

Natural area visitors' willingness to pay for amphibian conservation in a global biodiversity hotspot

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ABSTRACT

Transfer of harmful pathogens from imported pet animals to natural populations of wildlife is a new challenge in protected area management. Understanding visitors' preferences for, and value they place on, protecting biodiversity from such disturbances is important in developing effective management interventions. By conducting a visitor survey at two natural areas in the Southern Appalachian region of the United States, a global hotspot of amphibian biodiversity, this study examined natural area visitors' willingness to pay (WTP) to conserve wild amphibian populations under two different assumptions for the distribution of WTP – normal and log-transformed. Results from the retained model assuming a normal distribution for WTP showed that visitors were willing to pay US\$10.55 (95% CI US\$9.61–US\$11.50) per visit in donation to ensure the persistence of healthy amphibian populations. Determinants of individual WTP under both model specifications included the perceived threat to amphibians from pathogen transmission in natural areas they visit, their self-assessed familiarity with general knowledge about amphibians, the level of importance they placed on the benefits to humans from amphibian biodiversity, and annual household income. These findings are useful in understanding the economic value of amphibian diversity to natural area visitors, and in assessing the viability of a visitor-supported mechanism to fund projects mitigating anthropogenic threats to amphibian biodiversity.

1. Introduction

Increasing urbanization and growth in human populations have resulted in increased human-wildlife interaction in natural areas. Even though natural areas such as national parks and reserves are set aside for the protection of native biodiversity, frequent interaction with human populations can lead to enormous anthropogenic pressures on the wildlife therein. Human-induced fires, invasive species, and pollution (e.g., air, water) have long impacted biodiversity in natural areas (Dodd, 2002; Caruso and Lips, 2013; Wilson, 2014; Brahney et al., 2020) but transfer of pathogens from visitors to natural populations of wildlife has emerged as a new threat in many landscapes that harbor globally significant biodiversity (Fisher and Garner, 2007).

The central and southern sections of the United States' Appalachian Mountains have been identified as a global hotspot of amphibian biodiversity (Dodd, 2003). The Smoky Mountains region of the Appalachians, in particular, possesses an extraordinarily high diversity of

amphibians with 31 species of salamanders and 14 species of frogs and toads (Dodd, 2004) known to occur inside the boundaries of the Great Smoky Mountains National Park (GSMNP). Studies have revealed significant declines in salamander populations in GSMNP since the 1970s (Dodd, 2004; Caruso and Lips, 2013), the hypothesized result of multiple human-induced stressors including introduction of exotic pathogens, air pollution, climate change, and high visitation (Dodd, 2003; Caruso and Lips, 2013; Sutton et al., 2015).

Evidence suggests declines in salamander populations in GSMNP may be partially attributable to the introduction of diseases known spread through the live animal trade, including ranaviral disease (RV) and chytridiomycosis (Daszak et al., 2006; Fisher and Garner, 2007; Picco and Collins, 2008). These diseases can spill over from captive to wild populations of amphibians via several human-mediated pathways (e.g., the release or introduction of contaminated animals or fomites) (Peel et al., 2012) and have been associated with die-offs of amphibian populations around the world (Berger et al., 1999; Lips et al., 2006;

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Skerratt et al., 2007). The potential for human mediated spread and transmission of *Rv* and chytridiomycosis within and among amphibian populations is well established (e.g., Mutschmann et al., 2000; Raverty and Reynolds, 2001; Mazzoni, 2003; Hansehlmann et al., 2004; Jancovich et al., 2005; Phyllott et al., 2010).

Outdoor recreation and tourism, in particular, are believed to be major contributors to the movement and introduction of exotic pathogens in natural areas (Anderson et al., 2015) and sources of a multitude of stressors known to impact sensitive amphibian populations (Dodd, 2003). Trends in the US suggest that interest in nature-based recreation and visitation to natural areas continues to grow (Cordeff, 2008). Indeed, during the period 2011–2021, annual visitation at GSMNP increased 57 % from 9 million to over 14 million, suggesting stressors impacting the parks' amphibian populations will likely continue to intensify.

The precipitous global declines in amphibian populations are concerning because humans benefit from amphibian biodiversity in a multitude of ways. Amphibians help support the stability and resilience of ecosystems via energy and food web dynamics including regulation of insect populations considered agricultural pests and vectors for disease, and by serving as a source of prey for numerous predatory species (Dodd, 2004). Amphibians are also important indicators of biodiversity and ecosystem integrity (Wells et al., 2001), are vital to the production of numerous medicines and pharmaceutical products (Ozturk et al., 2020) and hold cultural or religious significance to some people (West, 2018). Conserving GSMNP's amphibian populations is critical to the continued provision of these benefits, global amphibian biodiversity and furthering our understanding of the causes of, and solutions to, global amphibian declines.

Individuals have been shown to derive utility from protecting wildlife, despite not using the resource at all (e.g., Stevens et al., 1991). The existence of indirect-use values for wildlife can have significant implications for natural area managers, as it suggests visitors may care about these species and assign value to the benefits they provide to society (Barde and Pearce, 1991; Tisdell, 1991; Arnberger et al., 2012; Dhaka et al., 2012). As growth in visitation to GSMNP continues and pressure on sensitive amphibian populations intensifies, financial contributions from visitors may be one way to fund amphibian conservation in the Smoky Mountain region. In an effort to understand the economic value they place on species, previous studies have estimated individual willingness to pay (WTP) for biodiversity (e.g., Christie et al., 2006; Bhat and Sofi, 2021) and the conservation of individual species (e.g., Bowker and Stoff, 1988; Bednar-Friedl et al., 2009; Zambrano-Monserate, 2020), including an endangered frog in a global amphibian biodiversity hotspot (Cerde and Losada, 2013). However, our current understanding of the value visitors place on amphibian biodiversity and their WTP in conserving amphibians at the globally significant hotspots like GSMNP is limited. The specific research questions addressed in this study is how much do protected area visitors know and care about the threats to natural populations of wild amphibians in the areas they visit and whether and how much are they willing to pay towards establishing a public fund to conserve amphibian conservation (Tefel and O'Brien, 2003). To fill this gap in knowledge, the specific objectives of this study are to: 1) estimate natural area visitors' WTP to support amphibian conservation in the Smoky Mountain region of the United States, and 2) understand whether and how psychological constructs including knowledge and values related to amphibians, perception of threats, and sociodemographic factors influence visitor WTP. The novelty of this study lies in the fact that while substantial literature exists in visitor preferences of and willingness to pay for recreational access (e.g., Clara et al., 2018), visitor services (e.g., interpretative services, facilities) and biodiversity in general (e.g., Bhat and Sofi, 2021), this is the first study to utilize a non-market valuation method to specifically quantify the non-market value of amphibian populations in terms of visitor willingness to pay. In the next section, we discuss the study methods, including the survey sites, survey design and administration, measurement of

variables and regression model, followed by the results of the study, discussion of their implications and conclusions from the study.

2. Methods

2.1. Study sites

Data needed in this study was collected using an on-site survey of visitors at two natural areas - Great Smoky Mountains National Park (GSMNP) and Highlands Biological Station - in the Southern Appalachian region in the United States, widely recognized as a global hotspot of amphibian biodiversity. Encompassing over 2,000 sq km of forests along the North Carolina - Tennessee border, the first site (GSMNP) possesses a high diversity of amphibians (31 species of salamanders and 13 frog species) and has been designated both an International Biosphere Reserve and United Nations World Heritage Site (Dodd 2003; National Park Service, 2022a; Fig. 1). The GSMNP is one of the largest protected areas in the eastern US but faces tremendous anthropogenic pressure because of it being the nation's most visited (over 14 million visitors in 2021) national park (National Park Service 2022). Ecological threats facing GSMNP include occasional wildfire, a host of invasive species in the form of insects, pathogens, mammals, fish and plants, air pollution and the impacts of climate change (NPS 2022a). The second site, Highlands Biological Station (HBS), is a 9.3 ha campus of Western Carolina University dedicated to supporting regionally focused outdoor education and research. Located in the Blue Ridge Mountains in an area noted for the diversity of its plant and animal life (Ricketts et al., 1999), the HBS nature center and botanical garden are popular destinations for day visitors primarily from the surrounding communities.

2.2. Survey design and administration

The one-page front-and-back survey questionnaire contained questions regarding familiarity with, and importance of, various aspects of amphibians and amphibian biodiversity, perceptions regarding pathogen threats, WTP for amphibian conservation and socio-demographic characteristics. The anonymous and voluntary survey instrument and protocols were approved by the University of Tennessee's Institutional Review Board for human subjects' research (Approval#: UTK IRB-21-06428-XM). A Scientific Research and Collecting Permit was obtained from the US National Park Service, and HBS on-site permission was obtained from Western Carolina University. The in-person survey was administered from mid-June to mid-September 2021 at three locations in the GSMNP (Cliffman's Dome, Sugarlands Visitor Center and Oconaluftee Visitor Center) and at the HBS in Highlands, NC. Exiting visitors were requested to complete and return the survey onsite. Participants were given a small incentive (e.g., drink koozie, sunglass straps printed with the "Smoky Mountains" and a sketch of the mountains). Because this was an in-person, on-site survey, two potential limitations should be noted. First, since survey questionnaires were completed on site, some respondents may have been reluctant to skip questions they otherwise would have had no surveyor been in the proximity and, therefore, may not have provided truthful responses. We consider this to be a minor concern, however, as our survey referred only to a voluntary donation mechanism to support amphibian conservation and did not involve not any type of binding policy or regulation proposals in the questionnaire. Additionally, we did not conduct the survey in the format of an interview whereby the surveyor transcribes respondents' verbal responses; rather respondents were given the freedom to complete the questionnaires on their own and return them to claim their incentive regardless of whether, or how many, questions were skipped. The second potential limitation is that individuals who make frequent visits to the survey sites may have ended up having a higher probability of being included in the survey sample; however we have accounted for any potential endogenous stratification (e.g., avidity bias) as noted in the discussion of the regression model (Section 2.4). During the 14-week survey duration,

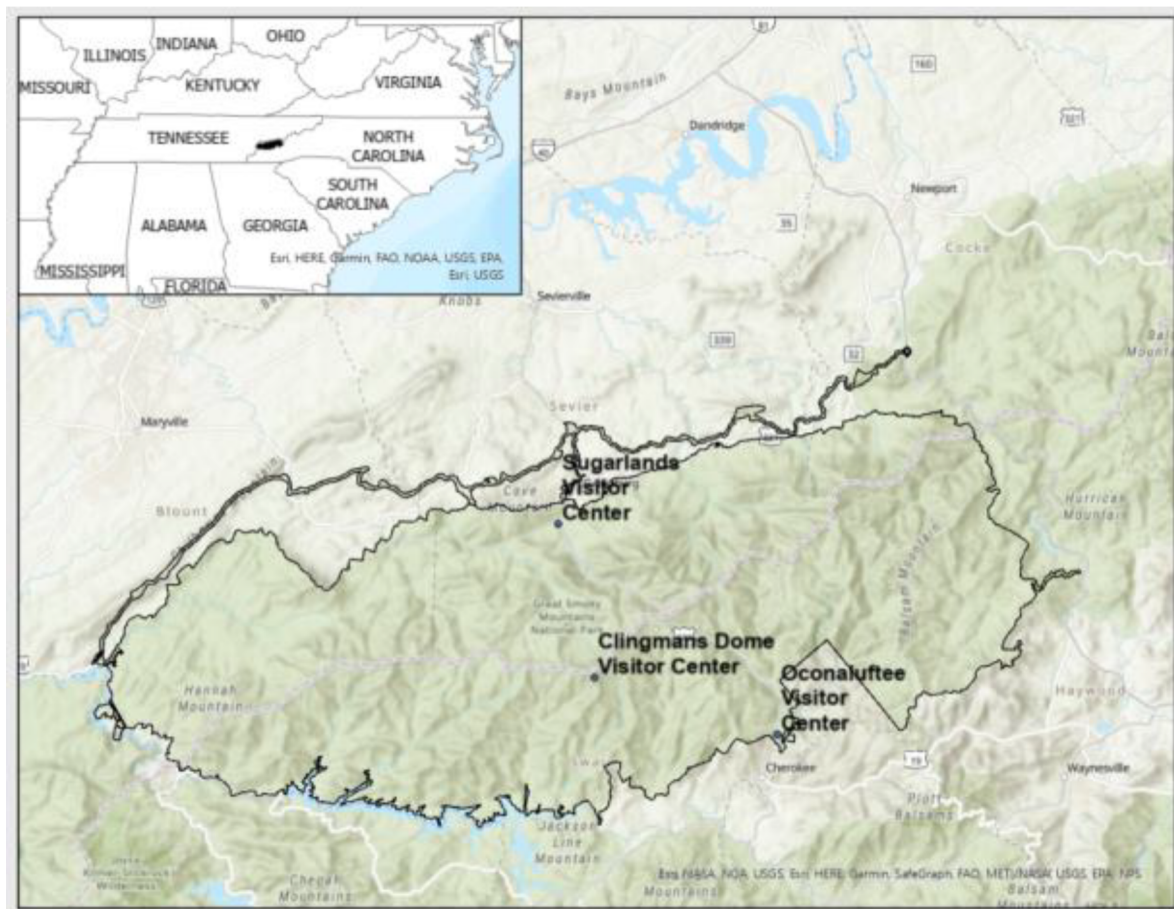


Fig. 1. Survey locations in Great Smoky Mountains National Park.

1,494 visitors completed the survey.

2.3. Measurement of variables

Respondents' self-assessed familiarity with amphibians was measured on a 3-point ordinal scale of familiarity (1-Not at all familiar, 3-Very familiar) with the question "Before reading this survey, how familiar were you with the following aspects of amphibians?" The aspects included general knowledge of amphibians (*Knowledge*), role of amphibians in the environment, benefits of amphibians to humans, and status/trends of amphibian populations. The importance of amphibian biodiversity was elicited on a five-point Likert scale of importance (1-Not important, 5-Extremely important) with the question "How important or unimportant are the following aspects of amphibian biodiversity to you?"; aspects included environmental benefits, scientific and educational value, controlling harmful insects, aesthetic value, cultural or religious significance, and medical/pharmaceutical value. The extent to which visitors engage in amphibian-related activities (*Engage*) was elicited with the question "While visiting natural areas, how often do you engage in amphibian-related activities (e.g., searching, viewing, filming, photographing)?"; possible responses included never, sometimes, frequently and regularly. Respondents' perceptions with respect to amphibian pathogen threats (*Threat*) were elicited with the statement "Transmission of pathogens to amphibians is a serious threat in natural areas I often visit." and rated on a five-point Likert scale of agreement (1 Strongly disagree - 5 Strongly agree). Whether respondents had ever seen an amphibian pet released into a natural area (*Release*) was also elicited.

We hypothesized the existence of one latent variable underlying the importance of amphibian biodiversity to respondents. A factor (*Benefit*)

representing the hypothesized latent variable was extracted from the six aspects of biodiversity using factor analysis, the principal-factor method, orthogonal rotation (DíStefano et al., 2009). For inclusion as an explanatory variable in our WTP model, we predicted a regression score for *Benefit* using a least squares regression approach (Thurstone, 1935) in which the regression equation independent variable is the standardized observed value of the item (i.e., respondent response) in the estimated factor (DíStefano et al., 2009). We assessed the sampling adequacy and suitability of our data for factor analysis using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test, which indicates the proportion of variance in the variables that might be caused by the underlying factor; the higher the KMO value, the more the variables share in common (Kaiser, 1974). Respondents were asked to indicate their maximum per-natural-area-visit WTP to support amphibian conservation from 17 presented values \$USD (0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 12, 15, 20, 25, 30, 40, 50, 75, 100, >100) in a payment card (PC) format. Payment amounts were determined based on a review of similar studies examining the public's WTP for biodiversity conservation (e.g., Martín-López et al., 2008). The PC method of valuation elicitation assumes that respondents select the alternative that they believe will maximize their utility. Before respondents were asked to indicate the per trip amount (\$USD) they were willing to donate toward amphibian conservation, they were asked to read following script.

"Recent data suggest that few pathogens that move globally through trade are not contained, many species of amphibians in natural areas like the Smoky Mountains could be infected and disappear within the next few decades. Suppose that a non-profit fund for amphibian conservation has to be established with voluntary donations from visitors like yourself to protect amphibian populations from diseases.

Assuming this donation is per-trip and additional to your regular trip costs and would be used exclusively to ensure the persistence of healthy amphibian populations in natural areas you visit, please indicate the maximum you are willing to pay per trip to this fund."

The PC approach to eliciting WTP (Mitchell and Carson, 1981; 1984) provides information on the interval containing a respondent's per trip donation; the selected WTP value is assumed to represent the lower bound on each respondent's WTP ($\$B_{L_i}$) with the upper bound ($\B_{U_i}) defined as US\$0.01 less than the next highest payment card value. For example, the selection of US\$20 implies that true WTP is between US\$20 and US\$24.99. Respondents' true willingness to pay, $\$B_i$, was modeled using interval regression, where the upper and lower bounds on each interval serve as the dependent variable (Cameron and Huppert, 1989; Haab and McConnell, 2002; Ando and Reeser, 2022). Finally, questions were included in the survey questionnaire to elicit respondents' demographic characteristics, including annual household income (*Income*), gender (*Female*) and age (*Age*).

2.4. Regression model

Past studies analyzing visitor behavior have used utility theoretic demand models to estimate willingness to pay for biodiversity conservation (Martín-Lopez et al., 2007; Wang and Jia, 2012), protected areas (Zydron et al., 2021) and species conservation (Bowker and Stoff, 1988; Bednar-Friedl et al., 2009; Kaffashfi et al., 2015; Mzek et al., 2022). The basic notion is that an individual facing an income constraint makes a choice to spend their budget based on the alternative that will maximize their utility. Accordingly, an individual will likely pay more for a good or service (e.g. protection of amphibian biodiversity) if the expected benefit from it exceeds the cost. The mean willingness to pay is then estimated in a regression model where the decision to pay a given amount for a good or service (i.e. protection amphibian biodiversity) is modeled as a function of income, demographic characteristics, knowledge, values and perception of threats.

The indirect utility functions (v) contained in Eq. 1 are used to derive the measure of compensating welfare (c) necessary to equate visitors' utility with and without protection of amphibian biodiversity; c represents how much the natural area visitor would be willing to pay for amphibian conservation Q^1 at price vector p^1 to achieve the same level of utility as they would have without protection of amphibian biodiversity p^0, Q^0 (Boyfle, 2011; Haab and McConnell 2002):

$$v(p^0, Q^0, y) = v(p^1, Q^1, y - c) \quad (1)$$

Relying on an efficient maximum likelihood interval regression technique developed by Cameron and Huppert (1989) and following Ando and Reeser (2022), individual WTP values can be estimated as

$$c_i = z_i' \beta + u_i \quad (2)$$

where c_i represents WTP for respondent i , u_i is the random error term with mean zero and standard deviation σ , z_i' is a vector of independent variables that explain response variation, and β is the vector of coefficients. Because of the payment card elicitation format, rather than directly observing c_i , we observe the interval in which it lies. The probability that a respondent's true WTP falls between the interval chosen by respondent i is given as

$$Pr\{c_i \in (\$B_{L_i}, \$B_{U_i})\} = Pr\left\{\frac{\$B_{L_i} - z_i' \beta}{\sigma} < t_i < \frac{\$B_{U_i} - z_i' \beta}{\sigma}\right\} \quad (3)$$

where t_i is the standard normal variable, $\$B_{L_i}$ and $\$B_{U_i}$ represent the lower and upper bounds, respectively, of the interval containing c_i and $z_i' \beta$ is the function representing the solution to Eq. 1, which defines the value being estimated (Boyfle, 2011; Ando and Reeser, 2022).

Following Ando and Reeser (2022), we specified two interval

regression models. The first was a linear model that assumed c_i to be normally distributed and used the actual dollar values of the interval bounds (Normal model) as the dependent variables. In the normal model, mean WTP is estimated as $E[c] = z' \beta$. The second specification (Log Model) assumed WTP to be log-normally distributed; with the log model, mean WTP is estimated by taking the natural log transformation of the upper and lower bounds ($\$B_{L_i}$, $\$B_{U_i}$) (Cameron and Huppert, 1989) and is found as

$$E[c] = \exp(z' \beta) \exp\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right) \quad (4)$$

Using the variables described above, we evaluated and compared the results of the four interval regression model specifications using both the normal and log distributions for WTP. Model 1 contained *Threat*, *Knowledge*, *Benefit*, *Engage* and *Release* as explanatory variables, Model 2 contained demographic variables *Income*, *Age*, and *Female* in addition to the variables evaluated in models 1. We hypothesized that *Threat*, *Knowledge*, *Benefit*, *Engage* and *Income* would be significantly and positively associated with WTP for amphibian conservation. We had no *a priori* expectations of whether and how *Age*, *Gender*, or *Release* would relate to WTP.

To overcome the issue of endogenous stratification (i.e. potential of avidity bias), we used the inverse of each respondent's reported number of visits to the survey area in the previous 12 months as a regression weight (Martínez-Espínola and Amoako-Tuffour, 2008; Chapagafin et al., 2021). We considered a result statistically significant if $p \leq 0.10$.

3. Results

Of 1,494 respondents that completed the survey, the average age reported was 46 years, and 55 % were female (Table 1). For the estimated population of 15 million annual visitors to the GSMNP and the HBS combined, this sample size is sufficient with 95 % confidence interval and 5 % margin of error (Vaske, 2019). In terms of familiarity with amphibians, only 13 % reported being very familiar with general knowledge about amphibians but another 67 % of respondents reported being slightly familiar. The remaining 20 % reported being unfamiliar. In terms of the perception of threats to amphibians, 30 % of respondents strongly agreed that transmission of pathogens is a serious threat in the natural areas they often visit, 28 % slightly agreed, and 36 % neither agreed nor disagreed; only 6 % disagreed. Over half (55 %) of respondents indicated they sometimes engage in amphibian-related activities (e.g., searching, viewing, filming, photographing) when visiting natural areas, while 16 % and 5 % reported they do so frequently and regularly, respectively; Nearly a quarter (24 %) indicated they never engage with amphibians when visiting natural areas. Only 15 % of respondents indicated they had seen a pet amphibian released into a natural area, the remainder had not. When asked to rate the importance of various aspects of amphibian biodiversity, 84 % of respondents reported controlling harmful insects as "very" or "extremely" important, 76 % of respondents reported scientific and educational value as "very" or "extremely" important, and 70 % reported environmental benefits as "very" or "extremely" important (Fig. 2). Over half (55 %) of respondents reported medicinal/pharmaceutical values as "very" or "extremely" important, 48 % reported aesthetic values as "very" or "extremely" important and only 30 % of respondents reported cultural or religious significance as "very" or "extremely" important. Of those that responded to the WTP question, 80 % indicated they would be willing to donate at least US\$1 per natural area visit to support amphibian conservation; 31 % indicated they would be willing to donate \$5 per visit, and 9 % indicated they were willing to donate \$20 per visit (Table 2).

Table 1

Description of variables used in predicting protected-area visitor willingness to pay to support amphibian conservation.

Variable	Description	n	Mean
Dependent variables (Normal Model)			
Lower bound	Amount (\$USD) representing the lower bound on each respondent's willingness to pay	1,418	9.42
Upper bound	Amount (\$USD) representing the upper bound on each respondent's willingness to pay	1,410	11.93
Dependent variables (Log Model)			
Log Lower bound	Amount (\$USD) representing the log-transformed lower bound on each respondent's willingness to pay	1,418	1.50
Log Upper bound	Amount (\$USD) representing the log-transformed upper bound on each respondent's willingness to pay	1,410	1.77
Independent variables			
Threat*	Variable reflecting the level of agreement with the statement: "Transmission of pathogens to amphibians is a serious threat in natural areas I often visit."	1,485	3.80
Knowledge**	Variable reflecting level of familiarity in response to the question: "Before reading this survey, how familiar were you with the following aspects of amphibians? General knowledge about amphibians"	1,491	1.93
Benefit	Regression score estimated using the extracted factor <i>Benefit</i>	1,449	0.00
Engage	Variable reflecting the frequency with which respondents engage with amphibians while visiting natural areas, where 1 = Never, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Frequently and 4 = Regularly	1,387	2.03
Release	Binary variable reflecting whether the respondent had seen a pet amphibian released into a natural area, where 1 = Yes and 0 = No.	1,426	0.14
Age	Continuous variable representing respondent age	1,480	46.2
Female	Binary variable where Female = 1, Male & Binary/non-gender = 0	1,484	0.55
Income	Categorical variable representing respondent household income. 1 \$25,000 or less, 2 \$25,001–\$50,000, 3 \$50,001–\$75,000, 4 \$75,001–\$100,000, 5 \$100,001–\$125,000, 6 \$125,001–\$150,000, 7 \$150,001–\$175,000, 8 \$175,000 or more.	1,482	4.28

* 1 Strongly disagree – 5 Strongly agree, ** 1 Not at all familiar – 3 Very familiar.

3.1. Factor analysis

All six aspects of amphibian biodiversity had large positive loadings on the extracted factor (labeled *Benefit*) (Table 3). The KMO statistics for the six variables ranged from 0.732 to 0.848 with an overall score of 0.804, well above the minimum standard for conducting factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974); the rotated loadings of the six variables from which the factors were extracted exceeded 0.50, which is considered an acceptable threshold for determining whether a variable is representative of the primary factor (Howard, 2016).

3.2. Factors influencing visitor's willingness to pay for amphibian conservation

Of the multiple regression models, AIC scores indicated that Model 2 performed better than Model 1 in terms of explaining the factors influencing visitors' willingness to pay for amphibian conservation under both specifications (Normal and Log) (Table 4). Mean visitor per-trip willingness to pay was robust between the two Normal models, ranging from \$US 10.40 (95 % CI \$US 9.49–\$US 11.32; Model 1) to

Table 2

Bid amounts, respondent willingness to pay (WTP) and WTP bounds (n = 1,418).

Bid amounts (\$USD)	# of respondents WTP	% of respondents WTP	Lower bound	Upper bound
0	282	19.89	0	1
1	111	7.83	1	2
2	90	6.35	2	3
3	60	4.23	3	5
5	438	30.89	5	7
7	19	1.34	7	9
9	33	2.33	9	12
12	66	4.65	12	15
15	70	4.94	15	20
20	128	9.03	20	25
25	45	3.17	25	30
30	5	0.35	30	40
40	6	0.42	40	50
50	41	2.89	50	75
75	4	0.28	75	100
100	12	0.85	100	100
>100	8	0.56	101	+∞

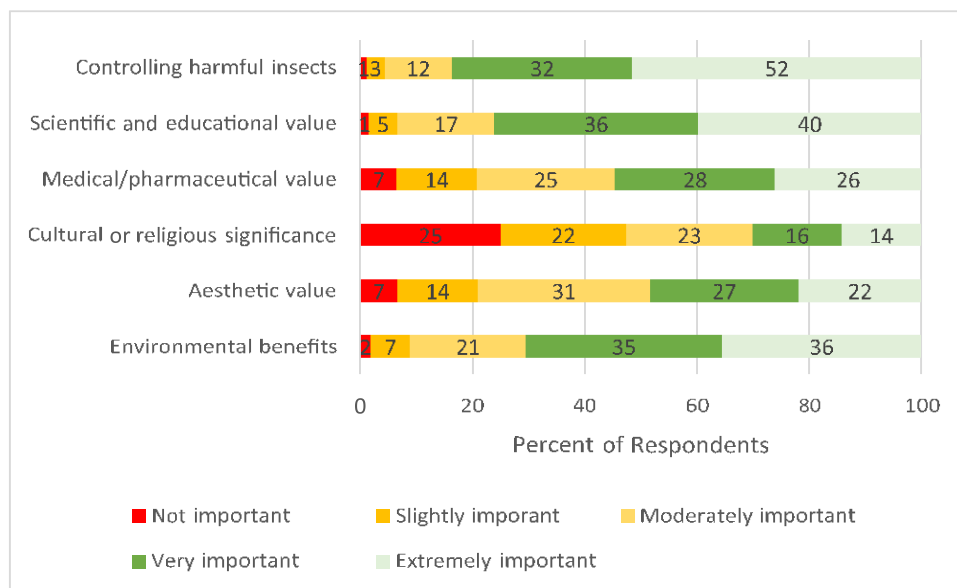


Fig. 2. Importance of various aspects of amphibian biodiversity.

Table 3

Factors extracted from survey responses to the question: “How important or unimportant are the following aspects of amphibian biodiversity to you?”.

Factor	Biodiversity aspect	Mean	Factor Loading	KMO Statistic	Cronbach's alpha
Benefits	Environmental benefits	3.95	0.731	0.848	0.799
	Scientific and educational value	4.08	0.801	0.796	0.786
	Controlling harmful insects	4.30	0.663	0.817	0.816
	Cultural or religious significance	2.72	0.574	0.732	0.829
	Aesthetic value	3.43	0.644	0.816	0.814
	Medical/ pharmaceutical value	3.53	0.669	0.806	0.809

* 1 = Not important 5 = Extremely important. Factor loadings derived with factor analysis using the principal-factor method, orthogonal rotation.

Table 4

Regression estimates from alternative models explaining protected area visitors' willingness to pay for amphibian conservation.

	Normal Models		Log Models	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
<i>Knowledge and perceptions of threats</i>				
Threat	1.650*** (0.495)	1.437*** (0.511)	0.140*** (0.039)	0.112*** (0.041)
Knowledge	1.352* (0.838)	1.339 (0.834)	0.165** (0.066)	0.158** (0.067)
<i>Visitation motivation and behavior</i>				
Benefits	1.238** (0.548)	1.307** (0.566)	0.127*** (0.044)	0.136*** (0.045)
Engage	0.540 (0.630)	0.458 (0.750)	0.042 (0.053)	0.046 (0.053)
Release	3.002* (1.562)	2.675* (1.587)	0.153 (0.110)	0.130 (0.110)
<i>Socioeconomic variables</i>				
Age		0.023 (0.030)		0.004 (0.002)
Female		1.552 (0.962)		0.122* (0.073)
Income		0.821*** (0.252)		0.107*** (0.018)
n	1,209	1,123	1,209	1,123
p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Wald chi ²	39.25	55.34	58.25	98.61
AIC	7048.48	6533.96	5086.57	4715.72
ΔAIC	–	514.52	–	370.85
Mean WTP (\$US)	10.40	10.55	10.32	10.22

*** $p \leq 0.01$, ** $p \leq 0.05$, * $p \leq 0.10$; Standard error in parentheses.

\$US 10.55 (95 % CI \$US 9.61–\$US 11.50; Model 2). Mean WTP was less robust under the log model specification and ranged from \$US 10.33 (95 % CI \$US 9.61–\$US 11.04; Model 2) to 10.22 (95 % CI \$US 9.50–\$US 10.94; Model 1). Considering that the AIC value in Log model (4715.72) was lowest of all 4 models estimated, interpretation of regression results and mean WTP are taken from this model.

As expected, respondents' perceptions regarding the threat of pathogen transmission in natural areas they often visit (*Threat*) was significantly and positively associated with WTP ($p = 0.006$) as was the importance placed on the *Benefit* of amphibian biodiversity ($p = 0.003$) and *Income* ($p < 0.01$), respectively. General *Knowledge* of amphibians was associated with WTP ($p = 0.019$). Contrary to our expectations, *Engage* ($p = 0.381$) was not significantly associated with WTP. In terms of the other demographic characteristics, *Female* was marginally negatively associated with WTP ($p = 0.095$) and *Age*; $p = 0.116$) was not associated with WTP. Whether respondents had ever witnessed a pet amphibian being released into a natural area (*Release*; $p = 0.092$) was

significantly positively associated with WTP in the normal model but not in the log model ($p = 0.238$).

4. Discussion

Visitors to protected natural areas can be a critical source of funding to generate financial support for conservation projects. However, doing so requires understanding whether and how much visitors value resources needing protection and what factors impact their willingness to contribute to their conservation. This study examined the willingness of visitors to natural areas in the southern Appalachian Mountain region of the United States, a global amphibian biodiversity hotspot, to donate money to a hypothetical non-profit amphibian conservation fund. To the authors' knowledge, this study represents the first attempt to estimate the value natural area visitors place on healthy amphibian populations in the Appalachian Mountain region and there are several key takeaways that are important to regional and global amphibian conservation. First, the overwhelming majority of natural area visitors were willing to donate at least \$1 per natural area visit to support amphibian conservation with an estimated mean per visitor, per trip, WTP exceeding US \$10. In a similar study, Cerda and Losada (2013) found that visitors to a protected area located in a global biodiversity hotspot in central Chile were WTP \$8.20 per visit (~US\$10.82 in 2022 dollars) for habitat improvements and monitoring to support populations of the endangered endemic Chilean frog (*Caudiverbera caudiverbera* Linne) (Díaz-Paez and Ortiz, 2003). Taken together, these findings confirm protected area visitors assign value to, and are willing to pay to support, healthy amphibian populations; given the GSMNP's annual visitation, they also imply park visitors are a potentially significant source of funding to support regional amphibian conservation. Estimates from this study can be used to approximate the potential economic benefit of projects intended to protect amphibians in natural areas like GSMNP. For example, if only 21 % (i.e., the proportion of respondents that reported frequently or regularly engaging in amphibian-related activities while visiting natural areas) of the 14.1 million annual visitors that visited GSMNP in 2021 contributed \$10 (estimated Mean WTP in this study) during at least one visit in the year, this would generate \$29 million in financial resources. Moreover, the total benefit realized by the broader population of visitors, including those who only sometimes interact with amphibians or value amphibians without directly engaging with amphibians during the visit, will be many times greater than this. Aggregation of the benefits can be compared with cost of designing and implementing biosecurity measures in the natural areas.

Second, the importance visitors placed collectively on the benefits to humans from amphibian biodiversity were positively associated with WTP. This result sheds light on some of the values underlying visitor WTP and simplifies outreach and efforts to secure visitor donations to support amphibian conservation emphasize the linkages between healthy wild amphibian populations, the stability of ecosystems and human health and well-being. In a similar study, Christie et al. (2006) found that individuals valued ecosystems that had a direct impact on humans more than those which did not directly affect humans, whereas only forty-two percent of participants in the Cerda and Losada (2013) study cited direct use values, including that the Chilean frog is important for science and ecosystem functioning, as a motivation for their WTP; fifty-eight percent cited an existence value motivation and belief that the Chilean frog has the right to exist independent of any direct-use values derived by humans.

Third, visitors' familiarity with general knowledge of amphibians and perceptions regarding the severity of the threat of pathogen transmission in the natural areas they often visit were positively associated with WTP in at least one of the two model specifications. This is consistent with previous studies that have found a positive correlation between familiarity with a species and WTP for its conservation (e.g., Christie et al., 2006; Martín-López et al., 2007) and the degree of endangerment of wildlife species and individual WTP for their

conservation (e.g., Tkac, 1998; Tisdell et al., 2007). This result suggests the effectiveness of communication and outreach aimed at cultivating donor support may be enhanced through inclusion of general information about amphibians, their ecological importance and the threats to regional and global populations from introduced pathogens and diseases like chytridiomycosis and ranaviral disease.

Lastly, the effect of demographic characteristics on WTP was mixed. Unsurprisingly, income was significantly positively associated with WTP, which is consistent with the idea that the environment is a normal, or perhaps luxury, good to which individuals are willing to contribute more as their income increases. Although some studies have found women report stronger environmental attitudes and behaviors than men (e.g., Zeflezny et al., 2000; Hunter et al., 2004), gender differences in environmental intentions and behaviors are inconsistent in the literature (White et al., 2001; Cerda et al., 2012; Mzek et al., 2020). Evidence suggests the charisma of species (Metrick and Weitzman, 1996) and their perceived endangerment (Tisdell et al., 2004), for example, may influence the impact of gender on WTP for their conservation.

The relationship between the respondent age and willingness to pay was not significant under either model specification in our study. The effects of age on WTP for conservation are mixed in the literature with some studies concluding that as age increases, the odds of WTP increase (Bhandari and Heshmati, 2010; Gordillo et al., 2019) whereas others reporting the opposite to be true (Martín-López; Reynisdottir et al., 2008).

With over 10 million people consistently visiting the GSMNP in 2021, the results of this study suggest the economic value associated with regional amphibian conservation is substantial and that visitor donations could play a significant role in the conservation of the Appalachian region's wild amphibian populations. The implementation of mandatory parking fees in the GSMNP in 2023, and concomitant establishment of online and onsite venues for their payment, may result in new opportunities to engage with prospective visitors regarding the importance of the park's amphibian populations and secure donations for their support.

5. Conclusion

With human-wildlife interactions on the rise at highly visited natural areas, native wildlife populations, including amphibians, are increasingly vulnerable to anthropogenic stressors. As protected area managers are facing tighter budget allocations from legislators, there is a need to explore new funding streams to support projects combatting emerging issues like pathogen transfer, invasive species, etc. However, doing so requires understanding whether and how much visitors themselves care about such issues and are willing to pay to support such programs. Findings from this study suggest that visitors do care about and place value on protecting natural populations of amphibians at protected areas they visit. Further, it may be feasible to establish voluntary, user-paid, donation mechanisms to raise funds to help protect amphibian biodiversity. Such funding may be used to design and implement bio-security practices, increase visitor awareness and education regarding the best practices (e.g., cleaning, disinfecting stations) and regulation and enforcement around vulnerable habitats/populations. Our findings also indicate that increasing visitor awareness of the importance and value of amphibians and educating them on the emerging threats to biodiversity may help improve their attitudes and willingness to support conservation programs. Even though this study was focused on amphibians and in two natural areas in the Southern Appalachian region, these findings shed light on visitor behavior at protected areas. Conducting similar studies of protected area visitors' knowledge, attitudes and values in the context of amphibian conservation in other protected areas may increase the generalizability of these findings. Moreover, the economic benefit estimated may be used in future "benefit transfer" studies to approximate the value of amphibian conservation programs in other similar protected areas.

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Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

The data that has been used is confidential.

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Ethical standards

This study was reviewed and approved by the University of Tennessee's Institutional Review Board for human subjects' research (Approval#: UTK-IRB-21-06494-XM).

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