

**Dissertationes Forestales 385**

Gamified data collection for participative forest planning

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Academic dissertation

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## ABSTRACT

Technological advances and evolving public expectations have created new avenues for participatory forest planning. However, traditional public involvement methods often face challenges, including low participation and limited participant diversity. Contemporary forest planning increasingly functions as a design process that requires tools capable of efficiently gathering stakeholder preferences alongside technical inventory data while ensuring active engagement. This dissertation investigated how gamification approaches can address these challenges by collecting forest data to support participatory processes. A conceptual framework was developed that combines *Technology-Mediated Environmental Engagement*, *Participatory Forest Planning*, and *Cultural Adaptation* to examine how gamification can connect technical data collection with stakeholder participation across diverse contexts.

This research adopted a progressive mixed-methods approach through three studies: utilising geocaching to collect preference data, developing specialised augmented reality applications for forest scanning, and investigating cross-cultural implementation. Article I demonstrated that existing location-based gaming platforms can be leveraged to gather meaningful social data, revealing diverse landscape preferences and human-forest relationships, though spatial accessibility constraints and diminished engagement patterns were evident. Article II found that gamification design significantly affects participant behaviour, movement, and data characteristics, with different game mechanics producing distinct point cloud features suitable for specific forest inventory needs. Article III validated the technical transferability of gamified augmented reality applications between Finnish and Japanese contexts, although significant location effects highlighted that culturally adaptive gamification is essential for optimal implementation.

The findings validate the framework's core principles while highlighting key tensions between purpose and play, where recreational engagement is instrumentalised to collect data for forest design planning. Effective implementation depends on integrating all three conceptual pillars, technological, participatory, and cultural, rather than considering them separately. It also relies on institutional capacity to incorporate citizen-generated data into formal planning. As forest planning evolves towards more inclusive approaches, balancing technical precision with social licence to operate, gamification offers a versatile approach that, when carefully designed and culturally adapted, can enhance participatory forest management while maintaining technical rigour. Future work should focus on sustaining engagement beyond novelty periods and integrating gamified approaches into operational workflows. Additionally, expanding demographic inclusion is essential to promote equitable and inclusive environmental decision-making.

**Keywords:** participative forestry, location-based games, human-forest relationships, landscape preferences, augmented reality, laser scanning

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Forests were my first playgrounds, and they became my life's work. They are places where stories are told, where the imagination can run wild, and mine often does. Whenever I find myself sitting before the campfire and listening to the forest choir, my way has always become clear. Forestry is a very human undertaking, and forest planning, at its best, is not only about data and optimisation but also about dialogue, experience, and the sharing of meaning. As we fill our work with ever more capable tools and toys, I hope we remember not to play the humans away from our forest systems, whether digital or ecological. This thesis is offered in that spirit, and I hope it gives something back to the forests of the world, as they have given so much to me.

Ylästö, Vantaa  
12th April 2026  
Philip Chambers

## LIST OF ORIGINAL ARTICLES

This thesis is based on data presented in the following articles, referred to by the Roman Numerals I-IV.

- I Chambers P**, Halla T, Silvennoinen H, Hujala T, Tikkanen J (2024). Using a location-based game to collect preference information for urban and rural forest planning. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 252, article id 105195. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landurbplan.2024.105195>
- II Nummenmaa T**, Laato S, **Chambers P**, Yrttimaa T, Vastaranta M, Buruk OT, Hamari J (2024). Employing Gamified Crowdsourced Close-Range Sensing in the Pursuit of a Digital Twin of the Earth. *International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction* 41(8): 4668–4684. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10447318.2024.2352922>
- III Chambers P**, Laato S, Yoshida H, Yrttimaa T, Liimatainen K, Uhlgren V, Hamari J, Hujala T, Vastaranta M, Nummenmaa T (2025). Gamified Augmented Reality for Data Collection in Urban Forests. *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening* 113, article id 129036. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ufug.2025.129036>

Philip Chambers is entirely responsible for the summary of this doctoral thesis. His contribution to the papers included in this thesis is as follows:

- I. Philip Chambers (PC) was the main author. The study was conceptualised and planned by PC, Jukka Tikkanen (JM), Harri Silvennoinen (HS) and Tuulikki Halla (THa). PC, HS and THa carried out the study design, collected and analysed data, and interpreted the results. PC wrote the article with co-authors Teppo Hujala (THb), JT, HS and THa.
- II. PC was a co-author and collected most of the data. The study was planned and designed by Timo Nummenmaa (TN), Samuli Laato (SL), PC, and Mikko Vastaranta (MV). PC, TN, and SL collected the data and, together with Tuomas Yrttimaa (TY), analysed the data. The aforementioned authors, alongside Oguz Turan Buruk (OB) and Juho Hamari (JH), interpreted the results. TN, SL and PC wrote the article with the co-authors.
- III. PC was the main author. The study was planned and designed in collaboration with TN, SL, and HY. PC collected and analysed data and interpreted the results in collaboration with TN, SL, HY, Kaisa Liimatainen (KL), and Ville-Veikko Uhlgren (VU). PC wrote the article with the co-authors TN, VU, KL, TH, and JH.

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# 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Forest planning challenges in the digital age

The emergence of systematic forest management in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup>-century German states represented a contested transformation toward quantitative approaches to timber production, yield prediction, and state revenue optimisation (Hölzl, 2010). Throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries, this approach, characterised by hierarchical, expert-led methods, was widely adopted in Europe and North America. These systems established clear decision-making hierarchies, with forest policies carried out through strategic, tactical, and operational plans that focused on technical efficiency and economic optimisation (Puettmann et al., 2008; Bettinger & Boston, 2017).

However, from the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century onwards, this expert-led model faced growing challenges as societal expectations shifted, and conflicts arose over the exclusion of stakeholders from forest decision-making processes (J. Kangas, 1994; Nousiainen & Mola-Yudego, 2022). The diversity of forest systems, stakeholder values, and management contexts across regions created growing tensions between technical and standardised approaches and local adaptation needs, generating conflicts that required new approaches to securing social acceptance of forest management activities. (McDermott et al., 2010). Consequently, forest management increasingly required what has been termed a ‘social license to operate’ - ongoing approval and acceptance from local communities and society at large for forest management activities (Dare et al., 2014; Moffat et al., 2016). This led to a gradual movement from purely technical optimisation toward approaches that integrate stakeholder engagement and conflict prevention alongside conventional forest management objectives (Menzel et al., 2012).

Contemporary forest planning increasingly functions as a design process that integrates multiple objectives beyond timber production optimisation (Von Gadow & Pukkala, 2008; Eyvindson et al., 2023; Afsar et al., 2026), particularly evident in Nordic countries such as Finland and also in the United Kingdom, where forest planning explicitly results in "forest design plans" (Tahvanainen et al., 2001; Bell et al., 2005; Bell, 2013). This design-oriented approach recognises forest planning as requiring both quantitative analysis and adaptive problem-solving to balance multiple objectives while remaining responsive to diverse stakeholder needs, including non-human (such as wildlife) and more-than-human perspectives (the interconnected relationships between humans, species, and environments) within forest ecosystems (Başkent, 2018; Jhagroe, 2024). These developments in forest planning practice have occurred alongside the emergence of participatory forest planning approaches and collaborative governance strategies that seek to address these complex social and ecological challenges (Friedman et al., 2020).

The spectrum of public engagement approaches utilised in forest planning ranges from intensive co-creation through citizen science and living labs (Bonney et al., 2009; Schlieder & Matyas, 2009) to low-barrier forms of data collection through existing recreational activities. While intensive engagement approaches require participants to become co-creators of knowledge and contribute directly to forest planning processes, low-barrier embedded approaches leverage existing behaviours and motivations to gather environmental observations and stakeholder perspectives without requiring an explicit commitment to forest management objectives (Baldessari et al., 2024; Lawrence et al., 2021). This continuum of

engagement reflects that different communities have varying levels of interest and capacity for involvement in forest planning processes.

The ubiquitous nature of mobile device ownership has democratised access to data collection technologies while simultaneously creating public expectations for greater involvement in environmental decision-making (Bonney et al., 2009; Haklay, 2013). This convergence of advanced digital technologies and changing social expectations has created new opportunities for forest planning approaches that can bridge technical data needs with stakeholder engagement requirements. Consequently, forest planners now have access to unprecedented volumes of data through remote sensing, Internet of Things (IoT) sensors, and citizen-generated content. However, this abundance has created new challenges in determining what data is actually needed for effective decision-making (Lindenmayer & Likens, 2018). Gamification approaches offer potential solutions for bridging these technical capabilities with meaningful stakeholder engagement (Vastaranta et al., 2022).

## **1.2 Games, gamification in environmental citizen engagement**

Gamification, the application of game design elements and mechanics in non-game contexts, has emerged as a promising approach for environmental engagement and data collection (Deterding et al., 2011). As a form of motivational information systems engineering, gamification recognises that individuals have diverse intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Gamified applications can be designed to elicit specific behaviours in context-specific ways (Morschheuser et al., 2018; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). This principle is evident in the success of location-based games, such as Pokémon GO and geocaching, which have demonstrated the potential for games to motivate spatial exploration and environmental interaction on a massive scale (Althoff et al., 2016; Laato et al., 2022).

Gamification offers a promising pathway for the forest sector to earn the social license to operate by transforming traditionally opaque technical processes into transparent and engaging experiences that build trust through meaningful participation (Falk et al., 2023). Unlike conventional consultation methods, where public debate often occurs after key decisions have been made and stakeholder input may have limited influence, gamified approaches can enable continuous, low-barrier engagement throughout the planning process (Speelman et al., 2018).

In environmental contexts, gamification serves a dual purpose: collecting valuable data for forest planning and management decisions while simultaneously helping participants understand ecological systems and human-environment relationships (Palacin-Silva et al., 2018). This approach can contribute to forest managers earning and maintaining social license to operate by providing accessible and engaging ways for people to interact with and understand forest planning processes. The widespread adoption of mobile technologies, applications and online platforms creates new possibilities for motivating behaviours that support both data collection needs and broader forest planning objectives.

However, gamified approaches face implementation challenges, including designing appropriate gamification for specific purposes (Morschheuser et al., 2018), ensuring representative participation (Bowser et al., 2014), sustaining engagement beyond the initial novelty (Hamari et al., 2014), and effectively integrating citizen-generated data into professional forest planning workflows (Boissière et al., 2014; Lindenmayer & Likens, 2018).

Furthermore, the effectiveness of gamified approaches may vary significantly across cultural contexts (Arm et al., 2022; Farinha & Pina, 2025). Human-forest relationships, recreational patterns, and technology adoption behaviours differ markedly between societies (Hägström, 2019). Cultural differences in forest relationships require careful consideration for gamification design. For instance, Finnish forest recreation emphasises individual access rights through 'everyone's rights' (jokaisenoikeus), while Japanese approaches emphasise community stewardship through 'satoyama' traditions of collective landscape management (Fukamachi et al., 2011; Muttilainen et al., 2023). These different cultural frameworks for human-forest interaction suggest that successful gamification approaches for forest monitoring must adapt to local values and practices.

Recent advances in consumer-grade technologies, particularly LiDAR-equipped smartphones and augmented reality capabilities, have opened up new possibilities for crowdsourced environmental data collection (Gollob et al., 2021; Tatsumi et al., 2023). These technologies enable the collection of technically sophisticated data through accessible interfaces, making them particularly suitable for gamified applications that can bridge the gap between professional forest inventory requirements and public engagement.

The diversity of gamification approaches raises important questions about how different game mechanics (design elements like points, rewards, challenges, and feedback systems) influence not only user engagement but also the type and quality of data collected (Cechanowicz et al., 2013; Hamari et al., 2014). Understanding these relationships is crucial for designing effective gamified systems that balance recreational appeal with scientific rigour.

### **1.3 Objectives of the dissertation**

This dissertation examines the application of gamification approaches for forest data collection to support participatory forest planning processes. The research addresses three progressive questions:

RQ1 How effectively can location-based games collect preference data needed for participatory forest planning?

RQ2 How do different gamification strategies affect both user experience and data quality in technical environmental scanning applications?

RQ3 How do cultural factors influence the effectiveness of gamified forest monitoring approaches across different contexts?

Article I investigates whether existing location-based gaming platforms, such as geocaching, can collect meaningful forest preference data from recreational forest visitors. Article II examines how different gamification design choices in tailored augmented reality apps affect user experience and the technical quality of collected point cloud data. Article III investigates the role of cultural contexts in the effectiveness of gamified forest monitoring by comparing implementations in Finland and Japan.

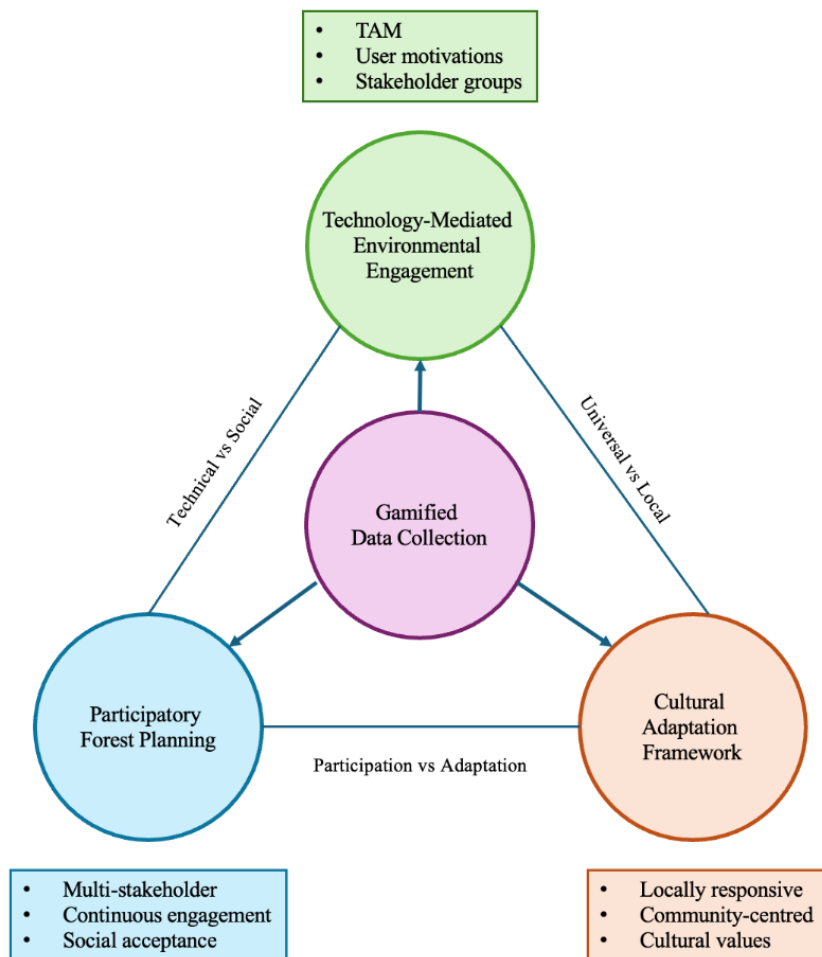
Beyond empirical findings, this research aims to advance methodological innovation in forest planning practice by exploring the application of game design principles to environmental data collection challenges. The research seeks to identify trade-offs between user engagement and data quality, develop design principles for purpose-specific applications, and establish frameworks for the cultural adaptation of gamified approaches.

Collectively, these studies aim to demonstrate how game-based approaches can support the evolution of forest planning from hierarchical, expert-driven processes toward more inclusive, design-oriented practices that maintain scientific rigour while earning social license through meaningful engagement.

## 2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Contemporary forest planning operates within a complex socio-technical system, where timber volume and economic optimisation models that focus on maximising net present value through timber prices, harvesting costs, and rotation periods are being expanded to integrate social, environmental, and cultural considerations alongside financial objectives (Kangas & Kangas, 2005; Pukkala, 2008; Baskent et al., 2024). This research positions gamified data collection as a bridge between technical forest inventory requirements and participatory processes in forest planning.

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) rests on three interconnected pillars that converge through gamified data collection approaches. These pillars address the technological, social and cultural dimensions necessary for effective environmental monitoring in forest planning contexts.



**Figure 1.** Conceptual framework for gamified data collection for forest planning.

### *Technology-Mediated Environmental Engagement*

This pillar examines how digital technologies can facilitate meaningful human-environment interactions through purposeful design. Building on the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), which posits that perceived usefulness and ease of use determine technology adoption (Kalana & Junaini, 2025), this framework extends beyond simple acceptance to examine how environmental technologies can be designed to match specific user motivations rather than solely optimising for technical requirements (Papagiannidis & Marikyan, 2022).

Gamification serves as a form of motivational information systems engineering (Vastaranta et al., 2022), providing a design layer that can align technical data collection needs with diverse user motivations. This approach recognises that forest planning stakeholders - from recreational forest visitors to professional foresters – possess varying intrinsic motivations, technical capabilities, and time availabilities (Laato et al., 2022). By tailoring game mechanics and interaction designs to specific stakeholder groups within forest planning processes, gamified systems can accommodate this diversity while maintaining data quality (Bakhanova et al., 2023).

This pillar directly addresses the first research objective by exploring whether location-based game infrastructure can effectively collect forest-preference data. It also addresses the second research objective by examining how various gamification design choices affect both user engagement and data quality.

### *Participatory Forest Planning*

Forest planning has evolved from data-driven optimisation toward multi-objective, multi-stakeholder approaches that require social acceptance (Reed, 2008; Tikkanen et al., 2010; A. Kangas et al., 2015). This evolution reflects growing recognition that technical optimisation alone cannot address the complex social-ecological challenges facing contemporary forest planning. Effective participatory planning requires both accessible engagement mechanisms and processes that enable genuine stakeholder influence on decisions - continuous engagement rather than episodic consultation (Boissière et al., 2014).

This framework positions gamified data collection as a mechanism for operationalising participatory planning principles. By embedding data collection within recreational or professional activities, gamification can generate ongoing stakeholder input without requiring explicit commitment to lengthy planning processes (A. Kangas et al., 2015). This continuous engagement model supports adaptive management approaches while building social license through transparent, accessible participation opportunities (Falk et al., 2023).

This pillar connects to all three research objectives by examining how gamification can facilitate different forms of stakeholder engagement - from preference expression (1) to technical data contribution (2) across cultural contexts (3).

### *Cultural Adaptation*

Human-forest relationships are culturally constructed, reflecting diverse values, practices, and governance across societies. This pillar emphasises that effective forest planning technologies must be responsive to local cultural contexts rather than imposing universal solutions (Mustalahti, 2009). Research with indigenous and local communities indicates that this adaptation is essential, as studies highlight that technologies not aligned with local values or socio-ecological contexts can be ineffective or harmful (Sarkar & Chapman, 2021). Additionally, studies on participatory forest management show that cultural biases and differing worldviews can greatly hinder collaborative efforts (Hoogstra-Klein et al., 2012).

Cultural adaptation of participatory technologies should extend beyond interface translation to encompass alignment with local forest use patterns, cultural values regarding nature and technology interaction, and established local governance practices (Sarkki et al., 2019). Gamification research has shown that cultural dimensions can significantly affect engagement, where individualistic cultures respond more positively to competitive leaderboards and personal achievement, whereas collectivist cultures favour team-based activities and group rewards (Hsu & Chen, 2021). These differences are particularly relevant for forest contexts, where communities often hold deep, culturally specific relationships to forest spaces (Cocks, 2006; Parrotta & Trostler, 2012).

This framework advocates for community-centred design processes that adapt technological interfaces and engagement mechanics to local contexts, values, and practices. This includes consideration of cultural norms around technology use, recreational patterns in forests, expectations for participation in environmental decision-making, and preferred modes of human-nature interaction. Successful gamification design must balance technological standardisation (necessary for data quality and system efficiency) with cultural responsiveness (necessary for meaningful engagement and social acceptance).

This pillar is central to the third research objective, which explicitly examines how cultural factors influence gamification effectiveness across Finnish and Japanese contexts, but also informs the design considerations explored in the second and third research objectives.

#### *Framework Integration*

These three pillars are integrated through gamified data collection, serving as the central integrating mechanism (shown in the centre of Figure 1). Successful gamified forest monitoring requires all pillars to be reflected upon:

- Technical-social integration: Technology design must address both data quality requirements and user engagement needs, balancing rigour with accessibility
- Universal-local adaptation: Systems need to balance standardisation for data comparability while adapting to cultural contexts
- Participation-adaptation balance: Engagement strategies should be both inclusive, allowing stakeholder influence, and culturally sensitive, respecting local values and practices.

The arrows linking the pillars in Figure 1 represent these integration challenges. The framework suggests that gamification acts as a design approach capable of addressing these conflicting demands by allowing adaptable, context-specific implementation of game mechanics, which can be customised for different stakeholder groups, data requirements, and cultural contexts.

This integrated framework underpins the progressive research approach of this dissertation. Article I investigates the basic link between technology and participation using existing gaming infrastructure. Article II analyses how technology design decisions impact the challenge of integrating technical and social aspects. Article III explores cultural adaptation by comparing implementations in different cultural settings. Collectively, these studies examine how the three pillars of the framework interact in practice to promote participatory forest planning through gamified methods.

### 3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 3.1 Research Philosophy and Epistemological Approach

This dissertation addresses forest planning that spans technical, social, and cultural dimensions, requiring an integrated methodological approach (J. Kangas & Kangas, 2005; Pappila & Pölonen, 2012). The research recognises that forest planning is a complex discipline that demands multiple types of knowledge: technical information on forest resources and production, along with stakeholder views on values, preferences, and priorities. Effective forest planning must integrate both dimensions, using quantitative data to guide management options while also considering diverse perspectives to achieve socially acceptable results that balance economic, ecological, and community objectives (Buchy & Hoverman, 2000).

This research adopts a pragmatic, post-positivist stance in which different types of reality and knowledge claims depend on the phenomenon being studied (Nightingale, 2003; Cresswell & Clarke, 2025). For technical forest data, such as point cloud measurements, spatial coordinates, and tree characteristics, this research acknowledges that while physical forest structures exist independently of observation, our representations of them are inherently approximations (Bhaskar, 1975; Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Digital twins of forests, whether captured through consumer-grade mobile device sensors or professional-grade equipment, are temporal snapshots subject to measurement errors and technological limitations (Döllner et al., 2023). These representations approach but cannot perfectly replicate reality. The value of technical data is therefore assessed by its usefulness (Habermas, 1971): whether meaningful insights into forest characteristics (such as tree dimensions, standing volume, phenology, or structural patterns) can be derived, and whether it can inform better surveying methodologies, tool design, or enhance human-forest-machine interactions.

For preference and perception data, this research acknowledges both the reality of subjective experiences and their socio-cultural construction (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Greider & Garkovich, 1994). Forest preferences captured through surveys and participant observations represent genuine individual experiences occurring at specific moments in particular places. However, these preferences are not formed in isolation; they emerge through familial, societal, and cultural influences that shape how individuals perceive and value forest environments (Atran & Medin, 2008; Hokajärvi et al., 2009; O'Brien et al., 2024). This dual recognition, that preferences are both real subjective experiences and culturally constructed phenomena, requires methods capable of capturing local specificity and temporal variation while acknowledging broader cultural patterns (Edwards et al., 2012).

The integration of technical measurements with human perceptions reflects the practical reality of forest planning, that both objective forest characteristics and subjective human values matter for effective decision-making (A. Kangas et al., 2006; Upton et al., 2012). Data collection methods should meet human needs, preferences, and capacities for engagement. This dissertation positions gamification as a design layer capable of bridging these domains (Deterding et al., 2011; Hamari et al., 2014), motivating human involvement in gathering technical data and making complex planning processes more accessible and transparent (Bowser et al., 2014; Gómez-Barrón et al., 2019).

This research aims to collect objective data through rigorous experimental design and systematic analysis. However, it recognises that the researcher's interdisciplinary

background, covering forestry, gamification, and human-computer interaction, influences research questions, design choices, and interpretation of findings (Rose, 1997). This positioning aids recognition of opportunities at disciplinary intersections while also necessitating reflexivity on potential biases (Finlay, 2002).

Validity and reliability are ensured through targeted, approach-specific strategies. Technical data quality is ensured through established remote sensing metrics (point density, spatial coverage, and measurement accuracy) (Liang et al., 2016), and adapted for consumer-grade sensors. Preference data validity relies on rigorous survey design with questions developed through literature review (Dillman et al., 2014; Silvennoinen et al., 2002), and active engagement with location-based gaming communities. Gamification effectiveness is evaluated through both user experience feedback and objective data quality metrics, acknowledging doctoral research limitations while providing insights into specific contexts and applications (Maxwell, 2010).

This research is fundamentally oriented toward practical application (Goldkuhl, 2012). The goal is not purely theoretical understanding but actionable knowledge that can improve forest planning practice, inform data collection tool design, and advance gamification as a design approach for environmental engagement (Kelly & Cordeiro, 2020; Morgan, 2014). Successful gamification requires a systematic review of all system actors to identify who to involve, how, and for what purpose (Reed et al., 2009; Palmquist, 2024). Similarly, this dissertation uses systemic thinking in forest planning by analysing various stakeholder groups and the methods and technologies that allow their active and meaningful participation as interconnected contributions to a larger planning system in which decisions, data flows, and values interact.

The knowledge produced is therefore pragmatic and context-specific rather than universally applicable (Haraway, 1988). In accordance with pragmatism, the ultimate aim of this research is to generate knowledge that is actionable within real forest planning contexts. Findings from geocaching trails, augmented reality studies with specific participant groups, and cross-cultural comparisons between Finland and Japan provide insights into possibilities and limitations rather than definitive solutions. This modest epistemological stance reflects both the exploratory nature of applying gamification in forest planning and recognition that local adaptation is necessary for broader implementation (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

### **3.2 Progressive research design**

This dissertation adopts a progressive mixed-methods approach, beginning with the use of existing digital infrastructure, followed by the development of new applications, and culminating in tests of their cross-cultural applicability. The research design intentionally increases complexity and control over gamification elements.

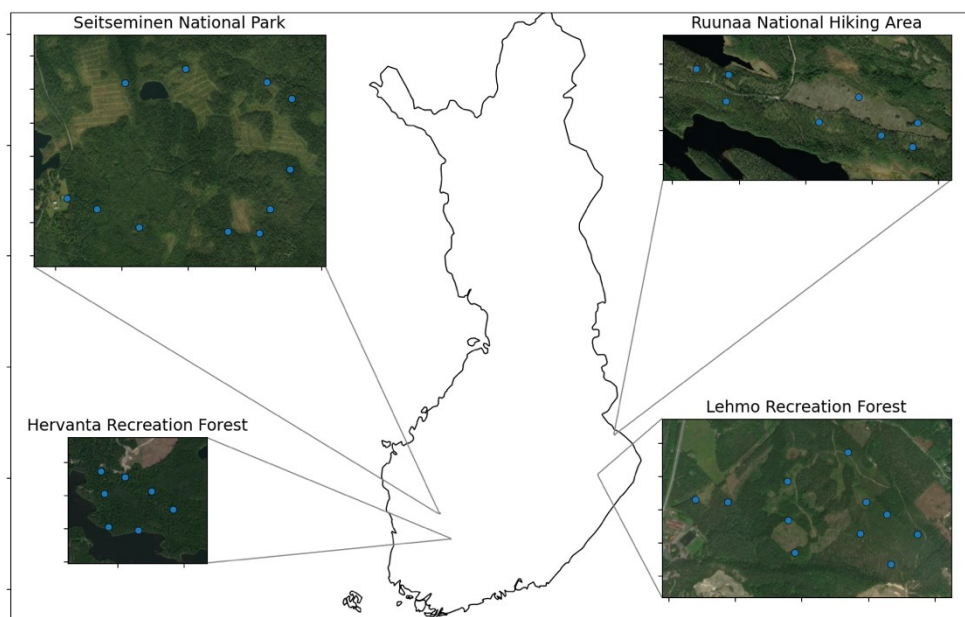
Article I utilised the established geocaching platform to test the core hypothesis that location-based games can collect meaningful data for forest planning. This approach provided access to a motivated, pre-existing user community while minimising development costs and technical barriers. Building on these findings, Article II involved the creation of custom augmented reality applications to examine how specific gamification design choices influence both data collection outcomes and user experiences. This transition from existing to customised platforms allowed for systematic exploration of how specific design choices, such as goal structure, feedback mechanisms, and interaction patterns, influence both the quantity and quality of the collected point cloud data. Article III incorporated a comparative

component to determine whether the principles and approaches identified remained effective across different cultural and environmental contexts, specifically between Finland and Japan.

The methodological progression also reflects increasing sophistication in data collection capabilities. While Article I relied on traditional survey methods embedded within the geocaching framework, Article II incorporated real-time environmental laser scanning using LiDAR technology, marking a considerable advancement in the technical complexity of forest data that can be citizen-generated. This shift from subjective preference data to objective environmental measurements illustrates the growing potential of gamification methods to address various forest planning requirements. The comparative implementation in Article III provides preliminary insights into the applicability of gamified environmental data collection across different cultural and environmental contexts.

### 3.3 Study sites and participants

The selection of study sites followed a systematic approach designed to capture variation in both forest characteristics and user populations. In Article I, four sites were established across Finland, including two urban forests (Lehmo Recreation Forest in Joensuu and Hervanta Recreation Forest in Tampere) and two rural forests (Ruunaa National Hiking Area and Seitsemien National Park) (see Figure 2). This urban-rural contrast was essential for understanding how population density and accessibility influence participation patterns in gamified data collection. The urban sites were chosen for their proximity to population centres and established recreational use, whereas the rural sites were located in more remote forest areas with distinct visitor patterns and management objectives.



**Figure 2.** Map of geocaching trail locations in Eastern and Western Finland (Adapted from Article I, Figure 1, p. 3). Map data sources: National Land Survey of Finland; aerial photography - ESRI.

Article II adopted a more flexible site-selection approach, utilising various forest locations across Finland that met the technical requirements for AR testing. These sites needed to offer diverse forest structures to evaluate the scanning capabilities of different gamification designs while remaining accessible to research participants. The specific locations varied by participant to facilitate convenience sampling, while ensuring that all sites contained sufficient forest complexity to test the full range of AR interactions thoroughly.

For Article III, the site selection process involved identifying comparable urban forest settings in Finland and Japan (Figure 3). This required controlling for factors such as forest type, accessibility, and urban environment, while allowing cultural differences in forest use patterns to become apparent. Japan was selected as a comparison country due to its technological advancement and distinctive forest use practices, providing a meaningful test of whether the gamified approaches could perform similarly in a different socio-cultural and environmental context.

Participant recruitment strategies varied across the three studies to match their specific objectives. Article I relied solely on voluntary participation from the existing geocaching community, resulting in 966 survey responses from 3,021 cache visits (Article I, Table 3, p. 5). This self-selected sample provided valuable insights into motivated users but also revealed demographic limitations, with 89% of respondents holding a college education or higher and 71% residing in urban areas (Article I, Table 4, p. 6). Article II used convenience sampling to recruit 16 participants with diverse backgrounds in gaming, AR technology, and forest use (Article II, Table 3, p. 11). This smaller sample size was appropriate for the intensive data collection methods used, including think-aloud protocols and post-experience interviews. Article III required participant samples in both countries (N=31; Finland n=16, Japan n=15), necessitating recruitment strategies that accounted for the different gaming cultures and forest visitation patterns, while maintaining methodological consistency (Article III, Table 2, p. 6).



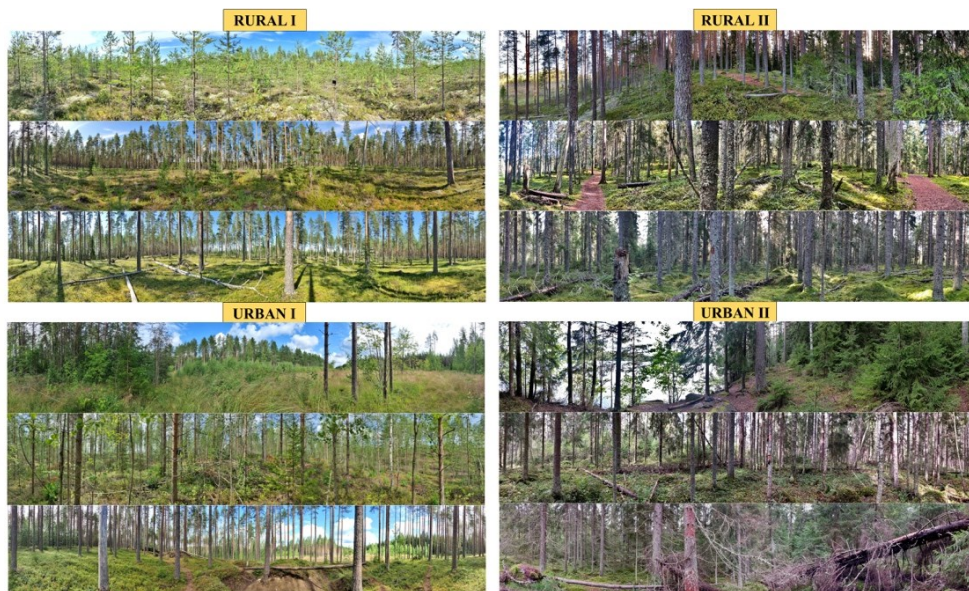
**Figure 3.** Article III workshop sites: Urban forests in Joensuu, Finland, and Hakodate, Japan. Map data source: Natural Earth Data.

### 3.4 Data collection methods

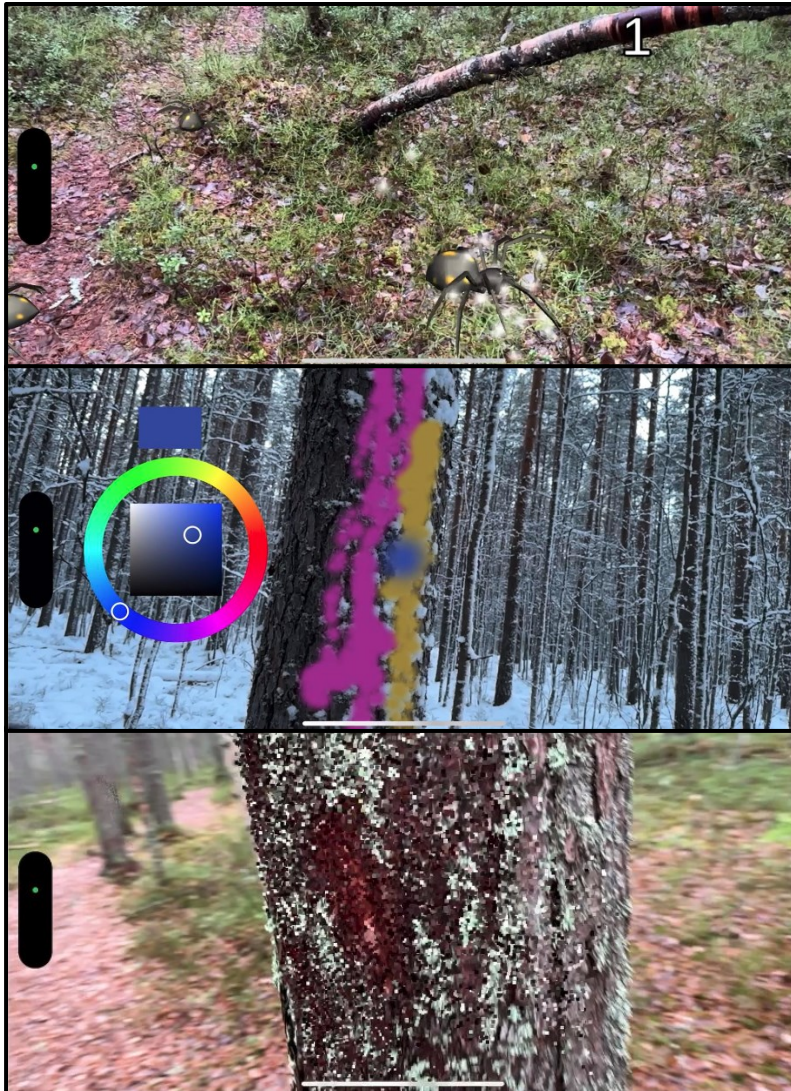
The data collection methods used across the three studies demonstrate a shift from traditional survey techniques to multi-modal data collection systems. All studies adhered to key methodological principles, including collecting data at the location of the experience, combining quantitative and qualitative methods, and capturing real-time experiences rather than relying on retrospective recall. This focus on contemporaneous data collection addresses a common limitation in traditional forest planning-related research, where participants often recall past experiences rather than describing their immediate ones.

In Article I, embedded surveys were integrated into the existing geocaching infrastructure through carefully designed cache descriptions. Each cache page contained a voluntary participation statement, a brief introduction to the research, and a link to a mobile-optimised survey that collected data from participants at each location (Figure 4). The surveys combined quantitative measures using established landscape preference scales with qualitative open-ended questions about forest relationships and experiences. Additionally, an autophotographic component asked participants to capture images representing their most and least favourite aspects of each location. This mixed-methods approach produced rich data, with an 89% completion rate for qualitative questions and meaningful photographic submissions that revealed consistent patterns in environmental preferences.

Article II expanded the data collection toolkit by combining multiple concurrent data streams. Screen recordings captured all user interactions with the AR applications (Figure 5), while voice recordings documented think-aloud protocols as participants engaged with different gamification designs. The applications themselves collected point cloud data and mesh information using the devices' LiDAR sensors, producing objective environmental scans in parallel with subjective user experiences. Post-experience interviews provided



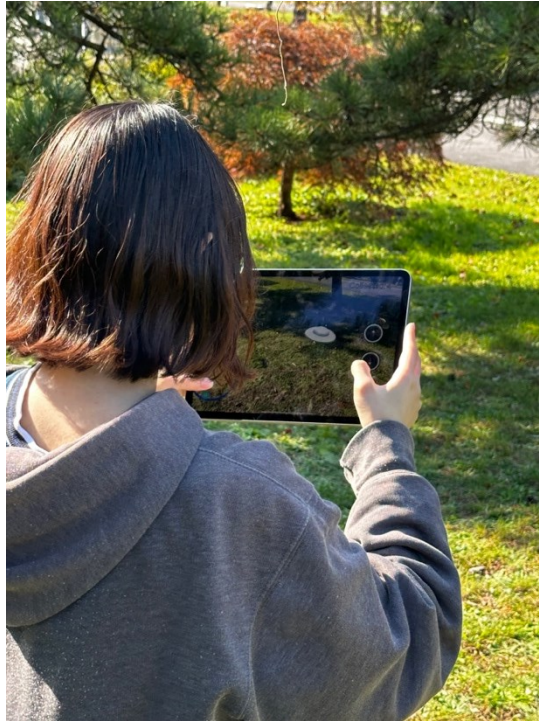
**Figure 4.** Panoramic images from geocaching trail sites showing landscape diversity across urban and rural locations (Article I, Figure 2, p. 3).



**Figure 5.** Screenshots of the three augmented reality scenarios used in Study II: (top to bottom) Spider Vacuuming, Spray Painting, Space Probe Retrieval, Environment Scanning. The control condition (Nothing) displayed only the camera viewfinder without AR elements (adapted from Article II, Figures 1-3, pp. 4-5).

reflective insights that complemented the real-time data capture. This multimodal approach enabled triangulation between what users said, did, and the data they generated.

The implementation of Article III in both Finnish and Japanese contexts required adapting data collection tools to ensure linguistic and contextual clarity while maintaining methodological comparability (Figure 6). A native Japanese speaker translated surveys to ensure conceptual consistency, and minor adjustments were made to question framing based on informal cultural consultation. The gamified elements remained unchanged, and the



**Figure 6.** Participant collecting point cloud data during cross-cultural field study (Article III, Figure 2, p. 5).

methods for collecting technical data stayed consistent across all contexts. This consistency enabled an initial investigation into how cultural and environmental factors might influence user behaviour and data quality.

### 3.5 Gamification approaches

The evolution of gamification methods across the three studies demonstrates a systematic exploration of the design space for environmental data collection games. Article I's use of geocaching represented a minimal-intervention approach, as it integrated research data collection into an existing recreational activity without changing the core game experience. Geocaching trails, caches arranged along a route, ranged from 1.8 to 5.7 kilometres and each featured 7 to 11 caches, designed to provide thorough coverage of different forest types while minimising participant fatigue. Cache placement followed established geocaching guidelines, including a minimum distance of 161 metres between caches and terrain difficulty ratings of 1.5 or lower on geocaching's 5-point scale (where 1 is wheelchair accessible and 5 requires specialised equipment). This threshold ensured both physical accessibility and compatibility with the free version of the geocaching application, enabling broad participation. This approach demonstrated that meaningful data collection could be achieved without the need to develop new technologies or make significant modifications to existing recreational activities.

Article II marked a shift from using existing games to designing purpose-built experiences. The AR applications were specifically designed to motivate participants to systematically scan forest structures with their mobile device's LiDAR sensors, generating point cloud data of above-ground vegetation. By integrating this technical data collection into engaging, game-like interactions, the design aimed to capture detailed three-dimensional forest information, including tree positions, lower trunk and branch structure, and understory features, which could be useful for forest inventory and planning.

Four distinct AR designs were created to test different interaction paradigms and their effects on data collection (see Figure 5). The 'Nothing' scenario served as a control condition, displaying only the camera view without gamification features. This baseline helped isolate the effects of gamification from simply viewing forest environments on a mobile device. The 'Spider Vacuuming' scenario introduced clear goals and immediate feedback, with animated spiders appearing on forest surfaces that users needed to vacuum by tapping the screen. This target-driven approach was designed to encourage ground-level scanning and horizontal movement through the forest, collecting data suitable for understory assessment and tree positioning. The 'Spray Painting' scenario offered creative expression, allowing users to paint virtual colours onto forest surfaces. This design prompted participants to focus attention on individual trees and vertical surfaces, resulting in detailed scans of tree trunks and the lower canopy structures while balancing guided activity with user agency. The 'Environment Scanning' scenario visualised point cloud formation in real-time as small pixels appearing on scanned surfaces, making the data collection process transparent. This real-time feedback encouraged participants to identify and fill gaps in their scans, promoting systematic coverage of forest structures suitable for comprehensive structural analysis.

Each design represented different positions along key design dimensions: goal clarity (specific tasks versus open exploration), feedback immediacy (real-time versus post-hoc), user agency (directed versus creative), and data collection transparency (hidden versus visible). The 90-second duration for each scenario was determined through pilot testing to balance data collection needs with participant attention spans and technical constraints. The applications were developed using Unity game engine with AR Foundation framework, which ensured consistent technical performance across different scenarios while allowing for rapid prototyping and modification.

Article III focused on implementing the most promising approaches from Article II within a cross-cultural setting (Figure 7). In addition to the core AR experiences from Article II, a 'Space Probe Retrieval' game was introduced, where participants controlled a virtual UFO to collect robotic space probes. This design required precise 3D navigation and spatial awareness, promoting thorough scanning across multiple height layers and encouraging systematic exploration of the forest.



**Figure 7.** Screen captures of each gamified AR experience include: (a) Spider Vacuuming, where players vacuum spiders as they spawn; (b) Spray Painting, participants could freely paint objects in AR; (c) Space Probe Retrieval, requiring players to hover UFOS over probes; (d) Environmental Scanner, with point clouds visualised in AR.

### 3.6 Framework and methods of analyses

The analytical approaches used across the three studies combined established methods from multiple disciplines, including forest sciences, human-computer interaction, and cultural studies (Table 1). Quantitative analyses focused on measurable outcomes that could be compared across studies and contexts. Response rates were calculated as the proportion of cache visitors who completed surveys, providing a key metric for engagement effectiveness. Spatial analyses examined how distance from parking, trail characteristics, and cache sequence influenced participation patterns.

For the technical data of Article II, point cloud quality metrics commonly employed in close-range forest sensing were adapted (Gollob et al., 2021; Tatsumi et al., 2023). Key measures included point density (points per square metre), spatial coverage (convex hull area), height distribution (proportion of ground versus non-ground points), and completeness (gap analysis) (Liang et al., 2016). These metrics allowed for an objective comparison of data quality across different gamification designs, revealing that design choices had a significant influence on data characteristics. For statistical comparisons, suitable tests were used based on the data types and research questions, including chi-square tests for categorical comparisons and t-tests for continuous variables.

**Table 1.** Summary of research design and methods across studies (adapted from Articles I, II, and III).

	<b>Article I</b>	<b>Article II</b>	<b>Article III</b>
<b>Approach</b>	Location-based game integration	Purpose-built AR application testing	Cross-cultural comparison
<b>Gamification method</b>	Existing geocaching platform with embedded surveys	Four custom AR scenarios: Nothing (control), Spider Vacuuming, Spray Painting, Environment Scanning	AR scenarios from Article II + Space Probe Retrieval game
<b>Study sites</b>	4 locations in Finland: • Urban: Lehmo (Joensuu), Hervanta (Tampere) • Rural: Ruunaa (Liekka), Seitsemien (Ikaalinen, Ylöjärvi),	Convenience-sampled forested and tree-filled urban and peri-urban environments across Finland	Convenience-sampled forested and tree-filled urban environments in Finland and Japan
<b>Data collection period</b>	June 2022 – September 2023	November – December 2023	November – December 2024
<b>Participants</b>	N = 966 (3,021 cache visits)	N = 16	N = 31 (Finland n=16, Japan n=15)
<b>Data type</b>	<i>Quantitative:</i> Survey responses, spatial data, temporal patterns. <i>Qualitative:</i> Open-ended responses, participant photographs	<i>Quantitative:</i> Point cloud data, spatial coverage metrics, point density. <i>Qualitative:</i> Think-aloud protocols, interviews, screen recordings	<i>Quantitative:</i> Point cloud data, spatial metrics, survey responses. <i>Qualitative:</i> Observations, participant feedback
<b>Analysis methods</b>	<i>Quantitative:</i> Descriptive statistics (response rates, spatial and temporal patterns); Chi-squared goodness-of-fit tests <i>Qualitative:</i> Inductive content analysis, thematic analysis, photo-coding	<i>Quantitative:</i> Descriptive statistics, point cloud quality metrics; paired-sample t-tests. <i>Qualitative:</i> Thematic analysis, video analysis, behavioural coding	<i>Quantitative:</i> Descriptive statistics; paired-sample t-tests, correlation analysis, Fisher's exact test; two-way ANOVA; comparative analysis across locations <i>Qualitative:</i> Thematic analysis, cross-cultural comparative analysis

Qualitative analyses followed established procedures to ensure rigour and trustworthiness (Fingfeld-Connett, 2014; Kleres, 2011). The content analysis of open-ended survey responses in Article I used an inductive approach, allowing themes to emerge from the data rather than imposing predetermined categories. The identification of 15 distinct themes related to human-forest relationships demonstrated the richness of data that could be collected through gamified methods (Halla et al., 2023). The analysis process involved initial familiarisation with all responses, systematic coding, theme development, and validation through researcher triangulation, for both open-ended survey responses and the autophotographic data. For the survey responses, conventional content analysis procedures were followed, with coding and theme development conducted in spreadsheets to ensure transparency and traceability of decisions. Similarly, for the autophotographic data, a two-phase photo-coding methodology was conducted in spreadsheets, first cataloguing visible elements, then conducting thematic analysis to identify patterns in what participants chose to photograph.

Article II's analysis of user experience data combined multiple data streams to develop a comprehensive understanding of how participants interacted with different AR designs. Video analysis facilitated the coding of movement patterns, interaction sequences, and moments of confusion or delight. Think-aloud protocols were transcribed, coded, and analysed thematically using ATLAS.ti for Windows (ATLAS.ti 2024), with particular attention to expressions of enjoyment, frustration, or confusion. The integration of behavioural data (what users did) with experiential data (what users felt) revealed important disconnections between optimal data collection behaviours and enjoyable user experiences.

The cross-cultural comparative analysis in Article III required further analytical considerations. Beyond simply comparing outcomes between countries, the analysis aimed to identify universal principles versus culture-specific differences. The analysis assessed whether certain design elements worked universally or exhibited context-specific effects by comparing point cloud metrics, movement patterns, and participant feedback between Finnish and Japanese participants.

## 4 RESULTS

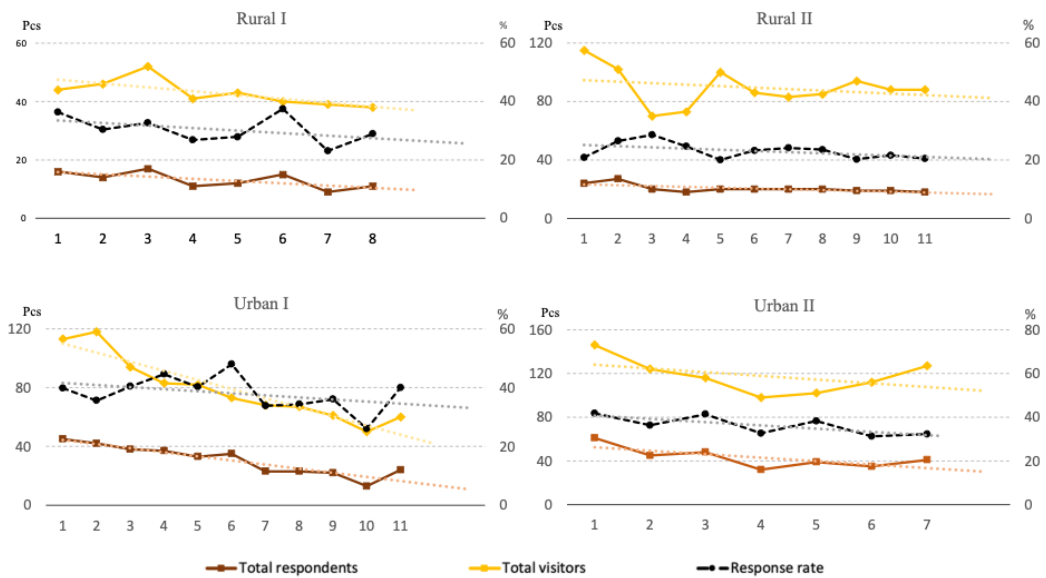
### 4.1 Geocaching for forest preference data (Article I)

To address the first research objective, investigating whether location-based games can effectively collect forest preference data for participatory forest planning, geocaching trails were established across four sites in urban and rural forest areas in Finland. The study achieved response rates ranging from 22.9% to 38.6%, collecting 966 valid survey responses from 3,021 cache visits between June 2022 and September 2023 (Table 2).

The spatial distribution of responses revealed clear differences between urban and rural areas. Urban trails saw significantly higher engagement, with the Tampere trail averaging 117.9 visits per cache compared to 42.9 for the rural trail in Eastern Finland, reflecting variations in population density, accessibility and geocaching community activity levels. Participation decreased with distance from access points in urban locations, with participation decreasing by 50% at distances over 2 kilometres from parking facilities or trailheads (Figure 8).

**Table 2.** Accumulation of cache logs and survey responses across all four trails (adapted from Article I, Table 3, p. 5).

	Area			
	U I	R I	U II	R II
Total number of cache finds across the whole trail	869	343	825	984
Number of caches in trail	11	8	7	11
Average visitors per cache on the trail	79	42.9	117.9	89.5
Finnish survey respondents across the whole trail	268	97	256	208
English survey respondents across the whole trail	67	8	45	17
Combined no. of respondents	335	105	301	225
Average respondents per cache	30.5	13.1	43	20.5
<b>Average response rate, %</b>	<b>38.6</b>	<b>30.6</b>	<b>36.5</b>	<b>22.9</b>



**Figure 8.** The effect of the distance from the parking place to the geocaches on the cache visits, cache responses and response rate across all four sites (adapted from Article I, Figure 7, p. 8).

Temporal analysis indicated that the first summer following trail establishment was important for data collection, with participation rates decreasing significantly in subsequent seasons. However, this may be specific to Finland, where winters are typically cold and trails are snow-covered. Despite temporal variation, data quality during peak periods was notably high. Participants actively engaged with qualitative questions, achieving an 89% completion rate for open-ended responses. Content analysis of these responses identified 15 distinct themes related to human-forest relationships, including aesthetic appreciation, biodiversity values, forest management concerns, temporal experiences, and wellbeing benefits (Table 3 below and Article I, Table 6, p. 10). This thematic richness suggests that participants were not completing surveys mechanically but were genuinely reflecting on their forest experiences.

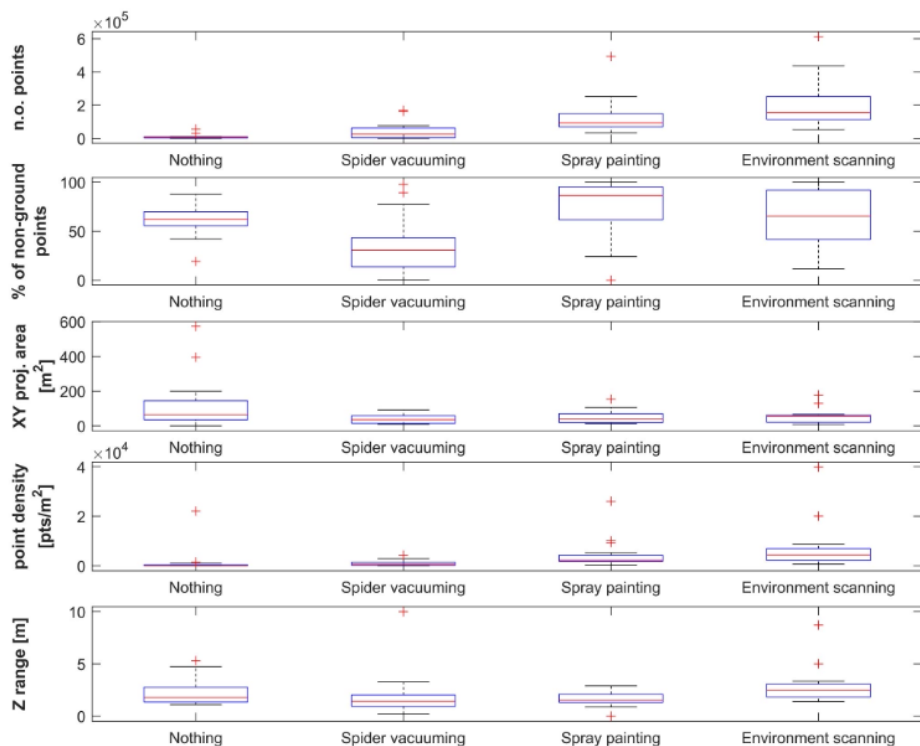
**Table 3.** Qualitative survey response (adapted from Article I, Tables 5, p. 9)

Trail name	No. caches on the trail	No. of caches with qualitative questions	Total survey submissions	No. of responses to qualitative questions	Response rate (%)
Urban Trail 1	11	7	216	213	98.6
Rural Trail 1	8	4	62	58	96.5
Urban Trail 2	7	4	178	141	79.2
Rural Trail 2	11	7	135	116	85.9

Respondents were predominantly highly educated (89% with college or higher) and urban residents (71%). The age distribution showed good coverage across adult age groups, with the 41-50 and 51-60 age groups most strongly represented. However, the gender balance was nearly even, contrasting with some citizen science projects that show gender skew (Article I, Table 4, p. 5).

#### 4.2 Augmented reality applications for environmental scanning (Article II)

To address the second research objective, examining how different gamification design choices influence user experience and data quality, four augmented reality (AR) applications were tested. The study's within-subjects design, where each of the 16 participants experienced all four scenarios in sequence, allowed for a direct comparison of the approaches while controlling for individual differences. The results showed that gamification significantly increased data collection (Figure 9), with the *Spider Vacuuming* scenario producing 350% more points than the control condition (the *Nothing* scenario, where users were asked to scan the forest with their phones as if taking a video), *Spray Painting* yielding 1,240% more, and *Environment Scanning* achieving a remarkable 2,030% increase.



**Figure 9.** A box plot showing the variation in the point cloud-derived metrics by the applied gamified scenario (adapted from Article II, Figure 6, p. 12). In each box plot, the red vertical line indicates the median, and the bottom and top edges of the box indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively. The whiskers extend to the most extreme data points not considered outliers, and the outliers are plotted individually using the "+" marker symbol.

However, quantity alone does not give the full picture. Each design produced distinctly different data characteristics that could serve different forest inventory purposes (Article II, Tables 5 & 6, p. 13). The *Spider Vacuuming* scenario generated data heavily weighted towards ground points (64.8% of total points). This ground-focused scanning pattern resulted from the spiders' movement patterns and users' tendency to follow them along the forest floor. In contrast, the *Spray Painting* and *Environment Scanning* scenarios produced more balanced vertical coverage, with average vertical height ranges (Z-axis) of 2.85 metres above the ground, making them more suitable for capturing tree structures and trunk and lower branch characteristics.

User experience varied greatly across different designs, with no clear link between enjoyment and data quality. *Spider Vacuuming* was the most preferred scenario, with participants valuing its clear objectives and game-like features (Article II, Figure 5, p. 9). However, it also caused the most frustration when the vacuuming mechanism was not immediately intuitive. *Spray Painting* was the most divisive, as some participants enjoyed the creative freedom while others felt uncomfortable with the concept of virtually painting nature. Several participants expressed that painting on trees felt disrespectful, even in a virtual context (Article II, Section 5.1.3, pp. 9 & 10). The *Environment Scanning* scenario, although producing the highest quality data, was described by some as more tool-like than game-like, although others found the real-time visualisation of point cloud formation captivating (Article II, Section 5.1.4, p. 10).

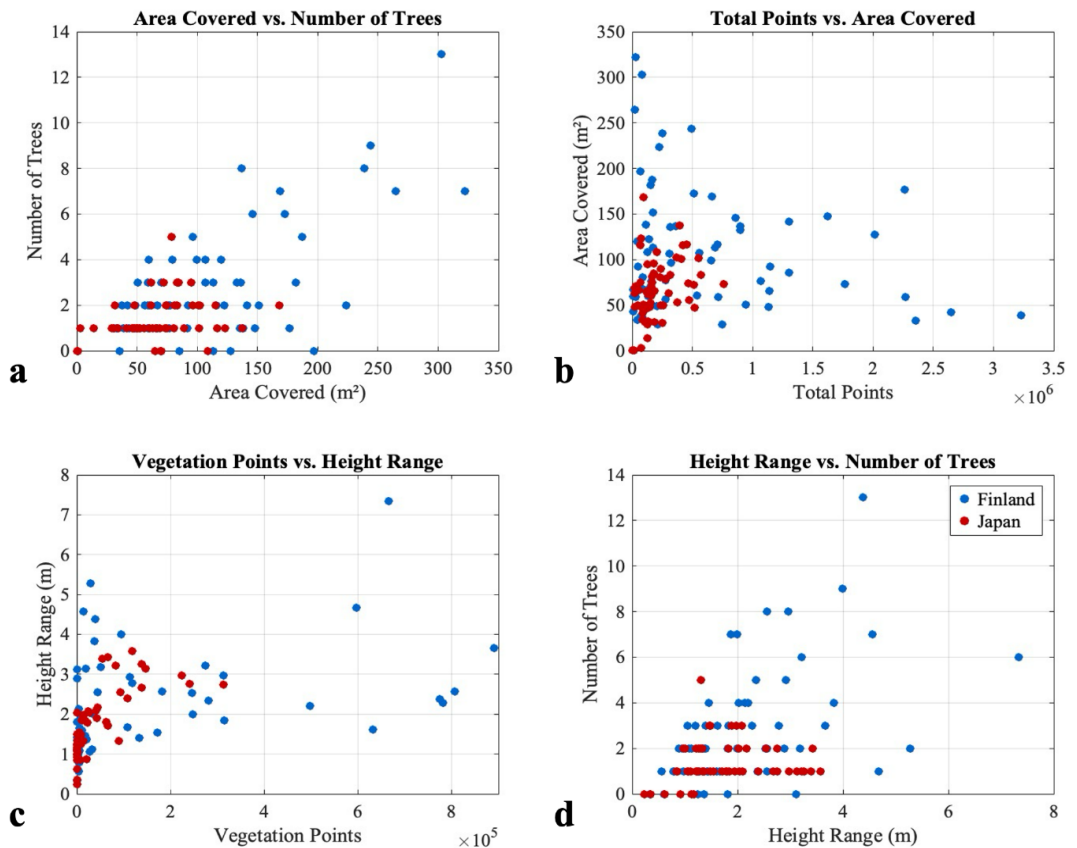
The behavioural analysis showed how different designs affected user movement and scanning patterns. In the control scenario (*Nothing*), participants typically remained stationary and moved the camera across the scenery from a distance. *Spider Vacuuming* prompted the most physical movement, as participants walked towards distant spiders. *Spray Painting* showed the greatest variation in user behaviour, with some participants carefully painting individual trees while others made broad gestural strokes across the landscape. *Environment Scanning* encouraged systematic coverage, as participants identified gaps in their point cloud and aimed to fill them. These behavioural differences directly affected data characteristics, demonstrating the connection between interaction design and data outcomes (Table 4).

**Table 4.** Suitable interactions for specific goals (adapted from Article II, Table 6, p. 13).

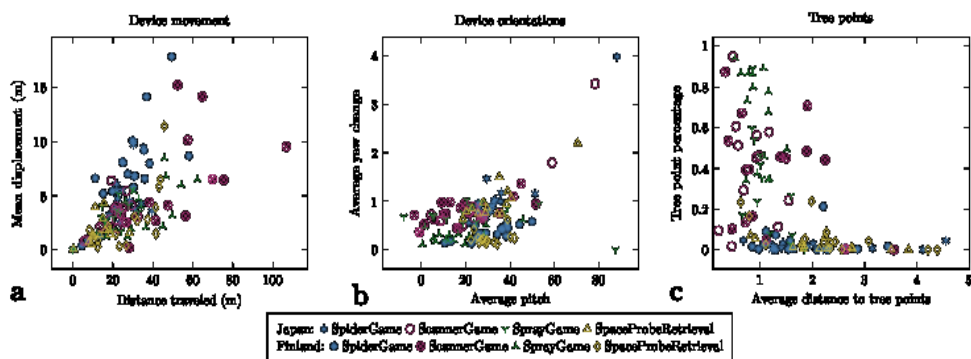
	<b>Low density capture</b>	<b>High density capture</b>
Focus on ground	Spider vacuuming	
Focus on above ground	Nothing	Spray painting, environment scanning

### 4.3 Cross-location comparison of gamified forest data collection (Article III)

To address the third research objective, examining how cultural factors influence gamified forest monitoring effectiveness, workshops were conducted in Finland and Japan. Participants in both contexts collected point clouds in urban forestry settings using gamified AR applications (Article III, Table 3, p. 7). While the applications' core functionalities, including surface detection, point cloud generation, and game interaction elements, operated reliably across both locations, notable differences emerged in participant behaviours, interaction patterns, and data collection outcomes. Statistical analysis revealed that workshop locations had a highly significant effect on all metrics ( $p < 0.0001$ ), indicating that contextual factors, including environmental conditions, participant expertise, and potentially cultural differences, substantially mediated implementation outcomes (Figure 10).



**Figure 10.** Scatter plots illustrating relationships between key point cloud metrics, with data points coloured by country (blue =Finland, red =Japan) (adapted from Article III, Figure 7, p. 10). (a) Area coverage vs. trees detected ( $r = 0.66$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ); (b) total points vs. area; (c) height range vs. vegetation points; (d) height range vs. trees detected.



**Figure 11.** Device location, orientation, and tree capture metrics by scenario and country (adapted from Article III, Figure 8, p. 10)

Behavioural analysis revealed distinct patterns between the two groups (Figure 11). Participants in Finland demonstrated significantly greater physical movement, with higher displacement from starting points and longer distances travelled across all game scenarios. Their scanning approaches varied considerably by game design, with tree-detection rates ranging from 1.25 to 4.38 trees per participant. This variation appeared to reflect their forestry training, as they performed particularly well in scenarios resembling professional tree marking tasks (Scanner and Spray Paint scenarios). Participants in Japan exhibited more consistent performance across game scenarios (1.40-1.53 trees detected), with higher device rotation rates and more uniform scanning patterns. These differences likely stemmed from the interaction of multiple factors: the significant disparity in LiDAR experience between groups ( $p = 0.03$ ), differing educational backgrounds (forestry sciences versus information systems and design), environmental conditions (snow-covered winter versus autumn), and potentially broader cultural differences in spatial exploration strategies and human-technology interaction patterns.

Quantitative analysis of point cloud metrics revealed significant location effects (Table 5). The *Scanner Game* in Finland produced a substantially larger area coverage (151.78 m<sup>2</sup>) compared to Japan (52.69 m<sup>2</sup>), despite having similar total point counts (247,415 vs 242,033 points). The percentage of vegetation points varied widely depending on both location and game design, with the Finland *Spray Paint* scenario reaching 66.64% vegetation points, whereas in Japan it reached only 34.32%. Statistical tests confirmed that the workshop location had a highly significant impact on all metrics ( $p < 0.0001$ ). The strongest correlation was observed between area coverage and tree detection ( $r = 0.66$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ), suggesting that games promoting broader spatial exploration lead to better tree identification (Article III, Section 4.2.4, p. 10).

**Table 5.** Mean values for point cloud and movement metrics by country and game scenario (adapted from Article III, Table 3, p 7).

Sample	N	Tot. Pts	Veg%	Area	<u>Hght</u>	Trees	Dist.	<u>Disp</u>	Pitch	$\Delta$ yaw	Tree Dist.
Finland Scanner	16	247,415	38.06	151.78	2.97	4.38	51.82	6.04	18.16	0.75	1.47
Finland Space	16	646,387	6.28	67.95	1.41	1.25	29.19	3.01	30.41	0.24	2.27
Finland Spider	16	846,363	3.18	114.83	1.21	1.38	28.46	7.55	30.79	0.35	1.66
Finland Spray	16	785,019	66.64	106.75	2.83	3.88	34.29	3.75	15.93	0.33	0.9
Japan Scanner	15	242,033	39.9	52.69	2.31	1.53	20.1	3.16	23.78	0.94	0.76
Japan Space	15	115,490	1.91	53.92	1.23	0.8	13.12	1.73	33.39	1	2.03
Japan Spider	15	288,349	1.64	99.5	1.19	1.6	24.81	5.13	33.62	1.09	1.94
Japan Spray	14	204,372	34.32	59.21	2.07	1.5	20.26	3.16	25.91	0.72	1.07

N = sample size; Tot. Pts = total point cloud points collected; Veg % = percentage of points classified as vegetation; Area = spatial coverage (m<sup>2</sup>); Height = vertical range covered (m); Trees = number of trees detected; Dist. = total distance travelled (m); Disp. = net displacement from starting position (m); Pitch = average device pitch angle (°);  $\Delta$ Yaw = average change in device yaw rotation (°); Tree Dist. = average distance to tree points (m).

## 5 DISCUSSION

### 5.1 Effectiveness of gamification for forest data collection (RQs 1-3)

Addressing RQ1 (investigating whether location-based games can effectively collect preference data) and RQ2 (examining how gamification strategies affect data quality), the collective findings from the three studies provide strong evidence for the effectiveness of gamification as a tool for forest data collection, while also highlighting important nuances in how effectiveness should be conceptualised and measured. In this thesis, effectiveness is operationalised through three dimensions: (1) participant engagement, which includes voluntary participation and ongoing contribution; (2) data quality, ensuring relevant characteristics and adequate spatial coverage for forest planning needs; (3) cross-context applicability, meaning the method reliably functions across diverse cultural and environmental settings. The progression from leveraging existing games to developing purpose-built applications demonstrates that the effectiveness of gamification operates across multiple dimensions that need to be balanced according to specific forest planning objectives, whether prioritising broad public engagement or technical precision.

Conventional public consultation methods can struggle with low participation and limited representativeness, often failing to attract a broad cross-section of the public while requiring substantial resources for venue hire, facilitation, and outreach (Primmer & Kyllönen, 2006; Sipilä & Tyrväinen, 2005). In contrast, the response rates achieved through geocaching (22.9%-38.6%) indicate a shift in the potential for public engagement in forest planning. Importantly, the voluntary nature of game-based participation overcomes a critical limitation whereby obligatory consultation tends to yield perfunctory responses (A. Kangas et al., 2015). These findings demonstrate that data quality improves when participants actively choose to engage rather than feel obligated to provide input. The 89% completion rate for open-ended questions and the identification of 15 distinct themes about human-forest relationships (Article I, Tables 5 & 6, pp. 9 & 10), substantially exceeds typical qualitative response rates in forest planning surveys, as optional text fields present a greater cognitive burden on respondents and often have higher item non-response (Dillman et al., 2014). This level of engagement challenges the notion that gamification inherently trivialises serious issues, suggesting that well-designed gamified public participation can enhance rather than diminish respondents' reflection on environmental values (Hamari et al., 2014). However, reliance on gamified methods may exclude participants lacking digital access or comfort with game-like interactions, suggesting the need for hybrid approaches that combine accessible gamification with traditional participation modalities to ensure representative engagement (Bowser et al., 2014).

The significant increases in data collection observed in Article II, ranging from 350% to 2,030% relative to the control condition, demonstrate gamification's ability to motivate detailed environmental laser-scanning behaviour. These findings contribute to emerging questions about how 3D data collection technologies can be applied in forestry contexts (Murtiyoso et al., 2024). These increases cannot be attributed solely to novelty effects, as all participants experienced the same innovative technology across conditions. Instead, the game elements themselves - whether clear goals (*Spider Vacuuming*), creative expression (*Spray Painting*), or progress visualisation (*Environment Scanning*) - fundamentally changed how participants approached the data collection task. This finding has important implications for forest inventory and monitoring, suggesting that gamification can mitigate the labour

intensity of forest data collection while simultaneously improving worker well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). By reframing repetitive scanning activities as playful challenges or opportunities for self-expression, gamified systems may promote intrinsic motivation, engagement, and a deeper sense of purpose in fieldwork (Sailer et al., 2017). In forestry contexts, research has shown that forest workers value the independence of their work and that meaningful work characteristics contribute to well-being in isolated forest work (Kymäläinen et al., 2021). Furthermore, research on forest planners has found that meaning significantly drives work satisfaction (Hokajärvi et al., 2009), supporting eudaimonic views of well-being, where purposeful activities foster human flourishing (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Therefore, gamified approaches to forest data collection that emphasise the purpose and impact of participants' contributions could enhance both engagement and motivation.

However, effectiveness cannot be measured solely through participation rates or the quantity of data collected. The quality and characteristics of the data can vary significantly depending on design choices, as demonstrated by the distinct point cloud features generated by the different AR scenarios. This variation presents both opportunities and challenges. The opportunity lies in the potential to develop specific gamification approaches optimised for forest mensuration data requirements. For example, ground vegetation assessment and tree positioning can be more effectively achieved through mechanics like those in the spider vacuuming game, which generated 64.8% ground points (Article II, Table 5, p. 13). Conversely, trunk and lower branch assessment could benefit from AR experiences like the spray painting or scanning games, which encourage vertical scanning behaviours, producing average height ranges of 2.85 meters (Article II, Table 5, p. 13). The challenge is that no single design can optimise all desired outcomes at once, and different approaches might need to be combined to produce more detailed scans.

The cross-cultural validation in Article III enhances understanding of gamification's effectiveness. The successful collection of forest inventory data in different cultural contexts demonstrates that gamification's effectiveness is not tied to a specific location; however, adapting it to the local geographic setting is likely important for optimal data collection. This is particularly relevant for international forest monitoring projects and global environmental agreements that require consistent data collection from diverse regions. The core gamification mechanics of goal setting, feedback, and progress tracking appear to transcend cultural differences, even though their specific application requires localisation.

These findings align with the Technology-Mediated Environmental Engagement pillar of the conceptual framework, as they demonstrate how game mechanics can be successfully applied to bridge the gap between technical data requirements and voluntary public participation in forest planning processes.

## **5.2 Data quality across different approaches (RQs 1-2)**

Addressing RQ1 (investigating whether location-based games can effectively collect preference data) and RQ2 (how gamification design affects data quality), the relationship between gamification design and data quality emerges as a central finding with important implications for real-world applications. Data quality in this context encompasses several key aspects: completeness, accuracy, spatial distribution, consistency, and suitability for purpose. The studies show that these aspects cannot all be optimised at once with a single gamification approach, requiring careful prioritisation in design choices.

Article I demonstrated that even simple integration of surveys into existing games can produce high-quality subjective data. The 89% completion rate for qualitative questions significantly exceeds typical response rates for open-ended questions in traditional surveys (Miller & Lambert, 2014). The thematic richness of responses, encompassing aesthetic, emotional, ecological, and management-related themes, indicates that the geocaching context did not limit the depth of engagement with forest preference questions. However, the study also identified quality assurance challenges, with approximately 25% of responses likely having been completed off-site, as determined by temporal analysis. This finding underscores the importance of designing validation mechanisms into gamified data collection systems.

The technical data quality analysis in Article II offers quantitative evidence for the impact of gamification design on data characteristics. The Spider Vacuuming scenario's focus on ground points (64.8%) makes it ideal for understory vegetation assessment, but less suitable for analysing trunk and vertical structure. In contrast, the Environment Scanning scenario's high point density (7,279 points per square metre) and vertical coverage make it optimal for detailed structural analysis. However, it may be overly data-intensive for quick forest assessments. The Spray Painting scenario sits in the middle, producing moderate density with balanced coverage, indicating its appropriateness for general forest inventory.

These quality variations reflect deeper principles regarding how gamification mechanics affect user behaviour and, in turn, data characteristics. Goal-oriented designs (such as *Spider Vacuuming*) produce targeted but potentially limited data-collection patterns. Creative designs (*Spray Painting*) generate variable results depending on individual user choices. Feedback-oriented designs (*Environment Scanning*) promote completeness but may reduce efficiency. Understanding these relationships enables informed design decisions based on specific data needs rather than aiming for an elusive universal optimum.

Article III's cross-cultural comparison adds the important finding that data quality can remain consistent across different cultural settings even when user experience varies. The technical quality of point clouds produced in Finland and Japan showed no notable differences, suggesting that cultural factors influence how users perceive and approach the task more than their ability to generate quality data. This distinction between experience and output quality has significant implications for global deployment, indicating that cultural adaptation of interfaces and instructions may be more important than technical training.

In practice, this suggests the need for differentiated deployment strategies. In countries such as Finland, where historically strong forest access rights prevail, designs supporting autonomous exploration should be prioritised, whereas in countries such as Japan, where collective stewardship traditions frame human-forest interactions, structured guidance and collaborative progress tracking would be more appropriate. This ensures that technical infrastructure (LiDAR sensors, point cloud processing, quality validation) remains standardised globally, with localisation focused on interface design, instructional framing, feedback mechanisms and participation contexts.

The complex relationship between gamification design and data quality underscores that effective participatory forest planning requires balancing technical accuracy with accessible engagement without sacrificing either. This aligns with the Participatory Forest Planning pillar of the conceptual framework.

### 5.3 Cultural considerations (RQ3)

Addressing the RQ3 (how cultural factors influence gamification effectiveness), Article III operationalises the *Cultural Adaptation* pillar of the conceptual framework of this research by comparing gamified forest data collection across Finnish and Japanese contexts. While both groups achieved similar forest scanning outcomes, their distinct interaction styles illustrate how gamification mechanics intersect with culturally specific human-forest relationships, values, and technological practices.

Participants in Finland exhibited more exploratory and physically active scanning patterns, likely reflecting not only their technical expertise ( $p = 0.03$  for the difference in LiDAR experience) but also a cultural orientation towards autonomy in forest use, consistent with the "jokaisenoikeus" (everyone's rights) tradition of independent access to nature. In contrast, participants in Japan, with their more methodical and instruction-oriented behaviour, may align with collective, community-centred approaches to environmental management embedded in Japanese socio-ecological stewardship traditions such as "satoyama" and "jibatsu" (Berglund et al., 2014; Indrawan et al., 2014). These behavioural differences suggest possible contrasting cultural models of human-nature interaction, as anticipated by the *Cultural Adaptation* pillar, though the limited sample size and single-site design in each country warrant cautious interpretation of cultural effects.

Environmental conditions (winter in Finland versus autumn in Japan) and site differences influenced scanning performance, yet cultural norms around technology engagement and environmental participation appear to have guided how participants interpreted and enacted gamified tasks. This finding supports the framework's proposition that effective gamified design requires alignment with local forest values, technology-use norms, and participation expectations (Mustalahti, 2009; Sarkki et al., 2019).

The strong effect of workshop location on all point cloud metrics ( $p < 0.0001$ ) supports this interpretation. Although some variation can be linked to environmental and technical factors, such as snow-covered terrain in Finland and autumn foliage in Japan, the result also reflects the cultural-ecological contexts that influence how participants engaged with the gamified task. As detailed in the *Cultural Adaptation* pillar section of the conceptual framework, technological involvement is rooted in local forest-use values, experiential familiarity, and participation norms. Therefore, "location" in this study represents more than just a physical space; it captures the interaction between environment, culture, and practice that shapes how gamification motivates behaviour. This view is consistent with broader evidence that participation and motivation in environmental technology are influenced by cultural patterns (Markus & Kitayama, 1991)

Consequently, while gamification mechanisms may be universally recognisable, their motivational effects depend on cultural alignment. In Finnish contexts, elements rewarding autonomy and exploration may resonate more strongly, whereas in Japan, collaborative progress indicators and shared achievement may foster engagement. These insights advance the *Cultural Adaptation* pillar by empirically demonstrating that gamification's success in forest monitoring relies on locally tailored, culturally embedded design, rather than on one-size-fits-all technological solutions.

## 5.4 Framework for implementation (RQs 1-3)

The synthesis of findings across all three studies allows the development of a comprehensive implementation framework for gamified forest data collection. This framework, building on the three conceptual pillars presented in section 2, *Technology-Mediated Environmental Engagement*, *Participatory Forest Planning*, and *Cultural Adaptation*, addresses the practical challenge of translating theoretical gamification principles into operational forest planning tools. The framework recognises that successful implementation requires balancing multiple objectives that may sometimes conflict, necessitating context-specific design decisions rather than universal solutions.

The framework identifies three key design dimensions that practitioners must consider, each reflecting aspects of the *Technology-Mediated Environmental Engagement* pillar. First, the engagement spectrum ranges from leveraging knowledge gained from existing platforms (as in Article I) to aid the development of purpose-built applications (Studies II & III). Existing platforms offer immediate access to established user communities and proven engagement mechanics but may have limits on customisation for specific data needs. Purpose-built applications provide complete control over data collection protocols but require significant development investment and user recruitment efforts. Second, the gamification intensity dimension spans from light game elements (simple points and badges) to full game experiences with narratives, avatars, and virtual worlds.

Third, the data optimisation focus varies from quantity-focused designs that maximise participation and data volume to quality-focused approaches that prioritise data precision and completeness. Article I exemplified a participation-optimised approach, achieving high response rates with relatively simple data requirements, demonstrating the Participatory Forest Planning pillar's emphasis on inclusive engagement. Article II's Environment Scanning scenario represented quality optimisation, generating detailed point clouds suitable for technical forest inventory. Article III demonstrated that both approaches can function across cultural contexts, though their effectiveness depends on local adaptation, validating the *Cultural Adaptation* pillar.

The framework provides selection criteria to guide design choices based on project objectives. For public consultation and preference mapping, where the *Technology-Mediated Environmental Engagement* and *Participatory Forest Planning* pillars intersect, low-intensity gamification using existing platforms may be most appropriate. For technical forest inventory requiring precise measurements, high-intensity purpose-built applications are justified, though they require careful *Cultural Adaptation* when deployed across different contexts. Mixed approaches combining multiple gamification strategies may be optimal for comprehensive forest planning initiatives.

### 5.4.1 Key Design Principles

The collective findings yield several critical principles for effective implementation:

**Spatial Accessibility:** In Article I, accessibility emerged as the main factor affecting participation, with urban locations showing higher engagement rates and participation decreasing by 50% at distances over 2 kilometres from parking facilities. While Studies II and III were conducted in urban forest settings near university campuses, Article I's comparison of urban and rural sites demonstrated clear accessibility effects. Instead of viewing this as a limitation, strategic deployment can exploit high accessibility in urban

forests for extensive data collection, while tailoring approaches for rural areas based on the findings of Article I.

**Progressive Engagement:** The finding that most geocaching data collection occurred during the first summer suggests that episodic rather than continuous monitoring might be more effective. This has implications for planning seasonal campaigns aligned with specific forest planning phases, but this may be location-specific. Consideration must also be paid to building and maintaining participant communities. Examples of how to do this can be gathered from existing successful location-based game communities where novelty and unique experiences are used to foster engagement (Article I). Community building through gamified activities should recognise the human tendency toward novelty-seeking, designing for periodic refreshment of game elements rather than assuming sustained long-term engagement with unchanging mechanics.

**Cultural Adaptation Requirements:** Successful cross-cultural deployment involves more than just translation; it requires co-creation with local communities to adapt interaction mechanics and guidance systems to the local context and values. Cultural sensitivity in forestry contexts is particularly important, as forest use traditions vary significantly, and gamification design for forest planning purposes requires that these differences are acknowledged (Article III). These cultural indicators should be thoughtfully incorporated, acknowledging that forestry practices themselves inherently carry cultural significance that influences how users perceive and interact with any gamified systems that may be implemented in their value chain. Additionally, future implementations must ensure participants provide informed consent specifically for technical data collection (such as point cloud capture) and clearly communicate how collected data will be used.

#### 5.4.2 *Integration with Forest Planning Processes*

Contemporary forest planning increasingly functions as a design process that integrates multiple objectives beyond timber production optimisation. This trend is especially clear in Nordic countries such as Finland and, notably, in the United Kingdom, where forest planning explicitly results in detailed 'forest design plans' (Bell, 2013). This design-oriented approach recognises that forest planning requires both quantitative analysis and adaptive problem-solving to balance multiple objectives while remaining responsive to diverse stakeholder perspectives (Baskent et al., 2024). Gamified data collection naturally complements this design framework by providing continuous streams of technical measurements and stakeholder-preference data, thereby enabling planners to iteratively refine management options. The geocaching method (Article I) facilitates the collection of social preference data during a forest design process, while AR-based gamified scanning (Articles II and III) provides the technical data necessary to visualise and evaluate different design options. However, effective integration requires that gamified data collection be embedded into existing forest design planning workflows rather than being treated as isolated exercises.

Forest planning operates across various temporal and spatial scales, each with distinct data requirements and varying stakeholder involvement. For the purposes of this discussion, the integration opportunities are structured according to the hierarchical model of forest planning (strategic: 5–20-year cycles, though longer timelines are also common; tactical: 1–5-year cycles; and operational: immediate implementation), commonly used in Nordic forestry contexts (Weintraub & Cholaky, 1991; Ulvdal et al., 2023). The findings of this research suggest multiple areas where gamified methods could enhance current planning

processes, provided that careful alignment with specific contexts and goals is achieved for successful implementation.

*Strategic Planning* (5–20-year cycles) presents opportunities for broad stakeholder engagement and long-term monitoring. Geocaching-style preference collection could complement traditional public consultation processes, particularly for understanding recreational values and landscape preferences (Article I). Location-based games could provide continuous monitoring of forest condition changes, wildlife observations, and emerging recreational patterns. Community-based environmental monitoring games could track long-term ecological indicators while building local environmental knowledge and stewardship capacity (Danielsen et al., 2022).

*Tactical Planning* (1–5-year cycles) requires more detailed technical data and applications that bridge professional and stakeholder needs. AR-based technical scanning could augment professional forest inventories, particularly in accessible areas or for specific assessment needs (Article II). Incorporating citizen-collected point clouds into operational forest planning will require creating data processing workflows, quality assessment protocols, and integration strategies with professional inventory systems. Gamified professional tools could improve routine data-collection tasks for forest managers, making repetitive measurements more engaging while improving data quality (Warmelink et al., 2020). Collaborative planning games could assist in facilitating scenario evaluation with stakeholders, allowing communities to visualise and respond to proposed management alternatives (Bengston et al., 2022). Future research in this area could extend gamification beyond data collection to interactive scenario simulation, allowing stakeholders to explore trade-offs between forest management objectives through immersive decision-support tools.

*Operational Planning* (immediate implementation) involves real-time decision-making and opportunities for adaptive management. Mobile applications could enable forest workers to contribute observational data during routine operations, gamifying safety reporting, equipment monitoring, or documenting unexpected events. Real-time community feedback systems could allow rapid responses to management concerns or emerging recreational conflicts. Adaptive monitoring games could track implementation effectiveness by engaging local users in documenting changes following management interventions, creating feedback loops that inform subsequent management decisions.

Cross-cutting applications cover multiple planning stages and scales. Educational gaming tools can promote forest literacy among diverse user groups, leading to more informed participants in planning processes (Kangas et al., 2015; Lalicic & Weber-Sabil, 2022). Professional development games can enhance technical skills and decision-making capabilities among forest managers and workers (de Vries et al., 2025). Gamified cross-cultural exchange platforms could, in theory, facilitate knowledge sharing among forest management communities worldwide, though implementation would require substantial infrastructure and coordination.

Sector-specific applications require tailored approaches. Urban forestry provides opportunities for close community engagement, thanks to its high accessibility and diverse stakeholder interests. Rural and remote forest management might emphasise seasonal engagement strategies and hybrid digital and traditional methods. Gamified approaches could also operate across the urban-rural continuum, adapting engagement intensity and data focus to population density gradients. Protected area management presents opportunities for visitor engagement for monitoring and education while managing recreational impacts, though implementation must carefully balance engagement goals with conservation priorities and visitor management constraints. Integration with bioeconomy value chains could connect

citizens to forest product flows, from sustainable harvesting to wood product traceability, thereby furthering awareness and understanding of circular forest economic systems.

The key insight from this research is not that gamification offers universal solutions, but that it presents a flexible design approach that can be adapted to specific planning needs, stakeholder capabilities, and cultural contexts. Successful implementation requires a systematic assessment of local conditions, collaborative design processes with relevant communities, and integration with existing planning institutions and practices.

## 5.5 From citizen science to citizen play

The findings support a transition of environmental citizen science, focused on scientific data collection, to crowdsourced citizen play, where playful interaction with forests becomes not merely a form of recreation but a legitimate mode of environmental knowledge production, yielding both social preference data (Article I) and technical forest inventory data (Articles II & III).

This perspective aligns with ongoing discussions about playful participation and gamified citizen science (Prestopnik & Crowston, 2012; Laato et al., 2022). Conventional citizen science approaches often assume that participants are mainly motivated by a desire to contribute to science and environmental stewardship (Rotman et al., 2012). However, this research demonstrates that recreational motivations can be equally effective in producing high-quality crowdsourced data for forest management. The high response rates in the geocaching study, achieved through purely recreational framing, suggest that "stealth" data collection may be more inclusive than methods that require explicit scientific engagement.

This transition from citizen science to "citizen play" has important implications for environmental engagement strategies. Instead of urging citizens to become amateur scientists, gamified methods utilise existing recreational motivations to achieve scientific objectives. The rich qualitative responses from geocaching participants show that playful engagement can encourage deep environmental reflection, even without formal environmental education.

The AR studies further demonstrate this principle by illustrating how game mechanics can be designed to prioritise crowdsourcing for specific data-collection needs while keeping the experience engaging. Participants focused on gameplay rather than data collection, yet produced technically advanced point clouds suitable for forest inventory purposes. This separation of user experience from data collection goals allows for broader participation while maintaining scientific value.

However, this approach raises important questions about the nature of environmental citizenship and scientific participation (Hadjichambis et al., 2024; Haklay, 2013). Does recreational data contribution constitute meaningful environmental engagement, or does it represent an extractive relationship where scientific value is obtained from unwitting participants? The research indicates that the answer largely depends on transparency, community benefit, and how playful engagement leads to a deeper understanding and stewardship of the environment.

The concept of citizen play also underlines the potential for gamification to benefit various stakeholder groups involved in forest planning processes. While recreational users may be motivated by playful challenges, forest professionals could gain from gamified tools that make routine data collection more engaging and efficient (Ahmed et al., 2025). The key

is designing motivational systems that align with, rather than oppose, users' existing connections to forest environments (Altarriba Bertran et al., 2025).

## 5.6 The paradox of purpose and play

A central tension arises from this research between the deliberate aims of forest planning and the intrinsically motivated nature of play. This paradox has important implications for the design and implementation of gamified environmental technologies.

Play, by definition, is characterised by voluntary participation, intrinsic motivation, and freedom from external objectives (Tekinbas & Zimmerman, 2003). However, this research intentionally uses playful engagement to gather specific data. The difficulty is in preserving the core features of play while also pursuing instrumental aims that participants might not share or even be aware of.

The geocaching study clearly demonstrates this tension. Participants voluntarily took part in recreational activities, yet their responses provided valuable data for forest planning professionals. The high quality of responses shows that meaningful participation occurred; however, questions remain about whether participants understood their data could potentially contribute to future forest management decisions that could influence their future recreational experiences.

The AR studies reveal similar complexities. While participants enjoyed the playful interactions, the underlying aim was to evaluate the effectiveness of data collection. The gap between user preference (Spider Vacuuming) and data quality (Environment Scanning) highlights the potential conflict between optimising for engagement and scientific objectives.

This paradox indicates that successful gamified environmental technologies must be carefully designed with ethical considerations in mind. Transparency about data collection and usage becomes crucial. However, excessive emphasis on data collection may undermine the intrinsic motivation that makes play effective. The solution lies in creating systems where recreational enjoyment and scientific objectives naturally align rather than conflict. To achieve this, a co-design framework offers a promising approach, allowing user communities to help define both game mechanics and data governance practices. This can include clear disclosure of data use at game entry points (Del-Real et al., 2025), community benefit-sharing agreements (Masso et al., 2025), and user participation in shaping data application protocols (Cooper et al., 2023). By embedding transparency into the process from the start and sharing the benefits equitably, such frameworks can align user motivation with research goals.

The research also reveals that different cultural contexts might resolve this paradox in different ways. Differences in technical expertise (Finnish participants had a stronger forestry background), educational contexts (forestry vs information systems and design sciences students), and possibly cultural factors all contributed to varied engagement patterns between the groups. These differences suggest that the balance between purpose and play should be tailored to specific cultural contexts and user groups.

Ultimately, the paradox underscores the necessity for ongoing dialogue between recreational users and forest planning professionals regarding the role of play in environmental management. Rather than treating this tension as a problem to be fixed, it may be more useful to view it as an ongoing negotiation among different ways of valuing and engaging with forest environments.

## 5.7 Limitations

This research examined only a small portion of the possibilities for gamified forest data collection. However, it also identified several important limitations, highlighting key areas for future investigation.

From a technical and methodological perspective, the workshop format in Studies II and III offered limited time for interface familiarisation, and the fixed scenario order may have introduced learning effects that influenced subsequent scenarios. The geocaching study's temporal analysis revealed that about 25% of responses were probably completed off-site, highlighting the need for more robust validation mechanisms in location-based data collection.

Sampling and generalisability present further constraints. The small, specialised participant groups in Studies II and III ( $N = 16$  and  $N = 31$ ) from university settings limit broader generalisability. The high educational levels across all studies (89% college-educated in Article I) suggest that these approaches may mainly engage already motivated populations. The cultural comparison was limited to two technologically advanced countries with well-established gaming cultures.

Regarding integration and implementation, a significant limitation is the lack of integration testing with real forest planning processes. While this research demonstrates data-collection capabilities, questions remain about how citizen-generated data aligns with professional forest inventories, how planners interpret and use such data, and what institutional changes are needed for effective implementation. The study focused on data collection rather than its integration into decision-making.

Finally, the scope of this research did not extend to assessing whether gamified environmental engagement leads to changes in environmental attitudes, behaviours, or stewardship practices.

These limitations, while significant, also reveal important opportunities for advancing this field of research.

## 5.8 Future research directions

Future efforts should explore real-time location verification and establish protocols to ensure in-situ data quality without compromising the user experience. Research should investigate more robust validation mechanisms in location-based data collection.

Expanding the demographic scope is essential. Future research should include a broader range of participants with different levels of technology literacy, environmental experience, and educational backgrounds to better understand barriers to wider adoption. Also, as the cultural comparison was limited to two countries, future research in this area should extend to encompass diverse global contexts, especially communities with different patterns of technology access, indigenous knowledge systems, and forest-use traditions.

Integration with real forest planning processes remains unexplored. Future research should investigate real-world deployment within existing planning frameworks. Research into how gamified data affects actual forest management decisions, stakeholder reactions to citizen-generated information, and long-term planning outcomes is essential for understanding its practical value.

The novelty-driven engagement patterns identified in Article I require examination through longitudinal studies that investigate how gamified environmental involvement

develops over time. Key questions include whether initial recreational motivation leads to lasting environmental stewardship, how to sustain engagement beyond the novelty period, and what adaptive strategies can foster deeper environmental connections while maintaining the benefits of data collection. Understanding societal impacts requires longitudinal studies that track participants' relationships with forests over time. Such research would offer essential insights into wider societal impacts beyond data collection.

Equity considerations warrant particular attention. Future research should also examine the equity implications of technology-dependent environmental participation and consider alternative approaches for communities with limited device access, poor telecommunications infrastructure, or unreliable power sources. For forest communities with these digital access limitations, conventional or culturally traditional methods may be more practical and legitimate. Future research should therefore explore hybrid models that are technologically inclusive and culturally sensitive, ensuring access to environmental decision-making processes.

Scaling presents further challenges. Future research should investigate coordination across multiple forest management jurisdictions, balancing standardisation with local adaptation needs, and building institutional capacity to incorporate citizen-generated data into formal planning processes. The legal, regulatory, and certification implications of citizen-generated forest data also warrant exploration.

These future research directions suggest a comprehensive research agenda that could advance the understanding of technology-mediated environmental engagement and democratic forest governance.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

This dissertation investigated the application of gamification approaches for collecting forest data in support of participatory forest planning processes. In contemporary practice, forest planning increasingly functions as a design process integrating multiple objectives and stakeholder values, particularly evident where planning results in comprehensive 'forest design plans'. Through three successive studies, this research demonstrates that game-based approaches can effectively collect both stakeholder preferences and forest inventory information necessary for contemporary forest design processes (addressing RQ1-3). The conceptual framework developed in this research, combining *Technology-Mediated Environmental Engagement*, *Participatory Forest Planning*, and *Cultural Adaptation*, provides a strong foundation for understanding how gamification can connect technical forest planning data collection needs with stakeholder participation across diverse contexts.

First, this thesis established that existing location-based gaming infrastructure, specifically geocaching, can be utilised to collect meaningful social data revealing diverse landscape preferences and human-forest relationships. However, the first study also identified important spatial accessibility constraints and a decline in engagement beyond an initial novelty period. Second, the thesis built upon these findings by demonstrating that gamification design choices fundamentally influence data collection behaviours, quantity and characteristics. Different play experiences produced distinct point clouds suitable for different forest inventory purposes, with ground-focused designs supporting understory assessment, while balanced vertical coverage designs proved suitable for structural analysis. Third, this thesis extended this work cross-culturally, confirming the technical transferability of gamified AR applications across Finnish and Japanese contexts, though significant location effects indicated that cultural adaptation of interfaces and guidance systems, rather than simple translation, is essential for optimal implementation.

The research reveals fundamental tensions inherent in applying gamification to forest planning. The paradox between purpose and play, where recreational engagement is instrumentalised for scientific data collection, requires careful ethical consideration regarding transparency and participant understanding of how their contributions influence forest management decisions. Successful implementation requires balancing multiple dimensions (participation rates, data quality, spatial coverage, user experience, and cultural appropriateness) according to specific planning contexts rather than seeking universal solutions. The three-pillar framework presented in this research identifies integration opportunities across strategic, tactical, and operational planning timescales. These findings validate the framework's core principles while revealing that successful implementation requires integration of all three pillars rather than isolated consideration of individual dimensions. Implementation, however, remains contingent on institutional capacity to incorporate citizen-generated data into formal planning processes.

Future research should address critical gaps through long-term studies examining whether initial recreational participation leads to sustained environmental stewardship, real-world integration testing within operational forest planning workflows to assess how practitioners interpret and use citizen-generated data, broader sampling beyond the demographically homogeneous participant groups in this research to include communities with limited technological access to understand equity implications, and assessment of whether gamified engagement produces measurable changes in environmental attitudes and behaviours. While this dissertation demonstrates the technical feasibility and potential

effectiveness of gamified approaches for forest data collection, the transition from proof-of-concept to operational implementation requires a systematic assessment of institutional readiness, the development of protocols for data validation and integration, and the establishment of ethical frameworks that ensure transparency and equitable participation. As forest planning continues evolving from hierarchical, expert-led processes toward more inclusive forest design approaches that balance technical precision with social license to operate, gamification emerges as a flexible methodological approach that, when thoughtfully designed and culturally adapted, can meaningfully contribute to participatory forest management while maintaining scientific rigour.

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