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Wildlife occupancy and trail use before and after a park opens to the public

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We investigated changes in wildlife trail use and occupancy from baseline conditions after a park opened to the public; we were curious if wildlife would alter either their use of the trails or the surrounding areas or both in response to the park opening. We generated single-season occupancy estimates as a site-wide occupancy metric from 23 camera traps placed at 0.5 km intervals throughout the park and wildlife and human detection rates to measure intensity of trail use from 10 camera traps placed every 500 m on the trail. We compared the findings from the four seasons before to the four seasons after the park opened to the public. Human trail use increased sharply after opening and then lessened, but was markedly higher than prior to opening. Bobcat (*Lynx rufus*), coyote (*Canis latrans*) and gray fox (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*) did not alter trail use relative to study area occupancy. Two species, black-tailed deer (*Odocoileus hemionus*) and gray squirrel (*Sciurus griseus*) altered trail use, and puma (*Puma concolor*) and wild turkey (*Meleagris gallopavo*) altered both trail and study area use. All species, except for the raccoon (*Procyon lotor*) and wild turkey, recovered to pre-opening conditions, by the winter (that is, after approximately 9 months) following opening.

Key words: camera trapping, occupancy, open space, recreational impacts, trail use

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Protected open space is considered important for conserving wildlife and providing public recreational opportunities in the San Francisco Bay Area. Recreation is often supported by concomitant trails and infrastructure, that is, that existing trails and fire roads are used by the public and, in turn, additional infrastructure is required to facilitate access. To conserve wildlife effectively, it is important to understand how wildlife may be affected by human use of the landscape even when those uses appear benign. Wildlife often share the use of trails with humans, their dogs, cyclists, motorized vehicles, and equestrians, while also preferentially using roads and trails for movement (Whittington et al. 2005). The extent to which non-motorized recreational human uses impact wildlife that rely upon open space (for breeding, movement, foraging, etc.) is the subject of this study. Wildlife may be disturbed by human presence on trails and, as a result, vacate the surrounding landscape despite the landscape's capacity to support them. An alternate scenario may be that wildlife avoid or reduce trail use (that humans are using) but remain resident in the surrounding landscape in response to human trail use.

Wildlife can be both negatively or positively associated with human presence and zones of urbanization. Recreation has been shown to have behavioral impacts on wildlife, such as reduced feeding times (Cassirer et al. 1992), detrimental stress responses (Barja et al. 2011), reduced temporal occupancy (Wang et al. 2015), but also the reverse (Ordeñana et al. 2010; see also Reilly et al. 2016 for a review of the literature). With pressure on open space providers to accommodate human recreation and increase accessibility, understanding how access and intensity of human use affects wildlife provides essential information towards making decisions that effectively balance wildlife conservation with human interests.

We examined how public presence may affect wildlife trail use and occupancy in the surrounding landscape in the North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve (hereafter, "Park/Preserve") in southeastern Sonoma County, California. A camera trapping array (grid) encompassed the Park/Preserve to assess changes in single season occupancy estimates (that is, we use occupancy as an index of prevalence or a surrogate of abundance in the study area; O'Brien et al. 2010; Royle and Nichols 2003; MacKenzie and Nichols 2004; MacKenzie et al. 2006; but see Burton et al. 2015 and Steenweg et al. 2018, 2019 for cautionary discussions). Additional cameras were placed on the trail to assess wildlife and human use (that is, through detection rates as a measure of intensity of use); trail construction had been completed by the time the study began.

Below we outline the key hypotheses to address the following question: How does human trail use affect wildlife trail use and occupancy in the study area?

$H_{\o}$: Wildlife did not change their use of trails or residency (abundance) within the Park/Preserve after it is opened to the public. Wildlife occupancy estimates (abundance) from the grid and the trail detection rates do not change after the Park/Preserve opens to the public.

H_1: Wildlife use trails less but are still resident within the study area after the Park/Preserve is open to the public. Wildlife trail detection rates decrease after human trail use increases but occupancy estimates (abundance or residency) does not change in study area after the Park/Preserve opens.

H_2: Wildlife reduce trail use and vacate the study area after the Park/Preserve is open to the public. Both wildlife trail detection rates and site-wide occupancy decrease within the Park/Preserve after it opens to the public.

H_3: Certain types of wildlife (e.g., carnivores or ungulates) may be differentially affected by the presence of humans. With regard to trail and Park/Preserve use, see H1 and H2.

H_4: Wildlife resume a similar intensity of trail use and abundance within the study area after a period of time post-opening compared to pre-opening measures (latency to habituation). Wildlife trail detection rates decrease initially after opening, but then return to the pre-opening levels after a period of time. If wildlife do leave the study area for a period of time (lower abundance), these measures (trail detection rates and occupancy estimates) will both decrease initially after Park/Preserve opening but then recover to pre-opening levels.

METHODS

Study area

The 3.4 km^2 study area, North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve (Park/Preserve; 38.3235 N, 122.5756 W, parks.sonomacounty.ca.gov/Visit/North-Sonoma-Mountain-Regional-Park/Park-Map/) is located in Sonoma County, California, USA (Figure 1). Sonoma County Agricultural Preservation and Open Space District (SCAPOSD) acquired the property and built the 5.95 km trail that ranges in elevation from 244 m to 750 m between June 2010 to September 2012. The Park/Preserve was then transferred to Sonoma County Parks in 2014 and opened to the public on 14 February 2015. Cattle grazing occurred before and during the study in portions of the site that supported grasslands; the site had no exclusionary fencing dividing up the site.

This area is subject to a Mediterranean climate characterized by wet, cool winters and dry, hot summers. Habitats included non-native grasslands (warm grasslands), oak-bay woodland (montane hardwood), redwood forest, mixed forest with madrone (montane hardwoods), and remnants of coast live oak forest/woodland and California bay forest (Biodiversity Portfolio Report, https://www.bayarealands.org/explorer/#, Conservation Lands Network Explorer 2016, 1 December 2016; Bay Area Open Space Council 2011). Matanzas and South Fork Matanzas creeks run through the study area. The topography is characterized by the steep hillsides of Sonoma Mountain. The surrounding land use matrix is composed of low-density rural development, protected open space, vineyards, and grazed grasslands.

Study design

A north-south grid of 23 motion and heat-differential triggered camera traps, HCO SG550V IR Scouting Cameras [and replacement Bushnell Trophy Cams (model#119636c)] were set in a randomly-generated fixed array at 0.5 km intervals covering the entire Park/Preserve ("grid cameras"). We adjusted six camera coordinates by less than 200 m to fit within the study area prior to going in the field (see yellow circles on Figure 1). Species-specific single-season occupancy estimates were generated for four seasons before and after the Park/Preserve opened to the public (see Table 1). We placed ten additional cameras at 500 m intervals along the trail ("trail cameras"; Figure 1). We calculated seasonal trail detection rates (detections per 100 trap nights) as a measure of intensity of wildlife and human use for four seasons before and after the Park/Preserve was opened to the public (see Appendix I for a list of human use categories).

Camera trapping methodology.—We followed a camera trapping and data management protocol, which is a modified version from TEAM Network 2009 and O'Brien 2010. Grid cameras were uniquely identified by line letter and number (e.g., A1, A2, A3, etc.; Figure 1). We placed camera traps within 100 m of the pre-determined coordinate during field deployment. Camera traps were attached to a wooden stake or tree with a nylon strap. Camera height was standardized to detect a mammal approximately gray fox size at a distance of 2 m at a perpendicular angle. Eight of the ten trail cameras were mounted on trees, and, after the Park/Preserve opened, were outfitted with security boxes to prevent theft. We recorded location (GPS coordinates), habitat within which the camera was placed (open, closed, or mixed), and elevation during deployment. Habitat (vegetative structure) included just three

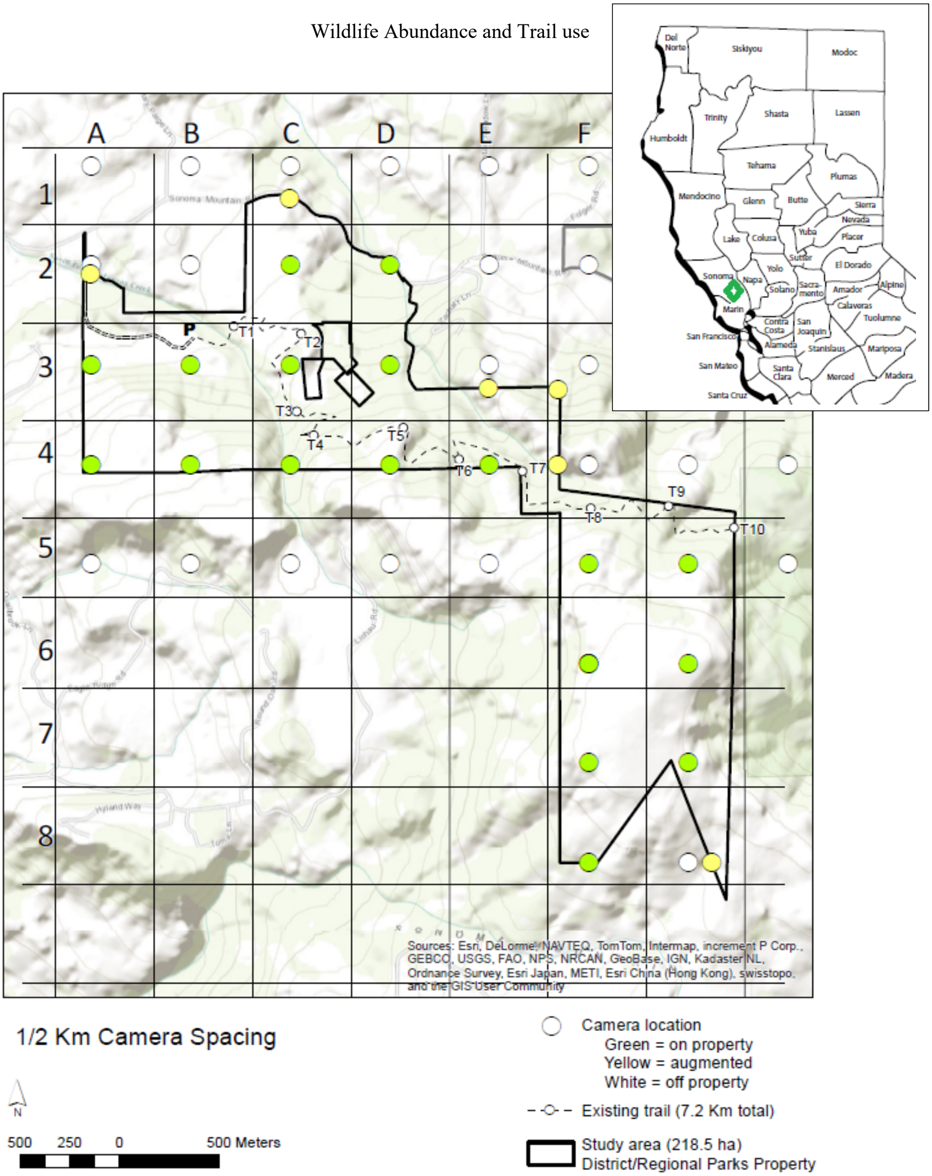


Figure 1. Camera layout for grid (yellow and green circles) and trail cameras (T1-T10) with study area location (green diamond in inset map of California counties); North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA, 2014–2016.

Table 1. Seasons before and after park opening, beginning and end dates for seasonal analysis, and effort (trapnights) for trail (n = 10) and grid (n = 23) camera arrays in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA, 2014-2016.

Before or after opening Park/Preserve	Season	Begin and end dates	Trail trapnights	Grid trapnights
Before	Spring	1 March–30 May 2014	591	1,251
Before	Summer	1 June–31 August 2014	601	1,266
Before	Fall	1 September–31 November 2014	656	1,508
Before	Winter	1 December 2014–13 February 2015	606	1,106
Opening		*14 February 2015*		
After	Spring	1 March–30 May 2015	245	1,019
After	Summer	1 June–31 August 2015	16	701
After	Fall	1 September–31 November 2015	540	1,200
After	Winter	1 December 2015−15 January 2016	146	587

categories: closed (closed canopy), mixed (mixture of open and some overhead canopy such as oak woodland intergrading with grassland or chaparral), and open (no overhead canopy usually grassland). All cameras were set to take three images per trigger (event), a five second interval between events, 6 MP image size, high sensitivity level, and time stamp "ON." We adjusted image size and sensitivity as needed to match field conditions and improve data collection.

To verify camera station functioning during set up and maintenance, we took photographs of whiteboards with date, camera station identification, region, and subregion. We maintained camera stations regularly for proper functioning. We downloaded images from SD cards into a Windows Explorer embedded file system; EXIF image data was exported using PIE software (Picmeta v.6.75, www.picmeta.com/) into .csv files. We (authors and C. Lafayette) catalogued images to species or highest taxonomic order attainable; one of the authors (SET) vetted for accuracy during data preparation. Birds and other non-mammalian taxa were not identified to species nor included in the analysis. We categorized humans into several categories including pedestrian, cyclist, or equestrian (see full list in Appendix I). Unidentifiable images ("unknowns") and blanks were recorded as such.

Statistical analyses

We prepared a species detected list for the study area and trail compiled from before and after the Park/Preserve opened (Appendix I). We calculated single-season occupancy estimates from the camera grid and trail detection rates (detections per 100 trapnights) for terrestrial mammals (squirrel-size and larger) and wild turkeys (*Meleagris gallopavo*) from the cameras placed on trails (only). Trail cameras were not used in calculating occupancy estimates.

We calculated camera trap days ("trapnights") as the number of 24-hour periods (0000 to 2359) that the camera trap was functioning for each season [spring (March-May), summer (June-August), fall (September-November), and winter (December-February)]. We aggregated trapnights by grid and trail (Table 1) and compiled detection histories for grid cameras.

We recorded detections as the maximum number of individuals for each species in an image in a burst of three (an "event"), which are taken when the camera trap was triggered by movement and/or heat differential. For example, in a burst of three images, one image recorded two deer, in the next, three deer and in the final image, a deer; 3 deer would be recorded for that detection (maximum number of individuals in an image detected during one event).

Occupancy Analysis.—An occupancy estimate (ψ) for each species detected for the season was obtained using the program PRESENCE (v3.2, www.mbr-pwrc.usgs.gov/software/presence.html; Hines 2016). We used single-season occupancy models to estimate initial occupancy estimates (ψ) and detection probabilities (ρ) for each species (Mackenzie et al. 2003). Occupancy models account for imperfect detection and provide unbiased estimates of occupancy. To apply these models, detection histories were compiled for each species at each camera station as a series of ones (detection) and zeroes (non-detection). Each day (24-hour period commencing at 0000) the camera station was up was considered a (re)survey. Each day the camera station was "down" or not functioning was treated as a missing value.

Two pre-defined models were run, and the model with lowest delta Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) was used to estimate probability of detection and occupancy (Hines 2016) . The first model assumes the same occupancy probability for all camera station locations and that detection probability (ρ) was constant across both camera station location and survey occasions (i.e., two parameters). The second model assumes that all camera station locations have the same probability of occupancy (ψ), but that ρ varies between the surveys—although at each survey occasion, ρ is the same at each camera station location. The software PRESENCE uses AIC to rank models (Burnham and Anderson 2002), which relies on rules of parsimony. In this case, twice the log-likelihood values at the maximum likelihood estimates were used to calculate the AIC values in model weighting.

Comparison of seasonal occupancy estimates and detection rates.— Single-season occupancy values were compared from the season before to the season after and plotted in a seasonal time series to compare to trail detection rates relative to occupancy estimates. We added linear trend lines in several time series figures to show trend from the first season (spring 2014) to the last season of the study (winter 2015-2016).

RESULTS

We set up camera traps during February 2014 and maintained them regularly until the study ended in mid-January 2016. Camera placement elevation ranged from 252 to 737 m in closed, open, and mixed habitat. Of the 23 grid cameras, four (17%) were set in closed habitat, four (17%) in mixed, and 15 (65%) in open habitat; of the 10 trail cameras, five (50%) were in closed habitat, two (20%) in mixed, and three (30%) in open habitat. The trail was located largely within closed habitat. The Park/Preserve was open (warm grasslands, 50%) with remainder mixed and closed (41.8% montane hardwoods and 6% redwood forest; Biodiversity Report, www.bayarealands.org/explorer/#, Conservation Lands Network Explorer 2016).

The composition of the wildlife community changed little from before and after the Park/Preserve opened (Appendix I). Common and expected species including large and medium-sized carnivores were detected; a California Species of Special Concern, the American badger (*Taxidea taxus*), was detected within the study area after the Park/Preserve was opened. Several rare and data-deficient species that may occur in this region were not detected [e.g., the western spotted skunk (*Spilogale gracilis*), ringtail (*Bassariscus astutus*), porcupine (*Erethizon dorsatum*), and black bear (*Ursus americanus*)].

Seasonal analysis and effort

We generated seasonal Park/Preserve occupancy estimates and trail detection rates for eight seasons (four seasons before and after, Table 1). Trail camera trap nights averaged 425 (range = 16–656) per season. Grid trapnights averaged 1,080 (range = 587–1,508) per season. Seasonal trapping effort varied due to stolen (and replaced) camera traps, data loss due to theft of SD cards, and increased trail use filling up the SD cards with images.

Before and after seasonal comparison of occupancy estimates

Five wildlife species exhibited changes in occupancy estimates in the first season after the park opened; opossum increased (*Didelphis virginianus)* and raccoon (*Procyon lotor*), striped skunk (*Mephitis mephitis*), coyote (*Canis latrans*), and puma (*Puma concolor*) declined (Figure 2a) in the spring post-opening. Seven wildlife species exhibited changes in summer occupancy estimates; five decreased: striped skunk, gray fox (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*), coyote, puma, and wild turkey (*Meleagris gallopavo*), and two increased [opossum and bobcat (*Lynx rufus*), Figure 2b] in the summer post-opening. Four wildlife species exhibited changes in occupancy estimates in the fall following opening; three decreased (gray fox, puma, and wild turkey) and one increased (opossum; Figure 2c). Only one wildlife species, raccoon, exhibited changes (increased) in occupancy estimates in the winter post-opening (Figure 2d).

Trail use

Even though the trail was not officially open to the public, some pre-opening trail use by "humans" (pedestrians, staff and trail crew) as well as their dogs and cyclists was observed in consistently low numbers (Figures 3a-c). The Park/Preserve did not allow dogs, and dog detection rates remained low throughout the study period (Figure 3c). Human trail detection rates increased dramatically immediately after the park opened; 4,393 detections per 100 trap nights (spring 2015) from 148 the season prior to opening (winter 2014–15, Figure 3a). Cyclists increased from an average of 53 (range 4–64) pre-opening to 228 (range 77–338) post-opening. Aggregated wildlife trail detection rates decreased after Park/Preserve opening (Figure 3d).

Comparing Wildlife Occupany in the Park/Preserve and on the Trail

We compared wildlife species' intensity of trail use (trail detection rates) with occupancy estimates seasonally before and after park opening.

Black-tailed deer. —Black-tailed deer occupancy increased post-opening (Figure 4a) and trail use decreased for two seasons then returned to pre-opening levels (see Figure 4b).

Gray squirrel.— Gray squirrel occupancy was stable both before and after the Park/ Preserve opened to the public (Figure 4a). Gray squirrels decreased trail use post-opening summer, fall and winter from pre-opening levels (Figure 4c).

Striped Skunk.— Occupancy of striped skunks decreased (slightly) post-opening

Wildlife abundance and trail use

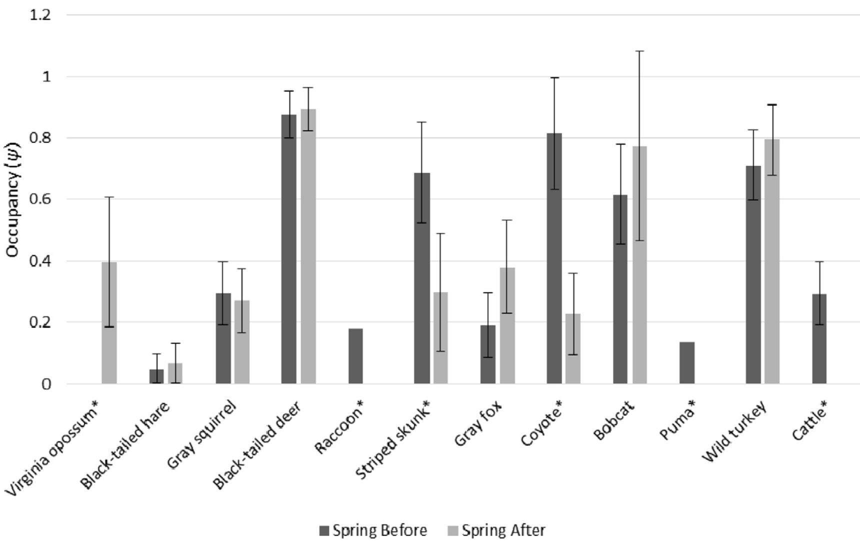


Figure 2a.

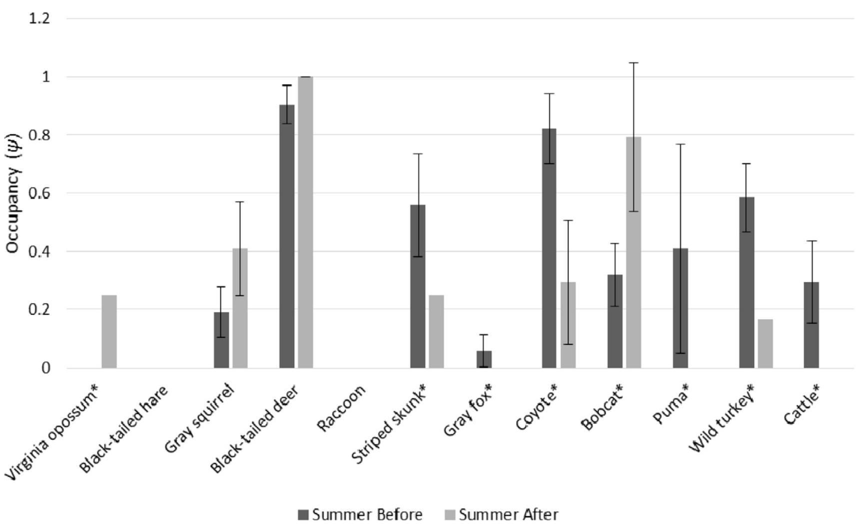


Figure 2b.

Figure 2a-d. Single-season occupancy estimates (error bars = ±SE) for wildlife species (* = difference noted between before and after occupancy estimates) in the a) spring before (2014) and after (2015), b) summer before (2014) and after (2015), c) fall before (2014) and after (2015), and d) winter before (2014_15) and after (2015_16) in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA.

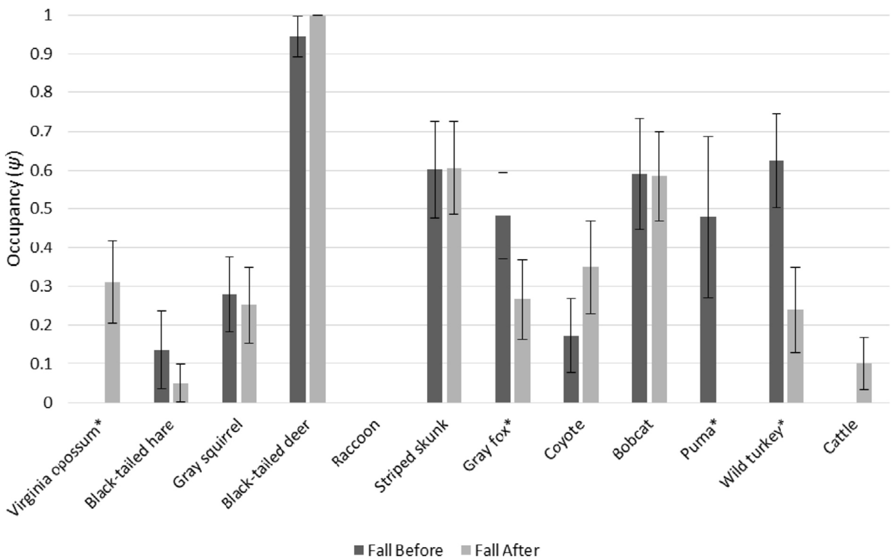


Figure 2c.

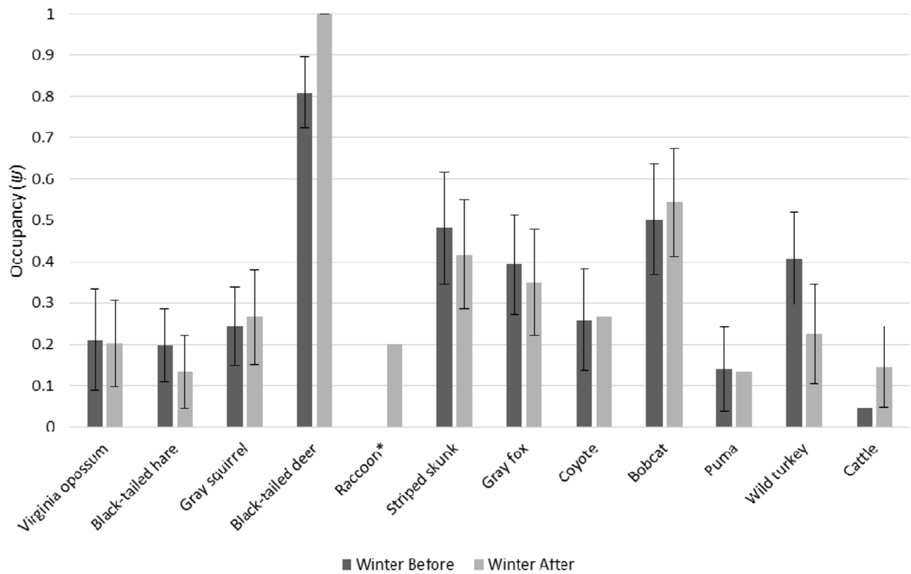


Figure 2d.

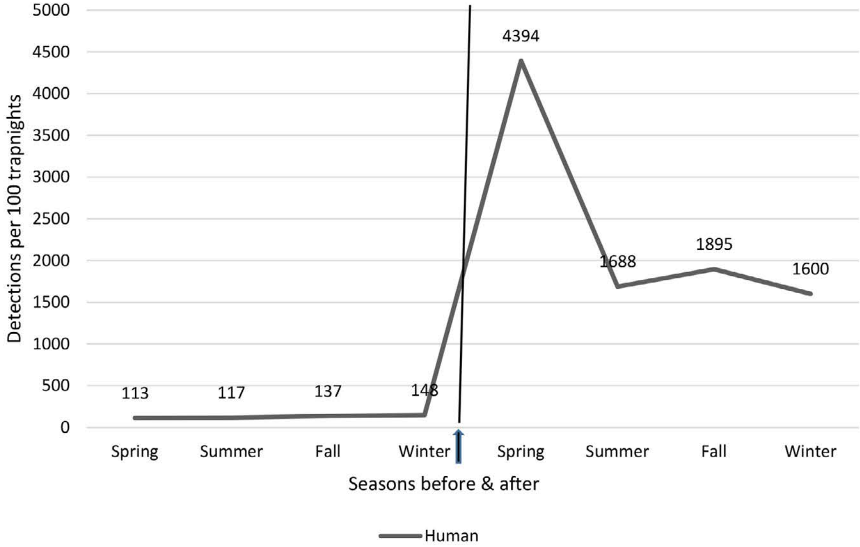


Figure 3a.

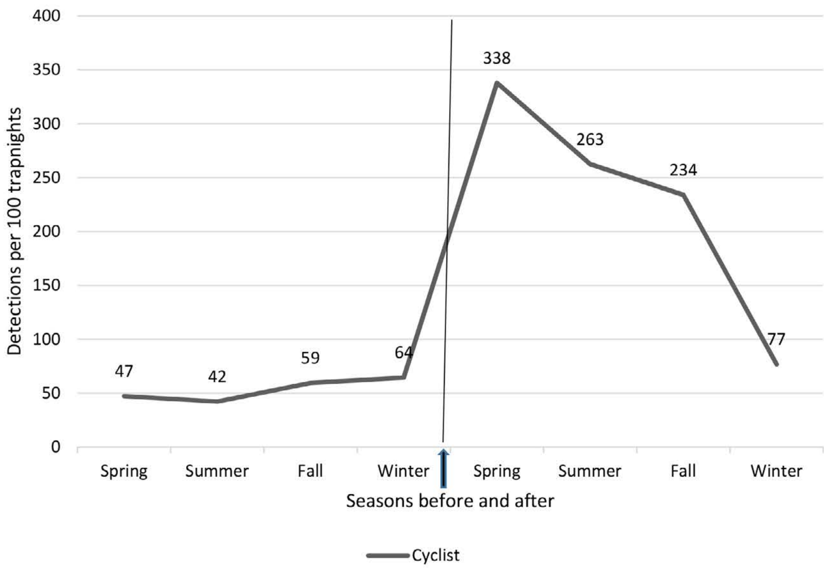
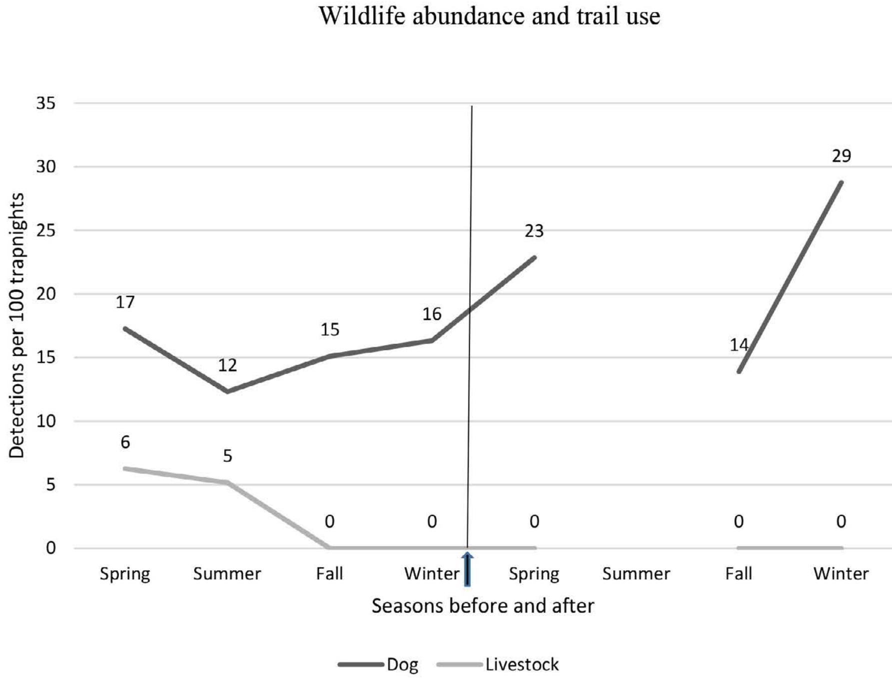


Figure 3b.

Figure 3a-d. Seasonal trail detections rates (detections per 100 trapnights) for before (spring 2014-winter 2015) and after (spring 2015-winter 2016) park opening (vertical line and arrow indicating 14 February 2015) for a) humans (non-cyclists), b) cyclists, c) domestic dog and livestock, and d) wildlife (linear = linear trend line) in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA.



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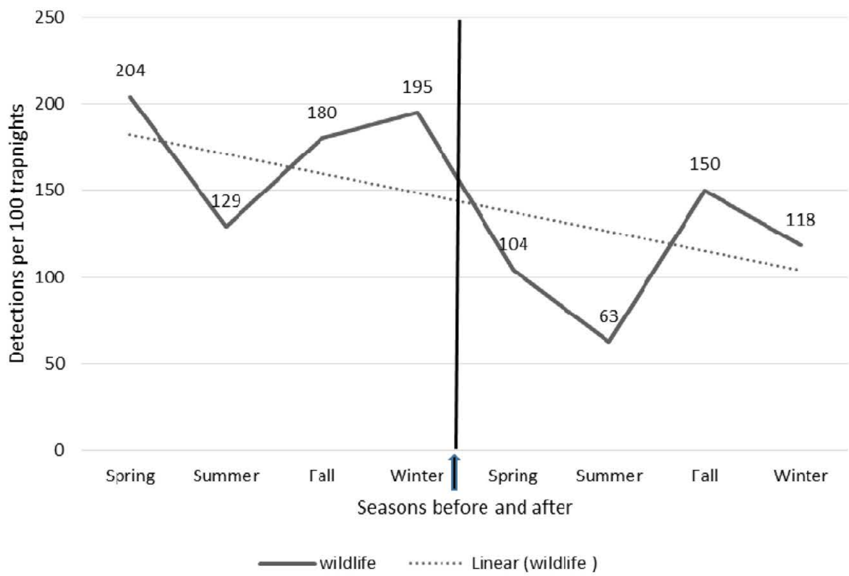

Figure 3d.

(Figure 5a). Striped skunk trail detection rates were the same post-opening for two seasons then increased to rates greater than pre-opening (Figure 5c).

Wild turkey.—Wild turkey increased in occupancy in the spring following Park/Preserve opening and decreased trail use (detection rates) post-opening (Figure 5b and 5d). Wild turkey had lower occupancy estimates and trail detection rates for post-opening summer, fall and winter.

Puma.— Puma occupancy fell to zero post-opening then increased after 3 seasons ($\psi = 0.13$, Figure 6a), potentially indicating some latency to recover. Puma decreased trail use post-opening (Figure 6c).

Bobcat.—Bobcat occupancy increased slightly in the Park/Preserve (Figure 6b) and decreased slightly in trail use (Figure 6d) post-opening.

Coyote.— Coyote occupancy decreased prior to the Park/Preserve opening and then remained relatively stable (Figure 7a). Trail use remained stable with a slight increase post-opening (Figure 7c); trail use was similar to patterns of occupancy.

Gray fox.— Gray fox occupancy was stable and similar to pre-opening occupancy (Figure 7b). Trail use was similar to patterns of occupancy (Figure 7d).

DISCUSSION

By our measures within this one study area, the wildlife that were the most affected by increased human trail use were puma and wild turkey, both decreasing in study area occupancy estimates, which we are using to detect changes in abundance and detection rates, which we are using as a measure of intensity of trail use. Additionally, the striped skunk notably increased trail use the third (fall) and fourth (winter) season after Park/Preserve opened. After two seasons post-opening, bobcat, gray fox, and coyote (three common mesocarnivores) appeared to be unaffected by public trail use both in abundance (as measured by occupancy estimates as an index of prevalence in the Park/Preserve) and trail use; these findings are consistent with a recent San Francisco Bay Area study (Reilly et al. 2016). The puma, which was present before the Park/Preserve opened, was then notably absent for three subsequent seasons post-opening. The majority of wildlife with the exception of the raccoon returned to previous occupancy levels the winter following opening (that is, after 9 months, Figure 2d).

Bobcat, coyote, and gray fox (mesocarnivores) showed little change in trail use, measured by camera detection rates on trail,and within the study area as indicated by by occupancy estimates from pre-opening measures, which support the null hypothesis, $H_Ø$ (Table 2); that is, that public trail use (at the rates we measured) did not appear to affect these species. Deer and gray squirrel showed decreased trail use despite no change in study area abundance post-opening, supporting H_1 that states that species change their trail use but not their overall use of the study area as measured by occupancy estimation. Puma and wild turkey decreased both trail use and abundance supporting H_2, which states that species will be affected by human trail use both on the trail and in the study area. Striped skunk increased trail use two seasons after opening and slightly decreased in abundance in the study area (see Table 2, Figures 5a and 5c). Deer may also have exhibited latency to habituation because their trail use resumed to pre-opening rates after two seasons (although it should be noted that human use declined; Figure 2a). Puma indicated latency to habituation for Park/Preserve abundance (Figure 6a).

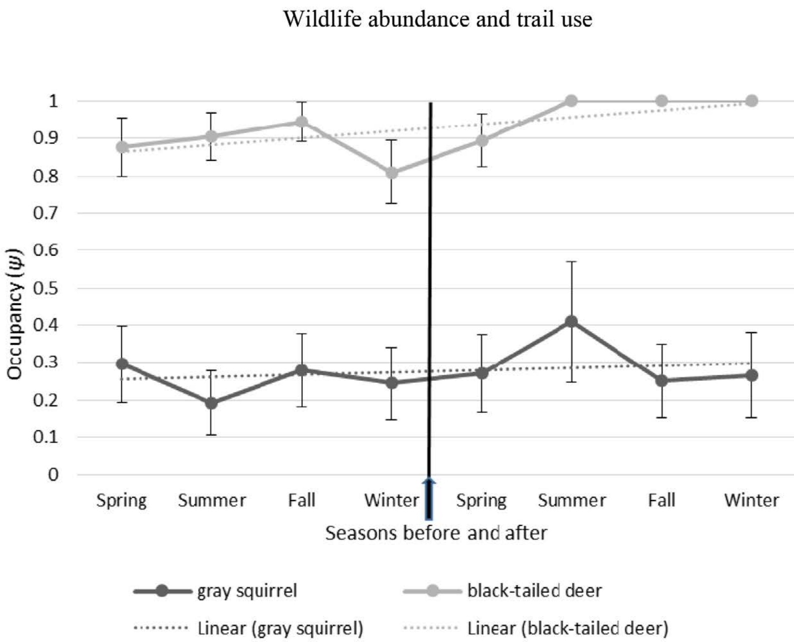

Figure 4a.

Figure 4a. Black-tailed deer and gray squirrel single-season occupancy estimates (ψ; error bar = ±SE, no error bar = no standard error) for seasons before (spring 2014–winter 2015) and after (spring 2015–winter 2016) opening (vertical line and arrow indicating 14 February 2015) in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA.

In contrast to our findings, Reed and Merenlender (2008) conducted a study in the same region and found coyote and bobcat scat prevalence, as an indicator of animal presence, to be five times lower in protected areas that allowed recreation compared to sites that did not. Reilly et al. (2016), however, point out that carnivore scats are problematic as a surrogate for carnivore density because domestic dogs can consume these scats. Additionally, the human ability to visually detect scat is extremely low when compared to trained scat dogs for this purpose (i.e., humans detect only a very small fraction of scat that are present; Smith et al. 2005, Oliveira et al. 2012). Our findings were consistent with Reilly et al. (2016) that mesocarnivores appeared largely unaffected by public access and, additionally, that striped skunks increased trail use with recreational trail use.

The puma is the largest carnivore in the San Francisco Bay Area and is thought to play an important role in the ecosystem. Pumas are used as a surrogate to examine overall connectivity in the landscape due to its large body and home range size. Wang et al. (2015) examined puma behavioral responses to development and roads. According to their study, communication and denning required a four times larger buffer from human development. Findings from our study show a pattern of avoidance, at least, initially; pumas were detected very infrequently or not at all from the study area with commensurate lower trail use for three seasons post-opening; this finding was in contrast to puma adults and young consis-

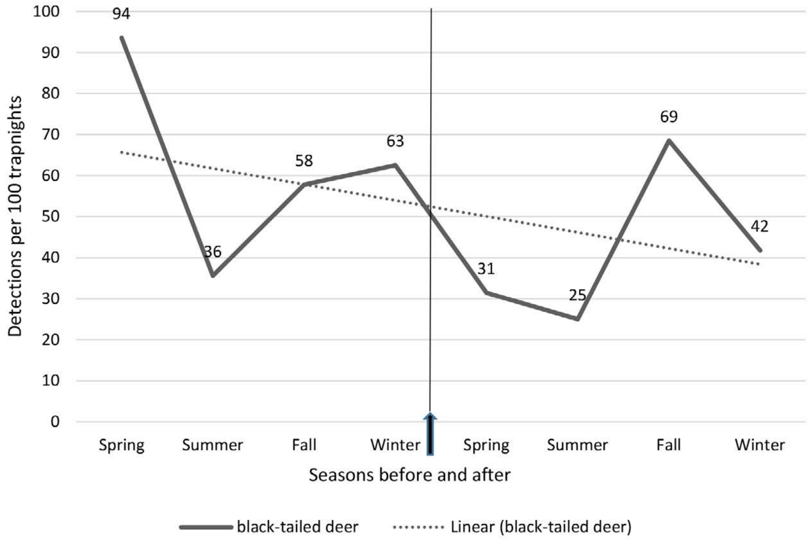

Figure 4b.

Wildlife abundance and trail use

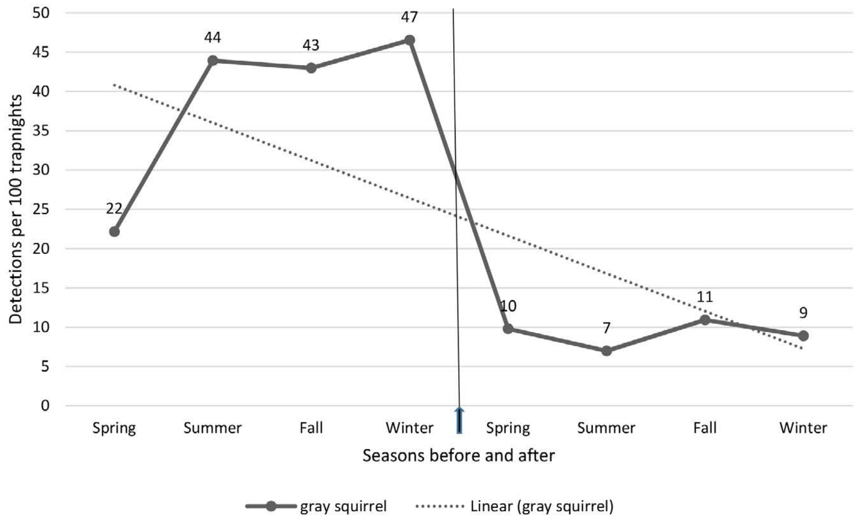

Figure 4c.

Figure 4b-c. Trail detection rates (detections per 100 trapnights) for b) black-tailed deer and c) gray squirrel for seasons before (spring 2014–winter 2015) and after (spring 2015–winter 2016) opening (vertical line and arrow indicating 14 February 2015) in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA. Linear indicates linear trend line.

Wildlife abundance and trail use

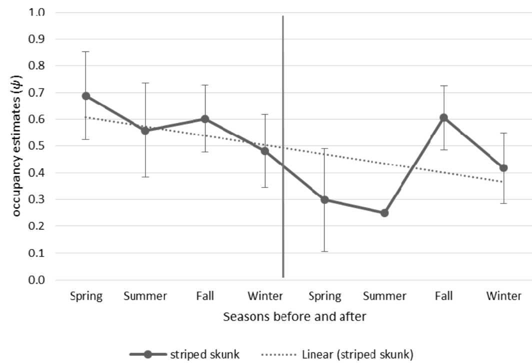

Figure 5a.

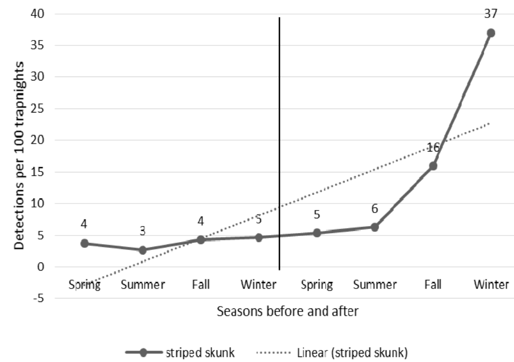

Figure 5c.

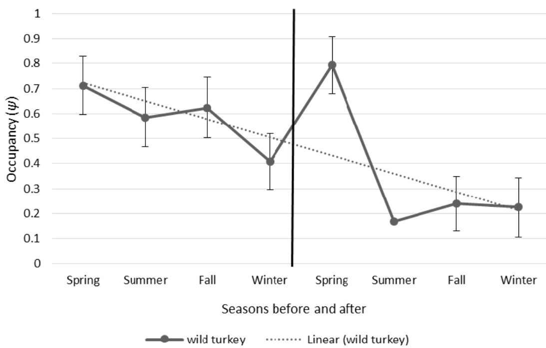

Figure 5b.

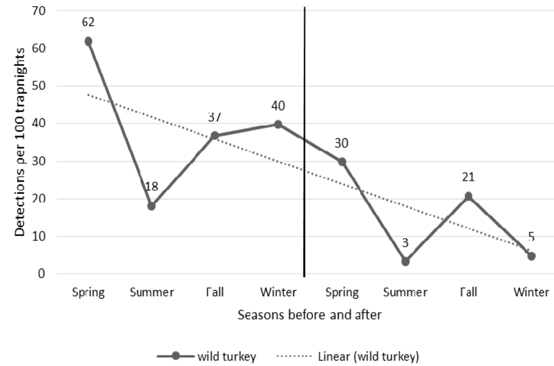

Figure 5d.

Figure 5a-b. Single-season occupancy estimates (ψ; error bar = ±SE, no error bar = observed occupancy) before (spring 2014–winter 2015) and after (spring 2015–winter 2016) opening (vertical line indicating 14 February 2015) for a) striped skunk and b) wild turkey in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA. **Figure 5c-d.** Trail detection rates (detections per 100 trapnights) before (spring 2014–winter 2015) and after (spring 2015–winter 2016) opening (vertical line indicating 14 February 2015) for c) striped skunk and d) wild turkey in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA. Linear indicates linear trend line.

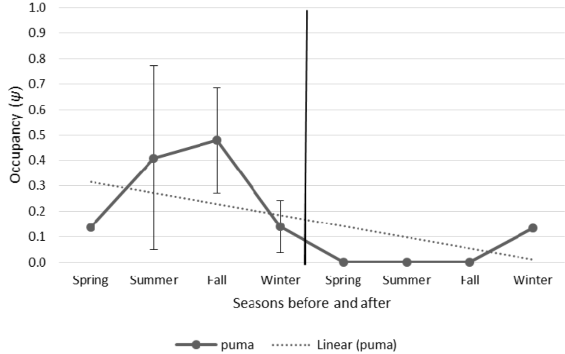

Figure 6a.

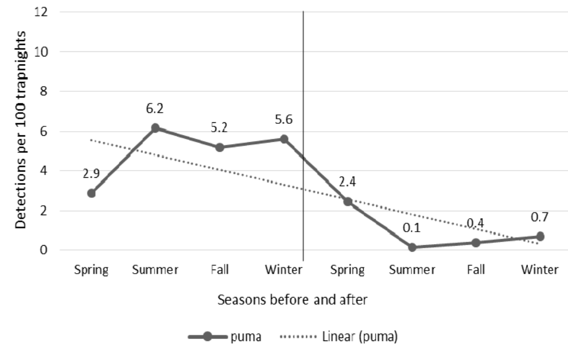

Figure 6c.

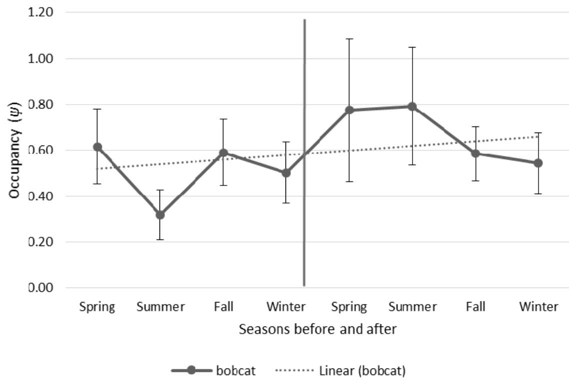

Figure 6b.

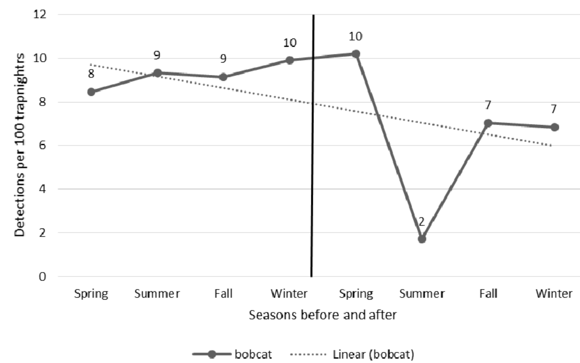

Figure 6d.

Figure 6a-b. Single-season occupancy estimates (ψ; error bar = ±SE, no error bar = observed occupancy) for seasons before (spring 2014–winter 2015) and after (spring 2015–winter 2016) opening (vertical line indicating 14 February 2015) for a) puma and b) bobcat in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA. Figure 6c-d. Trail detection rates (detections per 100 trapnights) before (spring 2014–winter 2015) and after (spring 2015–winter 2016) opening (vertical line indicating 14 February 2015) for c) puma and d) bobcat in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA. Linear indicates linear trend line.

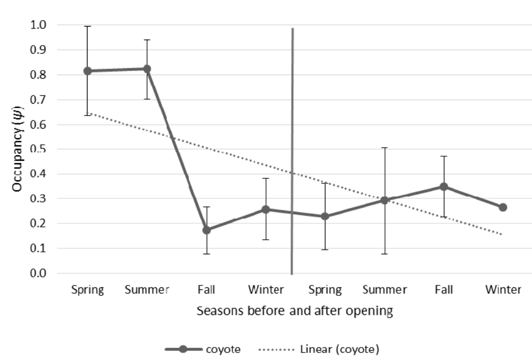

Figure 7a.

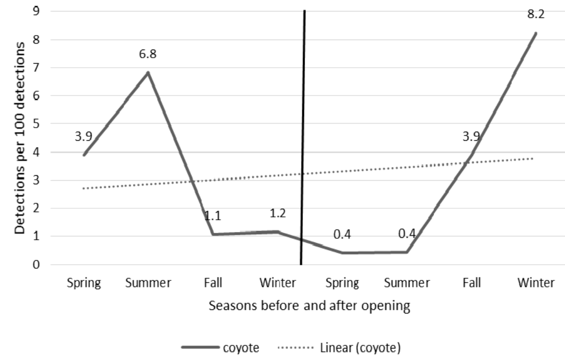

Figure 7c

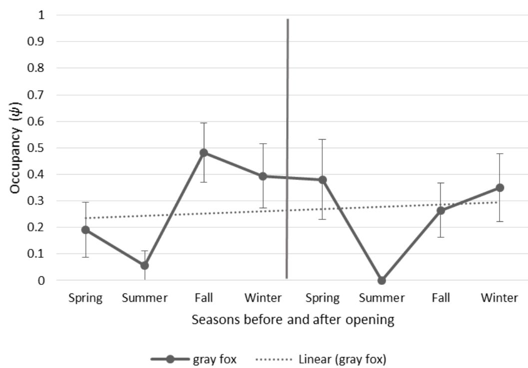

Figure 7b.

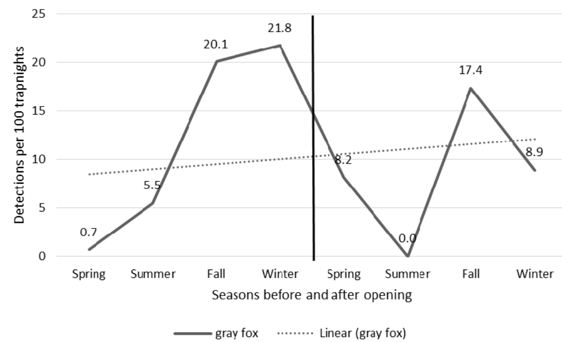

Figure 7d.

Figure 7a-b. Single-season occupancy estimates (ψ; error bar = ±SE, no error bar = observed occupancy) before (spring 2014–winter 2015) and after (spring 2015–winter 2016) opening (vertical line indicating 14 February 2015) for a) coyote and b) gray fox in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA. Figure 7c-d. Trail detection rates (detections per 100 trapnights) before (spring 2014–winter 2015) and after (spring 2015–winter 2016) opening (vertical line indicating 14 February 2015) for c) coyote and d) gray fox in North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA. Linear indicates linear trend line.

Table 2. Which hypotheses are supported for selected wildlife species [Column headings: No change = no difference in trail use or Park/Preserve occupancy, Trail only = differences observed in trail use but not in Park/Preserve occupancy, Trail/Grid = differences observed in trail use and Park/Preserve occupancy, and Latency = recovery to pre-opening trail use and/or Park/Preserve occupancy values]. Under "Trail/Grid," minus sign indicates a decline and a plus sign indicates an increase for each respective array. An "X" indicates findings support the hypothesis. North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA, 2014-2016.

	Hypotheses			
Common name	No change ($H_ø$)	Trail only (H_1)	Trail/Grid (H_2)	Latency (H_4)
Bobcat	X			
Coyote	X			
Gray fox	X			X?
Deer		X		X
Gray squirrel		X		
Puma			X-/-	X?
Striped skunk			X+/-	
Wild turkey			X-/-	

tently present in all seasons before the trail opened. Camera trap images of puma from the pre-opening year frequently had a mother with cubs or almost fully adult offspring.

Our study area represents an area with low to moderate human disturbance (both recreational and agricultural); therefore, the wildlife in our study have had exposure to humans, roads and other infrastructure. Naïve wildlife from more pristine areas (free from human influence) may behave differently to human presence on trails and may be affected for longer period of time and in a larger area; this factor (exposure to human influence) should be accounted for when planning trails and increasing recreational access. Undeveloped open space surrounding trails provides a buffer so wildlife can (initially) move away from novel human presence or disturbance even if they are able to habituate to human trail use over time. Certain species such as pumas may require large trail free "zones" near trails to habituate over time and to successfully fulfill the full suite of life history activities such as hunting, reproduction and raising young.

Finally, for this specific study area and trail, wildlife was documented using trails even with a marked increase in human use (pedestrians, cyclists and equestrians); wildlife trail use did not drop to zero with the exception of wild turkeys and puma (at least for 3 of the 4 seasons following opening). Additionally, the apparent habituation after a period of time indicated that much of the local wildlife community, but not all, may be resilient to an increased presence of humans on a trail given time to adjust; it also should be noted that the cyclist detection rates decreased to pre-opening levels of use by the 4th season after opening, so as an alternative explanation, wildlife trail use may be able to tolerate relatively high levels of human use (1600 detections per 100 trapnights) with lower levels of cyclists (77 detections per 100 trapnights compared to a high of 338 after opening)

Land acquisition and preservation can go a long way toward ensuring future open space for wildlife; however, without commensurate wildlife monitoring, particularly for things like trail building and increased human access, with concomitant changes occurring in the surrounding landscape (e.g., traffic intensity, climate change, development, fencing), the actual benefit of that land to wildlife over time will remain unknown. From a management perspective, this "unknown" is a lost opportunity. Identifying thresholds of human use beyond which wildlife or particular species are unable to adjust may differ with various disturbance regimes and for different life history needs (e.g., foraging and movement versus breeding). Determining these thresholds and for which species are important next steps in understanding the impacts of recreationalists on wildlife. Through studies that capture pre-impact conditions as well as a post-impact timeframe that is meaningful for wildlife, open space effectiveness as a conservation tool can be measured, evaluated and improved.

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the study: SET
Collected the data: SET, SH, MH
Performed the analysis of the data: SET
Authored the manuscript: SET
Provided critical revision of the manuscript: SH, MH, SH

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APPENDIX I. Human categories and wildlife species detected before and after park opening in each camera array for the North Sonoma Mountain Regional Park and Open Space Preserve, California, USA, 2014-2016.

Common name	Species	Grid before	Grid after	Trail before	Trail after
Human Cyclist			•	•	•
Domestic cat	*Felis sylvestris*		•		
Domestic dog	*Canis familiaris*	•	•	•	•
Equestrian		•		•	•
Hiker		•	•	•	•
Hikers with >2 dog				•	n/a
Human with dog				•	n/a
Staff				•	•
Vehicle		•	•	•	•
WPI crew		•	•	•	•
Ranger				•	n/a
<u>Livestock</u>					
Goats	(Goats)	•		•	•
Cattle	(Cattle)	•	•	•	
<u>Wildlife</u>					
Unknown	Unknown	•	•	•	•
Badger	*Taxidea taxus*		•		
Bird	(Bird)	•	•	•	•
Bat	(Bat)	•			
Black-tailed deer	*Odocoileus hemionus*	•	•	•	•
Black-tailed hare	*Lepus californicus*	•	•	•	•
Bobcat	*Lynx rufus*	•	•	•	•
Coyote	*Canis latrans*	•	•	•	•
Gray fox	*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*	•	•	•	•
Gray squirrel	*Sciurus griseus*	•	•	•	•
Opossum	*Didelphis virginiana*	•	•	•	•
Puma	*Puma concolor*	•	•	•	•
Raccoon	*Procyon lotor*	•	•	•	•
Striped skunk	*Mephitis mephitis*	•	•	•	•
Wild turkey	*Meleagris gallopavo*	•	•	•	•
Small rodent	(Small rodent)	•	•		•
Red fox	*Vulpes vulpes*			•	
Insect	(Insect)	•	•	•	
Lizard	(Lizard)	•			
Snake	(Snake)	•			