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# Trends

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## Trends

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# Introduction: Federal Land Resource Planning — Interagency Comparisons

by Robert L. Vertrees

Land resource planning for thirty percent of the nation's total area — it's an *immense* task. Land resource planning for numerous types of landforms, ecosystems and resource combinations that are called upon to support a wide variety of agency missions and competing uses — it's a *complex* task. Land resource planning of federally owned areas that provide habitat for most of the continent's distinctive wildlife, that protect wild and spacious qualities many people value highly, that contain the headwaters or drainage areas of many of the nation's major river systems, that contribute to ranching as a way of life, and that produce substantial shares of the nation's supplies of timber, mineral and energy resources — it's an *important* task.

Who directly performs these immense, complex and important tasks day in and day out? The men and women do who work in planning units of agencies whose primary responsibilities are to manage federally owned land and natural resources (Table 1).

This issue of *Trends* focuses on the land resource planning approaches used by four of these agencies: the Bureau of Land Management (BLM), the National Park Service (NPS) and the Fish and Wildlife Service (FWS) of the Department of the Interior and the Department of Agriculture's Forest Service (FS).

In the next four articles, these agencies' current planning approaches are described and placed into historical context by members

Table 1. Federal land acreage administered by different agencies, 1984.			
Agencies	Millions of Acres	Percent of Total Federal Lands	Percent of Total Area of U.S.
<b>Four Major Land Management Agencies</b>			
Bureau of Land Management	342.2	47.10%	15.07%
Forest Service	189.4	26.07%	8.31%
Fish and Wildlife Service	80.5	11.08%	3.54%
National Park Service	68.2	9.39%	3.00%
Sub-Total	680.3	93.64%	29.95%
<b>Other Natural Resource Mgt. Agencies</b>			
Army Corps of Engineers	8.4	1.16%	0.37%
Bureau of Reclamation	6.6	0.91%	0.29%
Energy Research and Development Administration	2.0	0.28%	0.09%
Tennessee Valley Authority	1.0	0.14%	0.04%
Sub-Total	18.0	2.49%	0.79%
<b>Military, Indian, and Other Lands</b>			
Dept. of the Air Force	8.3	1.14%	0.37%
Dept. of the Army	12.0	1.65%	0.53%
Dept. of the Navy	3.9	0.54%	0.17%
Bureau of Indian Affairs	2.9	0.40%	0.13%
Other Agencies	1.2	0.17%	0.05%
Sub-Total	28.3	3.90%	1.26%
TOTAL FEDERAL LAND AREA	726.6	100.03%	31.99%
TOTAL AREA OF THE U.S.	2,271.3	—	—

Source: See "Sources of Information for Tables 1, 2, 3 in "Who Can You Turn To?" section.  
Note: Percentages and Percent of Total Federal Lands column do not add up to subtotals due to rounding.

of each agency's planning staff. In the concluding article, preliminary comparisons and contrasts are made by John Randolph, Associate Professor of Urban and Regional Planning at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

This is the first time that the planning approaches of all four of the major federal land management agencies have been described by agency planners and then compared and contrasted in a separate but associated analysis.

This introduction sets the stage for the comparative analysis by presenting selected background information about the lands and resources managed by the agencies, basic influences upon federal land resource planning since the 1950s, the range and scope of planning activities discussed in this series and its intended audiences.

## Lands and Resources Managed

Nearly one-third of the total



area of the United States is in federal ownership.

Among the states, the largest landholdings of each of the four agencies are in Alaska (Tables 2 and 3), although the 23.3 million acres the FS manages in Alaska is only slightly larger than the 21.2 and 20.4 million acres the FS manages in California and Idaho, respectively. Over one-half of the landholdings of each agency outside of Alaska are located in the eleven western-most mainland states. The agencies range in this respect from the BLM, with 99.8 percent of its lands outside of Alaska being located in these eleven states to the FS, NPS and FWS which have 83.2 percent, 68.2 percent and 57.0 percent, respectively, of their non-Alaskan lands being located in these states.

With the exception of the BLM, the lands, resources or facilities managed by the agencies are located in most or all of the fifty states (Table 3). Two basic

categories of lands are managed by these agencies. Multiple-use resource lands include the BLM lands and the National Forest System, and specially protected lands include the National Wildlife Refuge System and the National Park System.

Besides the three federal land systems referred to in Table 3, three other systems of specially protected lands are managed by the four agencies:

1. the National Wilderness Preservation System, which in 1985 included 468 areas totaling 88.55 million acres,
2. the Wild and Scenic Rivers System, which in 1986 included 66 rivers totaling 7,225 miles, and
3. the National Trails System, which in 1986 included 772 trails totaling 31,760 miles.

These designations often overlap with other public land and protective designations. The Na-

tional Wilderness Preservation System is comprised of federal land including BLM land and land in the National Forest, National Wildlife Refuge and National Park Systems. The Wild and Scenic Rivers and National Trails Systems have a more diverse make-up of land. Included within their overall boundaries are BLM land, land within the National Forest, Wildlife Refuge and Park Systems, as well as other public and privately-owned land.

## Major Influences Since the 1950s

Beginning in the 1950s, once remote expanses of federal lands have been made more accessible through the Interstate Highway network and other improvements in transportation. Combined with factors such as generally rising per capita discretionary incomes, this increased accessibility has led to substantial increases in the many

**Table 2. Agency lands in different parts of the United States, 1984.**

Agencies	In Alaska		In Eleven Mainland Western States <sup>a</sup>		In Alaska and Eleven Western States		In Remainder of the United States	
	Acres <sup>b</sup>	Percent <sup>c</sup>	Acres <sup>b</sup>	Percent <sup>c</sup>	Acres <sup>b</sup>	Percent <sup>c</sup>	Acres <sup>b</sup>	Percent <sup>c</sup>
Bureau of Land Management	166.7	48.71%	175.1	51.17%	341.8	99.88%	0.4	0.12%
Forest Service	23.3	12.32%	138.2	72.97%	161.5	85.29%	27.9	14.71%
Fish and Wildlife Service	71.2	88.39%	5.3	6.59%	76.5	94.99%	4.0	5.01%
National Park Service	48.1	70.51%	13.7	20.16%	61.8	90.67%	6.4	9.33%
FOUR AGENCIES TOTAL	309.3	—	332.3	—	641.6	—	38.7	—

Source: See "Sources of Information for Tables 1, 2 and 3" in "Who Can You Turn To?" section.

<sup>a</sup>These states include Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington and Wyoming.

<sup>b</sup>Millions of Acres.

<sup>c</sup>Percent of total land managed by each respective agency in the U.S.

**Table 3. Selected characteristics of the four major land management agencies and of the lands and resources managed by each agency**

Type of Lands Managed and Agency	Title of Lands or Systems Managed	Characteristics of Resources and Systems Managed				
<u>Multiple Use Resource Lands</u>		<u>Characteristics of Some of the Resources on the Bureau of Land Management Lands</u>				
Bureau of Land Management (BLM)	BLM Lands	Managed for multiple use and sustained yield in a manner to protect their scientific, scenic, historical, ecological, environmental, air and atmospheric, water resources and archeological values. Rangelands cover 170 million acres of BLM land in 16 western states, exclusive of Alaska. BLM lands include 90 million acres of forest land, of which 64 million acres are in Alaska. Ninety-one percent of the board feet of timber harvested annually from BLM lands, however, comes from the 2.4 million acres in western Oregon on former railroad grant lands. Areas of Critical Environmental Concern requiring special management protection have been designated on 1.3 million acres of BLM land, of which .6 million acres are in the California Desert Conservation Area. The BLM administers mineral leasing and supervises mineral operations on BLM land and on 370 million acres of subsurface mineral estate underlying other federally administered, state or private ownerships and on Indian lands.				
		<u>Characteristics of Systems Managed by the Other Three Agencies</u>				
		<u>Information about Units in Systems</u>		<u>States Systems Are In</u>		
		No.	<u>Types of Units or Purposes Provided</u>	No.	<u>Range in Acreage</u>	
				Smallest	Largest	
Forest Service (FS)	National Forest System (NFS)	191	Includes 156 National Forests, 19 National Grasslands, and 16 Land Utilization Projects. Purposes managed or protected include fish and wildlife habitat, outdoor recreation, wilderness, water resources, storage and timber. Eastern National Forests acquired under the Weeks Act of 1911 include 50 units in 23 states and comprise 24 million acres.	45	Connecticut and Hawaii	Alaska
<u>Specially Protected Lands</u>						
Fish and Wildlife Service (FWS)	National Wildlife Refuge System (NWRS)	427	Habitat provided for migratory waterfowl and mammals. The FWS also manages 343 areas or facilities such as waterfowl production areas, fish hatcheries and wildlife research stations, for a total of 770 areas in the NWRS and related areas.	50	Connecticut	Alaska
National Park Service (NPS)	National Park System (NPS)	337	System includes resource-based areas (such as National Parks, Preserves, Recreation Areas, Seashores, Rivers, Lakeshores, Parkways and Trails) and cultural areas (such as National Historical Parks, Military Parks and Battlefield Parks). National Monuments include both resource-based and cultural areas.	47	Kansas	Alaska

Sources: See "Sources of Information for Tables 1, 2 and 3" in "Who Can You Turn To?" section.

types of outdoor recreational uses of the federal lands.

In addition, during the environmental movement from the early 1960s through the mid-1970s, concerns grew about environmental quality and the preservation or protection of federal lands and resources for their wilderness, scientific, ecological, habitat and

other basically non-market values. These concerns led to federal policies to consider the environmental impacts of proposed federal actions, to control non-point and other sources of pollution on the federal lands, and to preserve or protect certain lands or resources by placing them into specially protected systems or by expanding these systems through

new acquisitions.

As these policies were being initiated, pressure also was mounting for increased production of market-valued commodities from the federal lands, particularly for timber, minerals, energy resources and livestock products. Therefore, we have seen substantially increased competition for the federal lands as



the nation has sought to arrive at a balance among economic, energy and environmental goals, values and interests.

In this political environment, federal land resource planning came to be recognized as an important means of attempting to arrive at land and resource management alternatives that hopefully could result in acceptable balances among the competing interests. Consequently, during the 1970s, the mandates for planning applicable to each of the four major federal resource management agencies were changed and increased in significance via acts of Congress, court decisions, Executive Orders, agency directives and other means.

Along with the increasingly recognized importance of federal land resource planning came several journal articles, sections of books and other writings that provided descriptions, comparisons and contrasts among the plans, studies and/or planning processes of two or more of the four major federal resource management agencies.

## **Aspects of Planning Focused Upon**

In the field of land resource planning, there is no generally accepted, commonly used set of definitions for different aspects or dimensions of planning. Therefore, it is useful to review the set of interrelated concepts about these aspects that provided general guidance to the authors of

this series of articles. These concepts have been arranged from the broadest and most encompassing aspects to the most specific ones.

An agency's overall land resource planning approach is considered as the broad "umbrella concept" that encompasses the more specific aspects of planning which include plans and related studies, planning processes, planning methods and planning techniques. Within an agency's overall approach, various types of plans and related studies are prepared and implemented for the purpose of improving decisions that pertain to land resource use and management. Plans are made and carried out through the use of planning processes. These processes include and coordinate different types of planning methods which, in turn, require the conduct of detailed planning techniques.

Seen in the light of this set of concepts, this series of articles is focused on selected aspects and components of the agencies' overall land resource planning approaches. Reference is made to the primary types of plans, studies and planning processes engaged in by the agencies. Some mention also is made of the basic planning methods employed within specific planning processes, but detailed planning techniques are beyond the scope of this work.

Two other basic aspects of an agency's overall land resource planning approach need to be pointed out at this time because

they are also mentioned in this series. These are the coordination and citizen participation aspects of planning that are often incorporated into processes used to formulate and implement particular types of plans or studies.

What has been said about an agency's overall land resource planning approach is summarized in the following outline. This outline provides a general perspective of the various components of an agency's planning approach even though, as mentioned above, all of the components are not discussed in this series. Furthermore, this outline affords the opportunity to refer to some specific examples of each component or aspect.

Federal land resource planning includes the following components:

1. Comprehensive land and resource management plans, such as plans to allocate limited land area and resource supplies among competing uses and plans to determine the physical and biological suitability of lands and resources to support alternative uses on a sustained basis,
2. Functional and implementation plans, such as those which pertain to visitor management or facility development and maintenance, that are less directly associated with the land or resource base but nonetheless affect land and resource management and use,

3. Studies associated with the aforementioned types of plans, such as studies of the environmental impacts of alternatives being considered,

4. Planning processes, frequently referred to from the standpoint of the extent to which they are rational and comprehensive, used to formulate and implement the aforementioned plans and studies, such processes being associated with or inclusive of means used to involve citizens in planning and to achieve intra-agency, interagency or inter-governmental coordination of plans and studies,

5. Planning methods used in the conduct of planning processes such as linear programming, capability or suitability analysis, benefit-cost analysis and habitat analysis, and

6. Planning techniques used in the conduct of planning methods such as data collection procedures, resource inventory and evaluation procedures and procedures used to discount future time streams of monetarily measurable beneficial and adverse effects of alternatives when determining present values.

At the outset, the adjectives immense, complex and important were chosen to describe the land resource planning tasks or functions of the four agencies. From

what has been said in this section, it is now evident that a fourth adjective should be used to describe these tasks — *diverse*. This diversity stems from the wide range of lands, resources and facilities the agencies manage, from the numerous legal or administrative sources (laws, court decisions, Executive Orders, agency directives, etc.) that mandate specific approaches to planning or types of plans, studies or planning processes, and from the multi-dimensional aspects of agency planning.

### Intended Audiences

The benefits of learning that result from the presentation of comparative analyses and analogies is becoming more widely recognized. This method requires that the topics or subjects to be compared and contrasted or presented through the making of analogies first be described in a fairly uniform manner prior to the making of comparisons and contrasts or the drawing of analogies. As noted in previous sections, this method has been used in this series of articles.

We hope that the following audiences will benefit from this method:

- federal land resource planners and administrators of federal land resource planning offices
- university professors who teach courses in natural resources policy, planning

and/or management by making comparative analyses and analogies among different planning approaches

- university students who, along with their faculty advisors, are planning programs of study designed to lead to land resource planning or management careers
- elected or appointed federal officials involved in policy making or decision making processes affecting federal lands and resources
- members of interest groups concerned with the federal lands and resources and their use and management.

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# Forest Service Planning for the National Forests

by Dennis L. Schweitzer

This century has been one of fundamental change for the United States. Therefore, it has been one of fundamental change for the Forest Service, which was created in 1905 primarily to look after the nation's interests in the National Forests. The agency's original task now seems straightforward: it was, essentially, to protect the land while providing grass and timber to local users. To summarize the task today requires more words, and it requires more abstract words that represent complex ideas. It is, essentially, to protect and manage extremely complex natural systems and their use to satisfy a wide variety of local and national desires and needs. This must be done for a total area larger than Texas.

As the task has changed, so has the kind of planning that is done. In the early years, separate plans were prepared for fire and watershed protection and grazing and timber production. As uses of other forest resources increased, their intended treatments were also recorded in agency plans. At least to the 1940s, these plans were self-imposed technical expressions of the forester's ideal. Generally, demands on the forests were small enough that they neither tested the limits of plans nor led to much more than local public interest.

Through the 1960s, resource-specific plans were prepared by specialists in the relevant disciplines. The agency decided when and how the plans would be put

together. It was the job of the forest supervisor to decide how to follow these plans and how they should "fit" when it came time to apply them on the ground. But then things changed radically.

The 1970s began with the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), the most far-reaching environmental planning legislation ever passed. A few years later, in a complicated attempt simultaneously to change certain practices of the agency and to limit the discretion of the Presidency and to force national planning, Congress directed the Forest Service to prepare national plans every five years. By the end of the decade, the National Forest Management Act (NFMA) and detailed implementing regulations (later twice revised) that guide planning on individual forests were also in place. In total, these rules provided the most detailed legal direc-



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*Grazing fees and areas have become issues in some forest plans. Grazing often comes in conflict with recreationists' desires.*



tion for planning and management in the agency's history.

The Forest Service then had to figure out how to respond to all the specifics and general statements of intent in these (and other) legal rules as plans of management for each of the National Forests were created. It turned out that a very complex process of planning is necessary.

During the 1970s the Forest Service responded to NEPA by establishing interdisciplinary teams to analyze and plan for the management of portions or "units" of forests, by developing formal procedures of public involvement and by issuing disclosure statements of environmental effects. Each of these activities has been strengthened and incorporated into the development of plans under NFMA. Important characteristics of these plans and of the current process of planning include the following:

- The forest plans are legal documents the agency must follow in managing the National Forests.
- A rational-comprehensive planning model is followed in developing plans.
- Analysis is done by an interdisciplinary team.
- The process of planning is open and responsive to public participation.

## **Forest Plan is a Legal Document**

Historically, professional foresters decided if some sort of plan were required, decided what topics should be discussed and the background analysis appropriate to each, and decided how the plan should be translated into activities on the ground. This is no longer the case. Legal rules have now made or tightly circumscribed most of these decisions. In addition to serving the technical needs of managers, plans now also must clearly spell out for policy-makers and the general public the analytical basis and rationales for decisions. Once a plan is chosen, it is legally binding; management activities must be consistent with that plan or the plan must be revised following legally prescribed procedures.

A forest plan defines the direction of management for a National Forest for the next 10 to 15 years. Important specifications of the plan include:

— Purposes of management and intended future physical condition of the forest. This information provides a compass for the manager and for the public to use in dealing with new questions in the future.

— The kinds of management activities and the ways they will be carried out on each portion of the forest. For example, the plan states whether, when and how particular areas will be developed for timber pro-

duction or managed for primitive recreation.

— How the basic resources of the natural system — the soil, water, animals and fish — will be protected on areas that are developed.

— The monitoring or checking of management activities that will be done to ensure the standards and intentions of the plan are met.

The number of campgrounds to be built and the numbers of board feet of timber to be offered for sale are also spelled out as targets for day-to-day management. However, experience shows that any targets can only be approximate guides. One reason is that broad planning data and projections about the future are imperfect and will require adjustments. A second reason is the ability to reach particular targets depends upon the annual budgets provided by Congress.

Forest plans must "live" or evolve if they are to be followed in the woods rather than gather cobwebs on a back shelf. If monitoring indicates a failure to adequately protect the environment or if new ways of doing things are developed or if outside circumstances change significantly, particular planned activities no longer will make sense and the plan will be changed. In any event, each plan will be completely redone within 15 years.

## Forest Planning Follows A Rational-Comprehensive Model

To fully examine the wide range of alternatives required by NEPA case law, to satisfy the detailed requirements for analysis and plan definition required by the implementing regulations of NFMA, and to address all of the concerns raised in public debates, forest planning analysis follows the logic of a rational-comprehensive planning model. This means alternative goals for managing each forest are explicitly defined, the widest possible ranges of management options and plan alternatives are explored, and the advantages and disadvantages of each possibility are defined in detail.

Major analytical procedures define:

- The limits of physical possibilities of the forest; how much of each forest product and service could be provided if nothing else were important.

- The limits of legal possibilities of the forest, or the "decision space" where the agency actually can choose a plan; how much of each good and service could be provided while soil, water, animals and fish are protected at the minimum levels specified by law.

- Tradeoffs or opportunity costs of providing this protection; this information is fed back to the legal rule-makers in case they decide the costs of

environmental protection are too high.

- Alternative forest plans spread across the entire decision space and the goods and services each would provide.

- The potential environmental, economic and social consequences of each plan alternative.

- Sequences of management activities and the taxpayer-dollars necessary to support each plan alternative on the forest.

The last definition says "if we want the forest to be used in this way then here is what we must do." When all the goods and bads of the alternatives have been weighed and a single plan has been chosen, this information provides the legal guidance that must be followed on the forest.

The only way such detailed information can be generated and evaluated is through computer-assisted manipulations of abstract mathematical models representing the complex ecosystems that are the National Forests. This becomes more obvious when it is recognized that the average forest contains more than 1.5 million acres; it is larger than the state of Delaware.

However, it would be an error to imagine that computer solutions "make us" do anything. Black-box manipulations of numbers are not equivalent to decisions. We simply do not know enough about the ecosystems we must manage or

about their responses to management to rely with confidence on abstract mathematical models. Every analytical result must be ground-truthed and interpreted. In practice, machines can be used to manipulate numbers but humans still must exercise their professional judgment. Early computer runs lead to model adjustments and more computer runs until an "acceptable" or "realistic" solution for the forest is obtained. The choice of a particular plan is a choice among things that cannot be expressed or measured on one or a few scales; it is a subjective choice.

A forest plan can be thought of as a working theory. Like a scientific theory, it can never be shown to be "true" or best; it can only be shown to be "false" or not best. That is why a program of monitoring is included in each forest plan. If, in fact, the results of the plan do not meet expectations, the plan will be changed.

## Analysis Is Done By An Interdisciplinary Team

The intent of developing a single, integrated plan of management for each forest is to ensure that the basis for choice and on-the-ground management activities are sensitive to all the values of the National Forests. In the 1970s, lawmakers felt the agency sometimes overemphasized timber production at the expense of other forest values. As a consequence, current planning must be carried out in an interdisciplinary manner. Separate plans that focus on differ-



ent forest resources are no longer acceptable.

In order to define what might be done in total, the expertise of specialists in each of the physical resources is needed. Then sociologists determine how people would be affected, economists define what is economically reasonable and feasible and others try to find out what the general public, the states, the Indian tribes, the counties and others would regard as good ideas. These people must be supported by clerks, computer specialists, writers and analysts. It is not unusual for 25 or 30 different people from a wide variety of disciplines to be substantially involved in planning for a forest.

All the resulting data and ideas have to be organized to sort out what is critical, what is important and what is only interesting. This is done through a core group or "interdisciplinary planning team" of about six staff specialists. That is enough people so nothing will be forgotten and few enough to be a workable number. Typically, this team is responsible for "doing" the planning and for summarizing the implications of many options for the "management team," made up of the District Rangers and Forest Supervisor.

The fundamental requirement for a successful interdisciplinary team is that each member be technically competent; each must be master of his or her discipline. The individuals must then be able to work productively in a coopera-



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*Each member of an interdisciplinary planning team must be technically competent and a master of his or her discipline.*

tive relationship as a team. Finally, each team member must recognize it is the manager's role, rather than the team's prerogative, to make the critical decisions. The team defines what can be done and the implications; the managers decide what will be done.

To some extent, working within the context of a Forest Service interdisciplinary team requires setting aside disciplinary perspec-

tives or tenets of what is "right" that are highly prized elsewhere. The legal rules and responsibilities of the National Forests are different from those of other institutions. For example, the Fish and Wildlife Service and the National Park Service have priorities that focus on particular aspects of natural systems.

In contrast, the Forest Service is



a “multiple-use agency.” That means the agency must somehow strike an acceptable balance between developing some forest resources for immediate and future use while protecting and preserving other forest values. There is no magic formula to define how this is to be done. But to do “it” properly clearly requires that those who are experts in the various disciplines work as partners in an interdisciplinary manner.

## Plan is Open to Public Participation

A fundamental need at all levels of government is to provide an effective means for each citizen to make his or her wishes known. Ideally, government helps people understand what is going on and demonstrates that the ideas offered have been taken seriously. The process of developing forest plans is as open and responsive to public participation as possible. There are numerous avenues the public can use to provide their counsel.

*Statutory and Administrative Law* — As a result of public participation in the nation’s broadest political processes, Congress sets the basic rules in statutory law and the Administration provides more specific direction in the form of regulations that the agency must follow. The rules and direction can be changed if the public is not pleased with the results.

### *Public Meetings and Other Con-*

*tacts* — These provide a wide range of viewpoints on what the plan should look like and the particular issues that should be addressed. On many forests, this has included working with interest groups to develop plan alternatives they prefer and analyzing those alternatives as possible choices.

*Analysis* — Once alternative types of plans have been defined, the agency calculates the goods and services that could be produced, what the forest would look

like as a result and the implications to those dependent upon the forest. To the extent possible, analysis is done “in the sunshine.” This means we try to keep interested persons informed about what we are doing and why. It also means we try to be receptive to new ideas about how analysis ought to be done.

*Draft Plan and EIS* — Tentative plans and environmental impact statements are issued widely to disclose what has been found and what the agency proposes to do



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*Public meetings such as this one in Rome, Ga., provide a wide range of viewpoints on what the forest plan should look like and the particular issues that should be addressed.*

on the basis of this information and to provide everyone a formal opportunity to raise questions or objections. Many comments are extremely valuable: they lead to rethinking the treatment of a host of questions and re-examining basic technical assumptions and analytical procedures. They also lead to changes in the tentative choices displayed in the draft documents. Indeed, many final decisions differ substantially.

*Final Plan and EIS and Record of Decision* — These documents include a formal response to every comment received on the draft materials and show the results of changes in assumptions and approaches since the earlier documents. The Record of Decision states in some detail why the decision was made. For example, it explains why environmentally or economically superior alternatives were not chosen.

*Appeals Process* — The appeals process was created to provide those who disagree with an agency decision an inexpensive way to have their complaints heard by someone other than the person who made the original decision. Anyone has the right to appeal a "final" forest plan to the Chief of the Forest Service.

*Federal Courts* — Members of the public can seek legal redress if they feel their interests have not been dealt with fairly because the agency did not meet legal requirements or follow legally defined procedures.

Because the Forest Service operates within the broad political context of the nation, members of the public are not limited to formal processes of expressing displeasure, nor are they limited to dealing directly with the agency. As the process of planning translates the general intentions of law into the details of precisely what will be done and where and when it will be done, specific controversies come to the surface. Although agency analysis focuses on technical tasks, technical assumptions and "little" decisions can determine likely winners and losers. As a consequence, those who see themselves as potential losers often attempt to influence the agency directly or indirectly through members of Congress or the Administration. For the agency, the difficult and inescapable task of forest planning is to achieve a workable balance among competing interests — that is, to come up with a forest plan that is legally permissible, technically feasible and publicly and politically acceptable.

## Conclusion

In passing the current planning legislation, the members of Congress chose not to devise mechanical formulas that would determine how each National Forest is to be managed. Instead, they defined specific limits on what can be done, established general guidelines for decisions and mandated a rigorous and open process of planning. Then they told the agency to follow these rules in

developing acceptable multiple-use forest plans.

In a sense, forest planning is an experiment to determine whether comprehensive, rational and objective analysis with public participation can be done by the Forest Service well enough to provide a workable basis to manage each of the National Forests. Internally, we believe the current forest planning process has led to improved decisions. But the public's judgment on the success of the experiment is still an open question.

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Dennis L. Schweitzer is Assistant Director, Land Management Planning Staff of the USDA Forest Service.



# National Park Service Planning

by Cynthia deFranceaux

Park planning is nothing new for the National Park Service (NPS). In fact, the service has been planning our parks for the past 60 years. Of course, during this time, the type of plan produced and the process used has evolved in response to changing conditions and needs. If you look at today's general management plan, you will find a very different animal from the park development plan that was prepared during the early days of planning for the National Park System. Nevertheless, a number of recurring concepts are key to NPS planning.

That we have a tradition of planning is not surprising — our enabling legislation put us into the planning business. The Park Service has a dual mandate to "promote and regulate the use of [National Park System areas] . . . to conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wildlife therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations."

Conserve park resources and provide for public enjoyment of them. Allow for present use but don't let this use impact the resources and thus interfere with future use.

This often-conflicting mission has forced the Service to continually evaluate its proposed actions. If we are to satisfy our responsibilities, decisions must be considered from a dual perspective — the changing nature of public use



*Glacier Point Road was completed in 1936 and provides visitors with a spectacular view of the High Sierra and Yosemite Valley.*

*Fred Mang, Jr.*

and the potential effects on resources. How to strike the appropriate balance between conservation and use is the underlying issue in all our planning efforts.

## Historical Perspective

The history of NPS planning can be characterized as an evolution from development planning to management planning — from

a single goal of providing facilities that would encourage use to a broader focus on strategies for resource and visitor use management. During the early years, with the management emphasis on stimulating use, park planning was development planning. To allow public use, the parks needed infrastructure — roads, trails, accommodations, water and sewage systems, etc. From the very beginning, planning was seen as the way to minimize the effects of these physical developments on the park environment. It was also a way to provide information and cost estimates for budget requests to fund the proposed improvements.

The year 1926 marked the beginning of the Service's park planning program. At that time, through preparation of a park development outline for each park, NPS launched a five-year construction program to provide needed facilities. In 1931, the first formal instructions were issued on how to plan and what should be included in park development plans. In 1932, the Service began calling the park development plan a "Master Plan," a term that endured until the mid-1970s.

The park master plan served the same function as did a city or a regional plan. It provided a conceptual vision of what the park should look like, a general guide for how land within the park was to be used. The master plan also was an umbrella document from which more detailed construction plans were formulated.



Even at the earliest stages in the evolution of Park Service planning, integral to the park plan was a system of classifying lands for different uses: circulation areas to be used for road and trail systems; wilderness areas to be protected from development; and developed areas to accommodate facilities. The outline of these land use classifications was formulated in the general plan. More detailed plans were prepared for the developed areas to identify the specific location of circulation systems, public utilities, administrative buildings, visitor facilities, etc.

The development focus of master plans continued through the 1960s. The planning process was guided by a handbook, the Master Plan Manual of Standard Practice, that was revised periodically. In 1956, park development planning was thrown into the limelight with the Mission 66 program. Mission 66 sought to complete the development and rehabilitation of parks in a 10-year period. Park plans for the Mission 66 program were essentially complete line drawings of the proposed development; other plan components were included as an afterthought in text notations on the margins of the drawings.

Adoption of a multidisciplinary team approach to planning in the late 1960s marked a new phase in Park Service planning — and a branching from development planning into comprehensive planning. An area's physical development plan was no longer the primary "raison d'être" for the park master plan. The planning

process now was called upon also to provide concepts for park administration, resource management and visitor use. At the same time, the Service began the practice of public involvement in the park planning process. In 1975, the term general management plan was adopted for what were now comprehensive park plans.

## NPS Planning System

Park planning is no longer only a tradition, it is a legislative requirement. The National Parks and Recreation Act of 1978 directed the NPS to prepare and revise in a timely manner "general management plans (GMP) for the preservation and use of each unit of the National Park System." In recent years, comprehensive plans also have been specifically required in the enabling legislation for many park areas.

Although the GMP is the backbone of NPS planning, over the years NPS has developed a multifaceted system of planning. From the broader perspective, the Service conducts planning activities to achieve the purposes of the park — the overall purpose of each NPS area is broadly defined in its enabling law, presidential proclamation or Executive Order. Through the planning process, documents are produced to provide specific guidance for preservation, use and development to accomplish these purposes.

The first planning document prepared is a park's Statement for Management (SFM). This docu-

ment is put together by the superintendent, and then evaluated every two years, and revised as necessary. The SFM provides an assessment of existing conditions — this assessment forms the basis for establishing park management objectives, identifying major issues and problems that need to be addressed, and determining information needs. It is the first step in the park planning process.

Park management objectives developed in the SFM describe the conditions that need to be achieved to realize the park's purpose. However, this document does not contain decisions or prescribe solutions for how to reach these conditions — the means to the end is left for the rest of the planning process. At this early stage in the planning process, the goal simply is to bring together information about the park's purpose, the significance of its resources, the existing use of its lands and waters, the legislative and administrative constraints on its management, the influences on park resources and the experience of park visitors. The primary point of this information gathering is to identify major issues that need to be resolved. This definition of issues is critical to all future planning and management efforts.

The SFM document also plays an important role in the park planning process because it helps the superintendent determine what studies, plans and designs will be needed. Preparation of the SFM leads directly to an analysis of the plans and tasks that must be done

to resolve issues, gather information and achieve objectives. This "Outline of Planning Requirements" is a priority listing of the studies and surveys needed to provide the information base for planning and compliance, and the plans and designs needed for the park. It also serves a budgetary function in that funding documents are developed to request programming and funding to accomplish necessary projects during the next five years. Each park superintendent is responsible for keeping the outline current on a yearly basis.

## General Management Plans

The major planning document for all parks is the combination general management plan/environmental document. Like the earlier generations of park plans, a GMP provides a general concept for what the park should look like and how its lands should be used and managed. It produces an image of how we want the area to be perceived by the public.

A GMP sets forth a basic philosophy for the park and formulates strategies for resolving issues and achieving identified management objectives, usually within a 10-year time frame. Facility development is only one aspect of the management plans. Strategies presented in the GMP are those required for resource management and visitor use. Based on these strategies, any necessary physical development for efficient park operation, protection and use is identified. The

assessment of environmental impacts and other required compliance documentation are included in the document.

Guidance on how to conduct the planning process and what should be included in different planning documents is provided through NPS-2, the Planning Process Guideline. Every general management plan contains:

- Purpose and need for the plan: a discussion of planning issues, park purpose, legislative mandates, management objectives.

- Management zoning: prescribed land classifications to designate where various strategies for management and use will best fulfill management objectives and achieve park purposes.

- Proposal: interrelated proposals for preservation of resources, land protection, interpretation, visitor use, carrying capacities, park operations and a general indication of location, size, capacity and function of physical developments.

- Alternatives to the proposal: different management approaches for dealing with the issues, including no action and minimum requirements.

- Plan implementation schedule and cost estimates.

- Description of the affected environment: background information needed to understand the issues and problems.

- Discussion of the environ-



*Cultural resource strategies typical of a GMP are those required to identify, study, interpret, use and preserve historic, architectural, sociocultural and archeological resources.*

W.S. Keller, NPS



mental consequences of the proposals and alternatives.

Other elements that may be added to a plan as needed include:

- a land suitability analysis and visitor carrying capacity analysis to determine factors limiting types and amounts of acceptable uses;
- a land protection plan component;
- a discussion of legislation needed for boundary adjustments and other purposes in order to meet management objectives;
- a transportation/access/circulation component;
- detailed strategies for interpretation;
- detailed resources management strategies prepared to specify research and provide comprehensive direction for resources management activities;
- wilderness reviews prepared to determine the suitability of lands within the park for designation as legislative wilderness under provisions of the Wilderness Act.

## Implementing Plans

Depending on the size of a park unit, the planning issues to be addressed, and the information, time and funding available, a GMP may be fairly conceptual or very specific. In most cases, more detailed plans are prepared for

subjects that are only generally addressed in the GMP. Examples of some commonly developed implementation plans include:

- **Development Concept**  
Plans for the details of visitor facilities or other developments in a specific area of a park.
- **Wilderness Plans** where specifically required or where such plans are consistent with general guidance for wilderness studies contained in the Wilderness Act of 1964.
- **Land Protection Plans** for parks that contain land not owned or directly administered by the Service identifying methods by which these lands will be protected.
- **Resource Management**  
Plans describing a comprehensive resource management, monitoring and research program for a unit's natural and cultural resources.

Other examples include: Minerals Management Plans, Concessions Management Plans, Backcountry Management Plans, Interpretive Prospectus.

## Key Concepts

In looking at the park planning process as it has evolved over the years, a number of concepts can be identified as key to the effectiveness of a park planning effort:

1. **Information Base** – Sufficient information must be available prior to the preparation of a general management plan. To adequately plan for, protect, man-

age and interpret a park area, an inventory of and body of knowledge about park resources is needed. Natural, cultural, social, economic and demographic data provide the information base for formulating proposals, evaluating alternatives and making decisions in park planning.

2. **Planning Professionals** – Plans are prepared by planning professionals who work with park and regional office managers. Key to the Park Service concept of planning is the use of an interdisciplinary team of specialists with expertise to address different planning issues. General management planning is conducted by an interdisciplinary team, normally consisting of technical experts from the park, region, Washington Office and the Denver Service Center. (The Denver Service Center is a technical center housing a variety of people in specialized disciplines that NPS could not efficiently or economically replicate in our regional offices. The Center includes park planning teams, design specialists, contracting/construction administration and printing archival services. The plan/design/construction groups are essentially in-house consultants whose time is contracted for and reimbursed by NPS regional directors and park superintendents.)

3. **Issue Identification** – A clear definition of issues to be addressed in the plan is one of the most important steps in the planning process. Without a clear understanding of the issues at hand, the





Richard Frear, NPS



Richard Frear, NPS



M. Woodbridge Williams



Fred Mang, Jr

The visitor use element in a GMP focuses on the desired visitor experience and the activities and levels of use that will be accommodated.

plan's proposals cannot be sufficiently justified and the alternatives cannot be adequately evaluated. In addition, the identification of issues focuses the planning effort on the specific decisions that will need to be made. It is important to realize that not all management concerns can be addressed in a GMP. The planning issues are concisely described at the beginning of the plan — the details surrounding an issue are more fully explained in the affected environment discussion.

4. Management Zoning – Land classification remains an important component in park plans. Park lands are zoned to designate where various strategies for management and use will best fulfill management objectives and achieve the purpose of the park. Management zoning is a prescriptive zoning technique that provides a framework for specific planning and management decisions on use and development in the unit.

5. Alternatives – Integral to decision making in the planning process is the formulation of a range of alternatives to evaluate distinct management approaches for dealing with the issues. A plan's proposals must be adequately justified. The assessment of alternatives is prepared to provide an objective basis for selecting the plan's proposals. It also serves as the Service's NEPA record of the consequences of alternative actions considered during development of the GMP or implementing plans. All plans



*Resource management strategies formulated in a GMP include actions needed to protect, preserve and perpetuate park natural resources.*

Fred Mang, Jr.



consider a no-action alternative, minimum requirements alternative and other reasonable alternatives.

6. Regional Context – Throughout the planning process, the park needs to be considered within the broader context of the surrounding region. Because resource protection issues frequently are not confined by park boundaries, cooperative planning is needed to integrate the park into its regional environment and to address adjacent lands issues. Early coordination of planning activities with other federal agencies, state and local governments, and other neighboring landowners and concerned parties can be critical to protecting resources and resolving conflicts. In recent years there has been an increased emphasis on the importance of ongoing inter-agency and intergovernmental coordination.

7. Public Involvement – Since the 1960s, public participation has been a vital force in the park planning process. The level of public involvement depends on the level of interest or controversy surrounding the plan. Public participation occurs throughout the planning process and may include public workshops and meetings as well as informal work sessions on particular issues. In addition, all draft GMP's undergo a formal period for public review and comment.

## Conclusion

About 290 National Park Sys-

tem units now have approved general management plans — the majority of plans that need to be done have been done. Although it is true that many of these plans are older plans in need of revision, the days of full scale, comprehensive GMP efforts are likely to be short lived.

The NPS park planning process is a dynamic one that is continuing to evolve in response to the System's changing needs. Future planning is likely to be more detailed and focused on particular issues. Existing plans will be evaluated to determine whether their proposals are still relevant or whether new problems have arisen that need to be resolved. In many instances, a complete GMP revision will not be needed, and an amendment or an implementing plan/amendment will suffice. If the underlying philosophy of the existing GMP is still valid, there is no need to reevaluate every issue that was considered earlier.

Future planning activities also will be used to formulate short-term solutions to park problems as well as the longer-term outlook. Other planning efforts will be focused on implementing plans. If consistency with a park's GMP strategies is to be maintained, a great deal more coordination will be needed throughout the development of implementing plans. In addition, it is likely that an increased emphasis will be placed on the value of the resource management plan.

If planning is to maintain its

function as an effective problem solving tool for NPS managers, a new role is needed. The planning professionals of NPS are presently evaluating planning activities throughout the Service. Our goal is to make the planning program more effectively serve the needs of the National Park System. As it has been a number of times since we began planning for the parks, the Park Service once again finds itself at a crossroads in planning.

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*Cynthia deFranceaux is a program analyst with the National Park Service's Division of Park Planning and Special Studies.*



# Planning in the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service

by Edwin A. Verburg and  
Richard A. Coon

The Department of the Interior is the nation's principal manager of national resources. The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service and the National Park Service are the Department's principal conservation bureaus.

Because of the many rapidly changing forces affecting the world's fish and wildlife resources, the success of the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service in meeting its responsibilities has become increasingly dependent upon two things: how well these changes are anticipated, and how effectively the new strategies are developed and implemented by the Service. To be effective, the Service must be prepared to meet new challenges.

## Mission and Historic Perspective

The Service is responsible for conserving, enhancing and protecting fish and wildlife and their habitats for the continuing benefit of all the people. These responsibilities are carried out through federal programs relating to wild birds, endangered species, certain marine mammals, inland and estuarine sport fisheries, and specific fishery and wildlife research activities. The Service was formed on July 4, 1940, by a merger of the Bureau of Fisheries and the Bureau of Biological Survey. The two bureaus had been transferred to the Interior Department in 1939 from the Departments of Commerce and Agriculture, respectively.



*Planning has evolved in a series of steps over the years.*

Jim Palmer, USF&WS

On July 1, 1974, the Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife was renamed the United States Fish and Wildlife Service. The Service presently employs approximately 6,500 people. The broadest embodiment of Service authority is found in the Fish and Wildlife Act of 1956. Under this authority the Secretary of the Interior shall take such steps as may be required for the development, management, advancement, conservation and protection of wildlife and fisheries resources.

## Evolution of Planning in the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service

Planning activities in the Service evolved in a series of steps over the years. Prior to 1970, there was minimal coordination across

the bureau and the time for change was approaching. From the mid-1960s to 1972, a series of decisions evolved into a matrix management form of operation called the Program Management System. In May 1986, the matrix system was abandoned in favor of a direct line/staff structure.

### *Prior to 1970*

Before 1970, the Service had a Washington Office and five Regional Office staffs organized along functional lines (Fish, Wildlife, Research, Endangered Species and Habitat divisions). The divisions had a strong relationship from the division chiefs in Washington through the regional division supervisor to the project leader in the field. All of the functions (planning, budgeting, organization, staffing, con-

trolling and evaluating) were conducted by the separate divisions.

1970 to 1985

In the 1970s, there was a period of great change for the Service in terms of increased responsibilities, increased funding and organizational changes. New or expanded responsibilities came with the passage of such laws and amendments as the National Environmental Policy Act and the Endangered Species Act. Funding of resource management activities expanded from approximately \$50 million in 1968 to over \$250 million in 1981. In 1971, the Service initiated a Program Management System form of management. It was a departure from the traditional Service's geographic and functional management orientation.

1985 and beyond

An in-depth evaluation of our planning system was completed in July 1985. The evaluation led to a series of recommendations for the previous Director's consideration and approval. Most recommendations were accepted, however one recommendation (review of the Program Management System) was held in abeyance. Management direction was recently provided in the form of line/staff organizational structure by the present Director, Frank Dunkle, in May 1986.

Changes are now being implemented based on a revised structure that will emphasize planning within each region with less

oversight and control in the Washington Office. We feel this will lead to more efficient decision making at all levels.

Essential Elements of a Plan

The Service is like many other organizations in terms of moving through various phases of planning until they reach the level of capability that will enable them to undertake more systematic efforts. Initially, the main focus is on financial plans that encompass annual budget requirements and the functional needs required to operate smoothly. The next phase is more forecast-oriented and deals with multi-year budgets and the allocation of resources. Gener-

ally, this phase is followed by a realization that plans should address internal and external requirements related to presenting alternatives for various courses of action. The final phase in the more mature organizations is the definition of strategic and management framework for planning activities, and this involves the evaluation of progress toward the objectives outlined. The Service has evolved through these various phases of planning.

These evolutionary steps in the planning process act as building blocks for acceptance and use of plans. While not all of these phases have occurred in the Service in the sequence outlined

Phases of Development Toward		
	Strategic Planning	Types of Plans
Phase I	— Annual budgets and functional focus	Financial and annual work plans
Phase II	— Multi-year budgets and the strategic allocation of resources across the organization	Out-year oriented with forecasting as a segment of the plan
Phase III	— Competitive assessments, strategic alternatives and the trade off of resource priorities through periodic examination of allocations	Internally and externally blended plans that recognize a range of factors influencing an organization
Phase IV	— Defined planning/strategic framework, reinforcement of the management process, a review of incentives and progress made toward objectives (evaluation) and a supportive management structure	Strategic resource management plans that integrate the strengths of the various components of an organization

above, they are representatives of some of the events that have had impact. The Service has attempted to insure that the various plans that are developed — national, regional and field — include the major components of a successful plan. These components include:

- *Historical Overview* — The origins of an organization, and the legal foundation for its activities, should be understood.

- *Mission Statement* — Guidelines are often available in Congressional and administrative documents that help establish the mission of a federal bureau. In the case of the Service, our directorate (or board of directors, made up of key managers) created the mission statement. In essence, it is our statement of the purpose toward which all effort is ultimately directed.

- *Policies* — The policies of the bureau provide guiding principles that reflect the official position of the Administration, Department or Service. Policies guide particular aspects of programs, as authorized by law. They are used to make decisions or sets of decisions. Thus, policies serve as the fabric for future courses of action.

- *Goals and Objectives* — Goals provide statements of the condition that a plan is designed to achieve. A goal is usually not quantifiable and may not have a specific date of accomplishment. Comparatively, objectives focus on measurable results that need to be achieved.

- *Strategies* — Simply stated,



Michael Vanderford, USF&WS

*Based on changing to a line/staff organizational structure in 1986, there will be more emphasis on plan development within the regions.*

strategies outline the approach and/or methods through which problems are solved or minimized and objectives are achieved. Problems that need to be overcome should be identified after objectives are established, i.e., as a premise for the development of sound strategies.

- *Action Plans* — Once the Service has determined where it wants to go, and the methods for arriving at that point, the action plans spell out projects needed year-by-year so that budgetary resources can be directed to selected actions given limited resources.

Not every plan in the Service includes these six elements. However, the national, regional and field plans in total cover all of the ingredients identified above. For example, mission, policies and

strategies are covered at the national level, while objectives, problems and action plans are more comprehensively addressed at the regional and field levels.

## Service Planning System

### Structural Components

Each component of the planning activities in the Service builds upon the other. Clear, common sense linkages are vital to smooth, productive and effective Service operations that will lead us toward meeting our legislative and administrative mandates and to the achievement of on-the-ground resource results. To underline the linkage relationships, we should review the elements of the planning system and how the various plans relate. There are three levels of planning: national, regional and field.





Luther C. Goldman, USF&WS

Hatchery development plans are prepared for National Fish Hatcheries such as the Craig Brook National Hatchery in Maine.

### *National Plans*

- National planning includes planning activity undertaken by the Washington Office that encompasses more than one region and which provides data and information for budget development. Plans prepared at the national level include:

- National Waterfowl Management Plan
- National Disease Contingency Plan
- National Energy Plans

- National planning is influenced by Presidential, OMB, Departmental and Congressional guidance and by feedback and results of regional and field planning, budgeting and evaluation activities.

### *Regional Plans*

- Regional plans set forth

objectives, problems, strategies and operational actions.

- Endangered species recovery plans provide, as a general rule, species-specific planning necessary for addressing the needs of threatened and endangered species.

- Regional plans are implemented through annual work plans, regional budget allocations and field plans.

- Examples of regional plans include:

- Endangered Species Recovery Plans such as the Masked Bobwhite Quail Recovery Plan
- Merrimack River Fish Passage Action Plan
- Columbia River Basin Management Plan
- White-winged Dove Management Plan

### *Field Plans*

- Field plans guide operational activities on individual field stations.

- They step down higher level guidance contained in national and regional plans.

- Examples of field station planning include:

- Refuge Master Plans
- Alaska Refuge Comprehensive Conservation Plans
- Refuge Management Plans
- Hatchery Development Plans
- Bristol Bay Cooperative Management Plan .

### Wildlife Refuge Planning

The Service manages the National Wildlife Refuge System. There are 437 units comprising 88 million acres; 77 million acres are in Alaska.

Individual refuges are involved in three field station planning processes — master plans, refuge management plans and annual work plans. These generally have a 10 or 20-year horizon and set long-term objectives for land-use management of certain refuges. They are developed as needed. Currently about 100 master plans are in effect, with 15 more in various stages of preparation. The decision as to whether a refuge should have a master plan or revise an existing one is up to the regional director, who weighs such factors as the role of the refuge in meeting regional and

national objectives, the adequacy of existing data and documentation supporting the current refuge program and the extent of public interest and controversy associated with the current program.

Whether or not it has a master plan, each unit of the refuge system operates in accordance with one or more management plans covering such activities as public use, habitat management and fire management. These plans provide the broad framework for planning and budgeting. They also serve to identify long-term refuge needs and objectives for refuges that lack master plans.

Annual work plans are the basic documents that outline the jobs to be done at each refuge in a given year and budget the necessary money and personnel. These plans are essential components of the Service's budget process.

The 77 million acres of refuge land in Alaska are administered under the same rules and regulations that govern other refuges. However, owing to long-standing tradition, the state's entirely different physical scale and climate, and legislative compromises that preceded the law's enactment, many provisions governing management of Alaska refuges are unique. Section 1002 of the Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act (ANILCA), for example, directs the Secretary of the Interior to analyze the impacts of oil and gas production on the coastal plain of the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge and to authorize related mineral exploration on



*There are 437 National Wildlife Refuges comprising 88 million acres. Each is guided by one or more refuge management plans and some also have in-depth master plans.*

that plain. Also, wildlife population studies are required to assess potential impacts from further exploration, development or production. This approach to development contrasts with the typical situation — establishment of refuges for wildlife protection and uses that are deemed compatible with purposes for which they were established.

ANILCA also preserves the subsistence rights of rural Alaskans. Alaskans will be able to continue their cultural traditions of gathering food from refuge lands insofar as this is consistent with "the conservation of healthy populations of fish and wildlife." Other subsistence items are bartering and handicrafts.

Finally, ANILCA directs the Service to submit to Congress by 1987 comprehensive management

plans for all Alaska refuges. Again, this directive is tailor-made for Alaska. The pace and degree of planning for the remainder of the system are largely within the discretion of the Service.

## Service Planning Issues

As the Service has matured over the years in the planning area, a wide range of issues have surfaced that have demanded attention. The nature of these issues, and the response to each one, is outlined in this section.

## Management-by-Objectives

Peter Drucker presented the concept of management-by-objectives (MBO's) over 30 years ago. The Department of the Interior



*The Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act preserves the subsistence rights of rural Alaskans.*

has applied this framework to high priority management actions that are identified for accomplishment within a specified period of time.

Several of the MBO's delineated by the Service relate to the completion of plans. For example, fishery objectives and strategies are being developed in the regional offices to implement the newly defined Responsibilities and Role Statement for the Fishery Resources Program. These objectives and strategies are being drafted for restoration or mitigation of certain fish species or ecosystems. National resource plans for waterfowl and other migratory bird species are covered under the MBO umbrella, along with the North American Waterfowl Management Plan that is being administered in cooperation with the states and the Canadian Wildlife Service.

MBO's provide for oversight of the progress toward target dates. The positive aspect of this oversight is that assistance is available from other offices and bureaus in the Department in a timely manner. It also facilitates movement toward the resolution of planning issues.

Comparatively, experience has shown that managers and their staff generally are too optimistic as they outline the deadlines for completion of tasks listed in an MBO. In addition, there often has been a propensity to shorten the steps followed. This results in the need to extend deadlines or revise the MBO tasks to accommodate previously unforeseen events.

*David B. Marshall, USF&WS*



Experience with this management system, overall, has been constructive and has assisted managers in facilitating the completion of important planning objectives.

### State Comprehensive Plans – Federal Aid Process and Fish and Wildlife Service Coordination

The Pittman-Robertson (PR) and Dingell-Johnson (DJ) programs were established in 1937 and 1950, respectively, to provide cooperative assistance to states for wildlife and fish restoration. Collectively, the Acts are known as the Federal Aid in Sport Fish and Wildlife Restoration Acts. Funds for the programs are derived from excise taxes on certain types of sporting equipment. These revenues are apportioned to the states according to statutory formulas based primarily on the state's land area and the number of paid hunting and fishing licenses. The Service is authorized to retain a portion of these revenues for administration of the PR-DJ programs and for support of the Migratory Bird Conservation Act.

Congress amended the Federal Aid in Sport Fish and Wildlife Restoration Acts in October 1970 to authorize comprehensive fish and wildlife management planning as an alternative to the traditional project-by-project basis for planning and funding. This option enables the states to exercise greater self-reliance and to sharpen their management focus by devoting primary attention to

program results rather than to processes and projects.

While the states have been able to participate in the Federal Aid program through the completion of modular or comprehensive plans since 1970, only five have selected this technique to date. Numerous training courses and technical assistance opportunities have been provided to encourage the completion of these plans. While it is not anticipated that conversion to this approach will be embraced by all states, the experience to date with this endeavor has provided a useful point of reference for the Service.

The Service uses planning as one of the ways to improve its conduct of business, now and in the future. Although the Service may never have resources adequate to do a complete job, our continuing challenge will be to develop more systematic ways to identify the most important problems and issues to effectively allocate our resources, and to improve methods to measure our success.

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*Dr. Edwin A. Verburg is the Deputy Assistant Director for Policy, Budget and Administration in the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. He began work with the Service in 1977 as a senior program analyst, moving on to a division chief position in 1980, and then to Assistant Director for Planning and Budget. He came to his present position in 1986.*

# Planning Approaches in the Bureau of Land Management

by David C. Williams

The course of land use planning in the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) has not been a smooth one, of knowing always where it was headed and that it was making progress. Rather, the Bureau started planning because of specific needs, stumbled and sometimes failed, and often changed course. The present approach is thus an incremental response to the perceived problems of the previous system. As it turns out, it is a largely successful, and unheralded, response.

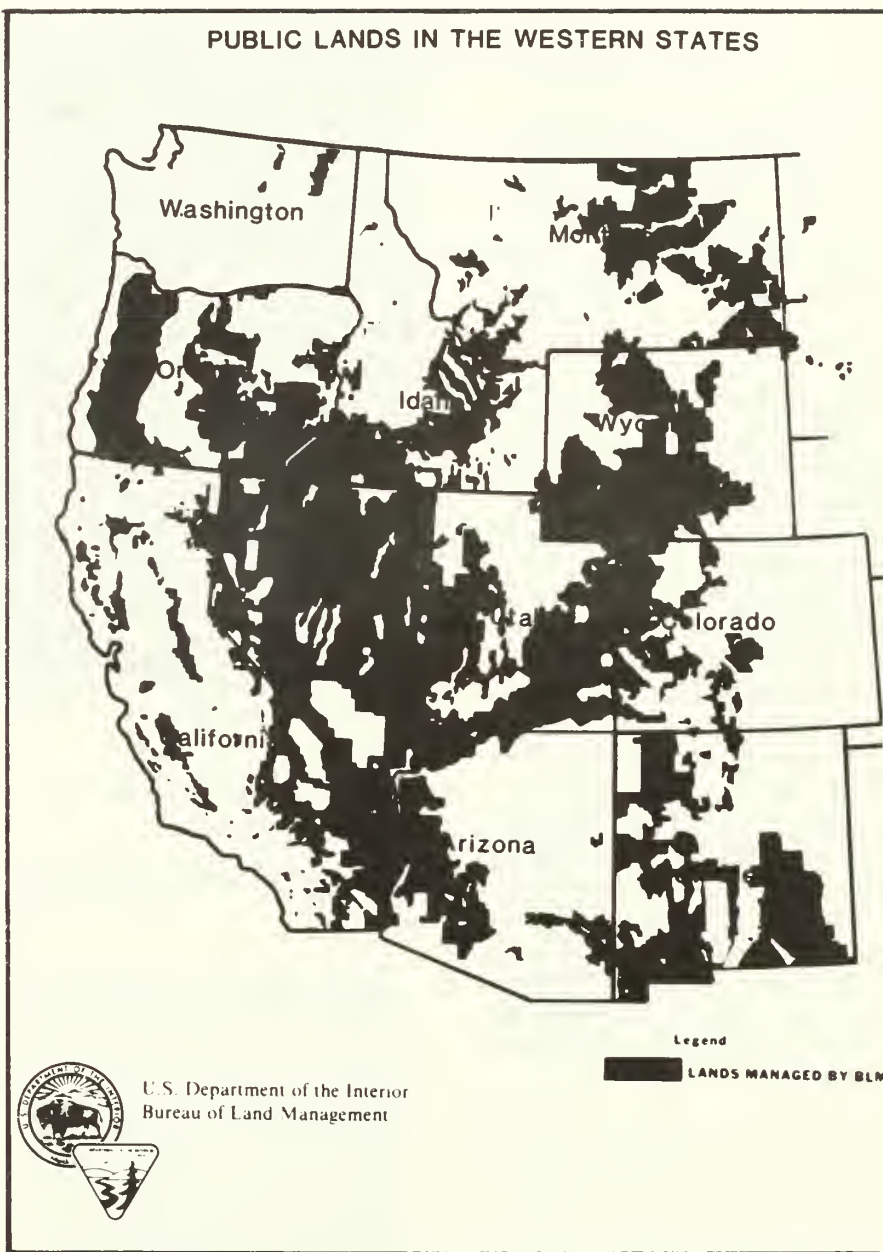
There is a great deal of truth to: "Your weaknesses are your strengths, and your strength is your weakness." BLM weaknesses, especially contrasted to the other agencies being considered here, are often seen to include:

- late creation as an agency: 1946
- a late charter (or organic act): 1976
- an unfocused multiple use mandate
- poverty
- the resulting poor public image.

For BLM, these weaknesses have — in a clearly unexpected way — contributed to the creation of a focused, effective and useful planning process which now has the potential to become a major factor in BLM management.

## How and Why Did We Get Wherever It Is We Are?

The new "USA" held its first public land sale in Ohio in 1796, following extensive debates be-



tween Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton over the proper course of development for the western lands, acquired from the original states as a result of compromises in approving the Con-

stitution. BLM traces its history from the creation of the Cadastral Survey in 1785 and of the General Land Office (GLO) in 1812. We are by far the "oldest" of the federal land agencies.

The GLO goal was to dispose of as much land as possible as fast as possible: through homesteading, granting incentives to railroads, rewarding soldiers and giving land to new states. Public lands were the largest source of land for the Forest Service, National Park Service and Fish and Wildlife Service.

In 1934 the Taylor Grazing Act started a process for managing grazing rights and use, and first recognized the reality that land was no longer being sought for private use. Operating on the same lands, with totally divergent purposes, the GLO and Grazing Service were merged by Executive Order of President Truman in 1946 with the "beautiful" (and presumptuous) name of the Bureau of Land Management. Actually, both groups were groping toward the reality that the public lands of the West are not the vast, arid nuisances [The Lands Nobody Wanted] of ancient myth. The GLO started to provide recreation uses; the Grazing Service started to concern itself with wildlife and wild horses.

The critical turning point for BLM was 1964: Congress took a look at the over 3000 laws under which BLM operated and established a Public Land Law Review Commission (PLLRC) to bring order to the chaos. It also passed the Classification and Multiple Use Act which provided for dividing public lands into those to be retained, to be disposed of and those requiring further study. Planning was encouraged for the



*The evidence of earlier visitors is protected by Areas of Critical Environmental Concern (ACEC) designated in the plan.*

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vast majority of lands which would be retained.

### A Short History of Planning in BLM

Systematic land use planning in BLM evolved out of a short-lived effort begun in 1964 to establish a bureau-wide programming-planning-budgeting system. That effort lasted one year in BLM, heavily resisted by staffs whose programs were difficult to quantify and thus likely to lose out in the budget wars. "The system died ignominiously in 1965," but fragmentary support continued for a bureau-wide planning initiative.

One part of PPBS, a systematic effort to collect and analyze inventory data, was renamed the Unit Resource Analysis (URA), becoming

the basis in 1969 for a new planning system focusing on land use rather than budgeting. Management Framework Plans (MFP's) were to be prepared for all lands within each "planning unit," starting with the URA which focused on management opportunities for seven primary resources: lands, energy and minerals, timber, livestock forage, watershed, wildlife habitat, recreation. At the same time, the Planning Area Analysis examined supply and demand through a Regional Analysis and a Social-Economic Profile; then followed 3 steps:

Step 1: Efforts by specialists to argue unrestrained for their perspective "without considering other activity programs or values."





BLM manages the "Lost Coast" of California through the King Range Conservation Area.

Bureau of Land Management

Step 2: Planners compare individual tunnel vision recommendations, and identify impacts. Managers analyze multiple use prospects, conflicts between uses and ways to resolve these conflicts.

Step 3: The area and district managers make decisions about the use of the land, intensity of use and proposed management actions.

MFP's covering about 80 percent of the public lands in the lower 48 were approved by District Managers, rarely reviewed at a higher level and never comprehensively inventoried by the Washington Office. Most had no environmental analysis on the MFP, but might have it on individual parts, e.g., livestock graz-

ing, timber, oil and gas leasing. Often the "plan" was a series of maps and overlays on BLM office walls, and reports and data in office files.

### Problems with Management Framework Plans

Well, where do we start? For the first five years the BLM land use planning system was subjected to little evaluation. By the mid-'70s, however, criticism of MFP's came from all sides: within BLM (and Interior), the General Accounting Office and National Academy of Sciences, user and environmental groups, state and local governments and, of most concern, court decisions against the Bureau. Was the URA/MFP

process as responsive to FLPMA? Criticisms centered on:

- Tunnel vision — Step One was widely interpreted as needlessly raising conflicts between uses, and causing unrealistic recommendations.

- Skewed toward economic uses — technical guidance encourages production.

- Little guidance on making trade offs — to guide choices between resources, or between local interests and national priorities.

- Inadequate (obsolete) or excessive data, or greatly varied levels of data for different resources. District managers are deferring critical decisions needed now, in hopes of obtaining more dependable data at a later date. BLM accumulated voluminous inventory prior to analysis.

- Too general or too specific — many so-called decisions are merely broad policy statements, standard operating procedures or "motherhood" declarations of continued cooperation and coordination, too broad to be useful in resolving conflicts or allocating land uses. Some MFP's had the opposite problem: excessive detail, such as identifying individual tracts for disposal when only targets and guidelines were needed.

- Poor incorporation of the requirements of NEPA — no EIS's were prepared on MFP's. There was little consistency in when and how to prepare environmental analysis, except in grazing EIS's (because of court guidance). Plans rarely provided a base for multiple

use in these EIS's, and the EIS staffs often had to do "planning" in order to complete their work.

— So BLM had dual planning systems, one for MFP's and one for grazing EIS's — keeping the central land use decision — the allocation of public range forage among livestock, wildlife and watershed uses — out of the EIS.

— Highly variable public participation — many found the process complex and difficult to get involved. The Forest Service process was seen as far more understandable and accessible. Public participation came too late to be meaningful, or even more often it was simply ignored.

— Fixation on the plan as the final product of planning, often a one-shot and soon obsolescent final plan. BLM has not yet mastered the dilemma of keeping the public informed without producing some product.

— Rigidity — too firm a plan, hard to amend, may preclude or delay subsequent actions even when they are clearly appropriate.

— Planning for Planning's Sake — the initial target was to include all lands, meaning that sometimes plans needing amendment or revision were neglected while resources were devoted to areas not requiring attention.

— Finally, concerns that the plans really did not change the decisions that BLM was making — Johanna Wald of NRDC concluded that "plans did not control future

uses . . . In short, the pre-FLPMA planning system was a planning system in name only."

The argument has been made strongly that the problem was due to BLM: its lack of management commitment and adequate funding, too few properly trained planners and the resistance to (or capture of) planning by field managers. Chris Leman of Resources For the Future (RFF) refutes this type of argument: "A different system probably would have coped better with the less-than-ideal conditions usually prevalent." Still, a different system may not have really changed tradition and engendered solid manager commitment.

### NEPA as a Critical Force in BLM Planning

At the end of the year that BLM started Management Framework Planning (1969), Congress created the most significant force for change in BLM planning and decision making: The National Environmental Policy Act. BLM, however, was slow to grasp the implications of NEPA. On the bulk of its land the prime activity is livestock (and wildlife) grazing. BLM took until 1972 to develop a NEPA strategy on grazing: to prepare a single programmatic EIS for grazing nationwide. BLM did prepare the EIS, but this strategy was challenged by the Natural Resources Defense Council (NRDC).

In 1974, a Federal District Judge ruled that BLM must prepare site-specific grazing EIS's. BLM

and NRDC reached agreement to prepare 145 covering all the BLM grazing lands; a schedule provided for specific EIS's to be completed each year through 1988. Thus, the settlement itself became the driving force in setting the Planning Schedule.

### **What Were the Responses to These Criticisms and Events?**

The study and deliberations of the PLLRC took 6 years but produced a landmark report — a key recommendation was that the public land agencies be required to plan land uses to obtain the greatest net public benefit. Another 6 years resulted in BLM getting its long-awaited charter: the Federal Land Policy and Management Act (FLPMA). By an overwhelming bipartisan vote, heavily supported by Western delegations, Congress set out the nation's policy to be: retention of the public lands, commitment to multiple use and the basic authority to protect areas where exploitation is inappropriate, even while encouraging the development of natural resources. "Flip-ma" has made an incredible difference in planning in BLM; Congress declared it to be national policy that:

*[Section 102(a)(2)] The public interest will be best realized if the public lands and their resources are periodically and systematically inventoried and their present and future use is projected through a land use planning process coordinated*

with other federal and state planning efforts.

The first substantive section of FLPMA [202] is devoted to land use planning. The heart of our new mandate requires the Secretary to [concisely]:

- (1) observe the principles of multiple use and sustained yield
- (2) use a systematic interdisciplinary approach
- (3) give priority to areas of critical environmental concern
- (4) rely on the inventory of public lands, resources, values
- (5) consider present and potential uses of the public lands
- (6) consider the relative scarcity of the values involved
- (7) weigh long-term against short-term benefits to the public
- (8) comply with applicable pollution control laws
- (9) be consistent with state and local plans.

FLPMA resolved many questions, but did not mandate the type or name of the new planning process. So RMP (Resource Management Planning) is a BLM invention. Between 1976 and 1979, BLM wrote the regulations to create the new system. Two basic decisions set the framework for developing these regulations:

- 1) The writing team would



The Trans Alaska (Oil) Pipeline is the biggest project yet built on public lands. BLM is working on a Corridor Plan for other uses.

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work with FLPMA in one hand, NEPA in the other, i.e., RMP would fully integrate planning and environmental processes.

2) The nine planning actions required would be the same for BLM and the Forest Service, which was preparing its regulations for the National Forest Management Act (NFMA) on the same schedule. This would promote common public understanding and joint planning (never realized).

The results became effective in September, 1979, almost three years after the passage of FLPMA. The proposed regulations (43 CFR 1600) had generated a great deal of comment for both agencies, which took a long time for resolution.

Planning in BLM is conceived

of as a three-tier system:

- RMP's get direction from National Policies
- The Resource Management Plans are the major element
- RMP's act as the framework for Third Tier Activity Plans.

The greatest difference between BLM planning and that of the Forest Service and Fish and Wildlife Service especially is that we have no formal, organized national policy. There is no national plan or regional plan (for BLM, this would be a state plan). In a few programs, such as coal, there is a bureauwide EIS and program because of the high interest of the Secretary of the Interior. Activity plans are generally similar to those of the other federal



land management agencies, and include [grazing] Allotment Management Plans, Wild Horse Area Management Plans, Habitat Management Plans, Recreation Management Plans and Coal Leasing EIS's.

The middle tier of Resource Management Planning, as conceptualized by BLM, is as patently rational as it is possible to get in federal regulations. The BLM managers are to use a systematic, interdisciplinary approach to go through eight planning actions which will result in an adopted plan. The ninth action covers use of the plan. To the extent that Resource Management Planning is working in BLM, it is because the extreme rationality — largely derived from NEPA — has been "bounded" or tempered by the approach BLM has taken to implement it.

### **BLM's Approach to Resource Management Planning — in 1979 Regulations**

- RMP's are issue driven, i.e., they are initiated only when decisions need to be made, when issues or unresolved questions are not taken care of by an existing plan. Most common issues in RMP's through 1984 were grazing, wilderness, coal leasing; now they are lands, oil and gas, timber.

- The RMP is a comprehensive plan covering all the resources in the area. The plan includes a narrative and maps showing allocations of the kinds and locations of

allowable uses, levels of use and management actions to be taken.

For example, the RMP may designate areas for livestock grazing, wilderness, timber harvest, mining, wildlife habitat and other uses, either singly or in combination; determine suitability for leasing (e.g., for coal or oil and gas); indicate levels of use; designate areas of critical environmental concern, and show lands which might be considered for disposal. Once a plan is adopted, all BLM resource decisions must conform to it.

- The planning and environmental processes are fully integrated:

- It was a policy call of the Bureau that every RMP is a "significant federal action" requiring an EIS; the nine action steps meet all the scoping, alternative formulation, impact analysis and public participation requirements of NEPA and the Council on Environmental Quality.

- The plan meets the EIS requirements for the grazing EIS court settlement, the EIS requirements for Wilderness Review and the comprehensive land use plan requirement of the Federal Coal Leasing Act.

- The products of the RMP process are a Draft Plan/Draft EIS, a Proposed Plan/Final EIS and the Adopted Plan/Record of Decision.

- NEPA analysis is tiered so that specific actions (e.g., permits) may require only an environmental assessment or categorical exclusion.

- BLM planning is totally decentralized. RMP's are done for individual resource areas (though not every one will ever need one) except in a few unusual situations: the California Desert Plan mandated in FLPMA, and the five proposed district-wide RMP's in timber-rich Western Oregon to be done simultaneously. Planning teams are created for each plan, reporting to the line manager on the spot — the Area Manager — and each has to be trained for its effort. There are no floating teams, service center planning group or consultants. The objective is to build ownership of the plan by those who will carry it out.

This approach has been modified based on the experience of implementing it over the past few years, but the basic direction has proved effective and been largely accepted by BLM managers and the public.

### **What are the Difficulties in Implementing Resource Management Planning?**

The criticisms of the planning process evolve. As BLM addressed those discussed earlier for Management Framework Plans, new ones arose such as:

- RMP's take too long and cost too much — as the RMP process was being developed, plans were expected to take seven years: three for pre-planning, two for inventory and two for actual plan preparation. During that time, issues may change, priorities shift and manager and staff may change.

- Decisions are delayed until plans are completed — a perception that especially energy/mineral projects were delayed by the lack of a plan.

- Poor guidance on the national and state level — actually, there was enough guidance, it just overlapped or contradicted other guidance, or was so poorly written that BLM planning teams could not understand it. Some written guidance was contrary to unwritten national policy.

- Difficulty integrating FLPMA and NEPA requirements — planning teams were not sure how to prepare an EIS while they were developing the proposed action; and much of the public didn't like the NEPA work BLM was already doing. Some Departmental NEPA experts thought the EIS should consider only impacts and not be a part of the decision making process.

- Rigid sequence of steps/hard to amend — to prepare the plan, or even amend it, the team had to go through each step in absolute order.

- The products are unreadable — the first RMP's were hard to compare; in some cases, it was difficult to find the proposed action.

### Actions Taken to Streamline the Planning Process

Before even the drafts of the pilot round of RMP's appeared, changes were made in the planning regulations. In 1981 the Sec-

retary of the Interior gave direction for all bureaus to look at "burdensome and counter-productive" regulations and either eliminate or streamline them. BLM Director Robert Burford established a task force, carefully excluding anyone associated with planning, and asked them to report back in nine working days with shorter regulations. They did.

Getting approval of these proposed regulations took two years. Three hundred fifteen comments protested the task force's proposal to move much of the procedural material on public participation to the Planning Manual, and to rely heavily on the CEQ regulations. Public comments overwhelmingly accused then Secretary Watt of trying to keep the public out of planning; a major worry was that BLM would just adopt the CEQ regulations, and then Watt would change them to somehow exclude the public. In response to the comments, BLM Director Burford insisted that all the provisions on public participation be retained in the regulations.

Despite all this controversy, the task force was able to propose several significant changes, starting with the givens that: (1) we continue the RMP process, (2) the nine action steps remain the same, (3) public participation cannot be reduced, and (4) the amount of money available will be greatly reduced. The actual changes were fine-tuning of a system we thought was going to work.

The most important changes, however, were done internally, through policy guidance and deci-

sions of the career managers and planners of BLM. We set out, emphasize and live by several key themes:

- Most important is that plans are action oriented — the purpose of planning is to Aid Managers in Making Decisions. [RMP's are prepared only when the issues/decisions demand it — this means (1) reliance for a long time on existing adequate MFP's, and (2) that BLM has no intention of requiring a plan on every acre; we dropped the requirement for revision every 10 years, feeling an automatic revision would actually breed neglect of plans.]

- The manager, then, is the key planner. [The area manager, our closest-to-the-ground multiple use manager, is given responsibility in the regulations for the first time.]

- Planning [and inventory] is focused on the decisions to be made.

- Quality must be built in from the beginning.

- We start at the end by considering how we will use the plan.

- There is no division between planning and environmental processes.

- All issues are ultimately social and economic in origin and resolution.

- All plans must be consistent with state and local plans.

- Planning must be linked to other decision processes: program

planning, budget, organizational research, evaluation.

One of the most successful aspects of this approach is that planning is a learning, sharing experience. We have to have regulations, a manual and a supplement to the manual, but we have made them flexible to account for BLM's variety of situations and issues and to support the Bureau's philosophy of decentralization. A major emphasis of our approach is to try different techniques and methods, and share the successful ones with resource areas which are just starting their plans.

Reorganization of the Washington Office shifted emphasis from the functions of planning, inventory and environmental coordination to the client to be served. While program coordination focused on the regulations, etc., field support could concentrate on sharing.

This also addressed the two significant problems of lack of WO coordination and poor image in the field (note the supportive terms in the titles). At the same time, the Office directed the time to be spent on RMP's be scheduled at 24 to 30 months, a reduction from the 4-to-5 years the pilot RMP's took. Grazing Management EIS's and Wilderness Studies were fully integrated into RMP's, and plans incorporated coal unsuitability determinations.

In contradiction to these improvements, two decisions seriously hampered planning in BLM:

1) The Bureau's budget for

planning was cut 45 percent from 1981 to 1982.

2) The State Office Planning and Environmental Coordination chiefs were demoted from reporting to the State Director to reporting to the Chief of Resources, their grade was reduced from GS-14 to GS-13, the two GS-13 branch chief positions for Planning and for Environment were eliminated; and the size of each state P&EC staff was limited to eight (from 16 to 30).

These decisions called into question the commitment of the Bureau to planning. Several states decided not to ask for funds for new start RMP's because of lack of assurance they could complete them. The cutbacks, however, did much to make the Bureau — from the Washington Office to the planning teams — figure out how to make planning work in the face of declining resources. This may affirm the 1981 prediction that "perhaps precisely because of BLM's relative poverty, its new planning system is being implemented with far more flexibility than in the case of the Forest Service."

## How Well is All This Working?

The usefulness of planning to BLM managers is best stated by the conclusions of the 1984 BLM Planning Evaluation:

*The RMP process is widely accepted by those responsible for developing and utilizing the process. They feel that the RMP process is*

*more streamlined, that the planning steps allow for efficient data assembly and analysis, and that the plan document is in more useable form. In addition, plans that are up to date are now being used by managers. As a result, the team does not see the need for any major system changes to a process that is now accepted and in place.*

## Where Are We Now? — Critical Issue Facing BLM Planning

The most critical issue in our approach to planning concerns inconsistencies we found in the way plans defined the decisions to be made and treated resource program requirements. To address this, the keystone of our current efforts is the development and adoption of Supplemental Program Guidance (SPG) to the Planning Manual. This effort demonstrates important points made in this article:

— The key is to clarify the nature of the decisions to be made in RMP's.

— The guidance for each program is written by the responsible WO staff.

— Guidance is approved by planning — to assure multiple use perspective.

— Review by all BLM field offices is a must for acceptance and use.

— We broke precedent by sending review copies to all Western Governors and involved groups





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All 10,000 of these wind machines have been built since 1980 - requiring amendments to the Desert Plan.

and announced it in the Federal Register.

This unusual step of asking the public what they think of our manual raises one of the critical issues facing planning in the Bureau today: what do we mean by public participation? We are very good at involving the public at the local plan level. Hundreds of people help us identify issues and comment on the draft plan/EIS. They can — and do — protest the final decisions. But R.W. Behan (see Who Can You Turn

To?) would argue that that's just consultative public participation. What we need is for managers to "adopt a style of interactive decision-making with their affected and participating parties." That would allow them to bargain, give-and-take, compromise and thus participate in the fashioning of an outcome everyone can tolerate (his definition of sound multiple use management). Behan concludes: "Until your various publics are satisfied, you are not practicing good and legitimate multiple use management."

The question of public participation is not just at the local level where plans are prepared. There is an increasing concern about the role of the public in developing BLM national policies. FLPMA Section 309(e) says:

*The Secretary [of the Interior] shall establish procedures . . . to give . . . governments and the public adequate notice and the opportunity to comment on the formulation of standards and criteria for, and participate in, the preparation and execution of plans and programs for, and the management of, the public lands.*

To some degree, the success of planning reviewing guidance will lead to calls for public involvement in making decisions about BLM policy for many resources.

The Bureau of Land Management did not arrive at its Bias for Action — the #1 attribute praised in Peters and Waterman's classic — through deliberation. It is a product of the Bureau's culture — and its poverty, of its status as the

manager of the "Lands That Nobody Wanted."

Our bias, then, is for "getting on with it," for trying out something and then correcting our mistakes. That is the essence of our approach to planning. We tried the management framework approach, and then adjusted it. Its problems, however, required a whole new law: the Federal Land Policy and Management Act. Resource Management Planning is our current approach to multiple use land use planning. We tried it out in six pilot plans, and then used the experience to: 1) revise the regulations and fine-tune the guidance, and 2) share the success with new planning efforts. As we learn more, we are able to build it in.

Our plans are getting better, and we have an easy method for improving plans we have already done. We will continue to experiment, to adjust, to amend, to improve. I have often said the BLM motto is: "No Decision is Final." That is certainly the case with planning — and we intend to keep it that way.

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*This article is a condensation of a paper given to the Western Social Science Association's 28th Annual Conference, April 24, 1986. Much of the descriptive text has been incorporated in the John Randolph article on "Comparison of Approaches to Public Lands Planning," and therefore is omitted from this condensation.*

# Comparison of Approaches to Public Lands Planning: U.S. Forest Service, National Park Service, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Bureau of Land Management

by John Randolph

In recent years, the planning for use and management of the federal public lands by the four principal administrative agencies (Forest Service [FS], Bureau of Land Management [BLM], National Park Service [NPS], and the Fish and Wildlife Service [FWS]) has grown in application and sophistication. The general purpose of such plans is to provide a clear management direction and prescription for specific land units that is consistent with agency goals, national and regional needs, ecological objectives and the public interest, and that reflects budgetary constraints. These institutional, economic, scientific and political parameters combine to require planning procedures that must meld traditional rational planning with the political resolution and allocation of values into a complex and comprehensive process.

While the four agencies have conducted planning for their administered lands in some form for many years, they have had 5-8 years of experience implementing recent Congressional and agency planning directives. These directives responded in part to a range of public and scholarly criticisms of the manner in which the use of the public lands had been planned and managed in the past.

Combined, the recent experience of these agencies may serve as the grandest test of public lands planning in history. Decisions made in the course of this surge of planning activity will likely determine the future development and protection of the nation's vast

public land resource, 30 percent of the total U.S. land area. As a result, it is critical and timely to examine the planning experience of these agencies, to compare the processes and methods used as well as the factors influencing those procedures. It is hoped such a comparison will help set the groundwork for research assessing the effect and effectiveness of this immense planning effort on the management and use of the public lands.

For this comparison, it is necessary to establish a set of criteria or factors through which the planning experience of the four agencies can be examined. Table 1 gives the factors used in this article. The first five variables deal with essential overview information to establish the planning context in which the agencies find themselves. The agencies are responding to a range of land types and conditions; policies, objectives and directives; and planning and management traditions. The remaining factors describe the specific plans, processes, procedures and methods used by the agencies. Using the framework provided by this set of variables, this article provides a preliminary comparison of the land management planning of the four federal public lands agencies.

## The Context for Public Land Management Planning

Through the years, these agencies have administered quite different lands in quite different

TABLE 1

Factors For Comparing Public Lands Planning By Federal Agencies
<u>Planning Context</u>
1. Current Range of Planning Activities
2. Physical Nature of Administered Lands
3. Broad Policy Objectives
4. Historical Planning for Public Lands
5. Mandates and Directives for Planning
<u>Plans, Processes, Methods</u>
6. Current Land Management Plans
7. The Planning Process
8. Integration of Planning Requirements
9. Organization for Planning
10. Public Participation
11. Planning Methods
<u>Implementation</u>
12. Implementation Status and Effectiveness

ways. To understand the current public land planning of the agencies, it is helpful to look at the full range of their planning activities, the nature of the lands they manage, the statutes governing their activities, their broad policy directives and their planning tradition or lack of it.

Table 2 shows the range of land planning activities of the agencies, and in many cases the activities go well beyond the boundaries of the lands they administer. The FWS particularly has several statutory responsibilities that involve planning for public and private lands; these deal with endangered species, wetlands, waterfowl, fishery resources and ecological

**TABLE 2**  
Range of Current Land Planning Activities: Public and Other Lands

	Forest Service	Bur. Land Management	Park Service	Fish & Wildlife Service
<u>Public Lands</u> Natl Level	RPA Assessment / EIS	Agency Policies	Agency Policies	Agency Policies
Field Level Comprehensive	LRMP/EIS by Forest	RMP/EIS by Resource Area	GMP/EIS (EA) by Park Unit	RTMP/EIS (EA) by Refuge Alaska (CCT/EIS) by Refuge
Area Specific	Allotment Plans Timber Sale Schedule	Activity Plans	Resource Mngmt Plans, Development Concept Plans Land Projection Plans	
<u>Quasi-Pub. Land</u>	Wild & Scenic River Plans National Trail Plans		Wild & Scenic River Plans National Trail Plans	
<u>Natl Programs</u>	RDA Assessment for all forest & range lands Research Program		State Outdoor Recr. Plans (approval) State Historic Preservation Plans (approval)	Endangered Species Natl Fisheries Res Program Migratory Bird Management National Wetland Invent. Ecol. Character. Studies State Wetland Inventory State WL Habitat Studies
<u>Adjacent Lands</u>	Cooperative Agreements	Cooperative Agreements	Cooperative Agreements	Cooperative Agreements

LRMP – Land Resource Management Plan  
RMP – Resource Management Plan  
GMP – General Management Plan  
RTMP – Refuge Master Plan  
EIS – Environmental Impact Statement  
EA – Environmental Assessment

studies. The NPS and the FS prepare plans for designated wild and scenic rivers and national trails which often include privately owned lands. All four agencies develop agreements with non-federal property holders adjacent to and within public land boundaries. The Park Service develops specific plans (so called Land Protection Plans) for private holdings within authorized park boundaries.

However, the focus of the land planning activities of these agencies is on the lands they administer: the National Forest System, public lands managed by BLM, the National Park System and the

National Wildlife Refuge System. The major land use plans are developed for individual units (e.g., each National Forest) and are comprehensive in nature. Summarized in the top portion of Table 2, the plans for these land units and how they are developed is the focus of the discussion which follows.

Described in Table 3, these public land systems amount to nearly 700 million acres, about 30 percent of the nation's land area. While concentrated in the west and in particular Alaska (with 250 million acres), there are National Wildlife Refuges in 49 of the 50 states, units of the National Park

System in 49 states, and National Forests in 44 states. These federal lands are extremely diverse. The national parks contain the most striking scenic, natural and cultural wonders of the country; the wildlife refuges protect important habitats of migratory birds and endangered species, and represent all the major ecological regions of the country; and the national forests contain productive forests which serve as a renewable reservoir of forest products, woodland wildlife habitat and a major resource for dispersed and developed outdoor recreation.

The BLM lands are often regarded as the "leftovers" of the



public domain — i.e., those federal lands not claimed by the many private recipients of public land "disposal" (e.g., homesteaders, railroads, states) or not converted to national parks, forests or wildlife refuges. While the BLM lands are still used extensively for livestock grazing, they amount to more than half of the public lands, contain valuable energy and non-energy minerals, and provide important wildlife habitat and increasing recreation use.

The condition of the public lands also affects the need for and direction of planning. The condition of national forests and wildlife refuges is generally good. The western national forests were largely virgin when dedicated to

the system; the young, second and third growth eastern national forests were already cut over when acquired. The national parks have seen a dramatic increase in visitor use over the past 20 years, and as a result some park facilities have deteriorated, natural and cultural resources have been impacted and congestion has diminished the park experience. Last year, the National Park Service completed a 4-year, \$1 billion program to rehabilitate park facilities.

Some BLM and FS facilities are also deteriorating. Historically, the BLM lands have been subject to extensive overgrazing, damaging off-road vehicle use and the general abuse typical of a public "commons." Conditions have

improved with better management of off-road vehicles (particularly in the California Desert Conservation Area) and better range management. In 1984, 18 percent of BLM range lands were classified in poor condition compared to 33 percent in 1975.

The fundamental difference in land management by the four agencies is their guiding policy objectives and the specific laws they operate under. Described in Table 4, the objective of the FS and BLM is for multiple use and sustained yield management. The NPS and FWS have a narrower preservation or protection charge while still providing for recreation which is a primary objective in the

TABLE 3

Physical Nature of Public Lands			
Forest Service	Bur. Land Management	Park Service	Fish & Wildlife Service
155 National Forests 19 National Grasslands	162 Resource Areas	338 National Park System Units	435 Nat. WL Refuge Units
192 million acres (23 mill.ac.-Alaska)	340 million acres (100 mill.ac.-Alaska)	77 million acres (52 mill.ac.-Alaska)	88 million acres (77 mill.ac.-Alaska)
Nature: productive forests, woodland wildlife habitat, grassland	Nature: rangelands for domestic grazers, wildlife; forestland, deserts	Nature: scenic, natural, cultural wonders	Nature: wildlife habitat, waterfowl, big game
Condition: generally good	Condition: historic overgrazing, but improving: 1966: 19% good & exc. 1984: 36% good & exc.	Condition: some overcrowding, deteriorating facilities	Condition: generally good
Dominating uses: timber, recreation, grazing, wildlife, minerals	Dominating uses: grazing, minerals, recreation	Dominating uses: recreation, preserv.	Dominating uses: F&WL, recreation

TABLE 4

Broad Policy Objectives for Management of Public Lands			
Forest Service	Bur. Land Management	Park Service	Fish & Wildlife Service
<p><u>Multiple Use Sustained Yield</u></p> <p>managing for a number of resource values including recreation, wilderness, wildlife/fish, timber, forage and minerals in a manner that provides a high level of production in perpetuity "without impairment of the productivity of the land . . . and not necessarily the combination of uses that will give the greatest dollar return of the greatest unit output."</p> <p>(MU-SYA 1960)</p>	<p><u>Multiple Use Sustained Yield</u></p> <p>manage public lands in a manner "that recognizes the Nation's need for minerals, food, timber and fiber from the public lands; that protects the quality of scientific, scenic, historical, ecological, environmental, air and atmospheric, water resource and archeological values; that where appropriate, will preserve and protect certain public lands in their natural condition; that will provide food and habitat for fish and wildlife and domestic animals; and that will provide for outdoor recreation and human occupancy and use"</p> <p>(FLPMA 1976)</p>	<p><u>Recreation Preservation</u></p> <p>"to conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wildlife [in National Parks] and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations"</p> <p>(NPA 1916)</p>	<p><u>Preservation Recreation</u></p> <p>Secretary of the Interior is authorized to allow a variety of uses on refuges – various forms of recreation, grazing, hunting, fishing, oil exploration, gas leasing, etc. – so long as they are "compatible" with the basic purpose of the refuge.</p> <p>(National Wildlife Refuge System Administration Act 1966)</p>

park units and a secondary objective in the wildlife refuges.

The broad multiple use objective of the FS and BLM requires the agencies to make tradeoffs between commodity production and resource protection; to satisfy a broad range of public interests from timber, grazing and minerals to recreation, wildlife and wilderness; and to weigh national versus local and regional perspectives and values. The balancing act required in such multiple use planning is perhaps the most significant challenge in land use planning today and forces the agencies toward comprehensive planning approaches which blend rational and political decision making. While the NPS and FWS have narrower objectives, they are forced to make difficult choices between visitor use and resource protection, particularly in an age of increasing recreation demand.

While the agencies are currently engaged in the most significant land planning activity in their history, two have had considerable experience in preparing management plans. Table 5 traces this historical experience which is strongly related to the agencies' Congressional and administrative directives outlined in Table 6. With a tradition of professionalism, the FS began preparing certain functional or activity-specific plans for certain forest areas before 1930. These dealt primarily with timber productivity and fire protection.

With the charge of the 1960 Multiple Use Act, the FS initiated a multiple use planning program; with the help of regional guides, multiple use plans were prepared for individual ranger districts. While quite variable and still timber oriented, these plans pro-

vided a transition to the "unit plan" approach initiated in 1969. These focused on designated ecological units (1029 in the 155 forests) and aimed to be interdisciplinary and involve the public. The FS incorporated the Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) requirements of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) into the "unit" planning process, and as a result the FS came to be regarded as having one of the most substantive early responses to this important act. These unit plans were complemented by more use-specific functional plans involving mostly timber management.

However, since the 1930s, the Forest Service had set aside a number of "wild" areas which ultimately provided the base for the National Wilderness System established by the Wilderness Act

TABLE 5

Historical Planning for Public Lands				
	Forest Service	Bur. Land Management	Park Service	Fish & Wildlife Service
Tradition	Professional Forestry	Land Disposal Stockmen Capture	Stewardship	Sanctuary Game Species Emphasis
1950s	"Functional Plans" eg, fire protection timber management	NONE	"Master Plans" facilities development	First refuge plans produced — first planning initiated in 1950s
1960s	"Multiple-Use Plans" Regional MU Guides Ranger Dist. MU Plans (timber oriented, but incr. recreat.)	Classification of Lands	Master planning shift to resource analysis, interdisciplinary  "Wilderness Review"	Refuge Management Plan  "Wilderness Review"
1970s	A. "Unit Plan/EIS" Ecological Units rational interdisc/public inv.  B. "Functional Plans" eg, timber mngmt, wilderness review "RPA Prog/Assess./EIS"	"Management Framework Plans" Planning Units (1000) No EIS little public inv.  "Grazing EISs"  "Wilderness Review"	"General Management Plan/EIS or EA comprehensive/resource emphasis interdisc/public inv.  Detailed "Res Mngmt Pln" "Dev Concept Plan"	"Refuge System EIS"  "Refuge Master Plan/EIS" management direction
1980s	"Land Mngmt Plan/EIS" integrated/forestwide	"Resource Mngmt Plan/EIS" Resource units (162)  "Activity Plans"	Alaska Lands Plan/EA	"Alaska Comp. Cons. Plan/ EIS"  Refuge System EIS (being prepared)

TABLE 6

Mandates and Directives for Land Management Planning			
Forest Service	Bur. Land Management	Park Service	Fish & Wildlife Service
Organic Act: 1897	Organic Act: 1976	Organic Act: 1916	Organic Act: 1966
Statutory Direction: 1960 Multiple Use Act 1964 Wilderness Act 1970 NEPA 1974 RPA 1976 NFMA 1980 ANILCA  Administration Direction: 1979 NEPA regs 1979 NFMA planning reg (amend 1982, 1983)  Manuals & handbooks	Statutory Direction: 1964 Classification and Multiple Use Act 1970 NEPA 1976 FLPMA 1980 ANILCA  Administrative Direction: 1979 NEPA regs 1979 FLPMA plan. regs (amend 1983) 1983 Planning Manual	Statutory Direction: 1964 Wilderness Act 1970 NEPA 1978 NP&RA 1980 ANILCA  Administrative Direction: 1979 NEPA regs NPS-2 planning Process guideline	Statutory Direction: 1956 F&WL Act 1962 Refuge Recr. Act 1964 Wilderness Act 1966 NWRSA 1970 NEPA 1980 ANILCA  Administrative Direction: 1979 NEPA regs Refuge Manual, 4 RM 1



of 1964. A 1970 court ruling forced the Forest Service to conduct a detailed review of its roadless lands for wilderness suitability. While this review dragged on for a decade, it provided the agency considerable experience in non-timber oriented resource planning. The 1974 Resources Planning Act (RPA), the 1976 National Forest Management Act (NFMA), and implementing administrative rules directed the Forest Service to its current planning approach. This involves forest-wide Land Resource Management Plans (LRMP) which are comprehensive and integrate most use-specific management actions in the forest. These plans are guided, but not constrained by, a national RPA Program which establishes targets for forest outputs and is prepared every five years; the RPA Program is supported by RPA Assessments of all forest and rangelands, prepared every 10 years.

The National Park Service also has a long planning tradition with the development of its first Park Master Plans in the late 1920s and 1930s. Through the 1950s these plans provided a conceptual framework for park management, but focused principally on development of roads and facilities. In the 1960s, this master planning was broadened somewhat to consider resource protection, but some plans were still criticized for stressing facilities development and serving the interests of concessionaires which operate park facilities. This master planning was complemented by wilderness suitability studies mandated by

the 1964 Wilderness Act. In 1975, the Park Service initiated a new approach which produced General Management Plans (GMP), parkwide comprehensive plans which placed greater emphasis on resource protection, visitor use management and public involvement. The GMP is augmented by more detailed implementation plans such as the Resource Management Plan and Development Concept Plan. This GMP approach was mandated systemwide by the National Park and Recreation Act (NP&RA) of 1978. In recent years, the Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act (ANILCA) of 1980, which identified Alaska lands that would remain in federal ownership, directed an integrated GMP approach for the Alaska National Park System units. Many other recently established park units also require the preparation of comprehensive management plans.

Neither BLM nor FWS have the planning tradition of the Forest and Park Services. As Table 6 shows, BLM did not receive its "organic act" (a statutory basis for the agency's existence and mission) until 1976, compared to 1897 for the Forest Service and 1916 for the Park Service. The FWS does not have a broad organic act, but the 1966 National Wildlife Refuge Administration Act provides a statutory basis for the Refuge System. The agency has had an early and clearly defined objective of preserving wildlife habitats in the Refuge System, and legislation establishing each refuge unit is the baseline guidance for deter-

mining allowable refuge activities. Although plans specific to individual refuges existed much earlier, the first systemwide planning for the Wildlife Refuges came in the wilderness suitability review required by the 1964 Wilderness Act. In the late 1970s, without specific statutory direction, the FWS initiated a process for developing Refuge Master Plans (RFMP) which continues as its basic planning framework. Whether or not it has a Master Plan, each refuge has a Management Plan covering allowable refuge activities. The ANILCA mandated Comprehensive Conservation Plans (CCP) for the National Wildlife Refuges in Alaska.

Of the four agencies, the Bureau of Land Management has the least planning and management experience and tradition. BLM was formed in 1946 from the General Land Office, which for 130 years had been charged with "disposing" the public domain by sale or grant to private parties, and the Grazing Service which provided superficial management of rangelands that operated as an overgrazed "commons." It was not until 1976 that BLM was granted permanent custodial responsibility for the public lands under its administration.

Still, by 1969, it had initiated the development of Multiple Framework Plans (MFP) for its individual planning units which numbered nearly one thousand; by 1984, the last of about 350 MFP's was completed. While a start at planning, these MFP's

were quite variable, utilized little public involvement and were highly criticized. BLM decided not to include an environmental impact statement (EIS) in these generalized MFP's or in the more specific Grazing Allotment Management Plans, but to provide a single programmatic grazing EIS. This decision prompted a 1974 court settlement which required BLM to prepare by 1988, 145 EIS's for its grazing management on 168 million acres of BLM lands.

This shaky initiation to land planning and other perceived management problems in BLM prompted the 1976 Federal Lands Policy and Management Act (FLPMA), which called for Resource Management Plans (RMP) for BLM lands. As the 1964 Wilderness Act had done for FS, NPS and FWS, FLPMA also required BLM to review its administered lands for wilderness suitability. BLM now integrates its grazing EIS, wilderness review and other planning requirements with its RMP process.

## **Processes and Methods for Land Management Plans**

Each of the four agencies is now developing management plans for the land units they administer. The Forest Service Land Resource Management Plans (LRMP) and the Park Service General Management Plans (GMP) are required for *all* national forests and park units). The BLM Resource Management Plans (RMP) and the FWS Refuge Master Plans

(RFMP) are prepared and revised as needed for BLM Resource Areas and Wildlife Refuges. All the plans are intended to establish a comprehensive framework and direction for land use management.

The basic structure of the planning processes used by the agencies to develop these plans is nearly identical. The processes reflect the classic rational-comprehensive approach, which involves the following five basic steps:

1. identifying issues, concerns, resource opportunities and objectives
2. gathering and analyzing data
3. formulating alternatives
4. assessing the impacts of alternatives
5. evaluating alternatives and selecting a plan.

The Forest Service and BLM add to this process a monitoring and evaluation step which tracks the implementation of the plan and identifies needs for plan revision. The Forest Service is legally required to revise all plans every 10-15 years; BLM expects to do so as needed. The Park Service GMP's are also evaluated and revised or amended periodically. This evaluation step adds an element of "incrementalism" to an otherwise rational-comprehensive process. Thus prepared plans need not try to prescribe a management direction for all time but for a more constrained and realistic time frame; subsequent revisions can accommodate changing conditions, issues and needs.

## **Integration and Consolidation of Planning Requirements**

To varying degrees these plans integrate and consolidate a range of planning requirements. All of the plans integrate the NEPA process and the development of the EIS. NEPA has had a profound effect on the planning of all four agencies, directly in the planning process and indirectly as it has influenced Congressional and administrative mandates for planning. The Forest and Park Services have been noted for their substantive response to NEPA since 1970.

However, in these early years the general guidance for the EIS and NEPA process provided by the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) tended to push the development of the EIS late in the planning process, often after substantive planning decisions were made. The contents of the EIS required by the 1973 CEQ Guidelines for EIS preparation focused almost entirely on the proposed action. Thus, agencies often postponed EIS work until a proposal was in mind, so many EIS's turned out to be little more than an afterthought. The NEPA process outlined by the 1973 guidelines, did little to integrate environmental impact considerations into the early stages of the planning process.

Recognizing these deficiencies, CEQ revised its guidance into NEPA regulations which were



approved in 1978 and became effective in 1979. The contents of the EIS were changed, and it read more like a planning document. Thus agencies could more easily integrate EIS preparation into the planning process. To further facilitate the early consideration of environment impacts, the NEPA process was revised to include an early "scoping" step to flesh out concerns and issues and identify interested parties. The intent was that this scoping would coincide or be integrated with the early steps of the planning process.

This post-1978 NEPA process has thus become an integral part of the planning processes developed by the public lands agencies. The Forest Service and BLM have a standard policy that the LRMP and RMP are major actions requiring an EIS so the Environmental Assessment (EA) step of the NEPA process is skipped. The Park Service and FWS do not assume that the GMP and RFMP require an EIS and they perform an EA; if they determine from the EA that an EIS is not required, they file a Finding of No Significant Impact (FONSI) and the EA will be the environmental document accompanying the plan. While most Fish and Wildlife Service RFMP's include a full EIS, only about 10-15% of Park Service GMP's started in the last six years have included one.

The planning process and NEPA process run parallel, and the agencies, particularly the Forest Service and FWS, depend on NEPA requirements as their

major mechanism for public participation. The FWS draws special attention to its NEPA scoping meetings, and all of the agencies, especially the Forest Service, rely on draft EA/EIS and plan review and comment by the public as the first public input on specific alternatives.

The Park Service and BLM incorporate the EA/EISP into their management plans, while the FS provides a separate, comparison EIS document. The FWS generally issues a separate EIS, although some recent RFMP's incorporate the environmental document. BLM prepares a final "Record of Decision" (ROD) document that details the adopted Resource Management Plan, while the FWS and NPS issue a short ROD statement at least 30 days after the Final Plan/EIS is released. FS's ROD is a separate document, generally 30 to 40 pages in length.

All four agencies consolidate a number of general planning directives into their comprehensive management plans when possible. These include wilderness suitability reviews, land protection plans, grazing EIS's and others.

The Forest Service LRMP's and Fish and Wildlife Service RFMP's aim to be "complete" documents including use-specific management actions where possible. As an extension of its master planning, the FWS also prepares Refuge Management Plans which describe specific management activities to implement the Master Plans. FS development activities (for example, a timber sale) usually

require an environmental document because the forest-level plan is not adequately site specific. The BLM and Park Service plans are complemented by more detailed functional plans.

For example, BLM prepares separate Recreation Management Plans and Allotment Management Plans; the Park Service prepares Resource Management Plans (which detail cultural and natural resource protection strategies) and Development Concept Plans (which detail facilities development), each of which has its own environmental document. These separate plans remove some of the burden from the comprehensive plans which can thus be more general, laying out management directions rather than being buried in detail. As such, they may focus on specific management issues and concepts and consequently be more readable and more easily understood.

### Public Participation, Interdisciplinary Planning, Planning Methods

As discussed above, the planning process used by the agencies is a blending of rational and political approaches. The rational side requires the use of a variety of planning methods and techniques. The political side requires public involvement and a variety of disciplines throughout the planning and decision making process.

#### *Interdisciplinary Approach*

All four agencies now use an



interdisciplinary approach to planning; each employs a "planning team" made up of staff specialists. While the Forest Service and BLM usually draw solely from the staffs of the Forest or Resource Unit, the FWS complement the team with representatives from the Regional Office. In the Park Service, teams are made up of staff from its Denver Service Center, and assisted by park and regional staff. The Regional Director for the FWS plays a substantive role in prioritizing, scheduling, directing and approving Refuge Master Plans. This regional and national input to the planning process adds consistency and an element of planning expertise and experience to the effort. The Forest Service planning team is made up of about six specialists (e.g., wildlife biologist, recreation planner, forest economist, civil engineer, etc.) who conduct the day-to-day planning activities; in addition, a management team made up of the Forest Supervisor and District Rangers makes substantive planning decisions.

#### *Public Participation*

All of the agencies have been subject to some public criticism through their history, and this has affected how they are perceived by the public. The Forest Service and particularly the BLM, with their broad multiple use objectives, have taken the brunt of the criticism as it is hard to make a multiple use decision that will please anybody, much

less everybody.

All of the agencies use a variety of public involvement methods. These range from Federal Register notices to meetings and workshops, to mailed brochures and surveys, to public review and comment on draft plans and EIS's. In practice, the use of these methods is varied. The FWS relies heavily on the NEPA process of scoping and draft review to obtain public input, although it has taken recent steps to train its personnel on other public participation techniques. The Forest Service and BLM also rely heavily on NEPA scoping and draft review and comment. While draft review and comment is important, it often comes too late in the process to affect substantive planning decisions, such as the choice of alternatives to be studied or the choice of the preferred alternative. Often the agency, having already made a preference in the draft, is put on the defensive when unanticipated critical comments are received at this late stage. This has been a particular problem for the Forest Service in several of its LRMP's.

The Park Service appears to be the most successful of the four agencies in public participation. This may not be surprising since the Park Service has a narrower mandate than the Forest Service and BLM and thus a narrower set of interest groups to satisfy. In addition, it has a highly motivated constituency - people care about the park units and want to participate.

Moreover, the Park Service has employed some innovative methods to facilitate participation early in the planning process. Early workshops are often used to gain public perceptions of park issues and concerns. The success of workshops depends on attendance and participation, which are enhanced by the high motivation of the public. Another method, used in about one third of GMP efforts to date, is the "Alternatives Workbook" which has been very successful in obtaining public information at a critical stage of the planning process - the formulation of alternatives. In addition, it provides respondents with a great sense of participation. First used in planning for Yosemite National Park, the workbook is sent to interested parties who are asked to formulate their own preferred alternatives choosing from a long list of alternative elements which are roughly organized in three or four alternative sets.

#### *Planning Methods*

Agency planners use a variety of planning methods. For example the Forest Service uses a linear programming model, FORPLAN, which is used in alternative formulation and impact assessment. For a number of alternatives, it is used to assess and optimize net monetarily-measurable benefits derived from those forest uses that have direct economic effects (timber production, developed recreation, water supply derived from watershed protection, minerals extraction). To evaluate alternatives, the planning team compares

TABLE 7

Status of Plan Development			
Forest Service	Bur. Land Management	Park Service	Fish & Wildlife Service
<u>174 Natl For. &amp; Grasslands</u> 43 Draft LMP 63 Final LMP	<u>162 Resource Areas</u> 33 RMP	<u>338 Natl Park Units</u> 290 GMP approved	<u>435 Natl WL Refuge Units</u> 100 RFMP

these effects with non-monetary effects resulting from other uses such as fish and wildlife protection and dispersed recreation.

All of the agencies use cartographic techniques (maps) to display information on plans and alternatives. The Forest Service provides a comparison of alternatives using a range of matrices: some display how each alternative responds to specified issues; others give quantitative outputs of alternatives on a range of indicators of environmental, social or economic attributes. Other agencies have also used comparative matrices in selected plans.

In terms of other methods, BLM is required to assess range-land carrying capacity in its RMP and grazing allotment plans. FWS analyzes land suitability when formulating refuge land use alternatives. The Park Service is mandated by the NP&RA of 1978 to analyze visitor carrying capacity in its GMP's; however, it has yet to play a significant role in park planning. In addition, the Park Service has initiated use of computerized geographic information

systems for data analysis and land suitability studies.

### Status of Plan Development and Implementation Effectiveness

How have the four agencies fared in the development and implementation of these planning processes and procedures? By mid-1986, they have produced a number of plans as Table 7 shows. The Park Service is farthest along having produced plans for 290 of the 338 National Park units. The Forest Service has completed 63 final and 43 draft LRMP's of the 123 final plans that will ultimately be produced. BLM has completed RMP's for 33 of its 162 Resource Areas. For the 435-unit Refuge System, there are about 100 Refuge Master Plans in effect, with 15 more in process.

But the number of plans does not help answer the more important question: what is the effect and effectiveness of the planning efforts of these public lands agencies? **Has this planning led to**

**better management decisions for the public lands, more equitable distribution of user benefits, better resolution of conflicts between competing interests, greater long term productivity and sustainability of uses?**

Unfortunately, the answers are not contained in this collection of articles. However, based on this initial examination and comparison, it is hoped that subsequent research will be supported to address these questions of implementation effectiveness. For the agencies, this planning is not a one-time proposition, but a continuing effort calling for plan monitoring, evaluation and revision. Any potential refinements to the processes, procedures and methods that such research can identify may assist agency sharing of experiences and enhance this ongoing effort.

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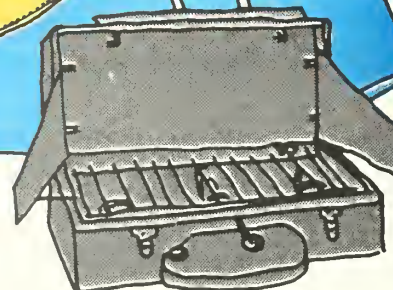
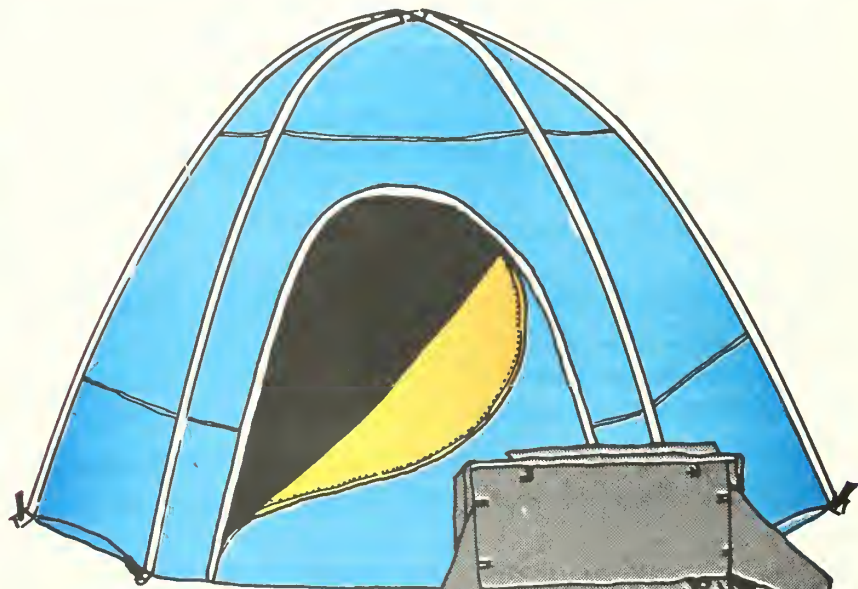
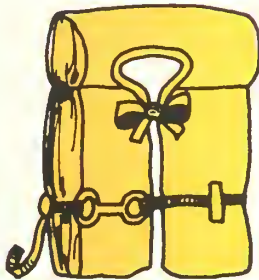
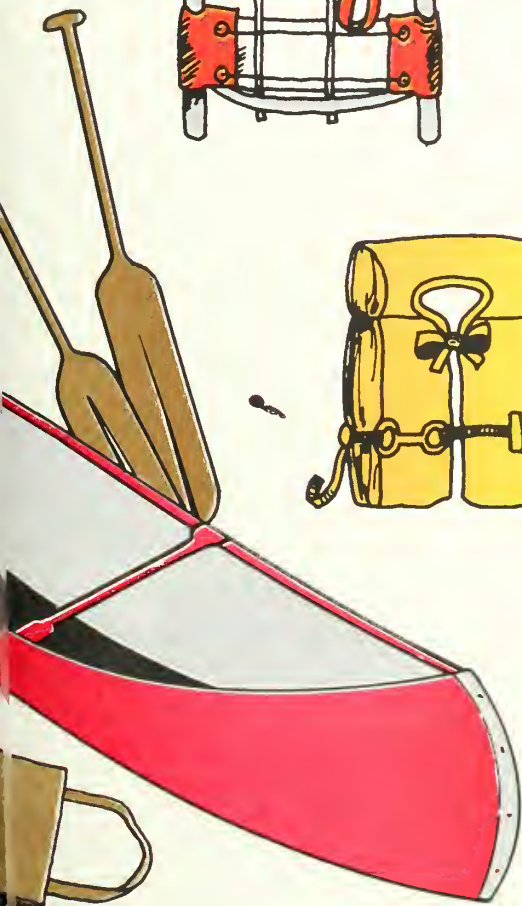
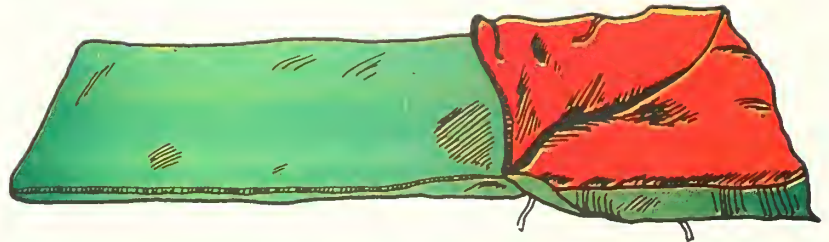
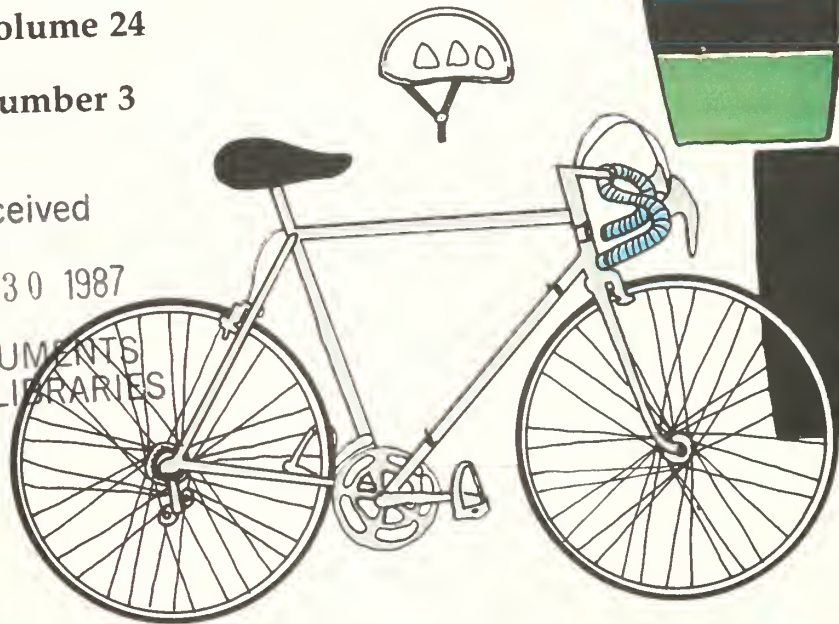
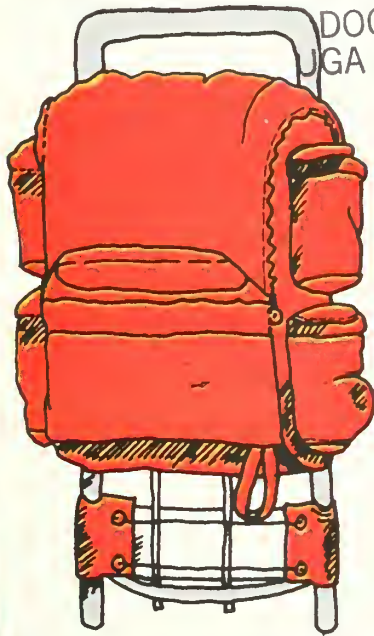
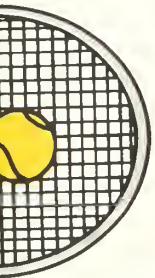
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## Trends

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# Introduction

by Alan Ewert, Ph.D.

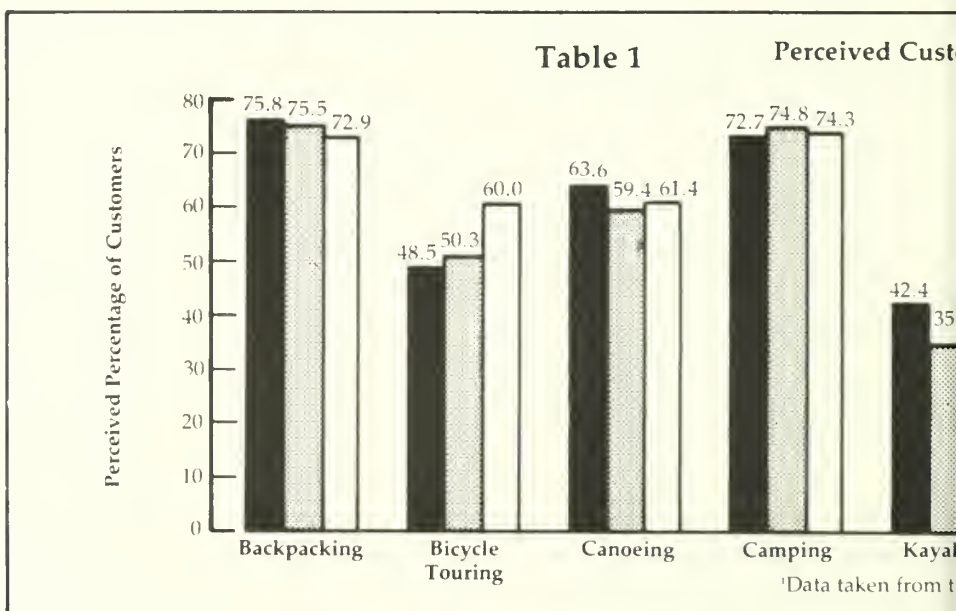
By 1987, leisure has become an industry grossing well over \$300 billion (PCAO, 1987). This figure represents approximately 6.5 percent of all the expenditures spent in the United States (Kelly, 1985:11). Of this \$300 billion expenditure, Bullaro and Edginton (1986:69) estimate that \$85 billion or 28 percent is spent on outdoor recreational activities. A breakdown of how expenditures are made in pursuit of outdoor recreation would include costs associated with travel, lodging, equipment and clothing, education, guides and outfitters, and food.

Outdoor recreation involves a vast array of participants and settings. The recently completed report of the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors (PCAO, 1987) indicates that an average of one million people per day visit a national park or forest, over 35 million people have experienced a whitewater trip and 80 percent of the adult population consider themselves to be "outdoors people."

Studies of participation rates suggest that millions of North Americans engage in at least one activity related to outdoor recreation. For this article, outdoor recreation is defined as:

*Recreational activities which are voluntarily engaged in, intrinsically valued and involving the use, knowledge or appreciation of the natural outdoor environment.*

These types of engagements include activities such as swim-



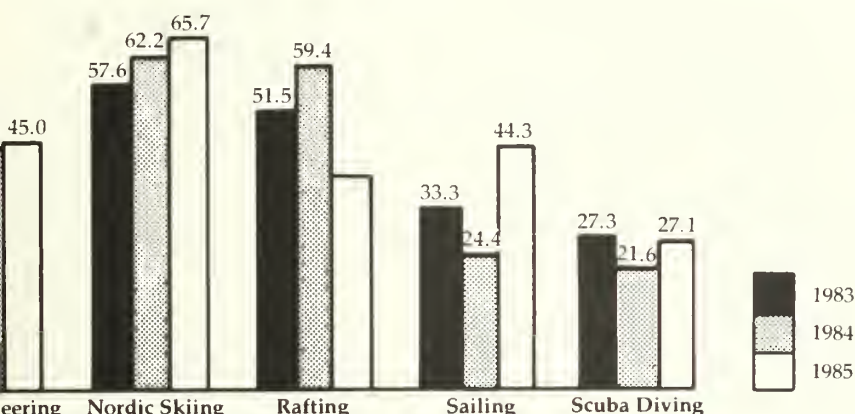
ming, camping, hiking, hunting, fishing, boating and mountain-climbing. The findings of a recent study of participation rates by the National Sporting Goods Association in 1985 reported that the 12 most popular sports and outdoor recreation activities are swimming (73.3 million participants), bicycling (50.7), camping (46.4), walking (41.5), hiking (21.1), tennis (19.0), backpacking (10.2), canoeing (7.9), cross-country skiing (5.5), mountain and rock climbing (5.0) and board sailing (1.2). Among these and other sports surveyed, a number of activities related to an interaction with the natural environment such as bicycling, boating, skiing and sailing have experienced significant increases in popularity. Moreover, interest in these types of activities has generally grown or remained stable. The perceived percentage of customer interest as observed through outdoor retail stores is shown in Table 1.

## The Opportunities

Related to participation rates is the availability of opportunities to engage in the activity. Providing for these opportunities has increasingly been the role of commercial outdoor recreation. These types of organizations provide recreational opportunities in order to make a profit. Within the context of commercial outdoor recreation there exists a wide variety of delivery vehicles for outdoor recreation. A sample of these outlets is listed in Table 2.

A sampling of educationally-oriented programs currently being offered through commercial outdoor agencies includes courses for a wide variety of populations such as people diagnosed as having cancer, youth at risk, substance abusers, victims of violence, business professionals and adolescents. From the adventure travel perspective, outdoor commercial enterprises are providing oppor-

by Activity<sup>1</sup>



Outdoor Outfitters Market Report

**Table 2**

**Outlets for Commercialized Outdoor Recreation Opportunities**

Private Forests

Commercial Campgrounds

Ski Areas

Resorts

Commercial Beaches and Wilderness Areas

Guest Ranches

Outfitting and Guide Services

Hunting/Fishing Preserves

University-Based Cooperatives and Programs

Outdoor Schools

Stores/Shops/Clubs/Cooperatives

Trips Sponsored Through Manufacturers

Touring Organizations

are the thousands of organizations catering to the more mundane outdoor recreational activities such as big game hunting in Wyoming, fly-fishing in some mountain stream, hiking in Yellowstone National Park or canoeing through the Wilderness Waterway in the Everglades.

## The Participants

Whether the individual purchasing the service is going climbing on Mount McKinley in Alaska, or going on a walk through a greenbelt near a large metropolitan area acquired through the Land and Water Conservation Fund, the participant is a dynamic entity with changing abilities and needs. When compared to many public service agencies, the commercial operation can more easily adjust its operation and programs to better meet these changing needs.

A substantial amount of re-

search in outdoor recreation (Bryant, 1979; Knopf, 1983; Manning, 1986) suggest that as participants gain skills and experience, their motivations for participation, social orientation, decision-making and desired level of risk will also change within the recreational setting. Although originally developed for people engaged in adventure recreation activities such as mountain climbing, the following model also has application for outdoor recreation.

Commercial outdoor recreation enterprises are particularly well suited for finding and developing specific niches within the framework of changing clientele.

## Trends

A number of trends appear to be developing which will impact the future aspects of commercial outdoor recreation. As suggested by the PCAO (1987), the population of the United States grows by 2.2 million people a year. This growth and other factors suggest that the demand placed on outdoor recreation resources will continue to grow.

In addition, Kelly (1985) suggests that understanding emerging trends in a leisure framework such as commercial recreation requires an understanding of the expected changes in leisure resources (time, money, opportunities and needed skills), and attitudes about leisure and social change. With respect to time, money and opportunities, wide diversity will exist in terms of amounts and competition. Some people will continue to have

tunities on a global perspective, with adventure trips to the South Pole, the North Pole, Africa, New Zealand, Tibet and Timbuktu. In addition to the exotic destinations

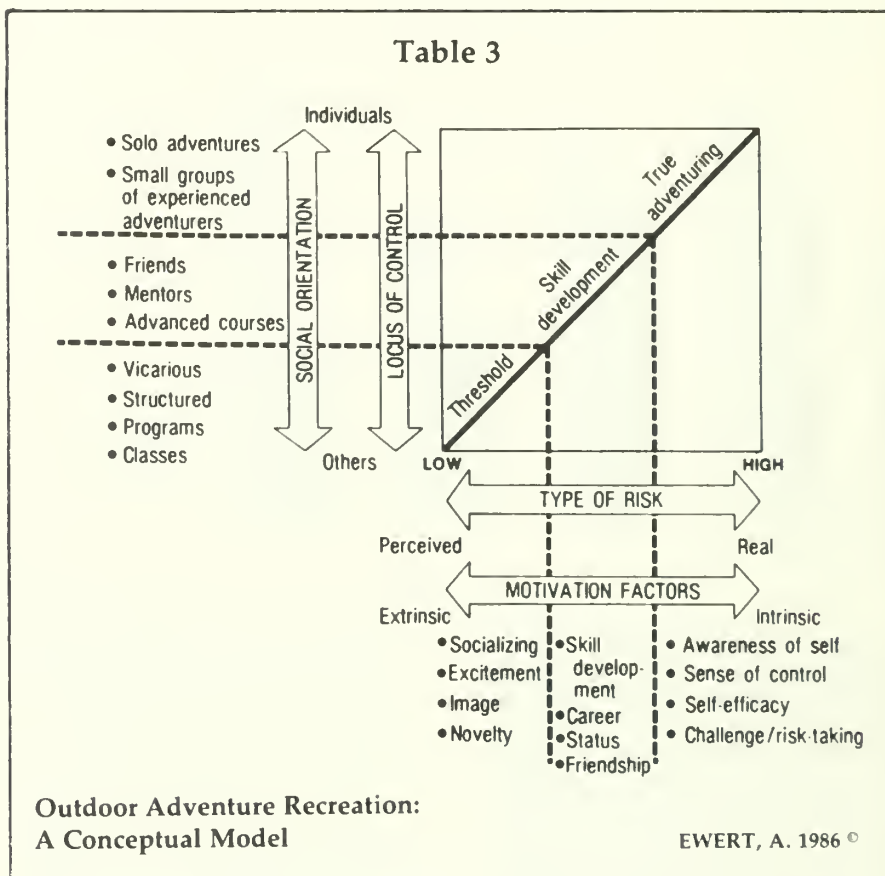


the time and wherewithall to engage in commercial outdoor recreation activities but many people will not. Although quality of life will continue to become a growing focus for society, Kelly (1985) and Bullaro (1987) indicate there will be a movement toward value-oriented activities, chosen to enhance self-development and self-satisfaction. While this change should be beneficial to the leisure markets, commercial outdoor recreation enterprises may be forced to direct their attention to the personal benefits of the individual.

## About This Issue

This issue of *Trends* has been devoted to understanding the wide array of commercial outdoor recreation opportunities from the perspective of training recreation specialists, running programs, conducting businesses and the impacts upon natural resources. Within this framework, Ken Gilbertson, and Craig and Bev Rademacher discuss the business of commercialized outdoor recreation from the perspectives of a university and cooperation setting. Doug Greenaway from the Temagami Wilderness Centre in Canada, extends this theme by describing the perils and pitfalls of starting a commercial outdoor recreation business.

Glenn Bischoff reports on the opportunities in retailing for the outdoor specialty business, and training for outdoor entrepreneurship is outlined by Mary Faeth Chenery and Christopher Edginton. No training would be com-



plete, however, without an understanding of conceptual theory, and Alan Ewert depicts several theoretical considerations for commercial outdoor enterprises.

From the natural resource perspective, Marc Petty, Elizabeth Norton, Ken Cordell and Larry Hartmann provide analyses of how commercial outdoor recreation generates a substantial amount of use and impact upon natural resources. Michael Rogers looks at the report by the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors concerning the public-private connection and Dan Dustin, Leo McAvoy and John Schultz offer a note of caution regarding

the merchant mentality and over-exploitation of the resources for business reasons.

While the commercial use of the outdoors for recreational uses is not a new concept, formally discussing these ideas in written form is. Hopefully, the concerns and programs discussed in this issue will provide new information, ideas and direction for future outdoor recreational endeavors.

*Alan Ewert, Ph.D., is a former Assistant Professor and Coordinator, Program of Outdoor Pursuits at The Ohio State University in Columbus, Ohio. He is presently the Director of professional development at the Pacific Crest Outward Bound School in Calif.*

# Towards a Theoretical Understanding of Commercialized Outdoor Recreation

by Alan Ewert, Ph.D.

Outdoor recreation has always been an important factor in the lives of many North Americans. Recreational activities enjoyed in a natural outdoor environment have served to provide rejuvenation, wonderment and a renewed sense of connection with those things and people around us. While these opportunities for outdoor recreation have usually been considered a service provided by the government, outdoor recreation services and opportunities are increasingly being supplied through private enterprises and for a profit. These enterprises have strived to serve the needs and expectations of the individual outdoor user by the creation and development of outdoor recreation-based services. This article will address commercialized outdoor recreation from the aspect of the consumer by integrating the characteristics of the individual user, expectations of the experience and two models of participation.

## An Overview of Commercialized Outdoor Recreation

In 1986, 90 percent of all Americans indicated that they sought enjoyment from the mountains, seashores, lakes and pathways (PCAO, 1987). The pervasiveness of outdoor recreation in North American society can be seen in the rich diversity of history, legislation, dedicated resources and users. Findings from the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors (PCAO) indicate that in the past quarter century demand

has outstripped population growth.

In addition, bicycling and camping have increased fivefold, boating has doubled and risk recreation has experienced dramatic growth in activities such as white-water rafting and rockclimbing.

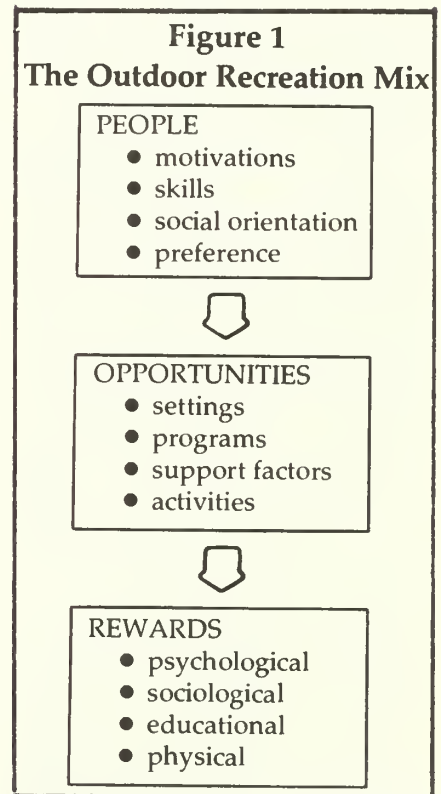
The PCAO has been the latest in a series of national studies conducted in the United States on the topic of outdoor recreation. Along with the earlier works of the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC-1962) and Outdoor Recreation – A Legacy for America (1973), the PCAO demonstrated the continuing demand for and limited resources of outdoor recreation. Clawson (1985) described four factors which heighten the demand for outdoor recreation opportunities:

- A growing population that will ultimately increase demand levels.
- A persistent trend in per capita income available for discretionary expenditures.
- An overall increase in available blocks of non-obligated time.
- The availability, relative comfort and affordable cost of transportation for many North Americans.

While some researchers would disagree with Clawson's assertions (e.g., Hornback, 1985; Stanley and Lucas, 1986), a number of other authors have supported this view of increased growth and demand for outdoor recreation

(Ewert, 1985; McClellan, 1986; PCAO, 1987).

Despite the divergent points of view, outdoor recreation can be considered a mix of people, opportunities and expected rewards. Within this taxonomy are a number of additional factors including motivations, desired settings and preferred activities. The general format of this taxonomy is illustrated in Figure 1.



From the commercial outdoor recreation standpoint, the provision of sought-after rewards is often translated into repeat participants and good publicity. A substantial history of research in outdoor recreation has supported the importance of rewards as a prime motivating force in seeking

out recreational activities (Manning, 1986). Further specification is needed, however, in providing useful information for the perspectives of marketing and programming.

Focusing on the rewards category of the outdoor recreation mix it can be reasoned that sought-after rewards can be construed as expected outcomes or expectancy components of an outdoor recreation experience. Moreover, these expectancy components can be divided into avoidances, antecedents and anticipated benefits.

Avoidances can be likened to outcomes which the participant does not want or expect to have happen. Antecedent expectations involve those variables which are critical to achieve a non-negative experience. For example, an outdoor recreational experience will be deemed less than desirable if the participants feel they did not receive their money's worth. However, merely achieving these goals does not qualify a trip as valuable or noteworthy. For this to occur, perceived benefits must be realized. Examples of these benefits might include enjoyment, challenging activities, learning new skills or meeting new friends. Indeed, much of the motivation research done in outdoor recreation has suggested that reasons to participate in a variety of outdoor recreational activities involve stress-reduction, excitement-seeking and to get away from everyday routine (Brown, 1981; Driver and Knopf, 1976; Manning, 1986; PCAO, 1987).

In sum, unlike more traditional

<p><b>Figure 2</b></p> <p><b>Expectancy Components in Outdoor Recreation</b></p>		
AVOIDANCES	ANTECEDENTS	BENEFITS
Getting Hurt	Value/Money's Worth	Enjoyment
Demeaning Treatment	Safety	Personal Growth
Unnecessary Risks	Appropriate Activities	Physical Fitness
Exhausting Work	Professional Staff	Personal Reflection
Failure	Learning Opportunities	Socializing
Confrontation	Quality Equipment	Achievement
Illness	Souvenirs	Excitement

forms of provisioning for outdoor recreation opportunities, such as the federal or state government, the success of commercialized outdoor recreation is more closely tied to the direct linkage between the rewards sought and the rewards gained. In turn, these rewards can be categorized into three expectancy components of avoidances, antecedents and anticipated benefits. These components are illustrated in Figure 2.

The concept of expectancy components as discussed here is closely linked to the earlier theory of expectancy-value (Feather, 1982; Kelly, 1986). While expectancy-value theory combines personal and economic expectations with their perceived value, expectancy component theory in outdoor recreation refers more directly to the specific expectations of the individual consumer. From a commercial perspective, for an outdoor recreational activity or program to be successful, specific expectations must be realized

both from a value and benefit perspective. That is, a program must be able to offer activities or experiences which the consumer finds valuable and beneficial or they are likely to spend their discretionary time and money elsewhere.

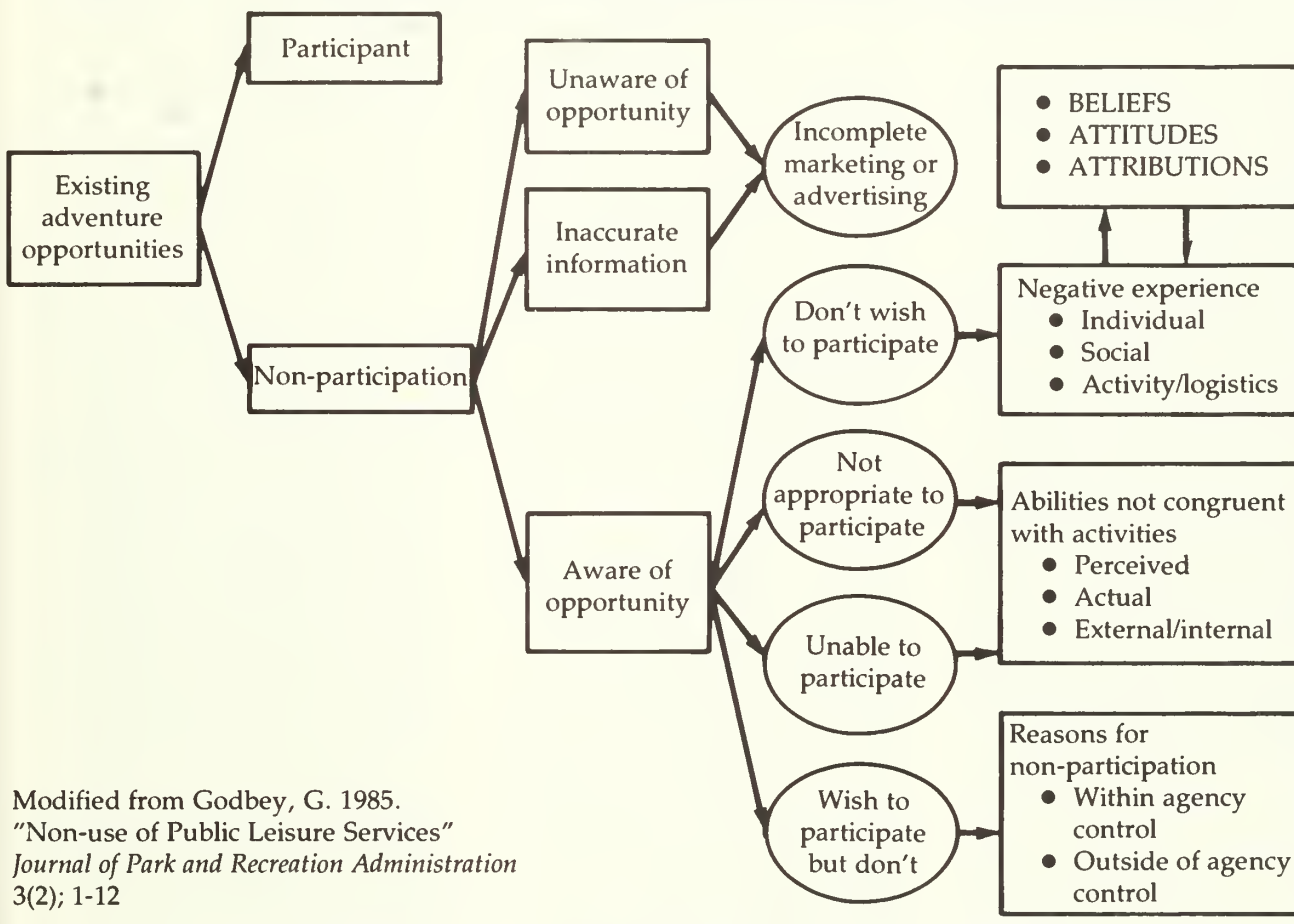
Expectancy theory does not account for all the possible behavior modes in outdoor recreation. Some people find outdoor recreational experiences which are both valuable and beneficial to them and still do not participate or purchase a service. Extending this line of inquiry is the concept of non-participation.

### A Model of Non-participation

A growing body of research suggests that there are five major variables which contribute to non-participation or reduced participation in recreational activities. These variables include deficien-



**Figure 3 A Model of Non-Participation in Outdoor Adventure Recreation**



Modified from Godbey, G. 1985.  
"Non-use of Public Leisure Services"  
*Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*  
3(2); 1-12

ies in money, time, opportunities or facilities, skill and interest (Godbey, 1985; Searle and Jackson, 1985; Schroeder and Wiens, 1986). Drawing from Godbey (1985), a model of non-participation was developed specifically for commercialized outdoor recreation. This model is illustrated in Figure 3.

Following this flow-diagram, it can be seen that the paradigm provides both general and specific information from a marketing and programming perspective. Within

a commercial as well as a more general context, non-participation should be as serious a concern as participation. As suggested by Howard and Crompton (1980) agency success must not only be measured by who and how many come, but also evaluated in the light of who doesn't participate. Lack of awareness of available opportunities can be considered a marketing and advertising problem. A deliberate decision not to engage in an outdoor recreation experience constitutes a type of

problem which has programming implications. Past experience can play an important role in the decision-making process (Pride and Ferrell, 1985:74). A potential participant may have had a negative outdoor experience with respect to not having an enjoyable time or with aspects of the specific "set-up" of the course. For example, the raft may have had a hole in it or the planned-for campsite was full and necessitated moving to a less desirable location. In addition, these negative experiences often

contribute to the development of a set of beliefs, attitudes or attributions which suggest that the activity is unenjoyable or dangerous and should not be participated in.

Of even greater importance may be the perceived personal abilities of the individual. These ability ratings formed by the individual may be based on past experience but can also be perceived (not grounded in any past experience), internal (individual skills) or external (outcomes influenced by luck or fate). What is important for the commercial operator to realize is that it does not matter if the operator knows that the potential client can succeed at the activity; what matters is that the *participant* knows that he or she has the skills and abilities to succeed. Without this knowledge the potential consumer will have a natural inclination to disengage.

For those individuals wishing to participate but do not, the agency is faced with both internal (controllable) and external (uncontrollable) factors. Internal factors which the agency usually has some control over include scheduling, quality of staff and equipment used, ease of application and length of program. External factors over which the agency usually has little control involve items such as available locations which are suitable for the activity, cost, transportation facilities to the staging area and individual events which ultimately preclude participation such as an expense which was not anticipated.

Kelly (1985:314-315) lists three

other external factors which the commercial outdoor recreation agency is dependent upon: climate/weather, the specific activity and differences in the level of commitment or experience of the user.

In summary to this point, knowing why people do not participate in an activity is as important as knowing who does come. Unfortunately, little effort has been dedicated toward a better understanding of the non-participant phenomena, either from a market research or practitioner perspective.

### The Decision-Making Process

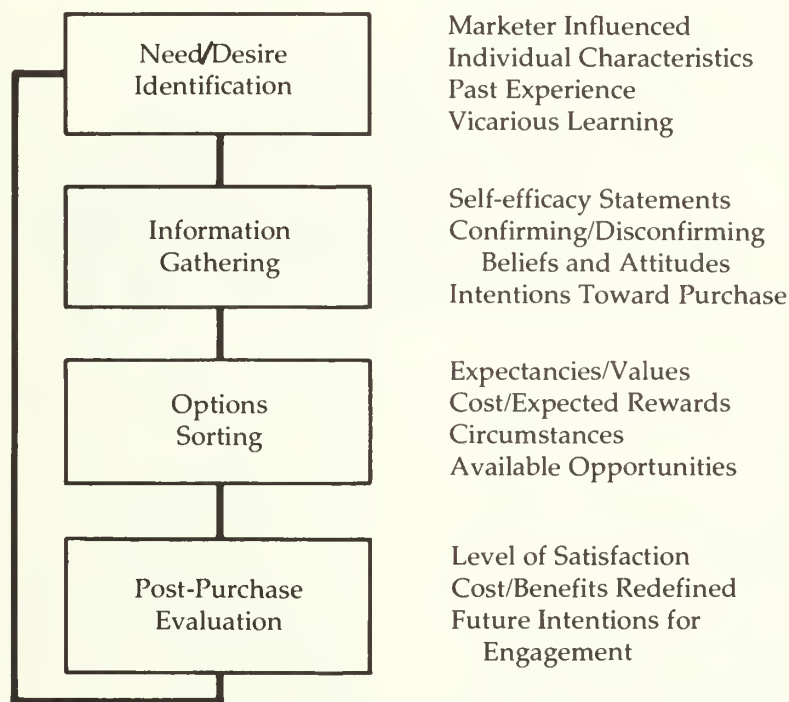
While understanding the reasons why people do not participate in outdoor recreational activities is of great use for the commercial operation, to complete the picture involves an exploration of the decision-making process by which consumers of any type, including outdoor users, make choices. Modifying Engle et al. (1986), we suggest a continuum of information collecting involving extended information gathering (EI), limited information gathering (LI) or routine information gathering (RI). This conceptualization is based on the theory of reasoned action advocated by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) in which it is thought that people usually use information to make rational decisions. This information is often garnered through past experience, personal sources such as friends or relatives and marketer-domi-

nated sources such as advertising. In other words, choosing to engage in an outdoor recreational activity rather than watching the football game on television often involves an active decision-making process using expectations, personal relevancy and the information an individual has about each potential choice.

Howard (1985) reports that the consumer of public recreation services is not a highly involved information seeker and is often characterized by a high degree of spontaneity. In the case of outdoor recreation, we would disagree and suggest that the consumers of outdoor recreation services and programs more likely fall into an extended information gathering mode. This position is taken because of the very nature of many outdoor recreational endeavors, i.e., leaving one's familiar surroundings and engaging in activities which require a substantial degree of personal involvement, skills and commitment. In addition, factors such as unexpected storms, slips or improperly negotiated rapids can involve serious consequences to the participant's health or welfare.

Information gathering is one part of the consumer decision-making process. Additional components of this process involve the variables of need or desire identification, evaluation of options, purchase and post-purchase evaluation. The consumer decision-making process for outdoor recreation activities is illustrated in Figure 4.

**Figure 4**  
**Decision-Making Process**  
**for the**  
**Outdoor Recreation Consumer**



Like consumers of other products and services, the potential outdoor recreationalist follows a pattern of need identification, gathering information, choosing an option and evaluating that choice after the experience. As illustrated in Figure 4, at each major point in this decision-making process there are a number of variables that can influence the individual. Operators of commercial outdoor recreation agencies might consider these variables, such as self-efficacy

(ability) statements or predisposing beliefs held by the individual, in the development of marketing and programming plans. From a commercial standpoint, one of the primary goals is being able to create opportunities for satisfaction of the consumer, with the expectation that this will lead to repeat business or, at the very least, good publicity.

### Conclusion

This article has provided an overview of commercialized out-

door recreation. Integral to this understanding has been the outdoor recreation mix and the expectancy components which are inherent in the reward structure. Despite these rewards, there are a number of factors that contribute to non-participation. These variables include deliberate decisions not to engage or an unawareness of the opportunity. Juxtaposed to non-participation is the decision-making process of potential outdoor recreation consumers. From this paradigm it was posited that operators should consider a variety of factors in both marketing and programming plans. Moreover, the number and complexity of variables involved in the decision-making process would suggest that merely letting the experience sell itself may not be efficacious when looked at in the light of all the other competing interests for the time and money of the consumer.

*Alan Ewert, Ph.D., is a former Assistant Professor and Coordinator, Program of Outdoor Pursuits at The Ohio State University in Columbus, Ohio. He is presently the Director of professional development at the Pacific Crest Outward Bound School in California.*



# REI: The Cooperative Approach to Commercialized Outdoor Recreation

by Craig Rademacher and  
Bev Rademacher

Recreational Equipment Incorporated (REI) is an outdoor clothing and equipment retail business that has been recognized as one of the best companies to work for in America (Levering, Moskowitz and Katz, 1985). REI may also be considered one of the premier commercialized outdoor recreation enterprises nationwide. However, this has not always been so. REI has grown from being a small group of climbers ordering much needed climbing equipment to the largest consumer cooperative in the nation. How has this once small Western co-op become a leader in commercialized outdoor recreation? This article will present an overview of the founding principles, history, corporate philosophy and growth of REI with the goal of understanding the development of a unique corporation that has provided countless outdoor enthusiasts with "Quality Outdoor Gear and Clothing Since 1938."

## REI: A Historical Review

REI had its beginnings in Seattle, Washington, during the summer of 1938. That July a group of climbers, organized by soon-to-be company president Lloyd Anderson, banded together to import mountaineering supplies from Austria. Shortly thereafter World War II forced the newly formed cooperative to procure climbing supplies from an alternative source, Switzerland. Although the war forced REI to undergo a rocky start, the initial 23 members of the co-op began to spread the word of their collective en-

thusiasm for outdoor pursuits and related business enterprise.

The Rochdale Cooperative Plan provided the founding management principles of REI (*Recreational Equipment Incorporated*, 1985). These founding principles of *collective ownership, open membership, competitive pricing, profit distribution through an annual patronage dividend and ongoing expansion and public education* remain with the company today.

As president of the company for over three decades, Lloyd Anderson saw REI through its early accomplishments and laid the groundwork for future growth. In 1944 Anderson, with the aid of a blacksmith, built the first REI rental equipment — 20 ice axes. The first REI mail order catalog was in the form of a price list developed in 1948 and contained six items.

In 1958 co-op membership reached the 13,000 level. Shortly afterward, in 1964, REI exceeded one million dollars in annual sales. In the '60s, interest in REI expanded beyond the company's historical Western roots. During this time period REI established THAW Corporation, a subsidiary which specializes in manufacturing outdoor clothing, packs, tents and sleeping bags. By 1970 the diminutive co-op started in 1938 had 136,000 members and a mail order catalog that contained 1,600 items. Lloyd Anderson retired as president that same year.

Jim Whittaker, the first American to reach the top of Mount Everest, was president of REI

from 1970-1979. The '70s proved to be important years for REI. They were a time of burgeoning interest in outdoor adventure recreation and environmental issues (Nash, 1982; Dunn & Gulbis, 1980) and subsequently a time of growth for businesses directly involved with these social changes. The personal experience and commitment to environmental concerns that Whittaker brought to REI helped establish the company's credibility as a retail business with a management agenda in tune with the times.

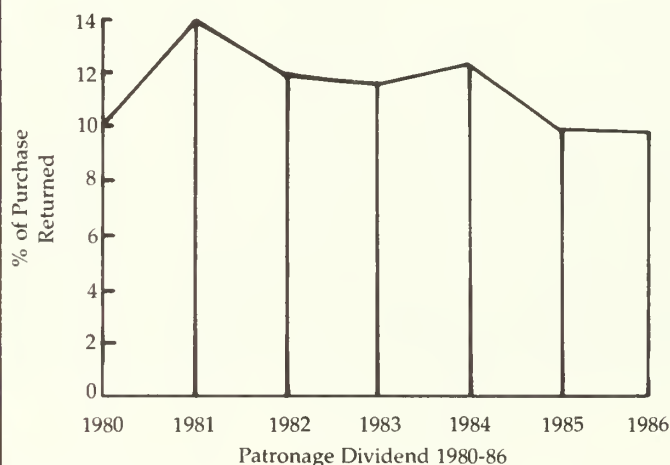
Five new store locations were added to the original Seattle, Washington, store from 1975-1979. By the end of Whittaker's presidency REI had retail stores in California, Oregon, Alaska and Minnesota. In addition, co-op membership passed the 500,000 mark and total sales topped \$45 million. REI had reached the '80s as a predominantly Western, commercialized outdoor recreation corporation poised for nationwide growth and success.

The early '80s saw REI reorganize management under the four-year leadership of Jerry Horn. Wally Smith, REI president since 1983, has guided the company in its current emphasis on strategic planning and commitment to providing the best possible customer service (*Recreational Equipment Incorporated*, 1985). In recent years expansion of retail stores has boomed as new stores opened in Denver, Colorado (1983); Salt Lake City, Utah (1984); Bellevue, Washington (1984); Citrus Heights and Cupertino, California (1985);

Figure 1 – Total yearly sales from 1980 through 1986 in millions of dollars.



Figure 2 – Percent of purchase returned as patronage dividend 1980 through 1986.



Spokane, Washington (1986); San Dimas, California (1986), and Tempe, Arizona (1986).

REI has continued to expand in other areas during the '80s. Mountain Safety Research (MSR) was acquired as a subsidiary manufacturer in 1981. Total sales continued to rise in the 1980s, (see Figure 1) as REI's stature as a commercialized outdoor recreation retail business grew. A record dividend, 14 percent (see Figure 2), was returned to co-op members in 1981. Today REI boasts over 1.8 million co-op members, annual sales of over \$100 million, a multimillion dollar mail order service, a guaranteed 10 percent dividend return and management goals of continued expansion. In 1987 two new East Coast stores are planned to open in Reading, Massachusetts, and College Park, Maryland.

The steady expansion of REI *could* be viewed as a function of the advent and maturation of the environmental movement. Expansion may also be explained by recent increased interest in outdoor adventure recreation. As powerful as those external factors may be, the development of REI as a major commercialized outdoor recreation business is also the result of a unique plan for success that has, throughout the company's history, successfully integrated the founding co-op ideals with the needs and interests of co-op members, customers and employees.

### Corporate Philosophy: An Integration of Ideals

One of the hallmarks of the continued growth and success of REI has been an active commitment to the democratic process of

managing a consumer cooperative. REI has consistently depended upon, and benefited from, this integrative management style which promotes the importance of individual members. This integration of REI corporate goals and ideals with those of its members is embodied in the REI philosophy and active engagement in social service.

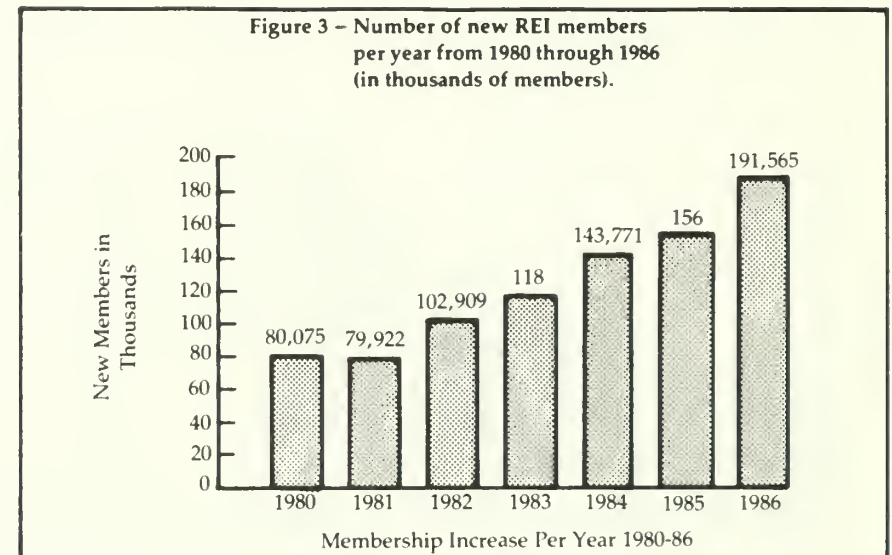
The REI corporate philosophy is most often expressed as a penchant for providing *quality* goods and services. Through a series of programs that complement both the corporate philosophy and guiding cooperative principles, REI is able to aggressively work within the commercial marketplace while serving a variety of consumer interests and demands. The results generated through this integrative approach to management are seen in consistent

increases in new memberships (see Figure 3) and a growing involvement of REI with local communities and national environmental programs.

The development of programs that work within the REI cooperative principles appears to be a key ingredient to the extension of ideals that ultimately influence the success of REI both locally and nationally. Included within this category of complementary programs are: (a) A research and development program, (b) community service programs, (c) a newly established adventure travel program, (d) an extensive employee adventure program, (e) a continuing public education program and (f) an environmental committee grants program.

In addition, REI sponsors grassroots efforts to maintain public outdoor recreation opportunities which may include projects such as a trail maintenance service project in the Wasatch National Forest in Utah or a zoo clean-up project in Seattle. The environmental grants program is strongly supported by REI members and significantly contributes toward accomplishing the goals of the corporation. Through the aforementioned programs REI works to preserve member participation in outdoor activities, and in doing so enhances the future stability of the company.

The REI relationship between corporation, employees and consumer is also important to



the commercialized outdoor recreation industry. Its importance is in the illustration that success in any retail enterprise turns on the ability of that enterprise to foster what is essentially a symbiotic relationship between the customer and corporation – a relationship built upon an integration of mutual needs.

### REI: The Future

As REI celebrates its 50th anniversary it will be faced with the potential difficulties of national expansion. How will continued growth influence the management of REI? In 1985 Wally Smith discussed the future direction of REI.

*"REI is a special company – a special place to shop, a special place to work. Two groups of people, our members and our employees, have made it that way from the very beginning . . . Clearly, we're not*

*the little co-op we used to be. But anyone who shops at our stores . . . who talks to our employees . . . knows we have managed to keep the important things alive. How? By growing not just as a business, but by growing in commitment. Commitment to the future of the environment, the future of the community, and the future of our people. They are our future."*

In his comments Smith makes clear that REI will continue to be a company with a clear understanding and appreciation of past success, and with a goal of remaining a leader in commercial outdoor recreation in the future.

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# Commercial Opportunities and Relationships with Wildland Recreation

by H. Ken Cordell, Ph.D. and  
Lawrence A. Hartmann

Within the past few years, commercial wildland recreation has gained greater professional attention. Much of this is due to recent fiscal droughts among resource management agencies which must still provide wildland recreation, but with less funding. Commercial provision is an alternative.

Within this article "wildland" recreation will refer to land or water areas generally falling within the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum classes of Roaded Natural to Primitive (USDA Forest Service, 1982).

## Ups and Downs of the Course

There are some "upside" and some "downside" aspects of the course that wildland recreation as a commercial opportunity seems to be following. First, although wildland recreation is receiving increased professional attention, the *percentage* of the general population participating in it seems to have reached a short-term plateau. In 1985 over one-third of American adults were devoting less time to outdoor recreation than 5 years earlier. Apparently, younger age groups and lower income groups increasingly are facing either "limiting" or "prohibiting" constraints (President's Commission on Americans Outdoors, 1986).

For example, the average American household is not driving as far for recreation and social visits as it has in the past. The average mileage declined from 4,094 miles in 1969 to 3,534 in 1983. But while the percentage of the general population that participates has



USDA Forest Service

*Opportunities for commercial provision of outdoor recreation goods and services will continue to emerge as the character of recreation participation changes in population demographics and recreation styles.*

leveled off and non-work miles have decreased, numbers of participant *occasions* and miles of travel specifically for wildland recreation have risen. These trends lead to the conclusion that consumers of wildland recreation increasingly are from a narrow subpopulation within American society.

Second, decreased resource management budgets and resulting heightened interest in private sector involvement in providing wildland recreation are leading to transfer of management responsibility. Where a public land managing agency can transfer management and facility investment for public recreation, it is usually encouraged to do so. On the other hand, this same budget reduction phenomenon is leading to serious agency cutbacks in overall road, trail, facility and service maintenance and development. Most of

these activities are simply not profitable to private operators and are not undertaken. Often, access or convenience facilities have been closed.

## Observations

### The Resource is Vast

Regardless of these courses, however, we observe that some simple facts and trends remain. These facts establish wildland recreation as a viable commercial opportunity.

The Bureau of Land Management is responsible for 337 million acres, the Forest Service for 191 million acres, the Fish and Wildlife Service for 90 million, the Corps of Engineers for 10 million acres and 460 water projects, and so on. In total, governments at all levels in the U.S. own and manage about 900 million acres. Much of this

resource fits our definition of wildland. The designated national wilderness, river and trail systems continue to grow and represent increased opportunity for some of the more spectacular forms of wildland recreation. Thus, although the resource is vast, it may be trending toward being less accessible by road, trail and convenience facilities.

### Wealth is Rising

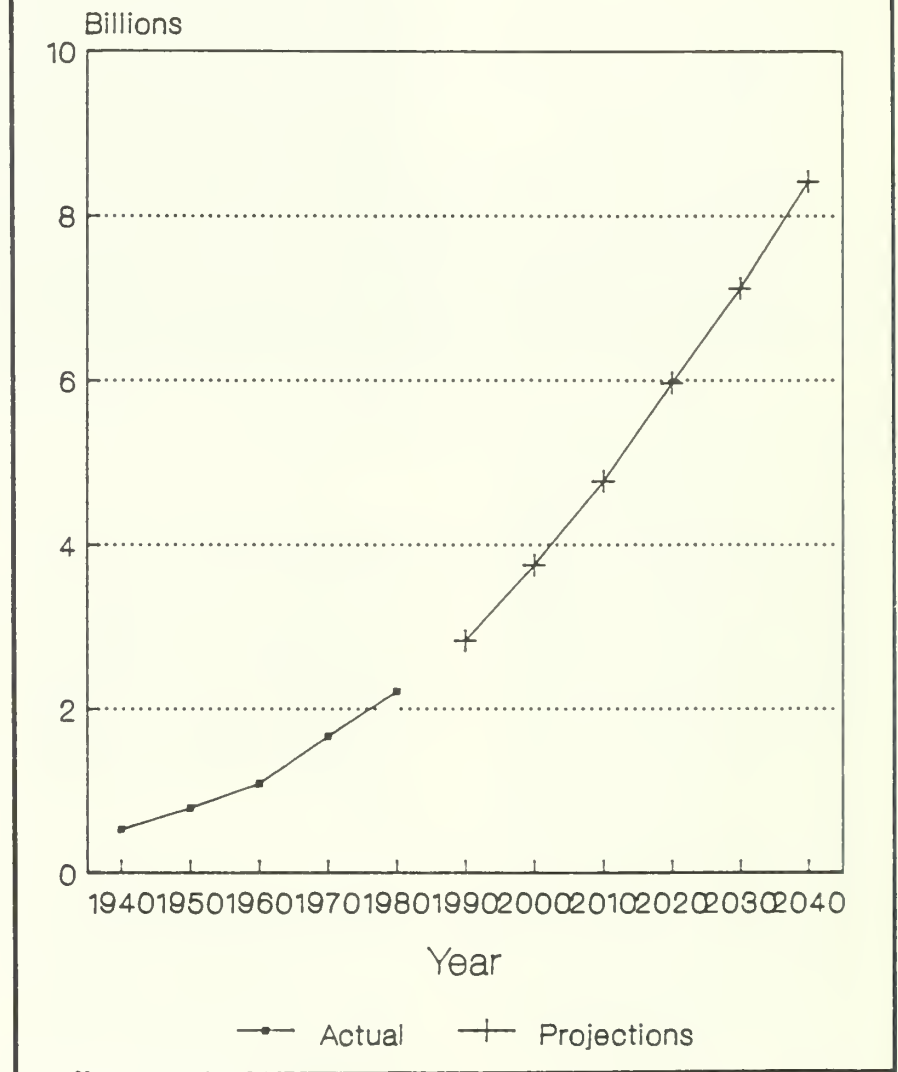
Disposable personal income is an important determinant of demand. Figure 1 shows that by 2040, disposable personal income is expected to be nearly 2.6 times the 1985 national level (USDA Forest Service, 1986). For at least the past 17 years, Americans have consistently spent about 6 to 7 percent of their disposable income on recreation.

### Emerging "Gray Power"

Our most dramatic current demographic change is the shift in age structure to an older U.S. population. The recreation needs of adults in their middle or later years is increasingly important.

The 1982-83 Nationwide Recreation Survey (USDI, 1985) reported that while both the number and duration of participation in recreation activities decreases with age, annual expenditures increase. Respondents over age 60 spent an average of \$391 annually on outdoor recreation; those under 60 spent \$350. Also, older Americans now are recreating more than their age cohorts in past decades, and the population of older Americans is increasing.

**Figure 1. -- Disposable Personal Income, In 1982 Constant Dollars, 1940-2040**



### Mobility, Access and Technology

Continued improvements in roads and automobiles leave few parts of the country inaccessible. Advances in outdoor recreation equipment have permitted more people to use even the most remote wildland areas. Also, in-

novative uses of new materials create new recreational products such as ultralight aircraft, jet skis and mountain bikes.

### The Increasing Tide of Tourism

Tourism is becoming the largest industry in the country. Amer-

icans spend hundreds of billions of dollars per year in its pursuit. But increasingly it seems that it is a limited segment of American society that seeks the tourist opportunities. Often, if not usually, the goal of this "tourist" is to experience outstanding natural features and environments. Increasingly, local and state governments are looking to tourism and its economic development potentials to prop up sagging economies. The bond between tourism and wildland environments and the associated recreational opportunities is a strong and interdependent one.

## **The Opportunity for Profit**

### **Willingness to Pay**

Wildland recreation is highly valued. The U.S. Forest Service has reviewed studies which estimated the values of wildland recreation (Loomis and Sorg, 1982). The averages for a 12-hour recreation visit ranged from \$11.90 for camping to \$56.10 for big game hunting. As the population of wildland recreation seekers expands, these values can translate into increasing opportunities for associated commercial operations.

During their extensive nationwide hearings in 1986, the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors heard voluminous testimony that wildland recreationists are willing (and able) to pay. This was particularly true where the alternative to a fee might have been to do without or to lose the privilege. The one

caveat was that revenues from access fees to a wildland recreation area be retained and (at least in part) reinvested to improve that site. Of course, with commercial recreation, reinvestment is typically the case.

### **Spending is Associated with Wildland Recreation**

Associated with wildland recreation are business opportunities in equipment, supplies, information and transportation services. For example, in the Public Area Recreation Visitor Survey (PARVS) on national forests, recreational visitors seeking land-based activities traveled an average of about 190 miles, one way, to reach the destination national forest. Travel time averaged 7 hours. Almost three-fourths of the visitors already had visited that forest between five and nine times that year. They spent an average of \$5.72 per person for each hour of on-site activity. These visitors spent 93 percent of their trip dollars at home in preparation for their trip, five percent was spent en route, and two percent was at the site. Most of the spending was for food, drink and transportation. Very little opportunity currently exists at most national forests for purchase of supplies, information, equipment or lodging. This untapped opportunity, though, seems substantial given the convenient locations of many national forests, particularly in the East.

## **Wildland Recreation Participation and Futures**

### **Participation Is Changing**

The 1982-83 National Recreation Survey (U.S. Department of the Interior, 1985) indicated that 89 percent of the U.S. population participated in outdoor recreation. The national average was seven outdoor recreation activities per person, totaling 37 days during the year. The most popular wildland activities were walking for pleasure, swimming, picnicking, sightseeing, fishing, boating and camping. Most of the respondents recreated mostly on nearby recreation areas, but also took at least one trip to a more remote destination more than an hour's travel from home.

Young people were most active in wildland recreation. But time spent in outdoor recreation commonly changes with their stage in the family life cycle. Next to advanced age, the most constraining stage was early child rearing. As children become more independent, a rapid increase in participation occurred. Non-participants were concentrated in the older, non-white, non-car-owning and less educated population segments.

Patterns in spending for outdoor recreation were just the opposite of participation patterns — spending rose sharply through young adulthood and then stayed in the \$400 - \$500 range even with the decline in participation in later years. The American public seems to be spending more for recreation now than two years ago, and they expected to spend even more in the next two years.

The National Geographic Soci-



ety recently sponsored a nationwide survey of 2000 Americans for the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors. Compared to the past, Americans are taking more vacations but of shorter duration, and are increasing the numbers of long weekends or mini-vacations of a few days. The six major groups of activities were: ball games and running; spectator outings; fishing, hunting and horsepower activities; observing

nature; water and golf; and winter sports.

This study also examined motivations. The five primary motivations for outdoor recreation included fitness, social interactions, excitement, experience self and nature or because everyone else is doing it or because their home is cramped. Eight percent of the adult public was characterized by a lack of any motivation. The survey said the primary information

sources were word of mouth from family and friends, and newspapers. No other media came close to newspapers in importance.

### The Demand Future

Population is perhaps the primary factor determining recreational use. The U.S. population is not increasing as fast as it has been, but a major trend is growth

## URBAN AREAS PROJECTED FOR THE YEAR 2000

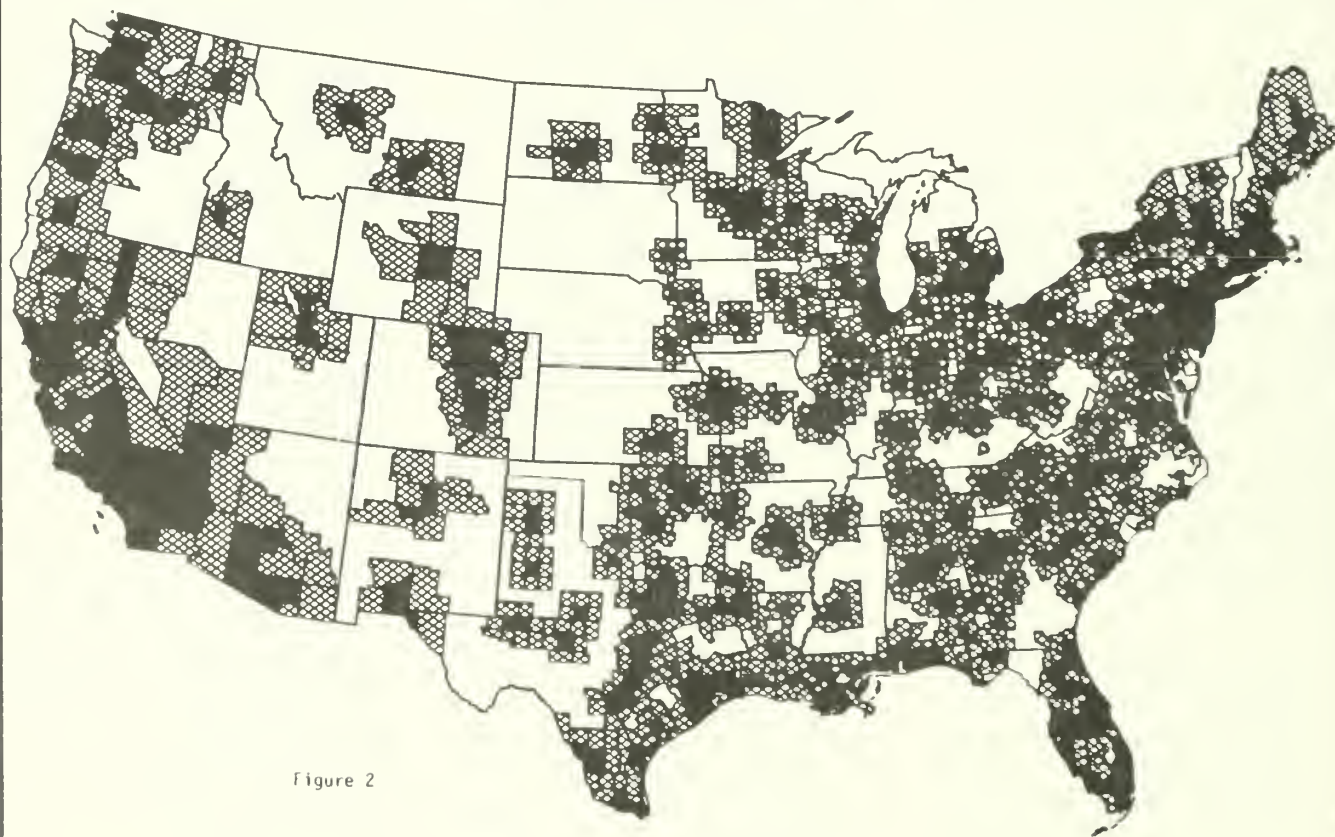


Figure 2

URBAN AREAS      ■ 1984 URBAN      ▨ 2000 URBAN

OUTDOOR RECREATION AND  
WILDERNESS ASSESSMENT GROUP  
ATHENS, GA AND  
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

concentrating around urban areas.

Caused by population and other change factors, the most rapid increases in outdoor recreation have been in demand for snow and ice activities. Participation in water activities has likewise increased substantially. The best current projections of future participation in outdoor recreation activities are provided in the Forest Service's Renewable Resources Planning Act Assessment (USDA Forest Service, 1980).

Another emerging future is increased adventure recreation including mountaineering, rafting, wilderness hiking, orienteering and cross-country skiing. Current issues affecting the delivery of these activities are user-conflicts, reduction of areas available for participation and legal issues (Ewert, 1986).

**The Enterprise Future**

There is an almost infinite array of opportunities for commercial wildland recreation. One involves computer networking to market information. The U.S. Forest Service, the American Recreation Coalition, Rand McNally, Woodall's and DeLoram are examples of organizations moving into information marketing. Opportunities include printed directories and guides, computer data bases, interactive computer querying and mapping, and terminals within individual vehicles which can inform the recreation-seeking passengers of good restaurants, the "best" hiking trails, available hunting areas and associated sea-

sons and regulations, and notable natural and historic features. We are convinced that the "information business" is, and will continue to be, the leading growth market in wildland recreation.

Another fast growing enterprise is organizing, guiding and/or outfitting wildland recreation experiences. Our current estimates of the number of these enterprises in the U.S. which are devoted singly to a particular service as of 1987 include:

Type of Enterprise	Number
Backpacking and mountaineering supply . . . . .	387
River trip rentals and outfitters . . . . .	663
Guide services . . . . .	845
Diving instruction . . . . .	613

There are, of course, many other suppliers and outfitters which provide the above services as one of an array of other services.

Another category of enterprise opportunity, often used as a base from which to explore wildland opportunities, is camps, guest ranches and resorts. There are an estimated 15,000 of these in the U.S., and this number and the associated commercial opportunity seems to be growing. There also are many tourist accommodations, cabins and cottages used as staging areas for wildland recreation.

One of the more dramatic trends, especially on private lands, is leasing for hunting and fishing. One estimate of the magnitude of

this phenomenon indicated 817,000 persons leased almost 390 million acres of private land in 1980, one-third of all private land in the U.S. (Cordell, et al., 1985). Preliminary estimates from our 1986 National Private Land Ownership Study indicate lease rates ranged between \$5 and \$8 per acre per year in the South and North to between \$1 and \$2 in the West, where public land is plentiful.

Another growing commercial

market is that of technology and equipment. Instruction in use of equipment, techniques and safety, and in proper trip outfitting becomes an ever larger market as the inexperienced younger population grows, as new technology is made available and as the demand for risk and adventure recreation expands. New technology to accommodate activities such as winter orienteering, diving, flying ultralights and running or bicycling has produced major industries.

**Summary and Observations**

While overall population participation in wildland recreation has slowed its rapid growth of earlier years, participation and spending for equipment and trips are expanding and diversifying

vigorously for certain segments of society. Demand for recreational equipment and spending for trips has stimulated expansive involvement by commercial interests in wildland recreation. These trends mean a healthy commercial market for wildland recreation.

The wildland resource represents a vast wildland recreation opportunity. This opportunity is being presented to an American public whose wealth and income are rising, and which is moving toward an older and more convenience-oriented culture. These changes, together with greater mobility, access and technology and an unquestioned willingness of Americans to pay as a reflection of the high value they attach to wildlands for recreation, are forces that should continue to drive the demand side of the commercial wildland recreation market.

Recent studies have documented that spending resulting from planning and participating in commercial wildland recreation trips is substantial. These studies have also shown that the recreational activity mix and the motivations for the activities chosen are changing. These changes are increasing the demands for information, technology, equipment, travel and accommodations. In response to these demands, a flurry of business activities is being stimulated to handle the hundreds of billions of dollars of recreation and tourism spending that occurs each year.

The factors driving these demands mostly are projected to

continue the past trends in growth. The resulting demand growth for water and snow and ice-oriented adventure recreation should be particularly vigorous.

For commercial interests and their patrons, the future looks bright. Market growth is most likely to be associated with demands for experiences involving the more spectacular of our wildlands, experiences involving mechanized travel, and experiences under situations which exclude the masses. From a societal perspective, greater participation by commercial interests could also raise some concern that wildland recreation continue to include a diversity of opportunities, not only to those with the greatest profit potential. A balance between commercialization, protection of the integrity of the resource and some sense of equity in opportunities provided is needed.

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# The President's Commission on Americans Outdoors Looks at Public-Private Partnerships

by Michael P. Rogers

From September 1985 to December 1986, the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors (PCAO) made a wide-ranging examination of outdoor recreation needs and issues. The 15-member citizens' Commission was specifically directed, among other things, to look at "the role of the private sector in meeting present and future outdoor recreation needs and assess the potential for cooperation between the private sector and government in providing outdoor recreation opportunities and protecting outdoor recreation resources."

In its 23 public hearings and meetings and through hundreds of submissions from public and private organizations and individuals, the Commission focused particularly on the potential for public-private partnerships to enhance recreation environments and opportunities. This partnership focus was not limited to entrepreneurial opportunities; it also included the problems and needs of private landowners who supply recreation opportunities and the contributions of various private, non-profit organizations to protection and management of recreation resources.

The Commission's 1987 report, *Americans Outdoors: The Legacy, The Challenge*, makes many points about the actual and potential impacts of various public-private partnerships and what can be done to promote them. This article concentrates mainly on those partnerships that involve privately-owned facilities, lands or services.

Many activities in public recreation areas are heavily dependent on private investments. For example, a number of the largest ski areas, most marinas and many resorts are operated as concessions by private entrepreneurs on public park or forest lands; these facilities often involve large capital expenditures for development. Concession facilities are also common in city parks, but in urban areas the influence of private actions on the availability of open space — from plazas in business areas to farms, forests and wetlands on the urban fringe is even more important, particularly in the Northeast, Southeast and Midwest where there is much less public recreation land available than in the West.

Entrepreneurial partnerships in public recreation areas offer several notable advantages to taxpayers and the recreating public:

- development of capital facilities at low or no cost to the general public. This is especially true for elaborate facilities that involve a relatively high cost per capita such as resorts, hotels, recreational vehicle campgrounds and eating places.
- provision of specialized recreation services and opportunities to recreation users on a user-pays basis so that non-participants do not have to subsidize expensive special programs.
- the possibility for greater creativity and experimentation in development of new

programs, including creation of models for high-quality facilities and services.

At the same time, public-private arrangements raise sometimes legitimate concerns on the part of public officials and citizens:

- the fear that privatization will convert a park or other public recreation resource from an opportunity available to all to one that is only accessible to those willing and able to pay market rates.
- the danger that pressures for higher returns on private investments might lead to overuse or destruction of fragile natural resources.
- the chance that a private, for-profit effort will not really be without cost to taxpayers because of large investments of tax dollars required for roads, sewers and other infrastructure or the possibility that an unprofitable enterprise could be abandoned, requiring assumption of its operations and liabilities by a public agency.

What the Commission heard in its year of investigations was that both the public and private sectors need to work much harder to make partnerships work. Partnership is simply another word for willing cooperation: cooperation in defining mutual goals of government and the private sector, in working toward those goals, and in day-to-day struggles to maintain effective working relationships as needs and conditions

change. Good public-private partnerships link together public goals (e.g., the assigned missions of public agencies) and private needs in such a way that both individuals and the broader community benefit on a daily, functional basis.

While such cooperative efforts are often efficient ways to respond to public recreation needs in that they save tax dollars, they are not without costs to the participants. They require that public and private entities each surrender some of their operating autonomy; that public managers be more sensitive to both the opportunities and hazards of ceding authority to private organizations and that entrepreneurs understand the importance of balancing their needs for immediate higher profits with the necessity for maintaining the quality of public resources. Many partnership opportunities are probably lost because public officials lack understanding of private marketing principals or because private investors do not comprehend the complexity of public mandates for resource conservation and public accessibility in parks.

The most successful partnerships seem to be initiated by business and recreation people who understand very well the market value of *quality* as well as quantity in recreation experiences. One of the Commission's case studies, on the Mammoth Mountain Ski Area in the Inyo National Forest, California, provides one model of such a success.

Mammoth Mountain is one of



Alan Ewert

167 private, downhill ski areas operated on national forest lands, which together supply over 12 million visitor days of recreation each year. From small beginnings more than 30 years ago, it has grown into the largest ski operation in the national forests and one of the top ski areas in the nation (1.4 million skier days per year). Dave McCoy, the owner-operator, and his staff have excellent working relationships with the U.S. Forest Service, which has responsibility for management of the lands on which the ski area is developed.

Despite traffic and other problems associated with visitations of 10,000 to 40,000 recreation users on most weekends from December through April, the ski area of some 2,200 acres has been sensitively developed with an eye to protecting the scenic and natural values that help attract visitors. The private enterprise has also helped the nearby town of Mammoth to benefit from economic growth by providing public transportation and other services that the small community could not afford while also increasing the



Alan Ewert

*A number of the largest ski areas are operated as concessions by private entrepreneurs on public park or forest lands.*



number of winter jobs in the area by several thousand. According to the staff of Mammoth Mountain, a profitable business has been built mainly on quality — the quality and safety of winter recreation activities in an area renowned for its excellent snow cover, the quality of the area's natural environment and the quality of services and facilities provided.

The Commission noted many other examples of linking public and private goals for mutual benefit, from the operation of wilderness and river outfitter companies that supply invaluable recreation services to visitors on less developed public lands to joint public and private development programs in urban areas. Interestingly, some of the strongest statements about the importance of public-private partnerships came from a conference on Recreation and the American City co-sponsored by the President's Commission in May 1988. At that conference, many participants echoed the feelings of Mayor William Collins of Norwalk, Connecticut:

*The most successful partnerships involve mutual self-interest, not charity. Cities must set their own goals for what they want to achieve, rather than simply reacting to private initiatives.*

This perspective is closely tied to a theme that runs throughout the Commission's report — the critical importance at all levels of government of establishing partnership policies that clearly identify recreation goals and priorities in the context of all other

public objectives, including economic, educational, environmental and health concerns. Such clear statements on what recreation resources and programs are expected to contribute and the appropriate roles of public and private actors are a critical foundation for successful partnerships.

Robert McNulty of Partners for Livable Places, another participant in the Cities conference, stated this point succinctly in his book, *The Economics of Amenity* (1985):

*Public spending should produce public benefits such as tax revenues, jobs and physical revitalization. Amenity projects share with other types of development projects the burden of demonstrating, not just that they have an economic impact, but that this impact achieves a public purpose. For example, when a city gives a bonus to a developer for providing public open spaces, the city should take steps . . . to guarantee that the space is designed and operated in a manner that will result in public use.*

The increasing loss of recreation opportunities on private farm, forest and watershed lands that have traditionally provided major opportunities for hunting, long-distance hiking, camping and other "extensive" recreation activities is another area of major concern. Changing land ownership patterns, declining returns on farm investments, evolving agricultural practices, fears of liability suits, vandalism and rising property taxes on the fringe of urban areas are among the pres-

sures affecting public access to such private lands not managed primarily for recreation.

*What we must do . . . is create new institutional ways for farmers, foresters and other landowners to be able to deal with the "people" aspects of recreational use. If owners incur costs and recreation users reap benefits, there has to be a way for the users to repay the owners, or there will simply not be the amount of recreation that would otherwise be possible. We pride ourselves in this country on our ability to let the free market regulate most of our activities, but this is one area where we have not yet invented a market mechanism in many places. We need to encourage that.* — Neil Sampson, American Forestry Association, March 1986 Workshop on Recreation and Private Lands.

## Commission Recommendations

The PCAO identified no easy routes to the complex objectives of increasing and enhancing public-private partnerships. *Americans Outdoors: The Legacy, The Challenge* does, however, contain a number of recommendations and suggestions for public and private action in this area.

The following partial list highlights some major partnership recommendations and includes references to sections of the report that will give readers a more detailed explanation of the Commission's objectives and concerns:

- Communities (should) de-



vote more time, money and expertise to developing strong partnerships with neighborhood, corporate and non-profit groups to improve recreation resources in cities and to plan for future recreation needs. — Section 3, Chapter 2

- Federal land management agencies (should) embrace opportunities for partnerships with other government agencies, and with for-profit businesses and not-for-profit organizations (including identification of “places where privately-operated development can take place without impairing the quality of resources or recreation experiences”). — Section 3, Chapter 7

- Private developers, in cooperation with public agencies, (should) plan for and include recreation space and outdoor amenities in capital projects, with particular attention to connecting their projects to recreation areas through greenways. — Section 4, Chapter 1

- Local, state and federal governments (should) consider incentives to private landowners to increase public access, and review existing statutes, policies, regulations and practices to assure that impediments to providing public recreation on private lands be removed. (There are specific references to state recreation use and liability laws for private farm and forest lands, federal conservation measures in the 1985 Farm Act, educational programs to reduce vandalism and other depreciative behavior by users of private lands, and public assistance efforts to encourage private landowners to

make their lands available for appropriate public uses.) — Section 4, Chapter 2

- All governments and the private sector (should) make imaginative use of a wide range of growth-shaping tools to identify prime (natural, cultural, scenic and recreation) assets in growth planning processes which also define areas most appropriate for more intensive development. — Section 4, Chapter 4

- Private sector, government and academic interests (should) work jointly to establish a National Recreation Accounts network to facilitate collection, analysis and sharing of statistical data and information (on recreation values, environmental factors, supply of and demand for public and private recreation resources and marketplace indicators). — Section 4, Chapter 7

- [Congress should authorize a) private, non-profit outdoor institution, to stimulate grassroots leadership and promote innovation and excellence . . . The institution would encourage [public and private] leadership, innovation and excellence primarily through two means: awarding grants (for innovative programs) and sharing information. — Section 4, Chapter 8

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*Michael Rogers is a supervisory recreation planner with the Recreation Grants Division, National Park Service, Washington, D.C. He recently completed a 15-month detail to the staff of the PCAO, where he served as Deputy Associate Director for State and Local Resources.*

# Starting A Commercial Outdoor Recreation Enterprise: A Personal Experience

by Doug Greenaway

In a 1985 TRENDS issue focusing on "Risk Recreation" it was clearly shown that there was a significant increase in the number of risk recreationalists. Even as far back as 1974, the figures were staggering. Brady and Skjemstad (1974) suggested that in the 10-year period from 1964 to 1974 the number of cross country skiers rose from 2,000 to 500,000. Similarly, between the years 1971 and 1973, the Southern California Hang Glider Association increased from 25 to 4000 members. There is nothing to suggest that there has been a "falling off" of these levels of increase.

Surprisingly there has not been a significant relative increase in the numbers of private businesses to accommodate this ever increasing interest. A great portion of eager participants are having their needs met through the services of non-profit businesses, clubs and associations. I have met many professionals in fields related to risk recreation. The predominant number of them remain in employment situations. In nearly all cases, each harbors that entrepreneurial spirit that says: "I could do it better!" But they don't. I find it unique that motivated, capable professionals that are quite comfortable in taking physical risks are reluctant to take the emotional and financial risks of starting their own businesses.

All it takes is an idea, a carefully laid out plan and a willingness to take a risk. It helps if you know something about the service you want to provide, but it's not essential. In 1983, I knew how to paddle

a canoe into remote wilderness areas with the reasonable expectation of returning safely. Today, I find myself operating a wilderness centre that provides experiential activities and personal growth courses to a broad range of populations. My wilderness trips had been an activity that allowed me to relieve the pressures of my urban businesses. Now they are a self-enriching activity that has secured my long range economic well-being.

## Taking Risks

Risk taking holds many nightmares. Assuming a risk has a different meaning for all of us. Financial risks for me are a comfortable foe that I engage with confidence. Parachuting and rock climbing are risks I have taken with much trepidation and very little confidence. However, as I continue to take these risks, they become less fearful and more enjoyable. How many times, as instructors, have we coached our participants to place their weight on a small foot hold at the bottom of the rock face as the first step to reaching the summit. What we are doing is starting them off with small risks and building their confidence.

Starting your own commercial business is much the same. The first risk you could take may be as small as sharing with a friend your desire to own your own operation. As you continue to take these smaller risks you build your confidence toward the day when you actually have to start risking your money and financial

security.

You can achieve much towards reducing your risk factor by formulating a plan well in advance of the actual day on which you become financially responsible. Your plan should address issues such as the service you will provide, location, financing, marketing, staffing and some idea of what action to take should you not meet with immediate success. With rock climbing we learn techniques that enable us to accomplish the task. However, only the foolhardy would climb without a safety rope. The same holds true in business. Plan for success but allow for set-backs.

I measure my success not only on the number of participants that benefit from our services, but also by my ability to reduce the debt load that I placed on the centre by not planning carefully enough at the outset. In 1983, my partner came to me with an idea to combine his existing wilderness outfitting business with skill instruction courses. His operation was growing to meet an increasing demand from the public for canoe and equipment rentals to venture off into remote areas. A majority of our clientele possessed less than safe skill levels for such trips. His intention was to provide for wilderness tripping and basic canoeing skills prior to participants setting out. Three years of concept re-adjustment, market targeting, course design and a quarter of a million dollars produced a situation that little resembles his intended, "basic little canoe course." Fortunately, we had the stamina,

experience and deep enough pockets to recover from major errors in judgment without causing a killing blow to the enterprise.

## **Financial Projections**

Having decided on the service you wish to provide, you will need to produce your financial projections. Establish as much raw data on your expected revenue, costs and desired profit as you can and go directly to an accountant. Professional advice at this juncture is critical. Properly laid out income projections and cash flow summaries are not only a valuable working tool, they look good to the banks. They show that your intentions are in earnest and that your judgment is sound. Our accountant put us in touch with a government tourism agency, who put us in touch with a government program that brought us a \$60,000 development grant. Check with your state or provincial government for any new business program monies or wage subsidies.

## **Location**

The location of your enterprise can be greatly affected by the "economic" and "political" climate of that particular region. If the physical setting is conducive to your enterprise in both a poor region and a rather well-to-do region, you may very well want to investigate the benefits of locating in the less costly area. Even if no financial funding assistance programs are available, you will no doubt receive tremendous amounts

of information and assistance from local or regional governments.

If you offer the possibility of future employment, governments find it politically expedient to help. Use it. Two prime areas in the eastern half of the continent where support can be easily obtained is in the state of West Virginia and in the Province of Ontario. Both are actively enticing tourism operations to offset reliances on natural resource-based economies.

## **Marketing**

When you have a product, a financial plan, a location and assuming that you are going to be your own staff for the time being, you will need to know where to find your customers and how to let them know of your service. Marketing your product as efficiently as possible will determine, more than any other factor, your success or failure. With client volume you can always correct operational or financial faults; without them you are doomed.

Marketing your new venture will be greatly affected by the monies you have available. However, some constant factors do prevail. Every revenue dollar should be considered in relation to the marketing costs that went into making the revenue dollar. Our centre was meant to handle large numbers of participants. Therefore, it followed that we needed access to a broad section of the population. Our marketing

program was designed to be of a "shotgun" nature. Two years of frustration and many thousands of dollars later we discovered that what we had needed was a "rifle."

## **Outdoor Recreation Consultants**

Through a chance meeting and for the price of a cup of coffee and a Danish pastry, I had a professional outdoor recreation consultant relate to me the exact marketing program that had taken me two years to discover. You may not find your program at the cost of \$1.39 but you do not need to spend thousands either. Recreation consultants are not necessarily listed in the yellow pages but they are not hard to find. Universities that engage in outdoor pursuit studies will no doubt contain staff that are knowledgeable in advising you or will be able to assist in finding someone else to help.

## **Targeting**

In the recreation field, we are selling a specialized product to a special segment of the population. You will not go too far wrong if you follow a basic rule of "being" where your special segment of the population is. If you are going to offer a course that facilitates a release from stress, find out who is stressed. In my particular situation, a \$4.00 long distance call to Statistics Canada provided me with a listing of the top ten job classifications that suffer most from the effects of stress. Nearly every one of those classifications



has a journal or trade paper. To maximize my return on marketing dollars I want my ad where the stressed person has the most likely chance of reading it. This exercise is called targeting. You have to do it to succeed.

## Advertising

It is fundamentally important not to rely solely on media advertising. I know when every one of my ads "hits the street." Seldom does the phone ring within the first few days. You have to do some personal "mining" for the gold. Find key people that can provide access to groups, organizations or segments of population that are interested in or can benefit from your service. It can be as casual as asking for lists of people and permission to send them literature, or as clear cut as a joint venture on specific services.

We were having difficulty selling our professional development courses on a direct basis. A joint venture with a management consulting company provided us with the elusive clients. We are following suit with the joint venture concept with consulting firms in other cities so that we have as many people as possible "selling" for us. The economic beauty of the situation is that all these sellers are not on our payroll.

If you do not find suitable joint venture candidates, use commissions to those in related fields. If you offer backpacking expeditions in remote locations, try to make a deal with retail companies that sell backpacking supplies. Perhaps

you can "rent" their mailing list or even better, be part of their mailing program and pay a commission on each resulting sale.

## Brochure

So far I have yet to place in the plan the perceived tool to ultimate success — the BROCHURE. Advertising firms will provide boundless ideas and color schemes to fit and overfit any budget. Keep in mind that it is your brochure. Ensure that it says what you want it to say. Make the message clear and make it short. During design, allow for easy insertion of new blocks of material as your services change or expand.

Putting this year's prices in your brochure makes it "this year's brochure" or, even worse, next year's pricing. Remember that your brochure is only a key to unlock the door that reveals a personal contact. Brochures that will sell your service by themselves are rare and usually deal with curing hair loss.

Whatever your particular form of selling your product turns out to be, do not get discouraged when success isn't immediate. Do not preclude a forum for selling your service just because none of your competitors is there. Be innovative and relentless.

I started every one of my companies after isolating where I would fit in the marketplace by answering three basic questions: is it better than . . . newer than . . . or cheaper than . . . ? When buyers are choosing between you

and your competition, these factors come into play. Style your business so that you can satisfy at least two of these motivators. If you can do all three, you can't miss.

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*Doug Greenaway is President of Temagami Wilderness, Temagami, Ontario, Canada.*

# University Outdoor Program

by Ken Gilbertson

"I'm sorry, but this event is only for college students." This is a response community members commonly expect to hear when they inquire about a university's outdoor program. Fortunately, they are pleasantly surprised when informed that the outdoor program is open to everybody.

Non-academic outdoor programs in higher education institutions are increasing around the United States. They are recognized as an important aspect of student life. They are also improving in diversity of services and in the quality of support that institutional administrations provide (such as staffing, salaries and general funding). Yet in spite of these improvements, funding remains a constant threat to outdoor programs as well as the entire institution.

This article will discuss means to increase the financial base of an outdoor program in higher education using the University of Minnesota, Duluth Outdoor Program as a model. In short, how can an outdoor program be commercially viable?

## Program philosophy

Outdoor programs are dedicated to providing educational and recreational opportunities to the university community to enhance the student experience. They are committed to a variety of outdoor experiences including camping trips to areas both local and national, skills development such as backpacking, rock climbing, canoeing, kayaking, etc., and



*Participants of a University of Minnesota, Duluth Outdoor Program.*

Ken Gilbertson, Univ. of Minn.

special events such as inviting guest speakers to the campus. In addition to providing these experiences, the accessibility to participants is traditionally a high priority.

The experience is accessible by setting costs so low that a typical college student can afford to participate. Therein lies a philosophical problem. The low-cost accessibility factor allows student participation yet hinders access by other potential non-student participants. This hindrance occurs in two ways.

a. The low rates are subsidized by institutional funds. The result is that non-university people are not supported by the university and therefore cannot participate in program events.

b. Low rates for access and programs geared for "college students" tend to be targeted for the traditional student who is between 17 and 21 years old. This means activities which are usually strenuous and fast paced. Excluded are a large percentage of people who

might otherwise participate in an outdoor program activity.

Program philosophies need to allow for activities and accessibility by non-traditional (older, minority, disabled, etc.) students and by community members. For instance 50 percent of the UMD users are either non-traditional students or non-students. A higher education institution is a community resource. Outdoor programs need to serve as a resource as well.

## Commercial aspects in higher education

While educational institutions are not commercial in the truest sense of the word, they can still use aspects of commercialism to enhance their outdoor programs. There are three general areas to consider in enhancing a financial base.

a. *Marketing* — Marketing serves as the foundation to the program. What image does the program project? If the advertising graphics are well laid out and of

top quality, people will perceive the program as top quality. If, on the other hand, the graphics and general appearance of the program are sloppy, people tend to perceive the program as sophomoric.

During the Fall conference (1985) of the Minnesota Naturalists' Association, Dr. Paul Risk of Penn State University related that, on a scale of 1 to 10, a person will only rise about two points on the scale with his or her audience if successful in the presentation. "Keeping that in mind, why start at a five? Begin the program with as many points as you can before you start," was his response to this awareness.

Advertise frequently and consistently. Events generally need to be advertised at least two weeks prior to the event. Place advertisements community-wide and in established locations such as in specific newspaper columns or sporting goods shops where people can easily find what events are happening. Establish consistent places on campus as well.

The audience targeted is essential. The national trend is that, on the average, 25 percent of daytime college students are older than 25 years. Other non-traditional students are minority groups, international students and the physically disabled. If programs are only targeted toward the traditional college student who is between 17 and 21 years old, then a large percentage of the university community is being over-

looked.

Other audiences to target for are community members (working population). A fee structure can be established that allows students the discount they should have and the increased price non-students pay can help carry the cost of the program. The end result is more extensive programming while maintaining cost accessibility for students.

Agencies are an additional audience. The University of Minnesota, Duluth (UMD) Outdoor Program offers Red Cross sailing and canoeing instructor courses to local camps such as the YMCA and Girl Scouts. They also offer courses in river rescue to community rescue squads. Income generated from these agencies enables students to attend subsidized courses and buy equipment that otherwise may be difficult to obtain.

b. *Services* — Services offered by the program encourage use. Equipment rental, trips and a trip planning facility are traditional services offered. Additional services such as instruction at all skill levels from beginner to instructor builds depth. Providing programs for freshmen helps them adjust to college life. This in turn builds retention, and programs that enhance retention rates in universities are favorable. Students participating in the UMD Freshman Orientation Trips program have a 73 percent retention rate compared to a 53 percent rate for non-par-

ticipating students.

Activities and events need to be synchronous with the academic calendar. Many programs function only within the academic school calendar. Summertime is ideal to provide community services and more extensive programs. Operating programs that are season-dependent can have great market values. UMD naturalists run a maple sugarbush (syrup) operation in the Spring. This event includes income, education, recreation and community service. College students lead tours for elementary and secondary school students and the syrup produced is sold. This results in a self-operating program.

c. *Programming* — The way individual programs are run determines the financial stability of the entire program. Each program category should be strong enough to operate on its own. When this is attained, no single program's failure can ruin the department.

The UMD rental center includes indoor games like video games. The question is often asked if the outdoor equipment rental should be separated from the video games and billiards operation. Equipment rental benefits from the revenue created by video games and billiards. Outdoor equipment rental is high maintenance, low revenue-producing while the indoor games are inverse. The UMD Outdoor Program generates an average of \$40,000 per year on video games and billiards while equipment rental



generates an average of \$7,000.00 annually (see Figure 1).

The games and equipment rental center is managed as a small business. When Outdoor Program trips are run, the trip must pay for the equipment just as any other customer. If trips failed to pay for rental equipment, then the equipment would also be unavailable to regular paying customers.

### UMD Outdoor Program revenues (gross) from three sources

**Short term events** such as hour-long hikes or clinics such as ski waxing at no cost to the participant encourages attendance. These programs serve as an introduction and promote further involvement with the program by participants. These events should be scheduled at various times (midday, evening, weekends) to allow for a variety of audiences.

**Trips** are targeted for students during the academic year and for non-students in the summer. All trips have a price breakdown for students and non-students. Non-students' costs include instructor wages and marketing whereas students' prices exclude these factors. All trips are planned to generate additional revenues beyond actual trip costs. These revenues allow a buffer to carry trips that occasionally run into a deficit or to purchase special

equipment such as climbing skins for skis.

Summer trips are more extensive. All summer trips are targeted more for the working population and are intended to be profit-making. Summer incomes generate funds that carry the Fall, Winter and Spring low-income programs as well as some staff wages.

**Instructional courses.** The Outdoor Program began an instructional program in 1986 called the Kayak and Canoe Institute (KCI). This program offers instruction in kayaking – whitewater and touring; and canoeing – open and decked boats as well as in whitewater and flatwater conditions. Three instructors operated the program the first year. In three months it generated \$5,000. Although the first year did not produce profit, it did break even. Projections for 1987 are directed at five instructors and \$20,000 gross income. There are many ways to establish instructional programs like the KCI. Climbing and sailing instruction are relatively easy to establish. The Mission Bay Aquatic Center at San Diego State University is a good model

of a sailing program that utilizes commercial aspects well in the university setting.

**Special events** fill the niche of non-active participation. Famous travelers, writers or otherwise accomplished people in the outdoors give presentations on accounts of their experiences. These programs attract the largest attendance. Although these events do not need to be income-dependent, they usually are income-generating. Profits are useful in enabling more programs to be offered.

Will Steger, co-leader of the 1986 unassisted trek to the North Pole, spoke at the UMD campus. His presentation generated approximately \$1,500 (these proceeds went to support the expedition). More importantly, these presentations provide an opportunity for the many people who enjoy outdoor experiences vicariously.

### Growth patterns

In six years of existence (1981 - 1986) the UMD Outdoor Program has grown from a \$34,000 annual budget to a \$107,000 budget. Of the \$107,000 budget, 28 percent is

Figure 1

	Games & Equipment rental	Kayak & Canoe instruction	Trips
'83-84	\$33,585	- 0 -	no data
'84-85	\$44,720	\$300.00	\$12,600
'85-86	\$49,153	\$5,300.00	\$12,865
'86-87	\$25,848	(\$20,000.00)	\$14,919
	actual 1st semester	(projected)	actual y-t-d

# Educating for Entrepreneurship in Outdoor Recreation

by Mary Faeth Chenery, Ph.D.  
and Christopher R. Edginton, Ph.D.

university-subsidized. The remaining 72 percent is income-generated through user fees. Three significant programs (see Figure 1) are income-producing to the extent that they support a staff of 24, purchase equipment and maintain a resource library.

## Conclusion

Terms such as marketing, services, revenues and target audience are as much a concern with higher education institutions as they are with private business. If the books don't balance in an outdoor program, it will cease to exist just as in any other business. Although there is a fine line between education-oriented service and income-oriented service (where it can be detrimental to become overly income-oriented), commercial aspects within outdoor programs are healthy tools to use in maintaining a program. Commercial aspects can reduce the dependency many programs have on grants and endowments and can stretch limited monies through creative planning with sound management.

Outdoor recreation carries with it a special responsibility for the park and recreation professional: in contrast to much of our economy's activities, outdoor recreation is an area where "more" is not necessarily "better." Entrepreneurship is especially critical in this field because the outdoor recreation professional needs to inform the creative, forward-looking vision with an ethical stance that respects the fragile outdoor environment and the importance of solitude in much outdoor experience. Outdoor experiences are probably best provided in small units; thus, there will be a great need for innovative managers. Because of the traditional independence of the outdoorsperson and because of the inherently risky nature of the outdoor resource, it is important to have outdoor recreation professionals who are prepared to act and to analyze systematically the implications of those actions.

## Entrepreneurship and Outdoor Recreation

Entrepreneurship can be thought of as an approach to the management of a business, a service or even a program within an organization. We often think of entrepreneurs as individuals willing to assume a risk, usually financial, where if the enterprise is successful, the entrepreneur will reap a profit.

The entrepreneur can be thought of as an individual who has the vision to see that there are needs to be met and has the capability to bring together the re-

sources necessary to meet these needs. In the outdoor recreation realm, entrepreneurs are in the business of understanding how to create leisure experiences in the natural environment and/or how to provide support to enable these experiences to occur.

Discussing entrepreneurship in their book *Commercial Leisure Services*, Bullaro and Edginton (1986) write:

*An entrepreneur is a person who owns or invests in a business. This person takes the risk by investing time, talent or financial resources to contribute to the operation of the business. An entrepreneur is a person who brings about innovation by creating new services that serve existing needs or help create new markets . . . By venturing into areas that entail risk, the entrepreneur must deal with uncertainty. Entrepreneurs often have to break with tradition to develop innovative products and services . . . They are proactive rather than reactive in dealing with uncertainty . . . They are pace setters of opportunity. (p. 20-21)*

Entrepreneurship need not be restricted to only those who own a business. Much attention is being focused now in the management literature on the idea of entrepreneurship as the systematic seeking out of opportunities for innovation (Drucker, 1985); and it is acknowledged that entrepreneurship can and should occur in existing organizations as well as in new ventures (see for example, Pinchot, 1985, on "intrapreneurship").

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Educating individuals for entrepreneurial roles in the out-of-doors involves preparing managers to operate with a value structure that emphasizes innovation, while at the same time recognizing financial and other realities that impact upon service delivery. Further, it involves the establishment of a value structure that acknowledges that the continued preservation and conservation of the natural environment is critical to maintaining optimal experiences in the out-of-doors.

Establishing an educational program must therefore focus on the transmittal of skills and competencies related to entrepreneurship, while at the same time transmitting values related to protection of the natural environment. One basic strategy which can be employed is to emphasize innovation, focusing on disciplined and active ways to bring about new outdoor recreation experiences and to improve outdoor recreation service delivery.

## **Commercial Outdoor Recreation**

Commercial recreation organizations are abundant in our society. They contribute greatly to the economic well-being of the country. A commercial recreation business may be thought of as an organization that exists to provide a service or a product that meets people's leisure needs for a profit. Most commercial recreation organizations are operated as small businesses, employing 100 or fewer individuals. The leisure

services industry in the United States is estimated to be worth \$300 billion a year and over 95 percent of this dollar figure is in what could be described as the commercial recreation sector, as contrasted with the public sector.

In describing various dimensions of the commercial recreation industry in the United States, Bullaro and Edginton (1975, p. 39-40) have suggested that enterprises can be divided into five classifications. Provision of recreation services in the natural environment is one of these major categories. Their basic definition of businesses operating in this classification is that they are "organizations that depend upon natural resources for the implementation of their services." Bullaro and Edginton further note that individuals engaged in these kinds of businesses are involved primarily in ensuring a pleasurable and safe recreation experience (p.40).

The importance of commercial outdoor recreation is growing as states are in the midst of declines in traditional sources of economic strength such as manufacturing, or in Oregon's case, the timber industry. Tourism, a dimension of the leisure services field which is largely based on outdoor recreation, is being used and promoted to replace the declining industries. This pressure to enhance tourism and hence outdoor recreation makes it even more critical that outdoor recreation professionals become well educated.

## **Trends and Issues**

Outdoor recreation entrepreneurs know to read the horizon, both to search for opportunities for innovation and to anticipate and plan for potential problems. Some demographic trends will influence the commercial provider. For example, the greatest population shift in the next decade will be the increase in households headed by people aged 35-54 — an increase expected to be around 30 percent. The purchasing power of this group is substantial (Bowyer, 1987). Shifts in demand for leisure services are occurring. We find more people looking for "experience programming" — opportunities to experience certain emotional outcomes from recreation participation.

One of those experiences desired by many people is the feeling of risk; thus we see growth in the higher perceived risk activities. The outdoor experience is increasingly being used for therapeutic purposes with special populations such as youth in trouble, and for the purpose of personal and professional growth, as with executive challenge programs.

At the same time as these signs of growth are becoming evident, signs of concern are emerging. The President's Commission on Americans Outdoors has called for the promotion of an outdoor ethic. Land use controls and permit systems are expanding. User conflicts are becoming more frequent. The insurance companies are dictating what can and can't be done, at least commercially, in the outdoors. Leadership certification remains a hotly debated issue.



Clearly, opportunities for commercial outdoor recreation enterprises abound, but so do business risks. Educating the entrepreneur for success in commercial outdoor recreation presents a formidable challenge. Part of the challenge relates to knowing how to educate in a rapidly changing environment; and part of the challenge comes from trying to change long established institutions.

## **An Entrepreneurial Curriculum Design for Outdoor Recreation**

A key step in the development of a curriculum to prepare individuals to work as entrepreneurs in the outdoor recreation field is the identification of core skills. During the past several decades a number of studies have identified various skills required by entrepreneurs (Schumpeter, 1934; McClelland, 1965; Knight, 1971). More recently, Carland, Hoy, Boulton and Carland (1984), in synthesizing a large number of studies concerning entrepreneurial skills, have suggested that risk taking, innovation, need for achievement, self confidence, communications skills and autonomy are the most frequently identified. In the recreation field, Sheffield and Mendell (1987) have reviewed the concepts of entrepreneurship and concluded that innovation, initiative, self confidence and self reliance are key skills for leisure professionals.

In building a curriculum paradigm for educating individuals for effectiveness in entrepreneurial roles in the out-of-

doors, one model might include the following areas: entrepreneurship; philosophical and ethical perspectives; outdoor recreation management and evaluation techniques; outdoor recreation skills; information management; communications skills; leadership and facilitation of group processes, and self knowledge. Following is a short description of each of these areas.

*Entrepreneurship.* Skills to be taught in the entrepreneurial area include innovation, risk-taking, creativity and idea generation, vision, change management, and problem-solving and decision making. The focus of curriculum activities here is on cultivating an attitude and a value structure that encourage bringing about change and innovation in a disciplined and active way. Entrepreneurship involves teaching individuals how to take calculated and justifiable risks.

*Philosophical and Ethical Perspectives.* An individual's philosophy gives direction to behavior. The same could be said about commercial outdoor recreation organizations. A philosophy is a general guide that establishes how individuals behave.

Ethics may be thought of as rules. Many philosophical and ethical issues arise in relation to the provision of outdoor recreation services for a profit. At the heart of this issue is the need to preserve and protect the environment, while at the same time providing reasonable access to assure that the outdoor recreation needs of

individuals can be met. Good knowledge of ecological processes and the impact of outdoor recreation activities on the environment is required as a foundation for developing an ethical stance.

*Outdoor Recreation Management and Evaluation Techniques.* Management can be thought of as the process of working with and through resources to achieve the goals of an outdoor recreation enterprise. Managing outdoor recreation enterprises involves knowledge of financial methods, marketing and human resource management. Evaluation is the process of determining the impact of the services upon the customer, as well as an internal process directed toward improving the way in which services are delivered.

*Outdoor Recreation Skills.* The acquisition of specific outdoor recreation skills that can be taught or demonstrated is also an essential curriculum component. These types of skills are very diverse and first require the individual entrepreneur to acquire knowledge of the skill and to practice it prior to actually leading or supervising an activity. The range of outdoor skills that can be acquired is substantial, varying from knowledge of skiing to fishing to natural history interpretation.

*Information Management.* Naisbett (1982) has described the era we live in as the "information age." One's ability to handle and process information will be central in maintaining an up-to-date progressive outdoor recreation enterprise. We live in a period of time

where knowledge is expanding exponentially. For example, the half-life of management knowledge is seven years. In order to remain up-to-date, the outdoor entrepreneur will have to be able to use the tools of the information era, primarily computer hardware and software. Perhaps more importantly, one will also have to continue to grow and learn throughout his or her career; therefore, there will be a need to "learn how to learn."

*Communications Skills.* The transfer of information from one person to another person in the outdoor environment requires good use of communications skills. In order to transmit information concerning outdoor recreation pursuits and the value and benefits of the leisure experience in the natural environment, the entrepreneur must communicate with a variety of audiences. This will require not only good speaking ability, but also the ability to write effectively. It will also require acquisition of skills related to teaching and the use of contemporary technology to transmit information.

*Leadership and Facilitation of Group Processes.* Effective leadership in an entrepreneurial environment often requires a great deal of commitment, vision and ability to move others. Leadership skills in the outdoor recreation arena often involve empowering others so that they are capable of engaging in outdoor pursuits in a safe manner. Since many outdoor recreation events take place in group settings, the processes as-

sociated with creating successful groups are also valuable. In the outdoor environment, patterns of action occur in groups that influence individual and collective behavior. Knowledge of how and why group processes contribute to the creation of such behavior is important to produce positive, successful leisure experiences.

*Self Knowledge.* By self knowledge we mean the cultivation of personal characteristics that enable an individual to cope with the uncertainties of operating in an entrepreneurial environment. Successful entrepreneurs are often individuals who are inner or self-directed; that is, they do not require a great deal of external direction to inspire their actions. Other characteristics to be cultivated in the outdoor recreation entrepreneur include openness and personal flexibility. In order to operate successfully in a dynamic environment requiring change, one must be open to the possibilities of change. Personal flexibility is required because of the uncertainty and ambiguity often faced by the entrepreneur. Accurate self-assessment is also crucial for the safety of clientele as well as for continued self-guided professional education.

## Summary

Translating these skill descriptions into courses and other learning formats is truly a challenge. Much learning comes from direct experience. Thus a key component of educating for entrepreneurship in outdoor recreation is practice.

The commercial outdoor recreation provider also needs a great deal of traditional business skills. Continued study beyond the leisure services field is a wise strategy. The orientation of a preparation program must focus on teaching processes first, because they are lasting, and content second because it changes rapidly. Learning to learn, developing an ethical stance, learning to do research and evaluation, learning to lead, knowing how to identify opportunities for innovation, knowing how to provide vision to an organization — these process skills will provide a lasting foundation in a complex, rapidly changing environment.

In the final analysis, the mission of the outdoor recreation profession is to help people have high-quality recreative experiences in the out-of-doors in ways that protect the environment and the user from harm. An outdoor recreation preparation program should be committed to the education of managers for both the private and public sectors who can contribute to creative, innovative and responsible growth in the outdoor recreation field.

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# Today's Outdoor Retailing Opportunities

by Glenn A. Bischoff

Specialty retailing, as a rule, is a hazardous business in which to compete. When one is at the mercy of the ever-changing whim of the American public, the potential for unrequited failure is at least as strong as is the opportunity for resounding success.

This is especially true for the outdoor specialty retailer. Not only does the specialty retailer have to contend with the common problems all smaller retailers face (competition from other retailers, including major chains, department stores and discounters; employee relations; cash flow management; and lease negotiation — to name a few), but he or she must also deal with the seasonal nature of an already fragile business. In other words, when it doesn't snow, a ski retailer's business can be hurt considerably, if not ruined altogether.

So why would anyone want to be an outdoor specialty retailer? Most choose to get into the business because of their love of the outdoors, to satisfy a desire to turn a hobby into a vocation. But is that reason enough? Probably not. Anyone that intends to forge a career as an outdoor specialty retailer must examine the real business opportunities that exist in this narrowly focused industry. The questions that must be answered include:

- How often do Americans participate in outdoor activities?
- What outdoor sports are their favorites?
- How does their outdoor participation compare with their other

leisure-time pursuits?

- Who is the outdoor participant?
- How can their participation in the outdoors be increased?
- How can this customer be reached?
- What are the obstacles facing the outdoor sports industry?
- How are these obstacles impacting the specialty retailer?

## America's Outdoor Participation

It would seem that, based on the 1985 "Sports Participation Study" conducted by the Chicago-based National Sporting Goods Association (NSGA), Americans are as interested in the outdoors as they have ever been. Of the top ten participation categories, seven had a strong connection to the outdoors. Swimming was the number one participation sport, with 73.3 million participants in 1985. A "participant" was defined as anyone seven years of age or older who participated more than once in a given sport during the calendar year. For some sports, specifically swimming, cycling, exercise walking, exercising with equipment, running/jogging, calisthenics and aerobics, a participant was defined as someone seven years of age or older who participated in the sport six or more times within the year. Table 1 provides a complete breakdown of the 44 sports included in NSGA's sports participation study.

While it is clear from this data that outdoor sports enjoy a fairly

healthy level of participation overall, the majority of these activities fall well behind other traditional recreational avenues like bowling, softball, golf, tennis, basketball and baseball, which appear to have more universal appeal. Only hunting/shooting and hiking, in addition to the four sports listed in the top ten, approach the popularity of the non-outdoor sports.

While overall participation is an important yardstick for evaluating the potential of the outdoor retailing industry, participation growth probably has a greater impact. According to the NSGA survey, camping drew the second greatest total of new participants in 1985, with 7.4 million, just behind exercising with equipment, which enjoyed an increase of 8.1 million last year. Also in the top ten were cycling (ranked fourth with 6.4 million new participants), motor boating (eighth with 4.9 million) and fresh water fishing (ninth with 4.7 million).

After the top ten activities, however, the numbers of new participants generated by outdoor activities drops off fairly significantly. Hunting/shooting was ranked 19th with 2.9 million new participants, while water skiing (2.6 million) and hiking (2.4 million) were ranked 22nd and 23rd, respectively. The remainder of the outdoor sports included in the study look like this: Horseback riding (23rd — 2.4 million), fly fishing (27th — 2.2 million), salt water fishing and canoeing (28th — 2.1 million), backpacking and alpine skiing (31st — 1.8 million), mountain/rock climbing (34th —



1.6 million), sailing (35th – 1.3 million), nordic skiing (tied with archery for 36th place with 1.1 million), snowmobiling (39th – 0.7 million), boardsailing (40th – 0.6 million) and boardsurfing (42nd – 0.4 million).

It would appear at first glance that, for the most part, outdoor sports lag far behind the non-outdoor sports in terms of overall participation and growth. However, when looking at percentage growth, six outdoor activities place among the top ten fastest growing sports, and a seventh, canoeing, was the 11th fastest growing sport, showing a 36.2 percent gain from 1984 to 1985. Table 2 ranks the top ten activities in terms of percentage growth.

In fact, most of the outdoor sports included in the study showed healthy percentage increases over the previous year. Of the rest, nordic skiing and snowmobiling showed the biggest gains, at 25 percent each.

One conclusion that can be drawn from the NSGA Sports Participation Study is that Americans are very active in sports and recreation; each of the 44 sports included in the study showed growth over the previous year. Also, since at least four outdoor sports were among the top ten in overall participation, number of new participants and percentage growth, it can be concluded that the state of the outdoor sports industry, from a participation standpoint, is solid.

Data from the National Park Service (NPS), a bureau of the

**TABLE 1 — Sports Participation**

Swimming — 73.3 million participants  
CYCLING — 50.7 million  
CAMPING — 46.4 million  
FRESH WATER FISHING — 43.4 million  
Exercise walking — 41.5 million  
Bowling — 35.7 million  
Exercising with equipment — 32.1 million  
MOTOR BOATING — 26.6 million  
Running/jogging — 26.3 million  
Softball — 26.3 million

Calisthenics — 26.1 million  
Aerobic exercising — 23.9 million  
Billiards/pool — 23.0 million  
HUNTING/SHOOTING — 22.0 million  
HIKING — 21.1 million  
Volleyball — 20.1 million  
Basketball — 19.5 million  
Tennis — 19.0 million  
Golf — 18.5 million  
Roller Skating — 18.1 million

WATER SKIING — 12.9 million  
Baseball — 12.8 million  
SALT WATER FISHING — 12.7 million  
Football — 12.5 million  
Badminton — 11.4 million  
BACKPACKING — 10.2 million  
ALPINE SKIING — 9.4 million  
Dart throwing — 9.4 million  
Soccer — 8.6 million  
HORSEBACK RIDING — 8.1 million

CANOEING — 7.9 million  
Racquetball — 7.9 million  
FLY FISHING — 7.6 million  
NORDIC SKIING — 5.5 million  
MOUNTAIN/ROCK CLIMBING — 5.0 mil  
SAILING — 4.7 million  
Archery — 4.6 million  
SNOWMOBILING — 3.5 million  
Martial arts — 2.1 million  
Skeet shooting — 1.8 million

BOARDSAILING — 1.2 million  
BOARDSURFING — 1.0 million  
Ice Hockey — 1.0 million  
Squash — 0.3 million

*Source: National Sporting Goods Association, Mount Prospect, Ill.*

*Note: Activities most commonly thought of as outdoor recreational activities are listed in capital letters.*

United States Department of the Interior, would seem to reinforce this assertion. The NPS reports that over a five-year period (1981-1985), recreation visits (defined by the agency as "entries of persons onto lands or waters administered by the NPS for recreation purposes") rose 10.4 percent, from 238.6 million visits to 263.4 million. The total number of visitor hours (defined by NPS as "the presence of one or more persons, excluding NPS personnel, in a park for continuous, intermittent or simultaneous periods of time aggregating one hour") increased over this period by just over eight percent, from approximately 1.2 million to 1.3 million. Finally, recreation visitor days (defined as "12 visitor hours in a park") increased by about eight percent, from 103.7 million to 111.9 million. It would seem clear that, according to the NPS data, more people are enjoying the outdoors today than five years ago, and the lengths of their visits are increasing, though the rate of growth in recreation visits, visitor hours and visitor days has been relatively modest.

## Who Is the Outdoor Participant?

Though it is important to the outdoor specialty retailer to know that people are spending more time in the outdoors, it is more important to know who these people are. For it is this knowledge that will shape a number of important decisions — what products will be carried in the store; how those products will be merchandised and displayed; how the

**TABLE 2 — Fastest Growing Sports (in percentage gain — 1985 vs. 1984)**

BOARDSAILING — 100 percent
BOARDSURFING — 67.0 percent
Martial Arts — 61.5 percent
Squash — 50.0 percent
MOUNTAIN/ROCK CLIMBING — 47.1 percent
Dart Throwing — 44.6 percent
HORSEBACK RIDING — 42.1 percent
FLY FISHING — 40.7 percent
Skeet Shooting — 38.5 percent
SAILING — 38.2 percent

Source: National Sporting Goods Association, Mount Prospect, Ill.

Note: Activities most commonly thought of as outdoor recreational activities are listed in capital letters.

**TABLE 3 — Age Breakdown of Outside Magazine Subscribers**

Under 18 — 1.4 percent
18-24 — 8.8 percent
25-29 — 22.4 percent
30-34 — 25.4 percent
35-39 — 18.3 percent
40-44 — 8.4 percent
45-49 — 4.6 percent
50-54 — 3.9 percent
55-59 — 1.8 percent
60-64 — 2.0 percent
65 and over — 2.9 percent

Source: Outside Magazine Subscriber Profile — August, 1985. Conducted by Simmons Market Research Bureau, Inc., New York, N.Y.

store will be designed; what media mix will be used to draw the targeted customer into the store; and most important, what techniques will be used to get that customer to buy.

The definition of who the outdoor customer is will vary from region to region, and will depend largely on where the store is located within that region, and whether the store is located in a

mall, freestanding, strip center or downtown location. Each of these types of retail outlets will draw a slightly different customer. Mall locations tend to draw more "browsers," while strip centers and free-standing locations tend to draw more serious buyers. For this reason, they are often referred to as "destination" stores — customers search them out to make a specific purchase. Downtown

locations generally can be considered something of a crossbreed, drawing some destination traffic and a fair share of lunch-hour browsers.

However, we can present a demographic overview of the typical outdoor participant, as defined by a statistical profile of the *Outside* magazine subscriber list. *Outside* is the premier consumer magazine in its genre; its subscription base is approximately 190,000, while its total readership is estimated at approximately 240,000. It can be safely assumed that the *Outside* subscriber represents the "typical" outdoor sports participant.

According to the study, 73 percent of those who responded were male, while 27 percent were female. The respondents were broken down further into specific age groups. Table 3 provides a summary of these age groups and the percentage of respondents in each. It should be noted that better than three quarters of the respondents (76.3 percent) were under the age of 40.

We also know that the majority of respondents, as yet, do not have any children (68.2 percent compared with 31.8 percent who do). Of the total respondents, 14.9 percent had one child, 13.1 percent had two, 2.9 percent had three, 0.5 percent had four and 0.5 percent had five or more. In addition, we can conclude that these children are still relatively young.

Of those that responded to the survey, 81.9 percent had no more

than two adults in their household. Also, 11.2 percent had three adults, 4.1 percent had four and 2.1 percent had five or more.

The basic conclusion that can be drawn from this data is that the typical outdoor participant, as defined by the *Outside* subscriber, is youthful and, to a large extent, without the encumbrance of children. This translates to an *active* participant, one who will often be in need of new outdoor clothing and equipment.

The survey results also indicate that the vast majority of the respondents are employed (88.9 percent), with most of these in professional/managerial (42.5 percent) or clerical/sales/technical (21.3 percent). Also, approximately 60 percent of the respondents have annual incomes in excess of \$20,000, while 35.5 percent bring in more than \$30,000 each year. The mean income (based on those employed) was just over \$35,000, while the median income level was close to \$27,000.

The majority of the respondents (61.4 percent) also own their own home. Of those that do, 36.1 percent own homes with a present market value in excess of \$100,000. The mean value was nearly \$125,000, while the median value was \$87,000. Not only is the typical outdoor participant young and active, he or she is also affluent, with a healthy amount of disposable income to spend in support of his or her favorite sports. And, when the participants do purchase, it's very likely that they'll

use a credit card to do so. Nearly 84 percent of those responding to the survey had used a credit card in the preceding 3-month period.

## Reaching the Outdoor Buyer

Answering the question — Who is my customer? — is difficult enough, but there are other questions that are even tougher. First, how do you get this customer to come to your store, and second, how do you get the customer to buy? The answers aren't easily found.

In most cases, the way an outdoor retailer tries to reach his or her customer again will be based largely on the geographic region, the type of retail outlet, the demographics of the trading area, the products carried in the store and the store's operating budget. However, there are a few things that every outdoor retailer can do to establish a customer base that will return time after time when they're in need of outdoor equipment and clothing.

*Create A Specialty Niche* — A common problem that many outdoor specialty retailers face, especially today, when apparel plays such an important role in this industry, is determining how to position the store in terms of the competition. If a retailer expects to stay in business past the first six months, he or she must give the consumer a reason to shop in that store.

Within the last decade, outdoor specialty retailers have fought a losing battle with the discounters over the equipment market. Be-

cause of their purchasing power, mass merchants and discount chains have reached a position of dominance in this market segment. Because nationwide chains will buy for several hundred stores at a time, the equipment manufacturers will give them a much better wholesale price than they would give the one or two-store specialty retailer. As a result, in many instances, the discounter will be able to offer the product at a price that is considerably lower than can be offered by the specialty retailer. The bottom line is that the outdoor specialty retailer is being priced out of the equipment game.

To compensate, the specialty retailer has turned to apparel and footwear — product categories that are beyond the jaws of the mass merchants and discounters, mostly because these products are priced too high to fit into their merchandise mix.

While this shift to an apparel and footwear orientation has been successful, even lifesaving, for most outdoor specialty retailers, there is an inherent danger that must be avoided at all costs. That is, with the proliferation of malls across America (with their "social center" status), the unfortunate occurrence of being lumped together with all the other clothing stores in the mall, at least in the eyes of the consumer. This can be a disaster, especially in the larger malls, with stiff competition all around. Again, you have to give the consumer the perception that there is a unique reason for shopping in your store.



Eddie Bauer, the highly successful outdoor specialty mail order/retail chain (\$140 million in sales nationwide, according to a recent study) recognizes the potential severity of this problem, and has a specific strategy designed to prevent it from being a significant factor. In each Eddie Bauer store (of which there are 36 in the United States and four in Canada, predominately in malls), outdoor equipment and accessories are placed near the store's entrance. Why? To give the illusion that Eddie Bauer is a complete outdoor outfitter and not just another clothing store, even though apparel accounts for approximately 75 percent of each store's product mix. The equipment is the first thing the Bauer customer sees upon entering the store, and the last thing seen upon leaving. This produces a lasting impression on the customer. Again, the outdoor specialty retailer must create a unique niche. Often, as demonstrated by Eddie Bauer, this can be done simply by creating the right illusion.

*Getting to Know the Customer* — Consumers that shop at outdoor specialty shops do so primarily because they can get expert advice on how to outfit for their favorite sports. Also, outdoor specialty shops are generally on the cutting edge in terms of new products. This is a service that can't be found at general sporting goods, mass merchant or discount locations, and it also helps to create that unique niche.

However, many specialty retailers don't capitalize on their exper-

tise to the fullest. Instead of waiting for their customers to come to them, they should be getting involved in learning more about their customers and the sports they enjoy. This can be done most effectively by getting involved with the various clubs and organizations in the trading area.

There are a number of ways this can be accomplished. The easiest is to offer to do a demonstration of new outdoor equipment at the club's next meeting. Or retailers can host a seminar, at their store, on a topic of general interest. By hosting such an event, they are not only establishing themselves as experts on the outdoors, but they also create a connection between their store and potential future customers that are members of the club. The members are active in the outdoors, generally speaking, and they need some place to buy their equipment and clothing. Remember, the means isn't important. What is important is establishing a bond between the potential customer and the store — a bond that may result in new business and hopefully, if everything else is in order (good product price and service), repeat business.

*Creating Outdoor Opportunities* — Once a clientele has been established, as in any business, it must be nurtured. And even though outdoor enthusiasts appear to be participating more than ever, with the substantial growth of other leisure-time industries in recent years, there is always the danger that outdoor participation will

slow down, which will have a negative effect on the outdoor industry as a whole, including the outdoor specialty retailer.

The key then is to make sure that people continue to participate in the outdoors. Specialty retailers can help in this regard by creating outdoor opportunities for their customers. This can be as simple as a cross-country ski outing at the local golf course to a three-week whitewater raft trip down the Colorado River during peak season. For the more involved trips, many retailers enlist the aid of a travel agent, while a few maintain their own in-house travel agency.

In any event, the point is not how involved or grandiose the opportunity is, but rather that the opportunity exists at all. With the ever-increasing competition the outdoor industry faces for the consumer's disposable time and income, it is imperative that everyone in the outdoor industry, including the specialty retailer, works to create ample outdoor opportunities, not only to keep current participants active, but to draw new participants. After all, if people aren't participating in the outdoors, they won't be buying as much apparel and equipment.

Beyond the far-reaching implications found in creating more outdoor opportunities, the specialty retailer can benefit on a short-term basis. Again, like the involvement with local clubs and organizations, an outdoor specialty retailer's involvement in trips and other activities will give his or her customers still another reason to come back to the store. And every



Alan Ewert

time they come back, there's the opportunity to make a sale. Also, a successful, fun trip organized by the retailer leaves a good positive impression which will stay with the customer, and in all likelihood will have a positive effect on whether that customer returns to the store the next time he or she needs an outdoor product.

### Dark Clouds on the Horizon

The increasing level of competition that the outdoor industry faces from other leisure and entertainment media is significant and needs to be addressed. According to the *Wall Street Journal*, based on U.S. Department of Commerce figures, consumer spending increased in a number of important recreation and leisure categories during the period from 1980 to



Alan Ewert

Studies suggest that millions of North Americans engage in at least one activity related to outdoor recreation.

1985. Table 4 lists several of these categories, with the percentage gain for each.

Moreover, the *Wall Street Journal* reports that while motion picture attendance rose only slightly over that 5-year period, box office revenues went up by approximately 40 percent. In addition, the *Journal* adds that recreational book spending (including retail outlets, mail order and book club purchases) rose by nearly 45 percent during the period from 1980 to 1985, and is expected to rise by nearly 55 percent by 1989. Finally, 30 percent of the households in America in 1985 had one or more videocassette recorders, up from only 10 percent just two years earlier, and the overall revenues generated by the sale and rental of videocassettes reached an estimated \$2.3 billion last year. What this means to the outdoor industry is

that every measure must be taken to generate interest in the outdoors, in order to protect an already fragile share of the overall entertainment and leisure market.

Complicating matters is the burgeoning liability insurance problem, which is threatening the future of the outfitters, guides and resorts in this industry. Horror stories abound featuring sky-rocketing judgment awards, out-of-court settlements, legal fees and insurance premiums. For example, one ski resort in Pennsylvania saw its insurance premium go up 600 percent this year, to \$828,000. The resort compensated by raising the cost of its lift tickets from \$20 to \$25. Another resort successfully defended itself last year in a \$10 million suit that stemmed from a fatal avalanche several years ago that killed eight people

**TABLE 4 — Consumer Spending Increases (1985 vs. 1980, in percentage gain)**

Food bought in restaurant/carry-out — 45.1 percent
Alcohol bought in restaurant/bar — 24.8 percent
Magazines and newspapers — 28.1 percent
Hotels and Motels — 48.4 percent
Cable television — 245.9 percent
Live theatre and entertainment — 66.7 percent
Spectator sports — 39.7 percent

Source: *Wall Street Journal*, "The Business Of Leisure," April 21, 1986.

needs, while sizing up the competition and offering products and services which they do not offer.

as they stood in the resort's parking lot. The suit had been filed by the families of the deceased. Even in winning, the resort lost, as legal fees amounted to approximately \$700,000.

As a result, many outfitters, guides and resorts are being faced with some tough choices. They can pay the exorbitant insurance premiums and run the risk that they will have crippled themselves financially (in many instances, outfitters and guides can't generate enough business to pay the premium). Or they can go without insurance and take the chance that they won't be involved in a crippling lawsuit. A third alternative simply is to go out of business.

And if that happens, the outdoor industry, including the outdoor specialty retailer, will be hurt considerably. If it weren't for the outfitters, guides and resorts, the opportunities for outdoor recreation would be far less, and that would have far reaching implications concerning everyone's bottom line. There are a lot of arguments on both sides concerning the causes of and solutions to this

problem; this article does not intend to offer an opinion on either. However, it is a dilemma of which all in the outdoor industry must be cognizant, as it could have grim, far-reaching effects.

### Summary

It is clear that there are ample opportunities in outdoor specialty retailing. People are more active in the outdoors than ever before; they also appear to have a great deal of disposable income and the willingness to spend it.

However, there are problems. Competition within this market segment, from other outdoor specialty retailers, the mass merchants and the discounters is fierce, as is competition from other forms of recreation. Also, the potential disaster found lurking in the liability insurance dilemma may do irreparable harm if some type of relief isn't uncovered. The success of retailers currently in this industry and those wishing to enter it ultimately lies in their abilities as business persons — specifically, their ability to size up their customer and meet their

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Glenn A. Bischoff is a former Editor of *Outside* magazine.



# of Outdoor Recreation on the National Forest

by Marc Petty and Elizabeth Norton

The National Forest Service is in the Department of Agriculture, and manages 190.8 million acres of national forests. While the majority of national forest land is in the West and Alaska, national forests are also well distributed in the East. The Forest Service manages these lands for multiple uses — outdoor recreation, range, timber, watershed, wildlife and fish, minerals and cultural resources. Included in the National Forest System (NFS) are several Congressionally-designated national recreation areas and 32 million acres of wilderness.

National forests are not parks. Their historic role as "working forests" is their special excitement. Through integrated resource management that resulted from recent forest planning efforts, resource opportunities are blended so that many products and opportunities are possible within the same forest, often within the same land area.

In 1961, the Forest Service managed 83 areas for wilderness values (14,660,000 acres). This has now been expanded to 329 areas (32,400,000 acres). Yet the number of national forests, 154, has remained basically the same. Today, the Wilderness System comprises 17 percent of all national forest lands. The Forest Service also manages 29 Congressionally-designated National Wild and Scenic Rivers totaling 2,239 miles.

The Forest Service's goal in managing outdoor recreation on NFS lands is to provide for a variety of recreation experiences in a natural setting. More outdoor

recreation occurs on NFS lands than on any other single landholding. According to the most recent data available, the national forests and national grasslands receive 43 percent of the total visitor-days of use that take place on federal lands. (One recreation visitor-day is the recreation use of national forest land or water that aggregates 12 visitor-hours. This may entail one person for 12 hours, 12 persons for one hour or any equivalent combination.)

## Volume of Business, Operation and Receipts

Since a wide variety of outdoor recreation activities take place on the national forests, they will be discussed by major groups to

insure that the facts do not get muddled. Keep in mind that national forests typically have an unlimited number of access points from all types of roads and trails surrounding each forest; thus entrance fees are seldom charged. Also typical on the national forests are the checkerboard patterns of landholdings with private ownership intermingled with federal land.

## User Fees

The Forest Service charges only for developed sites which is one-third or about 35 percent of the 227,000,000 visitor-days occurring annually. Not all developed sites are fee sites either. A total of 6,000 developed camp and picnic

All data is from the Fiscal Year  
1986 data base.

## Use

### Use by Activities by visitor day:

Camping & Picnicking	61,000,000	( 27%)
Recreation Travel (mechanized)	52,000,000	( 23%)
Hunting and Fishing	31,000,000	( 14%)
Winter sports	15,000,000	( 6.5%)
Resort, Organization camp, & Cabin	15,000,000	( 6.5%)
Swimming, water sports & travel	14,000,000	( 6%)
Hiking & mountain climbing	13,000,000	( 6%)
Viewing scenery	11,000,000	( 5%)
Gathering Forest Products	5,000,000	( 2%)
Nature Study and visitor infor.	5,000,000	( 2%)
Other	5,000,000	( 2%)
Total visitor days	227,000,000	(100%)

### Where recreation occurs on National Forests:

General Forest Areas	( 60%)
Developed Forest Service Facilities	( 20%)
Private facilities on NF lands	( 15%)
Wilderness	( 5%)



USDA Forest Service

grounds are maintained by the Forest Service along with another 4,000 developed sites such as swimming, boating, observation and interpretive facilities. An additional 3,000 sites such as ski areas, resorts and marinas are operated and maintained by the private sector through special-use permits on national forest lands. The majority of the Forest Service-operated sites are small in size and remote in location while most of the private sector sites are highly developed.

#### **Campgrounds and Swimming Sites**

From the 2,219 fee campgrounds 54,027 units (average fee was \$5.33/unit) and 82 swimming sites (average fee was \$1.98/site), \$10,575,357 were collected last fiscal year. That boils down to a little less than \$ .50 a visitor-day. Use at these fee sites was 24,000,000 visitor-days.

Heavy demand and use of the national forests led to the construction of recreation facilities for the convenience of the user as

well as for the protection of the environment. Many of the present facilities were constructed in the late 1950s and 1960s and are rapidly reaching the end of their expected life span. For many years, the necessary maintenance and upgrading of facilities that is required to protect the investment and meet current health and safety standards has been deferred because only enough funding was available to keep sites and facilities open for public use. This has tended to cause managers to use a "bailing-wire" approach, i.e., do only the emergency work absolutely required to keep facilities operational for the short term. The net result of this unsatisfactory approach is that deferred maintenance needs continue to grow. These needs currently stand at nearly \$300 million.

Currently, the authorization for collecting recreation fees on NFS lands is the Land and Water Conservation Fund (LWCF) Act of 1965 (as amended). Under this Act, the Forest Service collects recreation facilities fees at campsites and swimming sites if they meet specific requirements, and for a few other specialized facilities and services. Authority is limited under the LWCF Act. There are many specific services and facilities which must be furnished prior to charging fees. Fees cannot be charged for picnic facilities, boat ramps or campgrounds that do not meet these specific requirements. Fees for general use cannot be charged for NFS lands. Because of the present restrictions, it is difficult to design



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*Fishing opportunities attract visitors to national forests.*



an efficient fee collection system. Further, some of the most expensive facilities such as boat ramps and picnic areas produce no revenue.

### **Ski Areas and Recreation Residences**

User fees for recreation special uses, derived primarily from ski areas and recreation residences, generated \$19.3 million, an increase from \$18.7 million in 1985. User fees for recreation residences were again lowered this year, as directed by Congress in the 1986 Appropriations Act.

Total recreation receipts in 1986 were \$30.3 million. Expenditures for recreation were \$99 million. Fees, therefore, recovered only 30 percent of total recreation costs.

### **Interpretive Associations**

Interpretive associations are non-profit, public service organizations established to further the interpretation and understanding of resource management on the national forests. In 1986, interpretive associations contributed \$470,000 to the national forests from donations and \$1,300,000 from gross sales of primarily books and maps.

### **Trails**

The national forest trail system provides access to vast areas of public land. In 1986, work was accomplished on 912 miles of trails. Most of this work involved the reconstruction of existing trails. In addition, employees in human resource programs con-



USDA Forest Service



Barry Nehr, USDA Forest Service

*Today, the national forests have close to 100,000 miles of trails.*



structed or reconstructed 180 miles; 105 of these miles were done by volunteers. Currently, there is a backlog of \$100 million in needed trail reconstruction or maintenance. This backlog is a result of increased use, weathering and the postponing of routine maintenance. The national forests have close to 100,000 miles of trails today. Over one-third of recreation use occurs on roads and about eight percent on trails. While trail use is less than 10 percent of the total recreation use on the national forests, it is a cost-efficient recreation capital investment.

### Recreation Site Construction

In 1986, Congress appropriated \$10.9 million for recreation construction. The following projects were included: Mount St. Helens interpretive facilities in Washington, repair of flood-damaged facilities on the Monongahela National Forest in West Virginia, Clear Creek Recreation Area in Alaska, recreation facilities on the Mt. Hood National Forest in Oregon, Cradle of Forestry in North Carolina and the historic Sheep Crossing Bridge in Arizona. The balance of this fund provided for high-priority needs, primarily the rehabilitation and reconstruction of existing facilities.

### Cultural Resource Management

The Forest Service identifies and protects significant cultural resources during management activities that disturb the surface of land; for example, road building, campground construction



*Volunteer helps hikers with directions.*

Barry Nehr, USDA Forest Service

and timber harvesting. In 1986, survey sampling was done on 2.4 million acres. These surveys identify properties that have cultural, prehistorical or historical significance. Of those properties evaluated, 255 are now on the National Register of Historic Places, and an additional 8,500 are deemed eligible for listing. Congress budgeted \$9.4 million for Cultural Resource Management in 1987.

### Summary

The Forest Service manages and protects 191 million acres of National Forest System land, 87 percent of which is in the western United States. Multiple resources are managed on about 159 million acres; wilderness values are managed and protected on the remaining 32 million acres.

The natural resources on these lands are among the nation's greatest assets. How these resources are used and protected

affects the economic, environmental and social well being of every citizen. National forests are the source of many renewable resources such as recreation opportunities, forage, wood, wilderness, wildlife, fish and water. Nonrenewable resources such as oil, gas, coal, sand, gravel and hardrock minerals are also provided.

The 154 national forests provide a delightful change from the sights, sounds and smells of the city, and from the sameness of an automated world. Recreational opportunities abound in these majestic woodlands that sweep the length and breadth of the nation. Even so, it is the dollars and cents of outdoor recreation that makes it tick, so we have got to start paying more attention to it.

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*Marc Petty is the USDA Forest Service's Group Leader for Recreation Developed Sites and Facilities and Elizabeth Norton is a Recreation Resource Assistant.*

# Mentality

by Daniel L. Dustin, Leo H. McAvoy  
and John H. Schultz

We begin this article with the assumption that the park and recreation profession exists to promote human growth and development (see Dustin, McAvoy and Schultz, *Stewards of Access/Custodians of Choice = A Philosophical Foundation for the Park and Recreation Profession*, 1982). We take it as axiomatic, therefore, that an important measure of the profession's success in this endeavor is the degree to which recreationists function independently as a result of its services (see Dustin, McAvoy and Beck, "Promoting Recreationist Self-Sufficiency," *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 1986). The therapeutic recreation branch of the profession specifically declares leisure education and independent functioning as major goals of its leisure services.

Other branches such as outdoor resource management and local park and recreation services more subtly encourage independent functioning through leisure skill education and interpretation, indirect visitor control methods and the general policy of giving park visitors as much freedom on the site as possible. Those park programs and practices that contribute toward recreationists' independent functioning should be looked upon favorably. Those that do not, should not.

What happens when commercial recreation enterprises are put to this test? Is their primary goal the promotion of human growth and development? Do they struc-

ture their product delivery in a way that contributes toward their clients' independent functioning? Do they measure the success of their operations by the degree to which satisfied customers feel no need to call on them again?

The purpose of our article is to consider these questions in light of the growing trend toward the privatization or commercialization of outdoor recreation opportunities. Specifically, we are concerned about the possibility that the values and purposes underlying the traditional public delivery of park and recreation services will be undermined by the values and purposes underlying business practices. To the extent that our concern is warranted, what are the implications of the current trend toward privatization for both the nature of recreation experiences and the environments in which those experiences take place?

## Recreation is a Risky Business

Recreation businesses, particularly outdoor recreation businesses, have always been looked upon as risk-laden (see Kelly, *Recreation Business*, 1985). Small outdoor recreation enterprises must overcome problems of sufficient capital, seasonality and management. As Kelly describes them, recreation businesses "are often judged a poor credit risk by local lending institutions." Moreover, their activities typically "are seasonal, so that the selling season is short."

Finally, "recreation businesses are often poorly managed . . . Owner-operators more interested in the recreational activity than the business may not devote the attention required for good management." In order for small recreation businesses to survive, then, their owners must pay particular attention to those business practices that ensure profitability. One can only wonder what goes on in the mind of such a recreation entrepreneur when a choice must be made between maintaining the quality of service and cutting back for the sake of economic efficiency.

## Businesses Need Customers

If the bottom line of running a business is profit, then doing what is necessary to generate a sufficient flow of customers is also critical. One of the chief priorities in business is building and maintaining consumer loyalty (see Bullaro and Edginton, *Commercial Leisure Services*, 1986). Creating a sense of need in a potential customer, attracting that customer through various advertising and marketing strategies, and then serving that customer in a way that will guarantee his or her return are hallmarks of sound business practices.

No business, particularly small recreation enterprises, can continue without a core of repeat customers. The direct service mode of programming, common in both the public and private recreation sectors, needs to create a "dependency" mindset among participants if such a "core" is to be maintained. The notion, then,



that service delivery should be structured in a way that moves the customer toward a higher level of independent functioning is thus somewhat alien to the business world (unless, of course, the business can offer another product or service to meet that higher 'need'). So it is that many commercial river-running companies cater to people seeking a resort-type experience where guides "handle the rafts, pack and unpack the rafts and prepare all meals." (Sax, *Mountains Without Handrails*, 1980). Do such excursions enhance the customers' ability to take charge of their own subsequent river-running experiences, or do they perpetuate a sense of dependency on the business itself?

## **Businesses Compete for Public Resources**

Exacerbating the situation is a growing level of competition between the public and private service providers for the same space. Historically, commercial recreation enterprises have been welcome on the public lands. Mule rides to the bottom of the Grand Canyon, float trips down the country's scenic rivers, horseback rides into the mountains and ski resorts on the public domain are all examples of a tradition of public/private cooperation to provide an array of recreation services that neither sector is well-suited to offer alone. This arrangement has served private enterprise well because it could not afford the investment to acquire the land or water outright. At the same time, government has

extracted a percentage of the take without having to go into business.

As recreational use of the public estate has mounted, however, and as carrying capacities have been reached in various places, the issue of distributing permits equitably between public and private service providers has heated up. Nowhere is this issue more intense than in the Grand Canyon where 75 percent of the river-running permits are given to commercial companies while 25 percent go to independent river-runners. Those highly skilled recreationists who want to handle their own rafts, pack and unpack them and prepare their own meals must now wait several years to gain access to the Colorado River while someone with little or no skills can get on the river quickly by paying a commercial outfitter. This situation clearly runs counter to the logic of promoting and rewarding recreationists' independent functioning. Again, one can only wonder what the future holds for other permit distribution systems as the recreational use of public lands intensifies.

## **Recreation as a Private Good**

Perhaps the most disturbing aspect of the trend toward the commercialization of outdoor recreation is the implication that recreation opportunities, like any other commodity, should be treated as a private good. Let the consumer decide how to spend his or her discretionary dollars. If

outdoor recreation is a high priority, let it be proven in the marketplace. This line of reasoning discounts any possible public good of outdoor recreation environments. It assumes the benefits of such places are limited to people who visit them and that the costs should be absorbed accordingly.

Clearly, however, society benefits from the public lands in many ways that go beyond the realm of individual experience. Recreation environments are sanctuaries for endangered and threatened animal species, laboratories for scientific exploration, exhibitions of natural and cultural history and outdoor classrooms for all kinds of education. Our national parks, national forests, wilderness areas, wildlife refuges and other public outdoor resources are national treasures that are valued for their aesthetic and majestic quality. They are valued for the peace, serenity and beauty they offer as well as for the contrast they provide to our increasingly urbanized existence. They provide these quality-of-life values even for people who never visit them in person but are content just knowing they are there, preserved for a potential visit by current or future generations. These are important public goods that may be diminished by a merchant mentality that limits their access only to those who have the ability and willingness to pay for them.

Finally, there is an intangible public benefit that results from the many recreation experiences taking place on all of our public lands. Those fellow humans "enjoying,



living, playing, thinking, yes, even loving" in our public parks and preserves are likely to be better people for that. Is that not beneficial to us all?

## What Are We in Business For?

While it may be argued that public sector involvement in the provision of outdoor recreation opportunities will always guarantee a basic set of services to all citizens at a low cost, the recent movement toward user fees for public recreation suggests otherwise. Diminished tax support for public recreation is clearly putting pressure on government agencies to adopt private sector strategies for generating revenue. The recently completed report of the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors advocates the charging of visitor fees to supplement regular appropriations as long as those fees are returned to the park where they were collected. So it is that the National Park Service, long a stronghold of "public good" thinking, is now escalating its involvement in fees and charges. Advocates of the imposition of user fees in national parks say that they are beneficial because the money collected will be dedicated to improving programs and services in the parks. This may or may not be the case. The reluctance of the Executive Branch to appropriate dedicated monies from the Land and Water Conservation Fund over the past few years may be an indication of what can happen to fees collected in parks. They may end up in the

general fund, they may be diverted to other budgetary areas or they may become political footballs and never be allocated. The critical question is whether this emphasis on revenue generation will adversely affect the social service ethic that has characterized the National Park Service throughout its history.

Do all public services have to be ruled by the profit mentality? We believe that some public services are so overwhelmingly beneficial to society as a whole that these services should be available free of charge; that the imposition of a fee cheapens the public's perception of the value of that good, and that there are some public services or goods that should be available to all regardless of their ability or willingness to pay. There is no fee to enter a public library because society has decided that reading and learning should be available to everyone. Public education is another example. So, too, are the monuments and museums at the seat of our government in Washington, D.C. We believe that our nation's parks and other outdoor recreation resources offer the same type of growth and healing of the human spirit and that they should not be subject to the profit mentality exemplified by the imposition of fees.

What "business," then, are we in? The distinguishing characteristic of public recreation and parks is service to one's fellow humans. It is the fundamental purpose of democratic government – to serve – by collectively doing those things

that some or all of us are unable, unwilling or feel it is undesirable to do. To make each citizen increasingly self-sufficient in living is the highest form of service we can render. Public recreation and parks for a "price"? Left unchecked, the merchant mentality will render the public agency unable to carry out its most fundamental charge.

In the final analysis, we urge those who are in the business of providing park and recreation services, both in the public and private sector, to reassess their reason for being. If profit is the ultimate criterion for defining the success or failure of service delivery, then bottom line thinking will likely shape the nature of services provided. If the promotion of human growth and development is the ultimate criterion, then there is room for a broader interpretation of success and failure. Which criterion best suits the interests of commercial recreation enterprises? Which criterion has been the hallmark of public parks and recreation?

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# Trends

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## Trends

**A publication of the Park Practice Program**  
The Park Practice Program is a cooperative effort of the National Park Service and the National Recreation and Park Association.

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*Trends*, a quarterly publication on topics of general interest in park and recreation management and programming; *Grist*, a quarterly publication on practical solutions to everyday problems in park and recreation operations including energy conservation, cost reduction, safety, maintenance and designs for small structures; *Design*, a quarterly compendium of plans for park and recreation structures which demonstrate quality design and intelligent use of materials.

The information presented in any of the publications of the Park Practice Program does not reflect an endorsement by the agencies sponsoring the program or by the editors.

Articles, suggestions, ideas and comments are invited and should be sent to the Park Practice Program, National Park Service, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, D.C. 20013-7127, telephone (202) 343-7067.

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This issue of *TRENDS* departs somewhat from its usual thematic format and addresses a wide range of topics that hopefully will be of interest to you.

Although no efforts were made to define a theme for this issue, there is nonetheless considerable overlapping interest for managers in several of the articles. The qualities of leadership can be described as the catalysts that make the other concepts work. Program evaluations are an increasingly important management tool that can locate operational weaknesses in critical issues; e.g., handling emergencies, upgrading production and quality, judging the effectiveness of projects, and even in maintaining special botanical research areas.

Articles in this issue could stand alone as a source of information to park and recreation managers. Each can contribute special knowledge in its own sphere, but it may at the same time reinforce a message found in other articles.

John Zenger's article, "Leadership—Management's Better Half" presents some thought-provoking ideas that managers everywhere might well wish to consider. With the thousands of dollars being spent each year on learning the fine points of managing our human resources, we might ask ourselves if we are overlooking an extra dimension to management—that of leadership.

In addition to managing human resources, we are seeing a growing need to manage urgent incidents in our park and recreation areas. Vicki

Jo Lawson's article "Coping with Madness: Crisis Management in Yosemite National Park," outlines the very methodical system developed by Yosemite park staff to deal with the unexpected.

Interpretive Specialist Paul Carson tells us about living history and costumed interpretation at George Washington Birthplace National Monument and Douglas H. Scovill explains a new and developing program within the National Park System—that of conserving ethnographic resources.

A timely article follows by Kathleen Cain entitled "A Public Education Program to Reduce Head and Spinal Cord Injuries—A Resource for National Parks." The rapid growth of recreational activities—particularly risk-related ones—makes this article a must reading.



Junior Rangers releasing monarch butterflies raised from eggs.

A delightful aquatic haven within the nation's Capital, i.e., Kenilworth

Gardens, is featured in the next article by NPS Park Rangers Walter McDowney and Carol Borneman. You'll read how this hidden treasure came into being and about the interpretive programs offered for visitors of all ages.

Productivity—something to think about when we are precluded from filling vacancies and yet the work function remains and, often grows. Can we increase the productivity of our current staff? Absolutely, says Richard L. Wilburn in his article "Office Productivity: A Function of Design and Human Needs." He looks at the new technology in our offices as well as the office environment and shows that given the proper tools and setting, today's office workers can be more productive than ever.

Barry Mackintosh focuses on the historical areas within the National Park System that attest to the contributions of Indians, blacks, European and Asian immigrants, and women. Jack Ogle outlines a successful operations evaluation program developed by the National Park Service's Southeast Region. And lastly, Dolores Mescher features a case study of creative programming for a waterfront park in McKeesport, Pennsylvania.

We plan to do more variety-type issues such as this in the future. There are many "stories" to be told within the park and recreation community and we'd like to publish as many as we can. Manuscripts should be sent to: Managing Editor, Park Practice Program, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127.



# Leadership— Management's Better Half

by John H. Zenger, Ph.D.

"Let's get rid of management," read the headline of the advertisement in the *Wall Street Journal*. "People don't want to be managed," the copy went on to explain, "they want to be led."<sup>1</sup> More and more, organizations today discover the truth in what United Technologies Corporation said in that advertisement. People resist being "managed." It is too much like being controlled. And to control people is to violate their human dignity.

## People Seek Leadership

In contrast, people seek leadership. They want to join in the pursuit of goals and values they perceive as worthwhile. The organizations with strong leaders at the helm are, as a rule, the ones that respect the dignity, autonomy and self-esteem of the followers. It is easy to see why people willingly sign up with such leaders.

It is a common observation lately that many of our institutions are reasonably well managed, but poorly led.<sup>2</sup> If we define management as the administrative ordering of things—with written plans, clear organization charts, well-documented annual objectives, frequent reports, detailed and precise position descriptions, and regular evaluations of performance against objectives—then it is true that many organizations are well managed. And, no one can deny that competent management is essential to any organization.

Leadership, on the other hand, pulls us into a new dimension. Leaders provide visionary inspiration, motivation and direction-setting. Leadership generates an emotional connection between the leader and the led. Leadership attracts people and ignites them to put forth incredible efforts in a common cause. Leadership in this sense (it is generally agreed) is missing from most of today's public and private organizations.

The truly effective executives and managers of tomorrow will combine managerial and leadership skills. Some will succeed who are merely managers, but the ones who contribute most to organizations will have a capstone of leadership on their management skills.

I shall use the term leader and manager in this article to differentiate two mentalities, but I fully recognize the lack of a crisp distinction. All leadership and no management would be an equally serious problem as our current imbalance on the side of management.

## Why Leadership Got Lost

Why has leadership evaporated? Possibly too many years of prosperity have allowed us to run organizations with managers at the helm. Leadership was not necessary. Possibly it's by the fact our schools of administration have focused solely on management while ignoring leadership. And, possibly it has been the lack of operational definitions and descriptions of leadership combined with a total lack of ways to teach it. Leadership has also become linked to goals that our intellectual

elite finds repugnant—such as power, efficiency, productivity and profit. Our best graduate schools produce many who want to counsel the leader, and few who really want to lead.

A few senior people can truly function as leaders, full time, and leave the management to others. This is the king vs. chancellor role division. Most of us, however, must continue to manage while adding leadership to our daily practices.

## Organizations Need Leadership

While people individually thirst for leadership, organizations need it just as much. We live in a world of rapid change. Even more than individuals, organizations find it difficult to respond to upheavals in the environment without vital leadership.

If organizations are content to coast along, peacefully maintaining the status quo, then administrators or managers are quite sufficient. The danger is that staying steady in a fast-changing environment causes you to fall behind over time. If an organization is to keep pace, it must continually undergo real change, and strong leadership makes changes happen.

It has also been noted that any organization, whether a business or a government agency, can function with managers if the goal is to be average and traditional. For those seeking to create an "institution," with a culture and values that distinguish it from all others, leadership

(See "Who Can You Turn To?" for references and recommended readings.)

is a must. The truly "excellent" companies and agencies got that way through enthusiastic leadership.<sup>3</sup>

The philosophy and values of the Thomas Watsons, Sr. and Jr., shaped IBM. Ray Kroc's fetish for order, cleanliness and quality spearheaded the success of McDonald's. Walt Disney's creative passion for technology and insistence on a clean park and well trained employees created the legacy of Disneyland and Disney World. Lee Iacocca transformed Chrysler from a nearly defunct automotive company into a serious competitor. Wherever he goes, dealers mob him and employees shout, "Lee! Lee! Lee!" There is no doubt who their leader is. Chrysler required a Lee Iacocca to survive. There is an enormous difference between the person who is content to squirt oil on the existing machinery of an organization versus those who envision and build new machinery.

### **Leadership Prevails at all Levels**

The need for leadership is not confined to one or two people at the top of the pyramid. Strong leaders may be scattered throughout the entire organization. If one staff department stands out in a company or agency, while the rest are more or less colorless, look for an effective leader. You will find a supervisor or department head creating that outstanding group by behaving differently than the other administrators or managers.

We must cease to think of leadership as behavior confined to a select few at the apex of the

organization and understand that leadership behavior occurs at all levels, in the staff as well as in line management. It needs to be instilled in supervisors as well as senior vice presidents.

### **Let's Take the Mystery Out of Leadership**

Many believe, rightly or wrongly, that they understand management. Volumes of research and writing over the past decades have produced an accepted view that management consists of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling.<sup>4</sup> While there is still some debate about the details, hundreds of textbooks describe and explain the management process, and the descriptions of that process are essentially the same.

Leadership, on the other hand, has been far less well defined.<sup>5</sup> We often associate leadership with charisma. Charisma, as a concept, seems to fall in the same general category as beauty—impossible to define and totally in the eye of the beholder. If we are ever to develop leadership more broadly among the managers of an organization, we must first understand it. We need a specific operational view of what leaders do, how that behavior separates them from managers, and adds the leadership dimension to their management practices. Based on my review of the studies of leadership, plus my own observations and experience, I believe leadership can be described across six behavioral dimensions.

### **What Leaders Do**

#### **1. Leaders create values through communication.**

The first, and most obvious, thing about leaders is that they are good communicators. They are articulate. They express themselves persuasively in groups. You can often tell who the leader is by seeing the pattern of communication. Who talks last on a subject? Who is most persuasive? Who speaks authoritatively? Who do people really listen to? Leaders are particularly articulate and persuasive when it comes to important issues that bear on the values and mission of the organization.

Iacocca is perhaps today's best-known business leader. We all have seen him on television barking "If you can find a better car, buy it." He conveys a straight-talking, down-to-earth quality that most people identify with. One writer noted that "Iacocca talks non-stop, like the salesman he is."<sup>6</sup> A leader's message often has to be repeated again and again.

#### **● What leaders communicate about**

As prolific communicators, leaders focus on emotional issues that connect them with their followers. Business leaders talk about the high quality of their product, or their dedication to customer service, or their commitment to the dignity of all employees. They focus on values that appeal to employees, enlisting them in a noble cause that gives meaning and purpose to their work. These values are outside of and larger than themselves. As Jean Ribaud, President of Schlumberger, noted, "In times past the church gave people the values of life. With the

decline in the influence of the church, it is now the organization for which they work that gives meaning and purpose to life.<sup>7</sup> Business leaders create the sense that work has spiritual overtones with social contribution and high values.

Leaders also convey a vision of the future. They are catalysts in defining the mission and the potential of the organization, in reflecting the vision to their associates, and in enlisting their help in attaining it. They become a mirror for the group to see its own unique qualities. They often find metaphors to make that vision come alive.

#### ● *How leaders communicate*

There is a range of techniques that work. Some leaders rely on large meetings, while others write their messages. Some, like the president of Hewlett-Packard, can pick up a microphone that carries his voice to every employee of that company in the world. But nothing is quite as effective as a leader who gets out with small groups, face to face, and directly transmits his or her feelings about a vision of the organization's future and the values inherent in getting there.

Most leaders instinctively enjoy communicating. They are comfortable in large settings and in one-on-one discussions. They use brief interactions to gather and give information. Wherever they go, they exploit every opportunity to convey what they deem to be the important messages about mutual goals.

Some leaders, however, seem basically shy, and do not always grab the microphone and center stage.

This seems especially true in their formative years. Lincoln, Ghandi and Washington fall into that category as do more contemporary business leaders like Bill Marriott, Jr., Bill Gore and Don Williams of Trammell Crow.

These leaders acquired the skills of communicating. In many cases this came in a painful, self-disciplined process. Deep convictions about their mission or cause propelled them into a limelight that was at first highly uncomfortable, and never became a role in which they were totally at ease. But, they never shied away from communicating about the vision and values of the organization.

Contrast this with the attitude of managers about communication. Some talk about curtailing it. They communicate on a "need-to-know" basis: Tell people only what they need to know to do their jobs, nothing more. Managers are inclined to stay in their offices. Communication, they complain, takes too much time. For many, information is power to be hoarded, not something to be willingly shared. Such perceptions have validity if you define your role as one of control and administration, not leadership.

## **2. Leaders develop responsible followers.**

Leaders make a direct, emotional connection with associates. There is a powerful chemistry that goes far beyond the usual boss-subordinate relationship. Leaders take steps to make the people who work under them feel responsible for what happens. They do this by involving others, seeking advice, asking for information and soliciting solutions

to problems. They provide frequent positive feedback.

By involving people, leaders make them feel more powerful. They encourage people to be self-reliant, and to practice self-management. John Kennedy's famous exhortation — "Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country" — is one example of how leaders encourage people to act responsibly.

The current trend in business toward employee participation offers a natural path to responsible followership. Quality teams, quality circles or any form of group participation program can be a first step in developing individual and team responsibility. Such programs succeed when corporate leaders are genuinely committed to seeing that employees are given more responsibility.

The best leaders recognize that strong associates are a must. They give subordinates extensive feedback and positive reinforcement that builds a climate of high self-esteem. They foster and thrive on the success of others. Weak subordinates may momentarily make them look good by comparison, but will contribute little to the long-run effectiveness of the organization.

People in almost every organization can recall events surrounding a small team tackling an enormous project. Everyone on the team felt chosen. The task was crisply defined and challenging. It had great significance to the organization, and often to society. The IBM team that



developed the PC is a good example. Lockheed's famous Skunkworks is another, as are the teams at Syntex and G.D. Searle that developed the birth control pill, and the Data General team described in the best-seller, *The Soul of a New Machine*.<sup>8</sup>

Those teams were infused with purpose by their leaders, who set lofty expectations of their people. Strong leaders don't coddle people or comfort poor performers. Rather, they challenge people to stretch and reach new heights. They expect both high quality and quantity. They tolerate, even encourage, honest mistakes.

Because the leader seeks strong individuals and strong teams, destructive differences between people are quickly resolved with the leader's help.

Leaders meet frequently with their groups to enable strong team spirit to coalesce. They understand the power of groups and the benefit of communicating in a group setting. The leader prepares and runs effective meetings.

They stay in touch with the organization. That is why they eat in the crowded cafeteria, not always in the executive dining room. That is also why they prefer parking lots without privileged executive parking places; it keeps them in touch.

Managers, by contrast, place a greater emphasis on results or meeting the numbers. They analyze why there is a failure to produce according to plan. The focus is less on people development or motivation, and

more on the task. They deal with people one-on-one, preferring that to the uncertainty of how a group will behave.

### 3. Leaders inspire lofty goal accomplishment.

The leader begins by accepting personal responsibility for the group's accomplishment of objectives—with no excuses. Effective leaders radiate high standards of accomplishment by communicating their vision. They believe that people can be remarkably productive by doing more than the minimum described in the typical position description. When Willard Marriott went to a hotel and visited the kitchen at 4:00 a.m., noting that the radishes were wilted and the soup a little thin, he was setting a higher standard.

One strategy leaders use is emphasizing small wins that build confidence and motivate people to do more. Then they move on to larger challenges. Achieving the task is more important than the immediate personal popularity of these leaders. They bend the rules when necessary in order to get the task accomplished. Frequently, leaders take risks to meet their goals.

Leaders are seldom content with the past level of achievements. They constantly seek to transcend their past with higher levels of accomplishment. It often appears they *will* things to happen because of this deep dedication to goal attainment.

Although managers are usually concerned with meeting production schedules and getting results, they lack the passion and commitment that leaders display. They are less

tenacious. They go for modest, linear gains but not for quantum leaps ahead.

### 4. Leaders model appropriate behavior.

Leaders earn their followership in part because they symbolize the values and norms of the group they lead.<sup>9</sup> A captain of a football team has got to be a good player. A minister or priest exemplifies the moral values of the congregation. A leader of a scientific organization is first and foremost a respected scientist.

Business leaders must represent the values of the business units they lead. If the group is a technical one, they must be technically capable. To lead a marketing group, they must possess strong creative or analytical talents.

In his classic *Study of History*, Toynbee<sup>10</sup> speaks of *mimisis*, the process by which people mimic their leaders. When leaders fail to send a clear signal or when they say one thing and do another, their effectiveness as role models is seriously jeopardized.

Leaders know that people emulate their behavior. If they move quickly, the organization will pick up the pace. If they slow down, the pace slackens. The dress code of IBM began with Thomas Watson. The studied informality of Intel Corporation began with Robert Noyce, who put his own scratched-up steel desk in the middle of a large open office with no trappings of rank. All of Chrysler knows Iacocca works a nine and one-half hour day. And, there was his act of cutting his own salary to one dollar per year in the midst of Chrysler's financial crisis. The

organization below is strongly influenced by these signals from above.

One insurance executive, when the company was faced with a dire financial crisis, stood before the assembled employees to explain the serious belt-tightening actions that were going to be required: layoffs, restricted travel, overall budget cuts. Upon concluding his speech, he flew in a private jet for a weekend of golf in Pebble Beach, California. Needless to say, his message went unheeded and unsupported, and he was terminated not long after.

When difficult times arise in a business, people look to their leaders for reassurance. They need a calm, steady hand on the rudder that is capable of taking action, but never precipitously. A leader does not magnify others' anxiety by behaving frantically, regardless of the trepidation being personally felt. People need a leader who has courage to stay the course.

The most dramatic example of the leader's role as a model was one company president's simple formula for conduct in the organization: "You may do anything you see me doing."

Managers are less concerned about modeling behavior. They have often been removed or less visible to the rank and file. Their emphasis is on control, decision making and analysis, and the impact of their own behavior on others is not paramount in their minds.

##### **5. Leaders focus attention on important issues.**

.. First, leaders ferret out key issues



*Leaders are good communicators.*

Zenger-Miller, Inc.

and tough problems. Then they focus attention on them. Often they begin by asking questions: "How did this happen?" "How long has it been happening?" "Why does this occur?" Asking questions turns the searchlight on an issue. They build forums to debate serious issues.

Next, leaders bring intensity to the issue. If safety is a major concern, one way of making the entire organization safety conscious is to have every lost-time accident written up and given to the Chairman on a daily basis. This is exactly what Du Pont has done to become one of the safest chemical manufacturers in the world.

An effective way to get managers to listen to employee complaints is to install a system that escalates unresolved complaints up the organization until a senior executive must write a detailed written report to resolve it. This is precisely what IBM has done. Because an "open door" complaint can reach high

levels, every IBM manager gives high priority to handling employee complaints promptly and sensitively.

##### **● How leaders focus attention**

An effective technique leaders use to focus attention and bring intensity to an issue is to use a dramatic or symbolic act. When Millikin Corporation's president became distressed with late delivery to customers, he announced a policy by which customers receiving late shipments would be entitled to a 50% price reduction. This dramatic announcement clearly signaled a commitment to on-time delivery, and the problem quickly diminished.

When Charlie Sporck, president of National Semiconductor, wanted to turn around the performance of a division in trouble he moved his desk next to the general manager of that division.

Leaders recognize that only a limited number of targets can be pursued at any one time. They care-

fully choose, therefore, what to emphasize. The manager focuses on many performance dimensions simultaneously, because the manager wants to control them. The emphasis is on a broad, across-the-board scrutiny of performance. Managers often seek for exception reporting to ensure that nothing is going wrong, and to allow them to react when necessary.

#### **6. Leaders connect their group to the outside world.**

A leader serves as a link to the rest of the organization and to the rest of the world, both giving and getting information. That function is difficult for anyone else to perform. Other groups expect the senior person to be the one to contact.

Research on effective General Managers<sup>11</sup> (the ones who are really leaders) reveals that they are in frequent contact with community and labor union representatives. They participate in trade associations. They get involved with university professors and researchers who are interested in their technology. They initiate frequent interactions with top corporate line and staff officers. In short, they are the hub of a complex network of relationships with numerous outside groups.

A respected business professor noted his belief that the most valuable time executives spent was out of their offices. While there is obviously a limit to such absence, the overwhelming mistake for a leader is to stay chained to the office.<sup>12</sup>

The manager, on the other hand, tends to be more downwardly

focused on the immediate group being managed. Managers stay close to their desks and spend little time away from the company. There is always a stack of reports to read, problems to consider or correspondence to answer.

### **Developing Leadership in Managers**

Organizations need both leadership and management. All leadership and no management would leave organizations without the required systems for analysis and control that make them run efficiently.

The more we understand about the component behaviors of leadership, the better we can develop them in our managers. If we assume that managers are in place, and we wish to add leadership to their current capabilities, the following strategy can serve as a guide to promote those behaviors at all levels in the organization.

#### **1. Teach managers the nature of leadership.**

By understanding the six fundamentals of leadership presented above, managers could have a clearer view of what is required for them to become leaders. A cognitive, conceptual understanding is an important first step. These ideas are new to many, and have been totally ignored in business school education and minimally touched on in company management development programs.

#### **2. Train managers in leadership skills.**

We now have available practical

techniques to help managers develop skills in leadership. After teaching a clear conceptual understanding of leadership behavior, we can demonstrate the skills on video. Practice in a safe environment and feedback complete the cycle of skill learning!<sup>13</sup>

A good example of this method would be the one leadership skill that has been taught in executive development programs: teaching executives public speaking and presentation skills, or the skills of dealing with television interviews. These courses are effective because they teach practical, concrete and valuable leadership skills by first presenting basic principles, teaching the substance and technique with good video or live models, and then allowing time for participants to practice making presentations in the training session, and finally to receive feedback from each other and the instructors.

Each of the six leadership dimensions presented above can be explained, demonstrated and practiced in a leadership training situation.

#### **3. Put managers in the proper environments to learn leadership.**

(Note the plural—environments.)<sup>14</sup>

The Japanese put young managers in a variety of positions in a general progression toward a specialty. This approach seems more successful in providing leadership opportunities than does starting them out specialized and moving them toward a generalist job.<sup>15</sup> It emphasizes



leadership skills, not technical expertise.

General Motors leaders usually come from small divisions, where they can acquire the breadth of experience required to run an organization like GM.<sup>16</sup> Leadership comes from having a variety of challenging experiences. When assignments are demanding, important to the organization, involve team effort and are clearly defined, then executives learn leadership. They are forced to learn from their own mistakes and from exposure to many other leaders. These environments are varied and include starting up an operation, turning around an organization in trouble, a move from staff to line, working under a wise mentor, being on a high level task force or promotion to a more senior level in the organization.

#### **4. Train executives and managers to coach their subordinates on leadership skills.**

Top executives can learn to coach subordinate managers in leadership skills appropriate for the level they currently occupy. Executives can readily observe the communication skills of subordinate managers. They can see how managers are transmitting the vision and values of those above them, and if they are defining some of their own. Executives should spend time on developing such people, getting involved in career coaching around leadership behavior. Coaching subordinate managers in ways to improve their overt commitment to goals, or urging a young manager to be a better link to the outside world, can give an executive a finely-tuned leadership team.

#### **5. Train subordinates to help train their managers in leadership.**

Who sees leadership more clearly than subordinates? Strong subordinates are a powerful force in building strong business leaders. Indeed, quality subordinates are both a consequence and a cause of strong leaders.

We are moving toward a position of developing strong leaders *and* strong followers, or, rather, developing strong leaders *by* developing strong followers, and *vice versa*. To some this may appear to be a paradox. But keep in mind that a leader can be forceful, even when seeking a subordinate's opinions and sincerely respecting them. A strong leader can listen carefully to the views of colleagues and still be articulate in expressing his or her own. An effective leader can be quite persuasive, yet be strongly influenced by those who report to him or her. A leader can make excellent decisions, but is always best advised to do so only after collecting the wisdom of all those who have knowledge of the subject.

We have typically taught people how to relate downwards in the organization, but not upwards to a manager. Now, training programs exist that teach people how to effectively keep managers informed and to confront issues with them. These subordinates, trained to communicate with their leader, make that leader more effective. Their feedback hones the leader's skills.

One of the most valuable development experiences a leader can have is a good input session with the

team. The group can talk openly in this session about the leader's strengths and opportunities for improvement, and can particularly give first-hand feedback to the leader on what he/she should continue to do, stop doing or start doing to better the organization and the leader's own day-to-day behavior.

### **The Shift to Commitment**

The growing concern with leadership is at least partly the result of the fact that our work force is changing. The formulas that produced successful business enterprises in past decades may no longer be applicable. One writer has described that change in terms of the shift from "control" as the organization's fundamental impetus, to one of "commitment."<sup>17</sup> A shift from a predominant emphasis on management that generates control, to leadership that engenders commitment, would naturally accompany such a change.

While leadership may be viewed by some as a mysterious phenomenon, it consists of observable behaviors that can be taught. Given powerful new techniques of training, we can now make leadership development as available as management development.

"If you want to manage somebody," the United Technologies *Wall Street Journal* ad noted, "manage yourself. Do that well and you'll be ready to . . . start leading."

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# Coping with Madness: Crisis Management in Yosemite

by Vicki Jo Lawson

Imagine a day in June in Yosemite National Park . . . skies so blue that the unfamiliar would suspect laser-enhancement; frothy waterfalls leaping from gleaming granite cliffs; tall, silver and green conifers swaying easterly, and 50,000 visitors pursuing recreational experiences.

- 0000 hrs. A wildland fire threatening Glacier Point facilities has been burning for 12 hours. All visitors have been evacuated from the area. Crews continue suppression efforts. (Wawona District)
- 0915 hrs. One member of a climbing team attempting a continuous free ascent of a previously artificial route on Upper Cathedral Rock takes a leader fall and is unconscious. (Valley District)
- 1100 hrs. An elderly climber on Cathedral Peak falls, injuring his lower leg. (Mather District)
- 1200 hrs. A hiker is suffering from dizziness on top of Half Dome. (Valley District)
- 1400 hrs. A hiker on the Vernal Fall trail severely twists her ankle. (Valley District)
- 1600 hrs. A lost person is reported on the trail above Yosemite Falls; a backpacker sustains a leg injury in Pate Valley. (Mather District)
- 1930 hrs. The fire at Glacier Point is contained at 715 acres. The origin of the fire is undetermined. (Wawona District)
- 2400 hrs. Two parachutists hike up Half Dome and begin preparation for an early-morning illegal jump.



*A victim of a Snow Creek rockslide is being carried out.*

Michael Dixon, NPS

Rangers subsequently will investigate a report that one jumper's parachute did not fully open. (Valley District)

You don't need to have an extraordinary imagination to visualize this; you only need to be in Yosemite. The National Park Service in Yosemite deals with an ever-growing, unpredictable population of park visitors who participate in high-risk activities in an equally unpredictable and ever-changing environment. The resulting madness does, indeed, require some method.

Emergency response in Yosemite National Park has been shaped by a wide range of incidents that occur frequently. While human-induced emergencies (searches, rescues, etc.) tend to have a more localized impact than naturally induced emergencies (high winds, floods, etc.), both require pre-planned, interdivisional response; pre-established channels of communication; and pre-established

relationships for obtaining personnel and equipment.

Without plans in place, an adequate number of trained staff, proper equipment and a framework in which to operate, the outcomes of these scenarios could have been more serious. More lives could have been lost, more property damaged and the National Park Service found negligent in fulfilling its mandate to aid visitors in emergencies [16 USC, Sec. 1B(1) and 12].

While none of the individual incidents described above was enough to tax the Yosemite staff completely, the accumulation and variety of incidents throughout the park's three districts (approximately 1200 square miles) certainly could have been. Although only officially sanctioned for fire emergencies, the Incident Command System (ICS) was implemented on this day in June, as it routinely is for every emergency response in Yosemite. As standard





*Avalanche search training.*

Michael Osborne, NPS

operating procedure, the first ranger on the scene of each incident assumes command, and as additional incidents occur a command post with an overall incident commander is established and directly coordinates the on-scene commanders. In fact, in this situation two sub-ICS's were established, one for fire and one for all other incidents. The two sub-ICS's were united by a liaison who focused primarily on the coordination of air support.

The ICS, developed as part of the National Interagency Incident Management System (NIIMS) in response to wildland fire emergencies, is in fact a pre-plan of personnel interaction, a framework to don as one would a yellow Nomex fire shirt. With roles, terminology and pro-

cedures pre-defined and understood, time and energy can be directed toward solving the problem.

In addition to a planned framework in which to function, Yosemite National Park has documented pre-plans for a variety of emergencies. Response plans for naturally induced emergencies include high winds, floods and volcanic events. Since Yosemite has recently experienced both high wind and flood conditions, the park staff has included in these plans response benchmarks corresponding to weather patterns and wind speed or water levels. The more often an event has occurred, the greater the predictability, and, consequently, the more successful the response.

Yosemite has also developed simple emergency checklists addressing earthquakes, rockslides, catastrophic fires, major snowstorms, mass illnesses, multi-casualties, civil disorder, major searches, bomb threats and explosions. Other proactive plans address traffic management and dignitaries' visits. These plans and checklists, as well as the ICS, serve as skeletal sequences of instruction. Each item on these checklists represents years of personal training and industry preparation. Likewise, the effectiveness of an emergency plan is dependent upon the training and technology available to those implementing it.

### **Interdivisional Response**

Most emergency operations in Yosemite National Park are handled by the affected district's Protection Division staff. For instance, a small,

technical rock climbing rescue involves a handful of protection rangers and several climbers from the rescue sites (campsites reserved for expert climbers who make themselves available for such emergencies). However, a more major emergency such as a flood involves park employees from all divisions.

Resources Management Division staff may assist with operations and planning by monitoring tree fall and consequent integrity of bridges, by providing historical data on flooding, and by serving as a primary contact with the National Weather Service. Maintenance Division personnel may assist with operations by monitoring and attempting to mitigate flood impacts on roads, trails and facilities. Administrative Division staff may provide support to the Finance Chief in timekeeping and procurement efforts. Support from Interpretive Division employees begins well before an emergency occurs.

### **Pre-established Channels of Communication**

The Interpretive Division already has channels of communication established with the visiting public, the media and the community. Perhaps the most important support rendered by interpreters is education aimed at ensuring each visitor a safe park experience. Interpretive programs specifically dealing with wilderness survival, orienteering and the "Hug-a-Tree" concept for children are complemented by safety messages given at each program. The park newspaper, the *Yosemite Guide*, which is distributed to all park visitors, offers safety tips and instruc-



tions on how to report an emergency.

Whenever possible, at-risk populations are identified and contacted. Efforts in this direction include graphic signs placed on trails near the tops of waterfalls which have successfully decreased over-the-falls fatalities. A recently published climbing guide includes a chapter drafted by the park's search and rescue staff entitled "Staying Alive." Park employees, perhaps because they live and recreate in the park, suffer a high accident level within the park. Targeted to this group is orientation training for new employees emphasizing personal safety.

During periods of specific danger, appropriate brochures are distributed to visitors (e.g., high winds, flood and winter travel). Interpreters are sometimes called upon to interpret during emergency operations and to assist with crowd control. Visitor contact stations are kept informed and up-to-date on changing environmental conditions via the park's Information Office.

Another pre-established channel of communication is a channel—a radio channel. The park's Travelers' Information Station (TIS) broadcast can be picked up on most car radios within Yosemite Valley. Upon entry to the valley, a roadside sign encourages arriving visitors to tune in. The broadcast message is updated daily or, if necessary, more frequently from the Valley Visitor Center.

Yosemite National Park receives more media attention than any other area in the system. Because of this, a credible relationship with the media is critical. During an emergency, the park's Public Information Officer or

designee serves as the Incident Commander's Information Officer. Information is gathered, the wire services are notified and news releases are sent out. Likewise, the media are involved when potential park visitors need to be warned about an impending danger or crisis (such as higher water, recent earthquake activity or anticipated overcrowding). These efforts prevent the media from misinterpreting information which could trigger a panic as well as weaken the park's credibility. Written procedures for dealing with the media and a list of media contacts constitute a plan for this critical element of emergency response.

Through the Park Information Office, the interpretive staff also implements the Community Alert System. The Incident Commander or Park Superintendent may issue an alert to the 1,200-2,000 park residents. These alerts focus on anticipated severe weather impacts, communicable diseases, dangerous persons within the community, etc. The alert is distributed by a pre-established network of community volunteers working in a prescribed pattern. This system is successful because it can be implemented quickly.

### **Pre-established Relationships**

An Incident Command staff is faced with having to accomplish very quickly many things which are usually accomplished very slowly. Hiring extra personnel and obtaining supplies, equipment and funding are among these tasks. However, mechanisms for speeding these processes are in place because of long-term, demonstrated needs. During

emergencies AD (administratively determined) hiring is done on the spot with no red tape. Emergency procurement procedures are greatly streamlined, with necessary paperwork done after the fact. Emergency funding is available whenever there is a bona fide emergency.

While these means are available to all national park units, sources of trained personnel, equipment, aircraft and search dogs must be identified, contacted and evaluated in advance. Protocol for requesting assistance must be pre-arranged (how to call, when to call, response time, etc.). In some cases a letter may establish the relationship which ensures emergency assistance, but a more formal memorandum of understanding or cooperative agreement may be appropriate. Under California state law the California Office of Emergency Services (OES) can provide aircraft, ground teams, liability and injury coverage for non-National Park Service personnel involved in emergency response, and additional radios during emergencies. OES can also coordinate regional assistance provided by Wilderness Finders (WOOF), California Rescue Dog Association (CARDAs), California Youth Authority (CYA), California Explorer Search and Rescue (Cal-ESAR), Mountain Rescue Association (MRA) and various county sheriff teams. As outlined in the National Search and Rescue Plan, the Air Force Rescue Coordination Center (AFRCC) provides military helicopter assistance during rescues, air search assistance for downed aircraft and dog team transport. These relationships are strengthened by joint training sessions and critiques.

In addition to formalizing relationships with personnel and equipment sources, jurisdictional relationships must also be predetermined. Yosemite has established relationships with all surrounding counties through memoranda of understanding (pending completion) which clarify jurisdictional issues (who's in charge?!) during emergency mutual response.

## Conclusion

In 1986 the National Park Service responded to 3,389 emergencies, excluding fires. Yosemite responded to 194 (6%) of them. While the number of opportunities continually improves the readiness of the Yosemite staff, there never seems to be a perfect response.

Critiques involving key participants are routinely held following each operation. Park staff continually grapple with these difficult questions. How does one evaluate the success of an emergency response?

- *Safety.* Were the safety needs of the emergency-response personnel met? This is fairly easy to assess. Yosemite has a good record.

- *Effectiveness.* Did care of the injured minimize the degree of injury, intensity of pain, length of subsequent hospitalization? Did the emergency response minimize property damage? Again, this is fairly easy to assess, and Yosemite enjoys a good record.

- *Efficiency.* Was it possible to accomplish the operation by impacting natural or cultural resources less? By spending less money? By losing less credibility? By further streamlining communications, both internally and with the public? Because this is



*An unexpected road washout on Highway 41.*

Michael Dixon, NPS

very difficult to assess, Yosemite's record is uncertain.

It is likely that the courts will have an increasing influence on how emergencies are managed. The indirect influence on policies and operational decisions based on the possibility of litigation will probably be greater than the impact of actual court decisions. This already is leading to the development of industry standards for all-risk emergency response, similar to those developed for emergency medical services and wildland fire. While these standards will help to evaluate the success of emergency responses, they must also take into account the context of the emergency.

With more than three million people expected to visit Yosemite this year and possibly a greater number next year, emergencies will likely also be on the rise. The size and complexity of emergencies may also increase given the increasingly higher-risk recreational experiences sought by visitors. Yosemite will continue to respond with interdivisional

pre-plans, pre-established channels of communication and pre-established relationships. But at what level of readiness will the National Park Service and other land-managing agencies be obligated to respond in the future? Will emergency response become the science to which fire suppression has evolved? Will a proactive ICS be constantly implemented to ensure instantaneous response? Will emergency vehicles have drivers in place with motors running awaiting an incident? What level of readiness is consistent with visitor use, resource preservation and the park/wilderness concept?

It's true that all parks and vacation areas do not have conditions as complex or demanding as those at Yosemite. However, all parks and recreation areas do have some level of potential for an emergency with all of its ramifications. The days when we could wait for the crisis to develop before we took steps to respond are past. Public relations, agency image and increasing liabilities demand planning and preparation to ensure a professional and thorough response.

Programs similar to those described at Yosemite have application in other parks and should be utilized. If you do not already have an action plan in place, it is incumbent on park management to take steps to implement one—now.

*Vicki Jo Lawson is Staff Assistant for the Interpretive Division in Yosemite National Park. She has worked for the National Park Service for 11 years, serving as a fire fighter, dispatcher and in various interpretive positions.*



# Living History and Costumed Interpretation at George Washington Birthplace National Monument

by Paul Carson

Fifty-seven years ago the National Park Service took its first tentative step into the field of historic preservation with the authorization of George Washington Birthplace National Monument. Located along the shores of Popes Creek in Tidewater Virginia, its backers' original intent was to preserve and memorialize the site of our first President's birth. Yet as the park grew in size and visitation it became obvious that interpretation at the site had to undergo some drastic changes. Ultimately living history and costumed interpretation became the best means to instill an understanding and appreciation of the importance of the area and its history.

At first the interpretive message was essentially commemorative in nature with the park staff concentrating on preserving the rural character of the area as a tranquil memorial to George Washington. Interpretive facilities and activities were limited only to uniformed guides in the Memorial House, a small museum in the kitchen and several interpretive signs erected throughout the area. Any expansion or restructuring of the program was severely limited due to a continuing controversy over the location of the actual birthsite of Washington which would not be totally resolved until 1968. Interpretation was therefore minimal and fairly mundane until the introduction and adoption of costumed and living history programs.

The park's "roots" in living history can be traced back to an article by Marion Clawson in the April, 1965, issue of *Agricultural History*. Clawson proposed a system of federally-



Richard Frear, NPS

*Accuracy is essential to achieving a successful program of living history and costumed interpretation.*

sponsored historical farms which would illustrate a variety of regions and eras important in rural American history. Then Director of the Park Service George Hartzog seized on this idea and in July of 1966, George Washington Birthplace was selected as one of several NPS sites to be included in this project.

The growth of the interpretive program at the Birthplace since 1966 has gradually advanced with the aid of several major planning documents. Chief among these have been the park's *Master Plan* (1967) and *Interpretive Prospectus* (1969). More recently the annual *Statement for Interpretation* (beginning in 1981) has also aided greatly in planning interpretive programs. Yet realistically, no one document can claim to be the complete model for the park's present day programs. Instead, several basic principles have evolved over the years to guide the growth and development of interpretation. These include:

1. A dedicated commitment to costumed and living history interpretation in the park's historic area as the primary means by which to relate the park's story to the public.
2. Year-round use of costumed and living history interpretation to relate the main themes of the park (Washington history and colonial plantation life ca. 1730-50).
3. Ongoing research by the park staff to produce new information on daily and seasonal activities of early 18th century life and the Washingtons which can be used to develop new interpretive programs and demonstrations.
4. Continual review and evaluation of all activities so as to maintain as much authenticity as possible.
5. Avoiding the trap of the media



(costumed interpretation, living history) becoming the message.

6. An insistence upon a welcome and friendly attitude being exhibited by park personnel in historic dress in order to overcome any artificial barriers produced by the costumes and to encourage questions and informal contacts by visitors.

At this point one may wonder what is the difference between costumed interpretation and living history? According to the *Guidelines for Interpretation and Visitor Services for the National Park Service* (NPS-6), costumed interpretation and living history are two different approaches. Both involve staff members in historic dress, but the former method does not utilize first-person role playing, while the latter does. Over the years both approaches have been used to varying degrees at George Washington Birthplace with equal success.

As William Lewis states in his book *Interpreting for Park Visitors*, living history is "a way of getting the attention of visitors, illustrating for them part of the park story authentically and accurately, and leading them to look further into other interpretive areas." In effect, historical programs which utilize living history animate the scene serving (as Freeman Tilden writes in *Interpreting Our Heritage*) "to give life, to vivify." As Tilden so poignantly goes on to explain, "an enduring sense of the heritage from our fathers is vital to our future, and this knowledge is to be gained by keeping the past a living reality."



*Intelligent pre-planning of interpretive demonstrations is a key to a successful program of living history and costumed interpretation.*

At George Washington Birthplace an absence of above-ground remains combined with the presence of several "typical" colonial structures built in 1930-31 created confusion and a veritable void in effective interpretation of the site and its history for many years. Only with the introduction of a year-round program of costumed interpretation and living history was this dilemma rectified and history given life.

In June, 1968, the park's Colonial Living Farm opened to the public. Originally living history was limited to ox driving and colonial farming demonstrations by costumed employees. Gradually though, over the next few years, costumed interpreters became the norm throughout the whole historic area.

The year 1971 was especially significant due to the arrival of Dwight C. Storke, Jr. Bringing to the park a varied background in history and education, Dr. Storke spearheaded the updating and expansion of living history and costumed interpretation. Additions such as tours of the Memorial House and kitchen, an extensive domestic crafts program and demonstrations of old gardening methods were a few of the innovations which began in the early 1970s under Dr. Storke's direction. With the construction and opening of a new visitor center in 1976, all modern intrusions were removed from the park's historic area, allowing for an even greater expansion of living history and costumed interpretation.

Today the park continues to

update and renew its interpretive presentations. Last year (1986) saw approximately 165,000 visitors to the site with 180,000 projected to visit in 1987. The park's programs continue to attract a wide variety of the public. Daily the register book reflects visitors' satisfaction with such comments as "excellent programs," "wonderful guides" and "loved the craft demonstrations." What, then, are some of the keys to setting up a program which produces this type of success?

## Accuracy

A park manager considering the incorporation of living history and/or costumed interpretation into the site's program should always begin first by asking the obvious: are these interpretive approaches the most appropriate way to tell the park's story? Too often in the past, areas which could relate their story effectively without historically-garbed interpreters have tended to incorporate these techniques without considering the alternatives or cost. Accurate and timely living history and costumed interpretation generally require a considerable commitment of staff time and funds to be done adequately and correctly. A decision to utilize these approaches, therefore, must be carefully considered.

Once a manager has determined the need and usefulness of living history and/or costumed interpretation, then the commitment to pursuing as accurate a portrayal as possible is a must. Too often good interpretive presentations have been spoiled by the presence of intrusions such as

modern jewelry or a wristwatch on a historically dressed employee's person.

At the Birthplace a written set of costume and grooming standards were written and posted for all employees as a guide. Yet employee reluctance to adhere to these standards often arises, mainly due to the real and perceived peculiarities and discomforts of historic dress which 20th century workers often bring with them to their jobs. Nevertheless, accuracy is essential and the time invested to resolve potential employee problems in regard to historic dress (through training and performance standards) is critical in developing an effective interpretive program.

Accuracy also reaches beyond the bounds of costume and grooming. Unfortunately many programs often never realize this due to a near fanatical concern with costuming alone. The historic scene itself often is the key to the success or failure of historical interpretive presentations. A Civil War soldier in a parking lot near a visitor center is obviously less impressive than the same individual located in an area free of modern intrusions, such as a section of trench or a campsite.

Park managers may also choose to attempt to recreate a certain aspect or feel for a place and time by using animals, machinery, buildings, etc. from the era being targeted. Again, accuracy is important in effectiveness. Would any cattle do to repopulate a 1730 Virginia plantation pasture or is it worth the research effort to try and locate an 18th cen-

tury breed of cow for that purpose? Budget plays a large role in answering questions such as this, yet the concerned manager may often find the cost to be unprohibitive and even (in some cases) less than it would be for modern breeds or strains.

Ideally even varieties of plants from a certain era should be included in the overall effort towards an error-free picture of a certain time and age. Ultimately the closer the whole scene is to an accurate overall portrayal the more avenues and choices for interpretation are available to park personnel. Too often we tend to think of history being restricted to objects in museum cases alone. Living history and costumed interpretation, done accurately and using appropriate replicas of historic objects, provide a context and deeper insight into the everyday use of those same objects which no museum exhibit could ever relate to the public.

## Pre-planning

Another key to a successful program is intelligent pre-planning of the various interpretive demonstrations which would help enhance and interpret the main themes of the park. Fortunately the framework of the Annual Statement for Interpretation in the National Park Service provides a standardized format for NPS personnel to help in their logistical and conceptual interpretive planning. Yet even after a demonstration is created the actual implementation and success of the programs are dependent on an area often overlooked or quickly passed over—training.





*A fully furnished historic structure, when staffed by trained costumed employees, becomes more than just another museum exhibit. Suddenly old objects become real due to their use.*



*Proper training ensures accurate and safe craft demonstrations.*

Richard Frear, NPS

National Park Service

## Training

Proper training of staff members in historic skills and abilities is a process which should be continual for each employee. A cooking demonstration is more than just an interpreter stirring a pot of soup over a fire. It is actually a test of the ability of the interpreter to relate to the visitor insights into things such as what is being prepared, how it is different from today's meals, what was the life of the person doing the cooking like, etc. Only the properly trained individual will be able to understand and utilize these myriad opportunities for historic insights and pass them on to the visiting public. Indeed, training can be looked

upon as a threefold process: (1) Initial training, (2) Ongoing or daily review by supervisors and employees, (3) Updates and seminars on specific skills.

Good initial training should provide not only the basics of how to perform a particular task or tasks, but also give a good deal of background information on the craft or skill as well as the time period and lifestyle of the persons being interpreted. One other goal of good initial training should be to teach all individuals how to continue on their own in the pursuit of more knowledge on the subjects taught. Although this may appear to be elemental, experience

often reveals that many interpretive employees are not familiar with basic research or reference procedures. Good initial training, therefore, should provide not only an overview of the basic knowledge needed to achieve an acceptable level of work performance, but also a framework for employees to conduct ongoing reviews and updates of their own work. Only after this has been accomplished is it practical to advance to the last stage and initiate updates, seminars, etc. on crafts, skills and general knowledge so as to broaden each person's information base. Good training is a key to success in any endeavor and interpretation is no exception.





*The overall historic scene is often a key to the success or failure of historical presentations.*

Richard Frear, NPS

As has been explained, living history and costumed interpretation, although similar in many aspects, are quite different in their approach to the public. Nevertheless, both methods of interpretation afford the interpreter a powerful and effective means of capturing visitors' attention through the very obvious means of historic dress.

Yet some drawbacks exist which good managers should try to avoid. Among the most common is the trap of the media becoming more important than the message in the mind of the interpreter. A costumed crafts-person intently works on a shoe yet deliberately avoids answering questions from visitors because "they're dumb" and the interpreter is involved in making the shoe to the exclusion of all else. Two soldiers, deeply interested in the authenticity of their costumes and accouterments, spend the afternoon exchanging information on their pursuit of better uniforms, almost oblivious to the visiting public.

Situations such as these are often cited by those leary of living history as examples of a "hobbyist" attitude and, unfortunately, do exist. Hopefully, a well thought out and thorough

training program (which incorporates sessions on attitude and communication skills), combined with creative and tactful supervision, will avoid these problems and provide employees insights into the concept of living history as a means to an end rather than an end in itself. Too often employees become caught up with the pursuit of recreating the past. It cannot be stressed enough that the past can never be exactly duplicated, but through living history and costumed interpretation partial but deeper insights may be gained into the personal aspects of history which may then be passed on to visitors.

Successful programs involving living history and costumed interpretation inevitably stand out by their very effectiveness. Visitors to a site with friendly costumed interpreters tend to stay longer, ask questions more readily and generally are provoked to learn more about the park and its resources. Given the right personnel, historic dress can break down barriers to communication rather than erect them. Not only can deeper insights into historic objects be obtained, but also discussions of the people who originally inhabited the site will naturally be evoked.

A fully furnished colonial kitchen, when staffed by trained costumed employees, becomes more than just another museum exhibit. Suddenly old objects become real due to their use. A wire toaster no longer becomes a curiosity, but a clever means to toast bread before a fire, providing insight into the daily work of a slave or servant of the period. A talented costumed interpreter can seize these opportunities and open up new perspectives on historic life which visitors may otherwise have never understood.

Indeed, costumed employees have the chance to become living historians by using the knowledge which they bring to their costumed and living history experiences to provide rarely obtained insights into the daily lives of people who no longer exist. Although each employee brings the unavoidable baggage of 20th century civilization, the experiences which they go through still remain as one of the most original means currently available by which to understand the past and its varied lifestyles.

*Paul Carson is an Interpretive Specialist at George Washington Birthplace National Monument, Virginia.*

# Ethnographic Resources—A New and Developing Program in the National Park System

by Douglas H. Scovill

In what is now the backcountry of Bandelier National Monument in northwestern New Mexico, Pueblo Indians conduct millenia-old rituals at shrines whose origins are lost in antiquity. In Maryland, across the Potomac River from Mount Vernon, the Piscataway Indians carry out a centuries-old green corn ceremony near an ancestral village, now an archeological rubble-heap, in a park bearing their name. At Hawaii Volcanoes National Park ritual offerings to the goddess Pele are made to propitiate supernatural forces during periods of volcanic eruptions. The prehistoric catlinite quarries at Pipestone National Monument in southwestern Minnesota are mined by the Yankton Sioux and a cultural center provides space for Native Americans to demonstrate traditional crafts.

The Dena'ina people, an Athabaskan group in southern Alaska, continue traditional lifeways including the hunting of wildlife such as salmon, moose and caribou in the Lake Clark National Park and Preserve. And at Big Cypress National Preserve in southern Florida the Miccosukee Indians carry on a wide range of traditional lifeways in the park which incorporates their traditionally used area.

These are but a few examples of contemporary traditional lifeways continuing within the more than 79 million acres of the National Park System. With increasing awareness, insight and concern the National Park Service has been developing its ethnographic



Today Hawaiian wood carvers follow the trade of their ancestors carving replicas of ancient Hawaiian temple images at Pu'uhonua-O-Honau (City of Refuge). The images will be used in restoration of a temple by Honau Bay.

National Park Service



resources conservation program. Designed to contribute to the perpetuation of lifeways of ethnic communities, the program addresses many-faceted situations that arise from having management control over the natural and cultural resources that are traditionally associated with ethnic lifeways, and are essential to cultural survival of these communities. While the above examples are from Native American ethnic communities, the concepts, policies and program elements developed by the Service apply to any ethnic community whose access to and use of culturally pivotal resources are controlled by others.

In order to develop policies and a program for conservation of ethnographic resources, it is important to have a firm grasp of what an ethnic community is, what ethnographic resources are, and how the community and the resources relate to form what we perceive as lifeways.

## Ethnic Community

An *ethnic community* is any group of people who identify themselves and are recognized by others as being a named cultural unit that historically has shared linguistic, social, cultural and related characteristics that distinguish it from other groups. A key element of this definition is the idea of historically shared characteristics, that is, beliefs and associated behaviors transmitted across the generations to the members of the contemporary ethnic community.

## Ethnographic Resources

*Ethnographic resources* are sites,

places (frequently natural features invested with traditional meaning), objects and natural resources (plants, animals, minerals, etc.) that have traditional subsistence, social, religious or cultural meaning for a contemporary ethnic group *and* are identified by that group as necessary for their cultural survival.

## Lifeways

*Lifeways* are a contemporary ethnic group's observable expression of the "systems of values and practices that guide community subsistence and spiritual relationships with the environment, ways of organizing family and community life, and ways of celebrating life and mourning death." Perpetuation of contemporary ethnic lifeways depends, often critically, on access to and use of ethnographic resources that have been incorporated into land preserves set aside for their historic and environmental values at the behest of the scientific, preservation and conservation constituencies. Therein lies the challenge: to develop a program that provides ethnic communities appropriate access to and use of their ethnographic resources now contained within areas set aside and managed by others for historic, recreational or environmental values.

In the national parks the conservation of ethnographic resources and the provision for access to and use of these resources must be within the legislative framework that governs the National Park Service as well as the specific legislation associated with the individual units of the National Park System. Also, some ethnographic resources may be

historic properties on or eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places, and come within the purview of the Secretary of the Interior's guidelines for historic properties. These legislative requirements and their associated regulations may constrain the management options available to resolve the issues of an ethnic group's use of their own ethnographic resources. Even so, there usually remains broad discretionary authority that can be exercised to provide for the community's access to and use of these resources in a manner consistent with culturally relevant goals of the group, but without unacceptable adverse effects on historic properties, natural resources or environmental values. To achieve this, policy and program guidance are needed.

For the past five years the Service has been developing its policies and its program for the conservation of ethnographic resources with emphasis on our relationships with Native American ethnic communities. The key policy elements listed below have been distilled from our efforts to address the situation throughout the National Park System. They provide a framework for land managing agencies to develop their own program for the conservation of ethnographic resources.

## Policy Elements

1. The ethnic community and its associated ethnographic resources should meet the definitional criteria presented earlier in this article: the resources must be historically





Robert Belous, NPS

*Eskimo hunters haul a seal kill in Cape Krusenstern National Monument, Alaska. Subsistence hunting in Alaska parks, authorized by law, is an important contribution to the perpetuation of Eskimo culture.*



Robert Belous, NPS

*Native Americans in Kobuk Valley National Park, Alaska, depend heavily on the Kobuk River's fish yield.*



National Park Service

*Nez Perce (National Historical Park) dancers are part of the cultural demonstrations conducted by the National Park Service.*

linked through tradition to the contemporary ethnic community and must be necessary for perpetuation of the group's culture.

2. The least restrictive regulatory means available should be used in matters regarding access to and use of traditional sacred sites, places, objects or resources historically used for such purposes. Provisions should be made for the protection of sacred resources in a manner consistent with the ethnic community's goals. Burial areas, whether or not formally plotted as cemeteries, should be protected and not disturbed, destroyed or archeologically investigated unless there are no feasible alternatives. If burial areas must be disturbed, consultation with historically linked ethnic groups should occur concerning the proper treatment and disposition of the human remains. When ethnically identifiable remains are encountered, every reasonable effort should be made to locate and consult with individuals linked to the remains by ties of kinship or culture.
3. Provision should be made for access to and use of areas historically used for traditional activities, but in a manner consistent with cultural and natural resources conservation requirements. Traditional subsistence activities should be authorized when they can be carried out in a manner consistent with the long-term conservation of cultural and natural resources.

4. A continuing active program of consultation with the affected ethnic community historically associated with the area's ethnographic resources should be established to insure that management is fully informed in a timely manner of the issues and concerns of the ethnic community. Consultation should communicate management's identified needs and foreseeable actions at the earliest practicable time in order to assure that options are not foreclosed, establish rapprochement with the ethnic community and seek to achieve a consensus on resources management issues.

5. Research into an ethnic community's contemporary or past lifeways should respect the privacy of community consultants regarding their practices, beliefs and identities and should respect the community's views on the public divulgence of their religious or other cultural values and practices. Research results should be provided to the community. Consistent with the standards for their use and preservation, museum collections should be available for loan, exchange or study.

6. Interpretation of an ethnic community's contemporary or past lifeways should include the ethnic group's perspectives of their own lifeways and associated ethnographic resources and historic properties. It should present factual, balanced and to the extent achievable,

value-neutral presentations of cultures and history; and, where appropriate, should use cultural anthropological data and concepts. The content of interpretive programs must respect the community's views on the public divulgence of their contemporary or historic religious or other cultural values and practices. Cooperative programs engaging the ethnic community's members in active interpretation of their cultural heritage should be undertaken.

In order to carry out these policies, some basic information is needed to guide management in its relationships with the ethnic community, to formulate alternative actions that may affect ethnographic resources, and to select the appropriate action for implementation.

The kinds of fundamental information needed to address the situations associated with conservation of ethnographic resources include:

### **Fundamental Information**

- Identification and ethnographic/ethnohistorical documentation of the ethnic group and their associated ethnographic resources within the area potentially affected by management decisions.
- Documentation of the current authority for the ethnic group's access to and use of ethnographic resources as well as for historic properties and natural resources, whether or not they qualify as ethnographic resources. Examples of authorities



include treaty provisions, legislation, court order, cooperative agreement, lease, special use permit or ethnohistorically documented traditional practice.

- Ethnographic documentation of the ethnic group's current pattern of access to and use of area resources and ethnographic/ethnohistorical documentation of those resources which qualify as ethnographic resources, including those ethnographic resources which are necessary to their cultural survival.
- Ethnographic assessment and documentation of the effects of an area's operations and planned development on the ethnic group's access to or use of identified ethnographic resources.
- Assessment and documentation of the effects of the ethnic group's access to and use of ethnographic resources on historic properties, natural resources or recreational values associated with primary purposes for which the area was established, including the effects on general visitor use and enjoyment of the values of the area.

## Ethnographic Overview and Assessment

The acquisition of this ethnographic and related data may appear formidable at first. In many situations, however, much of the data

already exist, but has not been organized and ethnographically interpreted to meet management needs. An ethnographer should develop an *Ethnographic Overview and Assessment*. This management document evaluates, summarizes and synthesizes data concerning the ethnic

group associated with the area and their use of the area's ethnographic resources, natural resources and historic properties. This document establishes baseline data against which the need for additional studies are determined. Its principle elements are:



Pipestone National Monument (Minnesota) affords the opportunity to learn about the customs and culture of the Indians who lived in this area.

Richard Frear, NPS



- A statement describing the basis for the ethnic group's access to the resources, e.g., treaties, legislation, cooperative agreements, special use permits, etc.

- A list of the ethnic groups and the park resources they are authorized to use.

- A summary of previous descriptions of ethnographic occupation, including cultural significance of natural resources and physical environmental features (e.g., plants, caves, rock shelters, springs, shrines and other sacred locations).

- A listing of the use of each type of resource including subsistence, religious or other characteristics of use. When available, include frequency of use.

- An annotated and current bibliography of ethnographic and ethnohistorical information on the ethnic groups associated with the area.

- A record of consultations with ethnic groups whose lifeways and ethnographic resources may be affected by management operations, plans and actions.

- A list of ethnographic resources to be considered for inclusion in an Ethnographic Resources Inventory database.

- A descriptive list of issues and concerns requiring resolution and identification of the study

needs to acquire data to resolve them.

## Ethnographic Resource Inventory

A second basic need is an *Ethnographic Resource Inventory* to assure that standardized baseline data is consistently recorded and accessible to managers, planners, ethnographers, resource specialists and the ethnic group itself. Its purpose is to systematically compile information on location, type, condition and use of resources, together with the basis for access, the names of associated user groups, and cross-listing in other types of resource inventories. It provides the data base needed to expedite compliance with legislative requirements and effective implementation of policies on religious freedoms, consultations with communities affected by management decisions, and any provisions in an area's enabling legislation concerning a community's lifeways.

Additional benefits of the inventory is the provision of enhanced perspectives on cultural context or meanings of the resources being managed, the ability to flag culturally sensitive resources and thereby help avoid actions that inadvertently obstruct religious practices or restrict other lawful use of resources, and providing successive managers of the area with a permanent data base that signals the need to consult, and identifies the appropriate peoples to consult with. Interpretive programs will be enriched by the data on the human and cultural context associated with the area's resources although control of the confiden-

tiality of sensitive information from public disclosure is required.

## Consulting Plan

The final element of a basic ethnographic program is a *Consulting Plan*. The purpose of the plan is to identify and define strategies for obtaining effective involvements and assistance of the associated ethnic group in the identification and evaluation of ethnographic resources, to have their culturally relevant participation in the development of both short and long-term strategies for the conservation of the ethnographic resources, to obtain their participation in the interpretive program and to gain their support and cooperation in studies necessary to acquire ethnographic information needed to resolve resource management issues and community concerns.

Establishment of a basic and effective ethnographic program where agencies or institutions control resources necessary to the cultural survival of ethnic communities can be a significant advance in the way we deal with the human side of resource management. It can also make an important contribution to cultural survival of ethnic communities and provide for the constructive engagement of ethnic communities in the long-term conservation of natural and cultural resources. Such a program provides the framework necessary to achieve the goals articulated by former National Park Service Director Russell E. Dickenson in his keynote address to the First World Conference on Cultural Parks held at Mesa Verde National Park in

Colorado in September, 1984, where he said:

"Modernization often finds the resources of small native communities being absorbed by government agencies and private interest groups. In the process, native peoples relinquish exclusive control over resources that support their lifeways and also contain ancestral sites invested with deep religious meaning. As we know, a people's lifeways or cultures depend for survival on intimate relationships with these resources. Often, too, the scientific, preservation and conservation communities prize those same resources for their historic and environmental values.

"To further national conservation and preservation goals that affect native resources, then, it seems to me that we must seek innovative forms of rapprochement among native communities, government land managing agencies and groups who share that concern. This clearly would require: First, recognizing and respecting the unique qualities of native cultures and the directions that native people wish their cultures should take. Developing permanent working partnerships with native communities to effectively incorporate them as allies and partners in planning a future that will significantly affect the lives of their children and their children's children. Third, it is time for those of us concerned with cultural resources to recognize the value of cultural differences and different cultures in ensuring the growth and development of the world's heritage. The natural sciences have long recognized the role of biological diversity in ensuring the

survival of living forms, and we know that diversity leads to a rich genetic pool from which new life forms develop. It follows, then, that differences in lifeways offer the raw materials to fashion tomorrow's communities with their religious practices, their family arrangements, and their artists and artisans. As cultural resource professionals, we must seek to preserve for today's people and for future generations the lifeways by which ethnic and national groups wish to be distinguished. Fourth, we must recognize that the concept of culture means much more than simply objects or structures. Material things are the result of a people's lifeways or cultures; that is, historic structures come from a people's way of organizing themselves into family groups. The temples we carefully preserve represent the labor of hundreds of people and the power of a small number of elite who could command that workforce and a belief system that could integrate them all. So our appreciation of objects must necessarily include appreciation for the cultural context that gave them meaning. Finally, land managers and professionals must acknowledge their roles in a world system that includes native and other localized groups, each of whom depends upon the others to create and protect resources that all value, each in their own way."

### Acknowledgement

The concepts and ideas of this article have drawn heavily upon the work done over the past five years by Dr. Muriel Crespi, Senior Anthropologist, Division of

Anthropology, National Park Service. In addition to being the principal author of Service policies and program guidelines, she has prepared numerous internal staff papers and briefing reports on the application of cultural anthropology to the conservation of ethnographic resources. Any errors or omissions, however, are mine. For additional information, contact:

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# A Public Education Program to Reduce Head and Spinal Cord Injuries—A Resource for the National Parks

by Kathleen Cain

In 1980, the United States Surgeon General's "Report on Health Promotion and Disease Prevention" included the following objective:

"To improve the health and health habits of adolescents and young adults, and by 1990, to reduce deaths among people ages 15 to 24 by at least 20 percent, to fewer than 93 per 100,000. . . . Young men are at particular risk, their death rate being almost three times that of young women. . . . Accidents, homicides and suicides account for about three-fourths of all deaths in this age group. Responsibility has been attributed to behavior patterns characterized by judgmental errors, aggressiveness, and, in some cases, ambivalence about wanting to live or die. Certainly, greater risk taking occurs in this period of life."

Unintentional injury resulting in death and disability has now been recognized as a public health problem. In the recent report, *Injury in America*, it is pointed out again that our nation's youth are overrepresented when it comes to injuries. Injury is the leading cause of death among children. For the 15-to-24-year-old, injury accounts for four-fifths of all deaths.

The report continues:

Injury is also a leading cause of short and long-term disability . . . with respect to long-term disability, more than 75,000 Americans each year sustain brain injuries that result in long-term disability, including 2,000 who remain in persistent vegeta-

tive state. In addition, over 6,000 persons who were injured are discharged from hospitals with paraplegia or quadriplegia. (Injury in America, 1985)

The most serious injuries (after those resulting in death) are those to the head and spinal cord. Disabilities from head and spinal cord injuries are devastating and can include paralysis, impairment of reasoning and problem solving abilities, memory loss and speech disturbances. People in the prime of life are rendered dependent on the health care system, public assistance and their families, often for life. Occurrence of injuries to the head and spinal cord are most frequent to the 15-to-24-year-old.

The predominant cause of injury resulting in serious disability is the motor vehicle. Recreational injuries may not involve the motor vehicle and include a wide variety of activities loosely categorized as falls, swimming (which may include diving) and sports. Alcohol and drugs are implicated in a large proportion of injuries regardless of the cause.

This article is a review of a rapidly growing program sponsored by neurological surgeons throughout the United States to draw attention to the problem of head and spinal cord injuries and to alert young people to their role in prevention. Since recreational injuries are among the important causes of serious injury to young people, this program has included some special projects, primarily experimental, with the National Park Service.

In a 1984 edition of *Trends* (Law-

Related Issues for Park and Recreation Managers), Lowell Sturgill noted:

Park managers should become keenly aware of the potential for liability within their areas of jurisdiction. Recreational activity is no longer limited to playgrounds, campgrounds, hiking, swimming or fishing. Today's sophisticated park visitor engages in snowmobiling, hang gliding, jet-skiing, mountain climbing and four-wheel-drive recreational vehicles. Relaxation for some park visitors now involves thrill-seeking and risk-taking, particularly among young adult males, some of whom engage in hazardous activity to gain attention. These types of recreational activities not only involve danger to the participants, but also to other visitors who do not engage in them.

This reference to the young adult male as most vulnerable to injury in recreational pursuits is borne out by the facts when it comes to the incidence of head and spinal cord injuries. Several factors are probably operant including the general health and well being of the young which allow for more exploration of the limits of a given activity. Even casual attention to television tells us that messages to "be all that you can be," "go for it" and "test your limits" are ingrained in society.

Thrill-seeking behavior can present particular difficulties for Park Service personnel who become part of a "no win" situation. On the one



hand they must communicate safety concerns to the public and enforce the law. The visitor can either welcome this information or see it as an interference with the right to enjoy the park. On the other hand, when a serious injury occurs, the Park Service is likely to be blamed for not alerting the visitor to an apparent danger.

The growing body of literature about injury control supports the notion that the most effective countermeasures are those which do not require voluntary behavior change. Thus, many states now legislate safety belt use and child restraint. Rules affecting the drunk driver are being revised and strict enforcement encouraged. Communities apply pressure to remedy known hazards on our roadways, such as the installation of traffic lights or improving visibility of warning signs. Consumers can check the "crash worthiness" of vehicles as they consider purchase of a new car and the discussion of installation of air bags in cars is lively. These methods of injury prevention are known as "passive" or "by administrative rule."

Unfortunately, for the recreational injury, this approach might mean such drastic changes as cutting down trees, dredging the bottom of rivers and streams, restricting access to all steep places and in general severely altering the natural environment. Hopefully this will never come about.

The problem of educating the public to prevent recreational injury then becomes one of balance—how to warn of hazards without interfer-



*A young man who sustained a spinal cord injury from a diving accident explains how this injury has changed his life.*

ing with the right to enjoy the natural beauty of a setting such as a national park.

For the teenager and young adult, this challenge to communicate that accidents do happen, that the results can be devastating and irreversible, and that prevention is up to them is an even greater challenge. Anyone who is a parent knows too well that simply telling a son or daughter to wear a safety belt or to check the water before diving is often unheeded in the "heat of the moment" when peer pressure and showing off are more important.

The following is a description of a program that is designed to convey a message to young audiences in a way that they will accept and use. Its potential for use by the National Park Service is then discussed.

### **Missouri Head and Spinal Cord Injury (HSCI) Prevention Project**

The United States Department of Education designated the University of Missouri School of Medicine a Regional Model Spinal Cord Injury Center from 1978-1982. The Center was under the direction of Dr. Charles Peterson, Chairman, Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation.

Dr. Emily Bonwich, a member of the research staff, designed and implemented the Head and Spinal Cord Injury Prevention Program in the Spring of 1980. Since 1982, the program has been under the direction of Dr. Clark Watts, Chief of the Division of Neurological Surgery. Funding in addition to the U.S.

Department of Education has included:

1. The Missouri Department of Health, Bureau of Emergency Medical Service. (1982-1987)
2. The Missouri Department of Public Safety, Division of Highway Safety. (1985-87)
3. The Missouri Coalition for Safety Belt Use. (1985-1986)
4. The University of Missouri—Columbia including the Hospital and Clinics and University Physicians. (1982-1987)

This program, which targets the teenager and young adult, is now in its 8th year. It consists of a 50-60 minute all-school assembly including a film, a short introductory talk, a personal presentation by a young speaker who is either paraplegic or quadriplegic, a demonstration by paramedics and a wheelchair obstacle course.

The program was designed to produce mild anxiety in a form which allowed viewers to assimilate information in their own manner. The message the program puts forth is "have fun, do it safely and know the limits." The goal is to inform those at high risk of their potential danger, methods of reducing the danger and methods of handling this type of emergency as a bystander (namely, don't move accident victims unnecessarily and get expert help fast).

Behaviors specifically targeted include:

- Safety belt use
- Helmet use—now emphasizing all-terrain vehicles as well as motorcycles.
- Avoiding drinking and driving.
- Diving safety.
- Use of proper equipment and training when involved in any sport or "risk" activity.
- Bystander behavior when head or spinal cord injury is suspected.

The program has been conducted in 211 schools reaching over 95,000 students. Reception by students, parents and school faculty has been uniformly positive.

### National HSCI Prevention Project

In 1986, the Missouri program and another program under the direction of E. Fletcher Eyster, M.D., in Pensacola, Florida, were joined to form the National HSCI Prevention Program, which is sponsored by the American Association of Neurological Surgeons and the Congress of Neurological Surgeons. The intent of this national project is to reduce the incidence of head and spinal cord injury in young people. The program emphasis includes:

1. School prevention programs.
2. Reinforcement of these programs.
3. Public education.
4. Legislative action.

Thus far, neurological surgeons in 25-30 states are implementing programs.

### Projects with the National Park Service

#### *Ozark National Scenic Riverways*

Head and spinal cord injuries as a result of diving are easily the most preventable of injuries. The preventive behaviors include always checking water below the surface for hidden objects and debris, checking carefully the depth of any intended diving spot. The University of Missouri project adapted a poster from one originally designed by the University of Washington in Seattle, and distributed it throughout the state in the Spring of 1984. This poster provided a reminder of these very simple preventive behaviors. It has been distributed throughout the state every summer since.

The park rangers for the Ozark National Scenic Riverways were among the first to use this poster along the Current River. The Current River, in southern Missouri, is a particularly popular river for canoes, camping and swimming. Due to this popularity, an intense interest in providing materials to the public on injury prevention was demonstrated by the Riverways staff. This evolved into a number of workshops with the Riverways staff in which information about the results of spinal cord injuries was shared. Of particular value was the very candid talk given by a young man who was quadriplegic from a diving injury. He was willing to share with Park Service personnel exactly what it means to be paralyzed and how easily he could have prevented it from happening. Through the support and urging of the Riverways staff, the HSCI Prevention Program was given

in a number of schools in communities along the Current River. It was the concern of the Park Service that the local young people who frequented the river were among those who might be classified as thrill-seeking and unaware of the potential consequences of their behavior, i.e., permanent disability. Indeed, this had already occurred in one community.

These programs were warmly received by the school administrators, faculty and students. In the ensuing years, the distribution of signs has continued under the direction of the Ozark National Scenic Riverways staff.

#### *Lake Mead National Recreation Area*

In the Spring of 1987, experimental school prevention programs were conducted in Boulder City and Las Vegas, Nevada, public schools. These programs were conducted under the co-sponsorship of the Lake Mead National Recreation Area and the National Head and Spinal Cord Injury Prevention Program. The purpose was to determine what role personnel within a national park might reasonably play in providing this message to young people in communities near their parks. This experience taught us a great deal including the fact that these types of projects require extensive time and effort on the part of whatever group is deemed in charge.

School prevention programs are beginning in many communities throughout the United States under the sponsorship of neurological surgeons and their cooperating hospitals. Based upon the Lake Mead experience and the strong interest

expressed there by the park ranger staff in supporting public education about injury prevention, it is hoped that Park Service personnel and hospital-based injury prevention programs will find new and useful ways to interact.

### **"Harm's Way": A Film About Injury Prevention**

"Harm's Way," a 16 mm film about prevention of head and spinal cord injuries, was produced under the sponsorship of the American Association of Neurological Surgeons and the Congress of Neurological Surgeons. The film maker is Barry Corbet.

This 18-minute film features the insights of young people with both head and spinal cord injuries. It includes a combination of action, music and very honest and direct testimony about the thin line between exciting activity and activity that results in injury. Teenagers and young adults have been extremely positive about the film and its prevention message. The film has also been used by a number of groups as a part of orientation for summer recreation staffs at swimming pools, camps and parks.

"Harm's Way" was a recent Gold Camera First Place Award Winner at the U.S. Industrial Film Festival in Chicago, Illinois. The film may be ordered by contacting:

Linda Campbell, CAE  
American Association of  
Neurological Surgeons  
22 South Washington Street  
Park Ridge, Illinois 60068

### **Summary**

There are no cures in sight for the devastating results of injuries to the brain and spinal cord. Many of these injuries occur during recreational activities and virtually all are unexpected. It is, therefore, imperative that where and whenever possible, we find ways to warn people of potential hazards and inform them of ways to avoid these injuries.

Teenagers are a particularly difficult group to reach with messages about safety. It is hoped that the educational program which has been so warmly received in a few parts of the country will be expanded and that a reduction in these injuries will result.

For information about whether a program is starting in your state and how to get one started, contact:

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*Kathleen Cain is coordinator for the University of Missouri's Division of Neurosurgery, HSCI Prevention Project in Columbia, Missouri.*



# Hidden Treasure

by Walter McDowney  
and Carol Borneman

It has been called Washington, D.C.'s "Garden of Eden." Some have called it a haven—where one can rest the soul, while others have even proclaimed it to be Paradise. It is none other than the National Park Service's Kenilworth Aquatic Gardens, located in northeast Washington, D.C. Such sentiments are understandable, for on this July morning the gardens display such splendor as that found only in a fairy tale.

A gentle breeze rustles the leaves of the willows surrounding the ponds. Hundreds of lotus flowers are in bloom and white water lilies are reflected in the water. A solitary great blue heron stands motionless in a pond.

Such beauty, though, has existed since 1882 when the gardens were begun as a hobby by Walter B. Shaw. A native of Maine, Shaw settled in the D.C. area after being wounded during the Civil War at the Battle of Spotsylvania. He became a clerk for the Treasury Department and purchased acreage along the Anacostia River from his father-in-law.

Homesick for the water lilies that grew in Maine, Shaw requested his friends to send some of the plants which he planted in an abandoned ice pond. As the years went by, Shaw greatly expanded his collection of water lilies and aquatic plants and established more ponds within the marsh. These ponds were fed with water from the nearby Anacostia River.

Soon he turned his hobby into a commercial enterprise known as the



*Victoria water lily, whose leaves can reach 7 feet in diameter and support 300 pounds.*

National Park Service

Shaw Gardens, and was selling water lilies and other aquatic plants along the Eastern seaboard and as far west as Chicago. Most people say that this was the largest commercial enterprise of its type east of the Mississippi River.

In 1912, Shaw turned the operation over to his daughter Helen Fowler. Like her father, she continued to expand the collection of aquatic plants. In fact, Helen Fowler was the first woman in D.C. to obtain a truck driver's license. She drove her truck throughout the city, selling the cut water lily blossoms.

However, in the 1930s, the Shaw Gardens and surrounding marshland were threatened with destruction. The Anacostia River was being dredged by the Corps of Engineers. When the Corps came upon the gardens and marshland, they

determined that the gardens and marshland should be filled in to prevent the spread of malaria and other diseases.

When hearing of the proposed action, nearby residents and frequent visitors to the Shaw Gardens protested. In 1938, the National Park Service purchased the land and renamed it Kenilworth Aquatic Gardens (KAG) for the nearby residential area. Since then the gardens have been opened to the public.

Of the 337 units in the National Park System, KAG is unique in that it is the only site dedicated to the propagation of aquatic plants, especially water lilies and lotus. Also, KAG is unique in that it is the only original marshland left in the Washington, D.C., area. The 44 ponds contained within the 12 acres of the formal gardens provide prime



*School children searching for frogs and turtles on a ranger-led walk.*



*National Park Service*

*Mrs. Helen Fowler in truck that she used to sell cut water lily blossoms.*

habitat for a wide variety of amphibians, reptiles and birds, many of which the visitor gets to see.

Because of the types of aquatic plants grown at the gardens, many of which are tropical, foreigners comprise a high percent of the visitors. Frequently, visitors are from the Far East and have come to see the lotus plant, which they revere. Picture the Oriental god Buddha seated upon a large-blossomed fragrant lotus, with incense burning in the background.

In the 1950 s, KAG received two lotus seeds that were found in a dry lake bed in Manchuria. The seeds were carbon dated and estimated to be at least 1500 years old. They were placed in moist cotton to promote germination. Several of the lotus plants now at Kenilworth are offspring of those original seeds and are called "Ancient Lotus." Because of the longevity of lotus seeds, Japanese emperors would eat the seeds while they were green, hoping that such



longevity would be transferred to them.

Visitors to the gardens are introduced not only to these ancient lotus, but also to much of the flora and fauna of the park. A wide variety of interpretive programs have been developed for park visitors of all ages.

### Ranger-led Walks

Because the majority of flowering plants reach their peak during the summer months, Garden Walks are given every weekend and holiday at 9 a.m., 11 a.m. and 1 p.m. between Memorial Day and Labor Day. Garden Walks are given at other times by appointment. There is even transportation around the gardens in a golf cart-like vehicle for the mobility impaired. These hour to hour-and-a-half walks introduce the visitor to most of the plants growing in the 12 acres of ponds, as well as numerous frogs, toads, turtles, fish, birds and beneficial insects. Garden Walks are designed for and enjoyed by individuals and families of all nationalities.

The Anacostia River: A Living Resource takes visitors on a nature trail which winds through the Anacostia Marsh and along portions of the Anacostia River. Visitors learn why the river was so important to Indians (Anacostin) and early settlers, and how their influence has affected the river and the marsh. Visitors also learn of the efforts being made to restore the Anacostia to a cleaner environment.

During a two-year period (1979-

1981), Mr. Jackson Abbott of the Audubon Naturalist Society of the Central Atlantic States listed over 250 different bird species. Bald eagles, osprey, owls and hawks are frequent visitors to the gardens and marsh areas. Wading birds including the glossy ibis, the gallinule and the black-crowned night heron are seen less frequently. Because of the sightings, Bird Walks are a popular event at the Aquatic Gardens. Walks are led both around the formal gardens and through the marsh via the nature trail.

Wildflower, Folklore and Edible and Medicinal Plants gives the park visitors a variety of plants to look for when choosing to use the weeds for medicine. Visitors learn facts, legends and little known anecdotes about plants found in the park.

Designated for the young-at-heart are such ranger-led activities as Ranger Ramble, Children of the Night (an evening walk), Spare That Dead Tree, Homing In on Habitat, Ecology of a Pond and In Cold Blood. These activities introduce kids and adults to a potpourri of flora and fauna living in the park. Don't Fool With Mother Nature teaches ecological principles to children preschool-aged through second grade.

### Junior Ranger Program

Imagine 25 to 40 youngsters, between 10-14 years old, signed up to visit the park five days a week. Sounds like summer camp? Well, these youngsters are the Junior Rangers and they perform such duties as policing the picnic areas, nature trails and pond dikes, answering visitors' inquiries, assisting with

walks, caring for the live exhibits in the visitor center, planting flower beds and more.

It isn't all work, though. The Junior Rangers also receive an 8-week program in natural history study which includes sessions on camouflage, survival, bird life and, of course, pond study. A different session is taught in a formal classroom and out-of-doors each week. They are taught nature games and nature crafts. They raise insects. Overall, the Junior Rangers have a good time. Most important, though, they act as the "eyes and ears" of the park and help to insure visitor safety. For the Junior Rangers, the highlight of the season comes when they are taken, en masse, on a three-day camping trip to either Catoctin Mountain Park or Shenandoah National Park.

The Kenilworth Aquatic Gardens is truly an "exotic world" in the city of Washington, D.C. This NPS site is administered by National Capital Parks-East, National Capital Region. It is maintained by a supervisory horticulturist, a gardener foreman, eight gardeners, two park rangers/interpreters, adult volunteers and a host of Junior Rangers.

The staff at KAG extends this invitation to you. "Come visit us. Then come back again and again."

*Walter McDowney and Carol Borne-man are Park Rangers at Kenilworth Aquatic Gardens in Washington, D.C.*



# Office Productivity: A Function of Design and Human Needs

by Richard L. Wilburn

- *"My God it's hot in here—how can anyone think?"*
- *"My desk is so cramped I feel like I'm in a cage and want to break loose."*
- *"It sure is stuffy in here. I know that air conditioner isn't working."*
- *"I am always so tired at the end of the day. My eyes burn, my neck hurts and my back is sore. I hate to come back in the morning."*
- *"I've heard that those computer screens give off radiation. Do you suppose they are dangerous?"*

Have you heard those, or similar remarks made by people who work around you? Of course, we all have at one time or another. We in the government often believe that this is especially true around our offices, because of space restrictions and what is frequently seen as substandard facilities.

Whether this is more true in government offices may be questioned. What shouldn't be questioned by informed staff and managers is that adverse conditions have a direct impact on work accomplished—a distinctly negative impact. While some of the problems existing around office environments will be resistant to correction, many of the problems can be solved through good planning and execution by the decision makers in the organization. This is one of those work situations where shortcuts taken to save a small amount from the current budget may have costly long-term consequences.

The problems are varied and often complex. The building may be an old, perhaps historical structure that defies modern codes. The buildings used are sometimes converted from

the original uses intended and simply cannot be comfortable or practical in their existing configurations. Frequently walls are removed and/or added to suit new tenants. The ventilation and air conditioning systems have been disrupted and become ineffective in some locations. Equipment and furniture in many areas are old and totally unsuited to the task. Of course, in many locations office workers are subject to "all of the above."

Upgraded technology in the office has served to create some unique problems. Have you noticed how frequently groups of people huddle around a computer discussing some developing program or the detailed-in-color-graph? This was not a common phenomenon around the old fashioned typewriter. Such groups can be disruptive to others working nearby. Upgraded technology is a prime contributor to an emerging set of problems that impact productivity, both in quality and quantity. These problems include: headaches, sore backs/necks/shoulders, eyestrain and pain in the hand and wrist. These are all related to ergonomic consideration surrounding the work station.

Now back to the original question. Does the work environment have an effect on productivity? It should be obvious that there is a direct impact; however, what may not be so obvious to many is what the impact is, what causes the problem and what can be done about it. This article will take a look at only a few of the prominent problems. We recognize the fact that this discussion is, of necessity, limited and recommend that office managers and workers conduct a more in-depth examina-

tion of their work place.

## Impact

To the degree that management works to fulfill the desires and needs of their employees, most employees will respond through positive work habits. Poor work environments are contrary to the basic needs and desires of people; therefore, where poor environments exist, poor morale, substandard attitudes and poor work habits will undoubtedly result.

Work quality is a close partner of efficiency and effectiveness. Work factors such as poor attitudes, distrust of management, fatigue, sore muscles, eyestrains or a multitude of others have a direct relationship to efficiency and effectiveness. This, of course, has an impact on quality production. Thus when adverse conditions prevail, quality production goes down. This "snowball" grows if allowed to continue. Costs of service or production increase, performance evaluations of managers and supervisors are negatively affected, organizational goals are compromised, personal and public image are impacted, exposure to liabilities tend to increase and . . . you can go on from here and add your own end results.

Among other real considerations that are more easily measured are absenteeism and increased illness, increased turnover and down time on machinery (which sometimes results from lack of prudent care or direct vandalism), decrease in workforce congeniality (including flare-ups) and an increase in work

error and/or accidents. Labor relations issues also arise from severe adverse environmental conditions.

## Prominent Sources of the Problem

### 1. *Manager/Employee Relationships*

We would be remiss if we did not briefly cover the worker/supervisor relationship. The way employees are treated by management is a major source of complaint about the office environment. We frequently hear that a major function of management is to motivate the employee to improve productivity. Since motivation is an internal thing and is consistently changing as circumstances change, managers can actually exert little influence directly on the employee. What the manager can do is to develop a work environment that meets employee needs. When basic needs are met, the employee is more likely to be self-motivated and prone to good work habits.

We conducted several surveys, as an adjunct to training in stress management, to ascertain the major complaints that employees have about management. The following is a list of a few of the more frequently repeated issues.

- They treat me like a child. I can do my job if they would only leave me alone.
- They interrupt my work and give me a new or changed assignment without asking me what I am doing or how important it is.
- I am never asked for my ideas. I have worked here for years and have many ideas on how it could be done better.

- It is the same old routine, day after day. I never get a chance to rise to my abilities and try something more challenging.

- They are quick to find fault—to point out my mistakes. No one ever gives praise or recognition for good work.

- The boss doesn't care about people like me. The only ones he ever talks to are the upper level professional staff.

Well, you get the picture. Office atmospheres that reflect these employee attitudes are more common than most of us like to imagine.

### 2. *Office atmosphere (Temperature, circulation, space)*

Any work area that is either too hot or too cold, where the air does not circulate adequately or where people are crowded together with no elbow room or easy access is an ineffective, low-production work environment. The government has established temperature levels that are considered too extreme under which employees may be excused. However, these levels are in themselves far beyond any normal comfort zone. Work effectiveness falls off long before the accepted dismissal point. In addition, extreme temperatures are common factors in office quarrels and loss of cooperativeness which disrupts production. It may be better for management to shut down an office rather than allow the irritations among employees to build up and create long-term disruption.

Poor air circulation is often caused by the redesign of open spaces into separate offices through the addition

of walls. Existing air system ducts were designed for the open areas. The added walls disrupt the normal air exchange and some of the newly developed offices have no ventilation. The location of the air exchange system should always be a factor in relocating internal walls.

Another problem related to the addition of walls is temperature control. In many buildings, especially older ones, the heating equipment is located on the exterior walls. When this equipment is enclosed by new walls there is an interruption in air flow. The peripheral offices are excessively hot or cold, while the internal offices are the opposite. When we add to this the tendency to cut off the system overnight and on weekends, temperature extremes in the morning or late afternoon are outside the comfort/effectiveness range.

One solution for this problem is to use dividers that do not extend from floor to ceiling. This allows for air movement throughout the area over the top of the divider. (A negative aspect to this approach is the problem of noise carrying over the divider along with the air.) Management should arrange for temperature control to extend for a longer day, i.e., turn the heat on earlier and turn it off later.

The ventilation problem is worsened in buildings, particularly high-use buildings, where the system is not adequate for the job. On-site tests run by government engineers and industrial hygienists in two high-rise buildings clearly show why ventilation may be poor. The equipment

in the systems was not adequate for the demands. The original design and selection was inferior so that at best, proper air flow was marginal. Maintenance of the equipment was also sub-standard and the system was only running at about 50 percent of its designed capacity. Simply upgrading maintenance would help markedly.

### 3. *The Work Station*

An office environment is characterized by persons seated in chairs before a desk or a table and using a variety of office machines. This environment is creating an ever increasing volume of complaints associated with fatigue, neck and back pain, eyestrain and fear of possible radiation from a computer screen (VDT). For the most part, these complaints have a basis in the design of the furniture and equipment and their relationship to the person. This is a part of the greater study of ergonomics or human factors engineering and is quite real. Studies conducted by the National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) have shown that properly constructed chairs can add as much as 40 minutes of productive work in an 8-hour day. Simply multiply this times the number of affected employees to get the big idea.

The following focuses on some of the key factors that contribute to an effective, ergonomically correct work station. This overview will consider lighting, the chair, keyboard height and screen viewing distance.

## **Light**

The operator of a VDT will

experience visual discomfort and fatigue (especially after prolonged periods) if exposed to too much contrast variation, too much light (or glare), fluctuations (tube flicker) and unclear display image.

The amount of illumination needed at the VDT will vary. Low levels of between 300-500 lux would appear to be adequate for VDT use; however, other visual tasks, like reading from hard copy, may require over 1,000 lux. NIOSH recommends that illumination levels of 500 to 700 lux be maintained in VDT areas with special care taken to insure high print and background contrast on the copy material (at least 5:1). If more light is needed at the copy stand, this should be obtained through the use of local illumination rather than illumination of the entire work area. Always take care that illumination does not produce glare.

Light sources for the VDT should come from the side rather than from overhead or behind the station where reflected images may show up on the screen. Provide windows with curtains or drapes to control excess sunlight and glare. It is helpful to avoid any high reflective surfaces in the work area without resorting to excessively dark color which may create a dismal work atmosphere. Hoods may be placed on the screen to help control glare from the top or side.

## **The Work Station**

There are four considerations of importance when looking at the work station: the chair, keyboard height, viewing angle and viewing distance. These factors are the lead-

ing culprits in developing backache, sore necks, cramped muscles in the thigh and calf, and other musculoskeletal afflictions including carpal tunnel syndrome. Since people come in varying heights and other body configurations, it is not possible to state some fixed furniture dimensions. To insure the best end results, it is best to design the work site to the person. This can be accomplished through the use of adjustable furniture.

If the keyboard is too high, the operator must hold the hands in an elevated position and bend the wrist to strike the keys. One result of this may be fatigue of the arm and shoulder muscles causing stiffness and pain. A more serious long-term consequence may be nerve and blood vessel injury affecting the hands and fingers. When the wrist is bent, possibly both vertically and latitudinally, the wrist may be deviated if the fingers are moving to strike the keys at the same time. That is, the tendons, nerves and blood vessels bunch up against each other. When this happens repeatedly, the ensuing friction may cause trauma and disease.

To overcome this problem, the keyboard should be arranged at approximately elbow height. This would mean an angle of between 80° and 120° between the upper and lower arms with the angle of the wrist no greater than  $\pm 10^\circ$  (Rebiffe—1969). The U.S. Military Standard establishes a height of 29¼ to 31 inches which is approximately the standard keyboard height in this country.

In any event, ensure that there is



ample room left for the operator's legs under the terminal, which is in part a function of the chair. The chair should be adjustable both in seat height and in the back rest. The back rest must be adjustable to provide support in the lumbar region if it is to do the job. If the chair has a full back rest, only the lumbar region should be in contact under normal operational conditions.

The thigh should be approximately parallel with the floor. If the chair is too high, the legs will have contact at the edge of the chair placing pressure on the blood vessels and nerve. This in turn will cause fatigue, pain and cramping. It is frequently helpful to place a foot rest under the desk to raise the knees and relieve the pressure from the edge of the chair. The best foot rests are built on an angle with a spring for light tension. It is also suggested by some studies that armrests be provided to allow the arms and wrists a place to rest. All chairs should be equipped with five castors for stability.

Incorrect viewing distance and angle to the screen has a pronounced influence on proper posture. This in turn has a bad effect on the muscles in the back of the neck. It is not good practice to have to look up or even horizontally from the eye to the screen. Nor is it good practice for the screen to be a distance from the eye that impairs clear delineation of the characters on the screen or the copy. Cakir (1979) recommends a viewing distance of 17¾ to 19¾ inches; however, this will be determined by the user.

It is recommended that the view-

ing screen be adjustable to allow for tilting to accommodate different users. The screen should be tilted to establish that the center of the screen is between 10° and 20° below the horizontal plane from the user's eye level. Another approach (Grandjean, 1980) is to arrange for the top line of the display to be between 10° and 15° below the horizontal, but with none of the screen below 40°. The work station should be equipped with a copy holder arranged in the proper angle from the eye. Place the copy holder near the VDT screen to reduce the need for visual search of the copy and of repeated change in visual direction.

A study in 1984, commissioned by the Massachusetts State Legislature and conducted by the Division of Occupational Hygiene, provided some interesting data on the users of VDTs compared to other office workers. Workers using VDTs from four to six hours per day showed a 60 percent higher rate of visual impairment than those who did not use VDTs. Musculoskeletal cases were 20 percent higher for VDTs for over seven hours per day. There were similar increases in reports of headache and various nervous disorders.

The proper installation and use of the VDT equipment can reduce these statistics markedly. Administrative controls such as changing shifts more frequently or simply getting away from the machine for 10 minutes will lower the stress levels. Simple exercises are available that will improve muscle tone and reduce muscle stiffness and soreness. Many of the exercises can be done at or

near the work station.

## Radiation

Operators throughout the country have expressed a fear of working with VDTs because of possible exposure to radiation. Although several nationally accepted studies have been conducted, this author knows of no study that shows a serious problem from radiation exposure. The Massachusetts study cited measured for radiation and found no levels above normal background at the operator stations. This normal background level is the general finding in other studies.

NIOSH is preparing to conduct an intensive study geared to measuring radiation exposure. The results, when published, will perhaps help to clear the way for a better understanding and relieve some fears.

## Noise

What is noise to one may be soothing or comforting to someone else. The sound of a siren may be comforting to the operator of an emergency vehicle because it helps to clear his path. The same siren to a pedestrian on a nearby sidewalk is loud, piercing and perhaps painful and irritating. Sounds we are familiar with are often better accepted than those that are not known to us.

The sounds coming from an office printer are accepted by the operator as an essential part of the job. However, to the person at the next desk it may be irritating, disruptive to concentration and can reduce productive output. There is also a

problem associated with needed privacy for some telephone conversations or business meetings.

When drawing up space plans for office furniture location, take into consideration the noise potential for the job. Equipment should be located where it will not be a nuisance to others and, if practical, totally isolated, as in a special machine room.

There are a number of approaches to controlling noise. Here are a few that are commonly used. A well-maintained machine is less likely to be noisy, so practice good maintenance policies. Some machinery, even typewriters, can be mounted on sound-absorbing buffers, e.g., felt pads or rubber insulators. Wall dressing materials are available that act to insulate sound, e.g., noise damping tile or curtains. Drapes suspended from the ceiling in the form of noise baffels are sometimes effective as are sound-insulating room dividers.

Another source of sound that is irritating to many persons is a radio playing. Witness how many people are annoyed by elevator music or music piped in to the telephone while you are on hold. Studies have shown that music of the proper type and used in the proper fashion can increase productivity. It is usually a poor practice to allow music in a work environment that is too loud or that has recognizable words. Persons normally are prone to think of the words (perhaps subconsciously) when they hear familiar music. This tends to interfere with concentration on the job. Loud music is generally poor under any circumstances for an office environment.

However, there are studies that indicate that some persons work better when there is a low-level distraction which requires more overt concentration on a task. A study conducted in an Arizona university suggests that functional background music can improve productivity. Such music is specifically developed for this purpose and has no words and no catchy beats or rhythms. The study involved starting the music about 15 to 20 minutes after the work day begins. The music was initiated with a slow, quiet tempo which was gradually and imperceptively increased in tempo for about one half to one hour. It was found that under these circumstances, as the tempo increased, the work level also increased (to a point, of course). As the morning passed and lunch time approached, the tempo slowly decreased and the music stopped at lunch time. The whole process was repeated in the afternoon with about the same result.

These findings are not surprising and tend to be in line with other studies that have established body rhythms that affect all of us. This body rhythm concept indicates that the music tempo should relate to the state of mind that exists and what state of mind is desired. It would be inappropriate to play a Charleston or rock music to a supervisor who is already irritated and whom you wish to calm down.

## Summary

An office atmosphere is a complex and increasingly demanding work environment. When allowed to go uncontrolled through poor ventila-

tion, temperature or space practices or when office equipment is not suitable for the job efficiency, effectiveness and work quality will suffer. When workers are not treated as responsible adults and allowed to exercise their abilities and talents, their production goes down.

Fortunately, these are all controllable factors. The office atmosphere is among the easiest of work environments to control if responsible persons understand and wish to take the initiative. The initial cost to establish a high quality office environment usually pays for itself in long-term gains in employee morale and increased productivity.

*Richard L. Wilburn is Chief, Branch of Safety Management for the National Park Service.*



# Interpreting Minorities and Women in the National Park System

by Barry Mackintosh

What do Booker T. Washington National Monument, San Antonio Missions National Historical Park, Canyon de Chelly National Monument, Thaddeus Kosciuszko National Memorial, Clara Barton National Historic Site and Ellis Island have in common? All are part of the National Park System and all address ethnic or racial minorities or women who have played significant roles in American history.

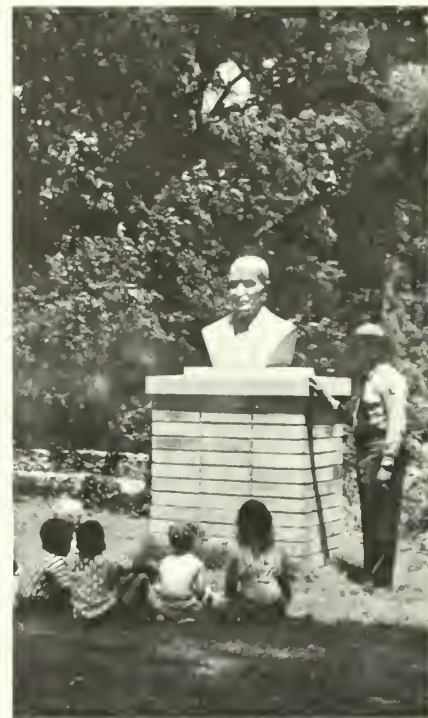
These places are but a sampling of the Park System units and affiliated areas with this focus. Indeed, more than half of the nearly 200 historical areas with which the National Park Service deals testify to the contributions of Indians, blacks, European and Asian immigrants, and women.

The ethnic and gender associations of many of these areas are obvious from their names or reputations. Booker T. Washington National Monument exists to commemorate one of the most prominent and influential black leaders in American history, at the site in Franklin County, Virginia, where he was born in slavery. A portion of the school he founded is preserved and interpreted within Tuskegee Institute National Historic Site, Alabama.

George Washington Carver National Monument is at the Missouri birthplace of another slave who joined Washington at Tuskegee and made valuable contributions to agricultural science and education. The Frederick Douglass Home in Washington, D.C., was the last residence of the great black abolitionist and civil rights spokesman.



*A statue of George Washington Carver as a boy and a bust of Carver in his later years.*



*National Park Service*

The most recent addition to the National Park System specifically honoring a famous black American is the Martin Luther King, Jr., National Historic Site in Atlanta, containing King's birthplace, church and grave.

A dozen other units of the System commemorating other aspects of American history nevertheless have important black associations. Black troops served prominently at Fort Davis, Texas, for example, and the first black unit to see combat in the Civil War trained at Fort Scott, Kansas. Both areas are now national historic sites. Blacks participated in battles commemorated at Jean Lafitte National Historical Park in Louisiana, Perry's Victory and International Peace Memorial on Lake Erie, and Petersburg and Richmond National Battlefields in Virginia. John Brown's

antislavery raid is a major theme of Harpers Ferry National Historical Park, West Virginia. And the Lincoln Memorial still reverberates from the voices of Marian Anderson and Martin Luther King, Jr.

The National Park Service has been responsible for places commemorating North America's first inhabitants ever since its creation in 1916. Perhaps the best known of these prehistoric areas is Mesa Verde National Park, Colorado, with its spectacular cliff dwellings. The Antiquities Act of 1906 authorized Presidents to proclaim such areas as national monuments, and many have been set aside in this manner. Canyon de Chelly National Monument, Arizona, reflects both prehistoric and contemporary Indian





*This diorama shows the capture of Fort Caroline by the Spanish.*

culture: containing village ruins dating from A.D. 350, it is occupied by modern Navajos. Indians still fashion traditional artifacts at Pipestone National Monument, Minnesota, where the Upper Midwest Indian Cultural Center enables craftsmen to demonstrate and display their work. At Cape Krusenstern National Monument, Alaska, 114 lateral beach ridges contain archeological remains illustrating Eskimo communities dating back four millennia.

Several areas depict native interaction with latter-day Americans, both hostile and peaceful. Custer Battlefield National Monument, Montana, preserves the most famous battleground of the Indian wars; while Hubbell Trading Post National Historic Site, Arizona, illustrates the

influence of reservation traders on the Indians' way of life. The battle is over at Custer, but trading continues at Hubbell. In all, some three dozen System units portray the saga of America's original inhabitants and their descendants—more than interpret any other ethnic minority.

Another important body of sites commemorates the nation's rich Hispanic heritage. There are national memorials for the 16th-century explorers Hernando de Soto (in Florida) and Francisco Coronado (in Arizona) and a national monument for Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo in San Diego. San Juan National Historic Site, Puerto Rico, preserves the oldest fortifications in United States territory. Castillo de San Marcos National Monument in St. Augustine, Florida, is a vivid reminder that

the first permanent European settlement in the continental United States was Spanish. The prominent role of Spanish missions in the Southwest is manifest at Tumacacori National Monument, Arizona; Pecos and Salinas National Monuments, New Mexico; and San Antonio Missions National Historical Park, Texas.

French explorers and settlers left less evidence of their presence than did the Spanish, but several Park System areas tell their story. Among them are Fort Caroline National Memorial, Florida, commemorating the 1564 French settlement that prompted Spain to establish St. Augustine the following year; Saint Croix Island International Historic Site, Maine, where France began to colonize that region in 1604; and Arkansas Post National Memorial, Arkansas, commemorating the first permanent French settlement in the lower Mississippi Valley (1686).

As with the second tier of black-related areas mentioned above, many sites have less obvious but no less meaningful ethnic ties. Golden Spike National Historic Site, Utah, interprets the completion of the first transcontinental railroad—a feat accomplished through the labor of thousands of Chinese immigrants. Similarly, mostly Irish laborers dug the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, whose remains are preserved in the national historical park of that name in Washington, D.C. and Maryland. The role of the Polish military engineer Thaddeus Kosciuszko is interpreted at Saratoga National Historical Park, New York, and Ninety Six National Historic Site, South Carolina, both containing Revolutionary War battlefields he

fortified, as well as at Thaddeus Kosciuszko National Memorial in Philadelphia.

Women are primary subjects at five units of the Park System and two affiliated areas (assisted but not administered by the National Park Service). Clara Barton National Historic Site in Maryland commemorates the founder of the American Red Cross; Eleanor Roosevelt National Historic Site contains the Hyde Park hideaway of the famous first lady; Maggie L. Walker National Historic Site is the Richmond, Virginia, home of a prominent black businesswoman and community leader; Whitman Mission National Historic Site, Washington, is where Narcissa and Marcus Whitman ministered to the Indians on the Oregon Trail; and Women's Rights National Historical Park in Seneca Falls, New York, includes the home of Elizabeth Cady Stanton and other places related to the early women's rights movement. The affiliated areas, both in Washington, D.C., are Mary McLeod Bethune Council House National Historic Site, home of a leading black women's organization, and Sewall-Beimont House National Historic Site, headquarters of an organization active in the women's suffrage movement.

The increased presence of female interpreters at many historical parks since the mid-1960s has broadened what is interpreted there. At Morristown National Historical Park, New Jersey, they have conducted special programs on women in the Revolution—both camp followers and those left to manage family



*Living history programs at Booker T. Washington National Monument, Va.*

on battle tactics and more on the battles' effects on homes and communities. At Klondike Gold Rush National Historical Park they have included the story of women in the Alaska gold rush.

Reflecting the nation's growing sensitivity to the contributions of minorities and women, many of the areas specifically addressing them are relatively recent additions to the National Park System, and much interpretation of minority and female roles at other areas is recent as well. However, in atoning for past sins of omission, there is danger that the new interpretation may inflate or overly dramatize what was previously minimized or ignored. Visitors to Maggie Walker's home were initially told—incorrectly—that she was the first woman president of an American financial institution, while female interpreters dipping candles and baking bread in "living history" demonstrations at certain Revolutionary War battlefields may have conveyed the impression that such domestic activities were more important there than the fighting. Accuracy, appropriateness, perspective and balance are universal requirements, regardless of subject matter. As long as these essentials are adhered to, the expanded interpretation of minorities and women will continue to enlighten and inspire national park visitors.

farms while the men were away fighting. At Civil War battlefields like Gettysburg and Pea Ridge National Military Parks, they have focused less

*Barry Mackintosh is the Bureau Historian with the National Park Service.*



Program evaluation is not new to the National Park Service. It is certainly not new to well managed organizations. All successful organizations have established procedures for evaluating their functions and how well they carry them out. The most successful managers make extensive use of program evaluation so they can accomplish the goals and objectives of their organizations in the most efficient way.

The National Park Service has included operations evaluation as an element in its management system for many years. However, a manual for organizing the approach to operations evaluation had never been developed until 1983. Until that time, the success of any operations evaluation program depended on the skills, technical knowledge and experience of the individuals performing those evaluations. Because the approach was frequently disorganized and sometimes arbitrary, the evaluations were never institutionalized. They had their highs and lows, depending on the ability of those assigned responsibility for evaluation. As a consequence, a large percentage of managers did not accept the results of the operations evaluations.

## Concept

The National Park Service is evaluated daily by park visitors, other agencies, park staff, adjacent communities, Congress and the Administration. If all these people evaluate the parks and how well we maintain them, it is easy to understand why more emphasis should be placed on formal, organized evaluations.



*Resources are inspected for condition and maintenance program with Superintendent Ann Belkov, Chickamauga-Chattanooga National Military Park.*

National Park Service

Every time we alter the way we do business because of outside interests, the Park Service loses some management flexibility. In 1983, the Park Service's Southeast Regional Office decided to institute an organized and active Operations Evaluation Program. The program had the following objectives:

1. Develop a uniform procedure to provide park management with an assessment of how well the resources (money/people) are being managed; and
2. Develop a uniform procedure to provide park management with assessments of how well the park's natural and cultural resources are being protected and how well the visitors are being served.

In addition to these objectives,

Southeast Regional management also felt that the Operations Evaluation Program should be a key element of the overall management system and should provide its field managers with program direction and enhanced interoffice communications.

The primary goal of the evaluation procedure was to make it as objective as possible, with emphasis on program evaluation rather than personal attitudes. To accomplish such a program, it was necessary to develop common definitions, common standards, and common resource inventory and workload factors.

This common language made it possible for all levels of management to communicate more effectively. As a result, the expected levels of performance were more clearly understood by supervisors and



employees. While the development of an operations evaluation manual is important, it is just as important to instill a positive approach by the operations evaluation team. The Evaluation Team must gain the confidence of the park staff by carefully examining the inventory and workload factors prior to the evaluation. The first impression of the team is important. The park staff should get the impression that the Evaluation Team has done its homework and is thoroughly familiar with the park's operations prior to the evaluation. The team must make it clear to the park staff that the evaluation process is not a faultfinding exercise.

When problems or shortcomings are identified, the group must communicate a feeling that this is "our problem" and not just "your problem." The park staff should understand that when an evaluation is performed in their park, it also represents an evaluation of the Regional Office and the quality of service provided by the Regional Office staff.

The Evaluation Team must assure the park staff there is no hidden agenda. This can be accomplished by evaluating the park's programs against the standards in the Operations Evaluation Manual—and nothing else.

The selection of Evaluation Team members is a critical decision. It is important for top managers to be involved, because of the impression conveyed to the park staff that evaluation programs are vital and that their particular programs are important to management. Team members, as discussed above, must

convey a positive attitude, understand general park operations and the programs that they are evaluating.

The park staff must have confidence in each team member's ability to evaluate programs objectively. Each member must be able to function as a team player. Many times the park Superintendent and the Regional Director both understand that particular areas in a park operation have shortcomings and need an in-depth evaluation. In these situations, it is most important that the team members selected, to look at these problem areas are recognized as the leaders in this particular discipline.

### **Team Selection**

Various approaches of team selection are:

- a. All Regional Office staff—Team consists of Regional Office personnel.
- b. Permanent Evaluation staff—Team employed specifically for performing evaluations.
- c. Regional Office and field employees—Experience has proven that the most successful team makeup consists of a mixture of Regional Office staff and individuals from the field areas. This approach allows for the changing of team members for each evaluation. This flexibility to change team members makes it possible to match the collective skills and expertise of a team to the needs of each park.

### **Process**

The Operations Evaluation process

includes the following steps:

1. Operations Evaluation Package is sent to the park. The park staff completes the inventory and workload factors and returns it to the Regional Office.
2. The Evaluation Team reviews the information prior to the evaluation.
3. The Evaluation Team meets with the Superintendent and his key staff to explain the evaluation process and answer questions. During this meeting, it is important for the Superintendent and his or her staff to express their concerns to the Evaluation Team. This is the first opportunity for the Evaluation Team to develop a good working relationship and gain the confidence of the park staff.
4. Each Evaluation Team member is assigned a division to evaluate. The team member discusses the operation of the division and other park concerns with the Division Chief using the general discussion questions provided in the manual.
5. The team members observe the activities and conditions of the facility, review written material and discuss the operations with appropriate staff to determine if the program areas meet the standards. During the evenings, all members of the Evaluation Team meet to discuss, as a group, the major conditions they observed that

day. The consensus of the Evaluation Team is important in finalizing the report and developing recommendations.

6. An exit interview is conducted with the park's key staff to review and explain the findings. The recommendations must be discussed during that exit interview. Under **no** circumstances is there to be a recommendation included in the final review that was not discussed with the park staff. The exit interview also provides an opportunity to recognize the positive aspects of park operations.
7. Under each program category and sub-program category, team members must complete the "Comments" and "Suggestions for Improvement" sections of those sheets. The "Comments" section should describe each program category and sub-program category as they are functioning. In the "Suggestions for Improvement" section, the evaluator should discuss those areas where the standards are not being fully met, or suggestions that the staff has the option of implementing.
8. Specific recommendations are developed based on the findings. Each recommendation should be discussed fully under "Suggestions for Improvement." For each recommendation, responsibility is assigned and a time frame established for completion. The full report and recommendations are then sent back to the park Superintendent for action. The report is circulated in the Regional Office.

Those recommendations requiring action by the Regional Office are sent to the responsible Associate Regional Director.

9. The park Superintendent provides the Regional Director with a progress report. When all recommendations have been completed, a final report is submitted.

### **Follow-up**

Follow-up to Operations Evaluation is essential to a good evaluation program. The reply to the recommendations is thoroughly reviewed as the first step in the follow-up procedure.

Follow-up visits to parks by Regional Managers are also conducted. These visits are not made for all evaluations. Parks that have a large number of recommendations and the need for support from Regional Office personnel may be selected for follow-up visits when a more detailed review is needed to correct serious deficiencies and to verify completed action. Individuals with the proper background and knowledge are assigned the responsibility for conducting these detailed reviews.

The Personnel Management Evaluation Team (and other specialized teams) will coordinate with the Operations Evaluation Team to review the recommendations and the reported corrected actions. The Team Leader then provides a final report to Regional Management.

### **Concept as Seen by Oversight Groups**

General Accounting Office and

other oversight groups involved in audits of park areas have been impressed by and very complimentary of the Operations Evaluation Program. Some of these audit groups have indicated that they would take the evaluation reports and conduct follow-ups to see if recommendations have been carried out as part of their audit process.

### **Acceptance of the Evaluation Process**

Because of the objective approach, with constructive criticism dealing with park findings based on program standards instead of personalities, the program has been highly successful and field managers look forward to Operations Evaluation. This process allows the field manager to:

1. Open channels of communication with the Regional Office staff, as well as their own employees,
2. Communicate and show Regional management the successful and positive aspects of their operation,
3. Communicate and show the most pressing needs of the park, and
4. Have an opportunity to participate in other park evaluations, providing an excellent opportunity for sharing ideas.

### **Findings and Results**

During the first evaluations we found very lax internal control procedures. Work scheduling practices

# Riverside Park Gains Second Life

by Dolores M. Mescher

were not good. There was no uniformity of scheduling procedures or techniques. Few parks had a scheduling program that included tracking time. Setting priorities and establishing goals and objectives were not developed and communicated to the park staff. Poor communication was evident between divisions. Proper equipment was not being purchased for the most cost-effective/efficient method of completing tasks. Many obvious safety problems were overlooked. The Regional Office was not always providing quality service to the parks. Communication from Regional Office staff needed improvement.

Since the development of the first Operations Evaluation Manual in the Southeast Region, the manual has been revised and is currently being used by all regions in the National Park Service. All parks in the Southeast Region have been evaluated. The program has proven to be successful, since we are not finding the same kinds of problems during the second evaluation. Park staffs are much more candid when they realize that Operations Evaluation is a *tool* for problem solving and a method of receiving assistance from the Regional Office. Sometimes, as employees of a central office, we lose the concept of the reasons we have regional offices. The Operations Evaluation process provides regional office personnel a better understanding of their role . . . to be of assistance and help meet the needs of the field areas.

*Jack Ogle is deputy regional director of the National Park Service's Southeast Region in Atlanta, Georgia.*

Allegheny County is a very nice, affordable place to live for the employed, but for the unemployed the situation is dismal. McKeesport, Pennsylvania is set in the "Mon Valley" where the Monongahela and the Youghiogheny Rivers join to become the Ohio River. The valley has been the site of heavy steel industry for generations and in recent years this industry has all but disappeared, leaving behind a population largely made up of the unemployed, senior citizens on fixed incomes and people on public assistance who live in federally subsidized housing.

Historically, the Allegheny County Department of Development Municipal Recreation Program has provided local facilities for recreation and has relied on the jurisdictions to provide the recreation programming at the facilities. Clearly, the economic situation in the McKeesport area has not allowed for the provision of such luxuries at a time when it can barely support the necessities of basic police and fire protection. Yet the opportunity to attend and participate in social events is an important factor in helping to maintain a positive and healthy attitude and a sense of belonging to a community.

In an effort to improve the quality of life in a rapidly deteriorating area, the Allegheny County Department of Development conceived, with the help of a UPARR Innovation Grant, "Riverfront Resources: A Community Partnership." This project was designed to transfer the responsibility for providing programming from the local government to a community organization. An existing, but underused, riverfront park would be

the location for the programming effort.

As conceived by the planners, the program would be developed through a Community Action Committee and a County Project Team which would coordinate management strategies, with help from professional consultants, community organizers and interns, to provide assistance in fundraising and to promote and encourage grassroots activities. The Allegheny Department of Parks, Bureau of Cultural Affairs would expand existing resources to train neighborhood organizations to initiate local performances and activities. Community Incentive Grants (CIG) were designed to assist neighborhood organizations to develop fundraising campaigns which would, in turn, stimulate new and increased sources of private income to provide ongoing programming in the riverfront park. The committee planned to solicit proposals from community groups and would give priority to those which emphasized theme and citizen participation and showed a clear and realistic sense of direction. The average grant would provide five dollars for every dollar raised, with the maximum grant dependent on the total needs of the applicant.

An evaluation component was included in the grant to judge the effectiveness of the project and to provide a demonstration package for other riverfront organizations throughout Allegheny County.

## Riverfront Is Focal Point

The focal point of the project was Gergely Riverfront Park which was



built in 1980 and extends for four narrow blocks along the waterfront; it had been, at best, a passive recreation area. Most people who lived in McKeesport and its environs were not even aware that the park existed, while the surrounding neighborhood used it primarily as a hangout for drinking. It is not surprising that it was subject to vandalism. The park is separated from the depressed downtown area of McKeesport by an economically distressed neighborhood dominated by a public housing project and a regional facility for the indigent elderly and handicapped.

Although the location on the waterfront is attractive to many people, the surrounding area has been almost a barrier in the minds of the residents; part of the challenge was to find a way to overcome this attitude by creating programming so inviting and stimulating that it could not be resisted.

The initial effort to develop a Community Action Committee (CAC) brought forth a great deal of pessimism from McKeesport's city officials and negative feedback from the community groups whose support was essential to the success of the project. Undeterred, the Allegheny County planners began an effort to sell their program to the community. They met with city officials, set up forums with members of the Chamber of Commerce, YMCA, YWCA and the library, which led to meetings with other community groups, and eventually they were able to organize the committee. The CAC formed a non-profit corporation, received tax-exempt status and recruited a 21-member board which named the project the

Mon-Yough Riverfront Entertainment & Cultural Council (MY-REC). MY-REC's first task was to hire a project director.

The board chose well and the success of the project is, in large part, the direct result of their choice: "a go-getting self-starter" who had developed a recreation program in her own community.

### Getting the Ball Rolling

It soon became apparent that the project had been too large in scope for the resources available in McKeesport. There were no community organizations willing, or remotely able, to participate in sponsoring any activities for the project; feeling toward the park was so negative that the possibility of an incentive grant had no impact.

The project director got consultation help and advice from the Pittsburgh Parks and Recreation Department; however, the feeling there was that the project would "never get off the ground." Since no proposals were forthcoming, the project director "went around on (her) knees" begging local merchants and others to participate. Fortunately, it was the centennial year of the local newspaper and its management saw the possibilities in holding their celebration in the park. They also were so taken with the project that they provided excellent publicity for all the events and donated \$5,000 for advertising.

The planners realized that they had to provide the first events to catch and hold the public interest. In April, 1984, they held a "Kite Day,"

which included kite construction (featured kites made by the patients in the hospital and area children), demonstrations and a contest in the park, sponsored by the local McDonalds' franchise holders. The event got moral support from the newspaper and the Downtown Merchants' Association (DMA), but it was only a marginal success for attendance was lower than planners hoped.

Everything rested on the success of the first full-scale event planned for the Memorial Day weekend. The planners targeted 34 municipalities in the Mon Valley and prepared resolutions for each governing body to adopt the weekend as "MY-REC Days." The resolutions were proclaimed and publicized throughout the county. The county's Departments of Maintenance, Parks, Health, Development, Sheriff and Police all pitched in and helped spruce up the park to make it ready for the Memorial Day Weekend Celebration. The planners even had buses standing by to bring in groups of senior citizens if necessary—they had to have a crowd!

### Events Draw Crowds

The event became a Cinderella story. The Saturday noon kick-off, with many municipal officials present, began in the rain. By 3 p.m. the sun came out, the people began to flow in on foot and by boat—with 25,000 people attending, it was not necessary to call up the buses; success was assured.

The success of the kick-off led to four months of successful events:

Riverfront Lunchtime Series (16 noon-time events featuring jazz, folk and rock music, mime and dance groups—brought 400-1,000 people into the business district for each event); The Daily News Centennial Celebration drew 15,000 in spite of being partially rained out; Country Jamboree and Sidewalk Sales, a 3-day cooperative program with the DMA; an evening performance of "Candide"; Lamb Feast, created to compensate for the rain-out; Laborfest, co-sponsored by the steelworkers' union, local TV and the county, drew 30,000 for Labor Day; and Sundays in September, a concert series, brought 1,100 people to each Sunday evening program.

In addition to providing varied and innovative programming, the project has contributed to a spirit of sharing and cooperation among community groups, the city and local businesses. Through the CIG program the local organizations contributed a total of \$36,375 and the grant provided matching funds totaling \$17,137 in the first year. During 1985 the CIG program increased dramatically to include 11 organizations which contributed \$41,383 and the grant provided matching funds of \$24,019.

The project director had CETA help from young people in the nearby project, paid teen volunteers \$10/day, thereby winning their devotion, and bought materials for wooden booths built by the local vocational high school volunteers. The Pittsburgh National Bank donated advertising worth more than \$3,000 and supplied the drawing that is now the logo for the project. The

county is putting more than \$150,000 into additional improvements to the park; including a permanent stage, increased seating, a permanent refreshment stand and underground cables for lighting.

Senior citizens distributed a survey questionnaire which evaluated the impact of the project. Results indicated that the programs were a success, that there was a desire for more evening programming and that more people were visiting the city more often. The events were thought to be well planned, appropriate and encouraged people to shop in McKeesport for the first time.

### Programming Expands

Programming for 1985 was bigger and better—more groups were involved, more varied programs were presented and were based on the results of the evaluation. Meetings were held with the merchants during the winter months to seek input concerning their needs. A new S.E.E. McKeesport (Shopping, Eating, Entertainment) event evolved and promoted evening shopping hours. Eight Thursday evening programs highlighted ethnic food and dance. An "I Love McKeesport" week was dedicated to the business district. Balloons, buttons and discount coupons were distributed for use at the riverfront carnival. The "Wind, Wheels & Water Festival" featured events utilizing the river as the main stage.

Since there are no movie theaters within the city limits, a 10' x 14' screen was borrowed from the Pittsburgh Parks and Recreation Department for Wide-Screen Wed-

nesdays. "Jaws" and "The Sting" were resounding successes, but the classic "Some Like It Hot" flopped. The project director is experimenting with programming and does not mind learning from her rare failures. She is also learning grantsmanship and her "Community Partnership" proposal has already brought \$10,000 from the Pittsburgh National Charitable Trust for the 1986 season, while five other foundations are reviewing her proposal.

The project has been unexpectedly successful in bringing people from the more affluent areas into the park, and the planners have learned that the program determines the crowd. The McKeesport Symphony draws the "suit and tie set" and local groups are now supporting fundraising dinners before the performances. Vandalism disappeared as the surrounding community began to watch over the waterfront and a few new small businesses started up in downtown McKeesport as a direct result of the MY-REC influence on the area. The project that would never get off the ground "has been a shining light" and has rekindled economic hope for the people of the Mon Valley.

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Yosemite, CA 95389

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3. The ideas expressed in this sec-  
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4. There are numerous textbooks  
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Clark Watts, M.D.  
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