



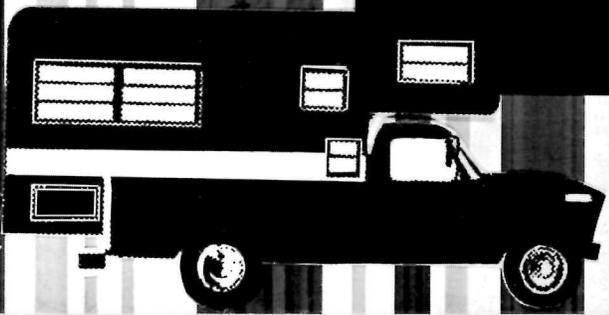
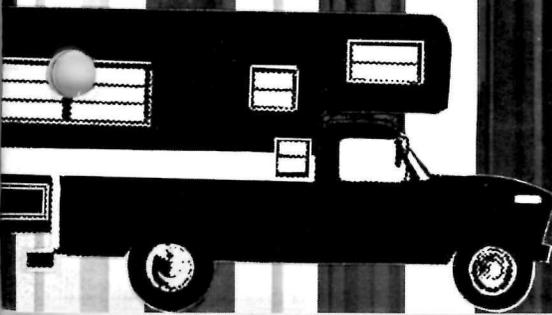
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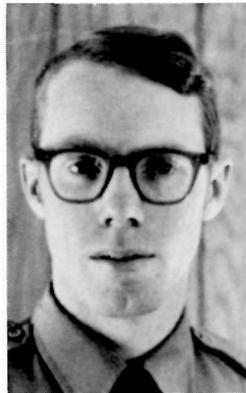
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AUTHORS



JAMES T. BURNETT, III

Jim Burnett is a Park Ranger with the National Park Service at Lake Mead National Recreation Area, Arizona. He received his B.S. and M.Ag. from Texas A&M University, and began the study of campground reservation systems during his graduate work in Recreation and Resource Development. His previous NPS assignments include Grand Canyon NP and Greenbelt Park, Maryland.



DR. CLARE A. GUNN

Dr. Gunn is Professor of Tourism-Recreation Development, Recreation and Parks Department at Texas A&M University. He pioneered in the field of tourism development in the first educational program in the U.S. and prepared the first series of educational publications on design and planning for tourist and resort businessmen.

The benefits of a reservation system can be far-reaching. For example, Oregon wanted to provide Oregonians greater opportunities to use their own parks which had been occupied more and more by campers from other states, particularly California. While no preference is given to local applicants, the system has resulted in larger percentages of Oregonian campers.

Reservations help in maintaining ecological balance by preventing overcrowding. The ranger in a certain area can decide how many people should be in that area—perhaps a beach at Big Sur—and give that information to the computer. When that number has been allotted, reservations can be cut off.

Not all campers are delighted about reservations. Results of a Stanford Research Institute survey, taken before a reservation system was put into effect in Washington, showed that most campers did not want a reservation system. A prime reason was necessity of planning ahead. Since many people go camping to escape the drudgeries of life, they would like to avoid planning, which is so much a part of everyday living. However, the survey reports that in California, where a reservation system has been in effect for a few years,

planning habits have changed and the campers “accept the fact that gaining access to desirable parks requires a longer planning period.”

For those rugged individualists who refuse to go with the trend, there will always be some facilities which will not be included in the reservation system. But, as more and more state, national, county and local parks initiate reservation systems, pre-planning will become a way of life for most campers and they will be assured of a place to go when they want to “get away from it all.”

We have reprinted here information excerpted from the Stanford Research Institute study entitled “The Need For and Implementation Of a Fee, Charge and Reservation System for Washington State Parks by Hildreth L. Strong and Keith E. Duke. The section of the study covering the historical background on fees and charges is a proper introduction to James T. Burnett’s study of existing campground reservation systems made in April of 1972. Even though the study was made twelve months ago, we feel that it provides valid information for evaluation of such systems for those park and recreation administrators considering a reservation system for the future.

Historical background on fees and user charges

American citizens generally have had free access to the land and traditionally have not paid for its use when it was nonconsumptive. Because most forms of recreation, e.g., hiking, swimming, and skiing, consume no resources, these activities on public lands generally have been free of charges. By contrast, consumptive uses such as fishing, hunting, and lumbering have been subject to charges as a form of compensation to the citizenry for the consumption of these resources.

Because nonconsumptive recreation on public lands was free, privately held lands generally were not devoted to recreational uses. The general public came to expect the government to provide recreational opportunities and facilities, and also expected broad-based tax funds to be used for the development and operation of these facilities.

In recent years, however, a number of factors have led to reexamination and redefinition of public responsibilities toward the provision of recreational opportunities. A variety of forms of user fees have also been developed in response to changing conditions and growing specialized demand. Considerable development of specialized recreational facilities and services by the private sector has also occurred.

A number of factors have contributed to changing public attitudes with regard to public parks and recreation. Originally, public parks and recreation facilities were conceived as free public services to be financed by tax funds and donations, or by gifts from public-spirited individuals and organizations. In particular, parks and recreation activities serving urban populations were considered public necessities serving the needs primarily of lower income residents. However, significant changes in societal needs and recreational philosophies occurred after World War II with rising incomes, increased leisure time, suburbanization, increased availability of private transportation, and increased demand for more specialized and more diversified recreation facilities. Available facilities were used by the public from all income levels and from different political jurisdictions. At the same time, as demands for greater government services generally increased, parks and recreation received smaller percentages of appropriations and private philanthropic aid dwindled. Increasing costs made it necessary to explore other sources of funds for both capital improvements and operations.

Entrance fees, admission fees, rental fees, user fees,

sales revenues, license and permit fees, and special service fees are some of the revenue producing sources explored and currently used in parks and recreational activities. General obligation and revenue bonds have also been sold to raise the capital to construct and expand recreational facilities and to acquire new parks. However, the movement toward charges other than broadbased general tax support has been uneven, and in more than one-third of the states there are no entrance or parking fees at state parks.

The substantial growth of user fees of different types is essentially a post-World War II phenomenon. However, its origins date back to the advent of the automobile. An automobile fee was instituted at Mount Rainier National Park in 1908, following the completion of a road to the Nisqually glacier. The intent of this fee was to regulate the use of automobiles in the park, and 117 permits were issued the first year. By 1915, automobiles were permitted to enter all national parks, and eight of the parks were charging fees. The question of

where special facilities are provided for their comfort or convenience. Gradually, the idea of a general recreation fee is also coming to be accepted.

In a recent study, the Public Land Law Review Commission recommended that a general recreation land use fee should be collected from all public land recreation users, and that additional fees should be charged for use of facilities constructed at federal expense. This recommendation was based on an assessment of changing public attitudes and the belief that participation in outdoor recreation of any kind should no longer be considered a free use of public land.* Among the factors cited for this belief were the substantial public investment in such infrastructural elements as multi-purpose roads, hiking trail systems, and sanitation systems; the increasing annual costs of maintenance of the environment and of physical facilities; and costs of required services such as litter collection and trash removal. The Commission also argued that user fees were (1) necessary to assure equitable treatment



Yosemite National Park

NPS Photo

charges was considered by the Superintendent of National Parks as taxes in proportion to the benefit received rather than the ability to pay, and the question was raised as to whether the national parks should attempt to develop revenues to the maximum or whether they were to be administered "at the lowest possible cost to the tourist." The latter philosophy prevailed and automobile fees were reduced. However, to compensate for this reduced income, some attention was given to instituting a camping fee, but this was rejected by Congress and beginning in 1927, appropriations for the National Park Service were only available for parks without campground charges. It was not until passage of the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965 that Congress removed all restrictions concerning camping charges in national parks and monuments.

Preferential parking fees at four state parks in Connecticut were attempted in 1933 and 1934. By 1942, fourteen states had some form of entrance or road fees. Since 1945, charges of different types have been instituted in growing degree in state parks throughout the country. Users of recreation areas have come to accept the premise that they should pay for the use of sites

among all persons having access to public lands, (2) helpful in getting users to recognize the stake they have in protection and maintenance of outdoor recreation facilities, and (3) useful in assuring equity to the operators of any competing private outdoor recreation area.

In attempting to establish a user fee for different recreational uses in areas under federal control, the Public Land Law Review Commission rejected the market approach (what the traffic will bear) in favor of minimal fees that would not be discriminatory against poorer persons or those on fixed incomes. Specifically, the Commission recommended that general use fees should not be designed to recover all costs of providing outdoor recreation opportunities on the public lands.

Most states are beginning to advocate user fees. They consider these fees as supplemental income to fund construction and operation of needed facilities as demand increases. However, it is also clear that broad-based tax support continues to be the most important source of revenue and is likely to continue to be so in the future.

CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM FOR RECREATION-RELATED USER FEES AND CHARGES

Principal Category	Brief Definition	Examples
Entrance fees	Charge for privilege of entering and using facilities of large park, arboretum, game or wildlife preserve, campgrounds, or other recreation area.	A major state park.
User fees	A charge made for the use of a facility where the user enjoys the use privilege simultaneously or in conjunction with others. (It is not an exclusive right as in the case of the rental fee.)	Swimming area, boat launching facility, fishing pond, picnic areas, and parking areas.
License fees	A fee for a privilege or liberty normally in written form and issued by an agency of government. It usually entails permission to perform an action.	Fishing license, hunting license, boat license, and camping permit.
Rental fee	A payment made for the exclusive use of various kinds of tangible personal property.	Boats, canoes, fishing gear, horses, golf carts, and so forth.
Sale revenue	Money received from the operation of stores, concessions, restaurants, and so forth. Unconditional ownership of the item must pass from the seller to the buyer with each sale.	Food and beverage, service, packaged foods and beverages, merchandise, supplies, and souvenirs.
Admission fees	Charge made for entrance to a building structure, or natural chamber that offers an exhibit, show, performance, and so forth.	Arena, museum, observatory, and historical building.
Special service fees	Charges made for supplying goods and services in support of organized recreational or cultural activities.	Summer camp fees, class instructions, tournament fees, sport league fees, and so forth.



Fort Stevens State Park, Oregon Oregon State Hwy. Dept. Photo



Fisheating Creek, Florida Soil Conservation Service Photo



Seashore State Park, Virginia Va. State Travel Service Photo

Campground

Reservation Systems . . .

A Study

By James T. Burnett III

Changes in a variety of socio-economic factors have contributed to a steady rise in use of parks and recreation areas in the United States during the past decade. Despite acquisition and development of new areas, facilities for outdoor recreation, including camping, have often been inadequate to meet this increased demand. The results of overcrowding in recreation areas may include not only resource degradation but also conflict between users and decreased visitor satisfaction.

Government agencies have responded in various ways to the problems associated with overcrowded camping areas. One solution to the problem is the use of reservation systems to limit users of campgrounds to predetermined levels. There are, however, several factors to consider before a reservation system is adopted, including public reaction to the limited use and the costs of administering the system. As a result, many administrators may hesitate to utilize reservations for their campgrounds.

At present, little published information is available concerning the implications and operation of campground reservation systems. This lack of data complicates the task of an administrator who is attempting to evaluate a reservation system for use by his agency. The need for such information has been recognized in at least two studies during the past three years. One of the recommendations made by the National Academy of Sciences in its report, *A Program for Outdoor Recreation Research* was that "...research should be undertaken on recreation resources in order to ... develop means of preventing overuse of resources, such as pricing and rationing ..." (1) The Public Land Law Review Commission, in its report *One Third of the Nation's Land*, recommended that "A fair and equitable rationing system, in line with the carrying capacity of park and wilderness areas, should be adopted now to assure adequate controls over visitor use ... We prefer a first come, first-served reservation system." (2)

The purpose of this paper was to locate and study existing examples of campground reservation systems operated by state and federal agencies. The study also examined reservation systems which have failed or been abandoned, and attempted to determine the major

factors which have discouraged the use of such systems by other agencies. The ultimate goal of the project has been to provide the basic information needed by administrators to effectively evaluate the suitability of a campground reservation system for use by their agency.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Indicators of Public Opinion Concerning Reservation Systems

Reliable data concerning public opinion on campground reservations in public recreation areas are limited. Some indicators are found in a survey conducted by the *Christian Science Monitor* in 1968. One item on the survey concerned the problem of overcrowding. Out of a total of 2,192 responses, 823 persons suggested that a reservation system for campgrounds be started. Another 902 recommended that stays in campgrounds be limited to shorter periods, and only 402 asked that more campgrounds be constructed (3). A study conducted in Colorado indicated that a majority of the persons interviewed would favor reservations for a national park if such arrangements could prevent overcrowding (4). Data gathered in connection with this paper indicate that the majority of administrators who are using a reservation system feel that the system has been favorably received by the public. Although none of this evidence is conclusive, there are indications that agencies can expect general public acceptance of a carefully planned and efficiently operated campground reservation system.

The Importance of Publicity to Acceptance of Reservation Systems

The use of any reservation system is obviously dependent upon the public's realization that the system is in operation. The state of Oregon began a campground



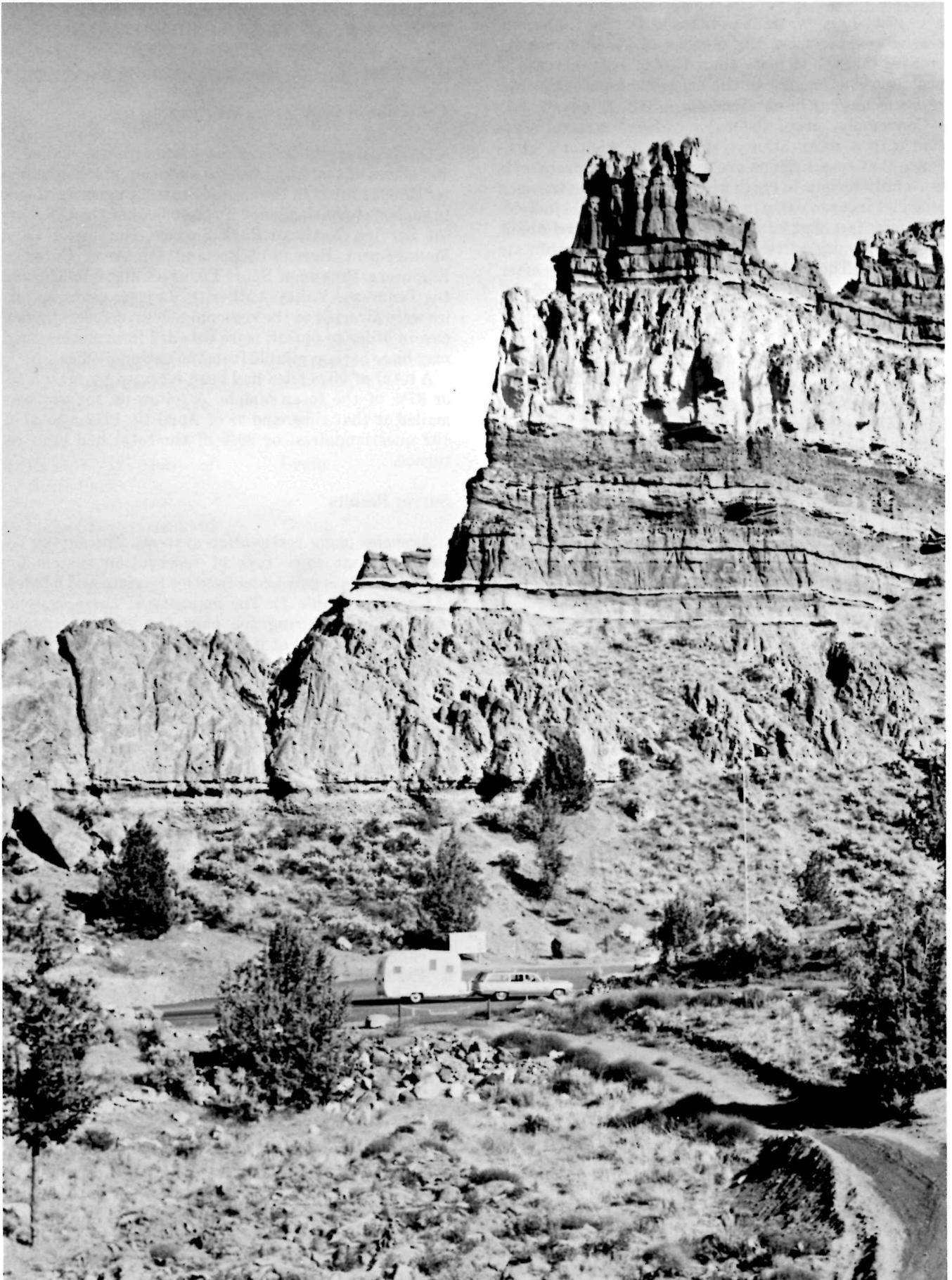
Yosemite National Park

NPS Photo

Harris Beach State Park, Oregon

Oregon State Hwy Dept. Photo





Cove Palisade State Park, Oregon

Oregon State Hwy. Dept. Photo

reservation system for the summer season in 1970, and over 25,000 reservations were made. During the second season of operation, the number of reservations increased by 86% to more than 47,000. This increase is probably due largely to the camper's knowledge that reservations can be obtained (5).

Conversely, one of the major causes for dissatisfaction with a reservation system is the visitor's ignorance that reservations are available. This problem is especially serious in cases where visitors have traveled long distances to camp in a specific park. These individuals may feel that campers who were informed about the opportunity to reserve a campsite had an unfair advantage. The problem of publicity should ease after a reservation system has been in operation for several seasons.

An additional publicity problem concerns the accuracy of information distributed through the mass media. Inaccurate or conflicting information can produce considerable confusion. For example, in March, 1972, the National Park Service announced plans for a trial reservation system in three national parks. Excerpts from two newspaper articles illustrate the problems with inaccurate publicity.

Three national parks will experiment this summer with a quota system for wilderness vacationers. Secretary of the Interior Roger C.B. Morton said ... he had asked the National Park Service to work out an 'experimental and temporary' program for limiting the use of certain wilderness areas endangered by overcrowding ... (6).

A different newspaper in the same state reported,

... campsite availabilities and reservations will be computerized on a trial basis this summer at (3 national parks). Potential campers will call telephone numbers in designated cities to learn whether camping sites are available. If so, they will be given reservations immediately.

The plan, if successful, will be broadened to cover other national parks and wilderness areas in the future (7).

These two articles present widely differing accounts of the scope of the proposed system. Although reservations will initially be limited to backcountry areas, the second article implies that reservations can be made for any campsite in the park. As a result, some confusion by park visitors may occur. Agencies should be alert to the possibility of publicity problems, and attempt to reduce confusion with additional news releases when necessary.

The study of existing reservation systems may reduce the number of problems encountered in the development of new systems. Such a study is provided in the following chapters.

CURRENT USE OF CAMPGROUND RESERVATION SYSTEMS BY STATE AND FEDERAL AGENCIES IN THE UNITED STATES

Collection of Data

On February 14, 1972, a questionnaire was mailed to 103 offices of state and federal agencies which administer campgrounds in the United States. Copies were sent to each state park agency and to offices of the U.S. Forest Service, National Park Service, Bureau of Land Management, Bureau of Reclamation, Army Corps of Engineers, Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife, and the Tennessee Valley Authority. In most cases inquiries were directed to the regional offices of federal agencies in order to obtain more detailed information than may have been available from the national office.

A total of 90 replies had been received by March 15, or 87% of the total sample. A follow-up request was mailed at that time, and as of April 10, 1972 a total of 102 questionnaires, or 99% of the total had been returned.

Survey Results

Agencies using reservation systems. The survey determined that some type of reservation system for campgrounds is now being used by 17 state and 6 federal agencies (Table 1). The majority of these systems were initiated during the past ten years, although Vermont reports that it began accepting reservations in 1946. Two federal agencies state that they began using reservations "many years ago", but were unable to list a specific year.

Reasons for initiating reservation systems. One item on the questionnaire read, "What factors led to the use of a reservation system for campsites?" The following responses were received from the 33 respondents who now utilize reservations.

<i>Reason for Initiating Reservation System</i>	<i>Number of Responses</i>
a. Management concern about overcrowding of campgrounds.	12
b. Excess resource deterioration, such as erosion, soil compaction.	7
c. Overtaxed facilities for water, sewage, and other services.	6
d. Visitor complaints about overcrowding.	3
e. Other reasons.	19

The following comments were received in the "Other" category.

1. "First-come, first-served system gave unfair advantage to those who live near campgrounds."
2. "Reservations tend to reduce turn-aways, which had caused traffic congestion."

TABLE 1

AGENCIES USING CAMPGROUND RESERVATION SYSTEMS AS OF FEBRUARY 15, 1972

<u>Agency</u>	<u>Types of Campsites Reserved *</u>
1. California Department of Parks and Recreation	Recreation vehicle Automobile
2. Connecticut State Park and Forest Commission	Automobile
3. Florida Division of Parks and Recreation, Department of Natural Resources	Recreation vehicle Automobile Group
4. Hawaii Division of State Parks	Group
5. Idaho Department of Parks	Group
6. Maine State Park and Recreation Commission	Group
7. Maryland Department of Forests and Parks	Recreational vehicle Automobile Group
8. Nevada Division of State Parks	Group
9. New Jersey Division of Parks, Forestry, and Recreation	Automobile Group
10. New York State Office of Parks and Recreation	Recreation vehicle Automobile Group
11. North Carolina Division of State Parks	Automobile Group
12. Ohio Division of Parks and Recreation	Group
13. Oregon Division of Parks and Recreation	Group
14. Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Resources	Group
15. Vermont Department of Forests and Parks	Automobile Group

<u>Agency</u>	<u>Types of Campsites Reserved</u>
16. Washington State Parks & Recreation Commission	Group
17. Wisconsin Bureau of Parks and Recreation	Group
18. National Park Service** ††	Backcountry Boating Group
19. Tennessee Valley Authority**	Group
20. U.S. Bureau of Land Management**	Automobile Group
21. U.S. Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife**	Group
22. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers**	Group
23. U.S. Forest Service**	Group

*Types of Campsites Reserved:

- Recreation vehicle - sites with individual water, sewer, and/or electrical hookups.
- Automobile - no individual utility hookups provided.
- Backcountry - accessible only by foot or horseback.
- Boating - accessible only by watercraft.
- Group - available only to organized groups.

**Reservation system used in only limited number of areas, administered by this agency.

†Up-dated information entries:

† Virginia's Division of Parks campground reservation system was put into operation after February 15, 1972.

†† The National Park Service has contracted with American Express, Inc. to set up a campground reservation system in six national parks: Acadia, Everglades, Yellowstone, Grand Teton, Yosemite, and Sequoia-Kings Canyon. This pilot program began in 1973 and includes 4,000 of the more than 7,000 available campsites in the six parks. Campers pay the usual campsite fee and a \$1.50 charge at the time of making reservations. The camper will then receive a printed confirmation.

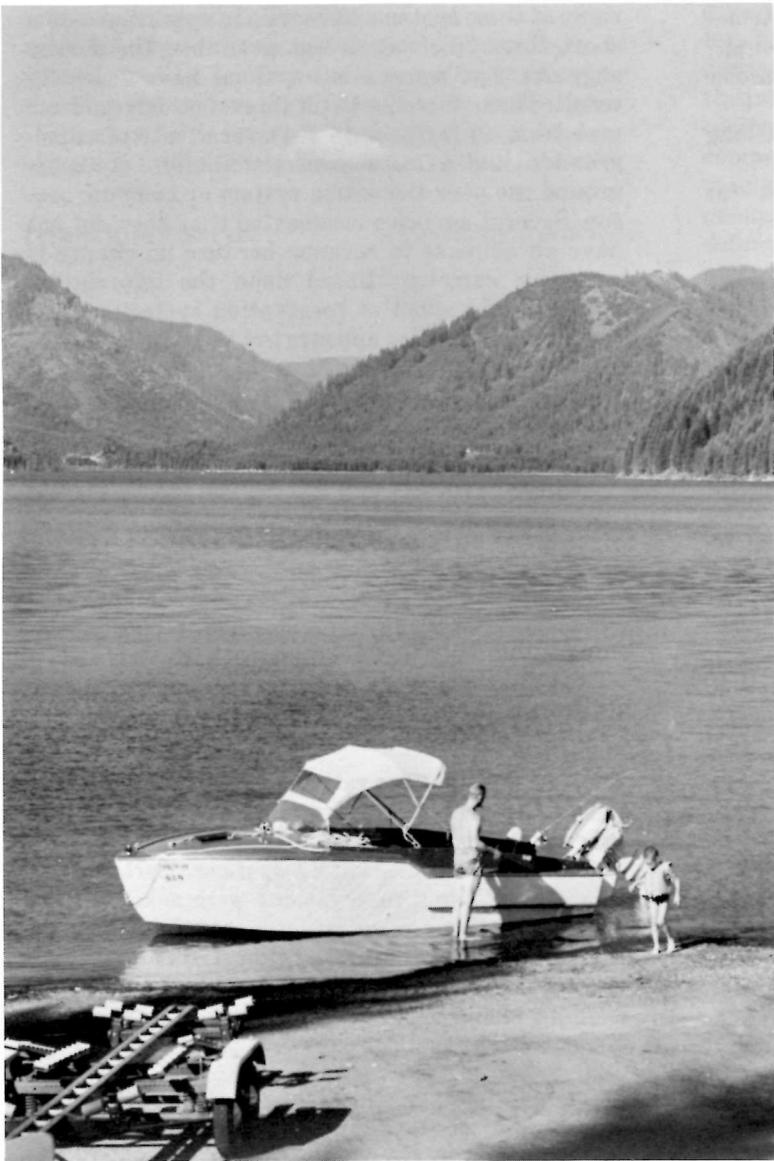
Pahokee State Park, Florida

Florida Dept. of Natural Resources Photo



Flagler Beach State Park, Florida





Detroit Lake State Park, Oregon

Oregon State Hwy. Dept. Photo

Florida Dept. of Natural Resources Photo



3. "Our desire to have an orderly system—ultimate effect to prevent or control overcrowding."
4. "To eliminate waiting lines for sites to become available."
5. "To provide for the camper who travels a long distance and those who wish to plan vacations."
6. "Requests in excess of number of sites for groups."
7. "More even distribution of public use."

The remaining responses were variations on those listed above. The replies indicate that many reservation systems were developed on the agency's own initiative rather than as a result of public pressure.

Effects of reservation systems. Participants were asked to comment on the effects of reservations on three aspects of their operation: total annual use of campgrounds, annual revenue derived from user fees, and distribution of use of camping areas throughout the camping season. The following responses were received from the 33 participants who are using reservation systems.

"Effect of reservation system on total number of annual users of campgrounds."

Effect	Number of Responses
Increased use	7
Decreased use	0
No known effect	24

"Effect of reservation system on annual revenue derived from user fees."

Effect	Number of Responses
Increased revenue	6
Decreased revenue	0
No known change	24

"Has the use of reservations resulted in a more even distribution of use of camping areas throughout the year or camping season?"

Response	Number of Responses
Yes	16
No	8
Not known	7

The above data suggest that the effects of reservation systems are not yet understood by many agencies. This is explained in part by the fact that

many of these systems have been in operation only a short time. Where data are available, the survey suggests that reservation systems have generally resulted in an increase in total revenue derived from user fees, an increase in the overall use of campgrounds, and a more even distribution of campground use over the entire system or camping season. Several agencies commented that they did not have an increase in revenue because no charge is made for camping. Based upon the information available, the effect of reservation systems on the three factors studied appears to be positive.

Public reaction to reservation systems. 33 respondents were asked to rate the "general public reaction to the reservation system."

Public Reaction to Reservations	Number of Responses
Favorable	26
Unfavorable	1
Not determined	5

These evaluations are rather subjective, but they do reflect the perception of agency personnel of the user's opinions concerning reservations.

Future use of reservation systems. Participants who are not using reservations were asked if they plan to "initiate a reservation system for campsites within the next year." A total of 7 administrators replied "Yes" and 57 said "No". The affirmative responses included three federal agencies and four state park systems. At least five of the negative replies included a comment indicating some interest in reservations. A state park director stated, "We are anticipating the need for this in the future." Another replied that his state planned to adopt a reservation system, "Possibly within the next five years." A respondent from the U.S. Forest Service stated that his agency is considering reservations for several of the larger campgrounds, where the system can be economically justified and enforced. Finally, an employee of the National Park Service commented, "We think that a campsite reservation system will be a necessary management tool in the near future in most large western national parks." It appears, therefore, that the reservation concept will be utilized by additional agencies during the next few years.

OPERATION OF RESERVATION SYSTEMS

Types of Campsites Reserved

The complexity of a campsite reservation system is dependent upon several factors, including the number of sites available for reservation, the type of site involved, and the number of requests for re-

servations received. The expense and workload involved in a reservation system can be controlled to a large degree by limiting the types of campsites included in the system. At present, the following types of sites are being reserved by the 23 state and federal agencies which are using reservation systems:

Type of Site Reserved	Number of Agencies
Group	20
Automobile	10
Recreation vehicle	5
Backcountry	1
Boating	1

An explanation of criteria for the five types of sites is found as part of Table 1.

The above data, combined with comments made by survey participants, suggest that reservations for

group campsites may be the least difficult to administer. The number of group sites is usually limited, and requests for such sites can normally be processed at the individual parks. The number of groups submitting requests for reservations at any time is quite small in comparison to the number of requests that would be received for individual or family sites. Cancellations by groups tend to occur less frequently, and there are definite advantages in receiving advance notice of the plans of a large group to use a campground. Most agencies reported few problems with reservations for group campsites.

Reservations for family campsites may be more complicated because of the number of requests received, the number of sites involved, and the percentage of cancellations and unclaimed reservations. These problems can be reduced somewhat by accepting reservations for only those areas experiencing overcrowding, or by using reservations only during the peak camping season. Several states report that they are using this approach with considerable success.

Camping near a U.S. Forest Service area

U.S. Forest Service Photo



Oregon State Hwy. Dept. Photo



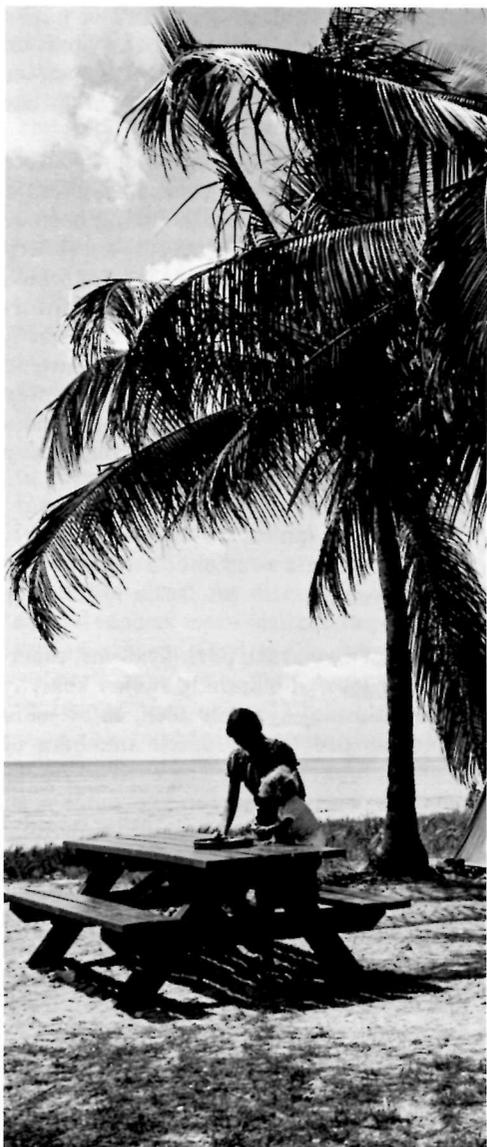
Prineville Reservoir State Park, Oregon

Wallowa Lake State Park, Oregon

Oregon State Hwy. Dept. Photo



Long Key State Park, Florida



Florida Dept. of Natural Resources Photo



Honeyman State Park, Oregon

Oregon State Hwy. Dept. Photo

Highlands Hammock State Park, Florida



Florida Dept. of Natural Resources Photo

Methods of Making Reservations

A total of 33 participants in the study accept at least some campsite reservations. The following methods may be used by the public to obtain a reservation.

Method of Making Reservations	Number of Responses
By mail	31
By personal visit	25
By telephone	15

There is considerable variation in the locations where reservations may be made. If a small number of requests are expected, the agency may have requests directed to the specific park where the reservation is desired. Other agencies may prefer to centralize processing of requests at either a regional office or one central office. The 33 respondents that are using reservations accept reservations at the following locations:

Locations Where Reservations Requests Must be Directed	Number of Responses
Individual park or area to be used.	26
Regional or district office serving several parks.	6
Central office for entire system.	5
Specified local outlets, such as retail stores.	2

The two agencies which accept reservations at local outlets are using a computerized system, and computer terminals are located throughout the state.

The use of the mails to accept and confirm reservations requires considerable "lead time" for the requests. The major disadvantage of telephone requests is that payment of a deposit when the reservation is made is not normally possible. A personal visit by the citizen to an agency office or reservation center allows payment of a deposit and an "on-the-spot" confirmation, but may not be as convenient for the camper. The system chosen will depend, therefore, upon the agency's requirements for advance payment of fees, the lead time required for reservations, and the degree of convenience for the public which is desired.

Deadlines and Limits on Length of Stay

Individuals or groups holding reservations should understand that they must arrive at the site by a specified time or forfeit their reservation, unless the park is notified of the delay. If the site has been paid for in full, it should of course be held for one night, but the reservation should be cancelled if it has not been claimed by

a specified time the following day. Oregon state parks permit parties to claim reservations as late as 9 p.m. on Fridays, to allow campers time to reach the park after completing work on Friday afternoon. On all other days the deadline is 6 p.m.

Limits should be placed on the number of consecutive days which may be reserved at one time, to prevent a camper from monopolizing a prime site during periods of peak use. In heavily used areas it may be necessary to limit the total number of days per season for which any one individual may make a reservation. In California, many parks have a limit on continuous stays of 7, 10 or 15 days during the peak season. At Grand Canyon National Park, use of the most popular backcountry sites is limited to 7 days per year for any one individual, and a maximum stay of 2 days is permitted in any one campground.

Manual Reservation Systems

With the exception of two state park systems, reservation requests are processed manually rather than by automated methods. Manual systems seem to be more practical for agencies processing small numbers of requests, either at each park or for the entire system. No definite guidelines were found for the number of requests which can be efficiently processed by a manual system. Oregon used manual methods to process over 47,000 reservations during a 112 day season in 1971. However, these requests were split among 11 individual parks. By contrast, California used a computerized system to handle approximately 100,000 reservations in 1971. Manual systems require little training for employees, need no complicated equipment, and can be operated at little expense to the agency. Such systems can, however, require considerable time. If the number of requests received requires the hiring of additional personnel, the agency should evaluate the possibility of utilizing a computerized system. A comparison of the costs involved in the two types of systems is provided later in this chapter.

The system at Grand Canyon National Park provides one example of the operation of a manual reservation system. Reservations are accepted for group sites in one large developed campground, and are required for certain popular sites in the backcountry. Requests for reservations are made by mail, by telephone or in person at the park. Personnel on duty in the park visitor center process the requests. If the request is made by telephone, the reservation is confirmed immediately, or the caller is advised that all sites have been reserved for that date. The caller may then designate an alternate date for which space is available. Requests received by mail are confirmed by mail, or returned with a suggestion for alternate dates if the requested time is filled.

Reservations are recorded by the individual's name and home town, and must be claimed in person at the visitor center by noon on the first day of the period reserved. A waiting list is maintained, and reservations which are not claimed are made available to persons on

the waiting list. Each individual with a reservation is issued a bright yellow tag, approximately 3" x 6" in size, which is placed on the pack or clothing in a conspicuous place. The tag lists the specific campground and date for which the reservation has been made, and bears a brief summary of the more important park regulations. The tag is made of a water-resistant material, and may be easily checked by park personnel at trailheads or in the campgrounds. No charge is made for the reservation service.

Organized groups can reserve a maximum of one-half of the spaces in any one campground in the backcountry. This limitation insures that individuals and family groups have an opportunity to use the campgrounds. To date, the system appears to be working satisfactorily, and it has been generally well-received by the public. The majority of complaints are received from visitors who have traveled a considerable distance to hike into the canyon and camp overnight, and are unaware that reservations have already been made for all of the available sites. As discussed earlier, these problems should ease as more visitors become aware of the reservation system. During the summer of 1971 it was the author's experience that many of the individuals who arrived at the park without a campground reservation were able to obtain permits, due to the number of cancellations and "no-shows". During holiday weekends and early in the summer, most campgrounds were filled to capacity, and some individuals were turned away. This situation is to be expected, since the reservation system was instituted in response to serious overcrowding in the backcountry.

The reservation system for the group sites in the developed campground is similar to the backcountry system, except that the individual tags are not used. The deadline for claiming reservations is later in the day, and a fee is charged for the use of the developed group campground.

Computerized Reservation Systems

One computerized system in full operation is used by the California state parks. Such systems are apparently most economical when a large number of sites are involved or a large number of reservations are to be processed. The author contacted eleven commercial data processing firms which have branch offices in major cities, to determine if such firms are interested in providing data processing support for campsite reservation systems. The firms which expressed an interest are listed in Table 2. The author has not evaluated the experience of these firms or the quality of their services, and agencies should investigate any organization carefully before making any commitments.

Administrators interested in locating other data processing organizations in their area may consult the *Computer Yearbook and Directory* (8) or *The International Directory of Computer and Information Systems Services* (9). Both publications should be available in major libraries.

Basic information on the operation of the California system will provide an example of a computerized sys-

tem. Financial aspects of the system are discussed in the next section of this paper.

The California system is operated under contract by Ticketron, Inc., a firm with headquarters in New York and branch offices in several major cities. About 160 Ticketron "terminals" are located throughout California. Campers may make reservations at any of these locations, or by mail at the state park office in Sacramento. Reservations may be requested up to 90 days in advance, and requests must be received by Monday of each week for reservations starting on Friday night of the same week. This allows time for processing all of the requests. A fee of \$1.50 is charged for each period and/or campsite reserved. This fee is in addition to the charge made for the use of the campsite itself, and is not refunded in the event of a cancellation. Payment for the entire period reserved must accompany the request. Cancellations received before a specified deadline will receive a refund, except for the \$1.50 reservation fee. Campsites will be held for the first night of the reservation period, even if the party fails to arrive. Unless the park is notified of a late arrival, the reservation will not be held past 2 p.m. on the following day.

Each of the "remote terminals" located throughout the state is connected to a central computer in Los Angeles, and includes a terminal keyboard (similar to a typewriter keyboard), a teletype printer, a ticket printer, and an electronics unit. When the customer requests a campsite reservation, the operator enters the following information on the terminal keyboard: the park or campground identification, the starting date of the reservation period, the type of campsite required, the number of days to be reserved, the type of camping equipment to be used, the number of persons in the party, and the customer's first, middle and last name initials. The request is transmitted to the computer, which compares it with the inventory of available sites. A response is then sent to the terminal's teletype printer. If a site of the proper type is available, the customer can accept the reservation and the operator "instructs" the computer to print out a reservation ticket on the terminal's ticket printer. One campsite of this type is then removed from the inventory of available sites.

If there is not a campsite available to meet the customer's criteria, the computer will "search" for an alternative, such as a different type of site or a different number of days. Once the number of days originally requested has been reduced by one-half, the computer will discontinue the search for an alternative and report the sites "not available" for the specified starting date (10).

Mail requests are processed in a similar manner, using a terminal located at the state park office. This "management terminal" has the additional capability of restricting any campground from sale. A series of accounting reports on the sale of reservations is also available through the management terminal.

Although the current reservation system in California seems to be working smoothly, problems can be encountered in a computerized system. The California system was originally operated by another private firm, which went bankrupt after 6 months of operation.

This caused considerable difficulty with integrating reservations which had already been made into the new system. For this reason, agencies should investigate the status of any firm carefully before developing a computerized system.

There are, of course, other disadvantages to computerized reservation systems. The fee charged for the reservation may be a hardship for a few individuals. It is not necessary to have a reservation in order to camp, as long as a vacancy is available, but reservations may be needed in order to camp during peak periods. Such systems may be more difficult to develop in states where extensive data processing facilities are not already in operation. Administrators interested in additional information on computerized systems should contact one of the firms listed in Table 2.

Costs of Reservation Systems

In order to allow some comparison between the two major types of systems, the financial aspects of the Oregon and California systems will be examined.

Oregon has used a manual reservation system for two seasons, and reservations are accepted at 11 state parks. In 1971 the system was in operation during the heaviest use season of May 17 through September 5. Reservation requests were directed to the park where the reservation was to be used. Total costs of the reservation system in 1971 were \$44,469.33 (11). The largest expenditures were for salaries and wages (\$37,065), overtime (\$2,286), postage (\$3,033) and telephone service (\$1,552). The average cost per reservation for the entire system in 1971 was 94¢.

In addition to the basic reservation system, Oregon also operates a Campsite Information Center. The Center was operated for 80 working days in 1971, and was staffed between 8 a.m. and 5 p.m., Monday through Friday. The purpose of the Center is "to provide campers with up-to-date information about the availability of campsites in State Parks, and to help direct them to areas that were not full." (12) The Center was also intended to reduce the number of turnaways at parks that were filled. In 1971 the Center also began accepting cancellations of reservations on a toll-free telephone line, in order to reduce the number of unused reservations. The Center received a total of 22,024 calls in 1971, an average of 275 calls per day. The operation was staffed with two employees at the start of the season in May, and a third employee was added in June. The cost of operating the Center in 1971 was \$14,095 (13). This includes approximately \$4,880 for salaries, \$9,200 for telephone expenses, and \$7.00 for printing and office supplies. The agency feels that the Center provides a valuable service to the public and increases the convenience of the reservation system. The total cost of the reservation system and the Information Center was approximately \$58,600 in 1971.

The California system provides a comparison with the Oregon operation from at least two standpoints. First, it is a computerized system operated by a private firm. Second, a special fee is charged for the reservation service. Officials of the agency state that the reser-

vation system generates some revenue, and no funds are specifically appropriated for the system's operation. Distribution of revenue from the reservation fee is made in the following manner.

If the reservation is made at a Ticketron operated terminal, Ticketron retains \$1.00 from the reservation fee and pays the remaining \$0.50 to the state. In addition, Ticketron receives 7% of the total revenue derived from the reservations placed through the Ticketron terminals. If the reservation is made by mail through the state park office, the state initially retains the entire \$1.50 fee, but remits to Ticketron 1.5% of the income from reservations placed through the state park office. This arrangement pays all of the state's obligation to Ticketron for the operation of the system. The funds retained by the agency are used to defray costs of supervising the reservation system at the state park office and at the individual parks (14).

In summary, the reservation system in California does not represent an expense to the agency. This situation may not be applicable in all states, since Ticketron had an established system of terminals in California before the state parks were added to their system. This approach may be worth further investigation by agencies interested in computerized reservations, and a similar system could probably be developed by a number of private firms.

Another indication of the costs of reservation systems is provided by survey participants. Administrators were asked, "Were operating expenses increased as a result of the reservation system?" A total of 10 respondents said "Yes" and 19 replied "No". This item may be difficult to interpret, because of the wide variation in the amount of money involved in the indicated increases. In addition to monetary costs, administrators should consider the costs in efficiency or service to the public which could result from the diversion of personnel from existing duties in order to operate a reservation system. It is important, therefore, that administrators consider the total costs when evaluating a reservation system. It does seem to be significant that a majority of agencies did not report an increase in operating expenses as a result of the reservation system.

Reasons for Failure of Reservation Systems

Reservations systems have been adopted and then abandoned in at least three locations during recent years. In the late 1960's the National Park Service leased several campgrounds to commercial operators on an experimental basis. One such experiment was conducted at Everglades National Park, and the concessioner announced that reservations would be accepted for campsites. Bloomfield notes that "great things were hoped for ... (but) reservations were never made or needed." (15) Use of the campground declined, and the major problem seems to be the public's objection to a charge for a public campground that was formerly available free of charge. Although the reservations were not the main cause of complaint, they were tied to the concessioner's operation, and were therefore discontinued when the Park Service resumed operation of the campground.

Another attempt at reservations in a national park was made at Acadia National Park in 1971. The park was selected for the experiment because of the availability of private campgrounds in the immediate area, and groups who were unable to camp in the park were able to find an alternate site with a minimum of inconvenience. An official in the NPS Regional Office states that the system will not be used again during 1972 "because the campers themselves did not like the system." (16) Apparently many individuals did not arrive to claim their reservations, and this caused some dissatisfaction on the part of other visitors who wanted to use the site. It is not clear whether or not there was a definite deadline for claiming reservations at Acadia. The major problem at Acadia, therefore, seemed to be the number of "no-shows".

Finally, the state of Massachusetts has tried a reservation system but has discontinued it because the agency felt that "it did not substantially serve as a public benefit." The agency did indicate that a reservation system is "a tool which can be utilized by the private sector to attract camping customers."

In summary, these examples indicate that reservations were abandoned either due to public criticism or to the agency's impression that the system was not serving the needs of the public.

TABLE 2

COMMERCIAL DATA PROCESSING FIRMS EXPRESSING INTEREST IN ASSISTING AGENCIES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF CAMPGROUND RESERVATION SYSTEMS

Computer Sciences Corporation
1901 Building
Century City
Los Angeles, California 90067

Control Data Corporation
8100 34th Avenue South
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55420

GTE Data Services
Post Office Box 1548
Tampa, Florida 33601

The Service Bureau Corporation
1350 Avenue of the Americas
New York, New York 10019

Ticketron, Incorporated
777 3rd Avenue
New York, New York 10017

Univac Division
Sperry Rand Corporation
3311 Richmond Avenue
Houston, Texas 77006

* American Express Reservations, Inc.
770 Broadway
New York, New York

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF CAMPGROUND RESERVATION SYSTEMS

Advantages of Reservation Systems

Advocates of campground reservation systems cite a number of advantages. The primary benefit is the limitation of use to levels consistent with the resource base and the facilities which are available. Some writers associate problems such as vandalism and other crime with overcrowding, and presumably a method of eliminating overcrowding would help reduce these problems (17). The Director of the state park system in California notes that "Vandalism has almost been eliminated in our campgrounds ..." as the result of their reservation system. Maintenance costs in the California parks have also been reduced because campers are taking greater care in leaving a clean campsite (18). Reservations may also reduce the number of "turnaways", campers who arrive at a park but are not allowed to camp because the area is filled. Oregon has reduced turnaways from 31,000 in 1969 to less than 12,000 in 1971 with a reservation system for its state parks (19). In areas where use is very heavy or the resource is unusually "fragile", reservations may reduce the deterioration of the resource, and help to preserve the qualities which the area was intended to protect (20).

The availability of reservations can be convenient for campers. Users living near a park have an obvious advantage over other campers in being able to obtain a campsite. This advantage is especially pronounced on weekends and holidays, when campgrounds may fill very early in the day. A reservation system allows equitable use of the campground by all campers, regardless of their proximity to the park. Reservations allow the traveler to plan his overnight stops in advance, and permit a more leisurely trip by eliminating the need to rush from one campground to the next to secure a site for the night.

The state of California found that reservations increase use of campgrounds and spread the load more evenly throughout the entire system. The agency knows in advance which areas will receive the heaviest use, and can plan its operation accordingly (21). Conflicts among users competing for the same campsite were eliminated by the reservation system.

Data from Oregon indicate that a reservation system can encourage increased use of parks by out-of-state campers (22). This may be an advantage for states which are interested in increasing tourism. Similar increases in out-of-state use have been noted in California (23).

The 33 survey participants who are now using reservations were asked to list the advantages of their system. Their responses are listed on the following page.

* *Up-dated information entry: Effective May 1973.*

Advantages of Reservations	Number of Responses
a. Reduced conflicts among visitors.	19
b. Reduced resource deterioration.	6
c. Reduced litter problems.	4
d. Reduced maintenance on physical facilities.	2
e. Other.	22

The following comments are typical of those listed in the "Other" category:

1. "Eliminates waiting lines of prospective customers and accompanying traffic jams. Eliminates majority of turnaways. Gives greater number of persons an opportunity to have a camping experience. Creates additional jobs, paid for by the reservation fee."
2. "Helped in distributing campers to lesser used areas."
3. "This is purely a service to accommodate campers. Our most popular campsites are filled to capacity, whether by reservations or first come, first served."
4. "It is the only way to handle group areas."

It is apparent from these comments that reservations can offer one solution to many of the problems associated with overcrowded parks and campgrounds.

Disadvantages of Reservation Systems

Key disadvantages of reservations appear to center around public reaction to the system and increased workloads for agency personnel. Depending upon the scope of the system used, reservations may or may not increase operating costs of the agency. The question of expense has been discussed in the previous chapter. There seems to be little doubt that the processing of reservation requests will require either additional personnel or an increased workload for existing personnel, unless the reservations are handled by an outside firm under contract to the agency. At Grand Canyon National Park, reservations are processed by visitor center personnel. This created no serious problem, although some visitors may have been required to wait longer for service during peak periods. If new personnel are not hired to process reservations, the administrator must weigh the "trade-off" required in the shift of personnel from existing duties.

Despite the convenience inherent in reservations for the campers themselves, it is likely that there will be users who object to this limitation on use. Once all available sites have been reserved, additional visitors will be turned away or sent to an "overflow" area. This situation often occurs even without reservations at the more popular parks. Reservations may limit opportunities for the "impulsive" camper who dislikes the need to plan his recreation several weeks or even months in advance. The realization that even leisure pursuits are no longer free of the "System" may be the most serious

social problem of the reservation concept. It is unlikely, however, that all campgrounds will ever be subject to reservation.

One of the more serious practical limitations to reservation use is the requirement for control over access to the campground. The majority of campsites in areas such as the national forests are located in relatively small campgrounds, and direct supervision of such areas by agency personnel is not normally feasible. If reservations are to be successful, access to the sites must be controlled or agency personnel must be available to insure that reservations are honored by other campers. These limitations should be considered in the design and location of new campgrounds, if reservations are being considered by an agency for future use.

A final disadvantage of reservations involves the failure of individuals to utilize reservations which have been made. In areas where user fees are collected, a large number of these "no-shows" could have an adverse impact on agency revenue. In addition to the opportunity to use the site. This problem seems to occur most often when no monetary deposit is required in order to make a reservation.

The no-show problem may be reduced by providing a convenient method for cancelling reservations. Oregon provides a toll-free telephone number for cancellations and other requests for information about campground reservations. During the first season of use, this approach increased the cancellation of unneeded reservations by about 30%. During the past two seasons, approximately 10% of the reservations made for Oregon state parks were no-shows (24).

Additional reductions in unclaimed reservations would probably result from the collection of a deposit or other advance payment when the reservation is confirmed, with a provision for at least a partial refund if the reservation is cancelled before a specified deadline. This approach is used by at least two states.

The 33 survey participants who are using reservations were also asked to list the disadvantages of their systems. Their responses are listed below:

Disadvantages of Reservations	Number of Responses
a. Increased workload for processing reservation requests.	11
b. Public complaints about reduced opportunities for camping.	4
c. Other.	10

Comments listed in the "Other" category were not always disadvantages, but rather a reinforcement of the administrator's satisfaction with reservations. Examples of these responses included:

1. "Campsites would not get as much use."
2. "Some scheduling difficulties."
3. "Increased workload not serious."
4. "Advantages far outweigh disadvantages."
5. "To the fair minded there are no disadvantages."

The fact that reservations are not being used in the majority of campgrounds indicates that many adminis-

trators are not yet convinced that reservations are the best solution to the problems of overcrowding.

Factors Discouraging the Use of Campground Reservation Systems

The relatively limited application of reservation systems may result from several factors. In many areas, reservations are simply not needed because of a lack of overcrowding during most of the year. Most campsites may be filled during two or three holiday weekends, but such occasional crowding does not seem to justify a reservation system for the entire season or year.

In other cases, campgrounds may not be suitable for reservations, due to the lack of control over access to the area. Other agencies may feel that fiscal limitations or personnel shortages preclude the use of reservations. In order to determine the factors which are currently discouraging the use of reservations, participants in the survey were asked to respond to the following question: "If your agency does NOT accept reservations for any camping area or facilities, please check all factors which have discouraged use of such a system." The responses from the 67 participants who are not now using reservations are listed on the following page.

Factors Discouraging Use of Reservations	Number of Responses
a. Anticipated increased workload for present staff.	35
b. Anticipated cost of reservation system.	30
c. Agency philosophy that reservations are not appropriate for public camping areas.	28
d. No problems exist which would be relieved by a reservation system.	16
e. Other.	25

The following comments are typical of those in the "Other" category:

1. "Legislature has not provided money to implement a reservation system for camping."
2. "We question the value of a reservation system."
3. "There is no automated system available."
4. "Impact upon private campgrounds who do provide reservations."
5. "Our biggest problem is the number of small (2 to 10 family unit) campgrounds where it would not be economical to have a reservation system."

In summary, the major limitations on additional use of campground reservation systems appear to be the anticipated cost of the system, the additional work required to process reservations, and the "social" impact of a reservation system for public camping areas.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following conclusions may be drawn from the preceding data on campground reservation systems. First, such systems are now being used by only a small percentage of federal and state agencies which administer campgrounds. The majority of the systems which are in effect have been developed within the past ten years.

Second, most reservations which are accepted apply only to campsites for organized groups. Agency acceptance of these reservations is probably due to the relatively small number of such requests, and the advantages of controlling the use of campgrounds by large groups.

Third, all but two of the reservation systems studied use manual methods for processing reservation requests, largely due to the small number of requests involved and the anticipated cost of a computerized system.

Fourth, there are indications that a well-planned and efficiently operated reservation system will be accepted by most campers. Agencies should not expect, however, that public acceptance will be either unanimous or instantaneous. If at all possible, a system should be used for more than one season before it is abandoned because of user complaints.

Fifth, reservations are neither suitable nor desirable for every campground in the United States. The need for such a system must be carefully evaluated in terms of the problems encountered by each agency.

Finally, campsite reservation systems can help solve many of the problems associated with the overcrowding of public campgrounds, and can be operated at little or no expense to the agency. The costs involved in the system will depend upon the type of system chosen and the scope of the operation.

Based on these observations, the author presents the following recommendations. First, agencies which are experiencing problems with overuse of camping facilities should not reject the use of reservations simply on the basis of preconceived ideas of the costs or disadvantages of such systems. It is hoped that the information presented in this paper indicates that such systems do have some value to government agencies.

Second, agencies which do not now need a reservation system or other methods of rationing use should consider these systems in the design and location of future campgrounds. This planning can ease the transition to such systems if they should become necessary in the future. For example, campgrounds could be designed so that entrance to the area can be controlled and individual sites can be clearly delineated.

Finally, agencies should be willing to experiment with new techniques for dealing with management problems such as overcrowding. A reservation system is not necessarily the ultimate answer to these problems, but it does deserve careful evaluation. It is hoped that this study will encourage such evaluation by all agencies interested in providing meaningful outdoor recreation opportunities for all of the public.



Florida Dept. of Natural Resources Photo

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Should Function or Policy Dictate Planning?

By Clare A. Gunn

As millions more acres of land are regularly pressed into service for tourism and parks, the problems of planning are compounded greatly. Clues can be found not only in the increased conflict between public agencies and between the public and private sector but between all developers and the new breed of protectionists. The purpose of this discussion is to suggest that through *functional planning* many problems can be avoided. The concept of *function* offers much greater hope than that of individualized *policy* if we are to have the advantages of well-planned environments.

For planning purposes, the two major leisure modes—tourism and parks—should be considered together even though they are different. Both cater to people who travel, who spend money and who gain some satisfactions from investments in land, facilities and programs.

This discussion is developed in three parts: some functional fundamentals important to both public and private development, some problems arising from a policy-only planning approach and a suggested functional concept for consideration. (Much of this material is drawn from *Vacationscape*, by the author.)

Functional Fundamentals

Threaded through all tourism and park development are at least five fundamentals that are critical to planning. Our present system of planning is so tightly linked with policy within both the public and private sectors that these fundamentals are not always clear.

1. *Attractions come first.* Although many components are important, the attracting forces seem to have priority over all others. Visitors do not come to parks and commercial facilities because they must in order to make a living, because they are coerced by a public power or because they feel obligated to make either Hilton or the National Park Service succeed. They go because they are lured by some attracting force. No commercial or public service for tourism or recreation



Colonial Williamsburg Photo

The lure of attractions provides the stimulus for all tourism and park use and therefore has functional priority over all other components. For example, many lodging and food services around the community of Williamsburg functionally depend upon the restoration.

can succeed if visitors are not lured to attraction destinations. Hotel rooms and interpretive educational programs are not needed if there is no one there to use them.

Functionally, attractions can be defined as developed physical entities that provide for activities desired by people at leisure. This definition, of course, cuts across many separate policy-making bodies.

In the United States, attractions are planned, owned and operated by members of all three economic sectors: First, governments—federal to local—perform an investment and operational role for tourism and recreation as well as one of control and regulation. Governments, through ownership and management of parks, reserves, reservoirs, forests and scenic highways provide many attractions. Second, most of the historic sites, festivals, pageants and youth camps are run by non-profit organizations. Third, private enterprise provides attractions ranging in kind all the way from the Navajo rug-weaver to the Disneyworld complex.

Furthermore, attractions vary depending upon the objective of the traveler. Planning by policy, rather than by function, tends to ignore this fundamental. All attractions could be grouped into five broad categories of traveler objectives.

a. Undoubtedly the most popularly attended category throughout the United States is that of *sightseeing attractions*. By the millions, we love to view and photograph scenery, visit historic sites and buildings and investigate exotic lands.

b. *Resort and convention attractions*, with golf courses, health-building facilities and entertainment,

are growing in many regions. Conventions and conferences are being held increasingly where a variety of tourist and recreation attractions can be found.

c. *Outdoor recreation attractions* encompass a wide variety of activities of growing popularity and are offered by both public and private interests.

d. Exploding across the country are *vacation home* subdivisions and complexes, ranging from palatial estates to mobile home clusters. While most of these are private ventures, some public park agencies include them in their offerings of attractions.

e. Many people are interested in traveling to and participating in festivals, races, rodeos, celebrations, pageants and other *event attractions*.

No matter how classified, the concept of attraction is an important one—important because of its basic function for all tourism and recreation activity.

At the same time, the concept of attraction is a very complicated phenomenon. Some attractions, such as Waikiki Beach, can be treated as a commodity and therefore merchandised through common marketing channels. Attractions are also subject to cultural and psychological factors less easily manipulated. The decision to travel and visit a Liberty Bell is as much a factor of the culture of America and the collective perception of people in Los Angeles, Chicago or Dallas as it is a factor under the control of resource managers. The right to travel and experience new or familiar activities is strongly cherished by most Americans. In any case, for governments and the private sectors, attractions offer the power-generating force for recreation interest, movement and rewards to resource owners and managers.

2. *Clusters are superior to single attractions.* A second functional fundamental of importance to all policy-makers is that of clustering. Visitors, more and more, seek groupings of attractions into clusters large enough to satisfy a variety of interests rather than a single desire.

Some attraction clusters are under the control of several owner-managers. For example, New London, Connecticut, and vicinity make up an important cluster—far more effective than its parts taken separately. The cluster includes many features including the first site of the United States Navy. Not far is Mystic Seaport, a whaling museum that was planned and developed to include a collection of buildings, ships and artifacts depicting the whaling era of America. Nearby are several interesting Revolutionary War villages that have been restored for visitor inspection. These, together with many other attraction features such as the coastal beaches produce an attraction cluster focused on history and water.

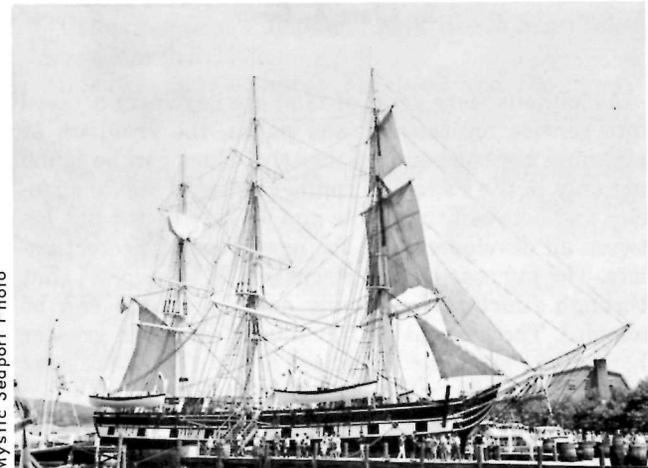
Other significant attraction clusters are under one overall owner-ownership and therefore one set of policies, such as Yosemite National Park. It includes massive granite-walled canyons and waterfalls reaching 3,000 feet above a meadow-and-forest valley floor. It contains interesting flora and fauna including the spectacular Mariposa Grove of ancient sequoia trees.

Many other examples throughout the nation and the world demonstrate the principle of clustering as a fundamental of tourism-recreation function.



Texas Highway Dept. Photo

Events, such as the "Starving Artists Show" in San Antonio, constitute a major category of attractions.



Mystic Seaport Photo

Mystic Seaport is one element of a major attraction cluster in and around New London, Connecticut. The cluster functions as a major cohesive grouping even though owned and managed by many separate policy-making bodies.



NPS Photo

Yosemite National Park functions as an attraction cluster under one policy-making body. Waterfalls, massive granite walls, ancient sequoia trees, and an abundance of interesting flora and fauna make up the cluster.



Wasteful, erosive and unasthetic parking lots often can be replaced by other transportation designs, such as this aerial gondola system in Sierra Nevada National Park, Venezuela.

3. *Circulation corridors are important.* Functionally, our transportation systems are made up of much more than just the travelways. The entire visual sweep is activated during pleasure travel. Actually, this is ascribing an attraction as well as a transport function to the movement of people. It admits that travel is as much a psychological activity as a physical one.

The traveler often puts into play a number of separate transportation policy-making bodies. It is not unusual for a traveler to start from home by car or taxi and then travel by a 747, by a bus and then by an aerial gondola at a sightseeing destination or a ski resort. Nor is it unusual to travel by steamship, ferry or pack team. But, the traveler well knows that his transportation corridors were not planned for his total function but for the goals set by scattered policy.

4. *Cities are critical to all tourism and recreation.* Cities, as well as remote resource areas, are functionally important for tourism and parks in several ways.

Cities serve as transportation nodes. They supply

the exchange and terminal points for rail lines, highways, airlines and steamship routes.

Cities provide the traveler an opportunity to shop. Shopping is one of the most important activities of tourists and some park administrators have included shopping areas near or within their attraction areas. Frequently, however, this important function is against park policy.

Cities serve as centers of culture. Many visitors are curious about the culture of other locations and want to see it first hand. Many capital cities are visited by millions of travelers each year. Each capital has its own personality and tends to reflect the differing characteristics of its people, land and historic background such as Salt Lake City with its monument to the seagull.

Urban parks, such as the San Antonio River Walk, are popular with visitors as well as local citizens. Our survey of voters of San Antonio indicated that they were very proud and defensive of their River Walk in spite of the fact that over 70 percent of the visitors come from out of town (Gunn, Reed and Couch, 1972: 60).

Most history was written in the cities; therefore, many cities are now engaged in the restoration of their heritage and artifacts. Those responsible for restoration, however, seldom believe that they are fostering the functions of tourism and park activity.

Cities are the places for many cultural events, popular with both local citizens and visitors. The local government of Ottawa, Canada, was forced by tourists and public opinion to continue the Changing of the Guard ceremony after dropping it a few years as an economy measure.

Cities provide other important functions for tourism and parks—entertainment and the homes of friends and relatives. Frequently, visits to friends and relatives are combined with visits to parks and extensive resource attractions.

The functional role of cities is important but seldom incorporated into policy and planning of tourist businesses and parks.



Cities, such as New Orleans and its Vieux Carre, are travel destinations of equal importance to natural resource attractions. Furthermore, they act as transportation nodes and offer shopping, cultural and many other tourist functions.

5. *Functionally, all attractions depend upon natural and cultural resources.* The special resource characteristics of places have much to do with tourism and park functions.

For many attractions, natural resource assets are important. For some, water and waterlife characteristics are critical. For others, the vegetative cover is especially important. We know that climate has something to do with certain types of touristic activities but we are not sure about its many ramifications. Air conditioning has altered the significance of natural climate in some locations. The quality of air is critical in many attraction destinations. Topographic change, soils,



NPS Photo

Natural resource factors, such as water, vegetative cover, topographic change, soils, wildlife and geologic conditions are important to many attractions.

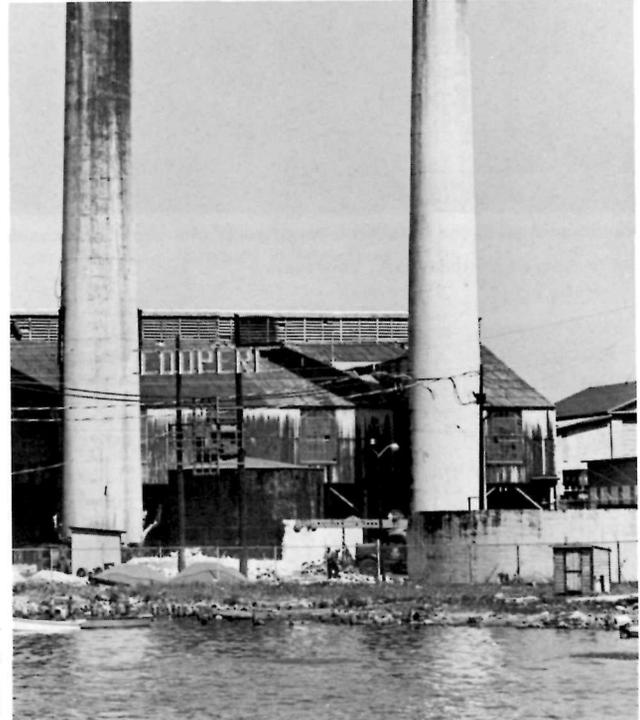
wildlife and geologic conditions can play a very important role in development. The esthetic qualities of natural resources, such as wildlife, are increasingly important.

Overlooked by many policymakers in the park and tourist field are the cultural resources. As a country we are just now maturing sufficiently to take a stronger interest in our past and therefore historic restoration and interpretation are becoming important, functionally. Cultural institutions, such as the Woods Hole oceanographic complex in Massachusetts or NASA installations in Florida and Texas, become targets for a great amount of pleasure and educational travel. Although many of us are critical of industry these days we forget that functionally thousands of tourists seek industrial attractions. The United States Travel Service furnishes guidebooks to foreign travelers listing over 6,000 plant tours in this country. Cultural events, such as festivals, pageants, parades and ceremonials frequently are of as much interest to the outsider as to the native.

The discussion thus far has emphasized that attractions are extremely important; that they thrive best when clustered; that circulation corridors are more than travel ways; that cities perform many critical functions and that attractions depend heavily upon natural and cultural resources. However, seldom do we plan according to these functional principles. We go by policy. And, this causes us some problems.

The emphasis upon policy rather than function has resulted in many difficulties that not only hinder the user and the developer but also cause environmental deterioration.

We often *preempt* sites by virtue of first-come-first-serve policies. Sometimes beaches are taken over by non-recreation users, not because they need them but



Eddie Cospo Photo

The power plant in Puerto Rico preempts valuable beach sites. Preemption of land by uses that can thrive elsewhere equally well is a popular problem resulting from policy dominating function.

because beaches happened to come with the land they needed for their main purposes. Some beaches are preempted by industry; other lands are frequently preempted by highways. An example is removal of a street and excavation of soil to a depth of thirty-five feet to recover important artifacts in the restoration of the Saugus Iron Works attraction, located above Boston. Industrial preemption sometimes reaches beyond the individual site by pumping out noxious fumes damaging to campground and recreational uses some distance away.

Resources are frequently *eroded* because we haven't taken a functional approach. Forest trees were killed when intensive recreational areas such as campgrounds and playgrounds were built directly beneath them. Flood plains are not suited to motel and restaurant building as Agnes well demonstrated last summer. Sometimes, erosion of resources is caused by well-meaning acts. For example, new "open beach" legislation in Texas fosters promiscuous use, conflict and abuse by mixing too many automobiles, people, dogs and recreation vehicles on a narrow and environmentally fragile strand of beach along the Gulf coast. A logical sorting of recreational functions has given way to policy.



NPS Photo

Strange esthetic juxtapositions are frequently thrust upon the traveling public because individual enterprise policy decisions took priority over tourist functions for planning and design.

Our fragmented approach allows some very bad *juxtapositions* of development. Many historic buildings are obscured by the bad esthetics of signs and decadent structures. Highrise construction on beaches violates the rights of others to free and open visual and physical access to the water's edge. Otherwise beautiful vistas are often spoiled by shoddy or badly designed supporting structures. Frequently, the entrances to our most highly-prized park attractions thread the public through a garish tunnel of cluttered huckstering. Not all fragmentation is carried on by private enterprise. Often, differing design policies by different public agencies create startling contrasts of landscapes, signs and buildings at points where their jurisdictions meet.

Many other problems that contribute to reduced profits for private enterprise, reduced rewards to public agencies, reduced visitor satisfactions and certainly depredation of environments could be cited. The end result of giving policy priority over function may be greater diversity but most often it results in a chaotic mass of unrelated development. Needed are the mechanisms that can foster a functional approach at the same time that the integrity of individual policy can be maintained.

A Concept

If the above observations are correct, the logical next step is to devise ways of planning for tourism and recreation development that will protect basic resource assets and yet offer all the functional elements needed for a viable and integrated system. Through collaboration of the separate policy-making bodies at an early stage of development it may be possible to meet all goals: increased visitor satisfaction, increased success for developers and better opportunities for protecting unique resource areas.

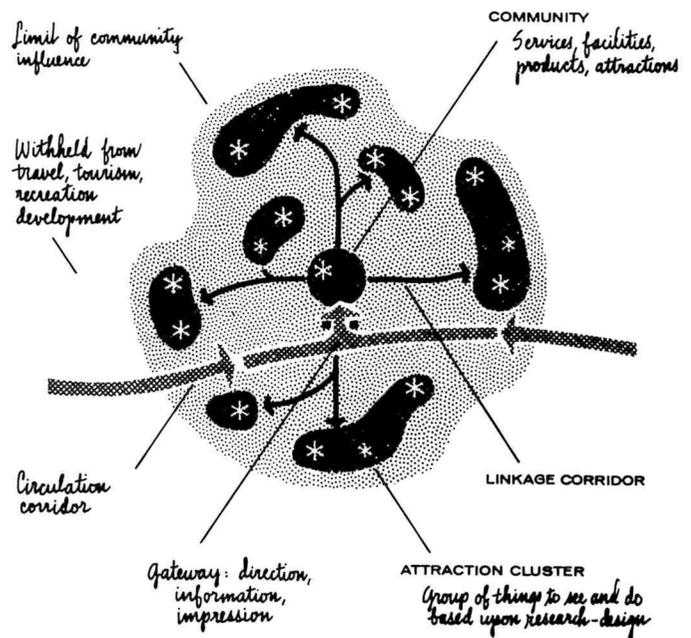
Suppose, for example, that appropriate representatives of the federal government (Interior, Agriculture, Corps of Engineers, Transportation) and a local city government, along with county and state representation, sat down together and agreed to view the future of tourism and recreation development and non-development in a given area. Without great effort and even without complicated processing, they could identify logical functional elements that could help them in all their policymaking, but especially for tourism and recreation.

A first step would be the identification of the functional position of the city with relation to transportation access and to the resources—both natural and cultural—within a radius of influence of that city.

Through study of the resource characteristics—their location, importance, uniqueness, and relation to the city services—new attraction cluster potential could be identified. By ignoring land price, ownership, and legal controls at this stage, the true strengths and weaknesses of the area could be determined. The factual understanding of the land is not colored by political or economic pressures.

A diagram of tourism functional planning that identifies elements and relationships for a "Community-Attraction Complex." Such a conceptual approach depends upon thorough research of the natural and cultural characteristics of an area and application of transportation, infrastructure and market factors.

Community-Attraction Complex



Section



Armed with such a view of the area, those who seek protection or development can begin to evaluate individual policy. Park interests can look toward those lands that *functionally* should be considered for their development or protection. It is then that ownership constraints can be investigated. Private interests can view potential development based upon tourism functions and then look into costs, controls and related factors.

Truly creative and artistic design concepts for beautiful, orderly and functional development—both new and remodeled—can grow from such a systematic approach. No individual owner need be robbed of his initiative. On the contrary, he has even greater ability for innovation because his development is predicated upon a broader functional matrix. Personally, I am convinced that such an approach is feasible and capable of meeting many desirable goals. However, it now lacks credibility on the part of those who push for policy before function.

Several years ago, we experimented with this concept in Michigan's Upper Peninsula (Blank, et al., 1966). Its success was dependent upon how seriously the area's leaders would consider function before policy. There is now evidence that to the degree the investors, developers and land management agencies consider function before policy, much progress has been made. Many lands have been planned and in several locations legal zoning controls have been initiated. New investment has been made on lands that were identified as having growth potential. Certain unique resource areas have been placed under federal and state protection.

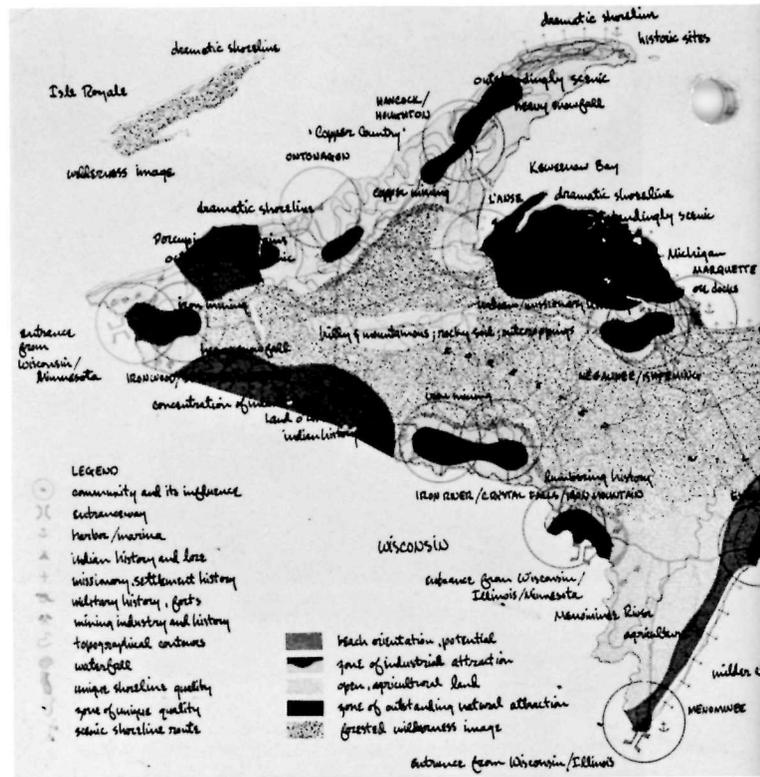
The process of our analysis followed a course of steps that led to conclusions and overall recommendations for the entire region:

1. A first step was the study of the geographic position of the region identifying such facts as being within one day's drive of 40 million people.

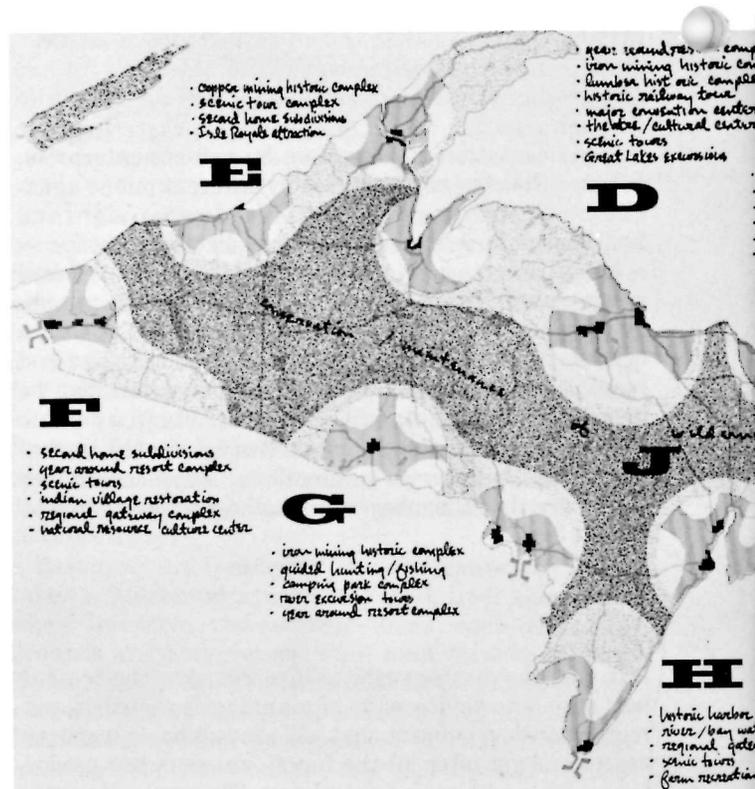
2. We studied the natural and cultural resources of the region. Quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed for clues to tourist and recreation implications. By generalizing the data, broad groupings of characteristics became clear. For example, the distribution of the cities and transportation routes around the periphery left the interior open and relatively undeveloped. On the other hand, the relatively uniform distribution of forests throughout the region gave no area competitive advantage over another.

3. A third step was synthesis of research findings. Markets were identified. Surveys of traveler behavior were made. These, together with the resource analysis, were then synthesized to derive characteristics, meaning and conclusions. We could then graphically show the distribution of areas having special functional relationship to tourism and park potential.

4. From this grew a concept for development and general functional recommendations. A hierarchy of travelways was proposed. A total of 100 potential attraction clusters were identified. Based upon the location of the cities and the potential attraction clusters, ten development zones were identified. Finally, a vast area was identified as a conservation zone from which



Resource characteristics important to tourism and recreation were found to be clustered around the periphery of the Upper Peninsula of Michigan when thoroughly studied by a research-design team.



Community-attraction potential, including over 100 attraction concepts, were identified based upon the analysis shown in the figure above. From resource study, the central region was recommended to remain a conservation zone, free from major development.

