The California Ranger

A JOURNAL FOR PARK PROFESSIONALS

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National Parks and Park Rangers: A Brief History

by
Robert C. Pavlik
Historian, San Simeon Region

"During my long erratic seasonal career with the National Park Service I was employed never as a naturalist but as a ranger and sometimes as a fire look-out....For I am not a naturalist....if a label is required say that I am one who loves unfenced country. *The open range.* Call me a ranger. Though I've hardly earned the title I claim it anyway. The only higher honor I've ever heard of is to be called a man." Edward Abbey, in his introduction to The Journey Home (1977)

Introduction

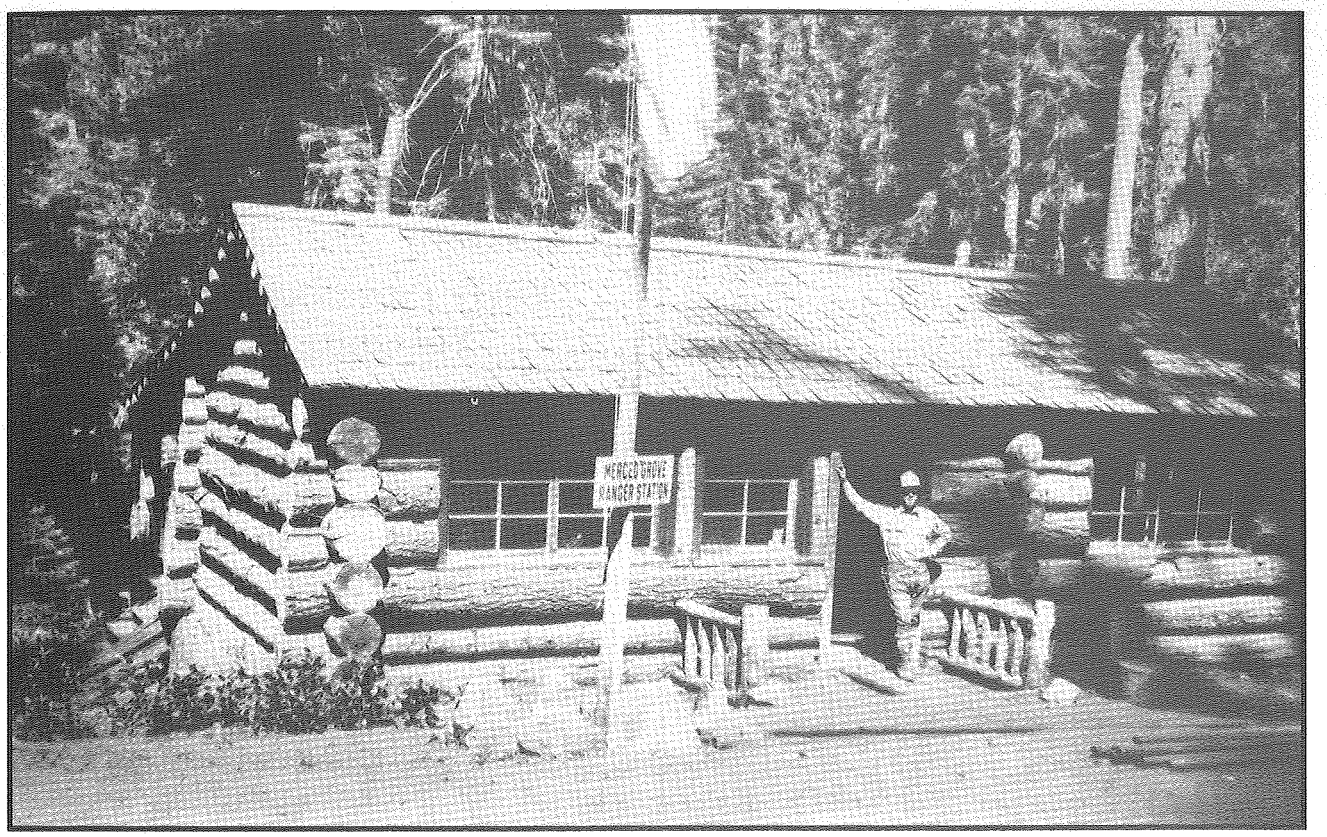
The dual yet complementary concepts of parks and park rangers have their antecedents in early American history. This essay endeavors to explore the birth of the national park idea, the growth of the National Park System, and the important roles that some of their caretakers, commonly known as "rangers," have played in the protection, development, management, and interpretation of the first national parks.

Native Americans, George Catlin, and "A Nation's Park"

On the North American continent, myriad groups of native peoples, known today as nations or tribes, occupied geographical regions defined by physical boundaries. Their world view did not include personal ownership of land, nor did it bear any resemblance to the Judeo-Christian notion of human superiority over all other life forms. Therefore, the advent of widespread, large-scale agriculture, or the development of an increasingly sophisticated technology did not take place here. The millions of native to North America that lived here prior to Columbus's arrival did develop intricate and complex religions, cosmologies, art, and technologies for the procurement of food, shelter, and clothing and the practice of religion as well as the explanation and ordering of their universe. They considered themselves stewards of the land, and in that way, may be regarded as the continent's first true "rangers."

It was to this bounteous land that the Europeans came to establish colonial outposts for the crowns of Spain, Portugal, France, England, and the Scandinavian countries. They bought with them their own manifestations of civilization, transplanting elements of their societies and cultures to the New World.

A pristine landscape of plains, deserts, mountains, and forests lay before them. Following colonization along the eastern shoreline, a vast region to the west of the Appalachians remained largely unexplored, even at the end of the eighteenth century. Lewis and Clark's expedition up the Missouri River, across the Rocky Mountains, and down the Snake and Columbia Rivers to the Pacific in 1804-06



NPS Ranger Bert Sault in front of the Merced Grove Auto Checking Station, Yosemite N.P., circa 1922. Three such auto check stations were built by civilian rangers in 1915 to control the entry of automobiles into Yosemite N.P. Author's collection courtesy of Shirley Sargent.

opened the region to exploration and eventual settlement.

Among the river boatmen and mountain men who followed Lewis and Clark's lead were European nobles, eager to view the natural wonders of the New World, and artists whose jobs were to illustrate the spectacular scenes, people, and plant and animal life they encountered. American artists and writers also traveled alongside their European counterparts, reveling in the scenery and astounding readers of popular periodicals in Eastern cities with fantastic images of a faraway land. One such artist and visionary, George Catlin, went so far as to propose in 1832 a "nation's park, containing man and beast, in all the wild and freshness of their nature's beauty!" He went on to state that such a park would be "for America to preserve and hold up to the view of her refined citizens and the world, in future ages." Catlin is generally credited with proposing concepts of national parks; what makes his idea interesting is that he chose to include the native human inhabitants along with the natural environment for preservation. He also made the case for establishing America's uniqueness based on the natural history of the continent as our country's cultural legacy, in contrast (and in reaction to) Europe's long human history. As a nation struggling to establish itself and maintain a sense of identity, the wealth of the land came to symbolize, in part, our hegemony over the Old World.

The Yosemite Grant: 1864

The first true act of preservation took place on June 30, 1864, during the height of the Civil War. President Abraham Lincoln signed a bill into law that set aside Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Grove of giant sequoias "for public use, resort and recreation," in perpetuity. The two parcels, totalling some 44 square miles, were deeded to the state of California, whose legislators accepted the history-making grant in 1866. Thus, the first California State Park was born, along with the federal government's dawning recognition of the concept and importance of setting aside tracts of land for national parks.

What, one might ask, was the motivation for setting aside such a parcel of land? With the discovery of gold in California in 1848 and the subsequent avalanche of argonauts to the Sierra Nevada foothills, there ensued a rapid and alarming depredation of the region's natural resources. For example, shortly after Augustus T. Dowd's discovery of giant sequoias in 1852, enterprising entrepreneurs set out to cut down one of the magnificent trees in order to put it on display. A cry of agony and horror went up, denouncing such barbarism for the sake of capital gain. The protests was neither loud nor strong enough, however, because a mighty sequoia was subsequently stripped of its bark, the thick cinnamon-colored skin shipped off to New York and London for display as one of nature's freaks. Today, the Calaveras Grove of giant sequoia is dotted with stumps of trees that fell victim to this mania for what was considered "bizarre." Yosemite Valley's discovery in 1851 and its exploration by James Hutchings tourist party in 1855 also gave some indication of what might have happened if steps were not taken to protect this rare and singular feature from the "moneychangers." All one had to do was look to the east coast example of Niagara Falls to see what unbridled capitalism and unabashed exploitation could render to a once divine natural area.

Early Caretakers of the Yosemite Grant

The question of who would be charged with the responsibility of overseeing the new park quickly arose. Governor Frederick Low appointed a Board of Commissioners, similar to the present day State Park and Recreation Commission, to establish policy and to oversee the administration of the grant, including its development and maintenance. The governor named landscape architect Frederick Law Olmsted as chairman of the board, which also included William Ashburner, George Coulter, Galen Clark, Alexander Deering, E.S. Holden, Israel W. Raymond, and Josiah D. Whitney. Olmsted, fresh from his duties as manager of the Mariposa estates and already renowned as co-designer of New York's Central Park, set out to draft a comprehensive plan for the state's management of these unique resources. He established an office in Yosemite Valley, which has long since become the hub of activity for park administrators, concessionaires, and visitors alike. Olmsted spent many months tramping Yosemite Valley's meadows and wandering among the big trees of the Mariposa Grove, and in fact, considered himself the park's first superintendent. Olmsted submitted his report to the commission and returned to New York, where he resumed his professional activities. The first guardian of the grant, Galen Clark, was appointed to the position by the full board in 1866.

Clark's responsibilities were many and varied, including patrolling the grant and preventing vandalism and desecration of its

natural features; building roads, trails, bridges, and fences, and maintaining same; granting and administering leases for the construction and operation of hotels and other visitor accommodations; using the fees collected from the leases to maintain and improve the grant; and serving as liaison between the commission and the valley's residents. His work served as an example to other guardians who would follow, as he set the patterns for future caretakers of public lands in the United States.

Yellowstone National Park: 1872

In the Rocky Mountain region of Wyoming and Montana, the spectacular geyser fields of the Yellowstone and Firehole river drainages, Mammoth Hot Springs, Yellowstone Lake, and the Grand Canyon of the Yellowstone River attracted similar attention. First described by John Colter, a member of the Lewis and Clark expedition, the fantastic land of mudpots and fumeroles would later become a destination for wealthy eastern travelers on holiday. Expeditions to the region in 1869- 1871 brought news of the natural wonders to the attention of the American public and the world. President Ulysses S. Grant signed into law the Yellowstone Park Act on March 1, 1872, granting (at least on paper) protection to 3, 402 square miles (2.2 million acres) of land.

The park languished for a number of years, due to indifference on the part of Congress an the ineptitude (or worse) of the first civilian superintendents. In spite of the area's status as a preserve, the depredations of the park's wildlife, timber, and natural features continued unabated. The civilian superintendents were powerless to enforce any rules, as no law had yet been written proscribing the abovementioned activities within the park boundaries. Virtually no funds were committed for the first five years of the park's existence, and only meager and inadequate monies were forthcoming after that. Congress thought that the park should be self-sustaining from income generated from long-term leases, and therefore were reluctant to provide money for operations and administration.

On March 3, 1883, Congress authorized the Secretary of War to make Army troops available to the Secretary of the Interior for the protection of Yellowstone's natural features. The first Army cavalry troops arrived in Yellowstone in 1886, and remained the dominant administrative and legal force in Yellowstone and other national parks for the next thirty years.

The California Parks and the Army: 1890-1913

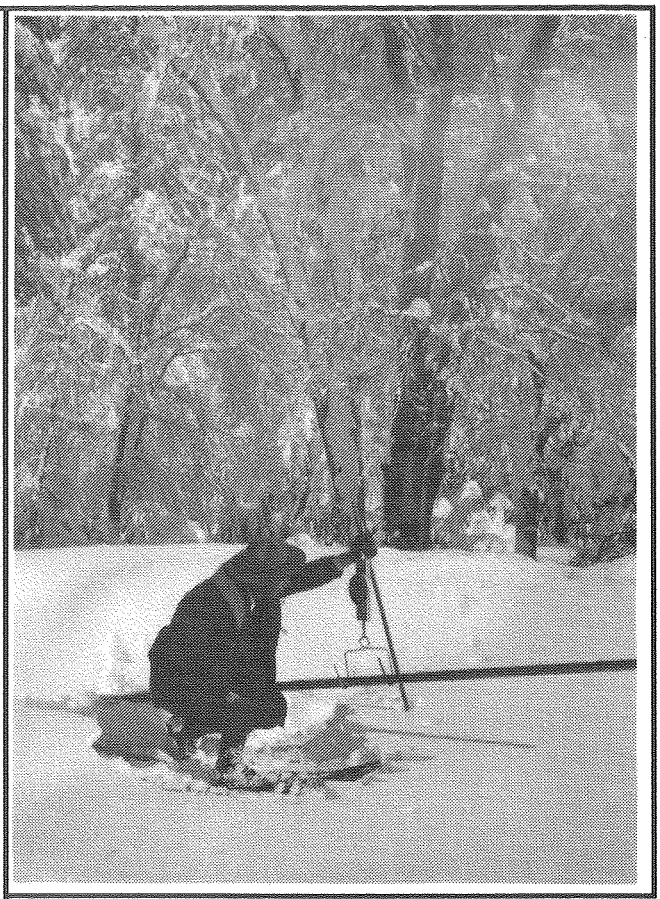
When Yosemite, Sequoia, and General Grant National Parks were created by acts of Congress in 1890, the precedent of using Army troops in a national park had already been well established. On April 6, 1891 two cavalry units from the Army Presidio of San Francisco were dispatched to Yosemite and Sequoia, under the leadership of Captains A.E. Wood and John Dorst, respectively. Captain Wood, an outstanding military man and Yosemite's first acting superintendent, is profiled here as an example of the high caliber individual charged with protecting the national parks in their infancy.

Abram Epperson Wood was a native of Iowa who at the age of 16 enlisted in the Thirteenth Iowa Infantry to fight in the Civil War. Following several years of distinguished service as a soldier, he received an appointment to West Point Military

Academy, from which he graduated in 1872. Wood was assigned to the Fourth United States Cavalry, and led an active military life in Texas, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona. He fought in a number of campaigns against Comanches, Cheyennes, Utes, and Apaches, including skirmishes with Geronimo in 1885-86. Wood steadily rose through the ranks, and was commissioned as a captain in 1883. Following his assignment to the Presidio of San Francisco in 1890, he spent six months of every year from 1891-93 in Yosemite National Park. He died of cancer on April 14, 1894 at the age of 49. The site of the Army encampment on the South Fork of the Merced River (now a NPS campground) bears his name as a tribute to Yosemite's first acting superintendent.

During their tours of duty the Army troops patrolled the remote backcountry, searching for wildland fires and rousting trespassing sheepherders, stockmen, miners, and timbermen. Those unfortunate enough to be caught grazing their animals within the park's boundaries were separated from their herds and escorted to a distant part of the park, where they were released. Because no laws existed to punish trespassers in the national parks, all the Army could do was expel the interlopers. It was a very effective deterrent to future trespass, because by the time the sheepherder got back to his flock (usually many days distant) the herd had been subjected to depredation by natural predators, and the loss was great. Within a few years trespass problems subsided, and the Army cavalry began to take up other pursuits to fill their summer months.

Perhaps the cavalry's greatest cultural imprint on Yosemite is the extensive network of trails that they blazed through the backcountry. Only a handful of trails existed prior to the Army's arrival, and it may be



Ranger Wegner reading snow gauge scale, Feb. 4, 1932.

safely stated that the cavalry created new routes more for the purpose of expediting their own explorations in search of trespassers rather than as recreational routes for the thousands of wilderness explorers that would come in their wake. However, it is to the troopers credit that such trails exist today. The Army's contribution to the continued appreciation and enjoyment of the park via the extensive network of trails that they blazed is a significant one.

In conjunction with new trails, the Army's topographical engineers made the first detailed maps of the region, and named many of the park's features. Travelers to the Yosemite and Sequoia parks will note the presence of Benson Lake, Rafferty Peak,

and Army Pass, among others, as reminders of their early presence and many contributions.

One of the most pressing needs in Sequoia National Park at the turn of the century was a good wagon road to Giant Forest. A few feeble attempts had been made in 1900-02 to build such a road, but it was far from complete. The arrival of Captain Charles Young in 1903 changed all that. In the short span of five months Young's troops built a wagon road into the Giant Sequoia grove, as well as a spur road to Moro Rock. The present mountain road to Giant Forest follows Captain Young's wagon road.

One of the first black graduates of West Point, Young was a hard working, energetic individual who rose above racist barriers to achieve high military honors. Young was truly a gentleman and an officer, fluent in Spanish, German, and French, and adept at a variety of musical instruments. Prior to his summer in the Sierra he had fought in the Spanish-American War, and following his stint in Sequoia he saw action in Mexico under General John Pershing.

The functional nature of the Army's presence in Yosemite and Sequoia extended beyond the punitive and utilitarian. As protectors of the park, some of the Army personnel took an active interest in the region's natural history. In Yosemite, for example, some of the troops assisted in stocking of lakes and streams with fish raised at Wawona Fish Hatchery. Other took an interest in the flora of the region, establishing an arboretum at Wawona in 1904.

Park "Rangers"

Up until this time, the term "ranger" had not been widely used to describe the individuals whom we now intimately associate with parks. "Guardians," "Acting Park Superintendent," and "Park Supervisor" were all used to describe either civilian or military personnel charged with responsibility for the park's care, protection, and management. The term "ranger" was first used in North America during the French and Indian War (1756-36) to describe the elite troops employed by the British as scouts ranging through the forests bordering eastern Canada and the United States. Later, both British and American forces would utilize rangers during the American Revolution (1775-83). The famed Texas Rangers were organized during the Mexican-American War (1846-48), and served as a police force for that state until the mid-1930s.

Credit for the idea of a "ranger force" goes to Harry Yount, a grizzled backwoodsman who was the first white man to winter in Yellowstone National Park. Following his arduous tour of duty, Yount concluded in his report that one man was not sufficient to carry out the duties of gamekeeper, rescuer, and protector of geyser cones and fumeroles. He called for the creation of a "small, active, reliable police force" who would be charged with those responsibilities. His plea went unheeded, and Yount drifted away.

The administration of national parks by Army personnel was far from perfect, and could not last forever. By the mid-1890s, the Secretary of War was growing increasingly impatient with the Secretary of the Interior over the yearly requests for troops to engage in civil, not military, operations. In 1898 the Spanish American War resulted in the suspension of sending Army troops to the national parks for that year. For the first time in the California parks, civilian "rangers" and volunteers tried to fill in for the Army, but they were unsuccessful in

suppressing wildfires or preventing depredations by sheepherders and poachers. The Army returned to its high country duty the following year.

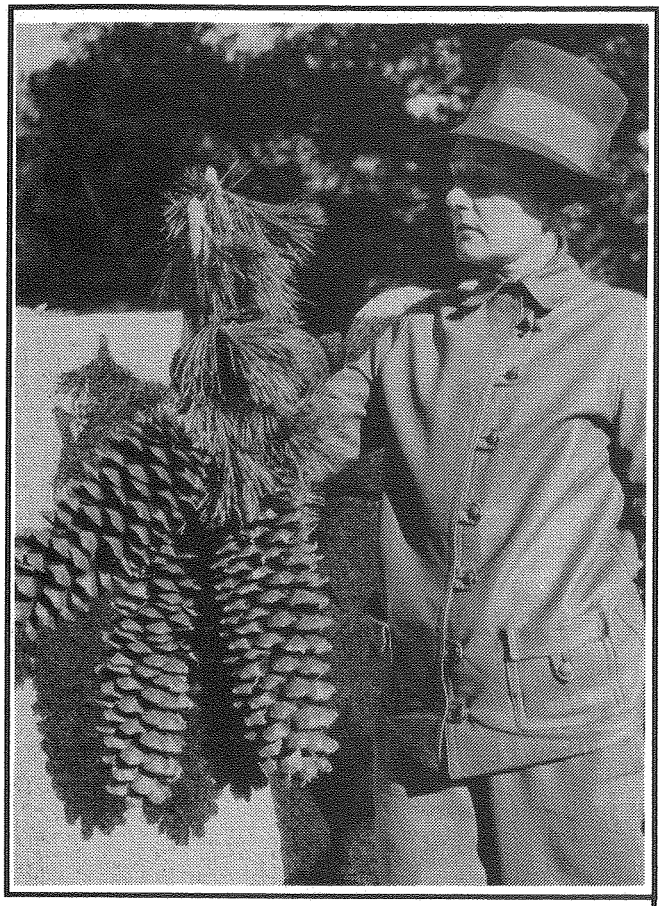
One might ask, "What happened to the park when the Army wasn't around for six months of the year? Who showed new troops and acting superintendents the park, and introduced them to the trials and challenges they would face during their tenure?" That function was performed by guides or scouts, later referred to as "rangers" or "park supervisors" who lived in the parks year around, and functioned both as maintenance and protection personnel in the Army's absence. In Yellowstone that responsibility fell to Jim McBride, who first worked in the park for the U.S. Army Cavalry. When the new troops arrived for the summer, Ranger McBride would show them to their posts, and apprise them of the events of the past winter. In Yosemite the park supervisor for many years was Gabriel Souvelewski.

A native of Poland, Souvelewski emigrated to the U.S. at the age of 16, enlisting in the Army in 1888 at the age of 22. He was with the first Cavalry troop that rode into Sequoia National Park in 1891, and he later served as quartermaster sergeant in Yosemite in 1895-97 and 1899. When Yosemite Valley and Mariposa Grove were re-ceded to the federal government in 1905-06, Souvelewski was appointed park supervisor in charge of managing the park and maintaining government-owned roads, trails, and buildings during the Army's absence. As Souvelewski wrote, "the title did not prevent my being stable boy, plumber, packer, fire guard, ranger, forester, locator, builder, superintendent, etc., etc."

Following the creation of the National Park Service in 1916, Souvelewski continued to serve as park supervisor, in charge of trail construction and road maintenance projects. Upon his retirement in 1936 at the age of 70, his position was retired by the park superintendent, who stated that "it is not conceivable that anyone else could take the place that he has filled for so many years." Gabriel Souvelewski died on November 29, 1936 in San Rafael, and is buried in the Yosemite Pioneer cemetery alongside his wife, in the valley they so dearly loved.

In Sequoia N.P., Walter Fry served in a similar capacity. He came to California in 1887 with his wife and son, and soon secured a job with Southern Pacific Railroad. In 1901 Fry became a civilian employee in charge of roads in Sequoia. He was appointed seasonal park ranger in 1905, and chief ranger in 1910. When responsibility for the year-round management of the park passed to the civilian ranger force, Fry was made superintendent, a post he held until 1920. He became U.S. Commissioner for the park, and from 1922 to 1930 also served as the park's chief naturalist. Following his retirement from nature guide service in 1930, Judge Fry continued to mete out justice and nature writing until his death in 1941 at the age of 82. In a tribute to Judge Fry, Superintendent John R. White compared Fry to Audubon, Agassiz, and Thoreau, high praise for a dedicated public servant.

It is obvious that by 1910, civilian park personnel were taking a greater role in the operation and management of the national parks. By 1911, officials at the U.S. Department of the Interior were seriously considering the formation of a new agency that would exercise total control over the national parks. Military protection was no longer deemed warranted, and events in other parts of the world necessitated the Army's presence. Pressure from within the military's ranks to reduce the size and strength of the force of its troops in the parks was a major factor in the Army's eventual withdrawal from the national parks



Enid Michael

following the 1913 season. Other important events, including the legal entry of automobiles into the national parks and the decision to dam Hetch Hetchy Valley in Yosemite National Park contributed to the decision to hasten the transition from military to civilian administration. Yet, no agency had yet been formed to oversee the park operations.

Mather, Albright, and the Early Years of the National Park Service

At the same time, businessman, outdoorsman, and native Californian Stephen T. Mather wrote to the Interior secretary to complain of conditions in the national parks. Secretary Franklin Lane's now-famous reply was, "Dear Steve, if you don't like the way the national parks are being run, come down to Washington and run it yourself." Mather did just that.

From January, 1915 until illness forced his retirement in 1929 at the age of 62, Mather forged the foundations of the present-day National Park Service, setting it on this course as the world's premiere park management agency. He was among the stellar group of conservationists who drafted the National Park Service Organic Act, which was signed into law August 25, 1916. Under Mather's aegis, the National Park System grew from 14 parks and 21 national monuments, with a total annual budget of $30,000, to 21 national parks, 33 national monuments and a $9 million annual operating budget. Some of his many accomplishments include: the organization of a professional ranger force; the development of park roads and facilities at a rapid pace, yet in keeping with the natural beauty and subservient to the surroundings; consolidation of numerous park concessions; the enlargement of park boundaries and the acquisition or elimination of private inholdings; establishment of nature guiding programs; and the instigation of a brilliant public relations campaign that heightened the public's awareness of parks, and that has had a lasting impact with both positive and negative repercussions.

His personal contributions to the National Park System were many. When Congress was unable to justify the money to buy the privately held Tioga Road in Yosemite, Mather raised the funds and contributed his own money to acquire this important road corridor across the high country. In Sequoia, he led a successful campaign to purchase a giant sequoia grove privately owned within the park boundaries. He purchased firearms for Yosemite rangers when there were no government funds to buy them, and funded

construction of the Ranger's Club, a Swiss-chalet style residence in Yosemite Valley. Back at headquarters in Washington., D.C., Mather personally paid the salaries of his own assistants for the first few years of his directorship.

Stephen Tyng Mather died on January 22, 1930 in Brookline, Massachusetts, and is buried in New Canaan, Connecticut. Visitors to the national parks may, on occasion, come across a simple bronze plaque, placed in a scenic but inconspicuous location in the park, that reads:

He Laid the Foundation of the
National Park Service.
Defining and Establishing the
Policies.
Under Which its Areas Shall be
Developed and Conserved
Unimpaired for Future
Generations.
There Will Never Come an End to
The Good That He Has Done.

The portrait on the plaque is that of Stephen T. Mather.

At the time of Mather's resignation, Assistant Director Horace M. Albright ascended to the position of director. Like Mather, Albright was a native son and a graduate of the University of California, Berkeley. Trained as an attorney, Albright accompanied Assistant Interior Secretary Adolph C. Miller on a tour of the national parks in 1913, and was later tapped as Mather's assistant. As assistant director, Albright was appointed to the superintendency of Yellowstone National Park, while directing many of the activities of the service from that far western post. As director, one of Albright's most important legacies was the inclusion of a number of archaeological and historic sites in the National Park System. Albright lobbied the President and Congress to transfer all of the national monuments and Civil War battlefield parks, as well as the national capitol parks, to the National Park Service from the Agriculture and War departments. President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed the Executive Order of June 10, 1933, directing the transfer, effective August 10, 1933, the same day Albright resigned from the park service to go into private industry. Albright's efforts resulted in the addition of 48 new units to the National Park System, creating a more balanced system of parks across the United States. The new parks also provided the National Park Service with the additional acreage and responsibility it needed to become a bonafide government service, and to prevent it from absorbed by a larger agency, such as the Forest Service. Following his resignation, Albright continued to be an important force in conservation and national park matters until his death in 1987 at the age of 97.

Women in Uniform

In the early years of the National Park Service, men comprised the bulk of its ranks. This was due, in part, to the physically rigorous nature of the work, the skills required to handle the animals, tools, and firearms, and the remoteness of some of the outposts, as well as the existing attitudes of the day. Many of the men came from the ranks of the Army or from life on ranches and farms throughout the United States. This is not to say that woman were absent, as they played important roles in the daily operation of the parks, in both voluntary as well as paid capacities. Because a ranger typically could be assigned to a remote station, many days from trailhead, wives often accompanied their husbands on patrol.

Clare Marie Hodges — one of the first woman ranger, Feb. 1919.

Women worked alongside men as packers, cooks, fire lookouts, dispatchers, and trail blazers.

In the frontcountry, women occupied important clerical and administrative positions in park offices, and served as informal hosts to visiting dignitaries.

Many women distinguished themselves as ranger-naturalists. Clare Marie Hodges holds the distinction of being one of the first women park rangers in the National Park Service. A teacher in the Yosemite Valley School, Hodges worked as a seasonal ranger in Tuolumne Meadows in 1918. For many years Enid Michael prepared botanical displays, published studies of Yosemite's flora, and worked in the museum. In Yellowstone National Park, geologist Isabel Bassett Wasson served as the park's assistant naturalist, helping establish Yellowstone's interpretive program. Among her colleagues were Marguerite Lindsley, a fellow seasonal who later became the first permanent woman park ranger in the service. In the 1920s and 1930s, native Miwoks staged demonstrations of their lifeways and material culture for visitors to Yosemite Valley. One of the best known was Ta-buce (Maggie Howard), who built acorn granaries (chuck-ahs), made acorn mush and manzanita cider, and deftly wove baskets of delicate beauty, all for the education and enjoyment of the visiting public, as well as the preservation of her native culture.

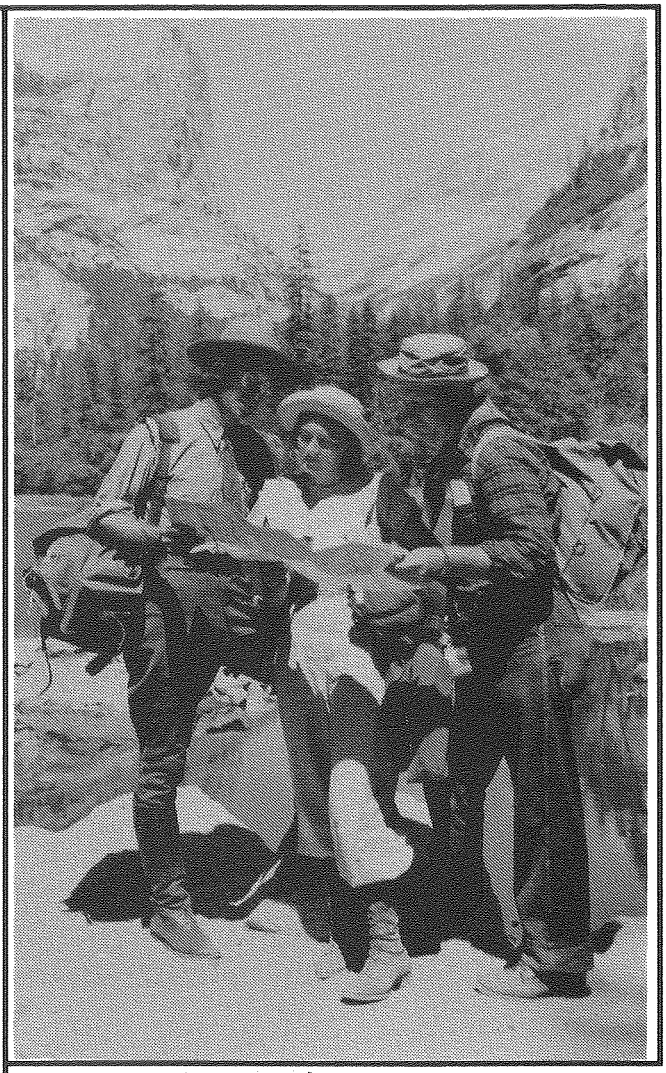
Early Interpreters

Nature guides have been associated with the national parks almost from the time of their discovery. These intrepid women and men serve to introduce visitors to the flora, fauna, geology, and human history of the region. John Muir, Galen Clark, and Enos Mills are among the most famous for their work in the Sierra Nevada and Rocky Mountains, respectively. College professors led groups of students on lengthy excursions through the high country as an adjunct to their laboratory and classroom studies. Geologist Joseph LeConte and zoologist Joseph Grinnell, both of U.C. Berkeley, are among the best known of the professor/naturalist class. As was previously mentioned, individual members of the U.S. Army Cavalry took deep personal interest in the natural history of the areas they were charged to protect, and some even

endeavored to introduce others to the richness and diversity of the natural world through informal walks, and in Yosemite, an arboretum.

Both Stephen Mather and Horace Albright took a strong interest in naturalist activities, as a method of public education as well as a way to build an informal constituency for parks. In his book Yosemite: The Embattled Wilderness (1990), environmental historian Alfred Runte shows the major contribution that Joseph Grinnell made to the infant fields of interpretation and wildlife conservation in the national parks. Runte credits Grinnell with delineating the importance of wildlife conservation and interpretation in the national parks as early as 1916. He continued to serve as "the conscience of the National Park Service," especially championing the cause of interpretation and challenging some of the ill-advised policies of the park service. Many of his colleagues and students would go on to successful careers as naturalists in the National Park Service, even eclipsing their mentor in the process. But it was Grinnell's vision that launched them into the new field, and his dedication to both education and the environment has had a lasting impact of the park service's policies and programs.

Two of Grinnell's former graduate students, Harold C. Bryant and Loye H. Miller, were enlisted by Mather to establish a nature program in Yosemite in 1920. They were assigned special duties as temporary rangers, and were assisted in their endeavors by Enid Michael and Ansel F. Hall. In 1925 Dr. Bryant established the Yosemite Field School of Natural History in conjunction with the newly opened museum, which was the result of Ranger Hall's many years of effort in that regard.



Naturalist Bayslinger with hikers, July, 1940.

Park Superintendents

Much credit must be given to the early park superintendents, who accepted the enormous tasks of developing their parks for visitor use and enjoyment, while protecting the park's natural and cultural features from degradation. Under the supervision of Mather and Albright, park superintendents charted courses of development that have had lasting impact on the national parks to this day.

In Yosemite, Washington B. ("Dusty") Lewis

served as the first NPS superintendent. He organized the ranger force, and oversaw the creation of the new Yosemite Village, as well as the merger of two concessions into the Yosemite Park and Curry Company. Many improvements were made to park roads and trails, as well as water, sewer, and electrical systems. After more than twelve years on the job, Lewis's health faltered, and he died of a heart attack on August 28, 1930. He was replaced by Colonel Charles Geoff Thomson, who proved to be an energetic and able superintendent. During Thomson's tenure, entire sections of three of the park's four roads were completely rebuilt, and many new improvements took place using federal relief funds and personnel. Thomson's sensitivity to the landscape resulted in developments in the NPS "Rustic Style" that are in keeping with their natural surroundings. His untimely death on March 23, 1937 at the age of 54 was a great loss to the National Park Service.

In Lassen Volcanic National Park (established 1916), a superintendent was not chosen until 1928 when L.W. Collins, a longtime Lassen employee, was named to the post. He was assisted in his duties by one other permanent ranger, three seasonals, and a clerk-typist-bookkeeper. The arrival on the Civilian Conservation Corps in 1933 aided the small staff in making many improvements in the rugged, remote outpost.

Following Walter Fry's tenancy as superintendent in Sequoia National Park, John Roberts White assumed the position in 1920 and remained at Sequoia for the next quarter of a century. Described as a "tall, resolute yet excitable Englishman," White accepted his superintendency at a time when automobiles were having a significant impact on the park and its giant sequoias. His first priority was to protect the trees from root compaction and degradation by auto and foot traffic, and knife- and axe-wielding souvenir hunters. White fought the constant pressures to overdevelop the park, keeping roads, concessions, and artificial attractions to a minimum. He thought of himself as an "obstructionist" who blocked proposals that threatened to compromise the resources integrity and jeopardize the park for future generations. White wrote, "we have in the parks a host of technicians, each anxious to leave his mark. But in all this energy and ambition there is danger unless all plans are subordinated to [the] atmosphere" of the park's natural features. He was also a strong advocate of interpretation, seeing education both as a method to inform the public and the park at the same time. White was a skilled naturalist who regularly lectured at campfires and who co-authored two books, Big Trees (1930) with Walter Fry, and Sequoia and King's Canyon National Parks (1949) with Samuel Pusateri.

Conclusion

Much of this essay has been devoted to the history of park rangers, and some of the women and men who have served with distinction in the national parks. By examining the history and development of the park concept, the persons who shaped the policies governing the national parks, and those who worked in them in the early years, I have attempted to illustrate the complex and diverse roles of rangers within the context of the national park movement. Since the time that Yosemite, Yellowstone, Sequoia, and Grant Grove National Parks were created more than a century ago, the responsibilities of a "park ranger" have grown, necessitating the expansion of park staffs and the inclusion of numerous specialists who devote their careers to specific aspects of park operations, maintenance, management, and administration. Early

rangers and superintendents, skillful as they were, were intent on increasing visitation and preserving scenery, not maintaining ecosystems and possibly restricting park users. Changes in technology and society have made specialization a reality in the national parks, as it has in almost all other aspects of modern life.

As visitation to the parks has increased, so has the need to improve roads, campgrounds, and other facilities for access as well as resource protection. More visitors also mean more problems, requiring the formation of a ranger force trained in law enforcement. Specialists in water quality, waste treatment, landscaping, and heavy equipment operation supplement individuals trained in the traditional trades. As our knowledge of biology, ecology, education, history, and archaeology grows, individuals schooled in natural and cultural resources management and interpretation are enlisted to contribute their expertise in those respective areas. Many managers now possess advanced degrees in public administration, and deal with myriad issues regarding budgets, personnel, contracts, other public agencies, and public relations.

Despite this movement toward specialization, one facet of the park ranger's job has not changed, and that is dedication to public service. Former National Park Service director George Hartzog has said of public servants: "In the name of the people, they minister to the suffering, defend our freedom, rescue the environment, protect the public health, explore the universe, maintain public order and perform myriads of other tasks essential to our well-being as a society." For park employees, that commitment extends to the resources we are charged with protecting, for the enjoyment and edification of the visiting public, as well as the inherent value of the resource itself.

Yet another aspect that characterizes park rangers is a love of the outdoors and a desire for an exciting, non-traditional career. In 1890, the same year Yosemite and Sequoia were made national parks, the frontier had ceased to exist. By 1920, most of the population of the United States was located in its rapidly growing urban areas. The national parks continue to offer a vestige of wilderness to adventuresome individuals who long for physical (and mental) challenges in a natural setting. In his autobiography, The Making of a Ranger: Forty Years with the National Parks (1963), Lon Garrison writes, "the force that drove me all those years was a great sense of wonder which led first to awe and then identity with this living force we call Mother Nature. The unity of the natural world and my role in it was my message; evangelism became my purpose. I *had* to share my vision with others — and with whom more appropriately than park visitors?" Garrison's equation — a passion for the outdoors, and an urge to share that passion — is still an important component of any ranger's makeup.

In summation, the duties of a park ranger cover the gamut: administrator, archeologist, biologist, carpenter, clerk, curator, electrician, engineer, farrier, firefighter, forester, game warden, guide, historian, interpreter, laborer, law enforcement officer, lifeguard, map maker, naturalist, packer, plumber, sawyer, search and rescue, trail builder — all of which can be summed up in one simple word of great impact and importance: ranger.

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The Phalarope

By
David Carle
Park Ranger,
Mono Lake Tufa S.R.

A woman walked along the sandy shore of Mono Lake. It was summer. A ground squirrel stood up straight, staring at her as she approached, then scurried into the nearby grass and disappeared into its burrow. Alkali flies massed on the beach, but whisked away from her feet as she ambled along.

Her attention was focused on the water of the lake. Hundreds of birds were scattered across the surface. She recognized most of them as sea gulls, but there were smaller birds, too. She watched several of the delicate-looking shore birds pecking at the water, wondering why many of them periodically spun in tight circles.

She was not watching where her feet were going. That's how she stubbed her toe on the bottle.

It hurt. Her big toe, exposed in her sandal, throbbed painfully. Why was she so clumsy? Things like that were always happening to her. She bent to pick up the bottle, prepared to hurl it far away, but stopped.

It was not a belated sense of guilt at tossing someone's trash into the lake that stopped her. It was the weight and appearance of the bottle. It had an alien air; some sort of dark glass flask, with curious patterns decorating its sides.

She twisted at the cork which stoppered the bottle. When it finally worked loose, a genie appeared in a musty-smelling vapor.

"Thank you, mistress, for releasing me. As a reward, I grant you the standard three wishes."

Well, as you can imagine, a few obligatory exclamations of surprise and disbelief had to occur before she stopped wasting time and considered her wishes.

"If I can really change my life... have the things I've always wanted... this is so hard!" She kicked at the sand, which made her hurt toe throb. "I wish I was graceful, and beautiful. No! Not exactly that. I wish... I wish I could fly. Soar through the sky like a swift graceful bird."

The genie looked sourly at her. "I don't think you understand how this works. If I was a stickler for accuracy, you would've already used up your three wishes. But I think I perceive the essence of your desire. That's number one. Be more careful about the next two."

Her next two wishes were much clearer. "I've always wanted to travel; to see distant lands. Please? And for number three, I wish my husband would take more of a hand with the kids." She rushed to explain.

"I mean, if I'm going to travel, someone's got to stay home and take care of things. He's just always left the children to me — at least the real work that goes with raising kids. So, if you're going to grant wish number two and let me travel, you'd better take care of my hubby and the kids while you're at it."

She sighed, satisfied, but wondered if she ought to have asked for gold and jewels instead. Oh well, it was done.

And it was. The genie did his thing, and her wishes were granted.

A group of twenty people were walking along the sandy shore of Mono Lake. Their leader wore the Smokey the Bear hat of a park ranger. He stopped and pointed toward a flock of small birds on the lake.

"Those are Wilson's phalaropes. See the buff color on their necks, and the black streak on the head? They've just recently arrived here from Canada, where they nest. They weigh only about one ounce when they reach Mono Lake after that long flight. But they get busy, gorging themselves on flies and shrimp, and within 30 days will double their weight.

"Think about that! Think about what *you* weigh, right now. Consider what you'd have to do to double that in just one month. The phalarope finds so much food here that they can get very fat, very fast. They use the fat to fuel their migration south, when they leave. After a couple months, they'll fly down to South America for the winter. And they won't even stop to feed on the way. They'll go 2,000 miles in just two days, flying non-stop. Mono Lake is their essential 'gas station' and 'rest area.' "

The group watched the flock of birds. They looked so tiny and frail, it was hard to accept that they could safely travel thousands, from northern Canada to South America, then back again, every spring and fall.

"One hundred forty thousand phalaropes visit Mono Lake each summer. We see these Wilson's phalaropes first, the red-necked phalaropes later in the summer. The... oh, look!"

Something caused the entire flock of birds to take to the air. Several hundred phalaropes, wings rapidly beating, climbed up, then made the crowd gasp as they began to fly like a single organism. Dark backs suddenly disappeared, replaced by white breasts as each bird turned. Since all of the phalaropes turned in unison, the effect was stunning. It was something like a school of tropical fish moving as one body in an aquarium. For a few moments, the flock put on a precision drill-team show, flashing back and forth over the lake, spiraling high before settling back onto the water, right where they had begun.

Then one of the phalaropes swam boldly toward the people standing at the shore, pecking at flies on the water surface as it approached. It paused after each peck and stared at the ranger, as though it was listening to him and understood his words.

"All of these phalaropes are females. I find it fascinating that, in the nesting areas up north, after each female lays her eggs, she leaves. Comes down here to Mono Lake.

Meanwhile, the male is left to sit on the eggs, hatch the chicks, and care for them until they can fly. *Then* the males and young birds migrate. It's an interesting reversal of sex roles."

The crowd laughed when a young woman raised a fist and said, "Right on!" Several couples with kids in tow exchanged male-female looks.

The phalarope had continued to inch closer and closer to shore. When the crowd laughed, the phalarope began spinning.

"Look. Is she celebrating her women's liberation?" someone asked the ranger.

"Could be. More likely, she's just hungry. Phalaropes will spin in tight circles like that to stir up food and concentrate it into a little whirlpool. See how she's stopped and begun eating now?

"She's a beauty, isn't she? So tiny and graceful. I'm really glad that Mono Lake is here for these birds. It's important to recognize that, should this lake's ecosystem die, places in South America and Canada might be affected." He turned, prepared to lead the group farther down the shore, when his foot kicked a bottle half-buried in the sand. The ranger picked up the bottle. He examined it curiously for a moment, tipping it over. A little sand spilled out. He shrugged and as he continued walking, put the bottle into his daypack with other bits of litter he had gathered since the start of the tour.

About the author

Dave Carle has been a State Park Ranger since 1975; at Mono Lake Tufa S. R. for 8 1/2 years, where he shares the same job position with his wife Janet. Besides writing for the Mammoth Times, he has written a novel with a park ranger as a sleuth, which will be published in the spring of 1991. Its title is Hitting the Wall.

RESOLVING CONFLICTS OF RECREATION USERS

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Abstract

Professionals and public agencies need more systematic and effective ways of resolving on-site conflicts between recreation user groups. A behavioral approach based on the concepts of resource and use quality is a practical way to cope with the problems of multiple use, carrying capacity, and the compatibility of users with each other and the landscape.

Keywords: *Public, open space, multiple use, carrying capacity, behavior, planning, design, management*

Introduction

Public agencies and professionals need a conceptual framework to cope with the growing problems of multiple use and carrying capacity that commonly result in conflict between recreation users. Recreation planners and mangers charged with the mission of providing users with a quality recreation experience and preserving the recreation resource from overuse or misuse are challenged to develop policies and programs that are politically feasible and cost effective.

The issues of resource use, use quality, design load, carrying capacity, environmental impact, and managing the resource and/ or recreation user to resolve conflicts are not new. What is new is the increasing demand on a shrinking resource base that prompts sophisticated solutions and realistic policies.

The Recreation Experience

The place to begin is to consider the model of leisure behavior in Figure 1. This model is based on two basic concepts that are fundamental to the regional park experience and any measures of user preference and satisfaction:

Resource Quality. Objective measures of conditions which visitors view as part of the permanent natural and built physical elements of facilities of an area, e.g., scenery, vegetation, water, toilets, tables, trails.

User Quality. Objective measures of conditions which visitors view as constraints (negative) or inducements (positive) to their expectations and satisfaction during a visit to an area, e.g., overcrowding, waiting, noise, conflict, fear, embarrassment, and danger, or program

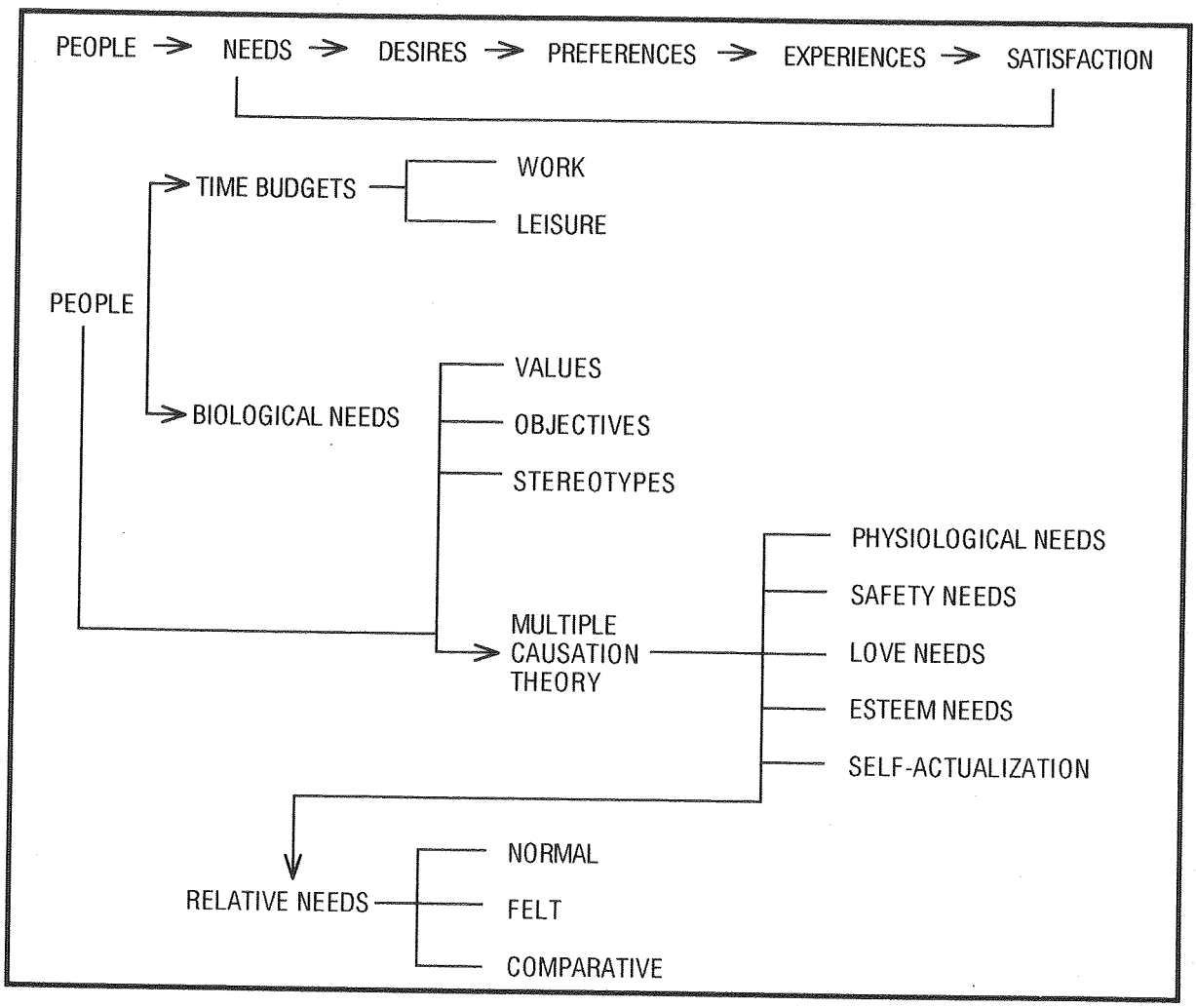


Figure 1
Model of Leisure Behavior

leadership, interpretation, information, law enforcement, and food service.

The concept of quality is based on a **behavioral** approach to the recreation experience which translates basic human needs (multiple causation theory) into three desires that condition user preference and satisfaction for a given area or activities:

Resource-Directed Desires. Contact with a natural resource, e.g., sun, sand, surf, wildlife. The degree of satisfaction depends on the quality of and access to the resource.

Image-Directed Desires. The fulfillment of a desirable image, e.g., surfer or physical fitness. The degree of satisfaction depends not on the resources, but on the way others may view the resource, activity, or user.

Leisure-Directed Desires. A pleasurable way to use leisure time, e.g., Sunday drive, window shopping, television, movies. The degree of satisfaction does not depend on the

resource or others but on how effectively the place or activity consumes leisure time.

In this context, user preference and user satisfaction for a recreation area or experience can be described as:

User Preference. The voluntary choice of an activity or area to fulfill a desire.

User Satisfaction. The fulfillment of a desire and a preference which is normally conditioned by the user's preconceived ideas about the area, activities available, natural setting, facilities, and management of the area.

The total recreation experience has five phases which can be used to measure preference and satisfaction for regional parks. These phases are commonly labeled anticipation, travel to, on-site, travel back, and recollection. Although most managers are concerned with the "on-site" phase or the recreation experience, it is important to realize that user satisfaction is affected by **all** phases of this experience. We should begin to pay more attention to what happens off-site by providing (a) better information about what to expect in a park, (b) how to get there, (c) what to bring or do, and (d) more meaningful souvenirs of the on-site experience. We can also classify all activities in these four categories of the on-site recreation experience and evaluate each in terms of user satisfaction:

Physical recreation, which requires exertion or physical effort as the major experience of the activity.

Social recreation, which involves interpersonal relations and social exchanges as the major experience of the activity.

Cognitive recreation, which includes the cultural, educational, and creative-aesthetic activities which are mentally rewarding.

Environment-related recreation, which requires use of a natural resource such as water, trees, and climatic conditions to provide activity opportunity.

Beyond time or visits as a measure, it is possible to view the recreation experience in terms of **values** that become institutionalized as **objectives** for individuals or society. For example, these values and objectives are commonly associated with describing our "needs" for outdoor recreation.

Values

Cultural values — history, heritage, beauty
Psychological values — contact with nature, spiritual feelings
Sociological values — friendship, interaction, challenge
Physiological values — health, vigor, fitness
Educational values — appreciation and understanding of nature

Objectives

Develop an appreciation for nature (stewardship)
Enhance individual satisfaction and enjoyment (pleasure)
Provide opportunity for diversion and relaxation (diversity)
Develop physical fitness (health)
Develop desirable social patterns (socialization)

These values and objectives are translated into human behavior that prompts people to use regional recreation areas to accommodate their needs to:

Have contact with nature.
Maintain physical health.
Relieve boredom or find change.
Find moral or spiritual inspiration.
Achieve recognition or status.

An understanding of these values and objectives can provide a "behavioral" instead of a "bureaucratic" basis for understanding the actual and perceived complaints and conflicts between recreation users or their organization, e.g. joggers vs. bikers, or power boats vs. sail boats.

There are many ways to explain in practical terms our need for recreation, but there is no real evidence or theoretical foundation to prove any of these ideas, other than the **Multiple Causation Theory of Sociology**. This theory holds that: (1) no single factor is likely to be the cause of people's actions, (2) people have five principal needs which motivate them to act or think, and (3) these needs may be listed on a rough priority scale which demands fulfillment of the first before thought is given to lesser ones. These needs are:

Physiological Needs. Those things necessary for food, shelter, and clothing must first be met.

Safety Needs. The desire for security becomes strong when people have satisfied more basic needs in minimum quantity.

Love Needs. The desire for response, affection, friendship, and congenial fellowship.

Esteem Needs. The desire for recognition by others, prestige, and freedom.

Self-actualization. The need to know, to realize oneself and one's potential ability. Its attainment is to enjoy life and satisfy oneself through new experiences, adventure, and excitement.

We measure our job performance in terms of how well it helps people meet some of these needs. For example, the needs for "personal safety, esteem and self-actualization" can be carefully acknowledged in our planning and management of regional recreation areas. How well we meet these needs can condition levels of user satisfaction that can have a direct impact on citizen support and use of regional parks.

Multiple Use and Carrying Capacity

Multiple use and carrying capacity are among the most complex and controversial topics of recreation planning, because they assume, if we have done an adequate job in:

(1) surveying leisure behavior for specific activities, (2) establishing sensitive measures of resource and use quality, (3) projecting demand, and (4) determining need, that the user(s) will be **compatible** with each other **and** the landscape. They assume we can determine/project the right mix or optimum level of users by location, time, and space requirements to give the user **quality** experience and the supplier a **minimum** of management problems.

The planning is to determine and/or project the **tolerance** levels of the resource, user, and supplier in combination. Thus far, most management plans for regional open space

have **not** really considered the problems/potentials of multiple use and carrying capacity because of a lack of: (1) definitions, concepts and techniques to analyze the problem, (2) trained professionals to do the job, (3) time to do longitudinal environmental impact studies, or (4) political guts to deal with the controversial issues, or because it has never really been considered a serious problem.

We have generally been able to cope with too many people to too little space by: (a) acquiring more parks, (b) better scheduling, or (c) public relations. However, the space, money for additional parks, and time to schedule existing parks are becoming more scarce each year as the demand/consumption for resources increases and the competition between user groups, communities and agencies become greater.

Multiple Use

Perhaps no single concept in recreation planning is used more often and understood less than "multiple use." Simply defined, it is the use of a recreation resource for more than one purpose at the same or different times. Two major rationales have dominated our conventional thinking about multiple use in regional open spaces:

Economic Rationale — The sum total of the values created is greater than the value from any single use, and enough greater to more than offset added costs.

Trade-off Rationale — Each user group must accept the fact that other users have an equal interest or right to the area.

The economic rationale has dominated our thinking to date largely to the exclusion of the ecological approach now possible. Under many circumstances the economic rational may be appropriate, e.g., Corps reservoir, but there are many cases when this is **not** true, and this concept should be seriously questioned — even discarded or replaced with a highest and best use or **rational** use that is based on environmental impact analysis prior to the implementation of any plan or policy.

Beyond the **ecological** constraints of multiple use, we know little about the **compatibility** of various user groups and its impact on the recreation experience. For example, there are often built-in use conflicts between:

power boats vs. sail boats
tots vs. senior citizens
Hondas vs. hikers
snowmobiles vs. skiers
backpackers vs. trail bikes
hips vs. straights
hunters vs. campers
fishermen vs. canoeists
joggers vs. cyclists
teens vs. adults

The literature and our experience with "multiple use" suggests these important planning and management principles:

(1) Multiple use is a function of (a) timing, (b) scale, (c) design, (d) management, (e) enforcement, and (f) education. It cannot be simply mandated by legislative act or political judgments.

(2) The most critical factor is **timing** — where and when two user groups share the same resource at the same time, there will usually be conflict, domination by one, and overall decrease in the on-site recreation experience for both; hence

(3) Unless and until there is enough land to satisfy **all** groups when and where they want it, in terms of a quality recreation experience, it might be best to minimize multiple use as a planning concept and substitute it with **zoning** by time, space, or both, especially where and when there is severe competition for the same irreplaceable resource.

(4) Combine zoning and use rationing related to the natural, psychological, and functional carrying capacity of a given area to determine how an area is to be used and who shall use it.

This idea may be contrary to the current concept and conventional thinking about multiple use, but it may be the only realistic solution in an age of scarce resources and competing needs. If the **quality** of recreation experience is more important than **quantity**, and we continue to experience relatively diminishing budgets or support for public recreation, this zoning concept may be the best or only choice, and a cost-effective use of scarce resources.

Carrying Capacity

Definition. The number of people a recreation resource can accommodate and still maintain a desirable level of landscape quality for a given recreational experience. There are two kinds of carrying capacity:

> ***Natural Carrying Capacity*** is that which the **landscape** can take without damage to those natural qualities that make an area desirable for a given experience, e.g., a wilderness experience in the national parks.
>
> ***Human Carrying Capacity*** is that which the **user** can take without a loss in the quality of a recreation experience, e.g., a rock concert in Central Park.

Carrying capacity assumes an optimum or desirable combination of users, activities, density, timing, and management. As a theoretical and pragmatic concept, it assumes we can match demand to supply and produce the sustained yield of a quality product/service — the outdoor recreation experience. This concept is important in the planning and management process to: (1) prevent deterioration of resources from overuse, (2) protect user safety, (3) provide user satisfaction, (4) allow for multiple use where appropriate, (5) classify types or recreation resources, (6) do environmental impact and economic analysis, (7) prepare park master plans and detail site design, and (8) manage users.

Resource-Oriented Areas

When applied to resource-oriented regional open space, the concept of carrying capacity implies that: (1) the natural characteristics of the area are of primary importance and form the basis for planning, design, and management; (2) the managing agency can establish policies for the appropriate use, degree of impact, intensity of use, and seasonal distribution of visitors; and (3) the managing agency can and will monitor the level of carrying capacity over time.

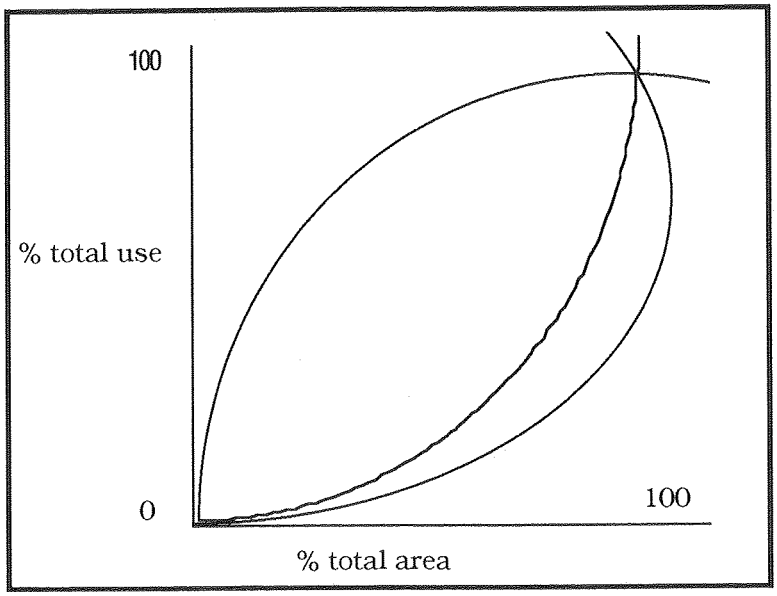
User-Oriented Areas

When applied to user-oriented regional open space, the concept of carrying capacity implies that: (1) the facilities or functional characteristics of the area are of primary importance and form the basis for planning, design, and management; (2) the managing

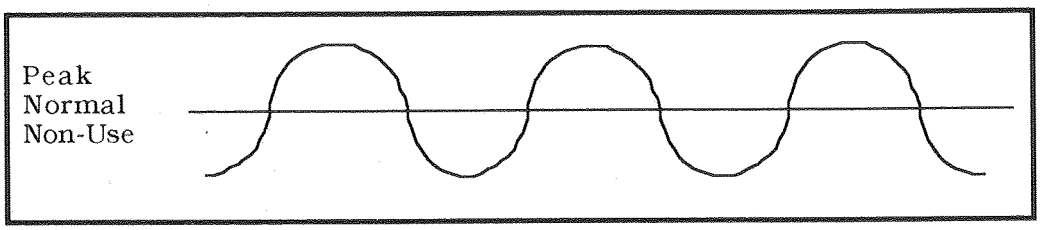
agency can establish policies for the appropriate use, degree of impact, intensity of use, and seasonal distribution of visitors; and (3) the managing agency can and will monitor the levels of carrying capacity and revise them over time.

In both cases, the concept of Carrying Capacity is based on a sense of proportion of:

(1) Concentration



(2) Time Patterns of Recreation Activity



(3) Quality and Intensity of Use

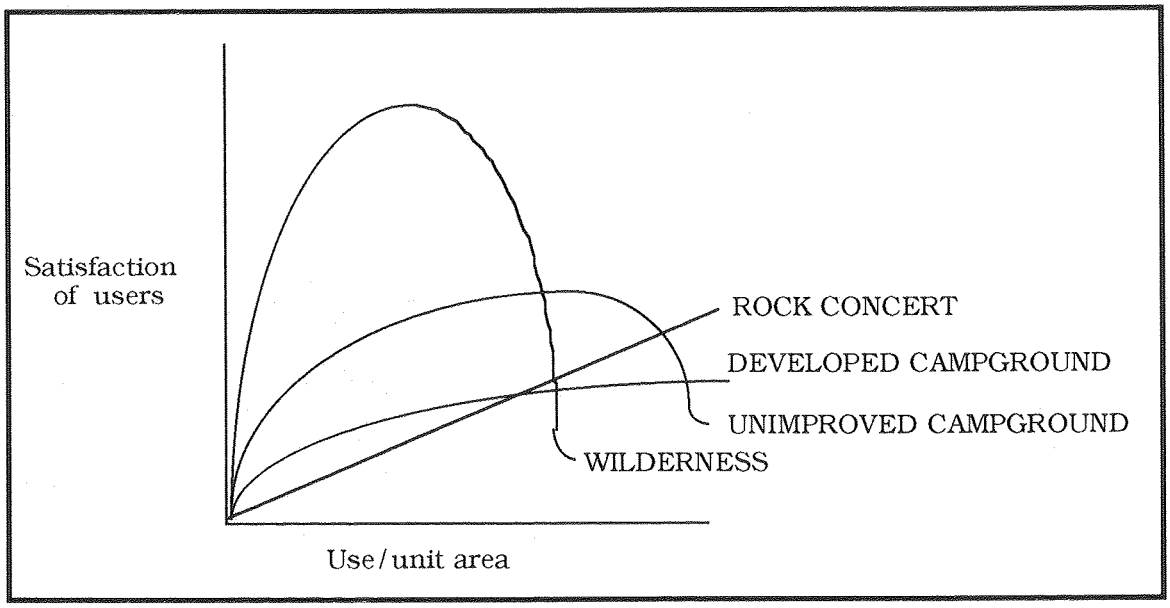


Table 1

PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT METHODS OF INFLUENCING PARK USE

Methods of Managing the Recreation Resource

- Improve or restrict access
- Extend time use periods
- Rehabilitate site to mitigate adverse human impact
- Decentralize facilities to reduce use concentration
- Zone by activity, use intensity, and time
- Increase quality of facilities
- Improve design of facilities
- Improve operation of facilities
- Rotate use areas
- Remove facilities
- Close areas or facilities

Methods of Influencing the Recreation User

- Increase awareness of choice
- Publicize selected areas
- Limit size of groups
- Limit length of stay
- Limit type of activities permitted
- Establish use rationing and reservation systems
- Establish user fees, permits, and registration
- Provide guided tours and structured experiences
- Enforce rules and regulations
- Interpret site or experience
- Provide supervision and program leadership

4) Substitution of Labor, Capital and Management for Resources

Table 1 shows a range of planning and management methods of influencing park use. It provides a policy framework for resolving use conflicts.

Translating Concepts into Plans

Central questions to be answered are: (1) what is recreational access; (2) how much is enough; (3) who will benefit and who will pay; (4) who is responsible for providing public access; and (5) how should sites be

managed to meet user and supplier objectives? The conceptual challenge is to translate legalistic meanings of public access into **operational** policies, criteria, and standards that can be used to plan or manage areas.

The methodological challenge is to develop generalizable measures of **effectiveness** based on user behavior and supplier capability, instead of arbitrary criteria. The research task is to develop a process, classification system, and standards which can be used to prepare or review open space plans. Concepts of quantity and quality can provide problem-solving alternatives that can have an impact on the regional planning process.

A problem-solving approach to regional recreation access that incorporates these ideas suggests these steps in the planning process: (1) justifying public access in human instead of environmental terms, (2) developing measures of effectiveness or performance standards for a regional recreation experience, (3) defining these standards by public participation and agency review, (4) applying and evaluating these standards in demonstration areas, and (5) translating these standards into public policy.

The planning task is to understand and apply basic concepts such as:

> Space does **not** constitute service. It offers recreation opportunity only with appropriate access, facilities, design, and management. Setting aside regional areas for "recreation" without adequate levels of access, development, and management only accommodates a preservation objective.
>
> How **good** an area or experience is, is as important as how much. In many cases, less space with better design and management will improve the quality of the recreation experience and environment. To assume that the "demand" for a regional recreation experience is adequately met by providing substandard facilities or management that does not meet user objectives is unrealistic.
>
> User and nonuser are **people**, not statistical abstractions. Use of the mythical "average person" is not a sensitive approach to accommodating human needs, and may deny access to a wide range of special populations. To ignore the needs of racial and ethnic minorities in California is unrealistic and unrepresentative. Likewise, not projecting the special needs of senior citizens, people with disabilities and low-income people for regional recreation is insensitive.
>
> User **satisfaction** is the essence of a regional recreation experience. Recreation is what happens to people as a result of a park experience. People should come away from a visit to a regional open space feeling "good" about themselves, others, and the environment. In this perspective, our mission as planners or managers of regional open space is broader than resource management; it includes human development.

Summary

A behavioral approach to managing conflicts between recreation users is a sophisticated way to cope with and resolve on-site problems. A better understanding of the

basic principles of carrying capacity and multiple use suggests translating these principles into plans and using effective methods to manage the resource or influence the park user.

Leisure behavior and especially user satisfaction are what public access to regional recreation resources is all about. We do not have all the answers and are just starting to ask the **right** questions about why people come to regional recreation areas, and how satisfied they are during or after a park experience. These ideas are one place to begin understanding and doing something about increasing the levels of user satisfaction and resolving conflicts of recreation users in regional open space.

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