


***OUTDOOR RECREATION AND WILDERNESS IN AMERICA:
BENEFITS AND HISTORY***

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Invited Papers:

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The text that follows was provided by three prominent scientists who are highly respected colleagues. They each have worked in the areas of outdoor recreation and wilderness for many years. Their coverages of the benefits from and histories of outdoor recreation and wilderness are meant to provide the broad context within which we subsequently examine, in depth, trends and futures in demand and supply.

If no one believed outdoor recreation and wilderness provided benefits, then obviously public funding and private investments would not occur on the vast scale they now occur. In fact, no one believes such benefits do not exist. Some of these benefits are pretty obvious and immediate. Recreation is fun and enjoyed instantly; it can fill voids people perceive in their lives. Other benefits are less obvious; they often accrue steadily over time and are more indirect. Building valued memories and better health are among these less obvious and less immediate benefits. Dr. Bev Driver has devoted many years of study to the topic of benefits. The following article he has provided is based on his and others' work to better understand the benefits of outdoor recreation and how improved understanding of them can help aid in building better management strategies.

The histories which follow Dr. Driver's paper are contributed by two very knowledgeable scientists and highly valued colleagues. Dr. Bob Douglas writes of the rich history of outdoor recreation in the United States and traces how Americans' view of it has changed from the formative years to now. In a very real sense, the overall national assessment this book represents is the latest chronicle of the continuing story of outdoor recreation. Sometime in the future, this work, too, will be read for its historical value.

Dr. John Loomis provides a brief tracing of wilderness in the United States. There was a time when EuroAmerican eyes viewed the whole continent of North America as wilderness. Now, wilderness is remnant patches of public land mostly in remote places.

With Drs. Driver's, Douglas', and Loomis' contributions thus acknowledged, we launch this fourth national *Assessment of Outdoor Recreation and Wilderness*.

—Ken Cordell, Principal Investigator for *Outdoor Recreation in American Life*

MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC OUTDOOR RECREATION AND RELATED AMENITY RESOURCES FOR THE BENEFITS THEY PROVIDE

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Introduction and Purposes

Historically, every nation has used its natural resources to meet multiple social needs. In the United States, such an orientation to that country's renewable natural resources (also referred to here as the hinterland, wildlands, or just the land including water) is called multiple-use management, which represents how that nation's hinterlands are generally managed by both private enterprises and public agencies to accommodate a wide range of human needs and values. In fact, few, if any, wildlands are managed for a single use, even though some private firms and some public agencies emphasize a narrower set of uses and values than others, even though some land areas are managed for highly restricted uses (e.g., designated wilderness areas and a mineral deposit that will be exploited for its valuable ores and then restored). But beyond these restrictive uses, those areas provide multiple benefits to society because they also serve as habitats for wildlife, provide



Hikers trek the Appalachian Trail through the north Georgia mountains, circa 1936. Photo courtesy of the Hargrett Rare Book and Manuscript Library, University of Georgia.

opportunities for some types of outdoor recreation, and protect watersheds.

While our nation's privately and publicly managed renewable resources have always provided outdoor recreation and related nature-based amenity services under multiple-use management, the prominence of these uses has been gradually increasing since the end of World War II. However, only recently have these uses been recognized as the dominant ones of many public lands and as a very important use of many private wildlands.

For example, the USDA Forest Service now acknowledges recreation as a dominant use of the National Forests. The reported number of recreation visits to the National Forests has increased from 560 million in 1980 to about 860 million in 1996 (Dombeck, 1997a). Because that agency is the single biggest provider of outdoor recreation opportunities in the nation, it is reorienting its management to better accommodate these amenity uses. Mike Dombeck, Chief of the U.S. Forest Service, recently explained the need for this reorientation by saying "Today, society's priorities are shifting. Our management priorities must keep pace with . . . society's values" (1997b). This changing orientation applies both to private and public wildland management.

This chapter plays on the theme that management of wildlands must accommodate the shifting social values and priorities referred to by Dombeck. The focus is on those changing social values that have impacted management of wildlands and what those impacts have been. The chapter contains four sections after this introductory one.

- The first section proposes that the clear trend in society of people trying to increase the quality of their lives has significantly impacted management of all recreation resources, including wildland recreation resources for four reasons:
 - (1) More people sense that recreation services contribute strongly to the quality of their lives.
 - (2) This awareness has caused dramatic increases in demands for recreation services, including those provided on wildlands.

- (3) This awareness has helped cause significantly increased public understanding of the wide scope, great magnitude, and pervasiveness of the benefits that accrue from the provision and use of recreation services.
 - (4) The public now expects managers of recreation resources to provide not only recreation activity opportunities, but also to provide "benefit opportunities." A discussion of the nature, scope, and magnitudes of these benefits of leisure services leads to two bold propositions:
 - (1) Leisure services provide more total benefits to society than any other social service.
 - (2) The "leisure services sector" is the largest sector of the U.S. economy.
- The second section narrows the focus to the benefits of wildland recreation. It considers whether any of the benefits of recreation described in the previous sections can be attributed uniquely to our nation's renewable natural resources and must be provided on those resources.
 - The third section of the chapter describes how the growing recreation use of wildland and other recent changes in society have impacted the management of wildlands. It describes these other social changes and the consequent slow, but perceptible, changes they are causing in private and public wildland management. One such change is the recent implementation of science-based amenity resource management systems designed to accommodate changing social values. A system, called Benefits-Based Management (BBM), is described because it helps to optimize realization of the benefits of recreation.
 - The chapter ends with a brief consideration of future directions and issues related to capturing the benefits of outdoor recreation and related nature-based amenities.

In this discussion of wildland recreation services, no distinction is made between public and private land or between different jurisdictions of public land.

Because many of the amenities provided on wildlands cannot strictly be defined as recreation (e.g., nature-based renewal of the human spirit or psychological attachment to a special place), the words *outdoor recreation and related nature-based amenities*, or just *amenity services* will be used to more accurately represent the services being considered. For a detailed discussion of these amenity values, see Driver, Dustin, Baltic, Elsner, and Peterson (1996).

Growing Recognition of the Social Significance of Leisure

Shifting Social Priorities

Several significant social priorities have shifted in the past decade:

- Political authority and action have shifted from the federal government to state and local governments.
- Stakeholders are demanding to be involved in environmental decision-making, and voters expect all units of government to be more efficient, cost-effective, responsive, and accountable.
- People are increasingly concerned about the quality of their lives and committing increasing amounts of personal resources to improve that quality. Together, these factors have caused people to demand and exercise more control over their lives to enhance its quality.

Shifting of authority and power to state and local governments has not yet significantly affected the provision of leisure services. Demands for increased public involvement in park and recreation decisions have led to collaborative partnerships with stakeholders. For example, the U.S. Forest Service now uses the term *collaborative stewardship* to capture its current management philosophy. This public involvement has provided better opportunities for the public to express to the land managers the types of goods and services they prefer, including opportunities to realize specific types of benefits.

People also have become more introspective, now consciously evaluating positive and negative impacts of alternative choices and behaviors. Most people now consider the following contributors to the quality of their lives: good nutrition, physical exercise, avoiding substance abuse (including alcohol and tobacco), managing stress, networking that provides social support and cohesion (including trying to retain a perceived loss of sense of community), seeking and using "alternative" medical practices (e.g., acupuncture, use of proven herbal remedies, massage, etc.), and exploring alternative means of finding and expanding the spiritual meanings of their lives (including the growing use of natural areas for spiritual renewal) (Driver, et al., 1996).

Analysis of positive and negative consequences of alternative personal behaviors to the quality of one's life has pervaded leisure behavior in two significant ways. First, people are more serious about how they can

balance their work with their leisure. Levels of economic security remain fairly high for most people and time available for leisure has tended to increase, but in smaller blocks of time (Robertson & Godbey, 1997). For example, a national household telephone survey conducted during January and February 1992 (Godbey, Graefe, & James, 1992, p. 25) found that only 35 percent of the respondents said that their work was more important to them than their leisure. Thirty-eight percent said work and leisure were equally important, and 26 percent said leisure was most important. In a 1989 national survey (Roper, 1990), 41 percent responded that leisure was most important, 36 percent said work was most important, and 23 percent said both were of equal importance. Despite their slight discrepancies, these two surveys document that 64-73 percent of the U.S. population perceive leisure to be at least as important as their work. One can assume these data reflect a strong correlation between leisure and perceived quality of life. Such a relationship was documented by a recent survey by Roper Starch Worldwide, Inc. of 2,000 households conducted in April 1994. The report, *Outdoor Recreation In America: A 1994 Survey for the Recreation Roundtable* (The Recreation Roundtable, 1994, p. 61) states "Americans who recreate regularly are consistently more apt to be completely satisfied with virtually all aspects of their lives compared to people who recreate infrequently or not at all."

The second impact of people analyzing the consequences of their leisure behaviors is that many people now have a fairly clear understanding of the consequences of alternative leisure options; they understand the benefits and costs (see Chapter V) (Godbey, et al., 1992; Driver, Tinsley, & Manfredo, 1991). This increased awareness of the benefits has contributed to growing levels of recreational use, to more clearly articulated demands by the public for specific types of benefits, and, slowly but surely, to managers of park and recreation resources adopting management systems, such as Benefits-Based Management (BBM), that accommodate these demands.

Scope and Magnitude of the Benefits of Leisure in General

This section examines the nature and scope of the benefits of leisure. While it would be desirable to focus only on the benefits of outdoor recreation, that is impossible. Such an attempt would be subjective, speculative, and overly qualitative because there are few benefits of leisure that, when taken singly, can be attributed to a particular recreational setting. Put differently, each identified benefit of leisure can be realized in indoor as well as outdoor settings. For that reason, this discussion will first consider the benefits of all types of leisure activities and then attempt to relate those benefits to outdoor recreation. Prior to that, some basic concepts and definitions must be established.

There has been considerable confusion about what is meant by a benefit of leisure. To help prevent that confusion, the developers of the BBM system defined the three types of leisure benefits.

- A change in the condition of individuals, groups of individuals (a family, a community, society at large, or the natural environment) that is viewed as more desirable than the previously existing condition. Examples include improved health, a more economically stable local community, and improved habitat for a species of wildlife.
- The maintenance of a desired condition and therefore the prevention of an unwanted condition. Examples include maintenance of health, pride in local community, and an erosion-free trail.
- The realization of a satisfying psychological recreation experience, such as mental relaxation, closer family bonds, learning of many types, tranquility, enjoying natural scenery, and testing, applying, and/or developing one's skills. See Driver and Bruns (in press) for an elaboration of these three benefits of leisure.

These definitions are meant to include all benefits realized both on and off the recreation sites. They include effects on stakeholders, such as local business enterprises and local communities, and on the biophysical environment. Benefits can be psychological, physiological, social, economic, or environmental. They may be immediate (learning new things about a particular culture or subculture at a particular heritage site) or delayed (greater pride in one's locale, region, or nation because of accumulated increased historical cultural understanding and personal reflection about that knowledge). And one type of benefit (relaxation from a demanding job) can lead to another benefit (increased quality or quantity of work performance), which in turn can lead to other benefits (increased job satisfaction and maybe increased income). See Driver, Tinsley, and Manfredo (1991) for a discussion of this "benefit chain of causality." Of course, managers must also consider negative outcomes of recreation experiences. In fact, they must try to optimize net benefits, or positive outcomes minus negative outcomes.

Until the early 1980s, research on the benefits of leisure focused on cardiovascular benefits of physical exercise, promotion of self-concept, promotion of positive character traits, economic benefits of tourism, and economic value of nonmarket services such as outdoor recreation. The motivations for recreation choices were studied.

Scientific concerns about the benefits of leisure have recently increased rapidly. Since 1992, two national household surveys have provided useful anecdotal and other documentation that the public values its leisure pursuits highly. Several reports have documented the state of knowledge about the benefits. The results of the national surveys and of systematic research that evaluates specific types of benefits will be reviewed separately.

Results of National Household Surveys on Benefits: Two national household surveys have considered the benefits of leisure: (1) the study by Godbey, Graefe, and James (1992) entitled *The Benefits of Local Recreation and Park Services: A Nationwide Study of The Perceptions of the American Public*; and (2) the survey by Roper Starch Worldwide, Inc. done for The Recreation Roundtable (1994). The second will be reviewed in the next section.

The Godbey et al. (1992) survey was done for the National Parks and Recreation Association. In January and February of 1992, telephone interviews were conducted with a nationally representative sample of 1,305 individuals aged 15 and over. Interviews were followed by a mailed questionnaire to obtain additional information. The questionnaire was sent to 882 of those telephoned. Some key findings are:

- 75 percent of the respondents reported that they used local recreation and park services. Fifty-one percent reported they used them occasionally and 24 percent said they used them frequently.
- Respondents were asked to report benefits they perceived to themselves individually, to their households, and to their local communities. By degree of benefit, the percentage responses were as follows.

<u>Degree</u>	<u>Individual</u>	<u>Household</u>	<u>Community</u>
No Benefit	16.3%	20.8%	5.6%
Some Benefit	47.0%	47.9%	33.1%
Great Benefit	36.7%	31.3%	61.3%

Thus, 83.7, 79.2, and 94.4 percent perceived some to great benefits for them individually, for their households, and for their local communities, respectively. Interestingly, 61.3 percent perceived great benefit to their local communities.

- Both users and nonusers were asked about the benefits they perceived, and surprisingly 71 percent of the nonusers reported perceived benefits to themselves, their households, or their local communities.
- Respondents who perceived benefits were asked to name the most important benefit they received and then to list the additional benefits they perceived for themselves, for their households, and for their local communities. Space limitations prevent a listing of these specific types of benefits. Suffice it to say now that results from Godbey et al. (1992) support the underlying contention of this chapter, which is that benefits of leisure are very broad and very large.

Results of Systematic Research on Specific Benefits

Since 1991, three publications have comprehensively documented results of systematic research on specific types of benefits. They are the *Benefits of Leisure* (Driver, Brown, & Peterson, 1991), *The Benefits of Parks and Recreation: A Catalogue* (Parks and Recreation Federation, Ontario, Canada, 1992), and the *Benefits of Recreation Research Update* (Sefton & Mummery, 1995). Other sources that also document the benefits of leisure include Kelly (1981), the section on recreation values and benefits in the *Literature Review* done by the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors (Driver & Peterson, 1986), *Outdoor Recreation in America* (The Recreation Roundtable, 1994), and research publications by Allen (1996), Bruns (1997), Driver (1994, 1996), Lee and Driver (1996), Tindall (1995), and Stein and Lee (1995). Also, very recent systematic inquiry has led to documentation of the very important social benefits of leisure programs in preventing and helping resolve problems of at-risk youth (Schultz, et al., 1995; Witt & Crompton, 1996). The fall 1996 issue of the *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration* is devoted to these benefits of leisure programming. The very recent dates of these publications indicate that much attention is now being devoted to the benefits of leisure. Research now in progress and future research will advance that state of knowledge even further.

Research has disclosed a vast number of general categories and specific types of benefits of leisure (Table I.1). Much better scientific documentation exists for some categories and types of benefits than for others. For example, more research has been done on health-related benefits of physical exercise and on the economic benefits of tourism to local communities than other types of benefits attributed to leisure. Little study has been done on the role of leisure in building social networks and support systems which are especially important for many elderly people. Too many of the benefits attributed to leisure in Table I.1 require greater confirmation. And lastly, in qualification, most of the research on the many psychological benefits of leisure has, by necessity, relied on perceived measures. While results are valid and useful, they are frequently viewed as less reliable than those based on "hard" measures.

Many park and recreation managers have observed the emergence of many of the benefits listed in Table I.1 during their professional careers, and there is wide consensus among those practitioners about the reality of these benefits. While these professional judgments are subjective, they should not be ignored, because they add credibility to the results of the research shown in Table I.1.

Table I.1: Specific Types and General Categories of Benefits that Have Been Attributed to Leisure by Research

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- I. Personal Benefits
 - A. Psychological
 - 1. Better mental health and health maintenance
 - Holistic sense of wellness
 - Stress management (prevention, mediation, and restoration)
 - Catharsis
 - Prevention of and reduced depression/anxiety/anger
 - 2. Personal development and growth
 - Self-confidence
 - Self-reliance
 - Self-competence
 - Self-assurance
 - Value clarification
 - Improved academic/cognitive performance
 - Independence/autonomy
 - Sense of control over one's life
 - Humility
 - Leadership
 - Aesthetic enhancement
 - Creativity enhancement
 - Spiritual growth
 - Adaptability
 - Cognitive efficiency
 - Problem solving
 - Nature learning
 - Cultural/historic awareness/learning/appreciation
 - Environmental awareness/understanding
 - Tolerance
 - Balanced competitiveness
 - Balanced living
 - Prevention of problems to at-risk youth
 - Acceptance of one's responsibility
 - 3. Personal appreciation/satisfaction
 - Sense of freedom
 - Self-actualization
 - Flow/absorption
 - Exhilaration
 - Stimulation
 - Sense of adventure
 - Challenge
 - Nostalgia
 - Quality of life/life satisfaction
 - Creative expression
 - Aesthetic appreciation
 - Nature appreciation
 - Spirituality
 - Positive change in mood/emotion

Table I.1 Cont.

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- B. Psycho-physiological
- Cardiovascular benefits, including prevention of strokes
 - Reduced or prevented hypertension
 - Reduced serum cholesterol and triglycerides
 - Improved control and prevention of diabetes
 - Prevention of colon cancer
 - Reduced spinal problems
 - Decreased body fat/obesity/weight control
 - Improved neuropsychological functioning
 - Increased bone mass and strength in children
 - Increased muscle strength and better connective tissue
 - Respiratory benefits (increased lung capacity, benefits to people with asthma)
 - Reduced incidence of disease
 - Improved bladder control of the elderly
 - Increased life expectancy
 - Management of menstrual cycles
 - Management of arthritis
 - Improved functioning of the immune system
 - Reduced consumption of alcohol and use of tobacco
- II. Social/Cultural Benefits
- Community satisfaction
 - Pride in community/nation (pride in place/patriotism)
 - Cultural/historical awareness and appreciation
 - Reduced social alienation
 - Community/political involvement
 - Ethnic identity
 - Social bonding/cohesion/cooperation
 - Conflict resolution/harmony
 - Greater community involvement in environmental decision making
 - Social support
 - Support democratic ideal of freedom
 - Family bonding
 - Reciprocity/sharing
 - Social mobility
 - Community integration
 - Nurturance of others
 - Understanding and tolerance of others
 - Environmental awareness, sensitivity
 - Enhanced world view
 - Socialization/acclimation
 - Cultural identity
 - Cultural continuity
 - Prevention of social problems by at-risk youth
 - Developmental benefits of children
- III. Economic Benefits
- Reduced health costs
 - Increased productivity
 - Less work absenteeism
 - Reduced on-the-job accidents
 - Decreased job turn-over
 - International balance of payments (from tourism)
 - Local and regional economic growth
 - Contributions to net national economic development
- IV. Environmental Benefits
- Maintenance of physical facilities
 - Stewardship/preservation of options
 - Handicraft/improved relationships with natural world
 - Understanding of human dependency on the natural world

Table I.1 Cont.

Environmental protection
Ecosystem sustainability
Species diversity
Maintenance of natural scientific laboratories
Preservation of particular natural sites and areas
Preservation of cultural/heritage/historic sites and areas

Source: Driver, B.L. (1990a) as updated and not published elsewhere since.

Table I.1 is of central importance to this chapter because it clearly shows that the benefits of leisure are broader and larger than one would first envision. Those benefits pervade practically all aspects of human behavior and performance: mental and physical health; family and community relations, self-concept, personal value clarification, perceived personal freedom, sense of fitting in, pride in one's community and nation, performance in college and at work, ethnic identity, formation of social networks and systems of social support, spiritual renewal, involvement in community affairs, environmental stewardship, and economic development, growth, and stability.

Consider the scope of the benefits listed in Table I.1. Reflect on the large number of people who perceive these benefits. Ponder their pervasiveness and likely total magnitude, and reflect further on the associated benefits they nurture, create, and promote. For example, satisfactory leisure activities can reduce health-care costs, reduce crime and prevent the high costs of incarceration, increase economic value of work performance, and increase pride in community and nation. It is easy to reach the conclusion that leisure services provide more total benefits to society than any other social service, including health and education.

This strong conjecture is supported by two other types of data. First, statistics show that large percentages of the U.S. population engage in various recreation activities each year. For example, Godbey et al. (1992) report that 75 percent of the respondents said they used local recreation and park services either occasionally or frequently. In addition, very recent data from the 1994-95 National Survey on Recreation and the Environment (see Chapter V) showed that 95 percent of the population of the United States 16 years of age and older participated in at least one of the following selected recreation activity groups between January 1994 and April 1995: fitness activities (68.3 percent), outdoor team sport activities (26.4 percent), outdoor spectator activities (58.7 percent), camping (26.3 percent), swimming (54.2 percent), and picnicking (49.1 percent).

Another contention of this chapter is that the leisure services sector is the largest economic sector in the United States. That proposition rests on the tenet that consumers gain utility (i.e., benefit) commensurate with their expenditures. To explore this proposition, we first need to evaluate the size of this leisure economic sector.

It has been factually established, but not widely recognized, that the leisure services sector is very big business in the United States and other countries (Stynes, 1993). For example, in most U.S. states, recreation and tourism rank in the top three economic sectors as generators of income and employment. It has also been established that expenditures on tourism-related international travel generate greater flows of funds between nations than any other economic transaction, including sales of grain, automobiles, or electronic parts and equipment, each of which is a big ticket item.

In the United States, the following statistics on the economic impacts of domestic and international travel document the size of the "leisure industry":

- In 1995, international travelers spent \$79.7 billion in the U.S., and American travelers spent \$60.2 billion outside the U. S., creating a trade balance surplus of \$19.5 billion. The size of the surplus rose 4 percent over 1994. The surplus from travel grew for the seventh straight year. Travel is one of the few economic sectors that generates a positive trade balance.
- During 1995, domestic and international travelers together spent \$421.5 billion in the U.S., which is a 5.8 percent increase over 1994. When induced and indirect effects are added to those expenditures, the estimated total expenditures for 1995 were about \$1,017 billion. That total translates into about 16.5 million jobs, travel-related payrolls of about \$116 billion, and \$64 billion in federal, state, and local tax revenues for that year.
- Pleasure-related travel accounted for 69 percent of all U.S. domestic/resident travel in 1995. Seventeen percent of domestic business trips in 1995 combined business with pleasure, which represents a 4 percent increase over 1994. No statistics could be found for the percentage of international travel that

is estimated to be pleasure-related, but it is logical to assume it is as high or higher than that for resident travelers.

- In 1995, travel and the related tourism it stimulated was the third largest retail industry in the U. S., after automotive dealers and food stores. The projections for the foreseeable future are for expenditures in that sector to continue to increase as a percent of total expenditures of the retail sale industries of the U.S. (The Tourism Works for America 1996, U.S. Travel Data Center, 1994).

While these statistics document that recreation and tourism are very large, they are just portions of the leisure services sector. Current systems of accounting exclude many components that should be included. A few examples of components that should be included are:

- all entertainment expenditures, such as cassette tapes and CDs, operas, symphonies, rock groups, all professional sports, the winter and summer Olympics, and all nonbusiness uses of TV and radio—including the costs of production, distribution, salaries, travel, capital investments in buildings and other infrastructure—and costs of viewing equipment, gate fees, and travel paid by the spectators/patrons/viewers,
- the costs of acquiring, maintaining, and using summer homes, boats/yachts, airplanes, guns, fishing rods, cameras, and clothes for leisure,
- the costs of acquiring, maintaining, and using personal vehicles (e.g., sports utility vehicles, vans, pickups) and personal computers that should be allocated to leisure,
- the costs of entertaining guests both inside and outside one's home,
- and a leisure-related share of the total costs of public libraries and continuing education courses.

It seems likely that a leisure services sector that includes all its parts would be the biggest economic sector of the U.S. economy in terms of salaries paid, employment generated, and expenditures made by consumers. If reasonably sovereign consumers willingly allocate so much of their resources to support that leisure services sector, the benefits they receive must be reasonably commensurate with the expenditures. Thus, leisure services must be extremely valuable.

In fairness, it should be mentioned that many expenditures on leisure services also lead to disbenefits, such as recreation injuries, human damage to resources, and other costs, such as those related to abuse of alcohol, but negative impacts accompany all consumer purchases. The purpose here, however, is to estimate the contributions of the leisure services sector to the U.S. economy.

The Benefits of Outdoor Recreation

While outdoor recreation can occur in one's own back yard or on small green spaces in municipalities, the discussion here will focus on outdoor recreation opportunities provided by federal, state, and large regional public agencies, and by private land management firms.

This section describes public perceptions about the benefits of outdoor recreation found by the 1994 Roper Starch survey (The Recreation Roundtable, 1994). It then considers whether policies pertaining to the provision of outdoor recreation opportunities on wildlands can be based on the argument that the benefits of outdoor recreation, when taken individually or separately, are uniquely dependent upon the hinterland-renewable natural resources of the United States.

The Roper Starch Survey

The household survey was conducted in April of 1994 among a representative sample of 1,993 men and women 18 years of age and older. Some relevant findings are:

- Two-thirds of Americans participate in outdoor recreation every year, half do so at least once a month, and one-third take an outdoor vacation.
- Respondents were asked to rate 12 reasons for participating in outdoor recreation in a response format that offered five alternatives ranging from "not at all important" to "very important." For each motivation, the percentages that responded "important" or "very important" were:

To have fun	76%
For relaxation	71%
For health and exercise	70%

For the family to be together	69%
To reduce stress	66%
To teach good values to children	64%
To experience nature	64%
To be with friends	60%
For excitement	53%
To learn new skills	48%
To be alone	39%
For competition	24%

Responses to two other questions showed that 90% and 87%, respectively, agreed strongly or mostly agreed (in contrast to disagreeing) with the statements that "Outdoor recreation is a good way to increase people's appreciation for nature and the environment" and "Outdoor recreation is an excellent way for parents to teach good values to their children." In addition, Francis Pandolfi, then vice president of the Recreation Roundtable, stated "The data clearly demonstrate that providing appropriate opportunities for outdoor recreation contributes to other societal goals, including a sound environment, healthy rural economies, strengthened families, and better personal health."

- Participation in outdoor recreation at any time in life, but particularly as a child, leads to a more satisfying and fulfilling life. The survey disclosed that the proportion of those completely satisfied with the quality of their lives is significantly higher among those who recreate outdoors several times a week (38 percent) than those who do so monthly (32 percent), less often (24 percent), or never (also 24 percent). While other factors, such as income, could explain these relationships, the report stated that the respondents' perceived satisfaction with "the amount of money you have to live on" was the least correlated with recreation participation and that the statistical relationship between recreation and satisfaction persists even when socio-economic status is held constant. Thus, active outdoor recreators are more completely satisfied with the quality of their lives than is the general public.

These findings document that the American public perceives sizable benefits of many different types from their outdoor recreation pursuits.

Unique Dependency of Specific Benefits on Outdoor Settings

The 1994 Roper Starch survey and many other studies show that the public assigns great value and personal and social benefit to outdoor recreation. Are any of those benefits uniquely dependent on outdoor settings?

Intuitively, one would think that many specific benefits of leisure can only be realized in particular settings. However, careful reflection about each of the benefits listed in Table I.1 reveals that each of those benefits individually can be realized in many different environments or settings. I might prefer to enjoy a sense of solitude and tranquility in Central Park of New York City, while you might prefer the Maroon-Bells Wilderness in Colorado. You might prefer to demonstrate, apply, and develop your technical climbing skills on a wall in an exercise center, while another person might prefer Mt. Everest. Recreation experiences and benefits commonly attributed to wildland recreation can also be realized from smaller natural areas in cities. Nature learning and appreciation can also result from nature-oriented programs on television, from magazine articles and books, from environmental education courses, from gardening, and from walks in natural areas in cities. Thus, while each of the benefits listed in Table I.1 can be realized from outdoor recreation, none of them is uniquely dependent on a particular recreation setting or facility. It is therefore misleading to argue here that particular benefits should be provided on the public land administered by federal, state, and large regional agencies because they cannot be realized elsewhere.

But the issue of setting- or facility-dependency of a particular type of benefit is not the important managerial or public allocation issue. The real issue is customer preference. Individual recreationists prefer specific recreation settings just as they prefer specific types of wine, beer, soda pop, cars, homes, music, and most other goods and services. Strong preferences in the minds of the customers represent needs for specific attributes of the desired recreation setting. In this sense, there is resource dependency.

Research has shown that recreationists prefer specific recreation settings to realize a specific benefit or set of benefits for many reasons, including personal taste, effects of past experience, social and cultural conditioning, cost, time available, skill level, and information available on alternative options. A particularly important consideration is the "recreation experience and benefit gestalt," which relates to the qualitative

dimensions of leisure preference. To illustrate, I can attain a sense of solitude and tranquility in Central Park, but you prefer to realize those experiences in the Maroon-Bells Wilderness because you get a sense of self-sufficiency, independence, and nature-based spiritual renewal there. And those recreation experience and benefit gestalts definitely depend on specific recreation settings. This is the factor that differentiates demand for outdoor recreation from demands for other types of recreation. It is also here that the supply and the demand sides of outdoor recreation management come together. Managers must mesh their professional skills in managing recreation settings with appraisals of customer needs and preferences to determine which packages of benefit opportunities to provide in which settings.

Management for outdoor recreation and related amenities creates tremendous benefits to individuals, to society and to the natural environment. These benefits have been clearly documented in the following ways:

- Each of the benefits in Table I.1 can result from managing and using wildlands for recreation and related amenity services.
- The several national surveys reviewed in this chapter have established that large percentages of the population of the United States engage in outdoor recreation. One can assume they do this because of the benefits they receive. The 1994 Roper Starch survey found that two-thirds of Americans participate in some form of outdoor recreation each year. The 1994-95 National Survey on Recreation and the Environment also documented that 95 percent of the population over age 15 participated at least once in outdoor recreation. For example, 46.4 percent visited a nature center, 31.3 percent viewed wildlife, 20.7 percent camped in developed sites, 24.4 percent did freshwater fishing, 23.5 percent motorboated, and 23.8 hiked in natural areas. These percentages represent big numbers and logically connote benefits of tremendous magnitude.
- Another indication of the magnitude of the social benefits of outdoor recreation is that outdoor recreationists would not spend so much of their personal time and income on recreation if the rewards were not reasonably commensurate with those expenditures. It is known that a significant part of domestic and international tourism travel is directed toward wildland recreation and related amenity services. The expenditures for this travel and for related tourism are tremendous. In addition, preliminary results of the recent survey the U.S. Bureau of the Census conducted for the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service showed that in 1966, hunters, anglers, and wildlife watchers spent \$97 billion, which now represents 1.3 percent of gross domestic spending. It should be pointed out that while hunters and anglers together spent \$68 billion of the \$97 billion, they represent only 14 million and 35.5 million people in the United States. Similarly, it should be emphasized that these expenditures pertain only to hunting, angling, and viewing wildlife and thus say nothing about the expenditures for other types of outdoor recreation. The point is that these large expenditures must connote large personal benefits.
- A related indication of the benefits of outdoor recreation is its contribution to the value of domestically produced goods and services, or Gross Domestic Product (GDP). For example, the Draft 1995 RPA Program (USDA Forest Service 1995) states "Forest Service programs in 1993 are estimated to have generated about \$123.8 billion toward the GDP: a little less than 2 percent of the national total. By the year 2000, Forest Service programs, as outlined in this strategic plan, would contribute \$130.7 billion to GDP, of which \$97.8 billion (75 percent) would be generated by recreation, \$12.9 billion by wildlife and fish, \$10.1 billion by minerals, and \$3.5 billion by timber." These high estimates for recreation have been contested and the economic impact analyses made for this draft RPA program statement, scheduled for release in 1995, are being revised and updated for the Recommended RPA Program. While it is expected that the magnitude of the economic effects from individual resources will change, the majority of the economic activity associated with Forest Service programs will continue to be stimulated through the recreation, fish, and wildlife resource areas (Personal conversation with Forest Service RPA staff analysts). Thus, recreation and related amenity resources make large contributions to GDP. Put simply, the pursuit of wildland recreation generates big bucks.

Managing Wildland Recreation Resources for the Benefits They Provide

This section describes some of the ways managers of wildlands are responding to demands for recreation and related amenities. Management priorities are being reoriented to accommodate shifting social priorities as advocated by Forest Service Chief Dombeck (1997b) earlier in this chapter.

Shifting Social Priorities Affecting Management of Wildlands

People are attempting to have more control over their lives by deliberating more carefully about the consequences of specific behavioral alternatives to the quality of their lives. Self-examination has led to increased awareness and appreciation of the benefits of leisure. Perceived benefits have increased recreation participation and demands by the public that managers of recreation resources provide specific benefits opportunities. Accompanying this shifting social priority toward individuals making choices to enhance the quality of their lives have been pressures to increase amenity services from public wildlands. Three of the most significant social changes reflecting increased pressures for changes in management of public wildlands are:

- Public involvement: Since the National Environmental Policy Act was passed in 1969, other legislation and agency directives have required that public agencies systematically involve the public in environmental decision-making.
- Fiscal stringency and accountability: All agencies that manage public land operate under increasing fiscal stringency and increasing demands for accountability.
- Public concerns about the biophysical environment: Since the early 1970s, public opinion polls have shown that the American people remain highly concerned about the state and quality of the biophysical environment.

Although these three social changes, along with people's growing awareness of and demands for the benefits of recreation, have been occurring for a decade or two, their cumulative and interactive effects on management of outdoor recreation resources have been most visible only in the past five to 10 years. During that short period, these changes have been truly revolutionary in some agencies and considerable in others. The nature and impacts of these changes on management of outdoor recreation resources are discussed in detail elsewhere (Driver & Bruns, in press).

- The focus of multiple-use management of public land has shifted away from commodity and toward recreation and related amenity uses. This reorientation has required the agencies to develop and apply sophisticated and science-based amenity resource management systems; acquire more personnel with training in the social sciences to complement existing personnel trained in timber, range, fishery, and wildlife management; and modify their budgeting processes to justify additional appropriations for recreation and related uses.
- Recreation and related amenity resource agencies have moved considerably away from activity-oriented management, which focuses on supply considerations, toward outcomes- or benefits-oriented management. In the new focus, the major goal of management is to add value to the lives of the customers served while protecting and improving the basic biophysical resources being managed.
- There has been wide adoption of total quality management (TQM), with solicitation of information on customer preferences for specific recreation activities, experiences, and other benefits. TQM has stimulated monitoring of customer satisfaction.
- Many park and recreation agencies have substituted the concept of *customer* for the words *user* and *visitor*, and they are involving all stakeholders in planning and plan implementation.
- There has been greater recognition that several to many collaborators, both public and private, affect the type, quality, and amount of recreation benefits that are realized.
- Public involvement has gone far beyond soliciting input from the public at a few selected steps in the land-planning process. Involvement now includes development and maintenance of collaborative partnerships. This approach promotes an atmosphere of trust and respect within which the customers feel they are an active part of the decision processes. Especially significant here has been movement away from the philosophy that the professional managers are technical experts who can determine the one right decision. Managers now recognize that there are several right decisions that differ in terms of which values and interests are accommodated and compromised.
- There has been a distinct trend toward more efficient, cost-effective, and accountable management by public agencies. As a result, higher administrative levels and stakeholders are able to review the performance of field-level personnel more objectively. While public agencies do not operate as profit-making firms, there has been wide adoption of business principles to help assure more efficient operations.
- There has been widespread adoption by private and public wildland managers of a holistic sustainable ecosystem philosophy. Management plans, therefore, often cross administrative boundaries because ecological processes cross these boundaries.

Adoption of Better Management Systems

To keep pace with these changes, most agencies that provide outdoor recreation opportunities have reevaluated and changed many of their goals as well as their managerial philosophies and practices. To meet those new goals and directions, many of those agencies have recently begun to refine older recreation and related amenity resources management systems. They are developing and applying newer science-based systems that are consistent with modern theories of leisure behavior. To meet growing social demands, these systems are being developed to promote TQM, a customer orientation, collaborative partnerships with both on- and off-site customers, sustainable ecosystem management, and responsive, cost-effective, and accountable managerial actions.

The U.S. Forest Service, for example, has adopted four amenity resource management systems: (1) the Meaningful Measures for Quality Recreation Management System (Jaten & Driver, in preparation), (2) the Scenery Management System (USDA Forest Service, 1995), (3) the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum System (USDA Forest Service, 1982; Driver, Brown, Gregoire, & Stankey, 1987; Driver, 1990); and (4) Benefits-Based Management (Allen, 1996; Driver, 1996; Driver & Bruns, in press). The fourth, which is the most recent, comprehensive, and integrative, was developed to better accommodate social changes and especially to provide guidance on how to practice outcomes-oriented management. Under that approach, customers can determine which types of recreation opportunities will best enhance the quality of their lives, and management agencies can improve their promotion of rural economic stability and growth. Because this chapter focuses on the benefits of outdoor recreation and how to manage wildlands to optimize realization of those benefits, Benefits-Based Management (or BBM for short) will be elaborated on briefly. For more information, see Driver and Bruns (in press).

Benefits-Based Management

Historically, recreation has been defined as the human behavior of participating in a designated activity at particular sites and locations. Examples are camping at a particular site and driving on a specific scenic highway. Thus, recreation was considered a human behavior in the same sense as spelling, studying, and sleeping. Little managerial attention was directed to why such a behavior was chosen or how it positively and negatively impacted the recreationist. Recently, this orientation has changed. Most public parks and recreation agencies have adopted, or are adopting, an "outcomes orientation." In the new orientation, participation in a recreation activity is viewed as a means for optimizing personal beneficial outcomes (Driver, 1994). By identifying desired outcomes, parks and recreation managers have found a much broader array of benefits that they must accommodate more fully than in the past. For outdoor recreation, this broader array of beneficial outcomes includes:

- nature-based spiritual renewal (Rolston, 1996) and wellness (Montes, 1996),
- psychological attachment to special places (Roberts, 1996; Greene, 1996),
- appreciation of early American landscapes (Bruns & Stokowski, 1996),
- use of heritage and historic resources not only for better understanding of the evolution of a culture or subculture, but also for maintenance of particular ethnic identities (Lee & Tainter, 1996),
- strategically programming leisure services as a social intervention to prevent or help ameliorate particular social problems or to capture a targeted type of benefit; e.g., help at-risk youth, promote physical health, promote environmental awareness, including that of natural ecological processes, and through tourism help stabilize the economy of a local community (Witt & Crompton, 1996).

BBM was developed and is being used and refined by leisure researchers, educators, policymakers, and managers to integrate and direct thinking about the management of recreation service delivery systems. It is not only a philosophy about the roles of leisure in society, but also a system for directing leisure research, instruction, policy development, and management (Allen, 1996; Driver & Bruns, in press).

The fundamental question raised by BBM is "why should a particular leisure service be provided?" The answer is formulated in terms of clearly defined positive and negative consequences of delivering that service. The objective is to optimize net benefits—to add as much positive value as possible. To succeed, leisure policy analysts and managers must: (1) understand what benefits are associated with each leisure service that is provided; (2) decide what benefits opportunities will be provided; (3) articulate to higher level administrators, to the customers, and to the general public why particular benefits opportunities were chosen; and (4) understand how to manage different recreation settings to deliver those opportunities. BBM is science-based and requires the leisure policymaker and manager to keep abreast of improving knowledge about the benefits of leisure.

BBM is a major shift in the way we conceive of and manage recreation resources and programs. It is more than a management system because it influences how we think about leisure. BBM is an expanded conceptual framework that uses concepts from general systems theory to integrate the inputs and the physical structure of the leisure/recreation service delivery systems with the outputs of those systems. Under conventional approaches, attention focuses primarily on the inputs to the system and on management of the physical structure. Too often, these inputs are viewed as the ends of management with little attention given to why services are provided. In sharp contrast, the BBM views inputs and system as necessary means for capturing desired outcomes. It views the goal of management as optimizing net benefits that accrue to individuals. BBM requires the writing of clear management objectives for explicitly defined "benefit opportunities." It requires benefits-oriented management prescriptions, guidelines, and standards that help to assure provision of the types and amounts of the benefit opportunities targeted for delivery both on and off the physical site. By considering both on- and off-site impacts, the BBM requires a comprehensive appraisal of the impacts to on-site users, to local communities, to other stakeholders, and to the biophysical resources. It defines these impacts in terms of beneficial changes that occur, whether desired conditions are maintained, and whether or not on-site customers have opportunities to realize satisfying recreation experiences.

While the notion of managing recreation resources to realize benefits is not novel, a systematic, conceptually integrated, and operational means of promoting and applying that approach did not exist until BBM was conceptualized and articulated.

The benefits or outcomes perspective is the fastest growing trend in parks and recreation management, including management of outdoor recreation and related amenity resources. BBM is growing in acceptance at all levels of government. It has been endorsed by the National Parks and Recreation Association (NPRA) which has set up a Task Force to train parks and recreation professionals to implement BBM, and it is preparing training manuals and BBM implementation guidelines. More significantly to outdoor recreation, the National Society for Park Resources, which is the branch of NPRA most concerned with outdoor recreation, has endorsed and is promoting BBM.

Future Directions and Issues

Directions: The 1994 Roper Starch national household survey (The Recreation Roundtable, 1994) asked respondents to assess the importance of outdoor recreation to them as they were growing up. About 25 percent said it was very important, 37 percent said it was somewhat important, and 32 percent said it was not important. The remaining respondents did not know. Those respondents who engaged in outdoor recreation selected the *very important* response much more frequently than any other group. Conversely, those who said outdoor recreation was not important to them early in life were most apt to forego outdoor recreation now. It is disturbing that 32 percent in 1994 said outdoor recreation was not important to them when growing up, because only 16 percent said so in a survey done in 1986 for the President's Commission on Americans Outdoors. The percentage responding *very important* then was 32 percent, compared to the 25 percent in 1994. Some possible causes are decline in availability of extended blocks of leisure time (Robertson & Godbey, 1997), more single-parent families, and more households in which both parents work. It probably is not caused by greater urbanization, because the percentage of the U.S. population living in essentially urban areas did not change appreciably between 1986 and 1994. The Roper Starch report for the Recreation Roundtable (1994, p. 59) concluded, "given the significance of parents in forming our future recreation participation and values, this trend is disturbing."

The shifting social priorities and changes discussed earlier will continue to occur, but perhaps not at the same intensity as in the recent past. Nevertheless, they will continue to influence the goals and managerial directions of wildland management firms and agencies. Use of wildland for recreation and related amenity values and benefits will continue to grow. Public agencies will face increased public pressure to be customer-oriented, cost-effective, and accountable in their operations. And private firms and public agencies will be expected to continue to practice sustainable ecosystem management.

It is highly probable that the benefits and outcomes approach will be used much more widely to guide management of park and recreation resources. This approach also will guide development of leisure policies, including the justification of budget requests and allocations. And the benefits approach will continue to attract leisure scientists and educators.

Because of the continuation of the social changes and the needs for management systems such as BBM to accommodate them, parks and recreation policymakers, administrators, and managers probably will continue to sharpen their interests in the benefits of leisure.

Issues: While the 1994 Roper Starch survey indicates a trend toward a decreasing number of Americans saying that outdoor recreation was very important to them when they were growing up, it is unclear if and how this trend can be reversed. Doubt about how to address societal problems is pervasive in contemporary America, where polarization is increasing and aid-giving behaviors, charitable giving, voter turnout, and confidence in public governance are decreasing (Godbey, 1995). Parks and recreation services, including outdoor recreation, can help alleviate these problems, but that role will not be optimized until leisure has gained political parity with the other social services and until leisure professionals understand and articulate the social benefits of leisure more widely (Driver, 1995; Driver & Bruns, in press).

Considerably more training of parks and recreation professionals, at all levels of government, is needed to help them understand the philosophy and concepts of the benefits and outcomes approach. They should understand why it is needed, and how to implement it.

Leisure professionals need to better understand the scope, magnitude, and true social significance of leisure, including its great economic significance.

Leisure professionals must not only be able to articulate the benefits of leisure to their customers, other stakeholders, and the public at large; they also must clearly and accurately convey the important message that leisure adds much positive value to individuals and society at large. Leisure may well be the most important social service and the largest economic sector. Nevertheless, it does not now have parity with the other social services (education, health, social welfare/public assistance, justice, communication, transportation) with which it competes for public funds. It does not because park and recreation agencies have not positioned themselves in the eyes of the public as a social service that adds great value to society (Crompton, 1993).

Considerably more funding is needed for research on the benefits of leisure to advance that state of knowledge. The needed research is complex and multidisciplinary. It is costly because it covers many dimensions of human behavior (psychological, physiological, psychophysiological, social, economic), requires expensive longitudinal studies, and must consider the positive and adverse impacts of leisure on the biophysical environment. That funding should include studies to document much more accurately the economic magnitude of leisure in general, and outdoor recreation in particular, as a sector of the U.S. economy.

HISTORY OF OUTDOOR RECREATION AND NATURE-BASED TOURISM IN THE UNITED STATES

By Robert W. Douglass, Ohio State University

Introduction

Outdoor recreation pursued during leisure time and by free choice that provides its own satisfaction has continued to play an increasing role in people's lives through good times and bad. World wars, major economic troubles, record rises in the standard of living, and general increases in our overall quality of life all appear to have boosted outdoor recreation and tourism. Good and bad economic times seem to direct changes in style, but increases in involvement in outdoor recreation have accompanied both of them. There has been an increasing trend in outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism participation from the time that record-keeping began. Some activities have decreased in popularity, but new ones have come forward to continue the overall upward trend. That upward trend has continued through the mid-1990s, even while discretionary or free time appears to be getting harder to find.

The upward trends in outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism reflect the changes in our society. We are an urban society that still clings to the concepts of the great outdoors and self-reliance. We now share our landscapes with millions of foreign visitors, while we have become globe-hopping tourists ourselves. As a group, we are getting older, more affluent, busier, more culturally diverse, and maybe even more mellow in our outlook. Today, our recreation participation appears to be an accommodation of, or even a reaction to, the society we share.

New technologies are being adapted by the public as rapidly for recreation as for business activities. Exchanging faxes for road-race registrations has become the norm. Internet enquiries keep the skier informed on daily snow conditions. Hiking plans for a trip to a national forest 2,000 miles away can be planned on maps obtained from a net search. Airline tickets and ocean cruises are booked electronically, while all sorts of "chat" groups provide opportunities to exchange questions and answers about favorite activities. New toys and advanced equipment constantly appear, challenging us to try new activities.

It is useful to look back on our history for a feeling of how we have arrived where we are today. Outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism have been developing on the American landscape for more than 100 years. They have responded to the changes society has dealt. While developing in the United States, outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism moved through three overlapping phases. The formative years defined the roles of the public and private sectors and were rooted in the establishment and management of public land. Definition and expansion of the infrastructures to support nature-based recreation and tourism followed World War II. Societal integration and accommodation to science and the environment, which were always part of recreation and tourism, accelerated after the Cold War presented the world with a new set of problems. Where recreation- and nature-based tourism will be carried in the future is a subject for conjecture, but their place in the future appears assured.

The Formative Years

Recreation serves as America's direct contact with its natural resources. It is one of the nation's most influential attitude-builders on use of natural resources. Recreation has played direct and indirect roles in the evolving concept of how America's land should be cared for, used, and valued. Recreation areas and parks were established to supply recreation opportunities directly. Indirectly, the accommodation of outdoor recreation demands caused changes in the management of land meant primarily for other purposes. The formative stages of America's land-use policy include conquest, conservation and wise use, multiple use, sustained use, and stewardship.

Recreation and nature-based tourism have been around in this country since its beginnings. However, recreation was not formally recognized during the nation's formative years as a force that would eventually shape land management policies of the private and public sectors. During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the romanticism and conservation movements were at their peaks. George Perkins Marsh had introduced the concept of land stewardship into the literature in 1864, but the country had something else on its mind at that time. With 90 percent of its population living in rural areas and served by slow and limited transportation, the country did not seem to care about a national recreation policy. People of the time were too busy carving a living from the landscape to revisit it in their scarce leisure time.

But as society changed, its view of wilderness and "untamed" land evolved. Eventually, wilderness was described in friendly terms as a thing of beauty and no longer as the enemy. Authors such as James Fenimore Cooper produced novels that presented a romantic view of the natural landscape. Using his European training, Albert Bierstadt produced magnificent paintings of the western mountains that influenced many people, including members of Congress, to preserve tracts of land for their unique beauty. People vigorously supported, or went along with, setting aside large areas of the country in the public interest. However, early in the 20th century, there was no perceived need for the government to have a cohesive policy for recreation and tourism. None was needed because outdoor experiences and exposure to nature were parts of the everyday life and outdoor spaces were plentiful. Americans exerted little or no pressure on federal and state governments to provide outdoor recreation opportunities.

At the turn of the 20th century, there were abundant recreation opportunities in this country. But they did not exist as a result of government policy or as a public good. Hunting, fishing, boating, and many other activities were common, but they were not within the realm of government and were not always considered to be outdoor recreation experiences. The playground movement gave rise to city-oriented recreation activities, and the American railroads were making excursions to their parks and associated resorts early in this century. Excursions to Mont Alto Park in Pennsylvania, to Riverview Beach and Cape May in New Jersey, and to several other places were responsible for establishing resorts that have survived in one form or another into the present time. But widespread consideration of recreation was yet to follow on the large federal estate that was being developed by the establishment of the national forests and national parks. Even Gifford Pinchot and John Muir were looking at the need to set aside lands in the public's interest without specifically recognizing tourism or recreation.

Local needs for recreation were addressed in some urban environments. New York's Central Park was designed in 1850 by Frederick L. Olmstead, who went on to champion core parks in major urban areas. These parks, along with village greens, commons, plazas, and other institutional open spaces, were used by city dwellers as *de facto* parks, even though the open spaces were not the result of recreation planning. Many forms of open space owe their existence to needs for survival and community defense. Many actions taken early in the American colonial period led to what later became outdoor recreation opportunities for their citizens. Legal actions of the early settlers led to establishment of laws guaranteeing access to natural resources for human survival. Those "fishing and fowling" laws became the forerunners for today's concepts of

recreational hunting and fishing. As far back as 1641, the Massachusetts Bay Colony enacted the "Great Ponds Act" to open bodies of water for hunting, fishing, and ice gathering by the public. Those access acts established the tradition of public entry onto land. Today, outdoor recreation is often the purpose of such access.

Cities led the way in establishing areas that were to become parks or recreation areas even before the formal efforts of Olmstead and his associates took place. William Penn's plan for Philadelphia included five open squares. Penn also required farmers to keep one-fifth of their farms in woodlots. That tradition still marks the rural Pennsylvania landscape with forestland. Newington, New Hampshire, established the country's first city forest in 1710. The playground movement, which first was directed at providing wholesome activities in safe places for children, created pressures in the cities for parks and play areas (Van Doren & Hodges, 1975).



Playgrounds helped to improve the quality of city life for both children and adults in the prewar years. City of Atlanta park, circa 1930s. Photo courtesy of the Hargrett Rare Book and Manuscript Library, University of Georgia Libraries.

However, no popular, broad-based support existed for outdoor recreation areas at the national or state levels prior to the close of the 19th century. Yellowstone was established as a federal park in 1872 because some farsighted individuals held out for its public ownership at a time when the land appeared to be valueless and lost in distance from civilization. The Yosemite Grant to California and the reservation of Yellowstone Park were carved from public domain land when there was no opposition to the ideas (USDI, 1962). They were harbingers of things to come, but they did not reflect a national policy at that time.

Government actions for recreation were scattered, but they did begin to show a pattern early in the 20th century. The establishment of the forest reserves in 1891, the Forest Service in 1905, the Antiquities Act in 1906, the Agriculture Appropriations Act in 1915, and the National Park Service in 1916 placed the federal government in the recreation management business. Although recreation was not, in itself, the reason for the federal government to get into the land management business, recreation became a major component of the management strategy almost from the start. By creating the National Park System, Congress introduced a concept that would spread to almost every country in the world by the end of the 20th century. Congress also opened national parks for recreation by the charge that it gave to the National Park Service for managing its areas. When, in 1905, the Forest Service was established in the United States Department of Agriculture, then Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson (USDA, 1974) set the Forest Service on its way into recreation management when he directed the first chief of the Forest Service to consider the policy, "when conflicting interests must be reconciled, the question will always be decided from the standpoint of the greatest good of the greatest number in the long run."

The national forests contained the ingredients of attraction, space, opportunities for solitude, setting, and accessibility that make up the potential for recreation areas. That potential eventually made the Forest Service the nation's largest host to outdoor recreation. Americans quickly recognized the potential for outdoor recreation in national forests. In 1921, Chief William Greeley declared outdoor recreation to be a major use of the National Forest System.

Recreation was first mentioned in federal legislation as a legitimate use of public land in the 1902 Morris Act which reserved lands on the Chippewa Indian Reservation for recreation use and provided for

protection of scenic values (Van Doren & Hodges, 1975). Impacted by the Agriculture Appropriations Act of 1915, the Forest Service responded to the requirement for establishing cabin lease sites on national forests. Formalization of the wilderness concept at the federal level was a product of that cabin-site leasing program. Protection of a unique area of wilderness where no development would take place was a concept advanced by some Forest Service employees who were sent into an area to suggest where cabin lease sites might be located. Arthur Carhart and other Forest Service employees in the Trapper Lake region of the Carson National Forest in 1924 suggested the concept of wilderness on federal land that has developed into the National Wilderness Preservation System. More than 20 percent of today's national forest area is managed as wilderness. The Forest Service was not the first government agency to act on wilderness preservation. Pennsylvania had already set the pattern. Under the leadership of its Commissioner of Forestry, Gifford Pinchot, Pennsylvania established a state wilderness system that preceded the action by the federal government (Frome, 1984).

The Department of the Interior's Bureau of Land Management is the nation's largest landholder. It manages the land left over from the public domain as well as the nearly 3 million acres that were returned to the Department of the Interior from the Oregon and California Railroad by the Reinvestment Act of 1916 (Forest Service, 1976). During the formative years, most of the land associated with recreation was managed by the National Park Service, the Bureau of Land Management, and the Forest Service. The roles of the other agencies increased later. Eastern national forests were established and added to the National Forest System through purchase of lands at the headwaters of navigable rivers as authorized by the Weeks Law of 1911. Today, there are some 130 national forests and 19 national grasslands that cover more area than France, Belgium, and Switzerland combined. In all, the federal government manages 761 million acres of land. Of that land, 691 million acres are available for recreation and nature-based tourism. Seven federal land managing agencies care for approximately 34 percent of the nation's land and host more than 500 million visitor days of recreation use (National Park Service, 1989).

States have only six percent of the country's land, but offer impressive opportunities for outdoor recreation opportunities. Most of the state park land is in eastern states, where the federal estate is the smallest. When the national parks and national forests were getting their start on western public-domain land, the state forestry-conservation movement began in the eastern states, which had seen their land ravished by poor farming practices, careless logging, charcoaling, and other destructive activities. Several northeastern states organized state agencies to care for their land during the late 19th century. New York began the Adirondack and Catskill Preserves in 1885; Pennsylvania followed by creating state forests and wildlife and watershed protection areas in 1889. As with the federal government, preservation and conservation were the driving forces behind the state programs. However, the large tracts established for conservation purposes eventually became extensive recreation areas and, in some cases, parks. Yosemite Valley almost became the first state park in this country when it was granted to the state of California for public use and recreation for all time (Van Doren & Hodges, 1975). However, California not did meet its obligations for the park and eventually ceded it back to the federal government. Illinois acquired its first park in 1903 and established a park system in 1917.

State parks were given a big boost in 1921 when the National Park Service hosted the first National Conference on State Parks. That conference, presently entitled the National Society for Park Resources, has been meeting on a regular basis ever since and has been instrumental in defining and supporting the role of state parks (Van Doren & Hodges, 1975). Other federal actions gave land to the states for parks, and the Civilian Conservation Corps built the infrastructures of many of those parks. States realized early on that their role was to provide balanced outdoor recreation opportunities to their citizens. Therefore, they did not follow the preservationist model of the National Park Service for very long. Showing flexibility, the state parks attempted to respond more to the regional needs for developed facilities and active recreation.

The Years of Definition and Expansion

After the Great Depression and World War II, recreation became a major component of the American way of life. It demanded recognition and attention. That demand engendered a massive development period. As part of, or as a result of, that development, millions of people were brought into contact with nature and introduced to the need to protect natural environments. That awareness has manifested itself in the environmental concerns being voiced in many countries today. During that period, the world became more affluent and mobile. Jetliner travel became common, and the interstate highway system began connecting all parts of the nation. Large numbers of people began to travel for recreation. The tourist industry has been a major economic force around the world ever since.

After World War II, Americans took to the open road to see and experience the great outdoors. They did so in such numbers that they overwhelmed the existing recreation facilities. Many of those facilities had been

built by the Civilian Conservation Corps and were completely outmoded in design and intent. Leisure activities that had been put off by World War II and the Korean Conflict were causing strain on the outdated recreation infrastructure. Recognizing a need to improve the situation caused by the increasing recreational demands, Congress passed legislation to study the outdoor recreation situation. The Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) was established in 1958 (85th Congress, 1958) and charged with studying the present and future needs for outdoor recreation and with determining the available and future supply of outdoor recreation resources. *Outdoor Recreation for America*, commonly known as the ORRRC report, presented to Congress in early 1962, contained the findings and recommendations of the ORRRC. The ORRRC report was the beginning of a massive federal movement to create more recreation opportunities in the United States.

The ORRRC action was not the only congressional action on recreation at that time. Congress was aware of the unsatisfied demand for outdoor recreation and was moving to address the situation even before the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission had completed its report. A major concept for public land management was articulated by Congress when it passed the Multiple-Use and Sustained Yield Act of 1960 to establish the policy for managing the national forests. This piece of legislation was intended to place recreation on the same level of importance as timber, water, wildlife, and range. The multiple-use mandate has the same ring as the doctrine Agriculture Secretary Wilson's direction that the national forests "should provide the greatest good to the greatest number in the long run." In the vast National Forest System, outdoor recreation opportunities would have the same footing as timber and other uses of the forest. Today, national forests provide more recreation opportunities than any other land management system.

The multiple-use concept was extended to the Bureau of Land Management's national resources land, which makes up the largest acreage under one jurisdiction. The Bureau of Land Management oversees approximately 175 million acres in 11 Western states and 165 million in Alaska. This is land that was not claimed from the public domain under the homestead acts and other land transfer programs. Historically, the great recreation potential of this land was slow to develop because the Bureau of Land Management had been dispersing and leasing land rather than providing outdoor recreation opportunities. Congress provided a new charter for the Bureau in the Federal Land Policy and Management Act of 1976. Also, much of the land it managed was inaccessible or not attractive for mass recreational activities until recently.

The release of the ORRRC report in 1962 set off a chain of related activities that defined the national and state policies on outdoor recreation, began a large transfer of land from the private sector to the public sector, and led to a two-tiered recreation management complex on federal land. As a direct result of that report, Congress passed a series of acts. That legislation, mostly crowded into the 1960s, included acts that established the National Wilderness Preservation System, the National Wild and Scenic Rivers System, the National Trails System, and national recreation areas. Legislation funded acquisition of recreation land under the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965 and provided for a method of directing state involvement in the push to meet the recommendations of the ORRRC report.

The Outdoor Recreation Act of 1963 declared the desirability of assuring adequate outdoor recreation resources and called for all levels of government and private interests to conserve, to develop, and to use those resources for the benefits and enjoyment of the American people. Statutory recognition for the newly established Bureau of Outdoor Recreation was intended by this act, even though the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation was never mentioned. Authorization was given to the secretary of the interior for performing several activities and functions. The president and the 88th Congress understood that the secretary of the interior, Morris Udall, would delegate the charges of this act to the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation for implementation (Fitch & Shanklin, 1970).

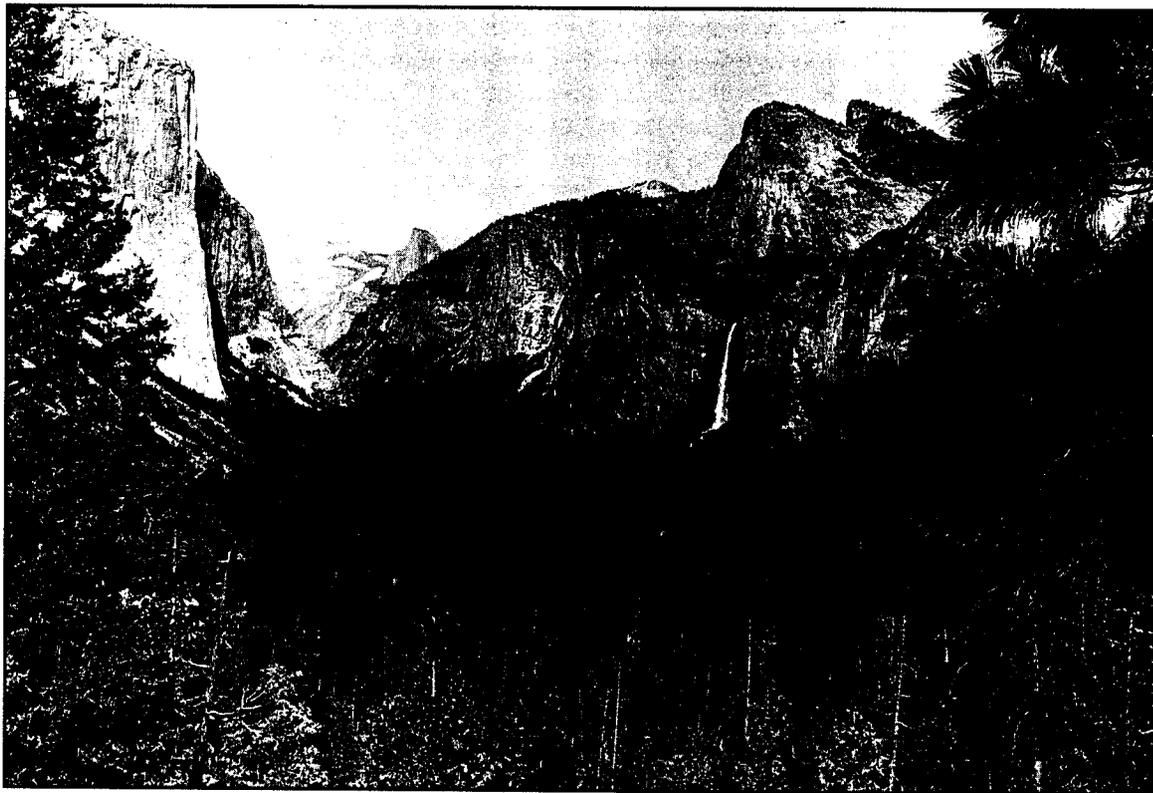
The Outdoor Recreation Act requires the preparation and maintenance of a continuous inventory and evaluation of the outdoor recreation needs and resources in the United States. It was from the authority of this act that the national policy for outdoor recreation was established in the form of a comprehensive outdoor recreation plan. That plan was eventually built upon the states' comprehensive outdoor recreation reports and plans and presented by the president to the American people on an approximate five-year cycle. State plans came about when they were required by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation for individual states to receive the large sums of federal money that were to become available.

Three five-year comprehensive nationwide outdoor recreation plans were produced by the Department of the Interior. *The Recreation Imperative*, the first plan, was too controversial to release. The second national outdoor recreation plan, *Outdoor Recreation; A Legacy for America*, was presented by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation in 1973. It provided guides for coordinating federal and nonfederal public agencies' recreation efforts. It also established roles for various levels of government and the private sector in meeting recreation needs in America. *The Third Nationwide Outdoor Recreation Plan*, presented in 1979, sought to establish continuous recreation planning and assessment rather than periodic efforts.

Assessment of outdoor recreation was continued by the Department of the Interior, even though the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation was being eclipsed by rival agencies.

By 1978, the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation had been renamed the Heritage, Conservation, and Recreation Service (HCRS). But this agency too was short-lived in part because of the constant opposition to it by the National Park Service (Fairfax, 1978). Also, many original objectives given to it by the Outdoor Recreation Act of 1963 and the ORRRC report had been accomplished. By 1981, the last independent remnants of HCRS were abolished, and any remaining duties were transferred to the National Park Service. With that action, the federal government eliminated one of the few agencies concerned specifically with outdoor recreation. With abandonment of national assessments and the Nationwide Outdoor Recreation Plan, assessment of outdoor recreation in America became the responsibility of the Forest Service. Authority for this assessment was through the Renewable Resources Planning Act of 1976 as described in Chapter 2 of this book.

A back-country preservation system that was begun by the Forest Service in 1924 with a half-million acres has blossomed into the National Wilderness Preservation System (NWPS) containing approximately 91 million acres. The wilderness concept—originated at the federal level by Arthur Carhart in 1924—has grown to become a major component of federal land administration. Public opinion has supported establishing, keeping, and enlarging the National Wilderness Preservation System.



More than 677,000 acres are designated as part of the National Wilderness Preservation System in Yosemite National Park. Photo courtesy of USDI National Park Service. Photo by Richard Frear.

Once the battle to pass the Wilderness Act was won, Congress moved rapidly to establish other recreation systems at the national level and to fund recreation land acquisition. Compromises needed to get the Wilderness Act through Congress served as models for the ensuing recreation legislation that faced the same sort of opposition. Prior activities that were exceptions to the intent of the legislation were permitted where they had been established. Private land rights were given some protection against eminent domain proceedings. And, mining interests were protected under an existing mining law until it expired in 1984. Having established the ground rules, Congress rolled on to pass the acts establishing the National Trails System and the Wild and Scenic Rivers System and creating several more national recreation areas.

The Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965 (LWCFA) did more than any other piece of legislation to get federal agencies and states to develop outdoor recreation areas and facilities in response to the

recommendations of the ORRRC report. LWCFA provides funds to state and local governments for the development of outdoor recreation on a planned, nationwide scale. Balancing the nation's supply of recreation opportunities with its needs is the expressed purpose of LWCFA. Substantial sums of money were made available to agencies and states that cooperated and complied with certain requirements. Some of that money was spent by the Forest Service, the National Park Service, and the Fish and Wildlife Service for land acquisition. Sixty percent of the LWCFA money was intended for the state governments on a 50-50 matching basis. Use of matching funds was intended to double the total monies spent under this act. It also signified a commitment by the receiving state. An investment in recreation resources of more than \$2.5 billion has resulted from the Land and Water Conservation Act. More than one million acres have been added to federal recreation areas, and 27,000 state and local projects received matching funds. Many of the original goals set by the ORRRC report were accomplished through the LWCFA.

Federal and state responses to the ORRRC report brought about significant changes in outdoor recreation. In some ways, the success of that report also brought about its obsolescence. As time passed, people's outdoor recreation involvement changed to the point that by 1980, many national leaders were concerned about the overall recreation situation. Twenty years after the ORRRC report was published, Resources for the Future (Outdoor Recreation Policy Review Group, 1983) published a private assessment of the outdoor recreation situation entitled, *Outdoor Recreation for America—1983*. That report pushed the Congress and the president into ordering another serious study to update the 1958 ORRRC project. The President's Commission on Americans Outdoors (PCAO) was established by executive order in 1985 and produced its report, *Americans Outdoors: The Legacy, the Challenge*, in 1987. This new study produced a new approach by the government in its role of providing a national policy for recreation. Instead of concentrating upon supply and demand numbers, the new policy focused upon societal concepts. The needs for an outdoor recreation ethic, private property rights, landowner liability, cooperative partnerships, and environment quality were the topics forming the new federal policy for outdoor recreation.

Since the 1970s, state parks have rearranged their priorities so that outdoor recreation, rather than preservation, defines their mission. Increased demand for state park land between 1960 and 1990 fueled the development of facilities and recreation programs—often at the expense of passive use and preservation. Today, every state has a park system, and state parks host an estimated 700 million visitors a year on just over 11 million acres. Land acquisition for state parks rose rapidly through the 1970s, but has tapered off since then. That decreasing rate of expansion has paralleled the leveling off of attendance that occurred unevenly in state park systems. Apparently, the State Park System was again able to adjust to the situation. As the rate of increase in use slowed down, so did the expansion of parkland area. And, the State Park System became less dependent upon uncertain tax support—turning instead to more revenue generation—to support its operations.

State and federal land got the most attention during the development of the nation's outdoor recreation infrastructure. However, private land was also providing a major share of recreation opportunities. During the years of expansion and definition, private land continued to provide opportunities for outdoor recreation and tourism. Much of the private land that is available for recreation is in the East where it helps to balance the lack of sufficient public recreation land. In the past, one of the major reasons for closing private land to public recreation was the fear of liability. States wanting the private land to be open to public use in some form passed legislation to shield landowners from liability in certain situations. All 50 states passed recreation user statutes to limit liability of landowners for injuries occurring to recreational visitors while on their land (Voth & Wright, 1995). Although the states differ in how much immunity their statutes provide, they agree on the concept of shielding the landowner who does not charge entry fees (Van Der Smissen, 1987). Charging a fee usually negates the protective laws.

Recreation was considered to be a social need that should be provided to everyone as a public good. That notion was declared in the Outdoor Recreation Act of 1963—much as the Declaration of Independence referred to inalienable rights. The approach appears to minimize the role of private recreation opportunities and place the responsibility for providing all the recreation land and opportunities through public funding. As is typical of long-term government programs, the situation changed as recreation demand was being satisfied. The perceived role of recreation shifted. Society changed its mind. It no longer looked at recreation solely as a public good with common benefits paid for by public funds. Rather, people began to respond to the myriad of new recreation choices being offered by the private sector both on and off public land.

Long trips during extended vacations gave way to short, intensely active vacations that fit into the changing life styles in the developed nations. Both spouses worked and time was becoming the most valuable commodity when the national policy for recreation had run its course in the early 1990s. A sort of "pay-to-play" principle had replaced the public-good view of recreation. People who were paying to pursue recreation

were becoming less likely to vote for higher taxes to support the public-good aspect of it. Rapid and relatively cheap transportation permitted fast travel to destination vacations anywhere in the world. Improved equipment allowed people to get involved in activities that would have been impossible for them a decade or two earlier.

Rapid transportation and high-quality equipment allowed many people to do more than just view the scenery. Close involvement with nature during outdoor recreation and tourism set the stage for learning more about the natural environment and for becoming more closely associated with its many facets. The physical fitness movement enabled a large segment of the population to safely enjoy some newly available high risk activities. Recreation activities of all sorts were moved into the natural setting. Running, bicycling, and other competitive activities have become common activities in parks and forests. Although they are not likely to displace conventional parkland activities, these recreational pursuits are here to stay and they are growing, changing, and getting more intrusive all of the time. Individual watercraft, mountain bikes, in-line skates, super sidecut skis, small snowshoes, new clothing materials, and hundreds of other items are changing the way the public is participating in the great outdoors.



Non-traditional activities such as snow volleyball are seen increasingly on recreation areas. Photo courtesy of National Ski Areas Association.

Only the private sector of the economy has the flexibility to adjust quickly and continuously to the desires of recreationists and tourists. Large companies recognized the potential for good investments in recreation and tourism and established facilities both independent of and dependent upon public attractions. Now, private capital and private management of facilities are common on public land. This concept was introduced by Stephen Mather when he was director of the National Park Service in 1916. Demands for more expensive and elaborate facilities and services got to the point where the public sector did not want to, or could not, provide them. Mather's earlier idea of introducing private capital and management onto public land to provide facilities and services was seen as the way to provide those specialized services. Hotels in national

parks were part of Mather's earliest plan, but the idea did not spread very much until after the large LWCF expansion of recreation land. Lodging, ski resorts, and similar developments were established as concessions on public land to provide opportunities that were too expensive or outside of the agency's responsibility. As available tax monies shrank, state and federal agencies turned more and more to partnership agreements in which private organizations met changing demands for recreation on public land. The partnerships are successful because recreators are willing to pay more of the cost for specialized, high-quality opportunities.

Integration and Accommodation of Science and the Environment

Outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism are adjusting to new realities. Technology innovations and economic and social structural changes are evident everywhere. Unprecedented affluence and economic advancement have followed the end of the Cold War in many parts of the world. The citizens of many nations are investing their time, energy, and money in recreation pursuits. Tourism is moving people to all corners of the earth—even to places where the attractions only recently have been defined. Recreation participation has been increasing in this country for over 100 years, and that trend is continuing. Recent work by the National Survey on Recreation and the Environment indicates that in 1995, approximately 95 percent of Americans participated in outdoor recreation and that the popularity and marketplace opportunities are still increasing faster than the general population (Cordell, Lewis, & McDonald, 1995).

For Americans, the length of a vacation averages 8.5 days. Less time and more money to invest have made some changes in the way that we now view the use of our leisure. There seems to be an interest in more economical use of leisure. People are doing those things that reflect a previous investment of time and money

rather than just "hanging out" at the beach. Certainly, beach vacations are popular if one surveys the shorehouse rental success these days. However, many people look for more ingredients in the vacation package than they once did. Computer games and the Internet go with them. Individual watercraft, mountain bikes, portable CD players, and hundreds of new concepts enhance vacation activities. Where safe drinking water is scarce, tiny, portable water filtration systems now allow serious backpackers to stay out longer than they once could. Lightweight clothing and associated gear provide warmth, waterproofing, and safety.

Pursuit of an activity of choice appears to have replaced the vacation as the primary reason for outdoor recreation participation. Children's soccer leagues, adult golf outings and tournaments, triathlon camps, specialized theme cruises, and ecotourism are small parts of the new wave of outdoor recreation involvement. A "been there, done that" group of travelers is looking for new and ultimate adventures. These people now can begin their activities from such far away bases as Tahiti or Bora Bora. New concepts in marine cruises have been introduced. All three cruises of a new 420-passenger cruise liner operating on the Great Lakes were sold out to European tourists in 1997. The northern border of the United States appears to have an appeal to European travelers, who are stopping over at Toledo, Ohio, on their 10- and 11-day cruises between Montreal and Chicago.

In today's marketplace, "green" sells. Environmental interest is high, and it attracts paying visitors. Nature-based tourism implies travel to interact with a natural environment for education, observation, or recreation (Richards, 1996). Visiting an area to appreciate its natural attributes has been the rationale for nature-based tourism as we commonly accept the term. Now, a new term, "ecotourism" has been introduced. Ecotourism is defined by the Ecotourism Society as "socially and environmentally responsible travel to natural areas which conserve the environment and improves the welfare of the local people." Ecotourism has developed from the 1990s' nature-based tourism desires to benefit from unique environments while contributing to their protection and improvement.

There is a downside to worldwide nature-based tourism. Tourists are able to fly to many locations that may not be ready to offer them the best of hospitality. Tourists who are stretching their horizons to include more extreme cultural situations sometimes find themselves coping with more than the trip. The end of the struggle between the superpowers left many vacuums of undefined power that are bringing life to local, but violent conflicts. Completely innocent and impartial nature-based tourists are stepping into these settings. The nature-based tourist can be a pawn in forceful negotiations. Governments encourage tourism as an excellent industry for boosting local economies. Hard currency is brought from home and left in developing countries as tourists come to see cultural, scenic, and historical attractions. People seeking power occasionally resort to the ultimate weapon of the disenfranchised—terrorism. Disrupting tourism or holding tourists hostage is a rare, but real, situation. Violent attacks have occurred in Egypt, hostages have been taken in Nepal, and outright banditry has occurred in Belize and Guatemala. Tourists are vulnerable to violence. The threat of violence upon tourists for political purposes is not unique to modern tourism, but it is something to consider. Quick and visible impacts make tourism an attractive target for terrorists and bandits.

New equipment and the desire to learn something new drive much of today's outdoor recreation participation. A four-wheel driving school is available for people who purchased a sport-utility vehicle, but have neither a place to use its capabilities nor the knowledge to do so. Just \$664 buys two hours of lessons in the school's Land Rovers and a night's hotel stay (Sloan, 1997). Bicycle tours of European countries attract Americans who want to pedal around while looking at wineries, art, castles, or some other theme. Many Asians come to this country to climb its mountains using the equipment that new technologies provide.

Hand-held global positioning satellite (GPS) receivers and cellular telephones have changed the way people interface with the wilderness experience. Today, it is possible to be in touch with the office while camping in the middle of a wilderness area. Some resistance is surfacing from organizations dedicated to more primitive experiences. Those groups believe that the new technologies are incongruous with wilderness experiences. However, the safety and convenience of GPS receivers and cellular or satellite telephones mean that they are in the back-country to stay. The same is true for satellite transmitters carried by ocean-going yachts and back-country skiers for location tracking in emergencies. While these devices are not for everyone, the ability to "be in touch" while isolated on a recreation trip into remote places makes sense for people concerned about their safety or needing to monitor business or family situations. Why not have your computer available, send faxes, or receive telephone messages in the wilderness?

New alliances are forming as conflicting views rise or decline in this new period of integration and accommodation of science into outdoor recreation. Personal computers, faxes, electronic mail, and the Internet have permitted new, small budget organizations to present their cases to the public and to lawmakers in ways that were not possible just a decade earlier. Highly funded preservation organizations no longer have the lobbying and public information fields to themselves. Recently founded organizations interested in using,

rather than simply preserving, outdoor resources have learned how to use the modern technologies to effectively state their cases. A case in point is the successful campaign to keep the Reserve Status 2477 roads open for access on federal land in spite of strong attempts by preservation groups and government agencies to close them and thereby exclude mounted and mechanized recreationists.

Different technologies have created different situations—not all of them good or bad in the long run. These technologies will enable people to enjoy the out-of-doors in ways unknown to their parents. Anglers can use the GPS systems to determine their location, mark a fishing spot for a return visit, have an automatic course plotted for home or the next fishing site, and have a standby man-overboard locator. As the price per unit has dropped, GPS receivers have become a popular method of traveling in back-country areas because they give all the directions needed to get where one wants to go. However, they are best used when backed up with a compass and a map.

Internet users gather all sorts of information about their destinations before leaving home. Maps, trail conditions, camping availability, snow conditions, and costs of events are just a few items that are learned from the Internet. Reservations, tickets, and equipment use can be arranged electronically. Completing the recreation planning and obtaining all the required information in advance fits into the new style that demands time efficiency.

Even hunting is swept up in the new style of outdoor recreation. "Sporting-clays" shooting courses are substituting for live bird harvesting. They present compact, ready experiences to the person wanting to develop shooting skills or compete against others without spending long periods of time in the field looking for live targets to fly up. Managers are perplexed in eastern public forests as the white-tailed deer population climbs while hunting pressure declines. But hunting is more appealing on private domains where conditions can be controlled by the hunting organization or the property manager.

Some of the same camaraderie can be developed that is associated with the game of golf where people play in small groups on a known course. Golf is another growing outdoor pursuit that is succeeding predominantly in the private sector. Golf was here to stay before the present trends developed. However, it now has a new face with an appeal to Asian and Black Americans that it never had before. The young and minority group members see golf as an activity in which they can achieve greatness or just have fun now that Tiger Woods has arrived.

Conclusion

The changes in outdoor recreation taking place today may be more dependent on attitude than upon toys. People are willing to pay to recreate, but they want to spend their money on their terms. Public sector recreation helped to meet the country's recreational needs when opportunities were in short supply. Now that there are plentiful supplies of outdoor recreation opportunities and public money is getting scarce, people have begun to focus on more specialized and costly activities. Recreation opportunities still exist on the public estate. But many of the new activities are in the private sector or in cooperative partnerships between the public and private sectors. Partnerships in funding and in supplying outdoor recreation opportunities will continue to grow. Where outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism go in the future might be linked to the economy. If the past is a predictor of the future, however, outdoor recreation participation will go up regardless of where the economy goes.

EVOLUTION OF THE NATIONAL WILDERNESS PRESERVATION SYSTEM

John B. Loomis, Colorado State University

Origins of the Concept of Wilderness Preservation

The concept of wilderness has evolved in human perception over the past centuries. Wilderness as a primeval, natural environment was viewed as a forbidding place during most of human history. Wilderness was something to be conquered and a source of wood for heating, cooking, and buildings. Three factors led to the changing perception of wilderness as something desirable. First was the rise of incomes brought about by the success of the industrial revolution. A growing proportion of the American public was less concerned with survival needs such as food, clothing, and shelter. Their interests began to enlarge to outdoor recreation. Second, the industrial revolution and urbanization of America resulted in less direct contact with nature. The noise and crowding of factories and cities made the contrasting quiet and solitude offered by wilderness refreshing rather than forbidding. Finally, Nash (1973) pointed out that wilderness was becoming scarce

relative to farmland, suburbs and cities. At the margin, another million-acre wilderness was now something of value, rather than something to be cleared for farms and houses.

Early Reservations

It was a sense of this rising scarcity of wilderness that led Arthur Carhart and Aldo Leopold to suggest to the U.S. Forest Service that some land be preserved in a roadless state. Their first reservation was the Gila Wilderness Reserve in 1924 in New Mexico. In 1929, the first official policy was established for protecting such roadless areas as primitive areas. Ten years later, the Forest Service issued "U" regulations that administratively established wilderness areas (Dana & Fairfax, 1980; Hendee, et al., 1990). These regulations provided that tracts larger than 100,000 acres could be protected from road building, logging, hotels, and motorized access. At that time about 14 million acres were classified as wilderness (Hendee, et al., 1978). The Forest Service retained authority to reclassify lands from wilderness to other uses, however.

Early Legislative Efforts

The ability to reclassify lands from wilderness to allow more developed uses led many groups to push for more permanent protection of wilderness through Congressional designation. From the original proposals in 1956 to the final Wilderness Bill in 1964, 65 different bills were introduced into Congress (Hendee, et al., 1990). During this time, 20 of these bills passed one house or the other, but not until 1964 was a bill finally passed by both Houses of Congress (Dana & Fairfax, 1980, 217)

Wilderness Act of 1964

In September of 1964 the Wilderness Act was passed. The act defined wilderness as:

an area where the earth and its community of life are untrammelled by man, where man himself is a visitor who does not remain . . . an area of undeveloped Federal (sic) land retaining its primeval character and influence, without permanent improvements or human habitation, which is protected and managed so as to preserve its natural conditions and which (1) generally appears to have been affected primarily by the forces of nature, with the imprint of man's work substantially unnoticed; (2) outstanding opportunities for solitude or a primitive and unconfined type of recreation.

The act "hereby established the National Wilderness Preservation System . . . and shall be administered for the use and enjoyment of the American people in such a manner as will leave them unimpaired for future use and enjoyment as Wilderness (sic)."

The act formally designated all national forest land that had been classified under the U regulations as *wilderness* or *wild*. The act required the Forest Service to recommend whether areas classified as *primitive* should be recommended for *wilderness* designation. The act required the secretary of interior to review every roadless area of over 5,000 acres the National Park Service and National Wildlife Refuge System for potential as wilderness.

The act specified that "there shall be no temporary road, no use of motor vehicles, motorized equipment or motorboats, no landing of aircraft, no other form of mechanical transport..." This latter requirement has been interpreted to ban the use of mountain bikes in wilderness areas.

It is very important to note that wilderness is compatible with multiple-use management. Wilderness allows for continuation of livestock grazing in the same manner and degree as prior to designation. Many multiple uses are enhanced by wilderness protection, for example, water quality, wildlife, fisheries, and primitive recreation.

Eastern States Wilderness Act

Given the strict definition of wilderness in the act, the Forest Service felt that many of the previously "cut-over" but regrown forests in the eastern U.S. did not meet the definition of Wilderness (Hendee, et al., 1978). However, there was significant public support for protecting many of these less-than-pristine areas from future logging and development. From 1972 to 1974 several bills were introduced for an Eastern States Wilderness Act. In 1975, the act passed. The act designated 16 areas in 13 states as Wilderness and added them to the National Wilderness Preservation System (Hendee, et al., 1978, 77). The act identified 17 Wilderness Study Areas for review and recommendation as Wilderness. While this act provided less stringent admis-

sion criteria for eastern areas, it dictated that the areas would be managed in accordance with the principles in the 1964 Wilderness Act (Hendee, et al. 1978).

BLM Made Eligible for Wilderness

The Bureau of Land Management was not included among federal land agencies when the Wilderness Act of 1964 passed. However, the BLM is the largest public land manager in the 11 Western States. BLM did not receive authority to review its land for Wilderness until it received its "organic" act in the form of the Federal Land Policy and Management Act of 1976, nearly 12 years after the Wilderness Act first passed. Due to the tens of millions of roadless acres on BLM land, the agency's Wilderness review process was a major undertaking. Some offices of BLM approached the effort as part of its new planning process, while others tried to "fast track" the Wilderness review process to "release" as many roadless areas as possible to other multiple uses. While the BLM largely completed its review and recommendation of roadless areas as Wilderness by the mid 1980s, Congress has been very slow to act on these recommendations. With the exception of California and Arizona, most areas recommended for Wilderness are still labeled as Wilderness Study Areas (WSA's). Generally, WSA's are managed as Wilderness to protect their qualities until Congress makes final determinations on these areas.

Wilderness Management

While the concept of wilderness management might be thought of as a contradiction in terms, protection of the wilderness qualities of solitude and naturalness requires explicit user guidelines when visitation levels rise beyond the natural resiliency of the environment. Wilderness management has become a professional career path within many federal and state agencies. The joint publication in 1978 by the USDA and USDI of the landmark book *Wilderness Management* by USDA Forest Service scientists John Hendee, George Stankey, and Robert Lucas did much to upgrade the standards of wilderness management. The second edition of that book in 1990 continues to be a standard text for wilderness management courses throughout the world. Wilderness management has emphasized visitor use management, including carrying capacity, limits of acceptable change, and the merits of different ways to ration visitor use. However, wilderness management is much broader than visitor management and includes wildlife, fire, and air quality. For example, wilderness areas are provided special air quality protection as Class I areas under the Clean Air Act of 1977 and subsequent amendments.

Summary

As is shown in Chapter VII on wilderness, the National Wilderness Preservation System is a diverse collection of natural ecosystems. These ecosystems range from deserts to alpine areas. Wilderness areas range in size from a few hundred acres of wetland on national wildlife refuges in the lower 48 states to million-acre tracts in Alaska, Idaho, and Minnesota. There has been growing recognition that wilderness is for more than recreation use. Wilderness is now playing a major role in protecting critical habitat for endangered species such as the northern spotted owl and salmon.

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