

The use of public participation GIS (PPGIS) for park visitor management: a case study of mountain biking

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2 **case study of mountain biking**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 Spatially-explicit participatory planning is a relatively new approach for managing
6 visitors to protected areas. In this study we used public participation geographic
7 information systems (PPGIS) mapping and global positioning system (GPS) tracking to
8 monitor mountain bikers frequenting national parks for tourism and recreation in
9 Northern Sydney, Australia. PPGIS was implemented using both an internet application
10 and with hardcopy maps in the field. Our research addressed two fundamental
11 questions for park planning: (1) What is the spatial distribution of visitor activities and
12 location-specific reasons for riding; and (2) What location-specific actions are needed to
13 improve riding experiences? The spatial distributions of riding activities generated in
14 PPGIS showed strong correlation with the GPS tracking results, with riding locations
15 being related to the reasons for track selection. Riders proposed a broad range of
16 management actions to improve riding experiences. PPGIS mapping provides a cost-
17 effective approach to facilitate spatial decision making, allowing park agencies to
18 prioritise future visitor management actions. We discuss the strengths and limitations of
19 these research methods.

20

21

22 **Key words:** Public participation GIS; Visitor activity management; Spatial distributions;
23 Protected areas; Mountain biking.

24

25 **1 Introduction**

26 Providing quality tourism and recreation experiences is essential for national parks
27 and other public lands to cultivate social support for their protection. Developing
28 national park experiences that promote short and long-term benefits for visitors (Driver,
29 2008; Wolf, Stricker, & Hagenloh, 2015) may assist in conserving the natural and cultural
30 values of parks (Weiler, Moore, & Moyle, 2013). To create a diverse and high-quality
31 range of experiences, park managers need to understand the potentially conflicting
32 demands of different visitor groups.

33 Visitors typically favour specific park locations and times along with supporting
34 facilities that best provide for their preferred activity. These choices are reflected in
35 visitors' spatio-temporal usage patterns of tourism and recreation areas (Wolf, Stricker,
36 & Hagenloh, 2013; Wolf & Wohlfart, 2014). Parks need to supply experiences and
37 facilities consistent with demand to satisfy visitor expectations and to protect natural
38 resources from oversupply (Buhalis, 2000). Popular activity groups in parks around
39 urban centres, such as mountain bikers, require tracks with distinct properties to
40 achieve a desired experience for different styles of riding and trip motivations
41 (Newsome & Davies, 2009; Symmonds, Hammitt, & Quisenberry, 2000). Hence, park
42 tourism and recreation management requires critical information on the frequencies
43 and spatial patterns of park use as a predictor of demand (Eagles, 2014), and the
44 underlying visitor motivations that inform management actions to improve visitor
45 experiences. Spatially-explicit information is also needed to better manage crowded
46 areas and conflicts, and to foresee the partitioning of resources between visitor groups
47 (Ostermann, 2009). However, for most parks there is very little information available on
48 the spatio-temporal distributions of visitors and their location-specific needs (van
49 Schaick, 2010).

50 While the use of detailed spatial data on the ecology, infrastructure, and other
51 attributes of the landscape is common, social data at a similar spatial scale are much
52 rarer, limiting visitor activity management and planning in parks. This issue is aggravated
53 where the activity extends beyond park boundaries across land tenures managed by

54 multiple agencies with variable approaches to visitor data collection and sharing.
55 Mountain biking, for example, occurs on a range of public land tenures as well as on
56 private lands such as commercial mountain bike parks. This demonstrates the need to
57 increase the spatial extent of visitor monitoring efforts beyond park boundaries.

58 Spatially explicit social data on management processes of public lands can be
59 collected from stakeholders through participatory planning processes. Growing
60 attention has been given to the importance of engaging people for tourism and
61 recreation planning across single and multiple land tenures. Public participation can
62 enhance the quality and acceptance of decisions with spatial implications and alleviate
63 concerns of the community when altering their environment (Raymond et al., 2009).
64 Public participation geographic information systems (PPGIS) use geospatial technology
65 to inform planning processes with public knowledge by inviting participants to provide
66 geospatial information about perceived attributes of place (Sieber, 2006). This has
67 relevance for tourism and recreation areas where visitors have particular needs
68 regarding specific precincts and facilities such as tracks used for mountain biking. Brown
69 and Weber (2011) described PPGIS as ". . . *the practice of GIS and mapping at local levels*
70 *to produce knowledge of place*". This methodology finds application in many research
71 areas such as socio-ecological hotspot mapping (Alessa, Kliskey, & Brown, 2008),
72 identification of ecosystem services (Brown, Montag, & Lyon, 2012; Brown & Raymond,
73 2014; Raymond et al., 2009), land use conflicts (Brown & Raymond, 2014), forest
74 planning (Brown & Donovan, 2013; Brown & Reed, 2012), tourism management (Brown,
75 2006; Marzuki, Hay, & James, 2012), public land management (Brown, Weber, & de Bie,
76 2014), and a growing list of other applications (see Brown & Kyttä, 2014 for a recent
77 review). Further, Brown and Weber (2011) consider PPGIS to have great potential to
78 advance national park planning of visitor experiences while there is a growing trend in
79 the use of spatial information in park and protected areas management (Beeco &
80 Brown, 2013). In PPGIS mapping, information is solicited by requesting participants to
81 identify and mark locations on a map about perceived place attributes. PPGIS mapping
82 may be administered in the field (e.g., private homes, park visitor centres) through mail

83 surveys (Brown, 2004), stakeholder workshops (Donovan et al., 2009) or personal
84 interviews and surveys (Donovan et al., 2009; Raymond et al., 2009) that typically use a
85 hardcopy form of data collection. In contrast, internet-based implementations of PPGIS
86 mapping, as advertised through mass media, email lists or online panels have numerous
87 advantages (as reviewed by Pocewicz, Nielsen-Pincus, Brown, & Schnitzer, 2012)
88 especially in the reduction of costs and the increased efficiency of data collection and
89 entry (Couper & Miller, 2008). It is useful to compare the results achieved with both
90 field- and internet-based PPGIS mapping to determine the representativeness of the
91 recruited sample population and to identify other potential biases resulting from the
92 data collection (Olsen, 2009). Outcomes that may vary with the mode of the PPGIS
93 application include the participation rate, and the number and spatial distribution of
94 mapped attributes of place. For example, Pocewicz et al. (2012) found that field-based
95 PPGIS resulted in higher participation rates and greater numbers of mapped attributes.

96 PPGIS mapping provides insights into spatial distributions of attributes such as the
97 locations people report to visit, and possibly the frequency of visitation, but not the
98 exact time spent at specific facilities and attractions. In contrast, GPS tracking data
99 presents actual (vs. reported) spatio-temporal distributions of visitors and captures
100 entire travel routes (vs. singular locations) of visitors (Orellana, Bregt, Ligtenberg, &
101 Wachowicz, 2012; Wolf, Hagenloh, & Croft, 2012). Typically this information is collected
102 from visitors equipped with personal GPS receivers such as smartphones using tracking
103 applications, or those supplied by a researcher. GPS receivers are easy to use with
104 comparatively little effort required from participants apart from carrying and returning
105 the equipment. More effort is involved in PPGIS mapping where participants need to
106 accurately recall, locate, and mark specific places on a map to assign spatial attributes.
107 In this study, we will evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of GPS tracking and PPGIS
108 mapping to address different park management questions.

109 National parks and other public green spaces are frequented for a range of activities
110 including mountain biking (Heer, Rusterholz, & Baur, 2003; Newsome & Davies, 2009).
111 In recent decades the popularity of mountain biking has increased significantly in

112 Australia, New Zealand (Mason & Leberman, 2000; Newsome & Davies, 2009; Ryan,
113 2005), North America (Attarian, 2001; Cordell, 2008) and Europe (Christie et al., 2006;
114 Heer et al., 2003). A study by Christie et al. (2006) conducted in seven forest areas in
115 Great Britain revealed that technical single-track mountain biking and cross-country
116 mountain biking, enjoyed by 20.0% and 10.5% of all visitors, respectively, were some of
117 the most common visitor activities. The Australian Cycling Participation survey 2013
118 (Australian Bicycle Council, 2013) showed that 37.4% of people in Australia participated
119 in cycling over the last year with an increasing trend compared to previous years. The
120 survey, however, did not segment by type of cycling.

121 Our study focused on mountain biking in the semi-rural, Northern Sydney area
122 where demand for this activity is rapidly growing in national parks and surrounding land
123 tenures. Increasing demand has resulted in the development of formal strategies to
124 promote and sustain high-quality mountain biking experiences in national parks in
125 Sydney and other parts of New South Wales (NSW). In 2011, the Office of Environment
126 and Heritage NSW (2011) published a strategy that outlines the provision of high quality,
127 sustainable mountain biking experiences that (1) improve and maintain of existing
128 tracks, (2) identify suitable links between tracks, and (3) where appropriate, develop
129 new mountain biking experiences consistent with standards for design, construction,
130 and maintenance proposed by the International Mountain Bicycling Association. The
131 strategy targets all skill levels, as well as families and other travel groups to provide
132 diverse riding experiences. In the strategy, high importance is placed on communication
133 and consultation to build a strong partnership between management agencies and
134 public stakeholders of mountain biking activities. Mountain biking currently co-exists
135 with other tourism and recreation activities on certain multi-use trails in the region
136 where potential conflicts need to be monitored closely, especially if demand for this
137 activity continues to grow.

138 The aim of this study was to evaluate the utility of PPGIS in park visitor activity
139 planning, exemplified in the context of mountain biking in Northern Sydney. The
140 methods used and the findings of our study are relevant to the full spectrum of travel

141 experiences on a continuum ranging from recreational activity to tourism experiences
142 (McKercher, 1996). Our specific research questions include: (1) What are the spatial
143 distributions and location-based reasons for mountain biking in the region; and (2) What
144 location-specific management actions are required to improve existing experiences. We
145 analyse our study results at different spatial scales: the Northern Sydney region, inside
146 vs. outside national parks, and for individual tracks. To our knowledge, this is the first
147 study to use PPGIS methods to evaluate mountain biking activities. Participant
148 characteristics, collected from survey questions, are integrated with the spatial data to
149 address more complex questions such as how rider preferences vary with skills,
150 motivations, and riding styles. Finally, we examine PPGIS mapping results, conducted in
151 the field or on-line, with GPS tracking results to validate the accuracy of the PPGIS
152 methods.

153

154 **2 Methods**

155 **2.1 Study area**

156 This study was conducted approximately 5 km north of the Sydney central business
157 district and the Sydney Harbour, covering an area of 561 km² (Fig. 1). The study area
158 encompasses several local government councils, the Municipality of Lane Cove and the
159 City of Ryde. A variety of national parks are accessible to riders including Ku-ring-gai
160 Chase National Park (14,882 ha), Garigal National Park (2,150 ha), Berowra Valley
161 National Park (3,884 ha), Lane Cove National Park (635 ha) and parts of Sydney Harbour
162 National Park (392 ha). In the study area, there is demand to increase the number of
163 authorized trails for mountain bikers in both national parks and adjacent tenures (Office
164 of Environment Heritage NSW, 2011; Warringah Council, 2012) where numerous tracks
165 traverse lands managed by different authorities. Thus, an important aspect of the study
166 was to differentiate between riding within and outside of national parks as a cross-
167 tenure approach is essential to planning quality mountain biking experiences with
168 appropriate track lengths and linkages.

169 In NSW national parks and reserves, mountain biking is allowed on all public access
170 roads managed by the NSW National Parks and Wildlife Service (NPWS) and on most
171 management trails that are shared with other park visitors. Mountain biking and horse
172 riding co-exist on some NSW national park trails and in other tenures, especially in the
173 Terrey Hills area of Ku-ring-gai Chase National Park. Some of the most popular,
174 legitimate mountain bike tracks are located outside of parks such as the purpose-built
175 tracks at Manly Dam (Manly Dam Mountain Bike Circuit, administered by Warringah
176 Council) and Old Mans Valley (Old Mans Valley Hornsby Mountain Bike Trail,
177 administered by Hornsby Shire Council). Illegal mountain biking in prohibited areas and
178 along unauthorised tracks also occurs in some NPWS parks in Northern Sydney and
179 elsewhere in NSW, particularly in those parks located near urban centres. In recognition
180 of the increasing demand for mountain biking experiences from both domestic tourists
181 and recreationists in legitimate areas and to address illegal track creation, NPWS is
182 planning to create sustainable experiences for riders of different skill levels. Several
183 mountain biking parks and clubs are located in the area, including Jube Mountain Bike
184 Park at Golden Jubilee Fields (Ku-ring-gai Council) and The Grove Bike Park (Manly
185 Council).

186 **2.2 PPGIS mapping and questionnaire**

187 We administered PPGIS mapping and questionnaire-based surveys to mountain
188 bikers, in the field and online, from January 2013 to July 2013. Participants were
189 recruited by advertising the research via mountain bike riding clubs and associations in
190 Northern Sydney. Additionally, advertisements were distributed in bike riding supply
191 outlets. Invitations to participate provided a link to the mapping website and
192 questionnaire along with information regarding the study purpose and methodology.
193 Shopping vouchers were used as recruitment incentives and reminder invitations were
194 disseminated throughout the sampling period.

195 Concurrently, participants were intercepted at track heads at multiple popular riding
196 locations inside and outside national parks in Northern Sydney from Fridays to Sundays,
197 on public holidays, and throughout the week during school holidays. People were

198 randomly intercepted but needed to confirm that they in fact ride in the study area to
199 qualify for participation. In addition, we distributed hardcopy invitations to riders who
200 preferred to participate online.

201 Based on consultation with NPWS staff and following a literature review, three
202 PPGIS marker groups were identified for the website to address the following questions:
203 (1) On which tracks in Northern Sydney do participants ride and how often? ('location');
204 (2) What are the reasons to ride there? ('reasons'); (3) Which actions are required along
205 these tracks to improve the experience of riders? ('actions', which also included markers
206 to identify locations of conflicts with other visitor groups). Each marker group was
207 represented by 8–14 individual markers that could be dragged onto a Google map (Fig.
208 2a–c; Table 1). The markers were pre-tested and revised in accordance with comments
209 from NPWS staff. An operational definition of each marker was displayed if participants
210 clicked on a particular marker (Fig. 2d). In January 2013, an interactive web-based PPGIS
211 platform was launched (<http://www.landscapemap2.org/nswmtnbike/>). Upon accessing
212 this website, a welcome page introduced the purpose of the research, the focus on the
213 Northern Sydney area, study components (mapping, questionnaire) and approximate
214 time needed for completion. Participants received a dynamic access code to enter the
215 PPGIS website. After reading this background information and consenting to participate,
216 participants were able to map locations, reasons, and actions by dragging different
217 markers onto relevant map locations.

218 The map displayed 204 tracks known to be frequented by mountain bikers in
219 Northern Sydney. Tracks were collated from NPWS GIS databases, a literature review,
220 and online sources such as mountain biker clubs and track-share services (e.g., Strava).
221 The initial track list was revised based on comments from mountain bikers. As there are
222 many unofficial and lesser known tracks, the list was not exhaustive and so participants
223 were instructed to place markers anywhere in the study area where they ride, even if a
224 track was not displayed. In addition, we omitted to show several tracks known to be
225 frequented by mountain bikers to discern whether participants would place markers
226 along them. Instructions stressed to place markers exclusively within the study area

227 which was clearly demarcated on the map. Participants were further instructed to place
228 markers as close as possible to relevant tracks or specific locations along tracks (e.g., to
229 indicate maintenance actions), or alternatively, to other non-track locations (e.g., to
230 indicate where track linkages should be established; or along tracks not displayed on the
231 map).

232 Participants were allowed to place markers once they had selected a minimum zoom
233 level for the map (approximate scale 1:4500), which was chosen based on trials by
234 NPWS staff. An option existed for participants to annotate markers, for example, to
235 comment on why a track required a 'better track design'. Participants could place as few
236 or as many markers as they considered necessary.

237 The process was similar in the field, however, the researcher provided the
238 instructions in person and markers were placed on an A0-hardcopy map. With this
239 approach, annotations for individual markers were recorded separately and linked to
240 specific markers by numbers. In both the online and field survey, participants needed to
241 place at least one marker to be able to proceed to the accompanying questionnaire.

242 The questionnaire consisted of 29 questions and captured information on
243 participants' socio-demographics, association with rider clubs, peak riding times and
244 areas, riding skills, styles, preferences, importance of specific track properties and other
245 facilities, track design, maintenance issues, and track experiences inside national parks
246 compared to outside national parks. We also asked about conflicts with other visitor
247 groups and solutions. All rating-scale questions were presented on a 5-point scale
248 ranging from 'Not at all important' to 'Extremely important'.

249 **2.3 GPS tracking and questionnaire**

250 For the GPS tracking component, mountain bikers were randomly selected from
251 participants in the PPGIS mapping component who had expressed interest in this
252 component of the study ($n = 329$; 49.3% of the mapping participants). If no response
253 had been received after one week, a personal reminder was emailed. If another week
254 lapsed without response, another reminder was sent. Non-respondents were excluded
255 from further contact.

256 Participants were asked to record their rides in the study area using a smartphone
257 tracking application or a GPS tracking device during a specified 4-weekly period between
258 January 2013 and October 2013. Personal invitations were followed by detailed
259 instructions for consenting participants. We aimed to collect rides from a similar
260 number of participants per month but there was a bias towards spring when weather
261 conditions were more favourable. We stressed the importance to record the same rides
262 multiple times to indicate their popularity. Instructions further clarified which
263 smartphone tracking applications to use, preferred settings to record tracks, and how to
264 achieve the best possible satellite reception. At the end of the tracking period, the track
265 files were sent to the researchers in gpx-format.

266 The GPS tracking component was completed by answering a brief questionnaire in
267 which participants were queried about their favourite tracks visited during the study
268 period. We also inquired about any rides undertaken outside of the study area.

269 **2.4 Analysis**

270 Results from the questionnaire were analysed with IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows
271 21.0. Prior to analysis, the 5 skill levels (1 = complete beginner; 2 = advanced beginner;
272 3 = moderately experienced; 4 = very experienced; 5 = experts) for mountain bikers
273 were re-classified by merging category 1 ('complete beginner') and category 2
274 ('advanced beginner') into one category ('beginner') to account for their smaller sample
275 size.

276 To compare frequency data, such as the socio-demographics and rider
277 characteristics (i.e., skill level and field vs. online), Pearson's chi-square tests were
278 applied. The rating-scale data were analysed with analysis of variance (ANOVA)
279 including skill level and sampling mode (field vs. online). ANOVA was also applied to
280 continuous variables measuring self-estimated average distances travelled to tracks in
281 the Northern Sydney area. Open-ended questions were analysed qualitatively by
282 identifying the major categories/themes emerging from participants' comments.

283 We used several spatial scales ('planning areas') in our analysis to demonstrate the
284 versatility of PPGIS mapping and associated GIS analysis including inside vs. outside

285 national parks. Tracks were assigned to either being located 'in park' or 'outside' if most
286 (>90%) of the track length was located in either category, otherwise, a track was
287 considered located in 'both'.

288 Markers collected in the field were transferred by a researcher onto Google map
289 and then exported together with the online mapping data for import into a geographical
290 information system (ArcGIS 10.1). An attribute field was added to the database that
291 coded whether data had been collected in the field or online. Prior to the data analysis,
292 we excluded any markers placed outside the study area (6.8%). A few mountain bikers
293 (5%) were excluded entirely from the analysis (both the survey and PPGIS mapping)
294 because they indicated in the survey they never ride in the Northern Sydney area and
295 they placed marker(s) exclusively outside the study area.

296 Descriptive tables and maps were produced to showcase the range of possible data
297 presentation modes. To create maps showing the varying numbers of markers placed
298 along the 204 individual tracks, most markers were spatially joined in ArcGIS to the
299 nearest track (Fig. 3a–b). We also observed that some clusters of markers demarcated
300 the outlines of tracks not displayed on the map and have provided an example in Fig. 3c.

301 The 'location' and 'reason' markers were typically placed at the beginning/end of a
302 track rather than somewhere along the track, and we considered the attribute to apply
303 to the entire track. In contrast, we performed raster analysis on 'action' markers to
304 identify specific sites within 150 m x150 m raster cells along tracks for the actions.
305 Raster analysis can identify specific 'hotspots' in the study area (e.g., for linkages) that
306 require management attention (Fig. 4).

307 To relate the total number of mapped attributes to rider skill levels, we used one-
308 way factor ANOVA. The relative frequency of different types of markers by skill level and
309 planning area was examined with Chi-square statistics and standardized residuals
310 (difference between observed and expected cell counts). Standardized residuals indicate
311 which attributes were mapped more or less often than expected ($s_{resid.} > \pm 1.96$) by skill
312 level and planning area categories. Chi-square tests were also applied to examine
313 differences in mapping results by sampling mode (field vs. online). To examine the

314 underlying reasons for selecting specific locations for riding, we calculated Generalised
315 Linear Model effects of reasons to ride on the popularity of specific tracks, measured as
316 the number of reason and location markers, respectively, mapped inside or outside of
317 national parks in Northern Sydney.

318 GPS tracking data were aggregated to calculate the average number of rides,
319 distance covered, duration of rides, velocity, weekly/daily activity patterns, and location
320 of rides during the 4-weekly sampling periods. We examined how some of these trip
321 variables varied by rider skill level.

322 We compared the popularity of the 204 tracks displayed on the PPGIS map with the
323 results from the GPS tracking by spatially joining the tracked rides with the displayed
324 tracks. We then ranked the tracks by popularity, measured by the number of markers
325 (for mapping) or number of tracked rides (for tracking) joined with the displayed tracks,
326 and calculated Pearson correlation coefficients to determine how closely reported track
327 usage (mapping) related to actual track usage (tracking).

328 We refer to the GPS tracked routes as “rides” in contrast to PPGIS tracks. Some of
329 the individual rides collected by tracking were exclusively located along the 204 PPGIS
330 tracks. However, some rides also contained segments that connected with starting
331 points at home, creating whole networks of rides.

332

333 **3 Results**

334 **3.1 Participant characteristics and rider profiles**

335 In total, 516 mountain bikers completed the questionnaire and placed PPGIS
336 markers inside the study area. The majority of mountain bikers (81%) completed the
337 study online. Most participants intercepted in the field were sampled on weekends
338 during sunny weather conditions and temperatures ranging between 15° to 30°C.
339 Participation rates in the field were greater than 80%. Altogether, we sampled
340 19 beginner, 99 intermediate, 247 advanced, and 151 expert mountain bikers.

341 Mountain bikers comprised predominantly male riders between 25–54 years of age
342 (Table 2). Expert mountain bikers were more likely to be younger with an

343 overrepresentation of 25–34 year olds compared to other skill levels. The mountain
344 bikers showed a fairly equal distribution of age categories across skill levels. Skill levels
345 were significantly related to years of mountain biking (Table 2). The majority of
346 beginners (84.2%) had been mountain biking for up to 3 years compared to advanced
347 riders (50.2%), and experts (67%) who have been riding for more than 10 years.

348 About a third of mountain bikers (31%) were members of biking clubs and
349 associations with increased membership associated with higher skill level (experts:
350 46.9%). Many mountain bikers ride regularly (at least once a month) to frequently (1-4
351 times a week) in the Northern Sydney area with almost half of beginners riding there
352 only occasionally (less than once a month). The greater the skill level, the more often
353 mountain bikers also ride outside the study area in other parts of NSW. The majority of
354 non-beginner mountain bikers travel by vehicle to reach tracks, while a majority of
355 beginners travel by bike (Table 3). Public transport was rarely used, and if so mostly by
356 beginners (10%) to reach tracks outside the study area.

357 Mountain bikers participated in a range of disciplines (Table 3). Most popular
358 amongst all skill levels was cross-country riding on a mix of fire trails ('management
359 trails') and single tracks, and with a clear exception of beginners, riding on single tracks.
360 Advanced and expert riders also commonly engaged in all-mountain and free-riding.
361 Downhill riding was mainly popular amongst experts. Beginners and intermediate riders
362 were the most likely groups to ride on fire trails. Preferred velocity for mountain biking
363 increased with skill level (Table 3).

364 **3.2 PPGIS mapping marker frequencies**

365 In our analysis, we included a total of 11,256 valid markers (Table 4) from 667
366 mountain bikers who mapped at least one marker. Comments were annotated for
367 12.7% of markers.

368 The number of markers placed per participant was significantly related to one's
369 mountain biking skill ($F_{(3,495)} = 8.1, P < 0.001$). The greater the skill level, the greater the
370 number of markers. Expert (27.1 ± 2.0 markers) and advanced (21.7 ± 1.6 markers)
371 mountain bikers placed significantly more markers than intermediate riders

372 (13.3 ± 2.5 markers) and beginners (7.8 ± 5.5 markers). The mean number of markers
373 placed per participant was similar to other reported PPGIS studies (e.g., Beverly, Uto,
374 Wilkes, & Bothwell, 2008).

375 Markers identifying location frequencies were most mapped (46.2%), followed by
376 reasons for riding (35.1%), and actions (18.7%). The most common riding frequencies
377 included riding less than once per month (16.9%), riding once per month (13.6%) and
378 riding 1-4 times per week (8.9%). Most mountain bikers rode to improve their
379 fitness/endurance (7.5%), to enjoy nature/views/scenery (4.0%) and to experience
380 technical features (3.9%). Mountain bikers identified multiple key management actions
381 to be addressed in Northern Sydney including opening up tracks/areas for riding (5.5%),
382 adding linkages between tracks (5.3%), and track maintenance (2.5%). Conflicts with
383 other activity groups were mapped in 0.5% of cases.

384 The relative frequency of individual types of markers also varied by the skill level of
385 mountain bikers ($\chi^2_{(6)} = 65.2, P = 0.001$). Beginner and intermediate riders provided
386 significantly more reasons to ride than advanced and expert riders. Expert riders, in
387 contrast, suggested significantly more actions. The individual reasons for riding also
388 varied by skill levels ($\chi^2_{(33)} = 97.8, P = 0.001$). Beginners and intermediate riders more
389 frequently mapped tracks to explore new areas, for convenience, and good
390 track/surface conditions while excitement and challenging slopes were less frequently
391 marked. For action markers, facilities were more frequently identified by beginner and
392 intermediate riders who expressed a particular interest in improved signage
393 ($\chi^2_{(30)} = 91.5, P = 0.001$). Expert riders suggested the closure of tracks or sections more
394 frequently while intermediate riders recommended opening up tracks for riding, or
395 adding technical features.

396 **3.3 Field vs. online PPGIS mapping**

397 We observed few statistically significant differences between mountain bikers
398 sampled in the field vs. online, and notably, there were no differences in rider
399 demographics. We had expected to observe a greater number of advanced and expert
400 riders online and more beginners in the field because the online surveys were

401 disseminated via dedicated mountain biker forums. However, only mountain bikers of
402 intermediate skill level were slightly overrepresented in the field ($\chi^2_{(3)} = 11.06$,
403 $P = 0.009$). We speculate that beginners may have a greater incentive to source
404 mountain biking information online than intermediate riders who are also less actively
405 involved in the online rider community. As expected, less mountain bike club members
406 were sampled in the field than online.

407 We found no significant differences in the overall number of markers placed per
408 field or online participant, but there were some differences by marker category. In the
409 field, mountain bikers placed more markers identifying reasons to ride and less location
410 markers ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 84.3$, $P < 0.001$). Convenience, improvement of riding skills, and
411 excitement were disproportionately more mapped in the field than online ($\chi^2_{(11)} = 424$,
412 $P < 0.001$). People intercepted in the field were particularly keen to discuss their reasons
413 to ride (vs. locations) with the interviewer while placing the markers. This verbal
414 interaction likely encouraged participants to place a greater number of this type of
415 marker as well as 'other reasons to ride'. Similarly, some action markers were
416 overrepresented in the field ($\chi^2_{(10)} = 105.2$, $P < 0.001$), including those suggesting better
417 track design, the addition of linkages between tracks, the addition of technical features,
418 and the provision of increased parking.

419 **3.4 Distributions and reasons for mountain biking**

420 **3.4.1 Questionnaire**

421 Mountain biking occurs year-round in Northern Sydney with a preference for spring
422 and fall when ambient temperatures in Sydney are most conducive to outdoor activities
423 (Table 3). Advanced and expert mountain bikers were more likely to ride 'any time'
424 during the day compared to other skill levels. Few participants undertake rides after
425 sunset.

426 Track features were related to specific motivations to ride and can partially explain
427 rider distributions (Table 5). More skilled mountain bikers ascribed a greater importance
428 to most track features. Beginners rated circuits, curves, up- and downhill sections, and a

429 variety of tracks as the most important track features while more skilled riders rated
430 highest, single tracks, tight and technical tracks, a variety of tracks, curves, and logs and
431 rocks. Tracks between 10 –20 km in length were preferred by all skill levels.

432 **3.4.2 PPGIS mapping**

433 Mountain bikers mapped similar percentages of location frequencies of rides and
434 best-rides outside (45.6%) and inside (43.7%) national parks. However, a majority of all
435 location marker types was placed outside of parks (45.4–67.4%), including those
436 indicating best rides for less than 2 hours and for rides 2–4 hours (Table 6). In contrast,
437 best rides for more than 4 hours were more commonly mapped inside parks (56.4%)
438 along with riding less than once per month (48.4%). This indicates that mountain bikers
439 ride in parks to enjoy longer rides but do so less regularly.

440 Somewhat higher percentages of reasons to ride were mapped outside (52.5%) than
441 inside (39.3%). There were significant differences in the frequency of reason markers
442 placed inside vs. outside of parks (Table 7). The top three overrepresented reasons for
443 riding inside parks included to improve fitness/endurance (27.2%), enjoy
444 nature/views/scenery (16.4%), and experience tracks that are convenient/close to home
445 (11.2%). In contrast, people riding outside parks did so primarily to experience technical
446 features (15.7%), improve riding skills (15.4%), and improve fitness/endurance (15.5%).

447 Several motivations explained where mountain bikers ride (Table 8). Both inside and
448 outside of parks opportunities to improve fitness/endurance, and excitement influenced
449 where people ride. Outside of parks tracks with challenging slopes and technical
450 features attracted mountain bikers, while inside of parks opportunities to improve riding
451 skills and good track surface/conditions influenced track selection. Other reasons to
452 ride, as annotated frequently on reason markers, included tracks linking well with other
453 tracks, thereby creating loops/circuits, and well-designed, purpose-built tracks with a
454 good 'flow'.

455 The PPGIS mapping approach provides for analyses and assessment of individual
456 tracks located in Northern Sydney, a process that is difficult with traditional text-based
457 surveys that attempt to match descriptions with locations, especially when tracks are

458 known by multiple names. For example, less experienced mountain bikers were more
459 adept at locating tracks on a map than identifying the correct aliases for a track.

460 In Fig. 3a, we show the distribution of all location markers placed by mountain bikers
461 along tracks. The map is colour-coded to indicate the popularity of tracks based on the
462 number of location markers. These results can also be displayed in table form to show,
463 for example, the top-twenty tracks. Each individual marker category can be presented in
464 additional maps (Fig. 3b) providing visual tools for park managers. Only 12 of the 204
465 PPGIS displayed tracks received no markers indicating that mountain bikers use a great
466 variety of tracks although there are obvious hot spots.

467 In the PPGIS instructions, we explained that participants could map anywhere
468 without being restricted to the tracks shown on the map. This opportunity was seized by
469 mountain bikers who identified less formal and lesser known tracks in the mapping
470 activity. As an internal test of the online PPGIS method, we excluded a number of tracks
471 from the map that are known to be frequented by mountain bikers to determine if
472 these would be identified anyway. Participants did, indeed, place markers on these track
473 locations (Fig. 3c).

474 **3.4.3 GPS tracking**

475 We invited a sample of 200 mountain bikers, of which 94 agreed to participate, with
476 77 included in our analysis for completing both the tracking activity and associated
477 survey. We collected 507 rides of which 48 rides were excluded from analysis for being
478 outside the study area or study period. Our final sample consisted of 2.6% beginner,
479 9.1% intermediate, 54.5% advanced and 33.8% expert riders which approximates the
480 proportion of skill levels in the PPGIS mapping sample.

481 On average, participants submitted 6 (± 0.46) GPS rides in the Northern Sydney
482 study area during the 4-weekly trials. Participants undertook an additional 2.4 (± 0.27)
483 rides outside of the study area during the sampling period. Rides averaged 22.2 (± 1.5)
484 km in length, required 113 (± 7.2) minutes for completion at an average velocity of 15.5
485 (± 0.3) kmh⁻¹. For comparison, the survey results indicated a preference for rides of 10–
486 20 km in length. The results indicated that mountain bikers covered a greater distance

487 (25.2 ± 2.3 km) and spent more time (132.1 ± 7.8 min) on rides they had marked as their
488 favourite. On average, 1–2 rides per sampling period were repeat rides. All riding
489 statistics increased with skill level as follows: number of rides sent (beginner: 4.5 ± 1.5;
490 intermediate 10 ± 5; advanced: 14 ± 6.1; expert: 17 ± 6.3), average length in km
491 (beginner: 13.6 ± 4.1; intermediate: 16 ± 2.7; advanced: 22.6 ± 2; expert: 23.83 ± 2.8),
492 and time spent in minutes (beginner: 99 ± 1; intermediate 78 ± 8.8; advanced:
493 119.3 ± 13.1; expert: 116.5 ± 9.6).

494 The majority of rides (65%) commenced prior to 2 pm, which is consistent with the
495 survey results, and took place on the weekend (62%). Sixty-eight percent of rides were
496 undertaken at least partially in NSW national parks, where also 77% of the favourite
497 rides were located, with 82% of these located in Garigal National Park or Ku-ring-gai
498 Chase National Park in equal proportions. The popularity of these two parks is
499 consistent with the PPGIS-mapped results.

500 When we compared the popularity of the 204 tracks on the PPGIS map with the GPS
501 tracking results (Fig. 5a), the correlation between the ranked tracks from the mapping
502 and tracking was strong ($r = 0.6$; $P < 0.001$) indicating that the reported popularity of
503 tracks (PPGIS mapping) was reasonably consistent with the actual popularity of tracks
504 (GPS tracking). In addition, we used the tracking results to display favourite rides (Fig.
505 5b).

506 **3.5 Actions to improve mountain biking experiences**

507 We asked what additional information and facilities could contribute to the
508 enjoyment of mountain biking (Table 5). Needs were universal across skill levels.

509 Mountain bikers mapped similar percentages of action markers outside (44.2%) and
510 inside parks (46.6%). Although the overall number of actions was similar, the variety of
511 actions requested outside of parks was greater, and categories such as the provision of
512 better signage, better track design and adding other facilities or actions were
513 disproportionately larger, as indicated by the standardised residuals (Table 9). The top
514 three actions requested both outside and inside parks included adding linkages between
515 tracks, opening up tracks/areas for riding, and track maintenance (Table 9). Two further

516 categories that were important for mountain bikers included providing better signage,
517 better track design and turning tracks into single use tracks, predominantly outside of
518 parks (Table 9).

519 We produced a raster map to show action requests for specific locations in Northern
520 Sydney and along specific tracks (Fig. 4). Raster maps consist of grid cells representing
521 the density of points in a particular cell to indicate priority areas for managerial
522 attention. Figure 4 shows a raster map of track linkages proposed by mountain bikers
523 where one can identify some of the routes and proposed connections between existing
524 tracks.

525

526 **4 Discussion**

527 **4.1 Management questions for tourism and recreation planning in parks**

528 We used different modes of PPGIS data collection to identify the spatial distributions
529 and associated reasons for park visitor activity (mountain biking) in Northern Sydney,
530 and to determine location-specific actions that could improve existing experiences. This
531 information provides management direction at different spatial planning scales to
532 prioritize resource allocation, monitor impacts, identify areas that require cross-tenure
533 planning, promote qualities of particular areas to less informed visitors, and identify
534 areas that need partitioning between visitor groups.

535 The PPGIS methodology was effective in addressing the first question about the
536 distributions of rides. A large number of location-frequency and best-ride markers were
537 identified by participants providing not only the location of rides, but the frequency of
538 use, an important planning dimension (Brown & Weber, 2011). The PPGIS distributions
539 showed strong correlation with the GPS tracking results suggesting the validity of the
540 PPGIS method for future use. Cross-validation is an important step to increase
541 confidence in the accuracy of visitor distribution data accrued from mapping procedures
542 (Brown & Weber, 2011). GPS tracking proved an effective tool for this validation

543 purpose and has been commended by others to gather reliable data on actual visitor
544 movements (Hallo et al., 2012; Wolf et al., 2012).

545 Detailed knowledge on visitor distributions is important to monitor potential
546 impacts on the environment or other visitor groups in a sustainable approach to visitor
547 activity management (Leung, 2012) with usage intensity a key parameter for predicting
548 the intensity of impacts (Hammit & Cole, 1998). To establish proactive management
549 plans, Hadwen, Hill, and Pickering (2007) suggest four basic characteristics of visitor
550 distributions: number of visitors, time of visitation, places of visitation, and activities
551 undertaken. The PPGIS methods described herein generated information about time,
552 place, and activities, including the relative popularity of different areas. Although it has
553 not been done, one can imagine the possibility of using PPGIS data that is calibrated
554 with field observations such as through traffic counters to derive estimates of actual
555 track use. PPGIS mapping also enables the overlay of distributions of different visitor
556 groups, where such information is available. For example, the same PPGIS approach was
557 used with horse riders in the study area (see
558 <http://www.landscapemap2.org/nswhorse>).

559 The spatially-explicit reasons for riding specific tracks provided insight into locational
560 features that attract mountain bikers which was influenced by whether the location was
561 inside or outside of parks. Our findings have implications for managing the visitor
562 experience by identifying spatially explicit opportunities that are related to primary
563 motivations for visiting a particular area. When the reasons to ride were considered
564 independent of location, we found that enjoying nature/views/scenery,
565 peace/quiet/solitude, and improving fitness/endurance were considerably more
566 frequently mapped inside parks compared to outside parks. But reasons to ride in a
567 particular location did not necessarily translate into actual rides which may be because
568 of barriers such as limited (legal) access to tracks (suggesting latent demand) or simple
569 convenience in reaching the tracks. Addressing latent demand and diversifying park
570 visitor experiences is important as parks compete with other tourism and recreation
571 service providers such as theme parks, wildlife parks or zoos (Taplin, 2012). However,

572 such management decisions need to account for the demands and values held by
573 different visitor groups and the legal mandate to conserve natural and cultural heritage
574 in parks.

575 PPGIS mapping may also be used to develop marketing strategies that focus on the
576 appropriate qualities of a destination as reflected in the reasons that attract visitors.
577 Marketing strategies require in-depth knowledge of customers' expectations and
578 research can provide the necessary insights to reposition marketing strategies for
579 successful promotion of tourism and recreation areas (Beh & Bruyere, 2007). PPGIS
580 mapping also enables public land managers to harness local expert knowledge to inform
581 visitors, especially first-time visitors, where they can enjoy certain experiences such as
582 the best tracks to view nature or technical rides. Importantly, this information enables
583 public land managers to make informed decisions on where to allocate resources (Beeco
584 & Brown, 2013; Beh & Bruyere, 2007), in this case, to specific tracks or other planning
585 areas.

586 Our second research question sought to identify location-specific actions required to
587 improve mountain biking experiences. A broad range of actions was suggested by
588 mountain bikers. The most common requests were to open up tracks for riding and to
589 add more linkages between tracks, indicating the need to expand riding options by
590 adopting a network-approach to track development. Improving networks through
591 proper linkages to create attractive loops and more riding options was key outcome of
592 this research and offers many advantages over the establishment of new tracks. The
593 PPGIS mapping approach provides multi-scale and cross-tenure analysis which is
594 important to track network planning. Visitor activity planning is best addressed across
595 geographic space, including different land tenures where issues in relation to tracks are
596 interrelated (Brunckhorst, 2008; Fitzsimons & Wescott, 2005).

597 Such planning is particularly important for 'epic rides' that are at least 32 km in
598 length and more than 80% single track (International Mountain Bicycling Association,
599 2014). These were popular amongst our participants. Most examples of epic rides are
600 found in North America but planning is underway to establish an epic mountain bike

601 ride in the Australian Alps (Australian Department of Resources Energy and Tourism,
602 2013), to be recognised by the International Mountain Bicycling Association
603 (International Mountain Bicycling Association, 2014), with potential to boost local
604 economies and attract more visitors, both domestic and international.

605 Acquiring spatial information on mountain biking in Northern Sydney, rather than by
606 parks, did not require additional data collection effort. However, the time required to
607 manage and analyse the data increased. Hence, a PPGIS study covering a larger region
608 would benefit from collaboration among land management agencies. Sharing insights on
609 visitor preferences and needs enables land managers to combine their resources to
610 manage visitors with less (or shared) resources. This efficiency also extends to the
611 promotion of visitor experiences through collaborative marketing, as highlighted by
612 Fyall (2008).

613 **4.2 Evaluation of the methodology**

614 As a relatively recent field of participation and research methods, PPGIS would
615 benefit from increased research effort (Brown, 2012; Brown & Kyttä, 2014). For
616 example, the implications of different modes of PPGIS data collection are not well
617 understood. This study provided a modest contribution to this knowledge gap by
618 implementing a mixed methods approach wherein PPGIS mapping was conducted both
619 online and in the field, and included a partial validation of the spatial data using GPS
620 tracking. We found general consistency between the online and field PPGIS data and the
621 GPS tracking data confirmed the PPGIS mapped popularity of tracks in the region. We
622 have summarised the advantages and disadvantages of the different modes of PPGIS
623 data collection in Table 10 which we will discuss in the following.

624 Increasing the rate of participation in PPGIS processes is a key research need (Brown
625 & Kyttä, 2014). In this study, the PPGIS participation rates recorded in the field were
626 high and volunteer participation from the mobilised online mountain biking community
627 was sufficient to generate enough spatial information for meaningful analyses. In
628 addition, we observed a strong word-of-mouth recommendation for the study via social
629 media platforms and there was considerable positive feedback in the open-ended

630 comments of the survey. These positive results for agency-sponsored research are
631 consistent with those reported in a recent study of public lands in Victoria, Australia,
632 that also involved recruitment through social media and the mobilisation of park user
633 groups (Brown et al., 2014). The extent of participation in this study was encouraging
634 given the general trend for decreasing survey participation rates (Pocewicz et al., 2012).
635 We speculate that the significant interest and participation in our study reflected the
636 high relevance of this topic for participants, but participation rates will be lower for
637 general populations where the topic is less salient. For example, Brown et al. (2014)
638 cautioned that ". . . *digital mapping in internet-based PPGIS is insufficient to overcome*
639 *declining survey response rates across all modes of delivery. Incentives will be needed to*
640 *increase PPGIS participation rates to obtain quality data*". We found this to be true for
641 the GPS tracking component of the study because this was a more time-consuming and
642 demanding task for participants.

643 We examined the results for potential bias associated with mixed PPGIS data
644 collection methods (field vs. online) similar to Olsen (2009) cited in Pocewicz et al.
645 (2012), but found no notable differences in demographics or rider skill levels. This instils
646 confidence that the online communities solicited represented the mountain biker
647 population well. The great majority of Australians use the internet and have access to
648 broadband internet, with rapidly growing uptake (Ewing & Thomas, 2012). In other
649 countries or for specific groups (e.g., older demographics) where internet use is lower,
650 mixed or paper-based methods might capture a more representative sample. A negative
651 age-bias towards adoption of an online survey mode that has been reported elsewhere
652 (Klovning, Sandvik, & Hunskaar, 2009) was unlikely to be an issue for mountain bikers
653 whose demographics tend to be younger. The fact that beginners and advanced and
654 expert riders were represented in similar proportions online and in the field suggests
655 that promoting the survey via dedicated mountain biker forums did not introduce a bias
656 towards the more advance riders. Although beginners are less likely to be members,
657 they source information on rides from specialist forums.

658 There was also no significant difference in the overall number of markers placed per
659 participant between online and field participants. Field sampling appealed to a number
660 of participants who considered themselves to be less computer-literate or those who
661 found it easier to view a hardcopy map of the entire study area. Some participants in
662 the field acknowledged that this was their first time viewing a full map of Northern
663 Sydney which allowed them to recognise specific locations and connections (or lack
664 thereof) between tracks. The field researchers were able to provide an overview of the
665 study area and assist in locating particular tracks if prompted. This more interactive
666 approach can assist with orientation on the map and may result in more reliable spatial
667 data. We believe the interactivity of field sampling likely encouraged people to place
668 more markers that they could discuss with the researchers, although the overall number
669 of markers placed by field participants was similar to online participants. Other PPGIS
670 studies found differences in the number of markers, namely, lower marker numbers
671 being placed online than in the field (Brown, Weber, Zanon, & de Bie, 2012; Pocewicz et
672 al., 2012). One major disadvantage of field sampling was the time-consuming process of
673 data collection and entry as markers and survey responses had to be digitalised.

674 There were research benefits with the GPS tracking study component beyond
675 validation of the PPGIS-mapped data. The GPS data (1) identified networks that
676 mountain bikers use to access tracks and connect between tracks, and (2) provided trip
677 parameters including the covered track distance, trip duration, and velocity. The
678 tracking data can be further examined to identify locations of rides that were not
679 captured in the mapping, for example, along tracks that were unknown to the
680 researchers. We also identified a potential artefact of the PPGIS mapping method:
681 tracks comprising the farther segments of a loop were mapped less frequently than
682 tracks at the beginning of the loop, even though the tracking data showed that most
683 participants completed a full loop. Participants placed markers in the beginning sections
684 of loop rides without repeating them for more distant segments. To mitigate this issue
685 in future studies, loops could be presented in the PPGIS interface as one continuous
686 track without individual sections.

687 In this research, participants used their own tracking devices rather than devices
688 supplied by the researcher (e.g., as in Wolf et al., 2013). This reduced costs and
689 potential loss of equipment, and eliminated the need to deliver the devices or instruct
690 participants on how to use them, apart from general instructions on GPS settings and
691 export options for data files. Thus, tracking is made accessible to anyone owning a
692 tracking device such as a smartphone which are becoming more common. However, a
693 limitation of tracking was the large effort required to sustain participant communication
694 and engagement over an extended period of several weeks. Further, the time needed to
695 collate and analyse the database was extensive. GPS tracking does not directly provide
696 for relating ride locations with reasons, although one can envision a participatory
697 mapping method in the future that provides participants with their own tracks online to
698 allow annotation in a PPGIS system.

699 An alternative to GPS tracking would be to exploit volunteered geographic
700 information (VGI) through online sharing platforms such as Strava or RunKeeper. Social
701 networks used to share movements of various activities are becoming a comprehensive
702 source of data readily available to be exploited in the future (Goodchild, 2007). The
703 distinction between PPGIS and VGI is not well-defined, but one potential distinction is
704 the more purposive sampling and structured data collection process in PPGIS compared
705 to VGI which is more focused on the sharing of spatial information of activities (Beeco &
706 Brown, 2013). For example, VGI could potentially provide insight into the riding habits of
707 different activity groups (Elwood, Goodchild, & Sui, 2012; Kessler, 2011). However, with
708 VGI methods, more investigation is needed on spatial data quality, recording methods,
709 and legal and ethical concerns before this method can be fully integrated into scientific
710 research (Elwood et al., 2012).

711 This study did not fully exploit the potential of the combined PPGIS spatial data and
712 survey data. In the future, the data could be queried to examine how rider skill levels
713 and preferences influence the spatial distributions as a type of market segmentation for
714 mountain bikers. And yet, the basic integrative analysis performed in this study revealed

715 track features preferred by different skill levels, providing results that are especially
716 important for track management.

717 **5 Conclusions and implications for future research**

718 Our public participation GIS approach was effective for engaging park visitors in a
719 complex and spatially explicit park planning process involving multi-scale and cross-
720 tenure analysis. Valuable insights were gained in our study on visitor distributions and
721 needs from spatial data covering a large geographic area with relatively low sampling
722 effort. Participant information from the survey questions complemented the spatial
723 data. Mapping data gathered both online and in the field, combined with tracking data,
724 highlighted the potential benefits of mixed PPGIS delivery modes. In the future, the
725 methods could be extended from mountain bikers to other stakeholder groups such as
726 hikers and conservationists as they are likely to have different expectations of park
727 management, hold different values, and contribute different knowledge and expertise
728 (Brown, Kelly, & Whitall, 2013).

729 The PPGIS process can be modified to address a wider range of park management
730 priorities with mapping markers adapted to different response categories and audiences
731 (Brown et al., 2013). If additional stakeholder groups are involved, further comparisons
732 can be made between their spatial evaluations, for example, between tourists and
733 recreationists, as suggested by Brown and Weber (2011), or to assess the level of
734 stakeholder agreement in place-based management options (Brown, de Bie, & Weber,
735 2015). In our study, a key focus was on identifying motivations for riding on specific
736 tracks in the region. Another valuable research approach, for example, would be
737 examine the general values associated with specific land areas or public land categories
738 (e.g., Brown & Brabyn, 2012; Brown et al., 2014) that influence visitation. This study
739 suggests there are landscape values associated with different national parks that
740 influence the riding experience, but these values were not directly measured.

741 Variations in the spatial scale of the mapping process and in the spatial analysis of
742 the data need to be explored further. This research encompassed a relatively large
743 geographic area. Some of the maintenance icons, for example, were mapped near track

744 heads which can be interpreted as a need for maintenance on the track, but not
745 necessarily near the track head. Some track planning aspects may require a smaller
746 spatial scale, for example, to determine specific track locations where maintenance is
747 needed, where technical features would be beneficial, and where to plan detailed track
748 networks. Brown et al. (2014) found that people experience response fatigue if too
749 many PPGIS mapping options are available. A smaller spatial scale or more specific focus
750 on particular marker types may generate more in-depth data and elicit more
751 annotations on specific markers. However, in many cases, a study with a larger spatial
752 scale is all that land management agencies can afford to undertake. Even with the
753 spatial limitations, our study was able to provide valuable information on place-based
754 user experiences and areas in need of management action.

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Table 2 Characteristics of beginner ($n = 19$), intermediate ($n = 99$), advanced ($n = 247$), and expert ($n = 151$) mountain bikers in Northern Sydney.

	Beginner*	Intermediate*	Advanced*	Expert*			
	%	%	%	%	df	χ^2	P
Age					18	28.9	0.049
14-17	5.3	2.0	0.8	3.3			
18-24	5.3	6.1	2.8	4.0			
25-34	10.5	27.3	19.8	31.1			
35-44	42.1	37.4	42.1	41.1			
45-54	31.6	17.2	23.5	19.2			
55-64	5.3	9.1	8.9	1.3			
65 and plus	0.0	1.0	2.0	0.0			
Gender					3	5.8	0.12
Male	83.3	94.8	94.1	96.6			
Female	16.7	5.2	5.9	3.4			
Mountain Bike Club Member	11.1	12.4	29.4	46.9	3	37	<0.001
Years of riding					12	162.8	<0.001
Less than 1 year	36.8	8.1	0.4	0.0			
1-3 years	47.4	40.4	21.5	9.3			
3-5 years	10.5	8.1	3.2	1.3			
5-10 years	5.3	15.2	24.7	21.9			
More than 10 years	0.0	28.3	50.2	67.5			
Riding in northern Sydney area					9	28.1	<0.001
Never	0	0	0	0			
Ocassionally	47.4	23.2	22.7	11.9			
Regularly	26.3	26.3	17.4	21.2			
Frequently	26.3	48.5	56.3	58.3			
Very often	0.0	2.0	3.6	8.6			
Riding in other parts of NSW					81.2	12	<0.001
Never	31.6	17.5	3.3	0			
Ocassionally	47.4	51.5	49.8	34.4			
Regularly	10.5	22.7	27.2	35.8			
Frequently	10.5	8.2	18.1	26.5			
Very often	0	0	1.6	3.3			
<p>Note: Significant differences in the Pearson's chisquare tests are marked in bold. *Responds to the following question and response categories: How would you describe your skill level? 'Beginner' was pooled across 'Complete beginner' (almost never gone mountain biking) and 'Advanced beginner' (done a little bit of mountain biking); 'Intermediate' = 'Moderately experienced' (am getting into mountain biking); 'Advanced' = 'Have a lot of experience' (done lot's of mountain biking); 'Expert' = 'Very experienced expert rider' (do expert/difficult mountain biking).</p>							

Table 3 Riding preferences of beginner ($n = 19$), intermediate ($n = 99$), advanced ($n = 247$), and expert ($n = 151$) mountain bikers in Northern Sydney.

	Beginner*	Intermediate*	Advanced*	Expert*	df	χ^2	P
	%	%	%	%			
Riding season:							
Spring (September to November)	73.7	91.9	91.9	90.7	3	7.2	0.065
Summer (December to February)	57.9	74.7	80.6	81.5	3	7	0.07
Fall (March to May)	68.4	87.9	92.3	92.1	3	12.9	0.005
Winter (June to August)	63.2	73.7	71.7	79.5	3	4.2	0.239
Riding days:							
Weekdays	21.1	48.5	43.7	51.0	3	7.1	0.07
Saturdays	84.2	65.7	65.6	76.8	3	8.2	0.04
Sundays	73.7	66.7	82.2	78.8	3	10.1	0.02
Riding peak time in Spring/Fall:							
Before 9	36.8	30.3	44.9	41.1	3	6.4	0.09
9am to 2pm	42.1	46.5	32.4	28.5	3	9.7	0.021
After 2pm	31.6	28.3	15.0	23.8	3	10.7	0.014
After sunset	0.0	5.1	9.3	10.6	3	4.3	0.228
Any time	10.5	23.2	31.2	40.4	3	12.5	0.006
Not at all	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	3	26.2	<0.001
Riding peak time in Winter:							
Before 9	31.6	22.1	33.5	31.1	3	4.2	0.24
9am to 2pm	42.1	50.5	40.8	37.1	3	4.5	0.217
After 2pm	21.1	21.1	16.3	20.5	3	1.7	0.646
After sunset	5.3	6.3	9.8	15.2	3	6	0.111
Any time	15.8	22.1	24.1	33.1	3	6.2	0.102
Not at all	10.5	1.1	1.2	0.0	3	16.1	<0.001
Riding peak time in Summer:							
Before 9	47.4	51.6	60.2	57.0	3	2.9	0.407
9am to 2pm	31.6	28.4	21.3	23.2	3	2.6	0.454
After 2pm	15.8	25.3	18.9	26.5	3	4.1	0.245
After sunset	5.3	9.5	13.1	17.9	3	4.9	0.178
Any time	10.5	20.0	21.7	27.8	3	4.4	0.224
Not at all	15.8	2.1	1.2	0.0	3	27.6	<0.001
Reach the track by:							
Northern Sydney Area							
Bike	63.2	48.5	49.2	51.0	3	1.5	0.676
Car	47.4	72.7	73.2	66.2	3	7.2	0.066
Public transport	0.0	7.1	4.1	1.3	3	6.4	0.094
Other parts of NSW							
Bike	5.3	8.2	8.9	10.6	3	0.8	0.837
Car	63.2	76.5	91.1	90.1	3	23.8	<0.001
Public transport	10.5	6.1	10.2	4.0	3	5.7	0.129
Group Type 1							
Alone	42.1	36.4	26.5	24.5	18	59.3	0.001
Partner	10.5	12.1	4.9	5.3			
Family	21.1	39.4	57.1	53.6			
Friends	21.1	8.1	1.6	1.3			
Organised group	0.0	2.0	4.9	10.6			
Work colleagues	5.3	2.0	4.9	4.6			
Group Type 2							
Alone	42.1	36.4	26.5	24.5	3	6.4	0.094
Group	57.9	63.6	73.5	75.5			
Group Size							
1	47.4	35.4	22.0	20.5	12	34.7	0.001
2	31.6	36.4	32.7	21.2			
3	21.1	27.3	40.0	53.6			
4	0.0	3.0	4.5	2.6			
5	0.0	0.0	0.8	2.0			
Riding velocity							
Slow	10.5	3.0	0.4	0.0	6	60.3	<0.001
Moderate	73.7	64.6	50.6	30.5			
Fast	15.8	32.3	49.0	69.5			
Riding disciplines							
Cross Country (combination of single track and fire trail)	68.4	84.8	83.0	75.5	3	6.4	0.095
Cross Country (primarily single track)	26.3	66.7	80.2	86.1	3	42.4	<0.001
Primarily fire trails	42.1	39.4	32.4	23.8	3	8	0.045
All Mountain	21.1	37.4	63.2	74.8	3	48	<0.001
Free Riding	26.3	31.3	42.1	51.7	3	12.3	0.006
Downhill	15.8	19.2	25.9	43.7	3	22.9	<0.001
Dirt Jumping	10.5	8.1	4.9	13.2	3	8.9	0.03
BMX	5.3	2.0	1.6	2.6	3	1.4	0.705
Other	5.3	1.0	1.2	6.6	3	8.9	0.03

Note: Significant differences in the Pearson's chisquare tests are marked in bold. *Responds to the following question and response categories: How would you describe your skill level? 'Beginner' was pooled across 'Complete beginner' (almost never gone mountain biking) and 'Advanced beginner' (done a little bit of mountain biking); 'Intermediate' = 'Moderately experienced' (am getting into mountain biking) 'Advanced' = 'Have a lot of experience' (done lots of mountain biking); 'Expert' = 'Very experienced expert rider' (do expert/difficult mountain biking).

Table 4 Frequency of markers placed by mountain bikers in Northern Sydney.
Mountain bikers

	Marker frequencies	
	<i>n</i>	%
Locations		
Riding less than once per month	1902	16.9
Riding once per month	1531	13.6
Riding 1-4 times per week	1004	8.9
Best ride for less than 2 hours	276	2.5
Best ride for 2-4 hours	175	1.6
Riding 5-7 times per week	133	1.2
Best for night ride	122	1.1
Best ride for more than 4 hours	55	0.5
Reasons		
Improve fitness/endurance	840	7.5
Enjoy nature/views/scenery	450	4.0
Technical Features	435	3.9
Improve riding skills	418	3.7
Convenient/close to home	402	3.6
Challenging slopes	331	2.9
Socialise with family/friends	284	2.5
Excitement	211	1.9
Good track surface/condition	205	1.8
Peace/quiet/solitude	153	1.4
Explore new areas	127	1.1
Other	94	0.8
Action		
Open up for riding	614	5.5
Add linkage between tracks	602	5.3
Track maintenance	281	2.5
Better signage	163	1.4
Better track design	150	1.3
Turn into single use track	78	0.7
Add technical feature	54	0.5
Modify/create single dir. loop	45	0.4
Add other facilities or action	35	0.3
Close track (or section) completely	18	0.2
Provide/increase parking	15	0.1
Conflict with walkers	23	0.2
Conflict with horse riders	18	0.2
Conflict with mountain bikers	12	0.1
Total	11256	100.0

Table 5 Preferences for facilities used by mountain biking in national parks used by beginner (n = 19), intermediate (n = 99), advanced (n = 247), and expert (n = 151) mountain bikers in Northern Sydney.

	Beginner*		Intermediate*		Advanced*		Expert*		df	χ^2 or F	P
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE			
Track/feature preferences:											
Tracks less than 10 km	2.63	0.27	2.72	0.11	2.75	0.08	2.90	0.10	3, 499	0.7	0.52
Tracks between 10 and 20 km	2.89	0.25	3.39	0.10	3.67	0.06	3.84	0.09	3, 507	7.6	<0.001
Tracks greater than 20 km	2.63	0.31	2.95	0.11	3.36	0.07	3.68	0.10	3, 506	10.9	<0.001
Circuit	3.32	0.32	3.18	0.11	3.46	0.07	3.52	0.09	3, 504	2.1	0.093
Variety of tracks	3.05	0.30	3.75	0.10	4.05	0.05	4.36	0.06	3, 505	20.5	<0.001
Single-track	2.95	0.27	3.87	0.10	4.45	0.05	4.60	0.05	3, 508	38.4	<0.001
Up- and downhill	3.00	0.30	3.30	0.10	3.71	0.06	4.07	0.07	3, 506	17.2	<0.001
Flat track sections	2.84	0.28	2.90	0.10	2.80	0.07	2.85	0.09	3, 505	0.2	0.91
Short, steep, challenging slopes	2.42	0.23	3.15	0.11	3.49	0.06	4.03	0.08	3, 505	27.1	<0.001
Long, gentle, moderate slopes	2.74	0.23	3.14	0.10	3.01	0.06	3.17	0.09	3, 504	1.5	0.194
Open and clear	2.26	0.27	2.59	0.11	2.32	0.07	2.08	0.08	3, 504	4.7	0.003
Tight and technical	2.95	0.31	3.25	0.11	3.71	0.06	4.23	0.07	3, 506	25.5	<0.001
River, stream, creek crossing	2.63	0.30	2.54	0.11	2.50	0.07	2.45	0.10	3, 506	0.2	0.887
Logs, rocks	2.63	0.32	2.67	0.11	3.06	0.07	3.80	0.09	3, 506	25.1	<0.001
Jumps	2.53	0.33	2.45	0.12	2.74	0.08	3.35	0.11	3, 506	12.8	<0.001
Curves	3.16	0.33	3.52	0.10	3.91	0.06	4.26	0.07	3, 506	16.5	<0.001
Additional information and facilities:											
Information on track conditions	3.37	0.30	3.47	0.10	3.67	0.06	3.60	0.09	3, 502	1.2	0.304
Safety instructions for the tracks	3.37	0.27	2.72	0.12	2.55	0.07	2.37	0.09	3, 502	5.1	0.002
Signs with maps, distances, difficulties, directions, etc.	3.79	0.28	3.48	0.11	3.32	0.07	3.39	0.09	3, 502	1.5	0.219
Topographic maps	3.21	0.26	2.82	0.11	2.68	0.07	2.69	0.09	3, 502	1.9	0.138
Information on wildlife, plants and cultural heritage	3.00	0.32	2.71	0.11	2.71	0.07	2.75	0.09	3, 501	0.5	0.718
Scenic views, lookouts, water features	3.42	0.28	3.06	0.10	3.00	0.07	3.17	0.08	3, 501	1.7	0.161
Car parks close to track head	3.32	0.24	3.38	0.11	3.19	0.06	3.02	0.09	3, 502	2.6	0.054
Mobile phone reception or emergency phones	2.89	0.26	3.09	0.12	2.81	0.08	2.81	0.10	3, 502	1.5	0.221
Access by public transport	1.74	0.26	2.25	0.13	1.94	0.07	1.86	0.08	3, 501	3.1	0.024
Wheel-washing stations	2.11	0.24	2.09	0.12	1.94	0.07	1.98	0.08	3, 502	0.5	0.642
Toilets	2.53	0.22	2.54	0.12	2.36	0.07	2.30	0.09	3, 502	1.1	0.375
Drinking water	2.84	0.28	3.11	0.13	2.80	0.08	2.93	0.10	3, 502	1.4	0.233
Rubbish bins	2.47	0.27	2.79	0.12	2.68	0.08	2.91	0.11	3, 502	1.4	0.232
Shelters	1.95	0.24	2.25	0.11	2.02	0.07	2.09	0.09	3, 501	1.3	0.282
National Park experiences:											
Mountain biking events	3.32	0.36	3.58	0.14	4.07	0.08	4.31	0.10	3, 501	8.9	<0.001
Long-distance rides	3.00	0.34	3.28	0.14	3.98	0.08	4.03	0.11	3, 501	9.9	<0.001
Multi-day trips	2.74	0.36	2.57	0.14	2.97	0.09	3.18	0.12	3, 501	3.6	0.013
Night riding	2.47	0.37	2.81	0.15	3.40	0.10	3.78	0.12	3, 499	10.8	<0.001
Guided tours/training	3.00	0.36	2.39	0.14	2.49	0.09	2.17	0.10	3, 501	3.1	0.025

Note : 5-point scales (1 = not at all important; 5 = extremely important) were averaged to calculate means and SE. Significant differences in the Pearson's chisquare tests or ANOVAS are marked in bold. *Responds to the following question and response categories: How would you describe your skill level? 'Beginner' was pooled across 'Complete beginner' (almost never gone mountain biking) and 'Advanced beginner' (done a little bit of mountain biking); 'Intermediate' = 'Moderately experienced' (am getting into mountain biking); 'Advanced' = 'Have a lot of experience' (done lot's of mountain biking); 'Expert' = 'Very experienced expert rider' (do expert/difficult mountain biking).

Table 6 Row-percentages of location-frequencies and best mountain bike rides compared between inside and outside national parks in Northern Sydney. 'Both' indicates markers placed along tracks that are partially located inside and outside of parks.

	all	both	outside	park
	<i>n</i>	%	%	%
Locations				
Riding 5-7 times per week	133	6.8	54.9	38.3
Riding 1-4 times per week	1005	8.1	50.1	41.8
Riding once per month	1532	11.7	45.4	42.9
Riding less than once per month	1902	12.5	39.1	48.4
Best ride for less than 2 hours	276	4.7	67.4	27.9
Best ride for 2-4 hours	175	8.0	56.0	36.0
Best ride for more than 4 hours	55	18.2	25.5	56.4
Best for night ride	122	10.7	45.9	43.4
<i>Note</i> : Cells containing the greatest row percentage are presented in bold fonts.				

Table 7 Column-percentages of reasons for mountain biking within and outside national parks in Northern Sydney. 'Both' indicates markers placed along tracks that are partially located inside and outside of parks.

	both		outside		park	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Reasons						
Enjoy nature/views/scenery	35	10.9	<i>161</i>	7.8	<u>254</u>	16.4
Socialise with family/friends	20	6.2	156	7.5	108	7.0
Explore new areas	12	3.7	57	2.7	58	3.7
Peace/quiet/solitude	13	4.0	<i>43</i>	2.1	<u>97</u>	6.2
Convenient/close to home	26	8.1	202	9.7	174	11.2
Improve riding skills	30	9.3	<u>319</u>	15.4	69	4.4
Improve fitness/endurance	<u>95</u>	29.5	322	15.5	<u>423</u>	27.2
Excitement	12	3.7	<u>157</u>	7.6	42	2.7
Challenging slopes	<u>45</u>	14.0	161	7.8	125	8.0
Technical Features	21	6.5	<u>326</u>	15.7	88	5.7
Good track surface/condition	7	2.2	116	5.6	82	5.3
Other	6	1.9	55	2.7	33	2.1

Note: Cells with bold and underlined fonts indicate significantly larger and cells with italic fonts significantly smaller than expected contributions to the overall chi-square (standardized residuals >1.96 or <-1.96). Cells containing the top three most frequently marked actions for each planning area are presented in bold fonts. $\chi^2_{(22)} = 424.0$, $P < 0.001$.

Table 8 Generalised Linear Model effects of reasons to ride on the popularity of specific tracks mapped by mountain bikers inside or outside of national parks in Northern Sydney.

	Tracks to ride	
	outside	park
	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>
Reasons		
Enjoy nature/views/scenery	0.322	0.381
Socialise with family/friends	0.323	0.167
Explore new areas	0.616	0.617
Peace/quiet/solitude	0.965	0.744
Convenient/close to home	0.517	0.245
Improve riding skills	0.492	0.038
Improve fitness/endurance	0.015	0.028
Excitement	0.040	0.049
Challenging slopes	0.042	0.463
Technical Features	0.044	0.060
Good track surface/condition	0.131	0.039
Other	0.434	0.090
<i>Note: p < 0.05 is marked in bold.</i>		

Table 9 Column-percentages of actions to be addressed for mountain biking within and outside national parks in Northern Sydney. 'Both' indicates markers placed along tracks that are partially located inside and outside of parks.

	both		outside		park	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Action*						
Track maintenance	23	12.0	<u>185</u>	20.4	73	7.6
Better track design	19	9.9	<u>85</u>	9.4	46	4.8
Add linkage between tracks	54	28.3	<i>205</i>	22.7	<u>343</u>	35.8
Open up for riding	57	29.8	<i>197</i>	21.8	<u>360</u>	37.5
Turn into single use track	<u>14</u>	7.3	39	4.3	25	2.6
Close track (or section) completely	0	0.0	11	1.2	7	0.7
Modify/create single dir. loop	0	0.0	23	2.5	22	2.3
Add technical feature	8	4.2	31	3.4	15	1.6
Better signage	13	6.8	<u>96</u>	10.6	54	5.6
Provide/increase parking	1	0.5	10	1.1	4	0.4
Add other facilities or action	2	1.0	<u>23</u>	2.5	10	1.0

Note: Cells with bold and underlined fonts indicate significantly larger and cells with italic fonts significantly smaller than expected contributions to the overall chi-square (standardized residuals >1.96 or <-1.96). Cells containing the top three most frequently marked actions for each planning area are presented in bold fonts. $\chi^2_{(20)} = 189.2, P < 0.001$.

Table 10 Advantages and disadvantages of different modes of PPGIS data collection.

	GPS tracking	PPGIS mapping - online	PPGIS mapping - field
Sampling efficiency	Intermediate Considerably fewer people agreed to participate given the time commitment, hardware requirements, technical knowledge. Sampling needs to be undertaken over an extended time period.	Great We achieved high sample sizes, higher than for traditional questionnaire-based surveys undertaken. The innovative form of data collection appealed to participants and word-of mouth recommendation was strong.	Low Field-data collection was very time-consuming for researchers. However participation rates were high as participants appreciated interaction with researchers.
Time commitment	High Requires participants to commit for an extended time period, on-going communication with researcher, equipment and data handling.	Intermediate Requires a one-off commitment. Online mapping can be time-consuming.	Low Requires a one-off commitment Field mapping is less time-consuming for participants.
Hardware	Personal GPS tracking application or device, computer/internet. Considerably more investment and effort is required if the researcher needs to supply/collect the GPS tracking equipment.	Computer/internet	None
Technical knowledge	Some For data import and sharing.	Little For using the internet.	None
Audience	Those with technical knowledge/access.	Those with technical knowledge/access.	Everybody - consequently field samples might be more representative. However in the present study there were virtually no differences between online and field participant characteristics.
Representativeness of data	Captures actual rides. Can be used to validate PPGIS mapping results.	Captures stated rides. Potential for sampling artefacts (e.g., more mapping of the beginning of tracks).	Captures stated rides. Potential for sampling artefacts although less so than with PPGIS mapping - online as participants can query the researcher.
Spatio-temporal data coverage	Collection of in-depth spatio-temporal data of complete rides (networks). However data are restricted to rides undertaken during sampling period. In-depth information on trip parameters (distance, duration, velocity, breaks).	Collection of point data that need to be 'linked manually' to whole tracks. No information on whole networks. No information on temporal distribution of rides or trip statistics except frequency of rides. Markers could however be created to for instance determine during what time of the day/week people ride along specific tracks. An advantage compared to GPS tracking is that data are independent of the sampling period so the overall coverage ('where do people ride in general') is more extensive.	Same as for PPGIS mapping - online. However the interaction with the researcher and viewing of a hardcopy map of the entire study area can facilitate correct placement of markers.
Data processing	High to very high. Time-consuming data management and preparation due to very large datasets. Effort depends on the depth of the analysis, which can be very complex.	Same as for GPS tracking. However much less data are collected as they consist of singular points rather than point sequences.	Same as for PPGIS mapping - online. However data also need to be digitalised which is time-consuming and introduces potential for errors.
Marker quantity and quality	N/A	In the present study there were no significant differences in the number of markers placed. However other studies found less markers were placed online compared to field sampling.	Certain marker categories (reasons, actions vs. locations) were more commonly mapped in the field likely because participants were interested to discuss these markers with the researchers.

Fig. 1. Study area in Northern Sydney, New South Wales, Australia.

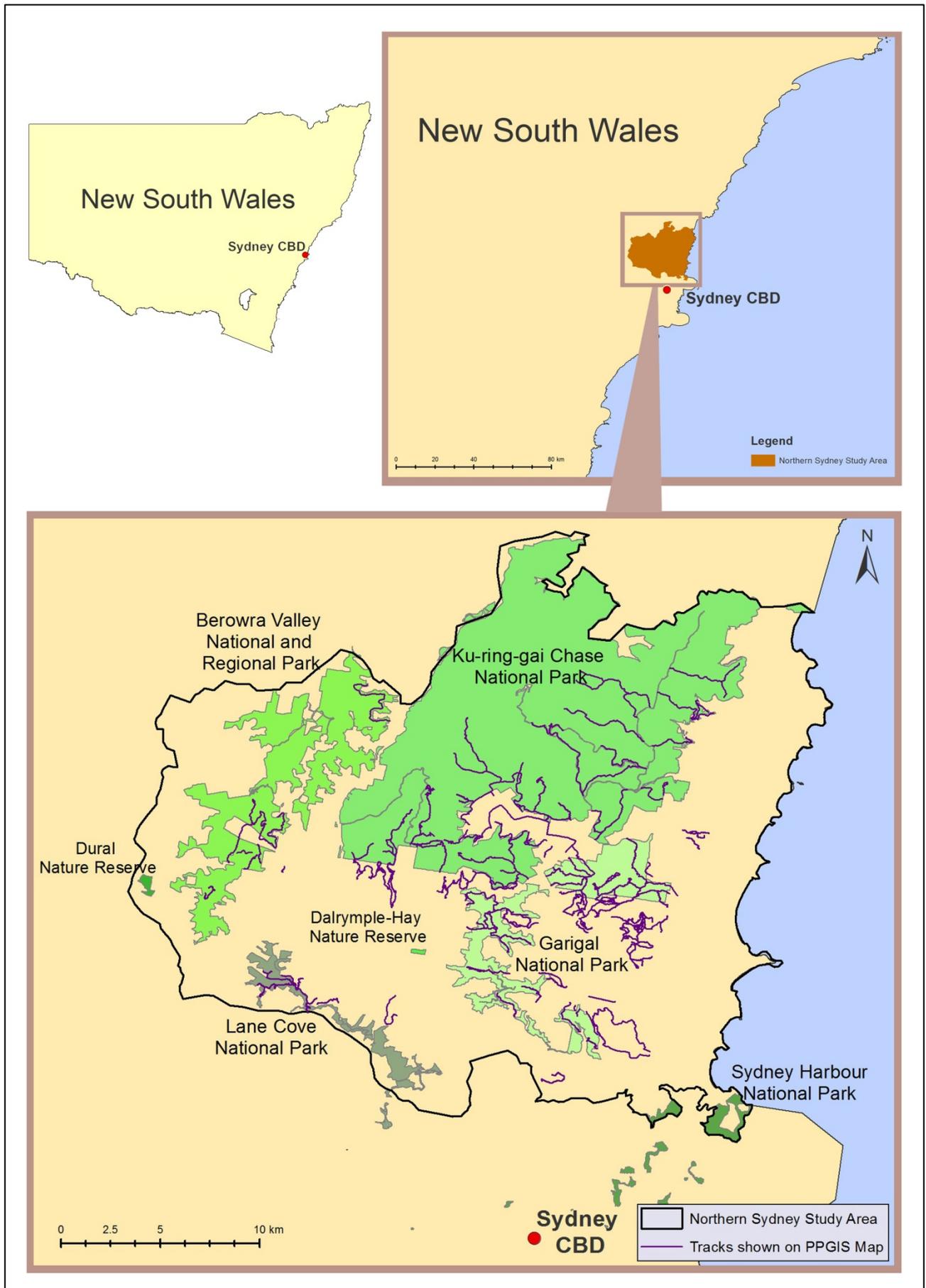


Fig. 2. PPGIS markers presented to mountain bikers to indicate (a) locations, (b) reasons for riding, and (c) actions to improve riding in Northern Sydney. (d) shows an example of annotations to explain marker symbols.

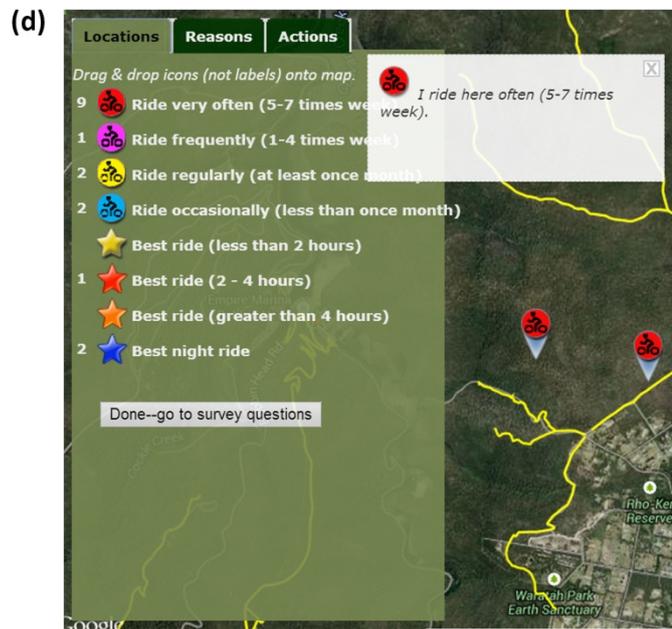
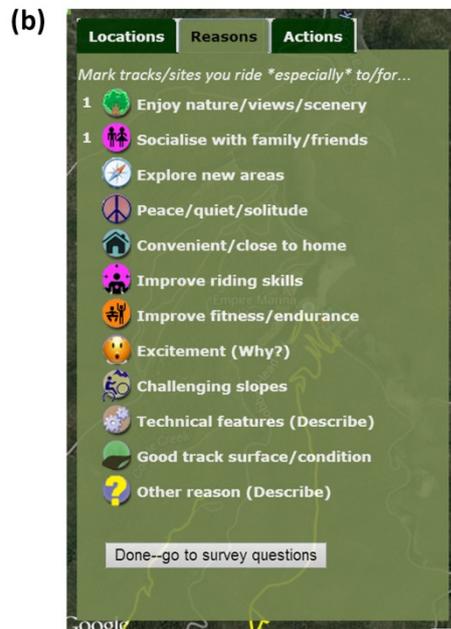
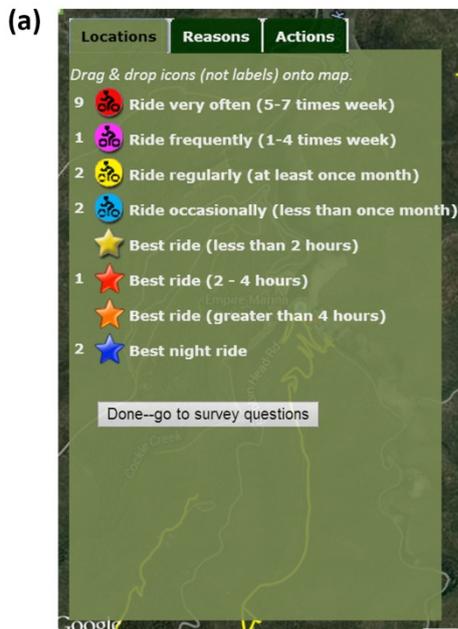


Fig. 3. (a) Popularity of tracks, as indicated by location markers, frequented by mountain bikers in Northern Sydney, and (b) an example for the distribution of an individual marker category (track maintenance), and (c) markers placed along tracks not shown on the map during the sampling.

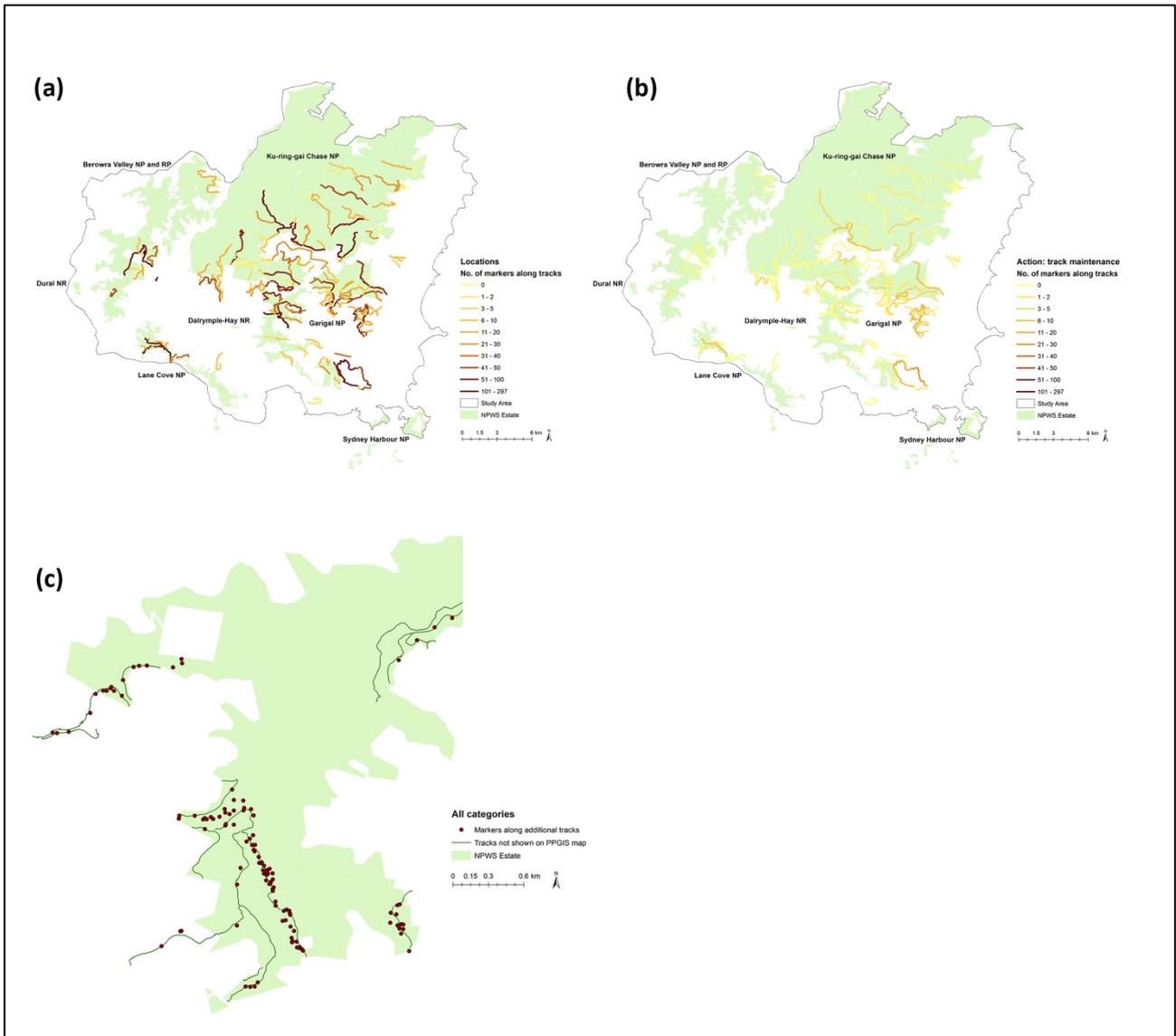


Fig. 4. Raster ('hotspot') maps of track linkages proposed by mountain bikers for Northern Sydney.

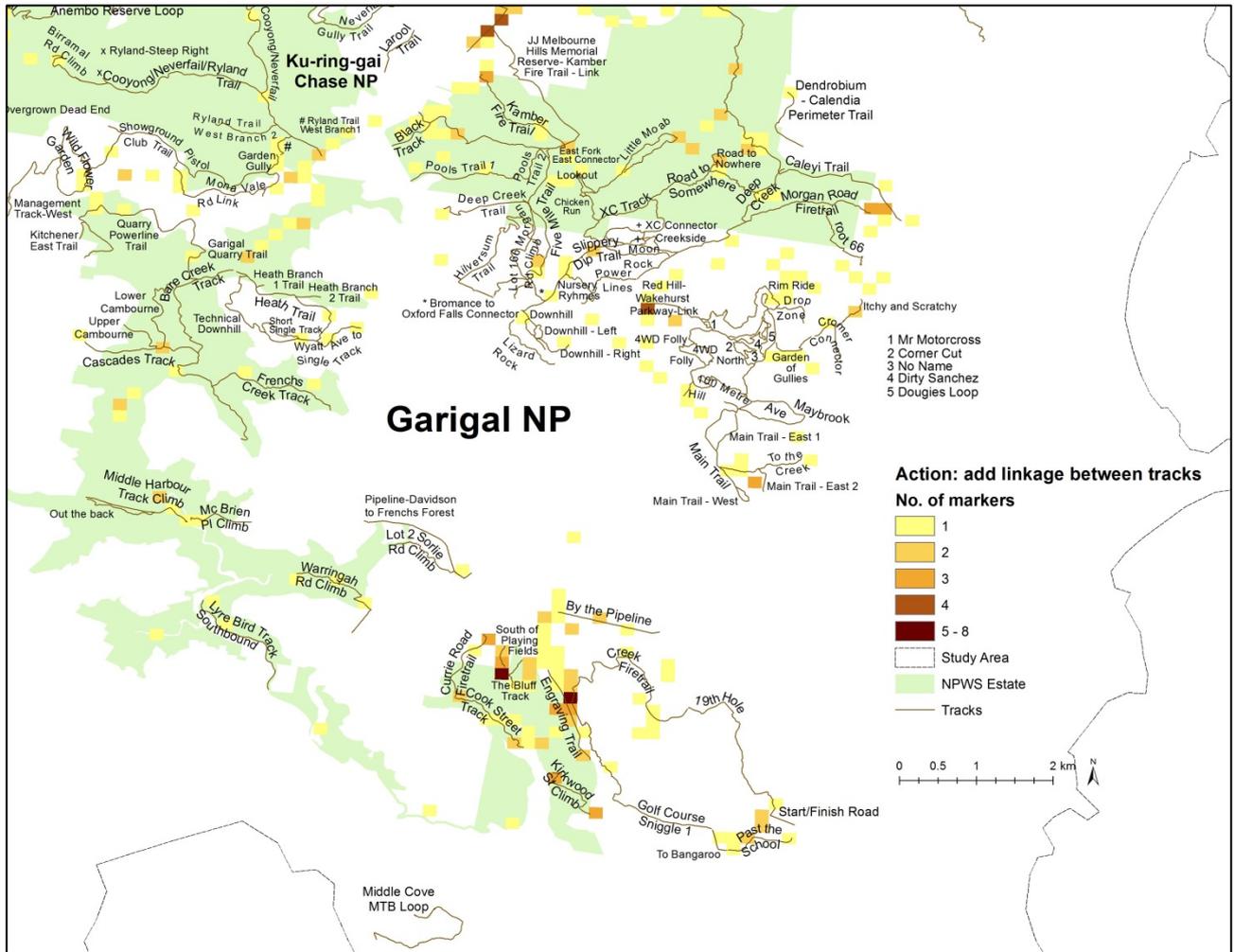


Fig. 5. (a) PPGIS mapping markers vs. GPS track networks and (b) tracked favourite rides of mountain bikers in Northern Sydney.

