areas (PAs) is growing worldwide, potentially conflicting with
36 wildlife and ecosystem protection. Efficiently estimating human activity in PAs is
37 crucial for balancing a dual mandate of supporting visitor access and biodiversity, but
38 managers lack clear recommendations about how best to monitor spatial and
39 temporal trends in human activity.
- 40 2. Through two case studies, we reviewed several key tools for measuring human
41 activity in PAs to assess the impacts on wildlife: camera traps, day passes, trail
42 counters, and social media. We measured human activity across multiple scales and
43 compared spatial and temporal activity estimates within and between PAs.
- 44 3. We found strong correlations between tools across PAs and a combination of tools
45 may be better suited to understand finer-scale trends within parks. Individual tools,
46 and their combination, can be tailored to specific research and management goals.
- 47 4. Synthesis and applications: Our case studies provide insights into the effectiveness
48 of tools for measuring human activity in PAs and informs practitioners and
49 researchers about how they can be used to address real-world management
50 decisions. Tools varied in their strengths and their weaknesses and looking forward,
51 the widespread adoption of multiple, integrated measures of human activity is
52 needed to develop evidence-based park management strategies, benefitting both
53 humans and nature.

54 **Keywords:** camera trap, human activity, protected area management, recreation, social
55 media, trail counter, Western Canada

56
57 **Introduction**

58 As visitation to protected areas (PAs) grows (Balmford et al., 2015), efficient tools for
59 managing human access while optimizing social and ecological benefits are increasingly
60 needed. Visitor data can quantify non-consumptive recreation benefits for people (e.g.,
61 Romagosa *et al.* 2015), and the potential wildlife impacts (e.g., Reed & Merenlender, 2008).

62 At one extreme, managing human activity might exclude people from PAs to prevent
63 negative ecological impacts (e.g., Manenti *et al.* 2020). However, such approaches risk
64 disenfranchising local communities or outdoor recreationists (West & Brockington, 2006). On
65 the other hand, unmanaged PA visitation can lead to ecological degradation and defaunation
66 (Larson *et al.*, 2019). Management approaches to mitigate impacts include education,
67 seasonal timing restrictions, zonation or visitation limits, invasive species management, and
68 infrastructure maintenance (Lewis *et al.*, 2021; Lucas, 2020). Regardless, human activity
69 effects on PAs are context-dependent (Granados *et al.*, 2023) so tools to monitor trends
70 should address the research and management questions of interest. Monitoring approaches
71 can help identify thresholds of human activity on ecosystem functions and acceptable activity
72 levels in PAs. This can inform management strategies that optimize the socioeconomic and
73 human wellness benefits from outdoor recreation, while minimizing undesirable ecological
74 impacts (Miller *et al.*, 2022).

75

76 A fundamental challenge of PA management is measuring spatial and temporal trends in
77 human activity including how visitors use PAs (e.g., entry points, routes followed, activity
78 type) (Cessford & Muhar, 2003). PAs are often established in remote and rugged locations
79 with relatively poor infrastructure, making direct counts of people difficult and expensive
80 (D'Antonio *et al.*, 2010). Porous PA boundaries and a lack of available tools to monitor
81 access also complicate efforts to determine spatial patterns of activity after the point of entry
82 (Ziesler & Pettebone, 2018). To address issues with on-site visitor counts in PAs (i.e., day
83 passes or traffic counters), remote sensing tools (i.e., data collected by remote sensors
84 without the need for on-site human presence) are increasingly used (Fisher *et al.*, 2018). For
85 example, camera traps produce fine-scale human activity information and can
86 simultaneously monitor wildlife (Fennell *et al.*, 2022) and vegetation (Sun *et al.*, 2021) but
87 they lack spatial breadth required to predict PA spatial and temporal trends in human
88 activity. Conversely, activity tracks from fitness applications can provide spatially explicit
89 information about human activity (Toivonen *et al.*, 2019), and user-contributed social media

90 data from geotagged photos or posts can be used (Fisher et al., 2018) independently or with
91 data collected on-site to parameterize models that predict visitation (Wood et al., 2020).
92 Remotely sensed tools could be cost- and time-efficient options for monitoring human
93 activity, but whether they reflect true levels of human activity and complement each other is
94 less understood (Fisher et al., 2018).

95

96 PAs have diverse management objectives (e.g., ecological, conservation value, and
97 recreation values), and accessibility and management budgets, so the applicability of tools
98 and their effectiveness in measuring human activity at multiple scales also varies. A
99 comparative analysis of these tools can answer crucial questions about where the most
100 popular trails are, peak activity times, spatiotemporal trends, and potential impacts on wildlife
101 movement. Answers could affect the allocation of funding for park infrastructure and wildlife
102 management (Northrup et al., 2016). Ecological processes shaping wildlife habitat selection
103 can vary with scale thus wildlife responses to human activity could also be scale-dependent
104 (McGarigal et al., 2016). To enhance tool adoption, testing and comparing methods for
105 monitoring park visitation at various scales is crucial, offering clear recommendations for
106 real-world management decisions to advance our understanding of human-wildlife
107 coexistence.

108

109 To address the need to define how remote sensing tools can be linked to specific PA
110 management objectives, we convened a working group of 18 conservation practitioners
111 working in western Canada (Appendix 1). We reviewed key tools, then compared trends in
112 human activity across multiple scales measured by camera traps, trail counters, and social
113 media. The case studies showcase the links between data collected from each of these
114 methods. Our work informs practitioners and researchers about the tools available to
115 measure PA human activity, and how to use them to address real-world management
116 decisions.

117

118 ***How can human activity be measured?***

119 Table 1 lists tools for monitoring human activity (camera traps, trail counters, day passes,
120 and social media), selected because they are actively used by the co-authors. Deciding
121 which to use depends in part, on research and management objectives (Table 1, Appendix
122 2). Tools vary in accuracy, influencing whether human activity is directly or indirectly
123 measured (e.g., photos vs. self-reporting), and the spatial or temporal scale of data
124 collection. The scale(s) at which data are collected is influenced by park manager or
125 personnel capacity and research or management goals (Appendix 2). Cost-effectiveness
126 considers the need for fieldwork or how labour-intensive that fieldwork is. For example, PA-
127 wide camera trap surveys are more labour-intensive than smaller-scale (e.g., trail segments)
128 surveys. Automated trail counters offer easy deployment at multiple sampling points, but
129 may have accuracy or performance issues (Marion et al., 2021).

130
131 Increasingly, camera traps deployed to monitor wildlife are also used to estimate human
132 activity. Images of people provide information about the type of activity visitors engage in
133 (e.g., hiking, ATVs, horseback riding, cycling) as well as spatiotemporal information about
134 those activities (Ladle et al., 2018; Naidoo & Burton, 2020), unlike trail counters, which
135 cannot distinguish between animal and human detections, and activity type (e.g., motorized
136 vs. non-motorized) (Marion et al., 2021). However, we acknowledge that tools like camera
137 trapping come with privacy concerns related to human data collection (Sandbrook et al.,
138 2018).

139
140 Human activity data scraped from social media are downloaded from an external source
141 (e.g. Instagram, Twitter, Facebook, AllTrails, Strava), requiring less labour than fieldwork,
142 and covering broad geographic regions beyond PAs (Obar & Wildman, 2015). However, it is
143 unclear how well they reflect true activity levels. Extracting data from these platforms
144 requires advanced knowledge of computing and coding (e.g., web scraping, APIs) and
145 access requirements frequently change.

146

147 In contrast to remote sensing tools, tools counting visitors on-site, like day passes, are easy
148 to collect and require little technical expertise. However, permits and passes may not
149 necessarily reflect attendance as online pass sales may not correlate to physical visitation.
150 Day pass counts may be less informative about spatial human activity trends, and be less
151 useful if not accompanied by specific user reporting criteria.

152

153 **Table 1:** Comparisons of tools used to measure human activity in protected areas. Colours:
154 green = relatively better; orange = relatively worse; white = neutral; * = characteristics which
155 can vary depending on context. For full justification and additional detail, see Appendix 2.

Human activity monitoring tools	Data characteristics							
	<i>Spatial resolution</i>	<i>Temporal resolution</i>	<i>Type of human activity</i>	<i>Wildlife activity</i>	<i>Data from in & outside PAs</i>	<i>Privacy issues</i>	<i>On-site presence of researchers</i>	<i>Data processing burden</i>
Camera traps	High*	High	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Low	High*
Trail counters	High	High	No*	No*	Yes	No	Low	Low
Day Passes	Low	High	No*	No	No	No	Low	Low
Social media data	Low to high	Low to high	Yes*	No	Yes	Yes	None	High*

156

157 **Methods**

158 **What can existing tools tell us about trends in human activity?**

159 We illustrate the advantages and limitations of tools for estimating large and fine-scale
160 trends in PA human activity through two case studies. First, we measured temporal activity
161 patterns within Joffre Lakes Provincial Park, British Columbia (BC) to assess the similarity of
162 information provided by camera traps, trail counters, and day passes. Next, we evaluated
163 within- and between-park spatial visitation trends across four provincial parks in
164 southwestern BC (Garibaldi, Joffre, Golden Ears, and Cathedral; see Table A2, Figure 1),

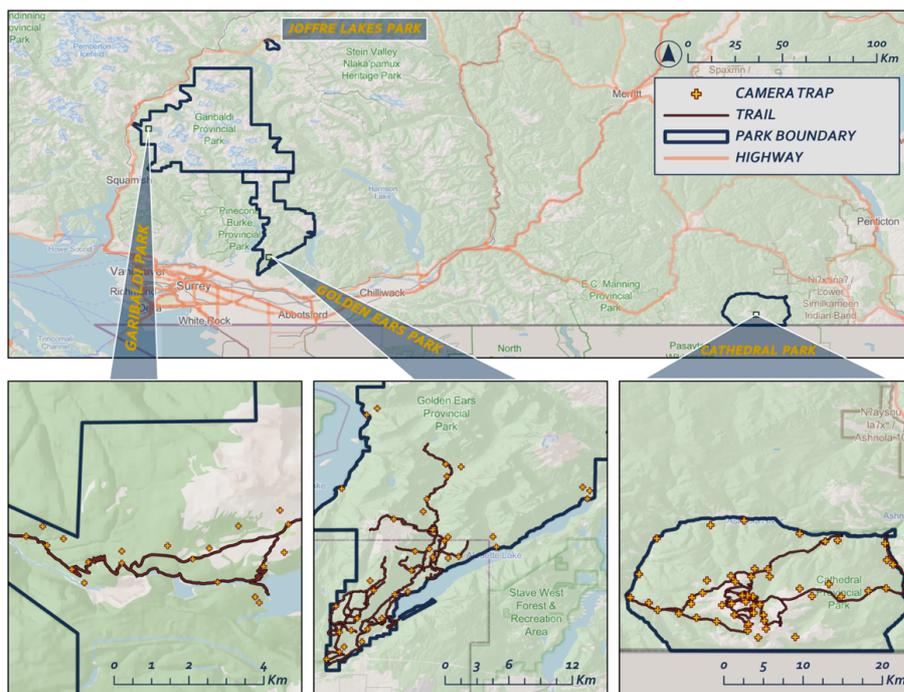
165 comparing human activity estimates from social media with camera traps. In both cases,
166 camera traps were specifically deployed to monitor human activity.

167

168 **Case study 1: Characterising temporal patterns in human activity within PAs**

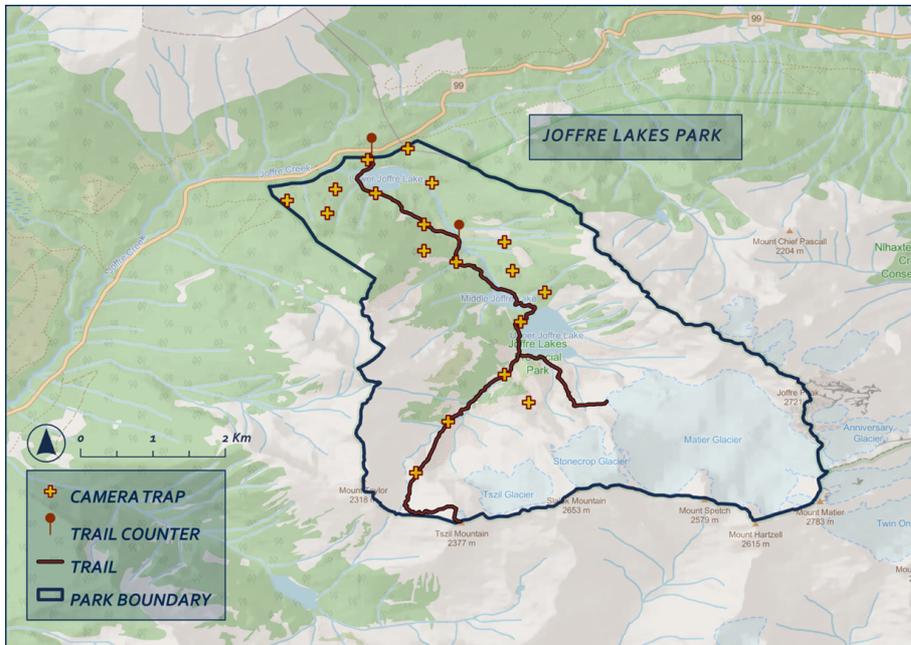
169 One objective for PA researchers and managers is characterizing temporal patterns in
170 human activity, involving measurements of broad temporal patterns, (e.g., annual) or finer-
171 scale patterns (e.g., daily, monthly or seasonal) in visitation. We compared camera traps,
172 trail counters, and day passes to measure fine-scale temporal patterns in human activity in
173 Joffre Lakes Provincial Park (Figure 1). Visitation to this park has increased dramatically in
174 the last decade (222% increase from 2010 to 2019) (Canadian Parks and Wilderness
175 Society, 2021). Joffre Lakes is renowned for its “Instagram worthy” glacier blue alpine lakes
176 and provides habitat for many species, including wolverine (*Gulo gulo*), grizzly bear (*Ursus*
177 *arctos*), cougar (*Puma concolor*), and black-tailed deer (*Odocoileus hemionus*) (Figure 3).
178 Data collection spanned May to September 2021, coinciding with the park’s re-opening in
179 June after a COVID-19 shutdown. Further details are provided in Appendix 3.

180



181

182 **Figure 1.** Provincial parks in British Columbia used in our case studies (Joffre Lakes,
183 Garibaldi, Cathedral, and Golden Ears). Locations of camera trap sampling points used to
184 measure human activity are also shown.
185



186
187 **Figure 2.** Locations of camera trap and trail counters sampling points in Joffre Lakes
188 Provincial Park used for analysis in Case Study 1.
189



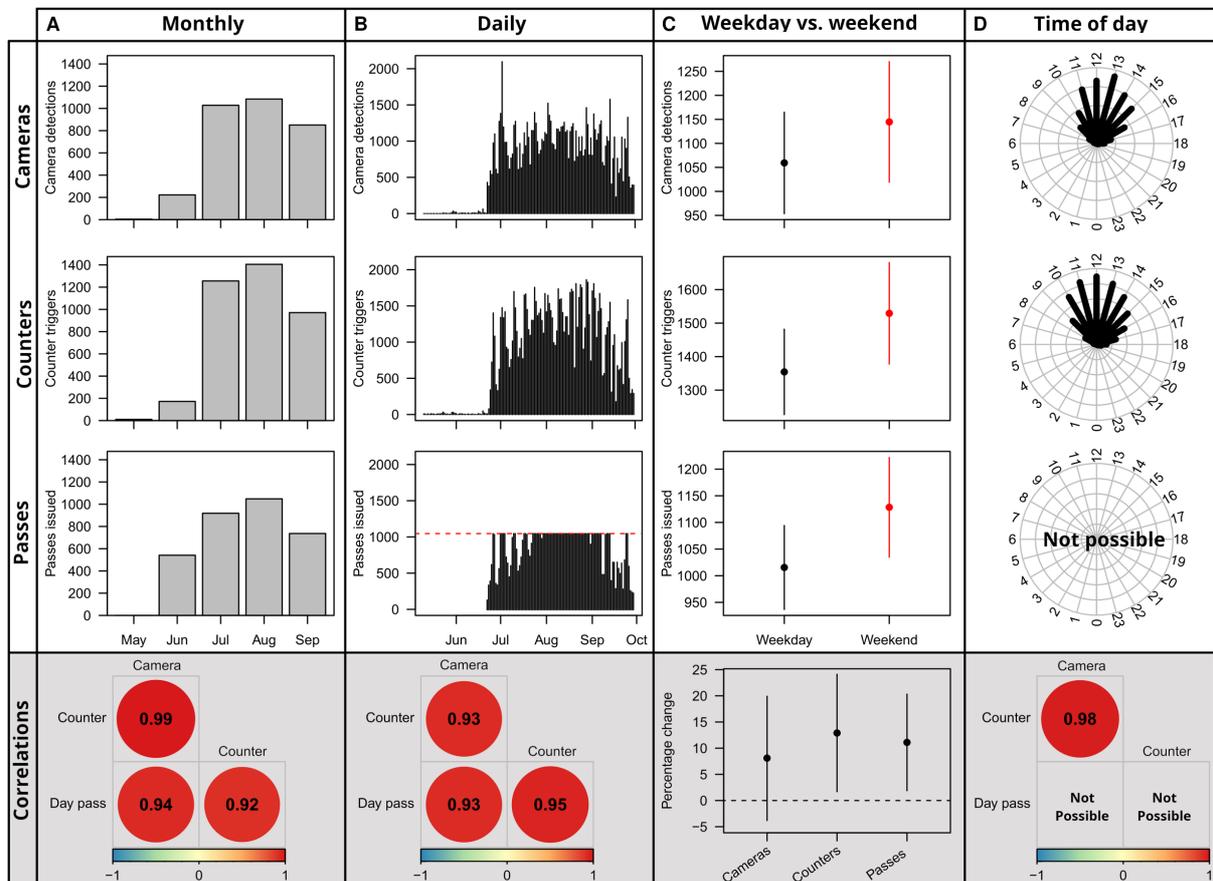
190
 191 **Figure 3.** Camera trap images of wildlife detected at Joffre Lakes Provincial Park: A)
 192 Wolverine (*Gulo gulo*), B) Black-tailed deer (*Odocoileus hemionus*), C) Grizzly Bear (*Ursus*
 193 *arctos*), and D) Cougar (*Puma concolor*).

194
 195 Camera traps, trail counters, day passes provided similar human activity estimates at
 196 monthly (Figure 4A) and daily (Figure 4B) scales, with correlation coefficients ≥ 0.92 .
 197 However, trail counters had higher error rates with false triggers compared to the other
 198 methods. Trail counters and camera traps showed marked day-to-day variation in human
 199 activity. For day passes, daily human activity estimates showed that maximum quotas of
 200 1056 passes per day were reached August to September. All three tools revealed a similar
 201 'weekend effect', where human activity is greater during weekends and holidays, potentially
 202 causing negative effects on wildlife (Green et al., 2023). Human activity increased by roughly
 203 10% on weekends relative to weekdays (Figure 4C). Finally, diel human activity patterns
 204 were highly correlated between cameras and trail counters (correlation coefficient = 0.98;

205 Figure 4D). It was not possible to obtain similar information from day passes, as the time
 206 passes are redeemed was not recorded.

207 **TAKE HOME MESSAGE:** For broad temporal patterns, the choice between camera traps,
 208 trail counters, or day-passes does not influence conclusions about human activity. Decisions
 209 should consider context-specific costs and logistical considerations for implementing
 210 different methods. For example, camera trap deployment requires more fieldwork than trail
 211 counters, making it less feasible for monitoring large-scale human activity trends, particularly
 212 in rugged landscapes. However, camera traps provide more informative fine-scale temporal
 213 data, crucial for management decisions, such as monitoring nighttime recreationist activity
 214 (Blundell et al., 2020). Camera traps also have the advantage of distinguishing activity types
 215 and simultaneously monitoring wildlife, facilitating assessments of human-wildlife
 216 interactions.

217
 218



219

220 **Figure 4.** Comparison of camera traps, trail counters, and day passes to monitor monthly
221 (A), daily intervals (B), weekday vs. weekend (C), and at different times of day (D) in Joffre
222 Lakes Provincial Park at monthly. Column A column heights = monthly average number
223 detections/triggers/passes issued per day. Column B heights = camera
224 detections/triggers/passes issued per day. The horizontal dashed line represents the
225 maximum day pass quota (n = 1056). Column C panels show the mean estimated number of
226 detections/triggers/passes issued for a weekday or weekend day in August, with 95%
227 confidence interval of the estimate as whiskers. Column D shows the relative number of
228 detections/triggers per hour of the day across the whole time period. For columns A, B, and
229 D, the estimates are compared using correlation plots with the sign and magnitude of the
230 correlation coefficients represented by colour (blue = negative, red = positive) and circle size
231 (larger = stronger correlation). In Column C, methods are compared through contrasting the
232 percentage change in human activity estimated through each method.

233

234 ***Case study 2: Characterising spatial patterns in human activity across multiple PAs***

235 Quantifying the relative intensity of PA human activity provides insights into how large-scale
236 differences in accessibility or ecological conditions affect recreation area popularity and
237 crucially, thresholds in recreation impacts. Human activity can be measured through
238 deployment of monitoring devices (e.g., camera traps) within PAs, or through data scraped
239 from social media platforms (e.g. AllTrails and Strava) (Toivonen et al., 2019). We compared
240 human activity estimates from camera traps, AllTrails, and Strava in Joffre Lakes, Cathedral,
241 Garibaldi, Golden Ears Provincial Parks (Figure 5) to generate spatially explicit human
242 activity indices. These parks are popular for recreation and contain important wildlife habitat
243 but they differ in visitation due to proximity to urban centres, access points, camping
244 facilities, topography, etc.

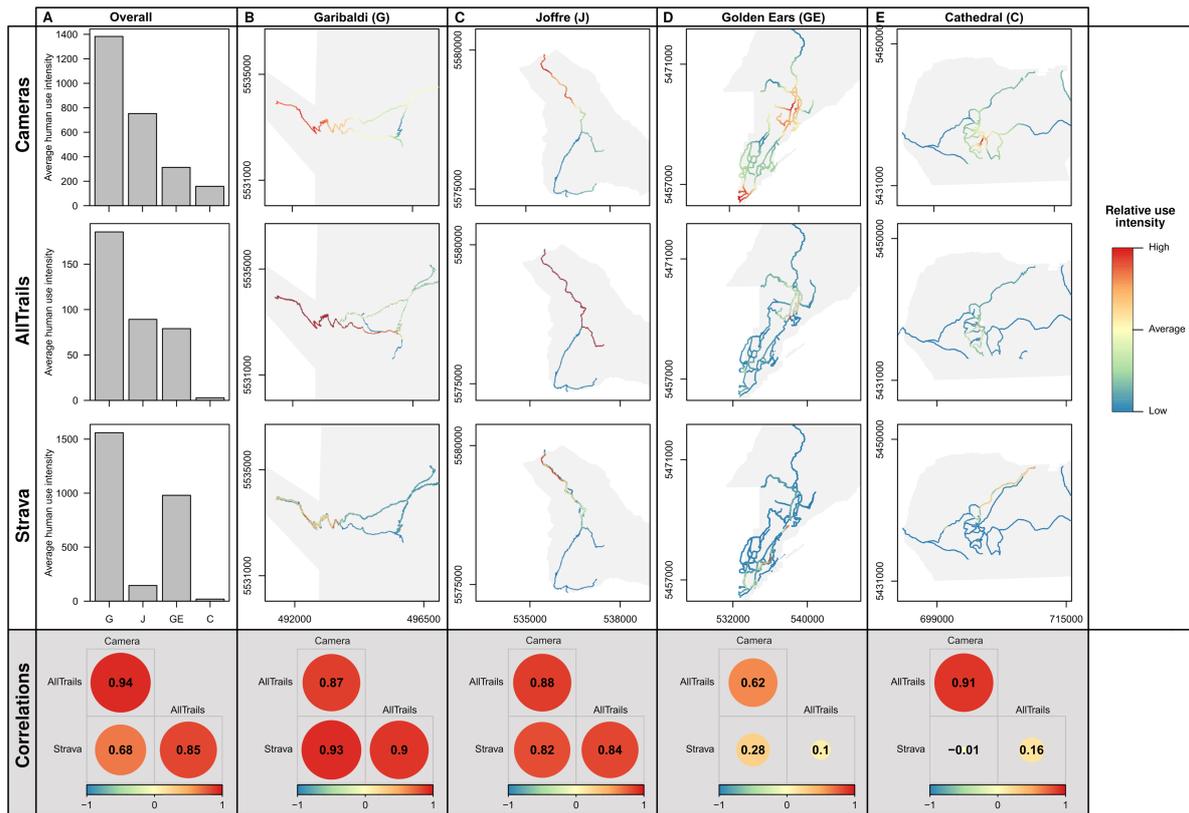
245

246 For the average intensity of human activity, camera traps and AllTrails ranked PAs in the
247 same order: Garibaldi (greatest), Joffre Lakes, Golden Ears, and Cathedral (least). In

248 contrast, Strava suggests there is substantially more activity in Golden Ears relative to the
249 other two methods, while underreporting activity at Joffre Lakes (Figure 5A). The popularity
250 of social media platforms among recreationists varies regionally and for Strava, there are
251 socioeconomic and demographic biases resulting in underreporting of hikers and other
252 specific groups (Garber et al., 2019; Venter et al., 2023). The three metrics showed high
253 agreement in human activity spatial patterns in some PAs (correlation coefficients >0.8 for
254 Garibaldi and Joffre Lakes; Figure 5B & 5C), whereas other PAs showed significant
255 disagreement between different tools (correlation coefficients between -0.01 and 0.91 for
256 Golden Ears and Cathedral; Figure 5D & 5E). The locations where the three metrics were in
257 strong agreement were PAs with single access points and simple, linear trail structures
258 (Garibaldi and Joffre). Locations with high disagreement had multiple access points and
259 more complex interconnected trail structures, likely driving higher variability in estimated
260 human activity.

261 **TAKE HOME MESSAGE:** Correlations between tools depended on trail system complexity.
262 Camera traps provided finer-scale information relative to social media data and showed
263 more spatial variation for within-park human activity. Social media data may under or over-
264 report human activity, depending on socioeconomic factors and activity type. For example,
265 AllTrails collects more hiker traffic, whereas Strava was more accurate for running and
266 biking. Furthermore, while social media excels at providing information about the spatial
267 distribution of human activity, these data may not reliably address temporal trends if the
268 proportion of trail users that contribute to social media data varies through time.

269



270

271 **Figure 5.** Overall average human activity intensity (A) and spatial patterns across PAs with
 272 four methods (columns B-E). AllTrails =the number of reviews of different trails, Strava =
 273 number of athlete ‘efforts’ per year for each trail segment. Column A bar heights = average
 274 use intensity across all trails in the analysis. Columns B-E show the spatial patterns in
 275 estimated human activity standardised and scaled to between 0 (low -blue) and 1 (high -
 276 red). Across all columns, the spatial estimates are compared using correlation plots with the
 277 sign and magnitude of the correlation coefficients represented by both colour (blue =
 278 negative, red = positive) and circle size (larger = stronger correlation).

279

280 Discussion

281 *How can we link measurements of human activity to management actions?*

282 Our case studies illustrate that fine-scale temporal (Figure 4) and spatial (Figure 5) trends in
 283 human activity within and between PAs can be estimated with existing tools, with accuracy
 284 and utility varying by method and context. Tool selection should align with practitioner needs,
 285 emphasising the need to link tools to PA management objectives. This involves mitigating

286 the negative effects on wildlife, for example, through seasonal timing restrictions, zonation,
287 or visitation limits in specific areas, while identifying habitat restoration needs. Understanding
288 spatiotemporal patterns of human activity and recreation impacts on wildlife are critical for
289 informing effective legislation, policy, and authorization processes (e.g., permitting with
290 reporting requirements, species at risk or critical habitat policies), and allocation of staffing
291 and financial resources.

292

293 Our working group identified three broad management categories: characterising human
294 activity patterns, investing in land use planning, and understanding trade-offs between
295 visitation and ecosystem health (Appendix 2). For each, potential management actions are
296 included. For example, researchers quantifying human activity patterns may use tools in
297 Table 1 to measure trail visitation over short (e.g., seasonal) or long (e.g., annual) periods.
298 Based on trends from those data, practitioners can implement trail use restrictions if, for
299 example, human activity is high on specific trails near sensitive wildlife habitat (Thorsen et
300 al., 2022). Areas with low human activity may require greater understanding of potential
301 ecological impacts and increased resource allocation including additional staff time and
302 financial resources for outreach and human-wildlife conflict mitigation (e.g., garbage left on
303 trails), and enforcement action. New infrastructure and ongoing maintenance may be
304 needed to address unanticipated damage from increased human presence (e.g., trail rutting,
305 erosion).

306

307 **Future directions and opportunities**

308 Our case studies provide insights into the effectiveness of tools for measuring PA human
309 activity and highlight where more work is needed. For example, identifying thresholds can
310 inform management strategies to predict negative wildlife impacts. This may involve
311 identifying thresholds causing demographic impacts on wildlife (e.g., population decline due
312 to reduced survival or reproduction), thresholds above which wildlife can no longer co-exist
313 with people or recreation levels above which wildlife can adapt through behavioural flexibility

314 (e.g., shift habitat use or timing of activity) (Lewis et al., 2021) and where sensitive species
315 can no longer persist (displacement, filtering) (Dertien et al., 2021). Thresholds can guide
316 practitioners to enable quality recreational user experiences while mitigating negative
317 ecological impacts. Analysing historical human activity trends may also inform predictions
318 about future activity, given weather or temporal trends (e.g., seasonal, weekend) or real-time
319 monitoring about how a location is trending online (e.g., clicks, likes) (Clark et al., 2019).
320 Given the strengths and weaknesses of each tool, integrating data from multiple tools within
321 a cohesive framework may provide reliable and generalisable predictions (e.g., Wood *et al.*
322 2020).

323

324 We focused on PAs because of their dual mandate to support recreation and biodiversity,
325 but information about human activity outside PA boundaries is lacking. Furthermore, large-
326 bodied mammals require home ranges larger than the size of most PAs, so characterising
327 human activity across larger, mixed-use landscapes is a priority. This can assist in
328 developing practical management actions relevant to people and wildlife, including how and
329 where new trails are sited, restrictions on activities, infrastructure needs (bear-proof food
330 caches, garbage receptacles, etc.), and signage design (i.e., wayfinding, educational,
331 regulatory).

332

333 This work focused on legal recreation activities within PAs. However, PAs are susceptible to
334 illegal uses including poaching of flora and fauna and encroachment (Rija et al., 2020). Such
335 activities likely occur away from trails and access points used by legal visitors, exhibiting
336 spatial and temporal patterns differing from legal activities. In such cases, trail counters, day
337 passes, and social media are not reliable for capturing such human activity. Camera traps
338 deployed off-trail, monitoring wildlife patterns relative to areas with higher human activity,
339 may more effectively detect illegal activity. Remote sensing data may also effectively
340 quantify impacts of human activity on landscape condition like erosion, fire, and habitat loss
341 (Watson et al., 2014). Although illegal activities are a small minority of human activity in PAs

342 predominantly characterized by authorized recreation, they can disproportionately impact
343 biodiversity (Hilborn et al., 2006).

344

345 Sustainable recreation requires careful planning and there is a clear need for land use and
346 recreation planning in North America, particularly with respect to management objectives.

347 Efforts to monitor human activity trends should identify specific objectives prior to tool

348 selection (Appendix 4). Developing and implementing management plans requires more

349 funding, which has historically been under-resourced. To alleviate costs, increased

350 engagement with community scientists could assist with monitoring efforts (Cheung et al.,

351 2022). Several emerging networks promote a coordinated sampling approach across large

352 scales, including camera traps (e.g. WildTrax, WildCAM, Wildlife Insights) (Buxton et al.,

353 2018; Granados et al., 2023; Hedley et al., 2022). There is a growing need to better

354 understand how tools can accurately monitor human activity in PAs to determine the

355 ecological impacts to parks and open spaces. While this requires increased funding and

356 labour for field surveys, our work provides valuable insights into the conditions under which

357 tools quantify trends in human activity in PAs.

358 **Conclusion**

359 As visitation to PAs globally increases, identifying tools to accurately estimate human activity

360 becomes critical for understanding impacts on wildlife and natural areas. Multi-scale visitor

361 data are lacking in much of North America, yet understanding trends within and between

362 parks is needed for evidence-based management plans. We addressed this knowledge gap

363 by presenting case studies highlighting various tools for measuring human activity, making

364 them relevant for park managers and decision-makers. Baseline information about human

365 activity can reveal for example, crowding patterns and help managers and researchers

366 predict future trends. In turn, this information can guide investments in new park

367 infrastructure, maintenance and ongoing monitoring needs, and staffing resources.

368 Additionally, this information can support decisions related to regulation and management

369 changes. We argue that data collection on human activity in and around PAs is urgently

370 needed. Our case studies emphasize the need for careful tool selection, guided by issues
371 relevant to specific PAs.

372

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380

381 **Ethics Statement**

382 Data collection on human activity in parks was conducted under protocol H21-01424 from
383 the University of British Columbia's Behavioural Research Ethics Board.

384

385 **Open Research Statement**

386 Upon acceptance for publication, data will be available for download on
387 <https://github.com/WildCoLab/>.

388

389 **Conflict of Interest**

390 None.

391

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