CALIFORNIA OUTDOOR RECREATION PLAN 1993

An Element of the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program

State of California-The Resources Agency
DEPARTMENT OF PARKS AND RECREATION
The following persons were instrumental in preparation of this report:

Ross Henry, Chief, Planning, Acquisition, and Local Services
Bruce Kennedy, Senior Park and Recreation Specialist
Keith Demetrak, Staff park and Recreation Specialist
John Schmill, Associate Park and Recreation Specialist
Chris Schmide, Associate Park and Recreation Specialist
Tracy Towner-Yep, Graduate Student Assistant
Larry Martz, Research Writer
Gary Caplener, Senior Graphic Artist

Murray Rosenthal acted as consultant for the report, in the categories of issue identification, research, development of action items and recommendations, and writing.

The preparation of this study was financed in part through a planning grant from the National park Service, United States Department of the Interior, under the provisions of the Land and Water Conservation Act of 1965 (Public Law 88-578, as amended).

This report is an element of the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program, formulated under the provisions of Chapter 5099 of the California Public Resources Code.
CALIFORNIA
OUTDOOR RECREATION PLAN
1993

An Element of the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program

Pete Wilson
Governor

Douglas P. Wheeler
Secretary for Resources

Donald W. Murphy
Director
Department of Parks and Recreation

State of California-The Resources Agency
DEPARTMENT OF PARKS AND RECREATION
P.O. Box 942896
Sacramento, California 94296-0001

April 1994
CONTENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY vii
1. Purpose and Scope of Plan viii
2. The Nine Major Issues Facing Park and Recreation Providers viii
3. Actions Recommended to Address the Major Issues ix
4. In Conclusion xi

INTRODUCTION xii

CHAPTER I. POLICY FOUNDATION OF THE PLAN 1
1. The Value of Outdoor Recreation 1
2. California Recreation Policy 5
3. An Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians 10

CHAPTER II. OVERVIEW OF THE STATE 13
1. Important Factors Influencing Park and Recreation Services 13
2. Recreation Use Patterns and Activity Preferences 28
3. Overview of Key Outdoor Recreation Suppliers 42

CHAPTER III. ISSUES AND ACTIONS FOR THE NEXT FIVE YEARS 67
1. Improving Resource Stewardship 68
2. Serving a Changing Population 80
3. Responding to Limited Funding 86
4. Building Strong Leadership 104
5. Managing Aging Facilities 110
6. Expanding Legislative Support and Minimizing Legal Setbacks 122
7. Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research 127
8. Responding to the Demand for Trails 136
9. Halting the Loss of Wetlands 145
APPENDICES

1. Plan Methodology 155
2. The California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program 159
3. Selected Products of the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program 165
5. Outdoor Recreation Plan Advisory Committee 173

Bibliography 175

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Population of California (1900-2000) 14
Figure 2. California’s Changing Diversity 17
Figure 3. Age Distribution of California’s Population 18
Figure 4. Land and Water Conservation Fund, California Apportionment, 1965-92 43
Figure 5. Statewide Park and Recreation Bond Acts 54
Figure 6. California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program 160
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Importance of Outdoor Recreation to the Quality of Life 31

Table 2. Types of Outdoor Recreation Areas: Preferred Use vs. Actual Heavy Use 31

Table 3. Activity Participation 32

Table 4. Public Support for New Public Facilities, By Activity 35

Table 5. Quality of Outdoor Recreation Facilities Today Compared with Five Years Ago 37

Table 6. Satisfaction with Existing Public Outdoor Recreation Areas and Facilities 37

Table 7. Opinions and Attitudes Concerning Outdoor Recreation Lands and Facilities 38

Table 8. Attitudes Toward Changes to Park and Recreation Facilities and Services 39

Table 9. Attitudes and Opinions Concerning the Funding of Park and Recreation Facilities 40

Table 10. Opinions on Changing the Emphasis in Park and Recreation Agency Budgets 41

Table 11. Attitudes toward the Privatization of Park and Recreation Functions 41

Table 12. Federal Recreation Lands in California, Fiscal Year 1991 44

Table 13. Local Government Recreation in California, Fiscal Year 1985-86 62

Table 14. Experience with Local Park and Recreation Funding Measures (1986-90) 92

Table 15. Perceived Condition of Outdoor Recreation Facilities in 1992 and 1997 113
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF PLAN

The 1993 edition of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan provides a tool for statewide outdoor recreation leadership and action for the next five years. The plan is the product of the continuing outdoor recreation planning program of the California Department of Parks and Recreation. It is revised and updated approximately every five years to reflect current and expected changes in California’s large and complex population and economy. This edition supersedes the 1988 edition of the plan.

California’s state-level outdoor recreation planning program is the continuation of more than 35 years of effort by the department. The department serves a central role in this process as a matter of leadership, and because it is the agency of state government most actively engaged in the direct provision of outdoor recreation opportunities to Californians and their visitors. In addition, the department serves as the administrator of federal and state grant funds, which are disbursed to appropriate state agencies and to the state’s more than 600 park and recreation agencies at the city, county, and special district level.

The objectives of this plan are to determine the outdoor recreation issues—which are currently the problems and the opportunities—most critical in California, and to explore the most appropriate actions by which public agencies—state, federal, and local—might best address them. This plan is comprehensive in its scope. It considers the full range of outdoor recreation issues throughout the entire state. The plan also contains the state’s most recent statement of its recreation policy, which was prepared and approved by the State Park and Recreation Commission. Still in its development, the policy will be adopted by the commission (probably in early 1994) and adopted by the director of the State Department of Parks and Recreation. As background, the plan, based on information collected from 1991 to mid-1993, describes the current demographic, economic, political, and environmental situation, and it explores and analyzes the resultant outdoor recreation issues that will be of major concern to public agencies in the next five years.

The plan also contains a recommended Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians that can be a model for all recreation providers to distribute to the public.

The plan portrays, in sum, a recreation-oriented state with a large number and broad scope of opportunities for individuals to engage in outdoor activities of their choice. Despite some very real limitations, there are many opportunities for improving the outdoor recreation scene.
2. THE NINE MAJOR ISSUES FACING PARK AND RECREATION PROVIDERS

One of the major objectives of this plan is to determine the issues facing outdoor recreation today and in the next five years. This was accomplished on a broad, statewide basis with the assistance of an advisory committee of professionals, practitioners, and academicians. In the advisory committee’s view, the seven most critical issues facing park and recreation agencies are:

Issue 1. Improving Resource Stewardship
Issue 2. Serving a Changing Population
Issue 3. Responding to Limited Funding
Issue 4. Building Strong Leadership
Issue 5. Managing Aging Facilities
Issue 6. Expanding Legislative Support and Minimizing Legal Setbacks
Issue 7. Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research

In addition, two issues are mandated by the federal government, and have been appended to the advisory committee’s list of seven issues:

Issue 8. Responding to the Demand for Trails
Issue 9. Halting the Loss of Wetlands

3. ACTIONS RECOMMENDED TO ADDRESS THE MAJOR ISSUES

This plan recommends more than 50 general actions to address the nine issues of most concern to California’s outdoor recreation providers. In addition to recommendations for general actions to help implement the findings in this document, there are also a number of specific recommendations for identified agencies or groups of agencies to take well-defined actions.

The details of these general and specific actions, which can be found in Chapter III, provide a variety of options for useful efforts and initiatives to help satisfy the desires of the public and enhance the ability of recreation agencies to provide what is needed.
4. IN CONCLUSION

State-level leadership is required to put this plan into effect. What is needed is the energy, commitment, and organization to undertake the following specific actions:

- Evaluate periodically the public’s outdoor recreation needs.
- Develop full communication with the public and with decision-makers on the many individual and social values of recreation.
- Continually improve means of assessing and promoting the value of natural and cultural resource values.
- Fully coordinate with other park agencies, non-park agencies, and the private sector.
- Press for a continual upgrading of professional standards and objectives, and of the skills and training of employees at all levels.
- Promulgate an outdoor recreation ethic to reduce damage to natural and cultural resources, and, thereby, allow greater appreciation and enjoyment of them by recreationists.
- Continually improve mechanisms to coordinate efforts, exchange ideas, report achievements, inform and educate the public, and upgrade the skills of professionals.

Much of this will be accomplished through the efforts of every recreation professional, every public recreation agency, and every citizen and organization concerned with outdoor recreation. Two specific organizations, however, are essential in future leadership roles:

The California Department of Parks and Recreation--by administering grants; providing technical assistance; coordinating agencies through conferences, workshops, and outreach activities; and undertaking necessary research.

The California Park and Recreation Society--through professional development, education, leadership, and training; efforts to influence public policy favorable to recreation agencies; and communications to the general public.

These two organizations, however, cannot provide all the required leadership. Ultimately, each park and recreation agency must do what it can in its own area of responsibility, and go the extra distance to cooperate and work with others to foster the recreational opportunities needed by California’s large, diverse, and ever-changing population.
INTRODUCTION

The scope of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan--1993 was designed to meet the specific program responsibilities of the federal Land and Water Conservation Fund Act, whose concerns are outdoor recreation, land acquisition, facility development, redevelopment, and rehabilitation. This plan encompasses broader interests than these capital outlay functions, dealing also with operations, maintenance, and recreation programming. This document and its recommendations realistically reflect the political and administrative capacity of the State of California to guide, influence, or direct the outdoor recreation policies and programs of agencies in state government and at local government levels. The plan, consequently, emphasizes issues and actions mainly of concern to state and local park and recreation agencies. Federal agencies and private-sector recreational providers, over which the State has much less influence, are, therefore, only briefly discussed.

The plan fills the following needs:

- **As a Policy Foundation:** Chapter I contains the foundations for serious consideration of outdoor recreation in California. It explores the wide range of personal, social, and economic values derived from recreational activities. It then moves to a logical reflection of these values, the current California Recreation Policy, which has been prepared by the State Park and Recreation Commission, and, when approved, will be adopted by the director of the State Department of Parks and Recreation. This policy defines the state’s broad interest in recreation, which is to promote the fullest range of recreational opportunities. Finally, the chapter defines the individual citizen’s role in the area of outdoor recreation in the form of an Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians, which specifies the rights and responsibilities of everyone, who pursues his or her recreational interests.

- **As an Information Source:** Chapter II provides a concise overview, a point-in-time status report on the social, economic, environmental, and political conditions that affect the provision of outdoor recreational opportunities across the state. Chapter II also summarizes the capabilities and problems of the state’s outdoor recreation providers--federal, state, local, and private sector. Behind this “state-of-the-state” summary is a wealth of background statistics and analyses.

- **As an Action Guide:** Following the discussion of the most critical outdoor recreational issues, Chapter III explores a wide range of ways in which recreation providers can overcome obstacles and create the opportunities the public will demand in coming years. Individual agencies and recreation providers are encouraged to take necessary steps in their own jurisdictions. Chapter III identifies and analyzes the most critical outdoor recreation issues--the broad problems and opportunities that will facilitate or hinder the public’s outdoor recreational opportunities in the future.
To Provide Leadership: As the agency responsible for the statewide outdoor recreation planning process, and for production of this document, the California Department of Parks and Recreation seeks to provide leadership in the areas of information development and policy guidance.

To Maintain Funding Eligibility: Regular, periodic production of this planning document, and maintenance of the state's overall comprehensive outdoor recreation planning process, fulfill the requirement by which California maintains its eligibility to receive grants from the federal Land and Water Conservation Fund.

To Develop Project Selection Criteria: Criteria have been prepared by the department for selecting state and local government projects to receive funding from the federal Land and Water Conservation Fund for the five years following approval of this plan. These criteria are based to a significant degree on the actions recommended to deal with the major issues identified in this plan. The allocation of funds is known as the Open Project Selection Process (OPSP), which is published, in a separate document, as part of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan. A summary of the OPSP appears in Appendix 4.

A Note on Terminology
In the plan, the terms "parkland," "park," and "recreation area" should be understood to include a wide variety of parks and recreation areas ranging from developed urban sites (e.g., playgrounds, mini-parks, vest-pocket parks, and tot lots) to remote, essentially natural areas and even pristine wilderness areas. The terms "parkland," "park," and "recreation area" should also be understood to include cultural buildings and sites (and their associated artifacts) developed or preserved for their educational and historic (or pre-historic) value (e.g., museums, museum villages, historic buildings, and prehistoric sites). Despite the reference to "land" in "parkland," the three terms should also be understood to include lakes, ponds, rivers, streams, swimming and wading pools, and other bodies of water operated or preserved in conjunction with parks and recreation areas.
CHAPTER I

Policy Foundation For The Plan

This chapter of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan—1993 consists of three sections. Together, they provide a policy foundation for the rest of the plan.

• The first section is a general discussion of the value of outdoor recreation. It is heavily based on information on the strongly supportive attitudes of Californians toward outdoor recreation as expressed in two surveys on the subject conducted for the Department of Parks and Recreation, first in 1987 and, most recently, in 1992.

• The second section states the official California Recreation Policy.

• The third section articulates an Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians. The Code of Ethics encourages people to enjoy outdoor recreation in a manner that neither degrades outdoor recreation resources, nor impinges adversely on the recreation experiences of others.

1. THE VALUE OF OUTDOOR RECREATION

California is an outdoors-minded state. Both its climate and the diversity of its natural environment lend themselves to an extraordinary variety of outdoor activities. Californians camp, hike, ski, swim, play ball, picnic, sightsee, bicycle, jog, birdwatch, and go boating in huge and ever-increasing numbers.

Both the supply of and demand for California outdoor recreation opportunities are enormous. In 1992, Californians spent an estimated 2.3 billion household-participation days on outdoor recreation. This measure, household-participation days, means the number of days during which at least one person in a household participated in outdoor recreation.

The majority of the outdoor recreation activities on public land occurred close to home in parks and recreation areas operated by cities, counties, and special districts. These areas total more than one-half million acres. The rest of recreation activities on public lands took place on state areas and on the federal government’s parks and multiple-use lands. State parks and other state-administered recreation lands include more than 1.3 million acres. Federal recreation and multiple-use lands encompass more than 43 million acres, or more than 43 percent of the state’s land area.
Outdoor recreation is very important to the physical and economic well-being of the state’s citizens. More than 76 percent of Californians feel that outdoor recreation is important to the quality of life in the state. The public also finds other values in parks and recreation. Almost 74 percent think parks and recreation areas bring jobs and money into their local communities. More than 51 percent believe these park and recreation facilities and programs help reduce crime and juvenile delinquency. About one-half of California’s citizens are satisfied with the public parks and outdoor recreation facilities available to them today.

For urban dwellers, outdoor recreation in natural or landscaped areas provides a welcome and relaxing, yet stimulating, contrast to the urbanized environment where they spend much of their time. California is among the most urbanized states in the union. More than 90 percent of its citizens live or work in or near major metropolitan areas.

For many people, constant exposure to a single environment eventually numbs the senses and dulls the mind. Human perceptions become less intense over time, if there is little change in one’s surroundings. On the other hand, novel and changing conditions tend to attract attention and generate interest. This is why in today’s world, many people find that outdoor recreation is neither an extravagance nor a luxury, but a necessity. As environmentalist Aldo Leopold observed: “Recreation is valuable in proportion to the intensity of its experiences, and to the degree to which it differs from and contrasts with workaday life.”

The stresses and tensions that are an integral part of modern urban life can be psychologically overwhelming and physically debilitating. Public opinion pollster Louis Harris has reported that, nationwide, 89 percent of all adult Americans report experiencing high stress, with 59 percent saying they feel “great stress” at least once or twice a week. There is no reason to believe these conclusions do not apply to California. Stress-caused problems impose real costs on society. In 1991, for example, California Workers’ Compensation honored more than 15,500 claims for stress-caused loss of work time.

Outdoor recreation gives people an opportunity to concentrate on something other than their day-to-day activities. It provides a different outlook on life. For example, a long fishing trip or even an extended weekend at the beach can noticeably reduce stress in many people, with a corresponding increase in job productivity. The recreational value is in the exchange of environments, even for a short period of time, from the stress-producing one to the recreational one. The physical exertion required by some activities also helps relieve stress. Outdoor recreation will not solve all of the troubles Californians experience with stress; however, there is no doubt it helps reduce the magnitude of the problem.

Many outdoor recreation activities require some degree of physical effort. For many people, outdoor recreation is a relatively painless and pleasant way to keep fit. Activities such as walking, jogging, and bicycling are extremely popular. For some activities, physical fitness is a prerequisite for participation. Overall, outdoor recreation offers both an inducement and a means for physical exercise. The medical benefits of regular exercise are well documented and widely accepted.
One of the major contributions of outdoor recreation to the individual is its encouragement of feelings of self-confidence and increased self-esteem, both of which are critical for individual well-being and for success in society. Many recreational activities require some degree of proficiency to perform well. Many people work hard to perfect their skills at an activity of their own choosing, and are often eager to show others just how competent they are. Recreationists generally develop their outdoors skills at their own pace. For recreational purposes, people often choose the sort of challenge that is within their ability to master. If it is not, the result may be frustration, rather than self-confidence. The challenge cannot be too easy, however, or one will not gain any real sense of achievement. In recreational situations, people tend to set their own standards, and know, without being told, when they have done well or poorly.

The ability of recreation to build self-esteem through freely selected activities is important to those who lack such self-esteem, particularly those who may involve themselves in antisocial or destructive behavior. Good recreation experiences can be a powerful positive force on those who feel the pressures of urban living and need a creative release through the satisfaction of self-expression and personal revitalization.

Outdoor recreation provides an opportunity for friendly social contact. It has long been known that people with similar recreation interests enjoy meeting each other, comparing techniques, discussing choices of equipment, telling stories of past experiences, and participating in activities together as a group. Individuals engaged in the same activity will often stop to greet one another, and to chat. In a recreational situation, unlike daily life, a person is usually able to control the amount of his or her contacts with other people, as well as the intensity of those contacts.

Urban parks are community gathering places for workers on lunch breaks, for retired persons, for parents with young children, and for many others. Day camps and other programs for young people teach valuable skills, not only about nature, but also on how to function with other people. Athletic fields provide opportunities for friendly competition and physical exercise. Competitive sports, such as “midnight” basketball (so-called because it is available in the late-night hours), provide at-risk youth with alternatives that may prove effective in diverting them from dangerous and antisocial activities. Seniors are given opportunities to stay busy at things that interest them. Many urban parks are increasingly the settings for cultural events such as concerts or demonstrations by ethnic dance groups.

Communities that boast a well-developed and attractive park and recreation system generally rate higher on a quality-of-life scale than communities that do not. Often, parks are a source of civic pride. Well-maintained urban parks, with their grassy open areas and landscaped facilities, provide a welcome visual contrast to the surrounding cityscape. Such urban parks also increase the value of nearby private property. For example, Economic Research Associates estimates that Golden Gate Park adds from $500 million to $1 billion to the value of the residential and commercial property surrounding it. While smaller urban parks do not contribute as dramatically to the value of nearby property, they do affect property values positively.
An indirect and easily overlooked aspect of parks and recreation areas is that they offer people a choice of something to do—even if people choose not to do it. When one wonders about what to do on a weekend, a visit to any one of a number of parks or other recreation areas can be considered along with other options. People do not always want to visit a park, but it is important that the opportunity be available. From this perspective, outdoor recreation offers something central to the traditional American desire for opportunity and choice. The more alternatives available, the greater the degree of freedom people experience. To bored workers on an assembly line, corporate executives endlessly shuffling papers in an office, or homemakers whose kids are driving them crazy, this is no small benefit. Even if people end up spending the weekend mowing the lawn or doing other mundane chores, they can look forward to next weekend, and a park to go to, if they choose.

Closely related is an even more vicarious aspect of parks and recreation areas. This is best illustrated by people living in southern California, who get excited by and involved in preserving a redwood grove or similar site in northern California. In reality, a southern Californian may never personally visit the redwood grove; however, should he or she ever decide to do so, it will be available and, hopefully, in good condition. Great satisfaction is derived from knowing this. This is yet another value of parks and recreation areas.

For many persons, outdoor recreation traditionally has been a family affair. Entire families, nuclear or extended, often have visited parks and recreation areas together as a unit. A common practice has been for parents to use these occasions to teach outdoor skills to their children, who have later passed on those skills to their children.

It has been said that the only thing that is constant in life is change. California is certainly noted for change, especially within urban areas—today an open field, tomorrow a shopping mall. Many people have difficulty in adapting smoothly to rapidly changing conditions, and experience problems in maintaining their personal identity and personal values against the flood of technological and social change. This, of course, results in additional stress and tension.

For many, parks and recreation areas, and recreation activities themselves, have been exception to change. Most parks and recreation areas have not changed much except for the seasons. Recreation activities have tended to change only in response to the refinement of equipment and technique. Most recreation activities are very basic. They have been enjoyed throughout peoples’ lifetimes. It is no accident that the most popular activities, today, are the same ones that were the most popular years ago. Recreational fads have come and gone, attracting their adherents, but traditional activities such as walking, picnicking, camping, hiking, and going to the beach have stayed current. Parks and other recreation areas have been, for many people, islands of stability in an otherwise seemingly unstable world.

Even the long-term stability of parks and recreation is, however, now subject to reevaluation. Special segments of the population—such as the elderly, households headed by single parents and those with two wage earners, the disabled, and recent immigrants, especially from Central and South America and from Asia—are growing. These segments of the population, especially the new immigrants, have needs different from the mainstream California recreationists of a decade or two ago.
As a result, many park and recreation providers are considering changing the manner in which they provide services. Many urban park and recreation agencies are also weighing altering facilities to correspond to new needs. Some park and recreation providers have already begun making changes both to their programs and their facilities. Even agencies with large land bases, such as the federal park and multiple-use agencies and the California Department of Parks and Recreation, which have traditionally provided opportunities for outdoor recreation in near-natural or even pristine settings, have begun efforts to accommodate new users. In the main, these agencies have accorded high priority to maintaining the unchanging quality of their lands (that is, to minimizing damage to the natural and cultural values of their land bases), while providing services to the new populations.

In summary, it is apparent that many Californians believe recreation to be valuable for a wide variety of reasons. This is clearly demonstrated by the amount of interest in the topic, the widespread participation in various recreation activities at different parks and recreation areas, and the amount of time and money devoted to leisure and recreation.

2. CALIFORNIA RECREATION POLICY

The purpose of the California Recreation Policy is to guide all of California’s recreation providers in meeting the recreation needs of our citizens and visitors. The State Legislature has delegated the responsibility of preparing this policy to the California State Park and Recreation Commission. The Public Resources Code (Section 540) directs that:

The Commission shall formulate, in cooperation with other state agencies, interested organizations and citizens, and shall recommend to the Director (of the Department of Parks and Recreation) for adoption by him, a comprehensive recreational policy for the State of California.

In drafting the current policy statement, reproduced below, the commission solicited comments and recommendations from interested agencies, organizations, and individuals from around the state. The commission held a series of twenty-three public meetings throughout California between January and May of 1993, and received additional input from questionnaires distributed at those meetings. The new policy has been drafted by the commission, and will be approved at an upcoming meeting. The 1994 policy will subsequently be approved by the director of the California Department of Parks and Recreation.

The scope of the California Recreation Policy is very broad. The entire recreation field is considered, so as to encompass activities both active and passive, indoor and outdoor.

The statement considers the full range of elements required to provide recreation opportunities—land, facilities, programs, and administration. This policy is directed at all current and potential suppliers of recreation opportunities: public agencies at the federal, state, and local levels; the private sector; and the quasi-public or nonprofit sector. It is hoped that all suppliers of recreation opportunities will find guidance from this policy as they work to provide for the public a wide range of high-quality recreational opportunities.
This policy recognizes the many important dimensions of outdoor recreation as it affects California. Initially, it recognizes the individual personal and broad social benefits provided by outdoor recreation activity. It takes into consideration the way in which recreation contributes to protection of valuable natural and cultural resources which are important ingredients of the recreation experience.

Finally, this policy acknowledges the economic aspects of outdoor recreation, as a generator of income and employment, and as one of the major attractions on which tourism is based. It is expected that positive and progressive ideas for recreation programs and actions of all public agencies and concerned private organizations will find their reflection and justification in this policy statement. This expectation will be tested during the five-year life of the outdoor recreation plan document. At the end of this period, the policy will be subject to review by the commission, and revision based on new and evolving circumstances.

PREAMBLE

Californians are entitled to the widest range of opportunities for diverse forms of recreation. Recreation is a human activity, an experience undertaken primarily for the satisfaction of the participant. In recreating, individuals creatively develop their innate capacities, intelligently use their energies, and enrich their lives. Recreation is a necessary human need, essential for the physical, mental, and spiritual well-being of the individual and of society. Adequate opportunities to participate in recreation activity should be provided to all Californians. In providing these recreation opportunities, full consideration should be given to the sensitivity and capacity of the environment and its resources.

The following 1994 California Recreation Policy statements indicate the opportunities, general scope, and direction for all recreation and recreation-related programs and actions which will be undertaken or funded by the state. In addition, it provides clear indication of the objectives which the state desires for federal and local agencies of government, as well as for private and non-profit sector activities in the recreation field. These seventeen policy statements are not listed in any order of priority.

POLICY STATEMENTS

1. Leadership

It is the responsibility of the State of California to provide leadership to ensure fulfillment of the people’s need for recreation opportunities. It is further the responsibility of the state, through its Department of Parks and Recreation, to encourage and stimulate active and coordinated participation of appropriate federal, state, and local agencies, as well as the private sector, in providing areas, facilities, equipment, leadership, and services to meet the recreational needs of our people.
This state government leadership will encourage the recreation suppliers to become better coordinated and integrated with other appropriate resource management and human services agencies, so as to better provide a diverse range of accessible recreation services and strengthen the linkage between people’s recreation activities and the rest of their life’s experience.

2. Opportunities

It is state policy that parks, open space lands, lake resources, reservoirs, rivers and riparian resources, seashores, and beaches will be planned to optimize the opportunities for the myriad of recreation experiences without threatening or disturbing the natural or cultural resources of the area.

3. Equity

It is state policy that recreation facilities and programs be designated, operated, and maintained to provide access to a wide range of opportunities for all segments of California’s diverse populations, and that all citizens shall have fair and equitable access to attractive recreation opportunities that serve their needs and desires. Where individuals or groups encounter social, economic, or physical barriers to obtaining recreation experiences, special effort will be made to overcome such barriers.

4. Open Space

It is state policy that an adequate supply of open natural lands and developed park and recreation areas exist throughout California, so that all people can engage in near-home activities and recreation pursuits, as well as have opportunities to visit more distant locations for extended leisure time or vacation activities. Special emphasis will be given to the protection of open space in and near heavily developed urban areas.

5. Urban Areas

It is state policy that emphasis be placed on providing parkland and developed recreation areas in and near urban areas, where most Californians live. In urban core areas with a disadvantaged population experiencing a wide range of social and economic problems, park and recreation agencies and programs shall be coordinated with other appropriate social service programs in such fields as education, health care, housing, juvenile justice, and social welfare. Full advantage will be taken of the commonalities among such agencies and their missions to provide better service to our citizens.

6. Local Responsibility

It is state policy that government entities closest to the recreation resources and particularly to the sources of recreation demand have the primary responsibility for providing needed recreation opportunities. In urban and suburban areas, such responsibilities generally fall to local government, to agencies of the state’s cities and counties, and to its special districts. The state, by means of grants and technical assistance, shall aid local government in the acquisition, development, and rehabil-
oration of local park and recreation facilities. It is the responsibility of the state to take the lead where resources or recreation demand are of greater than regional significance.

7. Efficiencies

It is state policy that the state’s own recreation facilities and programs shall be provided by the most efficient, effective, and economical means available. Where possible, recreation responsibilities at every level of government should be shared in partnership among a variety of appropriate government agencies, as well as the private and nonprofit sector, in order to find economies in budgeting, staffing, specialized expertise, and facilities.

8. Linkages

It is state policy to acquire and develop, for recreation, open space, and habitat protection purposes, trail and landscape linkages between public lands operated by different jurisdictions. These linkages or corridors provide for important trail and river recreation opportunities between otherwise urban, industrial, or agricultural areas. They are also critical in protecting ecological diversity by providing connections between larger protected habitat areas, minimizing the effects of habitat fragmentation.

9. Access

It is state policy to encourage the use of public transportation to park and recreation facilities, and to work with transportation providers to develop and improve such means of access.

10. Cooperation

It is state policy that the private sector shall be encouraged to develop and operate a wide range of recreation resources, and to provide a wide range of recreation opportunities on both private and appropriate public lands. All recreation providers, recognizing their prime importance in generating interest and attracting people, should work closely with state and local tourism groups and chambers of commerce.

11. Volunteers

It is state policy that the people of California have the opportunity to participate as volunteers in the operation of recreation facilities and the operation of recreation programs. Such volunteerism benefits the volunteers through offering them satisfying activity, and in doing, so provides the public with services that would not otherwise be available.

12. Land Acquisition

It is state policy that adequate supplies of land be acquired through a selective acquisition program sufficient to meet the future needs of the public. Such a program should emphasize lands in urban and coastal areas, as well as lands with valuable natural and cultural resources. Acquisition should
not be limited to the acquisition of fee title, but shall include--as appropriate--land trades, leasing, joint ownership, and the purchase of selected rights and easements.

13. Information

It is state policy that varied educational, informational, and outreach programs be undertaken and information distributed about recreation opportunities to all segments of the population so that access is not limited by lack of information. This includes interpretive efforts in park and recreation areas, as well as off-site efforts in such locations as government gathering sites and buildings, such as schools and libraries, as well as at commercial centers.

14. Education

It is state policy to encourage public and private educational systems within the state to provide opportunities for students to develop a wide range of leisure interests and skills. This policy shall encourage colleges and universities to maintain and improve their professional academic park and recreation leadership programs.

15. Recreation Ethic

It is the responsibility of the state and other government agencies to develop and foster an environmental ethic and a sensitivity among all Californians that will ensure the recognition that the state’s natural and cultural resources are the real wealth of our state, and thus, the basis from which our common good is derived. In this context, the concept of resource protection should extend to such broad matters as air quality, water quality, control of toxics, solid waste management, and the like. The point is to encourage people to recreate carefully and wisely with a view towards the needs of future generations of recreationists who will also want quality opportunities.

16. Natural and Cultural Resources

It is state policy that parklands and recreation areas, whether public or private, be managed so that the special and important environmental, ecological, scenic, and cultural resources they contain, and which constitute a public trust, are protected and interpreted for the benefit of future generations. Special consideration shall be given to the protection of sensitive, rare, threatened, and endangered species and their habitats, and to the restoration of important habitats such as wetlands.

17. Safety

It is state policy that Californians be provided recreation facilities that are safe and secure.
3. AN OUTDOOR RECREATION CODE OF ETHICS FOR CALIFORNIANS

Californians put a high value on the outdoors. This has been consistently demonstrated in public opinion polls, the voting record on environmental initiatives, and in the amount of money spent by individuals on outdoor recreation. Well over 80 percent participate in some sort of outdoor recreation activity. Californians enjoy the outdoors, not only for its own sake, but as the setting for outdoor recreation.

Unfortunately, there are major problems in some outdoor recreation areas. Popular parks and recreation areas are often crowded. Some fishing waters are polluted or fished out. Some campgrounds are often full--and too noisy--on weekends. The twin blights of litter and vandalism are all too common. Some urban parks are unsafe, and people report occasionally having been concerned for their personal safety in parks. The outdoor environment can be despoiled by the collective actions of careless individuals, thus reducing the quality of California’s magnificent outdoor recreation resources, and their benefits to other people and to society as a whole.

A major portion of the cost of managing parks and recreation areas is the clean-up, repair, and maintenance of lands and facilities damaged or degraded by recreational visitors. In these times of lean budgets, it is increasingly challenging to maintain the quality of parks and recreation areas.

An Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics, understood, accepted, and voluntarily supported by the public, could do much to temper these trends. It would set standards for individual conduct in an outdoor recreation setting. The Code of Ethics could encourage an understanding of the importance of the outdoor environment and outdoor recreation in people’s lives, and for the well-being of the community at large. It would work to ensure that a heightened environmental awareness is reflected in societal and individual behavior affecting the outdoor environment and outdoor recreation by making clear the rights and responsibilities of all involved.

The primary purpose of the Code of Ethics is to encourage enhancement and protection of outdoor recreation resources, including both natural and cultural ones, any special features, and visitor facilities, from uses that would degrade them. In doing this, it would help lower maintenance costs to recreation providers. It would help protect and sustain the recreation and tourism industry.

It would also help ensure that the recreational needs of all California residents, including those not yet born, will be met.

The people to be reached with this ethic are not the ones who already live by a positive outdoor ethic. Instead, it is necessary to reach the individual who casually throws hamburger wrappers or orange peels out of a car window; the person who uses beer bottles for target practice in places where children might play among the shards of broken glass; the person who sees nothing wrong with carving his or her initials in a picnic table or spray-painting them on a rock; the hiker who cuts corners on a switchbacked trail; the person who will cut up a picnic table or a living tree to use as firewood; the dirt bike rider who “pops a wheelie” in the middle of a campground full of people who want peace and quiet; or the camper who runs his or her portable generator late at night to power a television, when others want to sleep.
In short, it is necessary to reach those whose activities mar the experiences of others, and make the outdoor environment less attractive for recreation than it could or should be. It is also necessary to reach those who remain silent in the presence of the inappropriate or insensitive activities of others, and, by their silence, imply consent.

Strict and consistent enforcement of rules and regulations designed to protect the outdoor environment and recreation facilities certainly helps, but rangers and other law enforcement officers cannot be everywhere. The future of California’s outdoor recreation resources must ultimately rest with the individual actions of all who use them—the public at large. It is to this end that the Department of Parks and Recreation has developed a set of general guidelines for proper recreational behavior. This Code of Ethics is not arbitrary, but is based on existing laws, regulations, and other codes of ethics intended to preserve and protect the essence of why people value the outdoors enough to visit parks and recreation areas.

The following is offered as an Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for the people of the State of California:

**INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS**

1. Every person has a right to a clean, healthy, and varied outdoor environment in which to live and play.

2. Every person has the right to enjoy the benefits of the physical, mental, and spiritual well-being that come from recreation in the outdoors.

3. Every person, regardless of ability, has the right of access to public lands consistent with the protection of the underlying natural and cultural resources.

4. Every person has the right to enjoy outdoor experiences free from the insensitive actions of, and concerns of harm by, others.

**INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBILITIES**

Every person has a responsibility to behave in a manner that respects the outdoor environment in which we recreate, and the rights of others in that environment.

If we are to live and play in a manner that demonstrates that responsibility, we will all have to commit to the following principles:

1. We will protect outdoor recreation resources, including the special natural and cultural features that distinguish the places set aside for outdoor recreation and the user facilities put there for our comfort, convenience, and safety.
2. We will be careful not to damage outdoor recreation resources through carelessness, misuse, or other inappropriate actions.

3. We will show respect for the rights of other people by not engaging in activities that would detract from their outdoor recreational experiences.

4. We will learn and follow the laws and rules that govern the use of the outdoor recreation areas that we wish to use.

5. We will make our feelings on issues known to the agencies that manage the places that we use for our recreation.

Adoption and acceptance of an Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics will not instantly solve all the problems of the outdoor environment and of recreation areas. However, it will help California to sustain and improve its high-quality outdoor recreation environment by establishing what is expected of people in that environment. It will help make a clear distinction between correct and incorrect behavior. It will help people remember that citizenship consists of more than just rights; it also carries responsibilities. If the ethic helps to inspire those now creating outdoor problems to change their behavior simply because it is the right thing to do, then the purpose of this code of ethics will have been served.
CHAPTER II

Overview Of The State

This chapter of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan--1993 contains an analysis of the current state of outdoor recreation in California, and of the trends that are likely to influence the demand for outdoor recreation in the future. The chapter is divided into three sections:

- The first section discusses various trends that have a significant impact on outdoor recreation services in the state.
- The second section reviews the findings of a survey conducted in 1992 to determine the attitudes and opinions of Californians toward outdoor recreation. This section also compares Californians’ attitudes in 1992 with those expressed in a similar survey made in 1987.
- The last section of this chapter reviews the major suppliers of outdoor recreation in the state--federal, state, and local agencies and the private sector.

1. IMPORTANT FACTORS INFLUENCING PARK AND RECREATION SERVICES

When Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo discovered Alta California in 1542, little did he realize how the land and its people would change during the next 450 years. He saw wild lands reaching as far as he could see, and tall mountains rising majestically from the ocean. At that time, there were 150,000 or more Native Americans living in California. Could he have imagined that in slightly more than 450 years, this pristine land would be occupied by more than 30 million people, representing cultures and ethnic groups from around the world? Could he imagine that these people would create an economy so large that it exceeded all but the five largest national economies in the world?

California has changed radically during these last 450 years. The rate of change has been particularly great in the last decade. Who would have predicted the sudden collapse of the Soviet Union, the corresponding downsizing of the military and its supporting industrial complex, and the effect this would have on California’s economy? Who would have predicted that men and women would be hang-gliding off the coastal bluffs that Cabrillo first saw? Who would have predicted that people would be riding for fun the same raging rivers and pounding surf that the early explorers respected out of fear for their lives?

The future holds many uncertainties, but unlike Cabrillo, one can now apply the study of demographics and socioeconomic factors to make short-term projections with a degree of confidence. California’s population is extremely complex, both regionally and locally. The following trends and implications focus on those broad issues that affect outdoor recreation in California as a whole.
POPULATION GROWTH

Between 1850 and 1960, the population of California doubled every 20 years. (See Figure 1.) In 1964, California became the most populous state in the nation. The state is likely to keep this distinction for the foreseeable future since California's rate of population growth is twice that of the nation. Between July 1990 and July 1991, California's population grew from almost 30 million to 30.6 million people, an increase of more than 670,000 people. This is an amount equal to the entire population of South Dakota or Delaware. One can expect that the growth of California will continue unabated. The California Department of Finance estimates that the state will grow to 33.4 million people by 1995, and to 36.3 million people by the year 2000.

This high rate of growth is fueled by both a rising birth rate and high net in-migration. California's birth rate more than doubled since 1970, and now is higher than the national average. In 1990, one in seven babies born in the United States was born in California.

Figure 1.
Population of California (1900-2000)
Other factors that increased the state’s birth rate include the high proportion of new, young immigrants and the high birth rates among some ethnic groups. This new surge in births, starting in 1977, is creating California’s next generation, the “baby-boomlet.” The baby-boomlet may already be subsiding since the number of births apparently peaked in 1990. From July 1990 to July 1991, there were 613,000 births in California and 218,996 deaths, for a natural increase of 394,004 people.

During that same one-year period, net in-migration increased the state’s population by 275,996 people. Of these immigrants, 88 percent came from other countries, and the remaining 12 percent moved into the state from within the United States. People migrate to California primarily in search of jobs and to escape economic collapse and uncertain political situations at home. Between 1979 and 1990, 3.5 million new jobs were created in California. In 1990, one out of nine jobs in the nation was found in California.

By 1992, however, domestic migration reversed for the first time in 20 years. From July 1991 to June 1992, California posted a net loss of 13,000 people to other states. Californians were moving to other, more rural states, and fewer people were moving here from other states.

California’s population growth occurred unevenly. Between 1980 and 1990, seven counties grew faster than 25 percent; 19 counties experienced growth rates between 30 and 49.9 percent; and Amador, Calaveras, Nevada, Riverside, and San Bernardino counties all grew in excess of 50 percent. The high-growth-rate counties were primarily located in the San Joaquin and Sacramento valleys, through the foothills, and in Southern California.

Even though a county’s rate of growth is high, its absolute population growth may be relatively insignificant. Amador County grew 57.5 percent from 1980 to 1990, but its population only grew by 11,167 people. Los Angeles County, on the other hand, only grew 18.7 percent, but its population increased by 1,399,386 people. In terms of absolute growth, the fastest-growing counties were located south and east of the San Francisco Bay (including Sacramento, San Joaquin, Stanislaus, and Fresno counties) and in Southern California. Riverside, San Bernardino, Orange, and San Diego counties each grew in excess of 480,000 people.

This pattern of uneven growth will continue through the year 2000, even if the recession of the early 1990s does moderate growth rates. High growth rates will generally be found throughout the San Joaquin Valley, the foothills, and in Southern California. Calaveras, San Bernardino, and Riverside counties may grow in excess of 40 percent. The counties with the highest absolute growth will closely parallel those of the previous decade. Los Angeles County may increase by more than one million people; San Diego, by 497,000; and San Bernardino, Riverside, and Orange counties by more than 450,000 people each.

With more than three-quarters of the state’s citizens feeling that outdoor recreation is important to the quality of their lives, the demand for public and private outdoor recreation opportunities and open space will continue to grow with California’s population. As urban areas expand, the availability of open space that is suitable for outdoor recreation will decrease. Any effort to protect or increase open space will be in direct conflict with a multitude of other potential uses for that land, including the need for additional, affordable housing. Also, the demand for urban-type recreation
services will increase as rural areas are developed and former city dwellers, who are familiar with these services, move in.

As daily commute times and distances increase, Californians are less willing to drive long hours to a remote recreation site, favoring, instead, recreation closer to home. Almost 70 percent of all Californians say that more outdoor recreation areas are needed in or near large cities. Regionally oriented events that require minimal travel, such as tournaments and fairs, are growing in popularity. The demand for recreational facilities will exceed existing capacity in those areas where development of new facilities has not kept pace with population growth. These areas may provide growth opportunities for the state’s private-sector recreation providers.

Inner-city open space will become increasingly important as the rural-urban interface recedes. Local residents may become more possessive of “their” parks, forcing those they perceive as outsiders to use other areas or facilities.

THE MOSAIC SOCIETY

Twenty years ago, ethnic and racial minorities comprised about one-fifth of California’s population. Today, that figure has grown to 43 percent. Around 2000, ethnic minorities will exceed 50 percent of the population, and non-Hispanic whites will no longer constitute a majority in California. (See Figure 2.)

This population shift is being driven by the high net in-migration rate of Hispanics and Asians, and the high birth rates of these newly immigrated groups. Other contributing factors include a virtual stagnation of the net in-migration of whites from other states and a white birth rate that is below that needed for replacement.

The United States has the world’s fifth largest population of Hispanics, and more than one-third of that population lives in California. Hispanics are California’s largest ethnic minority, comprising more than 25 percent of the state’s total population. This group is also increasing in absolute numbers faster than any of the state’s other ethnic groups. Since 1980, California’s Hispanic population grew by nearly 70 percent, exceeding 7 million people today. By 2020, the state’s Hispanic population will be equal to the state’s white population.

Asians replaced African-Americans as the state’s second largest ethnic minority. Between 1980 and 1990, California’s Asian population grew by more than 125 percent, to nearly 3 million people, roughly 10 percent of the state’s total population. That proportion will slowly continue to grow. The growth in the number of Asians is directly related to the revision of immigration law in 1965. The new law placed emphasis on family reunification and job skills, and eliminated the use of quotas. Significant numbers of Southeast Asian refugees, who came to California directly or moved here from other states where they were originally settled, also contributed to the state’s growing Asian population. Asia is California’s second largest source of immigrants.
The proportion of African-Americans in the population has changed little during the last 10 years, and is not expected to change significantly during the next 10 years. African-Americans now comprise 7 percent of the general population.

**GROWING YOUNGER, GROWING OLDER**

The population of California is, for the first time in history, younger than that of the nation. The median age of the state is 31.5 years versus 33 years for the nation. That gap is expected to continue growing as the nation’s median age increases more rapidly than the state’s. This trend toward a youthful population is tied to the high birth rates and the influx of large numbers of young Hispanics and Asians. In 1970, one-quarter of California’s children were from ethnic minorities, but by 1990, that proportion increased to one-half.

Even though state’s population is relatively young, California has the largest absolute number of older people, age 60 and over, in the nation. More than 4 million people over the age of 65 will live in California by the year 2000. This segment of the population will continue to grow as California’s baby-boomers age and retire. (Figure 3 shows the age distribution in the state.)
At the beginning of the 20th century, life expectancy was 47 years. By the year 2000, life expectancy is expected to average 85 years. Nationwide, the number of people over 65 grew, and will continue to grow, faster than any other group. Between 1950 and 1988, the percentage of seniors in the total population grew from 7.7 percent to 12 percent. The proportion of ethnic minorities over the age of 60 is also increasing.

Today, only one worker in four continues working until the age of 65. Those who retire early will remain active through volunteer and family activities. Under the best of conditions, seniors today can expect to enjoy fifteen, twenty, or more years of retirement, volunteering, taking classes, traveling, enjoying fellowship, and, in a growing number of cases, returning to some form of paid employment.

Senior citizens form a significant and growing portion of California's population with diverse recreational needs. Many of their needs can be accommodated through existing recreational facilities and
programs. Large numbers of these healthy, active seniors are roaming the world, visiting both public and private parks and recreation areas during both peak and off-peak periods, shifting staffing requirements, and creating new demands for services and facilities. As seniors age, less strenuous recreational activities will become more popular. Those seniors who are limited by health or mobility problems may require special or modified programs and facilities. A strong majority of all Californians (63.8 percent) say that recreation facilities and programs for special populations, such as the elderly or people with disabilities, should be increased.

Park and recreation providers can benefit from seniors’ proclivity to volunteer. Their years of experience and talent can be tapped at little or no cost. Volunteering also meets seniors’ needs to fill potentially idle hours with productive and enjoyable work.

FAMILIES--BEYOND THE TRADITIONAL

The average California household is comprised of 2.8 people, higher than both the national average and California’s 1980 Census figure. Average family size varies by ethnic group, ranging from 4.1 people for Hispanics to 2.4 people for whites.

At present, only 27 percent of all of California’s households conform to the traditional image of a married couple with children. The traditional family is being replaced, both in California and across the nation, by single parents and other forms of non-traditional households. More than 1.1 million of California’s 7.1 million family households (or 15.5 percent) are single-parent households headed by a woman. About 1.2 million children live in these types of households, and another 347,000 children live in a single-parent household headed by a man. In 1987, 59.4 percent, 33.5 percent, and 20.1 percent of African-American, Hispanic, and white children, respectively, were in single-parent families.

Latch-key children, children who come home to empty houses because their parents are still at work, are increasing because of the increases in the numbers of single-parent and dual-income families. Unfortunately, few recreation programs now target latch-key children. A recent report by the Carnegie Corporation points out that an estimated 27 percent of eighth graders spend two or more hours alone after school. The report argues persuasively that these children, especially if they live in urban or rural poverty areas, are in need of recreation and other support programs to help them avoid becoming involved in dangerous, and even illegal, activities. Providing such support to at-risk adolescents can make a major contribution toward their growing up to be healthy, well-adjusted adults.

In addition to the increase in the number of single-parent families, more adults are living alone. Of California’s adults, 2.4 million (or 11 percent of all adults) live alone. People are also deferring marriage. On the average, men marry at 26 and women at 24, compared with 23 and 21, respectively, in 1971. One-person households have less income because there is only one wage earner.
The number of one-person households is also increasing because people are living longer, thus increasing the likelihood that they will spend some of their lives as widows or widowers. Also, older parents are less likely to live with their adult children, and more likely to live by themselves. One-quarter of people over the age of 65, or 818,000 people, live by themselves.

As California’s population ages, increasing numbers of people must care for their aging parents. Today, almost 10 percent of America’s work force has some responsibility for caring for elderly relatives. Most of the care providers are working women between the ages of 40 and 50, who belong to the so-called “sandwich generation,” simultaneously caring for children and aging family members. Many of these care providers must take less demanding jobs or leave the work force to gain the necessary time.

Limited leisure time, due to work and family commitments, further reduces the ability of many families to recreate. The amount of leisure time actually available is, however, subject to considerable dispute. Some leisure-time researchers believe that the leisure time available to American workers has eroded dramatically during the 1980s. Researchers in this “camp” hold that, in 1950, workers in the United States had fewer working hours than did workers in any other industrialized country. In the early 1990s, in contrast, American workers put in more time on the job than did workers in any other industrialized country except Japan. Between 1969 and 1989, Americans added an average of 138 hours annually to their work schedules.

The opposing “camp” is more optimistic. It holds that leisure time for men increased seven hours since 1965, and now totals 41 hours of free time per week. Women gained six hours, bringing their total to 40 hours. Most of this additional free time is spent watching television. Television alone consumes 37 percent of women’s and 39 percent of men’s free time. Because television is a passive leisure activity, most do not notice the extra leisure time available. Work and family commitments continue to consume large amounts of time, creating the perception that little leisure time is available.

In either case, available leisure time is not likely to stimulate a major increase in demand for outdoor recreation. If leisure time has actually decreased, people are forced to take fewer and shorter vacations. If leisure time has actually increased, but the increase is absorbed by passive activities such as watching television, people are also likely to take fewer and shorter vacations.

To reduce costs, many families are taking more frequent, short, close-to-home vacations, and are often staying at inexpensive campgrounds, with friends, or with relatives when traveling. Two-income families, feeling short on leisure time and unable to coordinate their schedule with their children’s schedules, are also opting for shorter, more frequent getaway trips instead of long family vacations. Weekend travel increased 28 percent since 1984. Two-thirds of all families took pleasure trips in 1991, but 73 percent of those trips lasted less than three days.

Californians are looking for quality recreation opportunities, both public and private, to fill their available leisure time. In 1992, the most popular recreational activities were simple ones that required little money or specialized skill, and generally could be enjoyed close to home. Those activities were walking, driving for pleasure, casual use of turf areas, bicycling, and beach activities.
Some Californians are skipping their vacations entirely, choosing instead inexpensive day trips to beaches or parks. In 1991, 20 percent of all Americans planned no vacations at all. People are also spending more time at home: Thirty-six percent of all Americans do not go out at all for entertainment during a typical week, an increase of 6 percent since 1980; and 50 percent feel that home-based leisure is more appealing than entertainment away from home. Staying home is cheaper than going out. Many people also consider staying home safer and more comfortable. By staying home, one can escape the chaos of the outside world while maintaining maximum control over one’s leisure time. The most popular at-home leisure activity is watching television or a movie on video cassette. The popularity of videotape rentals, home video and computer games, home shopping television shows, and takeout or home-delivered food services has soared.

SAFETY IN OUR PARKS

California’s parks can no longer be considered sanctuaries from crime and society’s problems. As visitation to the state’s outdoor public and private park and recreation areas increases along with the population, it is likely that crime will also increase in these areas. The type and amount of crime found in outdoor recreation areas is highly variable, depending on many factors that include the character of the surrounding neighborhood, the type of facility (i.e., beach, city park, golf course), and the visitor profile. The amount of crime is least in those facilities with relatively infrequent problems, where crime is not tolerated by the surrounding community. Where gangs are allowed to roam the streets, they may also roam the parks.

The occurrence of crimes in California’s park and recreation areas has not gone unnoticed. Roughly 65 percent of all Californians feel that better regulation of behavior, rules, and laws in parks and outdoor recreation areas would make their experience more comfortable and safe. To keep the issue in perspective, however, only 23.8 percent of all Californians feel that outdoor recreation areas and facilities attract undesirable people and activities.

Park and recreation providers have reacted to the threat of crime in a variety of ways, including increasing security patrols and the presence of law enforcement, improving lighting, establishing curfews or closures, removing graffiti immediately, charging fees, and prohibiting alcoholic beverages. Recently, however, some public park and recreation providers have had to reduce security and maintenance staffing levels to balance their budgets. Many local law enforcement agencies are also facing the same tight budget situation, and may be unable to provide additional service to parks and recreation areas. Decreased security patrols and reductions in the presence of law enforcement, deferred maintenance, and delays in graffiti removal may lead to future increases in vandalism and crime in the state’s parks and recreation areas.

A majority of all Californians (51.5 percent) feel that recreation areas and facilities help reduce crime and juvenile delinquency. Midnight basketball, for instance, gets youth off the streets and into the gyms during the late-night hours, when they are most at risk. More Outward Bound-type activities, such as rope courses, mountaineering, backpacking, and white-water rafting, which are exciting
and designed to develop a variety of skills, such as team building and decision making, while improving one’s self-esteem and sense of trust, will be established.

**YEAR-ROUND SCHOOLING**

Year-round schooling is not a new concept, but one that is growing very rapidly. In 1991, more than 1.2 million of California’s 5 million kindergarten through twelfth-grade students (K-12) were enrolled in year-round schools. The California Department of Education predicts 20 to 30 percent growth in the total number of year-round students during 1993 and 1994. After that, the growth rate is expected to level at around 5 percent per year. Eventually, more than 50 percent of all K-12 students may be attending school year around.

The growth of year-round schools is being driven by two factors. First, school districts must accommodate large numbers of new students, and, second, the voters have not provided adequate funding to build all the new schools they need. California’s K-12 enrollment is growing by more than 200,000 new students every year, roughly the same number of students who are enrolled in the entire State of Idaho. During the decade of the 1980s, California’s population gained 1,361,800 children, a 21 percent increase. Some of that growth can be accommodated by converting to year-round schools, which increases seat capacity by 20 percent. Most conversions occur in the state’s high growth areas, where there is an abundance of new students.

In year-round schools, students and teachers still receive three months off every year. Those three months are, however, spread throughout the year in one-month blocks. One of those blocks occurs during the traditional summer-vacation period. In single-track, year-round schools, the whole school takes vacation at the same time. In four-track schools, 25 percent of the student body and teachers are on vacation at any time. Since children are a major component of California’s recreational demand, any change that alters school schedules will simultaneously alter the timing and even the location of children’s recreational demands. This may benefit the state’s public and private recreation providers by shifting some demand to off-peak periods.

Despite its utility, year-round schooling remains unpopular, and the public’s commitment to it is weak. The Los Angeles Unified School District went to district-wide year-round schooling on one- and four-track schedules in 1991. (Seriously overcrowded schools had already been on a four-track schedule for several years.) In June 1993, the district allowed all one-track schools the choice of remaining in the year-round program or of returning to conventional scheduling. Only one of the one-track schools chose to remain in the year-round program.

While families with children in year-round schools can still take traditional, two-week or longer vacations in both tracking systems, many families find their choices limited by having only a one-month block available to them in the summer. In response, some families have chosen to take more shorter vacations instead of a single, extended vacation, contributing to the trend, noted above, in the section on Families--Beyond the Traditional.
Those families to whom the traditional summer vacation is unimportant actually gain more flexibility to schedule extended vacations, since one-month vacation blocks also occur during the other seasons. This flexibility should especially benefit two-income families who have difficulty scheduling time off together during the summer. The ability for some families to schedule vacations may be unfavorably affected, nevertheless, if they have several children attending year-round schools, but following different tracks.

Vacationing outside the peak summer season has many benefits. It allows families to avoid some peak-season crowding, benefit from lower rates at many commercial establishments, and enjoy activities such as viewing fall colors or skiing in the winter. Off-peak-season vacations, however, do have some drawbacks. Outside the summer season, many campgrounds and other park and recreation facilities are open on limited schedules, or are closed altogether. Many programs, especially interpretive ones, are unavailable to families on off-peak vacations, since they are only offered during the summer season.

Park and recreation agencies have also experienced some difficulties at least partially attributable to year-round schools. When school vacations are limited to a month, agencies have less flexibility in hiring seasonal employees, who have often been recruited from the ranks of teachers. The trend to shorter and off-season vacations, furthermore, adds to the stress on the budgets and staffs of agencies traditionally organized to provide the most service to vacationers during the peak summer season.

At the local level, year-round schools will reduce the availability of school facilities, such as playgrounds, ball fields, and basketball courts, for non-school, recreational use. At one-track schools, these facilities would only be available for recreational use for one month during the summer, on weekends, and during late afternoons and evenings. Four-track schools will be in session every month, and facilities will be available only during later afternoons, evenings, and on weekends. Additionally, since four-track schools are in session at all times, the 25 percent of the student body who are on vacation at any one time cannot use school facilities for casual recreation during school hours. They will have to rely on other nearby, non-school recreational facilities.

CALIFORNIA’S CONTINUING WATER SHORTAGE

In 1987, California entered a period of below-normal precipitation and snowpack which continued through the 1992 water year. In 1991, the state had its driest year since 1977, with only 76 percent of normal precipitation and 43 percent of normal water runoff. The 1993 water year finally saw the end of the drought.

The six-year drought affected public and private recreation throughout the state. Reservoirs and other recreation facilities were closed, or use of them was limited because of low water levels and high fire danger. Visitation and revenues were down at reservoirs and some other recreation facilities due to low water or restricted water usage. Landscape irrigation was reduced to conserve water.
Operating expenses increased significantly in some cases as a result of the need for new or deeper wells, temporary pipelines, and, in the most severe cases, trucking of water. Other costs resulted from installation of water conservation equipment and construction of boat ramp extensions to reach lower water levels.

Even though the drought has ended, water shortages may not disappear. The demand for California’s limited water supply will continue to grow with the population. Ultimately, future growth may be limited due to the finite amount of water available.

The drought provided a warning of problems to come. The state’s recreation providers and recreationists, alike, will probably have to adjust to the ever-increasing demand for and cost of water. Wildlife habitat may be degraded (or actually lost), and the well-being of species dependent on the habitat may be negatively affected. Recreation programs, facility maintenance, and operations may have to change to meet future water conservation measures. In the near future, low reservoir levels, deteriorating water quality issues, and water conservation may become long-term visitor inconveniences.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

As a result of the reduced tax revenues, public-sector park and recreation suppliers were thrown into stronger competition with police, welfare, education, libraries, and other services. Because parks and recreation programs fall into the discretionary budgets of both the state and of local governments, funding for them has been at risk. In park and recreation agencies, maintenance, rehabilitation, capital outlay, and programming all had to compete for remaining funds. Levels of service were reduced at many facilities, and in some instances, programs were eliminated when budgets could not be met.

As budgets became tight, support from some special-interest groups and organizations has been lost or reduced as they actively began to compete for funding for their specific projects. Other groups that had user-specific fees and equipment taxes levied on them became more vocal and politically influential. Their purpose was to ensure that the fees and taxes they paid were used to support their activities. Property rights groups and developers continued their attacks on park impact fees, open space designations, general plans, subdivision land dedication requirements, park acquisition, access, and private property rights issues. All of these groups will continue to grow more vocal and aggressive as long as parks and recreation funding is tight and land becomes more scarce and valuable.

To meet their budgets, public agency recreation providers have considered or actually used alternative fund-raising and efficiency strategies. Some of those strategies include:

- Use of special assessment districts such as benefit assessment districts, landscape and lighting assessment districts, Mello-Roos assessment districts, community rehabilitation districts, and facilities benefit assessment districts
• Quimby Act funds
• Municipal lease/purchase financing
• Sale of taxable municipal bonds, general obligation bonds, and limited obligation bonds
• Privatization, using concessionaires, contracting out, and public-private partnerships
• School district-recreation agency cooperation
• Non-profit foundations and increased use of volunteers
• Sale of outstanding community development block grant loans
• Various taxes including parcel taxes, business license taxes, payroll taxes, admissions taxes, and utility taxes
• Charging for formerly free services, or increasing existing fees to raise revenue and/or limit use
• Reservation or permit systems to limit use
• Merger of local agencies into a single regional park and recreation agency
• Information exchange, program, and facility coordination among regional park and recreation agencies, including the private sector

Even with wide use of these alternative to the use of general funds, public-sector recreation providers will probably face severe fiscal constraints into the next century. Opposition, in the form of lawsuits and recall elections, has been mounted to protest special assessment districts. Taxpayer resistance to substantial increases in taxes, especially general taxes, or user fees remains strong. Only 36.1 percent of all Californians support even modestly increasing recreational use fees. Californians, however, do broadly support increases in the so-called “sin taxes” to help finance parks and recreation (a tax on tobacco is supported by 67 percent of Californians; a tax on alcoholic beverages, by 65 percent; and allocation of a portion of the state lottery, by 60 percent).

Californians, by a margin of 52 percent to 37 percent, oppose changing the two-thirds majority requirement for approval of city and county public works bonds. Park and recreation bond measures must compete against a wide variety of other bond funding measures, including schools, jails, mass transit, roads, sewers, and water. A statewide bond initiative was put on the June 1988 ballot by a coalition of community activists, environmentalists, historic preservationists, and park and recreation professionals. The initiative passed, providing the state’s park and recreation agencies, open space districts, farmland preservation organizations, and historic preservation groups with $776 million.
It is, however, impossible to rely entirely on the initiative process to fund parks and recreation areas. In the November 1990 general election, 15 of 28 measures on the ballot were initiatives. No bond initiative on that ballot passed, and virtually all other measures involving money—including a park bond measure placed on the ballot by the Legislature—also failed. In the current economy, furthermore, few bond measures—legislative or initiative—can be expected to win voter approval.

APPLIED TECHNOLOGY, NEW RECREATIONAL DIRECTIONS

It was inevitable at some point that society’s penchant for high technology would begin to have some effect on recreation. Today, examples of high technology can be found in a variety of recreational activities that range from newly developed sports that are based solely on high-tech advances, to more traditional activities, such as backpacking and cross-country skiing. The private sector has been instrumental in researching, developing, and marketing these high-tech advances.

Introduction of exotic alloys and space-age composites into sports equipment has allowed development of lightweight, durable, and weather-resistant sports and recreation equipment, such as fishing rods, tennis racquets, and golf clubs. Recreational winter clothing, using synthetic materials, is now warmer, more durable, of lower bulk, and allows new freedom of movement. Semi-permeable fabrics keep out rain, while still allowing perspiration to evaporate. Applied research has led to improvements in the design of fishing lures, surfboards, and high-performance slalom skis.

Integration of electronics in sports and outdoor recreation equipment is becoming common. Electronic depth finders, which are becoming a common feature on many fishing boats, are both making it easier to find fish and increasing navigational safety. Backpackers carry electronic pedometers that measure not only distance, but calculate speed and total calories burned. Promising technologies include night vision equipment for wildlife viewing and game playing after dark, and satellite positioning and emergency communications capabilities for backpackers and others in remote areas.

Lightweight, powerful engines transport recreationists over land, water, snow, and through the air. Off-highway vehicle use has increased even though off-highway vehicle sales have been reduced by the recession. Because most of the state’s off-highway vehicle parks are located within a short distance of major metropolitan areas, they are helping to meet Californians’ needs for shorter, closer-to-home vacations.

A whole new category of adventure-based sports and recreational activities was created using technological advances. They include hang gliding, free-style skiing, white-water sports, snow boarding, and bungee jumping. Less adventurous sports and activities have also evolved. These include splat or paint ball, rollerblading, personal watercraft use, mountain biking, and bicycle racing.
Some forms of outdoor recreation are moving indoors. These artificial environments, such as wave pools, skiing surfaces, rock climbing walls, and rope courses, allow the user to reduce travel time and costs, while experiencing close to the real thing.

Improvements in home entertainment and electronics will continue to entice people to spend more leisure time at home. Video and computer games are becoming increasingly sophisticated, and are proliferating. Compact Disk-TV (or CD-TV) is now available; it blends elements of computers, television, and stereo, and is capable of serving up vast amounts of text, images, and high-fidelity sound. Advances in computerized artificial reality offer the possibility that, some day, Californians will play—and, perhaps, even work—in electronic fantasy worlds, transforming entertainment and, possibly, education and other fields.

It must be noted that California's recreationists and the various types of recreation in which they participate are not homogeneous. Many of these forms of recreation, if not properly managed, can create conflicts between users. Most notable are conflicts between noisy and quiet forms of recreation, such as off-highway vehicle use and hiking. The potential for conflict may increase as new forms of mechanized recreation are introduced and more people become users.

Advances in ceramics, composites, polycarbonates, alloys, and electronics are likely to continue to improve the comfort, safety, and durability of recreational and sports equipment. Technological advances will probably also create—or advance—novel forms of outdoor recreation. Always in the past, however, the potential of new technologies has failed to win Californians away from the simple, old recreational favorites. Hang gliding, free-style skiing, snow boarding, bungee jumping, splat balling, rollerblading, and other novelties can be expected to attract some devotees.

Experience with past outdoor recreational novelties suggests, however, that they will only attract a limited number of adherents, and may well be replaced, in turn, by even newer innovations. Experience also indicates that basic outdoor activities will continue to occupy most of recreationists’ time and interests. Walking, hiking, camping, beach play, turf play, and nature study can be expected to retain their popularity among Californians—and others—for the foreseeable future.

TOURISM

California has one of the world’s largest tourism economies. In 1990, travel and tourism directly contributed $52.7 billion to the state’s economy, and supported 750,000 jobs throughout the industry. Travel spending more than doubled during the 1980s.

Even though international tourism is of increasing importance, intrastate travel accounted for 80.8 percent of all leisure travel in California in 1991. That same year, domestic interstate travel accounted for 16.5 percent of all leisure travel, or 32 million travelers. The same trends that affect recreation affect tourism: shorter, more frequent, more affordable escapes are replacing the traditional two-week vacation.
The next few years will be difficult for the state’s public and private recreational providers. California is growing and changing so rapidly that it is difficult to understand, much less react to, the changes. For recreation to be meaningful in the year 2000, innovative programs that address the needs of California’s changing citizenry must be implemented in an efficient manner, and they must also provide the quality service that most Californians have grown to expect. The task is daunting.

2. RECREATION USE PATTERNS AND ACTIVITY PREFERENCES

Early in 1992, 2,024 Californians, selected to provide a statistically valid, random sample of the state’s population, were surveyed to determine their attitudes and opinions on the value and management of the outdoor recreation land and facilities located in the state. The survey also determined how much of which kind of outdoor recreation activities the respondents had engaged in during the previous year. The activity portion of the survey examined outdoor recreation as a whole, without regard to what public agency or private entrepreneur provided the land and facilities.

The survey’s conclusions provide a good point-in-time view of the outdoor recreation situation as it exists in California today. In addition, comparison of this current information with that from a similar survey taken in 1987 shows interesting, if sometimes disconcerting, trends.

The first conclusion of the 1992 survey was that more than three-quarters of all Californians felt that outdoor recreation was important or very important to the quality of their lives. Being so important, they did a lot of it, engaging in an estimated 2.27 billion household participation days during the previous year. This is a far greater level of participation than was shown in the 1987 survey.

Today’s Californians say that they have a strong preference for using undeveloped areas and nature-oriented parks. Nevertheless, it was the highly developed parks and recreation areas that they used most often, demonstrating a substantial difference between what the recreationists say they want to do, and what they actually do. Similarly, survey respondents indicated an interest in historic or cultural buildings, sites, and areas that was not matched by their actual use of them.

As had been the case in 1987, the most popular activities in 1992 were simple ones, requiring little money or specialized skill. The intensely popular activities were few in number, with two-thirds of all participation days involving only five different activities: walking, driving for pleasure, casual use of turf areas, bicycling, and beach activities. The first four are so common that they can be undertaken in any community.

The survey went beyond asking what activities people engaged in today to determine the public’s support for additional public park and recreation facilities. Again, the preference was for basic and traditional facilities, those which supported walking, hiking, camping, beach play, turf play, fishing, and nature study. Demand was much smaller for facilities for highly organized sports, or for specialized and unusual activities.
Slightly less than one-half of the 1992 respondents were satisfied or very satisfied with existing outdoor recreation areas and facilities. This level of satisfaction was lower than that shown in the 1987 survey.

The survey respondents revealed some specific negative factors regarding their outdoor recreation experiences. More than two-thirds found that outdoor recreation areas and facilities were often too crowded. Similarly, two-thirds wanted stronger enforcement of laws and regulations dealing with public use and behavior in these areas. Although both figures were larger in the 1987 survey, the current figure of two-thirds is still impressive.

Many of the public’s attitudes toward outdoor recreation land and facilities are very positive and strongly pro-environment. In both surveys, the same huge share of respondents (94 percent) thought that environmental protection was an important component of outdoor recreation. In both surveys, 70 percent of the respondents said that more outdoor recreation areas and facilities were needed in and near large cities.

Comparing the two surveys, a decreasing, but still very large, percentage of the respondents felt that higher levels of government should give financial assistance to lower levels to help pay for their outdoor recreation areas and facilities. In the 1992 survey, 83 percent of the respondents felt that the federal government should provide such assistance to state and local agencies, and 86 percent believed that state funds should be used to help local agencies.

Almost three-quarters of the respondents thought that outdoor recreation areas and facilities helped the local economy. At the same time, however, only slightly more than one-half of those surveyed felt that outdoor recreation areas and facilities should be used to promote tourism. Just five years earlier, 70 percent had supported using parks to promote tourism.

Regarding social benefits that might be derived from parks and outdoor recreation, the new survey showed that a decreasing number of people--down to about one-half in 1992--thought recreation was useful in reducing crime or juvenile delinquency. Additionally, there was strong support (64 percent) for increasing facilities and programs for special populations such as the elderly, the very poor, and the disabled, but the level of support is lower than it was in 1987.

Many people want improvements in their parks and outdoor recreation facilities, but are not willing to increase the level of their general taxation in order to pay for them. Less than one-half of the respondents were willing to dedicate a small portion (not an increase) of the existing sales tax. Little more than a third of the respondents were willing to increase user fees by up to 20 percent. In the 1987 survey, so few were willing to accept an increase in the income tax that the question was not asked again in 1992.

The only acceptable ways to raise needed money were a voluntary income tax check-off benefiting park and recreation agencies, using a portion of the existing state lottery proceeds, and an increase in so-called “sin taxes.” An increased tax on tobacco was supported by 67 percent of the
respondents, while 65 percent supported an increase in the alcoholic beverage tax. In short, the public may want more and better areas and facilities, but it is clearly unwilling to pay for them directly, and less willing today than it was in 1987.

When considering the allocation of today's tightening park agency budgets, the majority of the respondents wanted any funding increases, perhaps made possible through a reallocation of current funding, to be used for resource management (the most popular function), facility rehabilitation, and basic maintenance. Substantially fewer wanted any additional money to be spent on increases in land acquisition, educational programs, or (the least popular function) construction of new facilities. The respondents seem to be asking that the limited budget be spent on taking care of existing park and recreation resources.

Going beyond agency functions, the survey respondents also had views on which outdoor recreation activities should receive more support through provision of more government facilities. The responses clearly showed that the public wants government to provide more opportunities for inexpensive, casual activities that require few skills but a large land base, such as walking, beach activities, and camping. In contrast, respondents did not approve of increased government support for expensive, specialized, highly skilled, or highly organized activities such as skiing, kayaking, and team sports. Some of the latter activities have well organized support from their participants and fans, but that is not matched by much support from the general public.

In these hard economic times, many public agencies are contracting with the private sector to undertake some of their visitor service and operational functions. The 1992 survey showed the majority of the public supported all but the most extreme level of privatizing public park and recreation functions. Privatization of refreshment sales, special events, and maintenance were approved by at least two-thirds of the respondents.

Nearly one-half of the respondents would be willing to privatize law enforcement, and nearly 60 percent would privatize educational activities. Only about a quarter wanted private contractors to be responsible for total operation and management of parks and recreation areas. Privatization of these three functions received less public support in 1992 than it did in 1987.

The following eleven tables provide additional information, as well as the statistical basis for the findings described above.

Table 1 shows the high level of importance that outdoor recreation plays in the lives of Californians. Three-quarters of the survey respondents say it is important or very important, 10 percent more than said so in 1987. At the same time, a small but increasing number of people felt outdoor recreation was not important. There was a large reduction in the number of people who had no views on the subject.

If outdoor recreation is important to Californians, what sort of areas and activities are they looking for? Table 2 shows that by far the strongest public preference is for activities in natural and less developed areas. However, when the respondents say what kind of areas they actually used,
the heavy use took place in areas that were more developed, and especially in highly developed areas. Similarly, the level of preference expressed for visiting historic areas was not matched by the numbers of heavy users. Only private recreation areas were preferred and heavily used by about the same share of survey respondents—about 10 percent.

Table 1
IMPORTANCE OF OUTDOOR RECREATION TO THE QUALITY OF LIFE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percent Responded 1992</th>
<th>Percent Responded 1987</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Important and very important</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unimportant and not at all important</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
TYPES OF OUTDOOR RECREATION AREAS:
Preferred Use vs. Actual Heavy Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Areas</th>
<th>Preferred Use (%)</th>
<th>Actual Heavy Use* (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural and undeveloped areas</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature-oriented parks and recreation areas</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly developed parks and recreation areas</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private, not public, outdoor recreation areas, facilities</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical or cultural buildings, sites, or areas</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Use of an area at least once a week
Table 3 shows 42 outdoor recreation activities in which Californians participated during 1991, and how much time they spent on those activities. The total of 2.27 billion participation days (column C) was more than twice the figure for 1987. The most popular activities are obvious. Two-thirds of all activity days were spent on only five different activities: walking, driving for pleasure, playing on turf, bicycling, and enjoying beach activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Col. A</th>
<th>Col. B</th>
<th>Col. C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>118.0</td>
<td>948.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting museums, historic sites</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>56.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beach activities, including sunning, games</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>105.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driving for pleasure</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>217.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using open grass or turf areas for casual activity</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>137.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting zoos &amp; arboreums</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picnicking in developed sites</td>
<td>63.9</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>69.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General nature study, wildlife viewing</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trail hiking</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camping in developed sites</td>
<td>53.9</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming in lakes, rivers, ocean (not pools)</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>55.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor concerts, theater</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming in outdoor pools</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycling on paved surfaces</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>110.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing, freshwater</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using tot-lots, play equipment</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing baseball</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogging and running</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>55.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primitive camping, backpacking</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing, saltwater</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snow-play, sledding, ice skating</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Col. A</td>
<td>Col. B</td>
<td>Col. C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided walks and tours</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing basketball</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downhill (alpine) skiing</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power boating</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golfing</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-wheel driving off-pavement</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kayaking, rowing, canoeing, rafting</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horseback riding</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing tennis</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain climbing</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target shooting</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain biking</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water skiing</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing football</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunting</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing soccer</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driving motorcycles, ATVs, dune buggy off-highway</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-country skiing</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sailboating and windsurfing</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surfing</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowmobiling</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,273.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the popularity of an activity is measured not in terms of the total activity days that people spend on it, but, instead, in terms of the percent of the population that participates in the activity (column A), there is little difference in the conclusion as to which activities are the most popular.
Of the top ten activities measured using each of the two approaches, eight will be found on both lists. Examination of Table 3 shows good examples of four different people/intensity patterns. There are activities in which a large percentage of the public participates, and does so frequently (such as walking and bicycling). There are those activities in which many people participate, but do so infrequently (such as visiting museums and zoos). There are activities in which a relatively small percentage of the population participates, but does so quite often (such as jogging and surfing). Finally, there are those activities in which only a few people participate, and do so only infrequently (such as cross-country skiing and water skiing).

The list for the 1992 survey differs slightly from the comparable list used in the 1987 survey. The 1987 list included only 38 activities. Two activities on the earlier list were split into separate activities: trail hiking and mountain climbing, and visiting museums and zoos. Three activities were added: participating in organized walks, mountain biking, and snowmobiling. One activity was dropped: attending sporting events.

Table 4 shows public support for additional public park and recreational facilities. To measure public support, respondents were asked to rank the 42 activities in Table 3 in response to two questions:

1. What activities would you do for the first time or would you do more of, if more facilities were available?

2. What activities do you think it is the government’s responsibility to provide facilities for?

The respondents’ rankings were processed to produce numerical results. As shown in Table 4, the rankings ranged from a high of 32.35 for camping in developed camp sites to a low of .06 for sailboating. These numbers do not have any absolute meaning. They only indicate the relative demand for each activity. In other words, the 12 activities supported at the high level received strong support from many respondents, while the 22 activities supported at the low level received an appreciably lower level of support from significantly smaller numbers of respondents.

The information in Table 4 is a key component of the Open Project Selection Process (OPSP), which is used to administer the distribution of federal Land and Water Conservation Fund money. The results show that facilities are wanted for traditional, basic activities: camping (both in developed sites and in primitive ones), hiking, nature study, visiting museums, walking, picnicking, turf play, and the like. Very little support is given to providing additional public funding for more specialized, highly skilled activities, or for facilities supporting organized sports. (The OPSP is described in Appendix 4.)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>1992 Survey Data</th>
<th>1992 Survey Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. High-Level Support (12)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Camping, developed</td>
<td>32.35</td>
<td>19. Hunting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Trail hiking</td>
<td>18.29</td>
<td>19. Golfing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Walking</td>
<td>13.34</td>
<td>23. Mountain climbing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Camping, primitive</td>
<td>12.78</td>
<td>24. Target shooting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Picnicking</td>
<td>12.50</td>
<td>25. Jogging, running</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Turf play</td>
<td>11.33</td>
<td>26. Playing baseball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Using play areas</td>
<td>10.55</td>
<td>28. Pleasure driving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Fishing, freshwater</td>
<td>10.37</td>
<td>29. 4-wheel driving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Visiting zoos, etc.</td>
<td>10.34 (H)</td>
<td>30. Powerboating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Medium-Level Support (6)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Low-Level Support (22)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Swimming, not in pools</td>
<td>7.57</td>
<td>37. Alpine skiing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Horseback riding</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>38. Playing soccer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Swimming, in pools</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>39. Surfing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Organized walks</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>40. Playing football</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Snowmobiling</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>41. Snowmobiling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Sailboating</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: H = high  M = medium  L = low  (M) or (H) - split in 1992 survey — not in 1987 survey
Table 5 indicates that about one-third of respondents believe that outdoor recreation areas and facilities are in worse condition today than they were five years before. This is a much bigger fraction of the population than made this judgement in the previous survey. Those who think that the situation has gotten better is a somewhat smaller number, and has shrunk since 1987.

Table 6 shows that just under one-half of the respondents were satisfied or very satisfied with existing public outdoor recreation areas and facilities, a figure 21 percent smaller than that in the 1987 survey. While the number of those dissatisfied was only a third of those satisfied, the ranks of the dissatisfied are on the increase.

Table 7 shows the survey respondents’ views on a number of issues regarding outdoor recreation land and facilities. A very high percentage, little changed since 1987, believe that to protect the environment is an important aspect of outdoor recreation areas. More than four-fifths believe that the state and federal government should continue to provide financial aid to local governments for park and recreation purposes. More than half of the respondents felt that outdoor recreation areas and facilities are conveniently available. While there is a strong and growing belief that recreation areas can create jobs and help the local economy, a much smaller number of people want to use these areas and facilities to promote tourism.

A substantial, but decreasing, fraction of the population is willing to increase recreation areas and programs for the poor, the elderly, and the disabled. There is a reduction in the belief that outdoor recreation areas and programs help to reduce crime or juvenile delinquency. Two-thirds of the respondents complained about overcrowding at recreation areas.

Table 8 shows the strong desire of Californians for more opportunities to engage in a number of outdoor recreation activities and opportunities. More local parks, more open space, more trails, more wilderness areas, more campgrounds (especially simple ones), and more educational park programs are all in high demand. (Table 6 showed the strong desire for more outdoor recreation areas and facilities in or near large cities.) Only 37 percent wanted more areas for off-highway vehicle recreation (still a substantial increase over the figure from 1987), and only 14 percent wanted higher levels of intensive commercial development in public parks and recreation areas.

Tables 5 and 6 showed general dissatisfaction with current public outdoor recreation areas and facilities, while Table 8 indicated that those surveyed expressed a strong desire for more land, facilities, and services. Table 9 shows, at least indirectly, a definite lack of public willingness to pay for the desired improvements to and expansions of their park and recreation opportunities.

Less than one-half of the respondents were willing to dedicate a portion of the existing sales tax (no increase suggested) to parks, and the idea of increasing user fees by up to 20 percent was supported by only slightly more than one-third of the respondents. Only new money presumably received from people other than themselves was acceptable to a majority. A voluntary income tax check-off, a share of the state lottery, and two types of sin taxes, those on alcoholic beverages and tobacco products, received strong support.
Table 5
QUALITY OF OUTDOOR RECREATION FACILITIES TODAY COMPARED WITH FIVE YEARS AGO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinion</th>
<th>Percent Response 1992</th>
<th>Percent Response 1987</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Facilities are better</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities are the same</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities are worse</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not here five years ago</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6
SATISFACTION WITH EXISTING PUBLIC OUTDOOR RECREATION AREAS AND FACILITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinion</th>
<th>Percent Response 1992</th>
<th>Percent Response 1987</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied or Very Satisfied</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfied or Not At All Satisfied</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion/Attitude</td>
<td>Percent Moderately and Strongly Agree-1992</td>
<td>Percent Moderately and Strongly Agree-1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection of the natural environment is an important aspect of outdoor recreation areas</td>
<td>94.4</td>
<td>94.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The state government should continue to give financial aid to local governments for outdoor recreation</td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The federal government should continue to give financial aid to local and state government for parks and outdoor recreation areas</td>
<td>82.7</td>
<td>88.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor recreation areas and facilities can create jobs and spending in the community, helping its economy</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>59.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More outdoor recreation areas and facilities are needed in or near large cities</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>68.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor recreation areas and facilities in California are often too crowded when I want to use them</td>
<td>69.3</td>
<td>74.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation facilities and programs for special populations such as the elderly, the very poor, or disabled people should be increased</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are enough outdoor recreation areas and facilities available that are convenient to me</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor recreation areas and facilities should be used to promote tourism</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor recreation areas and programs help to reduce crime and juvenile delinquency in my community</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of more simple campgrounds with picnic tables, cold water, and restrooms</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>65.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing more horseback riding, hiking, and/or mountain biking trails where no motorized vehicles are allowed</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>80.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing more local community parks</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An increase in the number of wilderness-type areas where no vehicles or developments are allowed</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>66.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing stronger enforcement of laws and regulations which deal with public use and behavior in parks and recreation areas</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>81.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing more open space in urban areas</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>77.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing more educational programs and services in park and outdoor recreation areas</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>73.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of more intensely developed campgrounds with hot showers, including some campsites (for which there is an extra fee) with hookups for electricity and water</td>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing more areas for legal use of off-road vehicles such as motorcycles, dune buggies, 4-wheel-drive vehicles, and all-terrain vehicles</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing more commercial hotels, motels, restaurants, shops, and gas stations in public park and outdoor recreation areas</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9
ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS CONCERNING THE FUNDING OF PARK AND RECREATION FACILITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Funding Source</th>
<th>Percent Moderately and Strongly Supporting 1992</th>
<th>Percent Moderately and Strongly Supporting 1987</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increasing the tax on tobacco products</td>
<td>67.1</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing the tax on alcoholic beverages</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>65.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using money from the state lottery</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>47.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a state and/or federal income tax checkoff for park and recreation purposes</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedicating a portion of the existing sales tax</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a state and/or federal tax on the extraction of natural resources such as oil, gravel, and timber</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a modest (no more than 20 percent) increase in user fees at parks and outdoor recreation areas</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>50.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows what respondents want to do with existing park agency budgets in times of fiscal austerity. The responses show an emphasis on good management of what is already at hand, protecting the natural resource base, and maintaining the existing facilities. Acquisition of new land has a relative low priority, and construction of new facilities has the lowest priority of all.

Table 11 shows the degree to which the public believes that various aspects of operation and management of park and recreation areas and facilities might be turned over to the private sector. There is broad support for this sort of privatization, not just in the usual food sales and sponsorship of special events, but even in maintenance and interpretive efforts. Almost one-half would agree to privatize law enforcement, but less than a quarter would want a private entrepreneur to undertake management of all aspects of park operations.
Table 10
OPINIONS ON CHANGING THE EMPHISIS
IN PARK AND RECREATION AGENCY BUDGETS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Protection and management of the area's natural and cultural resources</td>
<td>60.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>- 15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rehabilitating and modernizing existing facilities</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic maintenance of existing facilities (painting, small repairs, etc.)</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>- 3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquiring additional land for recreational purposes</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>+ 0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing educational and activity programs for visitors</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>- 3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building new facilities</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>- 1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11
ATTITUDES TOWARD PRIVATIZATION OF PARK AND RECREATION FUNCTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Percent Approving 1992</th>
<th>Percent Approving 1987</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sale of ready-to-eat food and beverages</td>
<td>75.1</td>
<td>69.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsorship of contests, races, and special events</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>71.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of facilities and grounds</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing guided nature walks, educational activities</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patrol and law enforcement duties</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total operation and management of the park or recreation area</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41
3. OVERVIEW OF KEY OUTDOOR RECREATION SUPPLIERS

This plan focuses primarily on recreational opportunities provided by the federal, state, or local governments. For completeness, the plan also discusses, briefly, those opportunities provided through commercial and non-profit organizations. The plan does not address recreational opportunities that are provided for private individuals or groups, to the exclusion of others, on their own lands and facilities.

In California, the federal government is a major supplier of outdoor recreational opportunities on lands under its jurisdiction. It also provides grant money to the state for recreational developments at both state and local levels.

The following descriptions provide basic information about the state’s major outdoor recreation providers, the scope of their activities, and the issues they face in accomplishing their tasks in the future.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Federal Funding for Recreation

The best-known source of federal money for outdoor recreation is the Land and Water Conservation Fund. This fund was established in 1965 to provide funding to federal agencies for land acquisition, and to state governments for acquisition and development of public outdoor recreation areas and facilities at the state and local levels. Grants to state and local governments are made on a 50-50 matching formula. The LWCF, authorized to receive as much as $900 million annually, draws its revenue primarily from offshore oil and gas royalties.

Nationwide, since its inception, the LWCF has funded more than 32,000 state and local recreation projects with a total investment of about $6 billion ($3 billion in federal funds matched by state and local money). In California to date, the LWCF has funded 334 state-level projects with a total value of slightly more than $100 million, and 944 local-level projects with a total value of nearly $130 million.

In recent years, however, appropriations from the fund for the states have declined sharply, and appropriations for federal agencies have increased. Figure 4 shows how much money the state and local governments in California have received from the Land and Water Conservation Fund from 1964 through 1992.

In 1991, Congress enacted the Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act (ISTEA). ISTEA includes the National Recreational Trails Act (NRTA), which supports development of trails. NRTA provides up to $30 million per year from federal fuel tax to be distributed to states for trail projects. For fiscal year 1992, Congress appropriated only $7.5 million. Of this amount, California
received only $293,000. In California, state and local agencies and non-profit groups are eligible to receive grants. Seven grants have been made, five for non-motorized projects, and two for motorized ones. Future funding is subject to appropriation by Congress.

In addition to NRTA, ISTEA includes several other programs, which may benefit trails development. These include the Transportation Enhancement Activities Program, which funds bicycle and pedestrian transportation trails, scenic byways, and congestion management and air-quality improvement. Total funding for these programs greatly exceeds the amounts available from NRTA. For example, for the first round of Transportation Enhancement Activities funding in California, which covers approximately two years, of the $65 million available for all purposes, $30 million was allocated to bicycle and pedestrian facilities and to acquisition of rail corridors for bicycle and pedestrian trails. While these funding sources are for transportation use, many trails that also have recreational value can qualify for funding. These programs are funded for the duration of ISTA and are not subject to yearly appropriation by Congress. State, federal, and local government agencies can apply for funds.

**Overview of Federal Recreation Lands**

The federal government currently owns 46.4 percent of all land in California. Because almost 94 percent of federal land (or more than 43 million acres) is managed by agencies with legally
mandated outdoor recreation responsibilities, the federal government is a major provider of outdoor recreation opportunities in the state. Since most of this land is undeveloped and is often located in mountain or desert areas far from major cities, these federal lands primarily support types of outdoor recreation that focus on natural features, or that require a very large natural land base. The federal government also provides facilities and services to accommodate a wide variety of outdoor recreational pursuits, including boating, fishing, history study, picnicking, sightseeing, hunting, skiing, and off-highway vehicle use.

Table 12 summarizes the California landholdings of the six major federal outdoor recreation suppliers. Additional information on each is presented below. This information is included to help give the reader a complete picture of outdoor recreation in California.

U. S. Forest Service

The U.S. Forest Service manages 22 national forests located entirely or partially in California. California’s national forests contain 20 million acres, or one-fifth of the state’s land area. National forests are managed on a multiple-use, sustained-yield basis for production of forage, wildlife, wood, fish, water, and outdoor recreation. Wilderness management, as well as protection of forest areas containing historic, scenic, geologic, ecologic, or other special qualities, are all inherent in Forest Service management policies.

The Forest Service is California’s largest landholder, and is one of the state’s largest suppliers of recreational opportunities.

Table 12
FEDERAL RECREATION LANDS IN CALIFORNIA
FISCAL YEAR 1992

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency*</th>
<th>Land &amp; Water Area (acres)</th>
<th>Administrative units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>U.S Forest Service</td>
<td>20,532,153</td>
<td>22 National Forests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureau of Land Management</td>
<td>17,100,000</td>
<td>15 Resource Areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Park Service</td>
<td>4,985,281</td>
<td>23 Units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. Fish &amp; Wildlife Service</td>
<td>348,304</td>
<td>42 Units, including 2 coordination areas operated by other agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureau of Reclamation</td>
<td>340,000</td>
<td>55 Units, including 50 operated by other agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. Army Corps of Engineers</td>
<td>102,000</td>
<td>24 Units, including 12 operated by other agencies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The Department of Defense is not included because its lands are used almost exclusively for military purposes.
In 1992, there were 97 million recreation visits to the state’s national forests. Nearly 25 percent of the recreation visits to all the national forests in the country occurred in California’s national forests.

People are drawn to California’s national forests by their 51 wilderness areas, which contain 4.2 million acres; 2,467 lakes and reservoirs; 13,000 miles of fishable rivers; 1,800 miles of wild and scenic rivers; and 13,400 miles of maintained trails. Developed facilities include 105 marinas, 32 swimming sites, 819 campgrounds, 213 picnic grounds, 6,500 recreational residences, 33 ski areas, 65 information and interpretive sites, and 514 organized camps or resorts.

In fiscal year 1992, the Forest Service employed 550 permanent, full-time and 400 seasonal personnel in California to manage its recreation program. The Forest Service’s fiscal year 1993 recreation budget totals $49.7 million. In addition, its fiscal year 1993 budget includes $4.3 million for management of cultural resources and $4.5 million for management of wilderness areas; some of the funds in both of these categories support recreation. In fiscal year 1993, the Forest Service will also spend $4.2 million, which it receives from the California Off-Highway Vehicle Fund. Since 1965, the Forest Service has received roughly $108.8 million from the LWCF, which has been used primarily in the Lake Tahoe basin.

The Forest Service is facing several major land-use and recreation issues in the immediate future. California’s increasing urban population is relying more and more on the national forests to meet its outdoor recreational needs. Both the Angeles and the San Bernardino National Forests continue to be subjected to ever-increasing recreational pressure from the nearby Los Angeles basin; however, the funding necessary to develop additional recreational facilities, and to improve and repair existing ones, has not kept pace with the demand. The Forest Service estimates that it currently has a $180 million backlog of deferred maintenance. To reduce its operating costs, the Forest Service has turned over 300 of its campgrounds to concessionaires for operation.

Not only is recreational use increasing, the types of uses and the users are changing. The demand for new mountain bike trails has exploded on Forest Service lands across the state. The increased use of off-highway vehicles on Forest Service lands required that it actively manage off-highway vehicle use and provide for additional off-highway recreational opportunities. In addition, recent immigrants to the United States are using the national forests in Southern California in increasing numbers, bringing with them the land-use ethic from their country of origin, for example, subsistence hunting and gathering. The Forest Service has initiated an intensive research program to identify new users and their specific needs, and to develop management strategies based on that information.

Bureau of Land Management

The Bureau of Land Management (BLM) manages, protects, and provides improvements on more than 17.1 million acres, or 17 percent, of California’s land area. Lands administered by the BLM are found throughout the state, but are heavily concentrated in the California Desert, northeast California, and along the north coast. Only three counties in the state have no BLM lands. Resources on BLM lands are managed on a multiple-use, sustained-yield basis. BLM’s management of its lands provides for outdoor recreation, wilderness, rangelands, timber production, mineral extraction, energy production, and fish and wildlife management. BLM management also protects watersheds, air quality, and scenic, scientific, and cultural values.
BLM operates 87 developed recreation sites throughout the state, which provide 2,256 camp sites, 160 picnic sites, and 2 boat ramps. Lands administered by BLM are a major source for off-highway motor vehicle recreation, especially in the California Desert. The desert is also a popular area for such specialized activities as rock-hounding and land-sailing.

The bureau manages five designated wilderness areas totaling 13,841 acres. Another 209 areas covering 7.1 million acres are currently under review for possible designation as wilderness, with 2.1 million acres recommended by the agency as suitable.

At present, 174 full-time employees, including 74 rangers, are assigned in California to recreation duties. In fiscal year 1991, the BLM recreation management budget was $11.8 million, which included $5.8 million from the California Off-Highway Motor Vehicle program. Since 1965, BLM in California has received about $41.3 million from the LWCF. Most of the LWCF money was spent for land acquisition on the Sacramento River near Redding, the King Range and Pacific Coast Trail, the Bizz Johnson Trail in northeastern California, the Santa Rosa Mountains National Scenic Area, the East Mojave National Scenic Area, the Carrizo Plain Natural Area, and the American and Merced Rivers. BLM supplements its LWCF and recreation management budget allocations with donations, volunteer assistance, and funds from other agencies.

Future challenges for BLM include the need for increased funding for recreational facilities, maintenance, personnel, and interpretation to meet the increasing demand for recreation on BLM lands. Since 1986, recreational use on California’s BLM lands increased 118 percent, while the number of patrol rangers grew only 76 percent. At present staffing levels, every BLM law enforcement ranger is responsible for patrolling an average of more than 231,000 acres.

California’s growing ethnic and cultural communities are increasing their use of BLM lands. These groups bring with them different languages, expectations, perceptions, cultural traditions, and values regarding outdoor recreational use. To improve its ability to communicate with and deliver services to members of these diverse groups, BLM has initiated cultural-diversity research programs on its lands. Cultural-diversity research projects have been completed in the Imperial Sand Dunes and Mecca Hills, and additional projects have been started on the American, Merced, Mokelumne, and Sacramento Rivers, and in the Interlake Region, near Redding. All of these projects are designed to determine who the users of BLM’s lands are, how best to communicate with them, and what their recreational needs and desires are.

BLM is also facing new recreational technologies which change recreational use patterns and BLM’s role as a resource management agency. As also reported by the U.S. Forest Service, the demand on BLM for new mountain bike trails has increased dramatically on a statewide basis. Similarly, off-highway vehicle use has increased on BLM lands, requiring that the agency actively manage their use and increase the number of available off-highway recreational opportunities. BLM is instituting long-term research and management implementation programs to address both the increasingly diverse recreation population and changing use patterns on its lands.
National Park Service

On September 25, 1890, Sequoia National Park became the first national park in California and the second in the nation, followed by Yosemite on October 1, 1890. The National Park Service (NPS) was subsequently founded in 1916 to “promote and regulate the use of National Parks and Monuments...to conserve the scenery and the natural and the historical objects and the wildlife therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations.” Today, California’s 23 units include national parks, monuments, recreation areas, historic sites, and seashores. They protect more than 4.9 million acres, and provide recreational opportunities for millions. NPS also maintains the National Register of Historic Places and administers the National Historic Landmark program and the National Natural Landmark program.

In 1991, more than 35 million people from around the world visited California’s national parks. Yosemite, California’s most famous, attracted more than 3.5 million people. Golden Gate National Recreation Area, California’s most heavily used NPS area, received more than 14.6 million visitors. To protect, maintain, and operate California’s national parks, the NPS staff consists of 1,400 permanent, full-time employees and 2,000 seasonal employees.

Since 1965, NPS has received more than $2.6 billion from the Land and Water Conservation Fund for use in California. The money was spent for acquisitions in Redwood National Park, Golden Gate National Recreation Area, Point Reyes National Seashore, Santa Monica Mountains National Recreation Area, and Channel Islands National Park.

As with most park and recreation systems, NPS is trying to cope with a variety of problems affecting its units. Budget and staffing levels are not keeping pace with growing needs.

The ethnic composition of visitors is becoming increasingly diverse, with visitation increases by Hispanics and Asians being the most pronounced. National Park Service signs, interpretation, and facilities are in formats that serve the NPS’ traditional white, middle- and upper-class visitors, who still constitute the majority of visitors.

International visitation has increased as a result of favorable foreign currency exchange rates, the world’s increasing population of international travelers, and many foreigners’ fascination with the American West. Japanese, Mexicans, Central Americans, and South Americans, along with Australians, Britons, Germans, and French, are the most frequent visitors. These visitors are looking for hands-on experiences from dawn until dark, and are traveling more on their own by rental cars than by guided bus tours.

NPS-managed units are experiencing significantly heavier year-round visitation. This increased year-round use is caused by a number of factors. These include: more foreign visitors; Americans taking shorter, but more frequent vacations; the growing population of retirees and other people preferring off-season park experiences; and the availability of specialized recreational equipment,
which makes off-peak use safer and more comfortable. This extended use is putting a strain on park budgets and staff, which have traditionally been geared to peak summer or winter seasons. It is also disappointing off-peak visitors. Surveys show a higher level of frustration among some off-season visitors than among peak-season visitors. Their increased frustration stems from their failure to find the uncrowded experiences they sought from their off-season visits. Anticipatory perceptions of crowded conditions are deterring significant numbers of travelers from returning for other visits.

Visitor use management is the most difficult park challenge. While backcountry use is being effectively regulated through wilderness designations and rationing of use by permits, the biggest problems occur in the more crowded front-country locations. Because in-park overnight accommodations have essentially been static for the last decade, the growth in day-use visitors is the focus of these front-country problems. To cope with growing demand, NPS is trying to improve techniques for defining the preferred front-country visitor experience, and for managing visitors through better information, alternative transportation, and improved visitor services.

With visitors seeking a variety of recreation experiences, often in the same area, the challenge is how to allocate and regulate uses so that certain users’ recreation experiences are not the ruination of other users’ experiences. Increasingly, special user groups are litigating against management plans to overturn use limits that overly restrict them.

Population growth pressures account for a rapidly changing landscape, in some cases, right up to the park boundaries. Parks that were once isolated and buffered by undeveloped lands are increasingly affected by development, incompatible uses, regional air quality concerns, gateway community expansion, and traffic. Park managers, by necessity, are becoming more involved in local and regional land-use planning, and are working with adjacent public and private landowners to better manage whole ecosystems, which transcend park boundaries.

Reduced job satisfaction is becoming an issue for more NPS employees. Downsizing, more work and problems per employee, limited resources, a growing maintenance backlog, limited pay, sub-standard housing, a lack of privacy, and remote locations all undercut park staff morale. Generalists have gradually been replaced by specialists to deal with the growing complexity of park management. The number of applicants for vacancies is shrinking. NPS’ work force needs to better reflect the state’s and the nation’s growing ethnic and racial diversity.

U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service

The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) is the principal agency through which the federal government carries out its responsibilities to conserve, protect, and enhance the nation’s fish and wildlife, and their habitats, for the continuing benefit of people. The service’s major responsibilities are to manage and protect migratory birds, endangered species, certain marine mammals, and fresh-water and anadromous fish.
In California, USFWS operates 37 national wildlife refuges, which cover more than 340,000 acres. USFWS also operates a wildlife research center, a national fish hatchery, and a fishery research center. Two coordination areas are operated in cooperation with other agencies.

Since 1965, the service has spent more than $53 million from the Land and Water Conservation Fund to acquire 47,760 acres of land for wildlife refuges and management areas throughout the state. These areas provide various outdoor recreation opportunities, including hiking, auto tours, bicycling, boating, environmental study, hunting, fishing, and picnicking. To provide these opportunities, the service’s 1991 recreation budget was $683,000.

The major recreational challenge the service faces on the national wildlife refuges is managing recreational uses, especially non-wildlife uses, so they are compatible with refuge purposes and objectives. Often, the public feels that additional recreational opportunities should be provided, but does not understand that the additional recreation could be harmful to the wildlife, especially endangered species. In fact, to protect wildlife, 42 percent of all the land in USFWS’s California wildlife refuges is either closed to the public or subject to severe use restrictions.

In addition, USFWS lacks funding to effectively manage and control uses, even compatible ones, on many refuges. With California’s rapid growth and increasing pressure for additional recreational sites, refuges that offer uncrowded, ecologically sensitive programs will become more popular. Unless additional funds are provided, these quality programs cannot be developed.

**Bureau of Reclamation**

The Bureau of Reclamation plans, constructs, and operates multi-purpose water supply and conservation projects associated with reclamation of arid lands. These projects furnish water for agriculture, municipal use, and generating hydroelectric power, while providing flood control. The bureau can develop both recreation and fish and wildlife enhancement facilities at its project sites. These projects provide 340,000 acres of land and water for recreational purposes.

The bureau usually negotiates operating agreements with other federal or non-federal agencies to manage and operate the recreational resources at bureau reclamation projects. There are 55 bureau recreation and wildlife sites in California, but only five are operated by the bureau itself.

In 1991, 1.4 million people visited recreation sites actually operated by the bureau. (Bureau sites operated by other agencies received about 16.5 million visits.) To support visits to bureau-operated sites, the bureau employed 27 permanent, full-time employees and 16.5 personnel years of seasonal help. The bureau’s fiscal year 1991 recreation budget for bureau-operated sites was almost $2 million.

The Bureau of Reclamation is in the process of developing resource management plans for all of its projects. A key element of these plans is public input. Problems brought out by these plans emphasize that the bureau lacks development and law enforcement authority.
The bureau’s enabling legislation does not authorize it to develop recreational facilities at its project sites. Authorization for recreational development at a project site must be granted in the legislation authorizing the project; otherwise, no recreational facilities can be built. Also, the bureau has no authority to provide law enforcement services at bureau-operated projects. Consequently, the bureau must contract with outside agencies for law enforcement services.

Under new law, the bureau is now mandated to consider fisheries and other environmental concerns when making decisions about water use. The bureau is developing strategies to balance these new concerns against existing needs for power and water for agricultural use.

U. S. Army Corps of Engineers

The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers is responsible for planning, constructing, and operating water control, flood protection, navigation, and beach erosion projects throughout the state. The corps is authorized to construct and operate recreational facilities at these project sites, or it can lease them to other agencies for operation. Of the 24 areas that the corps is responsible for in California, 12 are managed directly by the corps, and 12 are managed by other agencies. In 1991, the corps employed 74 full-time and 20 temporary staff to provide recreational opportunities at corps-managed sites. That same year, the corps’ recreation budget was $8.7 million.

Corps of Engineers projects in the state, including both those operated by the corps and those operated by other agencies, provide 102,000 acres of land and water for recreational use, 1,800 campsites, 20 groups campsites, 640 picnic sites, 47 group picnic sites, and 25 boat launch ramps. Since most recreation in these areas is water-oriented, recreational use had declined during the recently ended five-year drought.

The major recreational issues facing the corps are budgetary austerity and the lack of funding for state or local agencies to enter into cost-sharing partnerships to operate and maintain recreational facilities. These costs must be shared on new recreational developments unless the reservoir and recreation facilities are included (or proposed for inclusion) in a national recreation area, or are suitable for administration by another federal agency. Without cost-sharing partnerships, the corps can only provide minimal recreational facility development at new projects, and cannot add any new facilities to existing projects.

Department of Defense

The Department of Defense (DOD) administers more than 2.8 million acres in California, almost exclusively for military purposes. For this plan, DOD is considered separately from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, which has some recreation responsibilities. DOD is required to manage its natural resources to protect significant natural and cultural sites, and, wherever possible, to provide for multipurpose uses and public access.
To help meet this mandate, DOD entered into a Memorandum of Understanding in 1987 with the National Park Service to develop a natural resource management plan for each DOD facility. The plan includes a section dealing with management of natural resource-based outdoor recreation on military installations. The goals of this plan section are to allow public access (where it is compatible with the military mission of the facility), to enhance current natural resource-based recreation opportunities, and to identify new recreation opportunities.

The military mission of each installation and current national defense readiness, together, determine access policy both for DOD personnel and for the general public. During times of normal military readiness, DOD personnel, their families, civilian employees, military retirees, and escorted guests can gain access to many military recreation areas. Those who have access to base recreation facilities do not compete with others for access to public recreation facilities. In addition, DOD policy requires that base recreation facilities not create unfair competition for nearby private recreation providers. To meet this requirement, military recreation facilities charge fees which are similar to nearby providers.

Camp Pendleton, which is located on the San Diego County coast between San Clemente and Oceanside, provides a good example. Approximately 40,000 military personnel and their dependents live on base, and have access to base recreation facilities. In addition, family members living off the base, civilian workers, and retirees are also eligible to use Camp Pendleton’s recreation facilities. The base’s Del Mar Beach is used by about 16,000 people on a normal summer weekend, and by up to 40,000 people on a summer holiday weekend.

Some DOD installations allow the public to participate in outdoor recreation activities such as hunting, fishing, and horseback riding. Access may be on a continuous basis (except in times of high military readiness), or it may be allowed only on special occasions. In contrast, some military facilities do not permit any public access, or allow it only with close supervision.

STATE GOVERNMENT

A number of state agencies provide or support outdoor recreation. Involvement varies based on each agency’s mission statement. For instance, the provision of recreation is the primary mission of the Department of Parks and Recreation. For others, such as the Department of Water Resources, recreation is a minor function, or a byproduct of another major program. Finally, some agencies, such as the California Coastal Commission, do not provide recreational services directly, but facilitate the provision of such services through regulatory actions or through financial assistance.

**Department of Parks and Recreation**

**California State Park System.** The Department of Parks and Recreation’s mission is to provide for the health, inspiration, and education of the people of California by helping to preserve the state’s extraordinary biological diversity, protecting its most valued natural and cultural resources, and providing opportunities for high-quality recreational experiences based on those resources. In
support of this mission, DPR manages the California State Park System, the Off-Highway Motor Vehicle Recreation Program, the Historic Preservation Program, and the Local Assistance Program.

The California State Park System operates more than 240 units, including units of the State Off-Highway Motor Vehicle Recreation System, but excluding units operated for DPR by local governments. The State Park System encompasses almost 1.3 million acres of desert, mountain, coast, valley, and urban landscape. Many of California’s “crown jewels,” such as Prairie Creek, Emerald Bay, Point Lobos, and Anza-Borrego are protected and interpreted in state park units. The California State Park System provides more than 17,500 campsites, 10,400 picnic sites, and almost 1,000 miles of ocean, river, and lake frontage for recreation. Visitation in fiscal year 1990-91 totaled more than 69 million people. Cities, counties, and regional park districts, under contract to DPR, operate 32 additional state units, together encompassing more than 11,200 acres.

In 1990, fees were increased and improved fee collection techniques were implemented statewide with the goal of covering 57 percent of operating costs. Prior to the fee increases and new procedures, fees and concessions revenue covered less than 35 percent of operating costs.

In 1992, DPR faced a $10.5 million shortfall in operating funds, which resulted from California’s continuing recession. In response, the department reorganized, which saved $10.2 million, but resulted in the loss of approximately 200 jobs. The reorganization was accomplished by combining closely related divisions, reducing the ranks of mid-level managers and supervisors by 30 percent, lowering decision making to the lowest possible level, and decentralizing many headquarters and regional office functions. The department is concerned that any future funding reductions and resulting loss of staff would necessitate service reductions, including park closures.

Many state park structures are more than 40 years old, are not up to current standards of safety and access for the disabled, and are costly to maintain. In 1991, the department estimated that it had a $114.7 million facility rehabilitation backlog, a $23.6 million deferred facility maintenance backlog, and a $21.9 million deferred road maintenance backlog. Adequate funding to support a major rehabilitation program is necessary to ensure the continued viability of the State Park System’s infrastructure, and to meet future recreational demands. Service to the public may be reduced by the State Park System’s rapidly deteriorating or outdated park infrastructure.
The department is concerned that the recent fee increases not prevent many of California’s low-income families from visiting state parks. These fee increases came at a time when it appears that the need for outdoor recreation by all Californians—and, in particular, by low-income families—is at an all-time high. In order to reach the many and varied peoples of California, increased funding is needed for outreach and interpretative programs.

As the state’s growing population increases the demand for recreation, and as urban development surrounds parks and recreation areas, funding for research and for natural and cultural resource management must keep pace. Human impact on the parks is relentless. Good stewardship of their natural and cultural resources is based on having good information about those resources and on taking appropriate action, in a timely manner, to protect, restore, and preserve affected ecosystems and threatened cultural resources. Without adequate, current information and improved funding, plant and animal species may be lost, ecosystems irreversibly degraded, and prehistoric and historic sites and artifacts irreparably damaged.

**Off-Highway Motor Vehicle Recreation (OHMVR) Program.** The OHMVR Division operates the State OHMVR System, and provides assistance on OHMVR facilities to other agencies. The state’s OHMVR System includes seven state vehicular recreation areas covering more than 70,000 acres. The OHMVR program is 100 percent self-funded, primarily through the off-highway motor vehicle portion of the state gas tax. Additional funding is also received from off-highway motor vehicle registration fees (the green sticker fees). These revenues also have been used to underwrite significant amounts of the operation and maintenance needs of the State Park System.

Visitation to state vehicular recreation areas in fiscal year 1990-91 was 1.3 million people. Visitors to the state-operated vehicular recreation areas are only a portion of a much larger user group. More than 10 million visitor days of off-highway visitor use are estimated to take place at federal and local off-highway facilities each year. Many of these facilities were acquired or developed with the help of grants administered by the OHMVR Division.

**Local Assistance Program.** The Local Assistance Program administers grants to cities, counties, park and recreation districts, special districts, and non-profit organizations. Grants administered by DPR to local entities have amounted to more than $1 billion, applied to some 10,000 projects. Limited grants are also provided to the California Department of Boating and Waterways, the Wildlife Conservation Board, and the Department of Water Resources, which pass grant funds through to local agencies. The program also provides some technical assistance and consultation. The amount of technical assistance has been reduced by cutbacks in DPR’s budget and staff. Most grant funds come from state general obligation bonds, but can also come from other state and federal sources. (Figure 5 shows the funds obtained from the eight statewide park bond acts passed between 1964 and 1988.) One funding source that is not dependent on general obligation bonds is the California Wildlife Protection Act, which was approved by voters in June 1990. Among other purposes, this act makes $2 million available annually to the department for 50 percent matching grants to local agencies. The money is to be used for acquisition, restoration, or enhancement of certain wildlife habitat, and for urban trails, nature interpretation programs, and other programs that bring urban residents into park and wildlife areas. Another important source of funding is the LWCF, which was discussed in the section on Federal Funding for Recreation, above.
The amount of money available for grants is not keeping pace with the needs of California’s growing and changing population. Grant applications received under competitive programs have consistently exceeded available funding by 500 to 1,000 percent, depending on the program category. As of 1993, furthermore, almost all local assistance funding from existing bond acts has been allocated. A bond act on the November 1990 ballot was defeated, along with virtually all other measures involving money. It was only the second park and recreation bond act to be defeated in more than 30 years. In 1993, the legislature considered putting another park and recreation bond act on the 1994 ballot, but failed to do so. A coalition of community, park and recreation, environmental, historic preservation, and other non-profit groups has circulated petitions to put a bond act initiative on the June 1994 ballot.

**Office of Historic Preservation.** The Office of Historic Preservation (OHP) is responsible for identifying and helping preserve culturally significant resources in California. Protection of these historic resources from loss or destruction ensures their continuing place in the cultural fabric of our communities.
OHP inventories, reviews, and registers historical resources for both the state and national registration programs. Thousands of federal or federally assisted or licensed projects are reviewed each year for possible impacts on historical resources. Because of the number of declared disasters that have wreaked havoc throughout California in the past several years, mandated environmental reviews and other disaster-related responsibilities increased dramatically. Other mandated programs had to be scaled back as OHP’s disaster-related workload increased.

OHP also maintains a statewide computerized database of historic resources, including archeological sites. Eleven regional information centers assist the public in accessing this data on a need-to-know basis.

Almost $30 million in grant assistance has been provided to more than 200 local historic preservation projects. Funding for these grants was provided by a series of statewide park bond acts and special legislative appropriations in 1984, 1987, and 1988.

Local government can apply to participate in the Certified Local Government program, and qualify for federal pass-through grants. A minimum of 10 percent of the federal funds received by OHP is passed through to certified local governments. Over the past three years, this has amounted to $120,000 annually. Other federal funds are also awarded annually for historic preservation projects. Financial assistance to building owners is also available for certified rehabilitation projects. Certification qualifies projects for federal tax credits.

**Department of Boating and Waterways**

The Department of Boating and Waterways is responsible for developing and improving recreational boating facilities throughout the state. This is accomplished through loans, grants, and direct capital outlay investment to various local governmental agencies, private entities, and the California Department of Parks and Recreation. The Department of Boating and Waterways operates no facilities of its own.

In fiscal year 1990-91, the department provided roughly $35 million for boating facilities development. Under the California Recreational Trails Act, the Department of Boating and Waterways is responsible for providing public boating access on those waterways designated as boating trails. The department also promotes boating safety, and conducts beach erosion control projects in cooperation with federal and local agencies.

In its 35-year history, the Department of Boating and Waterways has provided more than $359 million in boating facilities development funds for development of 165 launch ramps, 16,668 berths, and 610 boat-in sites. Since fiscal year 1969-70, the Land and Water Conservation Fund allocation to the department has been $4.5 million. Like the Off-Highway Vehicle Fund, significant amounts from the Harbors and Watercraft Fund have been used to underwrite operation and maintenance costs for the State Park System.
Boating continues to rise in popularity. The increase in use of non-motorized vessels, such as canoes, kayaks, and rafts, has been especially dramatic. Introduction of new types of watercraft and other improvements to boating technology are also occurring at a fast pace. Today, there are more than 818,000 vessels registered in California, an increase of more than 233,000 during the last 10 years. During peak use periods, the demand for boating facilities often outstrips supply. Even though there are more boaters and more boating activity, the number of boating accidents and fatalities has declined. This reduction can be attributed to stronger laws, more effective enforcement efforts, and the success of voluntary boating education programs.

Department of Fish and Game

The Department of Fish and Game (DFG) manages the state’s game and non-game wildlife on public and state lands for scientific, economic, and recreational purposes. DFG’s management responsibility applies to more than 600,000 acres of land and water, of which it owns approximately 400,000 acres. The land and water managed by DFG offers a wide variety of wildlife-associated recreation. In the past, hunting and fishing were the main recreational activities. Now, non-consumptive wildlife recreation, such as bird watching, photography, sketching, and painting, are increasing in importance as the numbers of California’s hunters and anglers continue to decrease. Starting in 1993, DFG’s interpretive program will expand to include urban angling education, combining two existing wildlife education programs, the California Wildlands Program and Project Wild.

Similarly, DFG has expanded efforts to educate the public on the value of fish and wildlife resources. Examples include hunting and fishing programs for young people, Women in the Outdoors, increased use of wildlife areas for recreation, and efforts to restore and improve habitats to increase fish and wildlife populations for public use.

Faced with decreasing revenue from hunting and fishing licenses and uncertain general funding, DFG successfully developed alternative funding sources that include the California Environmental License Plate Fund, various federal funds, and entrance fees imposed at some of its facilities. As a result of the national recession, funding from some sources may diminish.

Department of Water Resources

The Department of Water Resources manages California’s State Water project (SWP), a vast complex of dams, aqueducts, and related structures that store and transport water from Northern California for delivery to the San Francisco Bay Area, the San Joaquin Valley, and Southern California. Although the system is primarily designed to deliver water and generate power, in 1961, the legislature passed the Davis-Dolwig Act, declaring that recreation and fish and wildlife enhancement are among the purposes of state water projects. The act is the primary statement of state policy concerning recreation and fish and wildlife enhancement at state-constructed water facilities, requiring DWR to fully develop the recreational and fish and wildlife potential of the SWP. DWR periodically reexamines recreation trends that may require changes in management of the facilities.
The State Water Project's 36 recreational and wildlife facilities extend from Plumas County in the north to Riverside County in the south, including many sites located along the California Aqueduct. Many of these facilities are operated by a variety of federal, state, and local agencies. During 1991, recreational activities such as camping, boating, fishing, swimming, picnicking, and bicycling generated nearly 6 million recreational use days throughout the SWP.

The California Aqueduct Bikeway is the only SWP recreational facility actually operated by DWR. The southern 107-mile section of the bikeway has been closed since 1988, while the aqueduct is being enlarged. Once work on the aqueduct has been completed and the safety of the bikeway is evaluated, portions of it may be reopened.

In addition to the SWP recreational facilities, DWR administers grants under the Davis-Grunsky Act (1959) that authorize construction costs allocated for recreational facilities and enhancement of fish and wildlife associated with local water development projects. To date, DWR has disbursed more than $65 million for 35 recreational facilities stretching from Siskiyou County to San Diego County.

**Department of Forestry and Fire Protection**

The primary mission of the California Department of Forestry and Fire Protection (CDF) is to protect and enhance California's range, forest, and watershed resources. CDF's primary responsibility is to provide fire protection and resource management services to more than 40 million acres of private and state-owned lands throughout the state.

CDF also manages more than 71,000 acres of forest land for timber production, research, and recreation. In 1991, these forests provided more than 190,000 visitor days of recreational use. Developed recreational facilities in state forests include 190 campsites, 58 picnic sites, and 2 visitor centers. The recreation program has been specifically funded since 1990, with a current operations and personnel budget of $370,000. The recreational program staff consists of three permanent, full-time employees and one seasonal employee.

**California Coastal Commission**

The California Coastal Commission is a regulatory agency whose responsibilities include a wide range of environmental issues. Those issues primarily deal with promotion of sound land-use policies in the Coastal Zone, and regulation of various types of development in the zone. The Coastal Commission is responsible for assuring that the public has coastal access for recreation. The commission does not operate any recreational lands or facilities. Instead, it depends entirely on other agencies to perform this function.

Since its inception in 1972, the commission has obtained 2,351 public access easement offers as conditions of approving coastal development projects. In many cases, these easements provide the only new beach access opportunities in their vicinities. To date, more than 812 of these easements have been accepted by local government, the state, and non-profit organizations.
Finding agencies or non-profit organizations willing to accept, operate, and maintain these easements for the long term is difficult. It is, however, one of the most important goals of the commission’s Coastal Access Program.

California Coastal Conservancy

The California Coastal Conservancy acquires agricultural lands to prevent their loss to other uses. It also restores areas that adversely affect the coastal environment or impede orderly development due to poor lot layout, scattered ownerships, and incompatible land uses. In addition, the Conservancy undertakes projects designed to enhance natural and scenic values along the coast that may be threatened by dredging, filling, or improper placement of improvements. It preserves significant coastal resources that have recreational, scenic, or habitat value until other public or qualified non-profit agencies are able to acquire them. The conservancy accomplishes these programs directly, through grants to state and local agencies, and grants and technical assistance to qualified non-profit organizations.

The conservancy directly improves recreation by providing grants to local public agencies for acquisition and development of public coastal access ways. The conservancy’s urban waterfront development program restores these areas through capital projects that can include funding for parks, open space, coastal access, and other public areas and facilities. It is also the designated agency for planning and coordination of federal surplus land sales in the coastal zone.

The conservancy does not manage or operate lands on a long-term basis. Instead, it reconveys its properties to local, state, or federal agencies, or to qualified non-profit organizations for management and operation.

Because of its limited funding, the conservancy continues to focus on San Francisco Bay and selected coastal land acquisition projects. Most of its remaining funds are limited to enhancement and acquisition of aquatic habitat and associated uplands. Some funds remain for provision of coastal access.

Currently, the conservancy has more than 1,500 offers to dedicate access ways, but neither the legislature nor local government has made funding available for their operation and maintenance. Funding for urban waterways is also nearly exhausted.

Wildlife Conservation Board

The Wildlife Conservation Board (WCB) acquires property to preserve or restore wildlife habitat. It also develops or improves facilities for wildlife-associated recreation on land owned by the Department of Fish and Game and by local government agencies. These facilities include fishing piers and floats, boat ramps, jetty access walkways, lake or reservoir improvements, boardwalks,
nature trails, and interpretive areas. These projects are generally undertaken in coordination with local agencies, which operate and maintain the facilities for public use.

WCB has acquired or developed 614 state and local units, each offering some type of wildlife-associated recreation. Of the 400,000 acres of land owned by the Department of Fish and Game, most were acquired or dedicated to this purpose by WCB.

Since the enactment of the LWCF, WCB has received almost $26 million from it in support of both acquisition and development projects. The LWCF contributed to construction or renovation of 26 coastal fishing piers, 14 boat ramps, boardwalks and wildlife observation points around marsh areas, and barrier-free facilities such as the Oroville Wildlife Area Pond Fishing Access.

WCB continues to be concerned about the lack of a continuous, stable funding source for habitat preservation and restoration projects, and for development of associated recreation facilities. Because of funding limitations, WCB has increasingly resorted to cooperative projects, which include private-sector organizations.

A number of local agencies, as a result of reductions in their budgets and increased demands on them for recreational services, have found it difficult to adequately cover operation and maintenance costs for existing WCB-supported facilities. In response, WCB is exploring innovative programs to deal with this problem.

**California Tahoe Conservancy**

The California Tahoe Conservancy acquires, improves, and manages land on the California side of Lake Tahoe for protection of the environment, to provide public access and recreation opportunities, and to enhance wildlife habitat. In its first six years, the conservancy made substantial progress in achieving its objectives. The conservancy expended more than $109 million, either directly or through grants, in support of its programs. The conservancy acquired and manages more than 5,200 acres of land.

To help meet the increasing demand for public access and recreational opportunities, the conservancy has been acquiring and improving land to provide new access, especially to lakefront areas. During the past six years, more than $17.3 million from state bond acts has been authorized for 29 public access projects. These projects entail acquisition of more than 350 acres of land (which includes three-quarters of a mile of lake and beach frontage), and acquisition of right-of-way for or construction of 28 miles of trail.

The conservancy is concerned with the continuing threats to Lake Tahoe’s water quality. The conservancy will continue to give high priority to acquisition of environmentally sensitive lands. It will also continue to give priority to implementing erosion control, public access, and wildlife habitat improvement projects.
The conservancy also seeks additional funding to provide for more public access, and to develop additional recreational facilities and trails. Existing funding has not kept pace with increases in demand, and future funding is uncertain.

Santa Monica Mountains Conservancy

The Santa Monica Mountains Conservancy (SMMC) implements the Santa Monica Mountains Comprehensive Plan by acquiring, restoring, and consolidating land in the Santa Monica Mountains Zone for park, recreation, and conservation purposes. To accomplish this, SMMC acquires property to protect the natural environment, manages the land on an interim basis, and works with established land management agencies to assume control of these lands.

At present, SMMC manages 17,000 acres in the Santa Monica Mountains. Its acquisition program focuses on the most critical open space and recreation land in the area. In addition, SMMC provides grants to local agencies for acquisition and development of their own parks and recreation areas.

The most significant recreation program funded by SMMC, in cooperation with local entities, involves busing inner-city youths to the Santa Monica Mountains and providing them with significant resource-related educational experiences. An 800 telephone number has also been established to provide information on parks in the Santa Monica Mountains and surrounding areas.

SMMC has identified a number of concerns. Primary among them is the need to link existing park units through development of a wildlife corridor and trail system. In addition to SMMC’s land, the California Department of Parks and Recreation owns 35,700 acres and the National Park Service owns 18,000 acres in the Santa Monica Mountains Zone. These parklands are located throughout the zone, and are intermixed with private property. To link these parks, SMMC will concentrate on acquiring lands in strategic wildlife corridors in both undeveloped and urban areas.

Only limited funding is available to SMMC for development of campgrounds and other permanent facilities. Development of these facilities is a critical recreational need in the highly populated Los Angeles basin.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Although federal and state recreation providers manage a significantly larger amount of acreage, local park and recreation agencies provide the majority of outdoor recreation opportunities. This is not surprising since local parks are the most numerous and the most convenient for frequent use. It is at these sites, ranging from neighborhood tot-lots and playgrounds to regional sports complexes and natural areas, that so much of California’s outdoor recreation takes place.

Local government has provided parks and outdoor recreation services and facilities in California for more than a century. State law empowers local governments to establish, maintain, and operate park
and recreation systems. Most local governments have authority to issue bonds to finance capital improvements. Funding for operations and maintenance comes from local taxes, grants, donations, land leases, user fees, and concessionaire profits.

Most local government park and recreation services are provided by specific park and recreation departments under the administration of a city or county government. In some areas, special park and recreation districts have been formed to offer recreation services that are otherwise unavailable. Some special districts—such as sanitation, water, and open space districts—offer recreation services as a supplement to their primary services.

Special districts are established through the state legislative process. These districts have defined geographical areas, resident populations, a governing body, and revenue-raising powers. They are adopted as either an independent entity with a board of directors elected by the citizens, or as a dependent entity with a governing board appointed by the county board of supervisors. Just slightly more than a quarter of all visits to local government park and recreation facilities take place at special district facilities.

Counties generally operate larger parks and recreation sites that are located on the edge of population centers and serve several communities. County park and recreation systems, although small in number, account for 45 percent of all local government parklands. Law enforcement is provided by county park rangers or county sheriffs.

Compared to city parks and recreation agencies, county agencies generally place more emphasis on open space. Compared to city park and recreation agencies, recreation programming does not have as high a priority. Many special districts—especially open space districts—also place more emphasis on protection of open space and less on recreation programming than do cities.

Usually, city parks are smaller in size than county and special district parks, and include developed facilities that are designed to serve the needs of the immediate community. When compared with the counties and special districts, city park and recreation systems:

- Manage 71 percent of all local parks
- Spend 68 percent of all the funds expended on parks and recreation at the local level
- Employ seven out of ten local park and recreation employees
- Accommodate 60 percent of all visits to local park and recreation facilities
- Provide their services on a much smaller share of local parkland (only 23 percent) than counties (45 percent) and special districts (32 percent).

Most park visitors either walk, ride a bicycle, or drive a short distance to reach a city park. Because of this proximity to the community, recreation programming is a high priority. Law enforcement is generally provided by city police, but may be supplemented by special security patrols.
City park and recreation facilities typically include community centers, play fields, and fields for turf sports. Many local facilities include swimming pools, picnic areas, activity centers, playground equipment, and exercise facilities. Many of these facilities are lighted, allowing their use during the evening hours. These facilities are used by children after school, or by adults after work, and on weekends for league sports, such as baseball or soccer. City park and recreation areas are the primary locations where many of these types of recreational activities take place.

In 1987, the California Department of Parks and Recreation surveyed the state’s cities, counties, and special districts to obtain basic information on the park and recreation services they provided. Highlights from that survey are summarized below.

Table 13 shows the number of staff members, number of units, amount of acreage, attendance, and budget for cities, counties, and special districts. The figures in the table show that the scope of the recreational opportunities provided by local government is immense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paid Staff</th>
<th>Number of Parks</th>
<th>Park Acreage</th>
<th>Attendance (millions)</th>
<th>Total Budget (millions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cities</td>
<td>19,142</td>
<td>5,489</td>
<td>129,023</td>
<td>265.4</td>
<td>$806.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counties</td>
<td>3,965</td>
<td>1,170</td>
<td>256,552</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>$216.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts</td>
<td>3,747</td>
<td>1,079</td>
<td>182,773</td>
<td>119.9</td>
<td>$156.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>26,854</td>
<td>7,738</td>
<td>568,348</td>
<td>439.7</td>
<td>$1,179.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Full-time equivalents, all paid employees

Survey findings include:

○ In 1985-86, parks and recreation received 5.0 percent of the cities’, 1.3 percent of the counties’, and 1.6 percent of the special districts’ total budgets.

○ 69.3 percent of all local park and recreation agency expenditures went to operations. Of that, one-third went to recreation programs, and the remainder to park operations.
Roughly half of all capital outlay funds went to new development, with the remainder divided almost equally between acquisition and rehabilitation. Almost two-thirds of this money was provided by the local jurisdictions themselves. In nearly equal measure, federal and state funding furnished almost all of the rest.

The revenues generated by local agencies equaled 23.6 percent of their operating costs.

These agencies made substantial use of volunteers, reporting an equivalent of 6,381 full-time positions.

The demand for California’s local parks and recreation areas and for recreational services has continued to climb with the state’s population. Larger cities, denser urban cores, increased drive times to relatively distant state and national parks, and the reliance by many on transit systems that do not adequately serve outlying park and recreation destinations focus more and more on easily accessible city, county, and special district park systems. The relative affordability of local park and recreation areas also makes them popular.

Unfortunately, the information collected in DPR’s 1987 survey of local park and recreation agencies has not been updated. Since that survey was completed, a number of local park and recreation agencies have been eliminated and their functions assumed by other agencies, such as the public works department or the human services department. Almost all local park and recreation agencies, furthermore, have seen their budgets reduced. Nevertheless, the scope of the recreational opportunities they provide is still very large. Lacking up-to-date information, however, it is impossible to know exactly how reductions in funding have affected the capabilities of local park and recreation agencies to benefit those who want—or need—their services.

Tied to this increase in demand is a changing user population that needs new or improved recreational services. The primary driving force behind this change is California’s increasing ethnic diversity. Other factors introducing change include increasing numbers of the young and old, changing family structures and employment patterns, and the requirements of the Americans with Disabilities Act.

Over the past 15 years, local park and recreation suppliers faced reduced revenues as a result of changes in the tax structure and reductions in support from various federal programs. At the same time, these suppliers have faced ever-increasing costs. More than cities, county governments are responsible for administering many programs mandated by the state or federal governments. Unfortunately, these programs are straining county budgets, and, indirectly, city budgets. Park and recreation services provided by counties and cities are not mandated by state or federal law. Because the tax base that supports non-mandated programs is becoming increasingly limited, funding for non-mandated programs, like parks and recreation, is also limited.

The recent recession, which further reduced tax revenues and funding from the state, forced many cities, counties, and special districts to reduce funding for non-mandated services. As a consequence, park and recreation budgets have been cut. In many cases, levels of service were already strained before the cuts. After the cuts, many park and recreation agencies have had to make further cuts in staff and services, and must struggle to meet new demands.
California’s fiscal year 1993-94 budget shifted $2.6 billion in property tax revenue from local governments to fund the state’s public schools. Because counties and special districts are more dependent on property tax revenue than are the cities, this transfer affects them more severely than the cities. Special districts are particularly severely affected because the budget passes their property tax revenue through the counties, allowing the counties considerable discretion as to how much of those funds to pass on. Local governments may thus impose further program cuts, especially at county and special district levels.

THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Public agencies at all levels of government play a key role in providing outdoor recreation opportunities in California. Government takes responsibility for outdoor recreation lands, programs, and facilities that meet traditional, basic public needs, ranging from tot lots to playing fields to natural landscapes. Few of these facilities have ever been run at a profit. Although they are generally acknowledged by experts in mental and public health to be essential for the smooth working of our society, they are the kinds of services and facilities that rarely make money. They are generally considered to be “public goods,” ingredients of the basic infrastructure of public services and facilities. By law, these basic services must be accessible to everyone, including those who have little or no discretionary income with which to pay for them.

While public agencies assume responsibility for the elements of the outdoor recreation business that are not profitable, the private sector plays an important role in providing the many forms of outdoor recreation that can be operated at a profit. Many of these recreational opportunities are offered on privately owned and controlled lands. Often, however, private businesses operate in concert with public agencies on publicly owned lands.

California’s theme parks are a good example of private outdoor recreational facilities that are located on private land. Theme parks are some of the most popular outdoor recreation attractions in the state. In 1991, based on numbers of visitors, five out of the state’s ten top attractions were theme parks (shown in boldface in the list below).

- Golden Gate National Recreation Area 14,650,213
- Disneyland, Anaheim 11,610,000
- Old Town San Diego State Historic Park 5,489,015
- Universal Studios, Universal City 4,625,000
- Knott’s Berry Farm, Buena Park 4,000,000
- Yosemite National Park 3,423,696
- Sea World, San Diego 3,300,000
- Six Flags Magic Mountain, Valencia 3,200,000
- Huntington State Beach 3,043,278
- Santa Cruz Boardwalk 3,000,000

Private business also provides a large variety of recreational opportunities on private lands similar to those found traditionally on public lands. These opportunities include camping, picnicking, fishing, hunting, boat launching, skiing, golf, tennis, swimming, baseball, and river rafting.
Concessionaires exemplify the successful use of private enterprise on public lands or in public facilities. For years, private concessionaires have provided such services as stores, restaurants, and lodging. With increasing frequency, public agencies are entering into new and innovative arrangements with private business to develop, maintain, and operate various public facilities and recreational installations on public land. These public-private partnerships combine the efforts and the inherent strengths and advantages of both sectors to attain a common goal that is mutually beneficial.

The contract that DPR recently entered into at Wilder Ranch State Park with the operator of an adjacent sand quarry is a good example of a mutually beneficial public-private partnership. The operator of the quarry is required by law to rehabilitate the quarry (at substantial expense) once it is closed. DPR has not been able to develop new camp sites in the Santa Cruz/Monterey area, even though they are desperately needed. Under this agreement, the quarry operator will rehabilitate the land and build a campground on it. DPR will take title to the land and transfer the campground development rights it has in the local area to the reclaimed quarry, thus allowing a larger campground. The quarry operator, or his subcontractor, will then operate the campground as a concession for a set number of years, thus recovering the rehabilitation and campground construction costs, as well as paying concession fees to DPR. Everyone benefits from this type of cooperative arrangement.

As public recreation agencies face budget challenges, many have resorted to using more volunteers or contracting out for work. For instance, many agencies now offer classes in such fields as aerobics, dance, gardening, and photography that are taught by contract instructors instead of their own staffs. Other recreation agencies have contracted out such functions as park maintenance, visitor and custodial services, and administrative duties.

Non-profit private enterprises are also included in the private sector. Non-profit private enterprises are typified by many of the businesses established by foundations and associations to perform socially desirable functions. Cooperating associations that sell informative materials and related items in park interpretive centers and shops are a good example. Land trusts are another.

**Private Sector Advantages.** In many cases, the private sector has an advantage in recreation.

It often has better access to capital, particularly the large amounts needed for investment in new and innovative ventures. Typically, these are the types of projects that government agencies, even in the best of times, must explain and justify for years before even modest budgets can be considered.

Private recreation providers can generally command a significantly higher price than public providers. All five theme parks among the ten most popular California visitor destinations (see list on previous page) charge high entrance fees. (At summer 1993 rates, basic adult admissions at the five theme parks ranges from $25.95 to $30.00.) In contrast, the other top destinations either do not charge an entrance fee, or they charge a nominal one. (The fee for an overnight stay at Huntington State Beach is $14.00 per vehicle; and the fee at Yosemite National Park is $5.00 per vehicle for a one-week stay.) Efforts by public outdoor recreation providers to significantly increase the fees they charge have, however, met with considerable resistance. For example, when the

65
Department of Parks and Recreation last increased its fees in September 1990, it saw a drop of approximately 6 million visitors per year, from which DPR has not yet fully recovered. (Other factors such as the national recession and the drought may also have contributed to the drop in visitors.)

Many of the less traditional activities in outdoor recreation have been propelled into fashion and increased popularity by privately backed infusions of capital, combined with intensive advertising campaigns. In particular, some of the high-risk and high-tech sports that require expensive equipment have become extremely popular in the last few years. Examples include hang gliding, windsurfing, ballooning, and the various forms of off-highway motor vehicle recreation. Sports equipment manufacturers and sporting goods outlets sponsor a variety of teams, events, and activities that promote their latest brands and newest types of equipment.

Private operators, furthermore, have much more flexibility in the labor market than their public counterparts. They can obtain employees in a variety of skill groups quickly to meet changing conditions or special situations, and they can quickly reduce or alter the composition of their staffs when requirements change. This flexibility is virtually impossible for public employers operating under civil service.

Private business is also able to capitalize on the rapid change and fluctuation of public demand. New forms of recreation and suddenly popular activities can be marketed speedily by private operators, while such moves would be difficult, and perhaps occasionally even inappropriate, for a public agency. For example, the private sector has been able to capitalize on the public’s revitalized interest in physical fitness by offering a variety of health clubs and spas that offer classes featuring exercise-intensive activities, such as aerobics or jazzercise. Bicycling and running typify some of the many fitness sports from which private business has also been able to profit.

**Future Opportunities.** In the next five years, opportunities for expanding both the quantity and scope of public-private partnerships will flourish. The reduction in public recreation budgets may be catalysts for implementation of additional partnerships. For example, to increase recreational opportunities for the public as well as increase revenue, the California Department of Parks and Recreation is surveying all of its properties to determine where new public-private partnerships can be established.
CHAPTER III

Issues And Actions For The Next Five Years

This chapter of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan—1993 accomplishes the most important objectives of the plan, which are to:

- Identify the major outdoor recreation issues facing California.
- Recommend a variety of actions useful in addressing those issues.

By satisfying these objectives, the plan provides guidance for the effective expenditure of public money to provide the park and recreation land, facilities, and services most needed by the public at large, and by specific recreationists. The plan can also provide guidance for deployment of the personnel and other resources necessary to provide park and recreation services. Such information is of immediate use to agencies at the local, state, and federal levels of government, as well as to those portions of the private sector engaged in providing outdoor recreation services.

The most critical issues facing outdoor recreation in California were identified and developed by a 14-person advisory committee. The composition of the advisory committee and its method of operation are described in Appendix 1 to this plan, which also describes the overall methodology used to develop the plan. Advisory committee members are identified in Appendix 5.

The advisory committee produced a list of eight issues. Each issue was accompanied by a number of recommended actions by which various levels of government could address the issue. When the staff worked on preparing the plan, they discovered that two of the advisory committee’s eight issues were essentially identical. The two issues were merged into the current Issue 2, Serving a Changing Population.

In addition, federal requirements to address two specific issues, Responding to the Demand for Trails and Halting the Loss of Wetlands, were satisfied by adding them to the committee’s list. Halting the Loss of Wetlands was included in the previous plan, but Responding to the Demand for Trails is a newly mandated issue. Recommended actions were developed by staff for each of the two federally mandated issues.

The final list of issues is:

1. Improving Resource Stewardship
2. Serving a Changing Population
3. Responding to Limited Funding
4. Building Strong Leadership
5. Managing Aging Facilities
6. Expanding Legislative Support and Minimizing Legal Setbacks
7. Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research
8. Responding to the Demand for Trails
9. Halting the Loss of Wetlands

Each of the issue descriptions was developed further by staff, providing more information on its background, current status, and future prospects in an attempt to make clear the importance of the issue to provision of park and recreation facilities and services. Staff also amplified the nature of the actions the advisory committee had recommended for addressing the issues identified.

In addition to general recommendations, recommendations are also made for specific actions that California’s major providers of outdoor recreation can reasonably undertake in the immediate future, and make substantial progress on in the next five years. The lists of specific recommended actions are intended to provide direction to agencies, organizations, and individuals who want to address the most critical outdoor recreation issues currently facing California.

Over the next five years, as California outdoor recreation agencies proceed in their efforts to meet the outdoor recreation needs of the state’s citizens and visitors, they can review the following issues, take the needed directions for change, and implement the most desirable actions.

**ISSUE 1. IMPROVING RESOURCE STEWARDSHIP**

A healthy and genetically diverse natural environment is essential for the well-being and, indeed, the very survival of the human species and its complex, high-energy society. As a result of the rapid growth of the human population and the development of technology, the use, overuse, and misuse of natural systems—air, water, soil, native plants and animals—may be increasing faster than natural processes can adjust. A degraded and stressed natural environment is less supportive of the full range of human pursuits, be it industrial production, residential housing, or outdoor recreation activity.

Californians are clearly concerned about the health of the state’s natural environment. DPR’s 1992 outdoor recreation survey indicates that more than 76 percent of the state’s citizens consider that outdoor recreation is important to the quality of their lives. An astonishing 92 percent of all Californians, which obviously includes many who participate in few, if any, outdoor recreation activities, believe that the quality of the natural setting is an important factor in their enjoyment of outdoor recreation areas. This is certainly important because slightly more than 68 percent of all Californians indicate that their preferred places for outdoor recreation are in natural areas or near-natural parks.
As the health of the natural environment is important to the well-being of society, so a sound cultural environment is also important to a smoothly functioning society. Society’s cultural environment tells its members about their common and diverse origins, and about the social and historical forces that made them what they are today. Some of California’s most important cultural artifacts are preserved in historic buildings, museums and museum villages, and historic and prehistoric sites and areas that are the responsibility of park and recreation agencies. Taking a more active role in cultural affairs, some park and recreation agencies are actually taking steps to perpetuate—as opposed to simply preserving—elements of California’s cultural heritage. These agencies are sponsoring educational and social events, which celebrate the culture of one or more of the ethnic groups in their service areas.

A healthy natural environment is a basic requirement for a high-quality experience in all outdoor recreation activities, whether it involves quiet aesthetic appreciation or intensive and highly physical sports. Wilderness hiking is best in a pristine landscape, sailboating is best on clean water, and a game of softball is best with clean air to breathe. Similarly, well-preserved cultural resources can contribute to positive outdoor recreation experiences by providing interesting destinations for recreation, and informative backgrounds for other outdoor recreation activities. Much more importantly, however, cultural resources can contribute to the overall functioning of contemporary society by assisting individual ethnic groups to maintain their cultural identities, and by helping the entire population to understand and appreciate the state’s ethnic diversity.

The Use, Overuse, and Misuse of Outdoor Recreation Areas. In spite of strong public support for environmental protection, the quality of natural and cultural resources in many parks and recreation areas and the quality of recreational experiences are always at risk. Limited agency budgets; giving priority to recreational uses over resource protection; insufficient staff with expertise in interpreting, maintaining, restoring, and protecting natural and cultural resources; and the frequent failure of management to deal with broad, long-range problems all contribute to this situation.

The protection of natural and cultural resources may be even more significant than the aging of park and recreation area facilities (which is discussed under Issue 5). These resources are the very underpinnings of many park and recreation areas. By the very nature of society in the 1990s, unfortunately, most natural and cultural resources are continually threatened by forces that can diminish them, and can even result in their complete loss.

Such forces include both human and natural ones. The most obvious of the human forces is the activities of recreationists themselves. Too many recreationists can simply overburden and deprecate the natural and cultural resource base. Many parks and recreation areas show the damage caused by recreationists themselves—too many teams wearing out the grass on the soccer field, too many fishermen trampling the fragile shoreline and wetlands around a lake, too many visitors touching the walls of an old adobe, or cutting wood in inadequately protected areas. A more immediately damaging—even catastrophic—visitor threat is vandalism. A misused can of spray paint can deface a prehistoric rock art site. An illegal campfire can permanently scar a pristine desert area.
The natural and cultural resources of parks and recreation areas, moreover, are also lost to the forces of nature. These forces range from gradual weathering processes to catastrophic events such as earthquakes, floods, and fires. The problems that result include outright destruction of resources, decay and disintegration, accelerated erosion, exotic species encroachment, animal population imbalances, disease, and species extinction.

Rehabilitation and restoration of natural areas such as wetlands, native grasslands, or oak woodlands, and their ongoing protection, require special training and experience, meticulous planning, careful execution, and ongoing monitoring of the results to assure that they correspond to those intended. Handling of cultural sites, whether they are prehistoric rock art sites, native American middens, or historic houses, also involves similar careful planning and implementation under the supervision of trained professionals in order to preserve the integrity and authenticity of the sites. Often, park and recreation agencies, especially small- and medium-sized ones, lack the special skills needed, and have to obtain them, at considerable cost, from outside specialists.

When the budgets for park and recreation agencies are reduced, their capacity to care for natural areas and historic buildings and other cultural sites diminishes. There is more wear and tear on these resources, especially in heavily used parks and recreation areas. The level of vandalism against these resources increases, as it does against park and recreation facilities. When human or natural forces finally reach the point that they necessitate rehabilitation and restoration of natural and cultural resources, the effort is costly. The public, however, appears to favor such efforts. When it comes to spending a park agency’s limited budget, almost 61 percent of the respondents to DPR’s 1992 survey said that protection and management of the area’s natural and cultural resources should be increased, even in times of budgetary shortfalls.

**Detrimental Impacts of Environmental Conditions and Land Use Decisions.** While too many users of a park or recreation area can have an adverse impact on it, and a few careless or destructive users can have a highly damaging one, recreational users often do not cause the worst damage to natural and cultural resources. Instead, the most serious damage can be inflicted by sources located outside of the recreation setting.

Off-site impacts include air, water, and noise pollution, which originate outside of parks and recreation areas, but impinge on the areas, reducing the benefits and enjoyment that users can receive from them. These off-site impacts often originate on lands adjacent to the affected park or recreation area, but water and air pollution can also originate on lands long distances upstream and upwind of it. Examples of this are water made unsafe for swimming or unsuitable for fishing by polluting upstream sources. Other examples are air that is not healthy to breathe, and scenic views obscured by haze because of emissions from industrial plants, mines, and automobiles. In the main, these types of degradations of parks and recreation areas have often been tolerated by regulatory agencies and elected officials because the industries and developments that produce them are seen as providing jobs and revenue, and thus park system funding.
These off-site impacts are, nevertheless, extremely unpopular with the public. According to DPR’s 1992 outdoor recreation survey, more than 94 percent of Californians—again an amazing number, which must also include many who are not active recreationists—believe that protection of the natural environment is an important aspect of outdoor recreation. As a reflection of this, more Californians support increased funding for protection and management of natural and cultural resources than any other aspect of park operations.

Zoning and other land-use decisions can also affect parks and recreation areas by placing inappropriate facilities near them. Examples of such inappropriate facilities are liquor stores, major commercial centers that produce heavy traffic, landfills, and heavy industry. If pollution and other off-site impacts are severe enough, they can limit, or even preclude, use of parks and recreation areas.

Other serious damaging impacts on parks and recreation areas stem from political decisions to convert parkland to non-park purposes. For example, cutting a street through a recreation area may allow traffic to move more efficiently. Similarly, putting a school on parkland may provide an educational facility at reduced cost and without the loss of housing or other amenities. In such cases, however, there is often no way—and frequently no intention—to compensate for the loss of parkland.

Disposition of open space in and near metropolitan areas is often subject to political forces similar to those that take park land for non-park purposes. Open space—like parks and recreation areas—is of value because it provides relief from the pressures of day-to-day existence. The public recognizes its importance. Almost two-thirds of the respondents to DPR’s 1992 outdoor recreation survey indicated that more open space should be provided in urban areas.

Even if an open space area is private property, inaccessible to the public, it is, nevertheless, useful because it can provide visual and psychological relief from the development and congestion of the metropolis. Open space owned by public or quasi-public agencies (e.g., water and power companies), but closed to the public, also provides similar benefits. In this latter category are transmission corridors and reservoirs.

If, however, an open space area is public property and is accessible, it not only provides visual and psychological relief, but also physical relief from the clamor of the city. In addition, accessible public open space can provide outdoor recreational opportunities, usually of an informal nature such as relaxing, picnicking, walking or jogging, unstructured play, and pick-up games. Public open space often provides trails, which sometimes traverse long distances and link several parks and recreation areas. Accessible public open space often provides a significant supplement to formal parks and recreation areas.

Both public and private open space can provide several other benefits. Each helps to preserve urban form by differentiating and constraining disparate urban functions (such as low- and high-density residential, commercial, and light and heavy industrial areas). If open space is large and continuous enough, it can provide wildlife corridors, which can assist the survival of wildlife species, especially larger ones, that would otherwise be limited to isolated remnants of their habitat, and probably
doomed by their confinement. Finally, open space adds to the value of nearby built-up property. Despite the public’s preference for increasing urban open space, it tends to be progressively lost to development, and to expansion of urban facilities. Open space is lost inside urban areas through such activities as infilling of private open space (for example, construction of facilities on previously vacant sites) and intensification of use in existing developments (for example, construction of a large office complex to replace a smaller office building and the space around it). Open space is lost on the urban fringe through outward expansion of the suburbs.

The problem of open space loss can be seen by reviewing the status of county and city general plans, which are mandated by state law, and which must be updated at least once every five years. Each general plan is required to have seven elements (land use, circulation, housing, open space, conservation, safety, and noise). The plan also can have as many optional elements as planners and planning commissions consider necessary. A recreational element is among the optional elements that can be included.

Each general plan element is supposed to provide standards, goals, and implementation techniques for achieving a suitable level of quality in the area it regulates. Unfortunately, only 31 percent of county land use elements and 18 percent of county open space elements have been updated in the last five years. Only 25 of the state’s 58 counties, furthermore, have recreational elements. Of these, only one is less than five years old, and 14 are very old, having been written in the ’60s and ’70s. Only 49 percent of city land use elements and 44 percent of city open space elements are less than five years old. Only 97 of 467 incorporated cities (or about 21 percent) have recreation elements. Of these, only 21 are less than five years old, 30 were prepared in the ’60s and ’70s, and one dates back to 1959.

**Limited Scope or Efficacy of Agency Activities in Resource Management.** Political support for resource management is often weak, making it difficult to establish unpopular restrictions, and giving more agency attention to quick fixes for short-run problems than to solid solutions for long-range problems. In many resource fields, there is a lack of problem-specific technical information by which the managing agency can detect and effectively deal with resource problems.

Park and recreation agencies have often demonstrated limited willingness or ability to protect either parkland or urban open space and such related needs as urban form, trails, and wildlife corridors. Some agencies have refused to acquire sensitive resource areas out of concern about the cost of managing them.

Frequently, park and recreation providers have chosen to avoid controversy by staying away from the decision-making and environmental-review processes that govern changes in land use such as the building out of urban functions into open space areas, or the regulation of off-site impacts on their land and facilities. When park and recreation providers have participated, it has usually been to meet required minimum levels of compliance with the environmental review process. In the past half-decade, however, some park and recreation agencies have chosen to fight to protect the quality of their lands by taking active positions against land-use decisions that would have impinged unfavorably on those lands. While the results have been mixed, there have been some important gains in protecting both urban open space and parks and recreation areas.

To deal with the concern for protecting environmental quality and its impact on outdoor recreation, a number of general recommendations can be made.
1. ADOPT THE CONCEPT OF STEWARDSHIP

To help assure that parks and recreation areas are protected from excessive wear and from misuse, the agencies managing them should apply and give high priority to the concept of stewardship to their resources. The concept of stewardship prescribes that park and recreation agency managers treat natural and cultural resources as though they were entrusted to them for the use, enjoyment, and improvement not only of present users, but, more importantly, of future generations.

The concept of stewardship helps agencies enhance a sense of permanence and stability in their units, which is one of the benefits of maintaining parks and recreation areas in an ever-changing society. Stewardship, moreover, can be particularly important in helping park and recreation managers maintain resource values when they are under pressure to accommodate development, provide novel programs and activities, or raise revenue.

2. ESTABLISH A SPECIFIC RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

Some park and recreation agencies, especially larger ones, have already established programs to manage and protect natural and cultural resources. Those agencies that have important natural and cultural resources and have not established resource management programs should do so at the earliest time feasible. Even agencies that manage only developed parks and recreation areas that have been landscaped with introduced plants and trees should consider introducing resource management in order to help maintain their units in the best possible condition.

An agency’s efforts to manage its natural and cultural resources can be improved by giving that function a specific, defined identity that clearly has high priority and full support at every level of the organization. The nature, purpose, and importance of resource management must be made explicit in the agency’s mission, planning, organization, and budget, and in its selection, training, and evaluation of its staff.

Resource management efforts require greatly increased knowledge of the current status of an agency’s natural and cultural resource base. Baseline information is needed on the current condition of those resources. Once this information has been documented, the condition of the resource base must be continuously monitored for significant changes. This level of information is essential to identifying resource problems and determining which of these require a response. Only with such information can priorities be established and long-run problems be identified and resolved. This information also sensitizes the organization to the importance of resource management.

Resource protection must include rehabilitation and restoration of resources already degraded or damaged. Major land management agencies should establish programs to restore viable natural systems on an appropriate scale. Among the common efforts in such a program would be prescribed burning of range and forest land, development of new and enhanced wetland areas, and reintroduction of native plant and animal species to areas where remaining populations have been reduced to too low a level to sustain themselves in healthy condition, or from which they have already been lost. Similarly, where appropriate, resource management should also institute programs to restore cultural resources to as-close-to-original condition as feasible. (Plans for restoration of natural and cultural resources should be included in agencies’ maintenance plans. The maintenance planning function is discussed under Issue 5, Managing Aging Facilities.)
Resource protection in parks and recreation areas requires involvement in resource problems that originate outside agency boundaries. Agency managers should participate actively with local planning and land-use agencies and commissions. They should also be involved in local and regional organizations, agencies, and commissions that deal with potential off-site threats to park resources.

Resource-management efforts require practical, task-specific research and technical assistance. Expertise from other agencies, academic organizations, and the private sector should be used and shared. (This is a potential function for the park and recreation clearinghouse discussed under Issue 7, Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research.)

3. ASSURE THAT APPROPRIATE RESOURCE MANAGEMENT SKILLS ARE AVAILABLE

Preservation and restoration of both natural and cultural resources requires special knowledge and skills, which park and recreation agencies, especially small- and medium-sized organizations, often lack. There are a number of alternatives open to these agencies for obtaining the skills they need.

Formal training in the techniques of protecting natural and cultural resources is available, and, if appropriate, should be provided to key employees working with these types of resources. In many cases, however, formal training programs are too time-consuming and costly. In those cases, it may be more effective to learn the techniques of preserving natural and cultural resources by working with experienced practitioners in the field. For this type of hands-on training, it may be appropriate to use interagency exchanges to place an employee from one agency in a working relationship with a skilled practitioner from another agency. Once a core capability exists in an agency, management should assure that the capability is perpetuated by assigning promising, less experienced employees to learn necessary resource management skills by working with the agency’s specialists.

Some resource management skills are so specialized, and require such extensive academic training, however, that few, if any agencies can justify having them permanently on staff. Agencies that need such skills can often obtain them by contracting with outside experts.

As an alternative, park and recreation agencies can share specialized resource management personnel to maximize the availability and use of their expertise. To do so, park and recreation agency managers must develop working agreements among themselves, with academic institutions, and with the private sector for sharing resource management specialists.

The tasks of finding interagency locations for on-the-job training in resource management and of coordinating the sharing of specialized resource management skills can potentially be accomplished by the park and recreation clearinghouse discussed under Issue 7, Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research.
4. REDUCE OVERUSE AND MISUSE OF PARKS AND RECREATION AREAS

The concept of an area’s carrying capacity should be used to assess the number of visitors and the type of visitor activities that can be allowed in a given park or recreation area. Using the concept of carrying capacity can reduce the risk of irreversibly damaging the resources themselves, or of diminishing the quality of recreational experiences.

Park and recreation agencies can reduce excessive use of environmentally sensitive areas by acquiring new land that is not rich in natural and cultural resources, and developing recreational facilities on it. Alternatively, agencies can accomplish the same goal by permitting recreation activities on land from which it had previously been forbidden (such as utility corridors and reservoirs), or by making private land available for public recreation.

Without adding to the land they have available, which may be difficult in the current economic situation, park and recreation agencies can also reduce the pressure on existing resource-rich units by applying such techniques to disperse users as informing them of nearby alternative sites, offering them incentives to spread their uses to less-used units, limiting the availability of parking, prohibiting or restricting campfires, and requiring reservations for camping and picnicking facilities.

The design of visitor facilities can also serve to direct visitor use away from fragile natural and cultural resources, or to lead visitors to less sensitive areas the locations of which may not be obvious. If certain activities cause resource damage, however, they may have to be limited to areas where the resources are least fragile, or prohibited altogether. Finally, the existence and content of basic park rules and regulations should be made obvious to visitors through improved signing, handouts, maps, and personal contacts by staff members. Where visitors are not fluent in English, signs and informational materials should be available in the appropriate foreign languages, and at least some staff members should speak those languages.

( Techniques for reducing overuse and crowding of parks and recreation areas are discussed in more detail under Issue 5, Managing Aging Facilities.)

5. MAKE THE PUBLIC MORE AWARE OF RESOURCE VALUES

Broad public support for natural resource management will come only to the degree that members of the public know the facts, appreciate the values, expect good management from park and recreation agencies, and behave in a manner that respects the integrity of natural and cultural resources. A major educational effort will be needed to accomplish this end.

This education effort should be promoted through the Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians, which is presented in Chapter I of this plan. This statement is brief, simple, and easily understood. Such an ethical statement should serve as a foundation for development of educational programs, and for enforcement of resource-related regulations. The Department of Parks and
Recreation should solicit support for it from park and recreation organizations at all levels of government, from outdoor and environmental groups, from community and youth organizations, and from opinion leaders, such as newspapers and radio and television stations.

There are three major target groups for the ethics statement and associated educational programs:

- People who live in urban core areas and who, from their urban background, have not had the opportunity to understand or appreciate the value of park and recreation resources.

- Members of new immigrant groups coming from nations and cultures with natural and cultural resource values that are significantly different from those commonly accepted in California.

- People whose careless or deprecative behavior indicates a personal insensitivity to the resources.

Improved public support for resource management requires that both the values underlying the ethics statement and factual information on the subject be promoted through public service advertisements in both electronic and print media. These materials should also be disseminated directly by park and recreation agencies to their clientele in the languages with which they are most comfortable. In addition to written materials, interpretive displays and programs serve to better inform and motivate visitors. The agencies’ own efforts on resource management and other environmental activities will also help to influence the public.

Most important of all, special attention should be paid to the education of schoolchildren--the citizens, recreationists, and voters of tomorrow. Materials on values can be understood by the lower grades, with more sophisticated, factual information offered to higher grades. Such information is appropriate as part of such curricula as citizenship, science, and social science. Material distributed to students can also be designed to reach their parents.

6. COOPERATE WITH OTHER AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS TO ACHIEVE ENVIRONMENTAL GOALS

In their own operations, everyone connected with park and recreation agencies--managers, supervisors, employees, contractors, volunteers--should make a good-faith effort not only to comply with environmental laws, but also to adhere to good environmental practices. In this respect, park and recreation agencies should provide a model of environmental responsibility for other agencies and organizations to follow. For example, rangers and other personnel should be made as aware of the importance of violations against resources as they are of violations against persons and property. For another example, housekeeping and janitorial functions should encompass recycling, saving water, and minimizing energy consumption.
In addition, park and recreation providers should work with other agencies and organizations to accomplish a wide range of environmental goals directly or indirectly related to maintaining recreation areas in good condition for the enjoyment of present and future users. Some of these activities include:

- Working with planning departments, planning commissions, and city councils and boards of supervisors to assure that general plan elements are updated (and, in the case of optional recreational elements, are written), and that their provisions are enforced. The goal should be to manage urban growth to protect recreation resources and open space.

- Cooperating with planning departments and commissions to provide urban open space for such needs as preserving urban form, providing greenbelts, and developing trails and corridors.

- Working with the Department of Fish and Game on endangered species protection.

- Acting with agencies such as planning commissions, departments of sanitation, air resources boards, and water quality control boards to mitigate or eliminate the deleterious off-site impacts on park and recreation land and facilities of air, water, and noise pollution.

- Performing environmental reviews under the terms of the California Environmental Quality Act and the National Environmental Policy Act to assert the needs of the reviewing park and recreation agencies, and especially of the resources themselves.

7. SECURE ADEQUATE FUNDING FOR RESOURCE-MANAGEMENT PROJECTS

Proper natural resource management requires sufficient funding to pay for the land acquisition, specialized personnel, training, equipment and materials, research, and outreach efforts needed to build an effective program. Agency resource-management programs have, in the past, relied heavily on annual operating funds, particularly the general fund. With the decreasing amount of such funding available to most agencies, park and outdoor recreation agencies should seek alternative sources of funding to support resource protection efforts.

Resource-management programs can make more use of volunteer help, especially on more routine tasks. Many academic institutions offer credit to students doing special projects in their fields of study. Friends-of-the-parks groups and foundations can sometimes provide funding, expertise, and labor for needed resource-related projects. Small amounts of agency seed money can pay dividends with such groups.

Resource protection work can be facilitated through more partnership efforts, making common cause with other agencies or the private sector. New or redesigned public works projects may be designed to restore and protect natural and cultural resources in addition to their primary purposes.
SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR IMPROVING RESOURCE STEWARDSHIP

- Give high priority to protecting and preserving natural and cultural resources.

- Incorporate the concept of stewardship as a governing principle in the treatment of natural and cultural resources. Include stewardship in the agency’s mission statement, job descriptions, training programs, and performance review procedures -- all agencies.

- Prepare an inventory of natural and cultural resources for which the agency is responsible. Make the inventory as detailed as possible, but at a minimum, describe the current conditions of the resources, and identify the most threatened -- all agencies.

- Develop specific plans for managing the natural and cultural resources for which the agency is responsible. Make these plans as all-inclusive as possible, but at a minimum, plan to prevent damage to these resources -- all agencies.

- Monitor and protect the natural and cultural resources for which the agency is responsible. If necessary, concentrate on those you consider most threatened -- all agencies.

- If appropriate, seek outside help with inventory and management plans. Consider the local university or college department of biology or botany, school of forestry or agriculture, or department of recreation and leisure studies; arboretum; or chapter of the California Native Plant Society for assistance with natural resources. Seek private-sector expertise. Consider the university or college school of architecture or department of anthropology, or local architectural and historic-preservation organizations, for assistance with cultural resources -- all agencies.

- Promote sharing of specialized resource-management personnel to maximize the availability and use of their expertise.

- Develop cooperative agreements among park and recreation agencies and between park and recreation agencies and academic institutions for sharing resource-management specialists -- DPR, all other park and recreation agencies with significant responsibilities for natural or cultural resources.

- Work with the private sector to develop programs for sharing resource-management expertise -- DPR, all other park and recreation agencies with significant responsibilities for natural or cultural resources.
- Take joint, multiagency actions to preserve open space in and near urban areas, emphasizing land already in public ownership.

- Develop regional and local inventories of open space lands -- all local park and recreation agencies in conjunction with local and regional planning commissions.

- Support establishment of permanent open space zones, and protection of critical natural (or near-natural) habitats -- all agencies.

- Consider legislation to elevate the recreation elements of city and county general plans from optional to mandated status. Additionally, such legislation should include standards governing the adequacy of local general plans, and the need to keep them current -- CPRS, DPR.

- In land acquisition, grant programs, and land use regulations, emphasize and enforce protection and, where appropriate, recreational use of wetlands -- all land management agencies in conjunction with local and regional planning commissions. (See Issue 9 for other specific actions on wetlands.)

- Work with non-park agencies to protect existing parks and recreation areas from off-site damage.

- Work with planning commissions, departments of sanitation, air resources boards, water quality control boards, the Department of Fish and Game, and other agencies, as appropriate, to mitigate the impacts of air, water, and noise pollution, and threats to endangered species -- all agencies.

- Promote the Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians.

- Develop a public relations campaign to secure distribution of the Code of Ethics to the public, especially to youth. Try to recruit an advertising or public relations firm to donate the effort to prepare basic handout material incorporating and explaining the Code of Ethics, and to prepare several radio and television public affairs spots about the Code of Ethics -- DPR, CPRS.

- Solicit endorsements of and support for the Code of Ethics from local, state, and federal park and recreation agencies, outdoor and environmental groups, community and youth organizations, and the print and broadcast media -- DPR.

- Begin to incorporate the Code of Ethics into training and operations -- DPR, all participating agencies.

- Develop plans to distribute copies of the Code of Ethics and related information to visitors to the parks and recreation areas operated by each of the participating local, state, and federal agencies -- DPR, all participating local, state, and federal agencies.
ISSUE 2. SERVING A CHANGING POPULATION

Since serving people is one of the central purposes for providing parks and outdoor recreation facilities, it is critical that recreation professionals know and understand their constituencies—what they are, and what it is that they need and want. This knowledge is particularly difficult to obtain in California, where the population is growing, changing, diversifying, and moving at a rate never seen anywhere before, and where the changes in one jurisdiction may be quite different from the changes in another jurisdiction, just a few miles away.

Growth and Change of Population. More than sheer numbers, it is the increase in population diversity that is perhaps the most critical of the state’s demographic issues. The dominant white population, now a slow-growing and aging segment of the whole, is expected to fall below 50 percent of the total population around 2000. By then, ethnic minorities, especially relatively youthful people of largely Latin American and Asian origin, will dramatically increase their numbers. The African-American population is expected to remain a stable component of the total state population.

In the past, many park and recreation areas, facilities, and programs were designed for the white majority of the population. In addition, park rules and regulations reflected the values of the dominant culture. There have been exceptions to this situation. For many years, a number of agricultural towns in the San Joaquin and Imperial Valleys and some independent cities in the greater Los Angeles and San Diego regions have provided services, including park and recreation facilities and programs, to non-white--largely Hispanic--majorities. Until the last decade, however, these towns and cities have essentially been anomalies in the overall picture. In the immediate future, the newcomers, particularly the large numbers of immigrants who comprise ethnic and cultural minorities, will have to be accommodated both into the general society and into the clientele of public park and outdoor recreation agencies and private-sector suppliers of recreation opportunities.

The current offerings of a large number of park and recreation agencies, however, often appear inappropriate (or even irrelevant) to many segments of today’s population—the increasing number of elderly with special needs; the various members of non-traditional households, such as those headed by single parents, and those with two wage earners; and those recent immigrants with different interests, less disposable income, and limited command of English. Some of this new constituency reflects values and needs very different from the mainstream California recreationists of a decade or two ago.

For most park and recreation providers, accommodation will require changes not only in the services delivered, but also in the manner in which services are delivered. Some city park and recreation agencies, which do not operate natural or historical parks and recreation areas, can—with the limits of their budgets—make whatever changes to their lands and facilities are required to accommodate new users. In contrast, those park and recreation agencies that do operate units with significant natural and cultural resources will have to protect those resources and take the steps necessary to educate new users about the values of those resources.
Absence of Reliable Information on the Demographics of Potential Park Visitors. Many park and recreation suppliers, public and private alike, lack accurate and current information on the basic demographics of the people who are potential visitors and users. To respond properly to current public needs, administrators need to know the population of their jurisdiction or service area—such characteristics as number, ethnicity, age, income, household status, and educational attainment. It is also important to have information on the probable short-range (five years) trends for the most critical demographic characteristics.

Need for Information on and Sensitivity to the Park and Recreation Needs of Specific Population Groups. In addition to basic demographic data on the relevant service areas, it is also critical that park and recreation agencies develop specific information on—and organizational sensitivity to—the meaning of these data in terms of the actual provision of park and recreation services. It is one thing to know the clientele statistically in terms of its ethnicity, age, income, and household status; it is another to know what recreation opportunities the people represented by the demographic data actually want. It is clear, however, that the attitudes toward outdoor recreation, which many of the rapidly expanding ethnic groups hold, are not well understood by current agency managers.

Introduction of Social Programs into the Responsibilities of Park and Recreation Agencies. The parks and outdoor recreation function can no longer be seen as a stereotypical collection of land and associated facilities, staffed with recreation leaders and rangers, offering a traditional group of outdoor-oriented activities and programs. There is an increasing demand that public park and recreation agencies provide the public with facilities and programs different from what they offered in the past.

More and more, outdoor recreation professionals are being called on to deal with a number of social problems and issues that are either manifesting themselves in parks and recreation areas, or are now being assigned to park and recreation agencies. Reflecting a broader clientele base and new organizational expectations, park agencies are becoming increasingly involved with such youth issues as providing child care, supervising latchkey kids, and intervening in behalf of youth-at-risk. Other social concerns now being placed under the purview of park and recreation agencies include literacy programs, senior feeding programs, and assistance to the homeless.

The Costs of Revenue Generation. Funding is a critical issue in the park and recreation field. Fiscal problems are forcing more and more agencies to alter their management and especially their programs both to reduce costs, to increase revenues, and to be more cost-effective. More efforts are being made to reduce the agency’s demands on the jurisdiction’s general fund, and these efforts will affect the clientele of park and recreation agencies in a variety of ways. (The problems posed by the absence of adequate parks and recreation funding are discussed in detail under Issue 3, Responding to Limited Funding)

The most obvious effect is that free or modestly priced programs are a drain on agencies’ budgets. As a result, these types of programs have either been turned into fee programs (or their fees have been increased), or they have been curtailed or eliminated. These responses work to exclude the groups that cannot afford the charges. In austere fiscal times, facility development is likely to be
biased increasingly toward money-making projects. New and experimental programs and facilities, which do not have guaranteed acceptance and revenue-generating potential, may be less likely to be undertaken, even though they could have highly beneficial outcomes.

To deal with the issue of how to understand and accommodate a rapidly growing and evolving population, a number of general actions can be recommended to park and recreation agencies.

1. DETERMINE THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE POPULATIONS SERVED

The problem of not knowing or of misunderstanding the characteristics of the population to be served can be dealt with in a variety of ways. The basic requirement in understanding the populations served by park and recreation agencies is to do the research and analysis needed to know the current and evolving characteristics of those populations. This task is particularly critical where changes are clearly in progress, such as aging of the population, changes in household income, and, especially, shifting of its ethnic composition as a result of the influx of significant numbers of immigrants.

This task is made relatively easy in the early part of the decade by the recent availability of data from the 1990 federal census. Enormous detail is available for even small geographic areas, some through published data, and all of it on magnetic tapes. Agencies and organizations lacking the staff capability to develop the needed information can often obtain it from local and regional planning agencies, from specialists in the private sector, or from the academic community. The California Department of Finance can also provide certain basic demographic information, some of which is updated annually.

It is important to determine early in the data-collection effort which of the demographic characteristics of the constituency are most relevant to the agency or entrepreneur. Age, ethnicity, household structure, and income are perhaps the four characteristics to examine first. Also important is the geographic location of the various interests in the community. Depending on the speed of the population shifts, it may be important to examine population characteristics two or three times between the decennial census.

2. RESPOND TO THE NEEDS OF THE ETHNIC POPULATIONS TO BE SERVED

Recreation suppliers need to learn, understand, and be sensitive to the values, desires, and needs that underlie the demographic statistics for their jurisdictions or service areas. Getting to the human dimension is the real payoff to getting the material described in 1, above.

Recreation professionals already have good information about the needs of some of the more traditional special groups, such as pre-school children, senior citizens, and certain segments of the disabled population. Information is also available about low-income citizens. Much of this information, however, tends to relate largely to the historic white majority population.
It is changing ethnicity, however, that is the major demographic trend in California, and is, perhaps, the dimension that is most challenging. It is not too strong a generalization to say that a major effort will be needed for government services of all types—not just parks and recreation—to accommodate the ethnic groups that are expanding in California. Some people from Latin America and southeast Asia appear to have outdoor recreation backgrounds, interests, and expectations that are vastly different from those held by the white majority population historically served by park and recreation agencies.

A number of examples can be found to demonstrate the range of these differences. Many people of Hispanic origin are comfortable picnicking, but are ill at ease camping. Many Hispanic men and boys also prefer playing soccer to playing baseball or football. Koreans consider fiddleneck ferns to be a delicacy; the Angeles National Forest has established a season and rules for harvesting fiddlenecks to assure that collection is fair and does not damage the resource. In contrast, some Chinese consider desert tortoises to have medicinal properties, but their harvest is prohibited because they are an endangered species.

Because of the diversity of new ethnic groups (many of which consist of a wide range of subgroups), however, it is impossible to do more than give examples. In fact, a major task of park and recreation agencies is to make solid contact with these groups to determine their wants and needs.

Surveys, identification of and communication with group leaders, use of focus groups, and appointments to advisory committees and study groups are all means toward understanding these groups and working to accommodate their values and needs. (In some cases, it may be feasible to involve representatives of underserved populations in broad-based advisory committees or study groups. In other cases, it may be more comfortable—and, consequently, more productive—for representatives of a single ethnic group or other underserved interest to meet separately from other representatives of the community.)

The cost of involving all populations and determining the needs of the entire clientele can be considerable. There are costs for the research necessary to develop essential information. Implementing inclusionary programs can be expensive, involving the cost of such things as communication (e.g., conducting meetings, performing studies, advertising on radio and television), hiring new staff, and training current staff. Paying these costs initially, however, can effectively involve new populations in park and recreation activities, and avoid future conflicts, which can impair agencies’ image and public support.

3. MODIFY PROGRAMS AND SERVICES TO MEET EMERGING NEEDS

Once park and outdoor recreation providers have determined the demographics and the needs of major groups, it remains for these providers to alter the offerings, ambience, and sensitivity of the organization. Initially, the entire organization needs to be made knowledgeable and sensitive to the differences presented by the new groups. Channels of focused communication need to be developed as participation of these groups is cultivated. Outreach efforts range from group presentations to preparation of written materials in the language of potential new users.
To further encourage participation by ethnic minorities, a concerted effort can be made to hire representatives of each group, making interaction with the groups more comfortable for everyone. Where appropriate, programming that is specialized in both content and language can be developed for the new groups.

4. PROVIDE NEEDED SOCIAL SERVICES

Park and recreation agencies are being increasingly called on to serve demographic groups with needs not previously encountered. Managers should accept the fact, and consider it an opportunity when non-traditional functions are added to the responsibility of their agencies. Park and recreation professionals need to become informed and comfortable about a new range of social needs such as child care, substance abuse, youth-at-risk, literacy, and whatever other social functions are being undertaken under the auspices of traditional, mainline park and recreation agencies.

In particular, the problem of ethnic tension is a major issue in our society. If progress is to be made in reducing—and ultimately eliminating—it, proactive steps have to be taken to address the problem. Park and recreation agencies have staff and facilities that can be used to provide services that significantly reduce the problem. Special emphasis should be given to multicultural events (e.g., ethnic foods potlucks) and other programs that bring people together. It is not only necessary for park and recreation providers and the communities they serve to recognize that ethnic differences exist, they must celebrate the differences, cultivate alliances among ethnic groups, and build community spirit.

Such additional program responsibilities offer an opportunity to enrich park and recreation programs. They can add new dimensions to old programs. They can provide the agency with new clientele, who may become park and recreation supporters. New functions sometimes allow park and recreation agencies to participate in new funding programs from other areas, such as social services and health care. In this combination, performance of these functions can reduce budget conflicts with social service and health care agencies when both are serving similar people.

Acquiring the skills to accomplish the new programs may require hiring additional staff members, using staff borrowed from other agencies, employing part-time personnel, or using appropriate volunteers. Extensive training may be required to assure that personnel are qualified to provide the needed services.

5. MAKE FACILITIES AND PROGRAMS AVAILABLE TO THOSE WHO NEED THEM

To properly serve the public, agencies must make every effort to make their facilities and programs available to all who need them. At the same time, funding challenges put intense pressure on park and recreation managers to plan their programs and activities with an eye toward another objective—revenue generation.
With many agencies, there is the conflicting pressure to open their programs to everyone—including the less affluent and the newcomers—and to generate revenue in a challenging economic climate. There is strong pressure to cut back on programs that are expensive, and to increase those that can pay their way. New facilities are judged on their revenue-generating ability. Yet services for those with limited incomes must not be halted.

Ways must be developed, nevertheless, which will assure that activities and programs are offered to everyone, and that even those for which fees and charges are levied can be offered to some who cannot pay the full amount. In the former case, programs that make money can be used to subsidize those that do not. Where high program charges exclude a significant number of individuals who would otherwise be interested, there can be scholarships for those in demonstrable need, low-cost options (e.g., the same class without the field trip), or periods where the fee is waived (e.g., free entry one day a week). Outside organizations can be recruited to sponsor and subsidize important programs, especially in locations affording access to a targeted population.

Until all elements of the state’s population have a role in designing relevant agency programs, the total population will not be well served, and the agencies will not be doing their job or earning the necessary public support. Nor will the agencies enjoy the political support of their entire constituency.

**SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR SERVING A CHANGING POPULATION**

- Determine the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the agency’s general public, and its actual or potential user groups. Determine their attitudes toward and needs for outdoor recreation.

- Analyze census data to determine demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. Concentrate on identifying and characterizing new and minority populations. If the technical skills to do this are unavailable in the agency or jurisdiction, consider asking a local university or college for assistance -- all agencies.

- Develop guidelines for agencies to prepare and conduct studies of attitudes toward and needs for outdoor recreation. Concentrate on new and minority populations, and on underserved populations -- DPR

- Determine the attitudes toward and needs for outdoor recreation. Concentrate on new and minority populations, and on underserved populations. If the technical skills to do this are not available in the agency or jurisdiction, consider requesting assistance from a local university or college -- all agencies.

- Modify programs and services, to the extent feasible, to extend outdoor recreation services to new populations, and to currently underserved populations.
— Institute staff training to help make them aware of and sensitive to the expectations and needs of new and underserved populations -- all agencies.

— When positions are open, try to hire persons from the new populations -- all agencies.

— Provide at least basic materials and signage in the language (or languages) of the major group (or groups) of new users -- all agencies.

— Develop events and programs relevant to the cultural backgrounds of the new populations in your service area. For those who fall below the poverty level, attempt to find and provide subsidies and incentives for participants. Friends-of-the-parks groups, local service groups and businesses, and foundations are possible sources of funding -- all agencies.

— If funds are available for acquiring land or developing facilities, locate acquisitions and facilities for the convenience of new or underserved populations -- all agencies.

Identify and provide needed social services. Consider the capabilities of the agency’s land, facilities, and staff, and their availability to supplement the capabilities of other, more conventional providers.

— Work actively with health, welfare, community service, police, and other agencies to provide needed social programs -- all agencies.

— Provide necessary training and support for staff members who will be responsible for the new social programs. Add staff members, if necessary -- all agencies.

**ISSUE 3. RESPONDING TO LIMITED FUNDING**

In the mid-1980s, most of California’s public park and recreation agencies were relatively well funded, with many of them expanding their land base, their facilities and programs, and their overall levels of service. The situation is very different in the early 1990s. Most park and recreation agencies have already taken significant steps to increase their efficiency and eliminate waste; raise more revenue through fees and charges; and delay purchases, acquisitions, and maintenance. Many agencies are now making cuts that threaten to reduce their ability to provide needed public services.

**Reduction of Revenue.** Proposition 13, which passed in 1978, has severely restricted the growth of the property tax. Proposition 13 was designed to halt what many citizens perceived as a rapid increase in property taxes across the state. The impact of passing Proposition 13 was the abrupt reduction of the property tax rate to one percent of assessed value, and the limitation of its future growth to two percent per year. This was a critical change for the state, since the property tax was a vital source of local government income. Post-Proposition 13, the property tax remains a major source of income for local governments, but on a much more restricted scale.
The magnitude of the change imposed by Proposition 13 is easy to measure. During the fiscal year immediately following its passage, local government property tax receipts fell from $10 billion statewide to approximately half that amount. For two years, the state cushioned the full impact of Proposition 13 by providing limited replacement funding.

Proposition 4 closely followed Proposition 13. It passed in 1979, and put a ceiling—the so-called “Gann limit”—on expenditures by both local and state government. A period of high inflation delayed the impact of the Gann limit, but by the late 1980s, the ceiling imposed by Proposition 4 was reached, and actually began to have an impact on all state and local government agencies, including park and recreation providers. In addition, the current recession is reducing tax revenues to government, while, at the same time, putting greater demand on many of its services.

In its fiscal year 1993-94 budget, the state shifted $2.6 million in property tax revenue from local governments to fund public schools. This transfer affects counties and special districts more severely than the cities because they are more dependent on property-tax revenue than are the cities. The transfer affects special districts particularly severely because the budget passes their property tax revenue through the counties, allowing the counties considerable discretion as to how much of those funds to pass on.

Tax revenues are not the only funding sources that have been reduced during the last two decades. There have also been tremendous reductions and restrictions in both federal and state programs offering financial grants to state and local park and recreation agencies. The federal Land and Water Conservation Fund, once a major source of money for land acquisition and facility development, in fiscal year 1992 is providing only $1.2 million to California, about 4.5 percent of the revenue that it provided to the state at its high point in fiscal year 1979. Money formerly allocated to the states for their use and for local governments has been shifted to federal park and multiple-use land-management agencies—the National Park Service, Forest Service, Bureau of Land Management, and Fish and Wildlife Service.

Representing the trend toward restricted funding, the Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act (ISTEA) was enacted in 1992, and includes programs that either directly or indirectly support recreational trails. In the former category, the National Recreational Trails Act (NRTA) provides up to $30 million per year from the federal fuel tax to be distributed to the states for direct support of recreational trail projects. For fiscal year 1992, however, Congress appropriated only $7.5 million, of which California received only $293,000. Future funding is subject to appropriation by Congress. In the category of providing indirect funding for outdoor recreation, the Transportation Enhancement Activities Program will fund bicycle and pedestrian transportation trails, scenic byways, and congestion management and air-quality improvement. These funds are intended primarily for transportation purposes, rather than recreational ones. Many trails, nevertheless, that have both transportation and recreational uses can qualify for funding. For the first round of Transportation Enhancement Activities funding in California, which covers approximately two years, of the $65 million available for all purposes, $30 million was allocated to bicycle and pedestrian facilities and to acquisition of rail corridors for bicycle and pedestrian trails. The Transportation Enhancement Activities Program is funded for the duration of the ISTEA, and is not subject to yearly appropriation by Congress.
At the state level, park and recreation bond acts, once a regular source of substantial amounts of capital outlay money for state and local agencies, have, in recent years, become less frequent. A park bond measure on the ballot in November 1990 was defeated, along with most other measures on the ballot. It was only the second defeat for a park bond measure in more than 30 years.

Other recent statewide measures related to park and recreation funding have been supported by the public, but have been written so as to reserve the majority of the revenue for purposes other than parks and recreation projects. For example, five percent of the revenue from the Tobacco Tax Fund, which was created by Proposition 99 in 1988, is divided equally between state and local park projects and wildlife projects. (The remainder of the fund is used for treatment, research, and education related to use of tobacco.) For another example, the Habitat Conservation Fund, created by Proposition 117 in June 1990, is entirely dedicated to habitat protection.

The impact of budget restrictions is exacerbated by a distinct and substantial undervaluation of park and recreation services by many elected and appointed public officials. These leaders do not appreciate the positive role of parks and open space in the economies of the communities in which they are located. These officials also do not see the less tangible benefits that flow from outdoor recreation such as improved public health and fitness, reduced social tensions, and increased quality of life. Because recreation is not a mandated function of government, and because many of the state’s elected and appointed officials feel it is an enjoyable function, but not an essential one, park and recreation agencies suffer in budget competition with sister agencies in such fields as health, safety, education, and law enforcement. A particularly important example of this interagency competition is provided by Proposition 98 (passed in November 1988), which guarantees California’s public schools a percentage of the state’s revenue, limiting the funds available to other programs, and heavily affecting non-mandated ones.

Also in the last few years, a variety of new health, safety, and access regulations have been imposed, not only by the federal government, but also by the state and even by local governments. These reflect a broad range of concerns such as pesticide safety, water quality, sewage treatment, asbestos removal, earthquake protection, and access for the disabled. In addition, a number of judicial decisions have found for plaintiffs against park and recreation agencies (and also other government agencies), resulting in increased costs for liability insurance and other risk management measures.

New regulations combined with the increased cost of liability protection add heavy new fiscal obligations to park and recreation agencies at all levels.

With the increasingly keen competition for limited public funding, most park and recreation agencies began looking for new means of obtaining funding and other resources. (For all the emphasis on new funding, it must be emphasized that the jurisdiction’s general fund remains the most important single source of funds for the vast majority of park and recreation agencies.) Most notably, agency managers have made a concerted attempt to increase agency-generated revenue by increasing user fees, by entering into concession agreements for recreation-related services, and by developing programs and staging special events for which fees can be charged. Agencies that have been effective in charging fees and in charging for activities have been successful in compensating for some of the loss of funding that resulted from passage of Proposition 13.
DPR’s 1987 survey of the state’s park and recreation agencies showed that fee-derived revenue, combined with income from concessions and profit-making activities, totalled more than $200 million in fiscal year 1985-86, nearly double the total five years earlier. The amount of income generated by fees and charges helps to explain the substantial recovery agencies made by the mid-1980s from the negative impact of Proposition 13. (Information is not available on the income that park and recreation agencies currently raise from fees and charges.)

As a downside to using fees and charges to support park and recreation agencies, an increasing amount of effort is going into developing facilities and programs from which money can be made, not to make a profit, which is prohibited by Proposition 4, but to cut down the net cost of the services provided. Increasingly, park and recreation facilities are being built or remodeled and programs are being offered based, in large part, on their capability to produce income. Those facilities and programs that cannot produce income receive lower priority than those that can.

There appears to be, however, a limit to the usefulness of fees and charges. The opinion is widely held among park and recreation professionals that user fees and charges cannot be increased significantly beyond their present levels without exceeding users’ expectations about the value received in return for fees paid. Future increases in fees and charges may be limited to the rate of inflation. Increases beyond those perceived by recreational users to be justifiable will cause recreationists to curtail their use of facilities and services, and may result in negative public reactions. Finally, fees and charges tend to exclude people who cannot afford them from parks and recreation areas.

DPR’s 1992 outdoor recreation survey bears out the opinion that recreational fees and charges may have peaked out. Of seven funding alternatives presented, survey respondents indicated that a “modest (no more than 20%) increase in user fees” was the least acceptable to them, receiving support from only about 36 percent of respondents.

There is also practical evidence that fees must be perceived as fair and appropriate. For example, Los Angeles County’s imposition of a relatively high and inflexible trail-use fee has provoked serious opposition from hikers, mountain bikers, and equestrians. Sacramento County fee increases resulted in users setting entrance kiosks on fire. DPR’s day-use fees also provoked serious antagonism, especially in the North Coast area of the state.

In the 1980s, to marshall support from businesses and individuals, and to circumvent requirements that revenues be returned to the general fund, many park and recreation agencies established friends-of-the-parks groups. Friends-of-the-parks groups are typically non-profit organizations (with 501(c)(3) tax status). They have often been formed from less formally organized volunteer groups devoted to interpretative and educational activities.

Many of the providers who have not already done so are in the process of setting up these types of support groups. Such support groups can help park and recreation providers obtain donations of money, equipment and materials, and property. Friends-of-the-parks groups can help recruit volunteers, including ones with valuable specialized skills. Friends-of-the-parks groups can also help mobilize support when park and recreation agencies are involved in obtaining their budgets, or in other actions before elected or appointed officials in their jurisdictions.
Some park and recreation providers have also sought support from homeowner, service, youth, environmental, historic preservation, and other nonprofit organizations in their service areas. These types of groups, like friends-of-the-parks groups, have been able to provide money, volunteers, and other types of support on park and recreation matters.

Some park and recreation agencies have also begun to seek grants from nonprofit foundations. These grants can be used to augment agency budgets. While nonprofit organizations are unlikely to fund routine operations, they can be helpful in supporting special projects and programs, especially innovative or highly visible ones. Some foundations can also provide assistance in solving technical and management problems.

A relatively new area of activity for park and recreation agencies is in cooperation with land trusts, where they exist, and in establishment of land trusts, where suitable ones have not already been organized. Land trusts are nonprofit organizations authorized to hold either title or conservation easements to land. Land trusts can often act quickly and negotiate aggressively to acquire land with natural or cultural values, as well as open space land. Once they acquire it, land trusts hold the land until a park and recreation agency has the funds to add the land to its land base and administrative responsibilities.

Another response that some park and recreation providers have made to competition for budget funds is to join forces with other agencies to share their responsibilities and, in consequence, to get the financial support of those agencies at budget time. This approach is most useful when the park agency seeks liaison with sister agencies whose functions are mandated or considered essential by the public. Working with law enforcement agencies on juvenile diversion/recreation programs and working with social service agencies on after-school recreation or senior feeding programs are examples of this type of cooperation.

Some park and recreation agencies have developed ties with the private sector. Most often, park and recreation managers have developed concessions agreements with private operators and contract labor agreements. In a few instances, agencies have been joint participants in projects with private-sector firms.

In addition, some park and recreation agencies have sought donations of money, land, materials, or labor from private-sector firms. In general, however, the attitudes of potential private-sector donors tend to be similar to those of foundations: They usually do not want to fund routine agency projects and programs; instead, they want to contribute to projects and programs that are exciting and highly visible, or that show direct connections between the projects and programs funded and the products and services of the businesses providing the funding. These attitudes mean that agencies’ basic functions must continually be met from their own resources. In some instances, restrictions or quid pro quos, sometimes political, render offers from the private sector less than desirable. Overall, park and recreation agency managers feel that efforts to obtain donations, in the main, have produced only modest results.

Perhaps most positively, some park and recreation providers have adopted private-sector planning, budgeting, and management techniques to make staff more effective, to improve their control over
their operations, and to stretch available funds as far as possible. As budgets get tighter, additional agencies are considering adopting these private-sector techniques.

**Potential for Raising New Funds.** Overall, the public gives strong support to outdoor recreation, and favors creation of additional parks and recreation areas. In DPR’s 1992 outdoor recreation survey, more than three-quarters of the Californians surveyed indicated that outdoor recreation is important to them. More than 69 percent of the survey respondents approved of developing more local community parks, and 80 percent favored construction of more simple campgrounds.

With only two exceptions in more than 30 years, sentiments like these have translated into support for park bond measures on statewide ballots. Perhaps this success rate has resulted because state bonds only require a simple majority to pass, and voters often fail to perceive that state bond issues have any impact on their personal tax obligations.

It is more difficult, however, to translate sentiments supporting outdoor recreation into action at the local level. The public shows a distinct unwillingness to provide additional taxes to pay for maintaining or increasing the level of park and recreation services. This attitude appears to stem, in part, from the fact that the public has historically received park and recreation services (as well as many other public-sector services) at well below their real costs, and, also in part, from the fact that local measures in support of parks and recreation usually have recognizable personal tax implications associated with them. (It must be emphasized that, while park and recreation agencies may have more difficulty with these types of funding measures, the problem is not unique to them. Even police and fire agencies have seen their funding measures defeated by the voters.)

In the 1992 DPR survey of outdoor recreation, the public, given seven park and recreation funding techniques to consider, expressed willingness to raise needed money from “sin taxes.” (Almost 65 percent favored increasing the tax on alcoholic beverages; more than 67 percent supported raising the tax on tobacco, the tax that already contributes to the support of outdoor recreation.) Almost 60 percent of the survey respondents also expressed their willingness to redirect money from the California lottery to support of parks and recreation. Other funding alternatives fared less well: a state and/or federal income tax checkoff received support from only about 52 percent of respondents, while dedicating a portion of existing sales tax revenue to park and recreation agencies received support from only about 46 percent. (A small fee increase, as discussed above, was strongly opposed.)

At the local government level, the Quimby Act, if implemented by a jurisdiction, requires developers to dedicate land in their developments for parks. At a jurisdiction’s option, developers can pay fees in lieu of dedicating land. The Quimby Act requires that these fees be used to develop parks in the vicinity of the development from which they were raised.

Local governments can also impose other fees and taxes on new residential developments, the proceeds to be used for a variety of purposes. This source of revenue has been used extensively in the past to add parks and recreation areas to developing areas. More recently, however, developers have been assessed such substantial fees for construction of sewers, roads, schools, and even low-income housing that they have become extremely negative to these fees. In addition, growing
concern has been expressed about the impact of these fees on the cost of housing. Recently, as a result, the capability to assess developers for park and recreation facilities has been little used. Until the current recession ends and the housing market recovers significantly, this situation is unlikely to change.

Parcel taxes, special taxes, and sales taxes can be imposed on already developed areas, and benefit assessment districts such as landscape and lighting districts and Mello-Roos districts can be used to generate new tax money. Many of these funding methods also require a two-thirds majority. During the period 1986-90, various local governments attempted 30 funding measures that sought to impose (or to increase) taxes, or to create benefit assessment or Mello-Roos districts. Of these, seven passed. (Because of special exceptions granted by the legislature, three of them required only a majority vote.) Seven other measures received more than 50 percent of the vote, but failed to receive the two-thirds required for passage; and 16 received less—sometimes markedly less—than 50 percent. (Table 14 summarizes these results.)

Recently attempted city and county park and recreation bond acts have also had mixed results. General obligation bonds, the form of bonded indebtedness usually used to finance local government capital expenditures, must pass with a two-thirds majority. This requirement has made it difficult to use this form of funding to finance park and recreation programs. Of the 30 general obligation bond acts attempted by local governments for parks and recreation between 1986 and 1990, only seven received the required two-thirds majority. Twenty others received more than 50 percent of the vote, but failed to receive two-thirds support. Only three, however, received less than 50 percent of the vote. (Table 14 also summarizes these results.)

Responses of Park and Recreation Agencies to Funding Reductions. The decrease in funds available to park and recreation agencies is forcing them to use those funds that are still available differently. Many agencies have reduced the amount of new land they are attempting to acquire. Some park and recreation agencies actually resist acquiring new land.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Passed (2/3)</th>
<th>Passed (&gt;50%)</th>
<th>Failed (&gt;50%)</th>
<th>Failed &lt;50%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tax or Special District</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Obligation Bond</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: N/A - Not applicable  > - Greater than  < - Less than

The reduction or elimination of acquisition programs makes it difficult for agencies to provide parks and recreation areas in localities not adequately served by existing ones. This retrenchment strategy also makes it close to impossible for agencies to make opportunity purchases when desirable land
becomes available. Foregoing opportunity purchases will probably result in increased costs if critical properties are purchased in the future. Foregoing opportunity purchases may also cause permanent loss of desirable properties—or even essential ones—to non-park uses.

In addition to reducing or eliminating acquisition programs, park and recreation agencies are attempting to reduce the number of parks and recreation areas they operate. In August 1993, the Los Angeles County Department of Parks and Recreation provided a particularly notable example of this trend when it transferred 10 parks to other local park and recreation agencies and to the Santa Monica Mountains Conservancy. Los Angeles County also attempted unsuccessfully to transfer two DPR-owned, county-operated parks back to the state, and several other proposed transfers were either refused, or are still under negotiation. The Los Angeles County Park and Recreation Department is reducing its provision of local park and recreation services, and is concentrating on providing regional services. Unfortunately, it is not alone in its attempts to reduce its services in order to balance its budget. Riverside County closed one park, and was negotiating to transfer another to the city of Perris. Orange County attempted to transfer two parks to cities, but the proposed transfers were refused.

Park and recreation agencies are also delaying necessary maintenance and rehabilitation work. These delays are only partially caused by reduced park and recreation budgets. They also result from increasing operation and maintenance costs and capital costs, which result, at least in part, from stricter standards and more demanding liability requirements. While budgets have been reduced, the costs of such budget components as labor, utilities, equipment, and materials have increased.

As of fiscal year 1987-88, park and recreation agencies in the state had a total backlog of maintenance and rehabilitation work amounting to more than $1 billion. Of this amount, about two-thirds of this backlog was incurred by cities, counties, and special districts. It is evident that the maintenance and rehabilitation backlog has continued to increase, but there is no current estimate of its size.

As another cost-reducing strategy, park and recreation providers have been cutting back on expensive programs. Among those programs that have been reduced or eliminated are interpretation and resource management. As a concomitant measure, agencies have placed sharply increased emphasis on developments and programs that can provide an immediate and direct financial return, to the disadvantage of worthy ones that cannot.

Finally, in response to the budget crunch, park and recreation agencies have had to reduce staff. DPR's 1987 survey of California's local park and recreation agencies points out that an increasing percentage of staff were on part-time status, apparently at lower wages, and with fewer benefits. An increasing number of functions were also being performed by non-staff contract personnel. While the 1987 local agency survey has not been updated, park and recreation professionals believe that these trends in the use of part-time and contract employees have continued, and may even have accelerated.
Worsening Fiscal Trend. The 1988 SCorp expresses similar concerns about the limited funding for park and recreation agencies, and about the more adequate funding of public safety and mandated functions. It is easy to conclude, therefore, that park and recreation managers always complain about not having enough funding, and always get by with the budgets given them. In fact, the state’s park and recreation agencies have seen their funding reduced at least since the passage of Proposition 13 in 1978. In the intervening years, park and recreation managers have done their best to make up for inadequate budgets, most notably by making their operations more efficient, delaying or forgoing purchases and maintenance, and introducing (or increasing) fees and charges for recreation services. While the language in the present SCorp is, indeed, similar to that in the 1988 SCorp, the actual economic situation faced by park and recreation providers is still more challenging than it was five years ago. It is, unfortunately, impossible to quantify the degree to which the economic condition of parks and recreation has worsened in the period between SCORPs. The combination, however, of five additional years of limited funding, the Gann limit’s actually coming into effect, and the present recessionary economy have made park and recreation managers’ complaints vastly more critical than they have ever been in the past.

The following general actions suggest ways in which providers of outdoor recreation can deal with the problems and opportunities that result from their unfavorable economic situation.

1. ESTABLISH THE VALUE OF PARKS AND RECREATION

As part of the effort to secure adequate funding, park and recreation professionals should establish and communicate the value of parks and recreation services both to the general public, and to elected and appointed officials who make budget decisions. These efforts should show both the tangible benefits yielded by park and recreation services (such as jobs, sales, and income), and the intangible ones (such as juvenile diversion, quality of life, and maintenance of individuals’ well-being).

(This general action is discussed in detail under Issue 4, Strong Leadership for Parks and Recreation, and Issue 7, Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research.)

2. BUILD ALLIANCES WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

Park and recreation agencies should build alliances with a wide range of other organizations. These include: 1) other park and recreation agencies; 2) other government agencies with functions that potentially overlap those of parks and recreation (e.g., public health, welfare, and police); 3) non-profit groups (e.g., friends-of-the-parks, homeowner, service, youth, environmental, and historic-preservation groups); 4) nonprofit foundations; and 5) private-sector organizations. The goals of these alliances should be strengthening the capabilities and enhancing the credibility of park and recreation agencies.

As even a cursory review of the list of possible alliance partners indicates, there are significant differences among potential partners. At one end of the spectrum, other park and recreation agencies are natural allies, and associating with them should be relatively easy to accomplish. At the other end of the spectrum, some prospective partners, such as other government agencies, are normally competitors, and have to see significant benefits to themselves before an alliance can succeed.
Because of the inherent differences in possible partners, each type of alliance should be treated differently. The discussion that follows expands on the differences.

**a. Other Park and Recreation Agencies.** Because other park and recreation agencies are natural allies, they should be among the first organizations considered as alliance partners. In the past, even nearby park and recreation providers have tended to isolate themselves from each other. In part, this tendency has stemmed from the historic separation provided by jurisdictional boundaries; in part, from the resultant tendency for park and recreation agencies to compete for clientele.

With the current budget problems faced by virtually all park and recreation agencies, there is strong motivation for agencies, especially those located near each other, to cooperate. One of the immediate gains from cooperative relationships among nearby providers is using each other's facilities to help distribute use, and, thereby, relieve overcrowding. In addition, it is potentially easy for park and recreation agencies--especially nearby ones--to share information of mutual value. With some effort, it may be possible for nearby agencies to share equipment that no agency uses on a full-time basis, or to share specialized skills such as those required for restoration and protection of natural or cultural resources, and those required for administration of risk management programs. In the longer term, it may be possible for nearby providers to establish more formal arrangements for sharing common functions such as training, planning, and research and development.

Cooperating park and recreation agencies can also provide support to each other in developing and defending their budgets. They can also assist each other in securing favorable decisions from city councils, planning commissions, air quality management districts, water quality control boards, and other bodies with responsibilities that affect parks, recreation areas, and open space. While forming alliances with other park and recreation providers requires effort, the benefits of such alliances easily outweigh the costs involved.

It may be feasible, finally, for two or more nearby park and recreation agencies to merge into a single agency. Consolidation could broaden the base of support for the new organization while reducing its cost of operation. The Local Agency Formation Commission (LAFCO) has recently streamlined the consolidation process, increasing the practicality of such consolidations.

**b. Other Government Agencies.** In contrast with park and recreation agency alliances, forming alliances with non-park agencies offers a much more demanding challenge. Agencies with responsibilities for health and safety (such as police, courts, and public health) have a high level of influence in their jurisdictions. These agencies are also direct, and often successful, competitors with local park and recreation agencies for available budget dollars.

Despite this competitiveness, alliances between park and recreation providers and health and safety organizations can be developed if they are of mutual benefit to all parties.
Such conditions exist when park and recreation agencies can provide the land, facilities, and skilled personnel necessary to provide programs and services at reduced cost, and with greater effectiveness. Such programs include diversion of juveniles at risk from criminal activity, suppression of gang activity, supervision of latchkey children, and providing support to senior citizens.

In order to develop alliances with health and safety organizations, park and recreation agencies have to define programs of mutual interest, find the resources to carry them out, and demonstrate that they are cost-effective. If these efforts are successful, park and recreation providers can not only use the funding involved to support ongoing maintenance and operations costs, they can also draw on the influence of the allied health and safety organizations to help justify continued funding. In such cases, competitors can become boosters. This form of alliance building requires extensive effort to plan, gain approval, and implement. The program developed may not be successful. Even if it is successful, the health and safety agency with which the program is carried out may withdraw, electing, instead, to operate its own programs. Because of the potential for these types of failures, such alliance building must be considered highly risky. If successful, however, these types of alliances can provide park and recreation providers with strong support and budgetary justification.

c. Nonprofit Groups. Friends-of-the-parks groups can be used by park and recreation managers for a variety of support purposes. These include recruiting volunteers, obtaining donations from individuals and businesses, obtaining favorable publicity for park and recreation projects and programs, and supporting budget requests and other agency actions before elected and appointed councils, boards, and commissions.

If friends-of-the-parks groups exist, they were created specifically to support park and recreation agencies. Their organization and functions should be reviewed to assure that they are still suited to current agency needs, and, if necessary, they should be modified to meet those needs. For example, large park and recreation agencies have the potential for a number of interrelated friends-of-the-parks groups, which could support particular parks or groups of parks. Or, for another example, friends-of-the-parks groups could support particular interests such as historical facilities, food gardens, or ethnic heritage. Where friends-of-the-parks groups do not exist, they should be organized and put to work.

In contrast to friends-of-the-parks groups, other nonprofit groups such as homeowner, service, youth, environmental, and historic-preservation organizations generally have their own independent goals and objectives. Many of these types of groups, however, frequently support park and recreation agencies. Since they do not exist solely--or even primarily--as parks and recreation supporters, they may, at times, be occupied with non-park and recreation issues, or they may oppose some agency projects and programs. Thus, a homeowner group may oppose special events in a park if they attract too big a crowd, or produce too much noise. Similarly, a historic preservation group may oppose a project that its members judge threatening to a particular cultural resource. Nevertheless, these types of nonprofit groups can usually be worked with either by compromising on the issue in conflict, or by agreeing to disagree on a particular issue, and working together on other issues.
If they are supportive, these types of nonprofit organizations can provide benefits similar to friends-of-the-parks groups. They also have a distinct advantage in being independent: local officials cannot accuse them of being creatures of park and recreation agencies, which they can always be expected to support. Environmental and preservation organizations, moreover, are often affiliated with national organizations, which they can ask for support on major issues. Park and recreation managers should identify nonprofit groups in their jurisdictions, and attempt to gain their support.

**d. Foundations.** Park and recreation agency managers should also consider seeking grants from nonprofit foundations. Foundations are unlikely to fund routine operations, but they can be helpful in supporting special projects and programs, especially if they are innovative or have a high profile. Some foundations can also provide assistance in solving technical and management problems.

Large park and recreation agencies can also establish their own foundations. Such foundations can have tax-exempt status, and can act as support and fund-raising organizations for their “parent” agencies. While such foundations are bound by a strict set of laws and procedures, they would have more latitude in which to operate than the agencies that established them.

**e. Private Sector.** If they are not doing so already, park and recreation managers should consider seeking support from the private sector. Adopt-a-park programs can be excellent vehicles for getting businesses involved in supporting park and recreation programs and projects. On a larger scale, businesses can provide donations of money, labor, equipment, and land. Some businesses can provide helpful technical assistance in such areas as planning, budgeting, and computer applications. Businesses are also a potential source of volunteers. Since volunteers are often easier to recruit if they know they will be working with friends and associates, businesses can provide an excellent pool from which to mobilize volunteers.

Private-sector involvement with park and recreation agencies has limitations. Businesses, similarly to foundations, generally want to support special programs and projects that are novel, or that provide visible recognition of their participation. Rarely, if ever, will businesses consider supporting routine programs or projects. In addition, park and recreation managers must be careful to avoid accepting support from businesses that have--or even appear to have--conditions attached that improperly benefit the donor.

Park and recreation agency managers should look to chambers of commerce and other business support groups for special types of private-sector support. Specifically, chambers of commerce can help to establish the financial value of park and recreation programs to their communities, and, therefore, can provide invaluable help in obtaining adequate budgetary support. In addition, chambers of commerce can provide access to member organizations for possible donations, or for help recruiting volunteers.

There are some negative aspects of seeking support from chambers of commerce. They sometimes work in opposition to public-sector interests, for example, in opposing park bonds or new or increased taxes to support park and recreation programs.
In general, park and recreation managers should seek support from their chambers of commerce. While there are some problems in doing so, the effort can be worthwhile.

Development of effective alliances will require an investment of time and effort. Specifically, agency personnel should be assigned at least part-time to the task of alliance building. In some cases, the investment in alliance building can be considerable, and the successful outcome of the effort cannot be assured. Nevertheless, the benefits of forming effective alliances can be sufficiently positive that the effort is well worth pursuing.

3. STRENGTHEN FUNDING SOURCES AND SUBSTITUTES FOR FUNDING

Park and recreation agencies should work to strengthen sources of both funding and other, non-monetary resources. A wide range of sources of funding and substitutes for funding should be considered, including:

- Government programs such as the federal Land and Water Conservation Fund
- State and local bond acts
- General fund appropriations and local taxes
- Special districts for park and resource protection purposes
- Volunteers
- Fees, charges, and concessions revenue
- Donations from foundations and private-sector firms
- Land trusts
- Mitigation land banking

As a high priority, the park and recreation profession, including such support organizations as the California Park and Recreation Society (CPRS) and the National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA), should work to restore the Land and Water Conservation Fund to at least $300 million, nationwide, per year. Because restoring the Land and Water Conservation Fund will have an impact on all the states, and because there will be opposition based on current deficit-reduction efforts by the federal government, this endeavor will require working with the park and recreation agencies in other states and with national environmental and parks groups to build an alliance strong enough to succeed.
Park and recreation interests should also support statewide park bond acts as they are developed by the legislature, or, alternatively, by environmental organizations such as the Planning and Conservation League (PCL). Statewide park bond acts, as they have historically been constituted, will provide funding for capital improvements, which will benefit both state agencies (including the Department of Parks and Recreation, the Department of Fish and Game, the Wildlife Conservation Board, and the various state-authorized conservancies) and local park and recreation agencies (cities, counties, and special districts). Passage of one or more statewide park bond acts should also provide funds for stewardship projects to restore and protect natural and cultural resources, and for minor capital improvements to upgrade facilities, and to overcome the long-range consequences of deferring maintenance.

Park and recreation agencies and their support groups should work for legislation that would reduce the majority required to pass local general obligation bonds used to support parks and recreation from the currently required two-thirds majority to a simple majority. While Governor Pete Wilson has endorsed this idea, coupled with eliminating local grant funds from future state park bond measures, it has been opposed by conservative members of the State Legislature, and has not made much progress toward getting onto the ballot.

The legislature, under pressure from developers who are being charged increasingly steep impact fees for school development, did, however, put a constitutional amendment on the June 1994 ballot. Governor Wilson moved the measure to a November 1993 special election, which he called to expedite the public’s vote on another issue. If the constitutional amendment had passed, it would have allowed local school bonds to pass on a simple majority vote. It had been anticipated that, if the school bond measure had passed, an attempt would have been made, perhaps as early as the next statewide ballot, to obtain majority-vote approval for park bonds. Unfortunately, the voters rejected the school bond amendment, deferring indefinitely any attempt to put a similar park bond measure on the ballot.

Park and recreation agencies should explore the feasibility of partially reallocating existing taxes currently used for other purposes to benefit parks and recreation. Local park agencies can attempt to get a portion of the transient occupancy tax or the real estate transfer tax committed to paying for park and recreation programs. This reallocation can take the form of either transferring part of the existing revenues to parks and recreation, or of using any revenue increase for parks and recreation. Similarly, when the state’s economic situation improves, park and recreation agencies should explore obtaining part of the dedications for real estate projects for use on parks and recreation.

For the long term, it is important that the park and recreation profession explore sources of funding and other, non-fiscal resources, which can augment insufficient general fund money. Among these are:

a. **Volunteers.** Many park and recreation agencies already make extensive use of volunteers. Agencies that use volunteers should review their use of them, and determine
whether it can be increased. Agencies that do not currently use volunteers should reconsider any policy that may preclude using them, and should also determine how volunteers could be used.

Non-profit organizations such as community, environmental, and historic preservation organizations should be considered as sources of volunteers. These types of organizations may be able to supply specialized skills such as those necessary to build and maintain trails or to conduct inventories of historic sites.

Park and recreation agencies should consider use of a particularly promising source of assistance: directed volunteers. These are persons convicted of minor crimes who have either been sentenced to probation with community service requirements, or who have been paroled from prison, also with a requirement for community service. If they have not already done so, park and recreation managers should work with the courts and with probation and parole organizations to gain the services of suitable directed volunteers.

Since recruiting, training, managing, and rewarding (and disciplining) volunteers requires a commitment of effort from agencies, which can be substantial, it may be appropriate for park and recreation agencies to help establish a volunteer center or office of volunteer affairs to assist several agencies in a jurisdiction.

b. Revenue and Donations from Private-Sector Firms and Foundations. Park and recreation agencies should review their revenue-producing arrangements with private-sector businesses. When additional services can be provided by concessionaires, additional contracts (or permits) should be issued for those services. Park and recreation managers should assure that their concessionaires render high-quality services to the public, and provide fair returns to the agencies or to their parent jurisdictions.

Consideration should also be given to advertising, sponsorships, and endorsements as sources of revenue derived from the private sector. Advertising on refuse cans, lifeguard towers, and picnic shelters has been used profitably, and adopt-a-park programs have been implemented successfully by a number of agencies. If such revenue sources are tapped, however, park and recreation managers should assure that the messages communicated to the public are presented in good taste, and do not contradict agency policies (e.g., promote the consumption of alcoholic beverages).

Park and recreation providers should also review the donations they receive from businesses and foundations. Both are most likely to support special projects. Private businesses may donate funds, land, equipment, materials, and labor (paid or volunteer). Private businesses should also be considered as a source of technical assistance, especially in areas such as information management and long-range planning. Foundations may be a source of donated funds.
c. Land Trusts. If park and recreation agencies want to preserve land, but do not currently have the budget to acquire it, they should consider seeking assistance from land trusts. Land trusts can act to acquire land much more quickly than can government agencies, which are limited by budget cycles and acquisition regulations. Land trusts can also negotiate more aggressively with landowners, getting the best possible price for parcels of land, while government agencies often have to offer fair market value for the same parcels. Once land trusts have purchased parcels of land, the trusts usually hold the land until the agencies for which the land has been acquired can obtain the funds to acquire it. Initially, agencies should identify any land trusts active in their areas. Active land trusts should then be approached to determine their willingness and ability to participate in protecting the land in question through either ownership of fee title, or, alternatively, one or more conservation easements. If land trusts are not active in the area, or if they are not interested in the land in question, park and recreation agencies should consider setting up land trusts in which they are participants.

d. Mitigation Land Banking. Developers may be required by various regulatory agencies (e.g., Coastal Commission, Air Quality Management District, Water Quality Control Board) to provide off-site mitigation for projects--especially large ones--that cannot be fully mitigated by on-site measures. Mitigation may be in the form of either land or money. Park and recreation agencies should monitor possible off-site mitigation requirements, and should make the case to the regulatory agencies involved that, as custodians of parks and recreation areas, they can designate land to be donated or purchased that is appropriate for off-site mitigation.

SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR RESPONDING TO LIMITED FUNDING

- Work more closely with other nearby park and recreation agencies.

- Identify joint projects that can be implemented among nearby park and recreation agencies. Concentrate on projects that will save money by cutting down on redundant functions -- all agencies.

- If suitable projects can be identified, implement the most promising ones. Evaluate joint operations and monitor budget savings to determine the effectiveness of the projects implemented -- all agencies.

- Determine the feasibility of consolidation with one or more nearby park and recreation agencies into a single agency serving several jurisdictions. If consolidation is feasible, initiate the process -- all agencies.

- Review and, if appropriate, extend cooperative agreements with non-profit groups supporting parks and recreation.

- If a friends-of-the-parks group already exists, review its functions, and, if feasible, extend them to provide additional support. Consider creating additional friends-of-the-parks groups.
to support particular parks (or groups of parks) or particular activities and programs (e.g., historic preservation, community food gardening). If a friends-of-the-parks group is not already in existence, form one -- all agencies.

— If alliances exist between a park and recreation agency and other non-profit groups (e.g., homeowner, youth, service, environmental, historic preservation), review their functions, and, if feasible, extend them to provide additional support. Consider forming alliances with other non-profit groups. If working relationships are not currently in effect with non-profit groups, consider developing alliances with one or more of the most active in the agency’s service area -- all agencies.

— Develop working relationships with land trusts to solicit and obtain necessary land acquisitions. If there are no suitable land trusts in the area, consider establishing one. Ask the Land Trust Exchange, the Trust for Public Land, or the American Farmland Trust (for farmland preservation only) for advice and technical assistance -- all agencies.

— Identify innovative activities to undertake (e.g., to provide programs for ethnic groups not previously served), and seek support for them from non-profit foundations -- all agencies.

°Review activities with private-sector firms, and, if feasible, expand them.

— If the agency is currently contracting with (or issuing a permit to) a private-sector concessionaire for services, consider contracting with (or issuing permits to) one or more concessionaires for additional services. If the agency is not now being supported by concessionaires, determine whether concessionaires could effectively provide services and reduce the agency’s operating expenses -- all agencies.

— If businesses are already making contributions of money, materials, equipment, labor, or other support, review the agency’s relationships with those businesses, and, if possible, extend the relationships to provide additional support. Consider working with other businesses. If the agency does not currently have working relationships with businesses, consider developing relationships with one or more in the service area -- all agencies.

°Develop or improve the agency’s capabilities to recruit and use volunteers.

— If the agency already recruits and uses volunteers, review applicable procedures, and, if necessary, revise them to improve the effectiveness of volunteer support. If the agency is not already supported by volunteers, consider setting up a volunteer corps. In either case, make sure that both volunteers and their supervisors receive adequate training -- all agencies.

— Work with the courts, sheriff’s department, probation department, and parole authorities to secure the services of directed volunteers -- all agencies
— If the jurisdiction does not already have an office of volunteer affairs or a volunteer center to help recruit, place, and train volunteers, consider working with other agencies to establish one -- all agencies.

Identify support services needed by other agencies in the area. Consider the capabilities of the agency’s land, facilities, and staff and their availability to supplement the capabilities of other agencies.

— Expand the agency’s mission. Work actively with health, welfare, community service, police, and other agencies to provide needed programs -- all agencies.

— Provide necessary training and support for staff members, who will be responsible for the new programs. Add to staff, if necessary and feasible -- all agencies.

*Revise the state’s Open Project Selection Process.*

— Modify the priorities for grants to local governments from the Land and Water Conservation Fund so that they reward innovative efforts to form partnerships that extend beyond the park and recreation community (e.g., with other agencies, non-profit groups, and/or businesses), and that leverage grant money received from the fund -- NPS, DPR.

*Work to improve land acquisition and funding support.*

— Support restoration of the Land and Water Conservation Fund to at least $300 million, nationwide, per year, with federal agencies dividing 50 percent of available funds, and the

— Explore placing a park bond act on the ballot at the earliest possible time. Include funding dedicated to stewardship of natural and cultural resources and to reducing the backlog of deferred maintenance -- CPRS, PCL, DPR.

— Explore placing a constitutional amendment on the ballot that would allow passage of general obligation bonds for park and recreation purposes by majority vote -- CPRS, DPR.

— Explore new statewide sources of funding that will support maintenance and operation of parks and recreation areas -- CPRS, PCL, DPR.

— Monitor off-site mitigation requirements imposed by regulatory agencies (e.g., Coastal Commission, Air Quality Management District, Water Quality Control Board) on developments. Identify suitable parkland that can be acquired and donated by the developer -- all agencies.

*Prevent loss of parks and recreation areas because of the current recession.*

— Enforce laws against divestiture of parkland acquired with money either from the Land and Water Conservation Fund or from statewide park bonds -- DPR, NPS.
ISSUE 4. BUILDING STRONG LEADERSHIP

Those park and recreation agencies that have continued to operate on a business-as-usual basis are likely to be less and less successful both in meeting public needs and in receiving public support. Such agencies cannot hope to respond meaningfully and effectively to the rapidly increasing size and diversity of California’s population and to the increasing competition for funding and other essential resources, both of which have been discussed previously in this plan.

Some leaders in the park and recreation profession have, however, accepted the challenges of changing circumstances experienced in the 1980s and 1990s, and have begun the process of adapting their agencies to them. The degree to which managers have attempted to adapt new strategies varies widely. The apparent amount of success that agencies have had with new strategies also appears to vary widely.

Lack of an Effective Consensus on the Value of Outdoor Recreation. There is a strong sense among professionals in the field—whether they are academicians teaching and doing research, or managers of park and recreation agencies—that outdoor recreation is beneficial both to the individual and to society. The individual benefits from outdoor recreation by gaining relief from the stress and monotony of his or her work-a-day existence. Society benefits by the sublimation of individual, competitive, sometimes destructive attitudes into socially acceptable ones. Outdoor recreation keeps youth constructively busy, and, thereby, is thought to reduce delinquency, vandalism, and gang activity. Outdoor recreation makes better employees by providing opportunities to reduce stress levels and build physical fitness. Outdoor recreation even brings in revenue and creates jobs.

Despite these strongly held views, outdoor recreation professionals have been notably unsuccessful in convincing elected leaders that these benefits are sufficiently real and cost-effective to justify paying for them at the expense of other apparently more important programs such as public safety, education, and medical services. In part, this lack of support results because park and recreation benefits are harder to quantify and document than are the benefits from many other government services. In part, the lack of support for park and recreation services also results from their having longer-range impacts than many other government services. If the needs of public safety, education, and medical services are slighted, the consequences can usually be felt on a short-term basis, but the effect of inadequate funding for park and recreation services often takes years to attract the attention of the public. As a result of these interrelated problems, many political leaders see outdoor recreation as a luxury that they can support only after other functions of government have been provided.

Ironically, while political leaders have difficulty giving outdoor recreation high priority, the public has consistently shown its support. For example, a survey of residents in the four areas of Los Angeles most affected by the riots of April 1992 placed youth services and parks, recreation facilities, and adult sports programs at the very top of the list of “absolutely critical” or “important” needs. (Of all respondents, 83 percent favored more youth services, and 77 percent supported more parks, recreation facilities, and adult sports programs.) This failure to build a compelling consensus in support of outdoor recreation is a long-standing problem. Park and recreation providers were complaining about losing funding as a result of competition with other programs well before the economic downturn of the early 1990s. For example, the prior SCORP, published in 1988, when the
economy was much stronger, reflected the concerns of outdoor recreation providers about the increased need to compete for available funds and other resources. Unfortunately, the reduction of funding to park and recreation providers is even more severe in the current recessionary economy than it was five years ago.

**Absence of Coordination.** California’s park and recreational agencies have not developed mechanisms for effective coordination among themselves. This lack is critical because more than 600 agencies, representing all levels of government, local, state, and federal, provide park and recreation services to the state’s citizens, and to visitors from outside the state.

Despite the proximity of agencies, especially in metropolitan areas, where many providers exist side by side (and some even overlap one another), each agency has tended to operate within the narrow confines of its legal mandate and its jurisdictional boundaries. Even though park users tend not to distinguish between providers when they seek recreational opportunities, it has been unusual for nearby agencies to work together to coordinate provision of services. Information of mutual interest has not been shared on any organized basis.

There has also been little coordination between the park and recreation agency serving a jurisdiction and other agencies in the same jurisdiction. A city’s park and recreation department has tended to proceed independently of other city and county agencies, be they the police department, the public works department, the courts, or other agencies. In many cases, however, the park and recreation department could have shared problems with these other agencies, and the problems could have been handled more effectively using a multiagency approach.

The lack of coordination has not been limited to the local level. There has also been negligible coordination of park and recreation services at regional and state levels. For example, the Department of Park and Recreation’s efforts to assist local park and recreation providers have been scaled back in response to its own economic challenges. There are only limited sources of park and recreation information—technical, legal, fiscal, or administrative—available in the state. There are also only limited sources of technical support to aid those small-and medium-sized park and recreation agencies that lack all the capabilities they need. Perhaps most significantly, park and recreation agencies have only sporadically joined together effectively to influence legislation that would benefit themselves statewide.

Some coordination does take place through professional organizations, most notably the California Park and Recreation Society. CPRS provides for the exchange of information at its meetings. It also presents training sessions on topics of current interest, and provides some technical support, mostly by referring requests for information to other CPRS members with the appropriate experience. The American Association for State and Local History, the Western Registrars Conference, and the Society for California Archeology are also effective in providing training and technical support in matters involving cultural resources. These professional organizations, however, have limited staff and funding, and are, therefore, restricted in the amount of service they can provide.

Most significantly, the lack of coordination has contributed to the inability of the park and recreation profession to achieve an effective consensus on the value of outdoor recreation. Information on the effectiveness of programs has generally not been measured, and even evidence drawn from practical experience has not been reliably distributed by one park and recreation agency to other agencies with
similar problems. Perhaps most important, little effort has been made to mobilize public support for park and recreation agencies on a statewide basis.

**Shortage of Suitable Education and Training.** Many of the management problems discussed throughout this document stem from the limited availability of education and training specifically tailored to the needs of park and recreation personnel. While there is potential benefit to be had from training personnel in all levels of park and recreation agencies, the greatest need is for the education and training of managers and would-be managers.

There are currently nine accredited recreation and leisure studies programs in California, all operated by universities of the California State University System. (There are a total of 84 accredited programs nationwide.) The Council on Accreditation is a joint effort of the National Recreation and Park Association and the American Association of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. The Council on Accreditation is recognized as an accrediting body by the Council on Post-secondary Education.

The Council on Accreditation also administers the Leisure Professional Certification Program, which is sponsored by NRPA in cooperation with the American Association for Leisure and Recreation.

For park and recreation managers to become Certified Leisure Professionals, they must pass an examination and meet requirements for education and/or work experience in the recreation field. To help park and recreation professionals keep up with changes in their field, the California Park and Recreation Society, in conjunction with the University of California, Davis, offers the Administrators Institute. The Administrators institute is an annual program, which is held at the Asilomar Conference Center. From year to year, the institute has had a strong carry-over of attendees, providing the opportunity for a relatively small group of park and recreation managers to meet and learn in a collegial atmosphere. (The Institute has a maximum enrollment of 120, and for most of its 22-year history, it has had enrollments in excess of 100. In 1992 and 1993, the budget constraints on park and recreation agencies reduced attendance, however, to about half the historic level.) In the recent past, the institute has focused on management and leadership skills needed by upper-level park and recreation managers. Previously, it dealt extensively with the details of managing park operations. In the immediate future, the emphasis will change again, focusing on the operation of special programs, such as those for youth at risk, seniors, and new immigrants.

CPRS also offers specialized courses on topical park and recreation issues. Recent CPRS courses have treated such subjects as compliance with the Americans with Disabilities Act, safe use of pesticides, and working with at-risk youth. Courses are, typically, offered twice, once each in a Southern California and a Northern California location.

NRPA also offers schools, institutes, and forums on issues of concern to park and recreation professionals. Topics addressed in NRPA educational and training sessions include maintenance management, risk management, therapeutic recreation, marketing and revenue sources management, and park and recreation services in small-town settings. NRPA sessions are held throughout NRPA’s Pacific Region, which encompasses the states of the Pacific Coast.

In addition to academic, NRPA, and CPRS training efforts, some independent training firms put on courses and seminars for personnel from one or more park and recreation agencies under contract to those agencies. Some of the larger park and recreation agencies also offer their own courses and seminars.
While specialized training for working professionals is of vital importance, the sampling of offerings presented above indicates that the availability of training is limited. A decade or two ago, the absence of current technical knowledge and skills, shared with other managers in the field, may not have had a deleterious impact. After all, money was available, and park and recreation agencies were expanding to meet the needs of the state’s booming population. Unfortunately, CPRS’ experience with the Administrators Institute suggests that budget restrictions are reducing the availability of specialized training to park and recreation managers at the time it is needed most.

The park and recreation field also has only limited capabilities to provide support to those already in management positions. Thus, a manager who encounters a problem beyond his or her experience does not have much recourse to institutionalized means of getting assistance. The field also lacks the mechanisms for recognizing, cultivating, and developing the skills of managers (and potential managers) whose careers—and leadership in the field—could be advanced not only by academic work, but also by such techniques as in-house training, mentoring and networking, cross-training and rotating assignments, and interagency exchanges.

**Emphasis on Short-Term Solutions.** Given the limitations on management in the park and recreation profession, it is not surprising to find that agencies at all levels of government emphasize providing short-term solutions to immediate problems at the expense of long-range planning to deal with more basic, persistent problems. In effect, park and recreation managers practice reactive crisis management instead of pressing proactive efforts to move their organizations in a desired direction. The following general actions suggest ways in which providers of outdoor recreation can deal with the problems and opportunities of leadership and management in their field.

1. **CREATE A COMMON VISION OF THE ROLE OF THE PARK AND RECREATION PROFESSION IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY**

A high-level task force should be convened and charged with creating a common vision of the role of the park and recreation profession in contemporary society. The task force should include representatives of park and recreation agencies at all levels of government, local, state, and federal; private outdoor recreation providers; academic institutions with programs in recreation and leisure studies; legislators interested in outdoor recreation; and private citizens and representatives of citizens’ groups involved in outdoor recreation activities.

The task force would be charged with performing the following functions:

- Developing a broad-based constituency among Californians to support parks and recreation at state and local levels of government.

- Approving and promulgating an Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians. (The code is presented in Chapter I, Section 3.)

- Affirming the value of outdoor recreation to the individual and society, and initiating efforts to measure and demonstrate that value.
Creating a set of guiding principles for the park and recreation profession.

- Developing long-range goals for the profession, including establishment of training programs, technical support capabilities, a repository for park and recreation information, and programs for recognizing achievement in the field.

- Setting forth a general plan for attaining the long-range goals, including a timetable for achieving them.

2. **ESTABLISH A BROAD-BASED COALITION OF INTERESTS TO PURSUE THE COMMON VISION**

As a part of the effort to implement the recommendations of the governor’s task force, a broad-based coalition should be established. It would include professional groups, business and civic groups, community groups, groups active in outdoor recreation, and political leaders. The coalition would cooperate with park and recreation agencies at all levels of government.

The coalition should aim for the political ability to realize the program developed by the governor’s task force. The coalition should establish action programs at all levels to pursue the programs and milestones of the task force.

3. **PROVIDE IMPROVED TRAINING FOR MANAGERS AND LEADERS**

Park and recreation professionals must have the appropriate knowledge and skills to meet the challenges of the current environment. To serve the needs of their users and to compete effectively for funds and other scarce resources, professionals in the field need to have requisite skills, including business methods and management practices, human and community relations, information and research methods, and computer technology. Establishment or enhancement of programs designed to give these professionals the training and education they need would have a beneficial effect on the profession and its ability to meet current and future challenges.

For new aspirants to management positions in park and recreation, academic training in recreation and leisure studies at one of the California State Universities may be an efficient way to obtain suitable knowledge and skills. At a lower level, preparatory work at one of the community colleges may be a useful option.

Many park and recreation professionals are, however, already established in their vocation, and need to bring their knowledge and skills up to date. Others are employed in entry-level and intermediate-level positions, are working their way up in the profession, and cannot afford the time to pursue a conventional academic program. It is essential, therefore, that these people also be able to bring their knowledge and skills up to suitable levels.

A variety of training methods are available to those for whom full academic programs are unsuitable. These training methods include taking selected college-level courses, receiving in-house training, taking part in cross-training and rotating assignments, mentoring and networking, and participating in interagency exchanges.
For these training methods to be effective, the agencies using them must be prepared to support them. For example, the effectiveness of in-house training depends on having skilled instructors either on staff or brought in from outside the organization. The instructors must have developed suitable training plans, course curricula, and training materials. Suitable instructional locations must be available. Students must be motivated not only to attend training sessions, but also to do their homework, and to look for applications of newly learned skills in their work assignments. Similarly, cross-training, rotating assignments, and interagency exchanges must not simply provide changes of scenery. To accomplish their objectives of imparting new knowledge and skills to participating personnel, the trainees and the trainers with whom they are working must understand that new skills are to be imparted. Both trainees and trainers must be motivated to work at the process of learning/teaching. The trainees must, finally, be motivated to--and have the opportunity to--apply their newly learned skills in their normal working environments.

In addition to the relatively structured learning situations discussed above, the park and recreation profession would also benefit from creation of less structured learning situations. These would include mentoring, networking, and informational forums.

In mentoring and networking situations, park and recreation professionals would provide mutual support in planning, developing programs, and resolving problems. In mentoring situations, specific efforts would be made to team a less experienced professional with a more experienced one. The less experienced manager could draw on the experience of the more senior manager; the more senior person could potentially benefit from being exposed to the younger participant’s point of view. In the networking situation, a group of professionals would provide mutual support to each other.

Informational forums would allow participants to discuss informally matters of mutual concern. These would include current programs, problems and possible solutions, and the needs of both the public and the profession. These forums would be structured both geographically and by level of government. By using this geographic/level-of-government approach, the forums would require participants to travel relatively short distances, and would allow them to participate with other professionals with whom they share common problems.

4. **ENCOURAGE ATTITUDES OF CREATIVITY AND RISK-TAKING**

As the final step in the process of strengthening the leadership and management capabilities of the park and recreation profession, methods should be developed for encouraging creativity and risk-taking in the work environment. Specifically, procedures should be developed to recognize and reward those who make outstanding achievements. Because creativity and risk-taking involve the possibility of failure, procedures should also provide for acknowledging in a positive manner those efforts that do not succeed. Such acknowledgements should be aimed at determining why efforts have failed, and how such failures might be avoided in the future.

Depending on the level of accomplishment, recognition should be granted by the appropriate organization. A manager’s own agency should always provide the initial recognition for his or her accomplishment. More notable accomplishments should be acknowledged through local, regional, and statewide park and recreation forums, and even by more formal organizations such as the Department of Parks and Recreation, the State Park and Recreation Commission, and the California Park and Recreation Society.
SPECIFIC ACTIONS THAT BUILD STRONG LEADERSHIP
FOR PARKS AND RECREATION

- Start developing a consensus on the role of the park and recreation profession in contemporary society.

- Convene a high-level task force charged with developing a broad-based constituency to support state and local parks and recreation functions; approving and promulgating an Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians; defining and affirming the value of outdoor recreation to the individual and society; initiating efforts to measure and demonstrate that value; creating a set of guiding principles for the profession; developing long-range goals for the profession; and setting forth a general plan for attaining the long-range goals -- DPR, CPRS.

- Establish a broad-based state and local coalition of park and recreation professionals, business and civic leaders, political leaders, community activists, and recreationists -- DPR, CPRS.

- Reward creativity in the park and recreation profession.

- Establish a program of non-monetary awards to be presented annually to innovative, creative park and recreation professionals. Solicit nominations at least twice annually. Screen nominations, select recipients, and present the awards at major park and recreation functions (e.g., CPRS conferences), in California Parks and Recreation, and in the general circulation print media -- CPRS, DPR, NPS.

ISSUE 5. MANAGING AGING FACILITIES

Increasing population and demand for outdoor recreation opportunities are placing increased pressure on parks and recreation areas and their facilities. As a result, parks and recreation areas are often overcrowded and overused, especially during peak periods. Park and recreation facilities are, furthermore, often old and in need of repair, upgrading, or replacement. In addition, the composition of the state’s population has also been changing. As a result of these changes, many existing park and recreation facilities often do not fully meet the needs of current users, let alone potential users.

The age of the state’s park and recreation facilities varies greatly. A large number of them were built in the 1960s, during the post-World War II boom in the state’s population. Some facilities even go back to the 1930s, when efforts to counter the effects of the Great Depression led to the state’s other major period of building park and recreation facilities.
Three decades or more of heavy use has taken its toll on parks and recreation areas. The impact of heavy use has been heightened, especially in the last decade, by limited funding and the consequent reduction and deferral of maintenance. In fact, the state’s entire park and recreation infrastructure—land as well as facilities—is being degraded.

As of fiscal year 1987-88, a survey by the Department of Parks and Recreation estimated that local, state, and federal park and recreation agencies had a rehabilitation backlog of more than $1 billion. Of this backlog, $642 million was reported by local governments, $130 million by DPR, and just more than $252 million by federal agencies. No state agencies other than DPR were included in the survey.

Park and recreation managers surveyed by DPR listed the three most important effects of the backlog:

- Increased deterioration of physical facilities, themselves, rendering them less usable by the public, and increasing the ultimate cost of their repair or replacement.
- Increased reliance on non-staff labor, such as volunteers, Conservation Corps personnel, and directed volunteers.
- Increased vandalism of facilities.

The inability of park and recreation providers to keep up with needed maintenance does not appear to be in accord with the public’s wishes. DPR’s 1992 outdoor recreation survey shows that more than 52 percent of Californians want to see an increase in spending for basic maintenance of existing park and recreation facilities. Even more Californians (57 percent) want to see an increase in spending for rehabilitation and modernizing of existing facilities. This is true even though the public remains opposed to any general tax increase or higher use fees in parks.

**Outdated Park and Recreation Facilities.** In addition to deteriorating facilities, the state’s park and recreation agencies are also trying to cope with outdated ones. These are facilities in park and recreation areas that, regardless of their age and condition, no longer fully meet the needs of today’s recreational users.

In some cases, existing park and recreation facilities do not accommodate current use patterns. For example, many picnic and camping sites were designed originally with the white, middle-class, nuclear family in mind, but are now often used, less than comfortably, by non-white, extended family groups. Similarly, many Little League and other baseball fields were installed with a white, middle-class clientele in mind. Baseball fields do not accommodate Hispanic groups that enjoy playing soccer, and, by usurping available park areas, can even preclude soccer games. (The population changes that have caused this discontinuity between recreationists and recreational facilities are discussed in greater detail in Chapter II, and under Issue 2, Serving a Changing Population.)
In other cases, installed facilities do not meet current standards. Water and sewer systems, while working adequately, may not meet current standards of health and safety. Recreational facilities may contain asbestos, emit radon, or suffer from some other hazardous condition. Facilities also may not comply with the current requirements for disabled access, especially as mandated by the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), which was passed in 1990, and which is considered by many professionals in the field to have major cost implications for parks and recreation agencies.

Crowding of Parks and Recreation Areas. Heavy use, in addition to contributing to physical deterioration of park and recreation facilities and to the increased cost of their maintenance, also subjects them to the less tangible, but, nevertheless, damaging impact of overcrowding. Generally, overcrowding is a major contributor to peoples' disappointment with parks and recreation areas.

When the weather is good, many neighborhood parks operate at--or even above--reasonable capacity limits every weekend. Recreational programs conducted at neighborhood parks are often fully subscribed, and have long waiting lists. Most state and regional parks and recreation areas near big cities operate at capacity on summer weekends. Virtually all state and regional parks on the ocean are filled to capacity every weekend in the spring, summer, and fall. Mountain parks and inland lakeside parks operate at similar occupancy levels during the peak-use summer season.

More than 94 percent of the people who responded to DPR’s 1992 survey on outdoor recreation reported that getting away from crowded situations was important to their enjoyment of outdoor recreation. Unfortunately, almost 70 percent of the respondents said that they found recreation areas in the state too crowded when they wanted to use them. Perhaps that is why approximately the same percentage of survey respondents indicated that more outdoor recreation areas and facilities are needed in and near big cities.

The Public’s Perception of the Decline of Outdoor Recreation Facilities. DPR’s 1992 survey of outdoor recreation provides a subtle, but informative measure of the decline in the quality of park and recreation facilities in the state. Asked to compare the quality of the state’s outdoor recreation facilities with their condition five years ago, almost 29 percent indicated that they were better than five years ago; about 32 percent rated facilities the same as five years ago; and almost 33 percent said that facilities were worse than they were five years ago. The significance of these responses can be seen by comparing them with the findings of a similar DPR survey conducted in 1987, which are shown in Table 15.
Table 15
PERCEIVED CONDITION OF OUTDOOR RECREATION
FACILITIES IN 1992 AND 1987

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of Facilities</th>
<th>1992 Responses (%)</th>
<th>1987 Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Better</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worse</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of people decreased who felt that the state’s outdoor recreation facilities were better than or the same as they were five years earlier.

**Limitations in Operating Capabilities.** In the face of threats to their facilities, the capabilities of park and recreation providers is subject to limitations, some of which have been imposed by external forces, and some of which are essentially self-imposed. Several of these factors are explored below.

a. **Increasing regulation.** Park and recreation agencies are subject to the same regulations that are imposed by all levels of government on various segments of society. These regulations include, among others, promotion of worker safety through the Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA) and its state equivalent (Cal OSHA); control of toxic substances through Proposition 65, which requires training, testing, and licensing of personnel who apply pesticides, including park and recreation maintenance personnel; and promotion of access for the disabled through the Americans with Disabilities Act. These types of regulations have increased the costs for operating and maintaining park and recreation facilities, and have taken funds away from other programs, including maintenance, rehabilitation, and restoration programs. In addition, failure to comply with regulations subjects agencies of government, again including park and recreation agencies, to litigation, increasing the ultimate cost of implementing the regulations.

b. **Lack of community support mechanisms.** Some park and recreation agencies have been slow to seek support from the communities they serve. As a result, they lack effective friends-of-the-parks groups to provide equipment, materials, and land. When needed, such friends-of-the-parks groups can also provide political support before other governing bodies (for example, the city council or county board of supervisors at budget time). Additionally, park and recreation agencies have sometimes been remiss in seeking support from
service clubs, chambers of commerce, environmental organizations, and homeowner
groups. Some park and recreation agencies have also been slow to form alliances with
business and industry. (This problem is discussed in detail under Issue 3, Responding to
Continuing Budget Reductions.)

**Increasing Conflicts over Recreational Resources.** In addition to deteriorating and overcrowded
facilities, growing and changing populations, and restricted funding, providers of park and recreation
opportunities are faced with increasing public conflict as various interests, many of which reflect
specific demographic groups, compete for static or decreasing funding and services. Failure to
resolve these conflicts will generate unnecessary problems in park areas, and will reduce public and
political support, to the detriment of park and recreation agencies and the profession as a whole.

Many recreational conflicts existed before the current period of rapid demographic change and
budgetary shortfalls, but are made more intense by them. There are disputes based on economics
such as: What park and recreation programs and services should be provided to inner-city people
versus what should be provided to those in the suburbs? In some specific areas, there are disputes
between participants in different activities, which sometimes seem incompatible, such as mountain
biking versus hiking versus horseback riding and fishing versus power boating. At another level,
there is competition among advocates of alternative approaches to spending agency budgets, such as
acquiring new land versus developing new facilities versus providing a particular type of
recreational programming.

With funding conditions becoming more and more stringent, and new groups becoming involved in
the process, the allocation of scarce park and outdoor recreation resources becomes even more
challenging—technically and politically. Old ways of decision making may be inappropriate to
today’s needs.

The following general actions suggest ways in which park and recreation providers can respond to
the problems and opportunities that result from the current status of their facilities.

1. **DEVELOP A MAINTENANCE PLAN**

In order to manage its maintenance operations effectively, each park and recreation agency should
complete a detailed maintenance plan. Because of the different requirements for maintenance of
facilities and developed grounds, and for maintenance of natural areas and cultural and historical
sites, an agency's maintenance plan should provide explicitly for both types of operations.

Preparing a maintenance plan for an agency includes determining the standards (including standards
of health, safety, and access) to which different types of facilities and areas must be maintained;
inventorying the facilities and areas subject to maintenance; determining the condition of each;
assessing the maintenance required to bring each facility or area up to applicable standards; and
programming the required maintenance activities. Programming the maintenance effort involves
establishing schedules for required activities; determining required labor, materials, and equipment; ascertaining the need for outside contractors and consultants; and estimating the cost of the maintenance.

The maintenance plan should provide for major repairs of facilities and areas, and for their rehabilitation. The plan should also allow for reasonable wear on items subject to heavy use, and should provide for their periodic replacement. Finally, the plan should also provide for contingencies such as unexpected problems and failures.

An agency’s maintenance plan should also provide for conservation, rehabilitation, and restoration of natural areas, historic structures, and cultural resources. Provisions for natural and cultural resources follow a sequence similar to that described for facilities and landscaped areas (set standards, inventory, determine conditions, determine required actions, program actions). All of these efforts, when applied to the treatment of natural and cultural areas, require highly specialized analyses, which may require extensive use of outside specialists to help develop the maintenance plan. (Management of natural and cultural resources is discussed in greater detail under Issue 1, Improving Resource Stewardship.)

2. ACQUIRE NEW LANDS (OR ACCESS TO LANDS CURRENTLY UNAVAILABLE TO THE PUBLIC) AND DEVELOP NEW (OR REDEVELOP EXISTING) FACILITIES

An especially effective way of protecting park and recreation facilities and areas as well as natural and cultural resources is to reduce user pressure on them, and consequently reduce wear and tear. Reduction of the amount of use that the park and recreation infrastructure receives can be accomplished in several ways: by adding to the land and facilities available to the user, by designing facilities to help channel and control use, and by managing--or even restricting--use.

Adding new land and facilities can be accomplished most readily by acquiring new land and developing new facilities. In the current economic climate, however, this option is severely restricted.

Many park and recreation agencies are avoiding new acquisitions and curtailing development of new facilities. Experience during prior, less-severe post-World War II recessions indicates, nevertheless, that those agencies with funds for acquisitions can benefit from the currently distressed real-estate market and obtain exceptionally good prices on their acquisitions.

As an alternative to conventional acquisition and development, many park and recreation agencies can potentially open up public (and quasi-public) land that is not currently accessible to the recreation user. Such additions can potentially be gained by negotiating with the responsible agencies for access to areas such as school grounds, reservoirs, utility rights-of-way, and creekbeds and floodplains. It may be necessary for park and recreation agencies to defray the cost of public access, including providing supervision, maintenance, and programmatic support; and assisting with increases in the cost of liability insurance.
Additions can also be gained by negotiating access to currently vacant private land, or to open space areas on developed land. It may be necessary to provide incentives to the property owner to open private land to the public. Incentives can include public recognition, property tax relief, assistance with the cost of liability insurance, and granting of permission to develop at a specified future date. In better economic times, when commercial or industrial facilities are developed, local jurisdictions can apply conditions—similar to those applied to residential developments—such as land dedication (or in lieu funding), clustering to provide recreational space, and sale or transfer of development rights.

While most cities, counties, and special districts are not located adjacent to military bases and do not contain military bases within their boundaries, there are a number that are close to or that surround bases. When military bases are closed, affected park and recreation organizations should make concerted efforts to obtain title to all, or at least a portion, of them. Closed military bases can provide local jurisdictions with parks and open space areas. The potential also exists to use some land on former military bases for residential, commercial, or industrial purposes specifically to help defray the cost of operating the land used for parks and open space.

If new parks and recreation areas are made available to the public, and funds are limited for development of facilities, simple user facilities can be installed, at least temporarily, to open the newly available lands to users. These simple facilities include signs, parking (on the street, if compatible with the neighborhood; unpaved or graveled, if necessary), restrooms (portables, if necessary), and entry stations (if access must be controlled, or if fees are to be collected). When funds become available to develop facilities, more permanent, complete, and comfortable facilities can be installed. These should be compatible with the character and carrying capacity of the land involved and consistent with the needs of the recreational users. Care must be taken to preserve natural and cultural resources.

Existing facilities in established parks and recreation areas should be reviewed for possible modification or, if necessary, redevelopment to accommodate new users and to meet current health, safety, and access regulations. If budgets are restricted and new user needs have to be met, it may be possible to accommodate them within the framework of existing facilities. For example, it may be possible to convert at least some baseball fields into soccer fields. Similarly, it may be practical to rearrange at least some picnic areas and campsites designed for nuclear families into sites suited to extended family groups. When more funds become available, additional, more costly upgrades can be made to facilities.

Additional parkland and facilities will not, by themselves, take the pressure off existing land and facilities. The administering agencies must make concerted efforts to make the public aware of newly available parkland and facilities, and encourage—or even require—users to shift at least some of their activities to them from overcrowded areas.
3. REDUCE THE PRESSURE ON PARKS THROUGH MANAGEMENT OF USE AND DESIGN OF FACILITIES AND PROGRAMS

Park and recreation managers should make a concerted effort to estimate the carrying capacity of each of their units, and should use their carrying capacity estimates to manage access to units. As necessary, managers should restrict use of particular units—and even sensitive (or obviously popular and heavily used parts of) units—to levels consistent with their carrying capacities. Using this approach, managers can prevent damage especially to natural and cultural resources (and they can restore areas and facilities that have been damaged). Since carrying capacity often cannot be determined precisely, agencies will have to monitor use and impact periodically to determine the success of their management strategies, and to revise them as necessary.

Park and recreation agencies should also design facilities and the visitor activities that use them so as to reduce pressure on sensitive and overused areas and facilities (especially when they contain sensitive natural and cultural resources). Visitor facilities can be designed (or, if necessary, redone) to serve as barriers, which prohibit access to, or to function as guides, which direct use away from fragile resources (for example, wetlands, cultural features), or lead to less sensitive areas whose locations may not be obvious. Of notable utility for these purposes is the design of parking areas and walkways, and the provision of visitor information indicating both new opportunities and areas to be avoided.

4. EXPLORE ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO OPERATING PARKS AND RECREATION AREAS

The managers of park and recreation agencies should explore using alternative approaches to operating their land and facilities. The objectives of these alternative approaches should be to reduce the cost of operations or to provide better service to recreational users.

Where possible, for example, park and recreation managers should reduce crowding in a heavily used unit by making users aware of less crowded units nearby, or even of less intensively used areas in the same unit. (If several nearby agencies have cooperative agreements in force, alternative units may actually be located in other jurisdictions.)

Managers can also offer incentives for off-peak use of crowded units, or for use of less-crowded units nearby. In units for which fees are charged either for parking and access, or for program participation, reduced fees can be offered to off-peak users, or to users of less-used units. In units for which no fees are charged, appealing events and programs can be offered at less-used units or during off-peak periods to draw users away from heavily used units and times of peak use.

As another example, park and recreation managers may be able to fulfill some of their management and maintenance responsibilities by negotiating for these services as part of new or renewed concessions contracts (or permits). Those facilities, such as campgrounds, boat launching ramps, bait and tackle shops, convenience stores, and boat and bicycle rentals, which produce revenue, and can potentially be profitable to concessionaires, should be considered as sources of management and/or maintenance support. In negotiating a contract, the requirement for management and/or maintenance of facilities can be included as a condition for awarding the contract.
The extent of the concessionaire’s responsibility for management and/or maintenance included in a contract is subject to negotiation. It may be limited to the facility or facilities from which the concessionaire derives revenue, or it may be broader, including other facilities—and even other activities—not directly related to the revenue-producing facilities. The concessionaire may assume responsibility for entrance stations, picnic shelters, and restrooms not associated with the concession facility or facilities. Alternatively, the concessionaire may agree to undertake maintenance or restoration of some natural or cultural features of a park or recreation area, or to perform some other necessary services. If the potential for profit is great enough, the concessionaire is likely to assume the added responsibility for management and/or maintenance, freeing the agency to apply its personnel and funds to other activities.

As a final example, park and recreation managers should consider reducing their operating costs by using contact personnel or teams instead of using police (or rangers) to maintain order. Contact personnel are not sworn peace officers, but should be trained for their duties. They are identifiable, but not uniformed. (Typically, they wear a jacket, vest, or blazer and distinguishing headgear, which differentiate them from the public and identify them with their agency.) Contact personnel are unarmed, but are usually equipped with radios so they can get assistance when they need it. Most significantly, contact personnel are often members of the predominant ethnic or cultural group using a particular location. Experience with contact personnel suggests that they are much more effective than police (or rangers) at reducing litter, vandalism, and noise, and at maintaining order. Contact personnel are also significantly less costly to use than police (or rangers).

5. RESOLVE RECREATIONAL CONFLICTS

The problem of recreational conflicts can be addressed through a better understanding of the various points of view of those in conflict. The various sides of conflicts should be included in the evaluation of the problem and its resolution. Some techniques and rule making can help park and recreation managers deal with the more divisive problems.

As the population becomes larger and more diverse, and as the resources—funds, staff, lands, and facilities—fail to keep pace, the competition for desired recreation opportunities becomes increasingly intense. It becomes critical to know the population and its needs, and to involve all groups in the agency’s policy-making and program decisions. Carefully structured forums, from task forces to public hearings, will help to find a middle ground among special-interest user groups whose interests might conflict.

The solutions to user conflicts come in many ways. One useful technique is zoning—separation of conflicting activities in terms of their location or the times during which they are permitted.

Conflicting activities or user groups can be relegated to different areas, or alternatively, to the same area at different times. Rationing techniques (e.g., pricing, first-come-first-served) may be useful in equitably reducing or redirecting use. Regulations may be necessary to control or even prohibit activities subject to conflict.
6. PERPETUATE THE OUTDOOR RECREATION CODE OF ETHICS FOR CALIFORNIA

Chapter I of this document discusses an Outdoor Recreation Code of Ethics for Californians. It is intended to set standards for individual conduct in an outdoor recreation setting. It is also intended to help make people aware of the importance of the outdoor environment and outdoor recreation in people’s lives, and their importance for the well-being of the community at large. Communicating and promoting the recreation ethic must be done skillfully. Park and recreation managers must work out an effective public information program using all suitable media.

At the same time this message is being spread, it is essential that the California recreation ethic be made a conscious element of park and recreation operations. The message should be incorporated into staff training and orientation programs at all levels. Park and recreation supervisors, employees, contractors, and volunteers must be imbued with the importance of their endeavors so they can convey this attitude to the public. If park and recreation staff, contractors, and volunteers are well informed and enthusiastic about the California recreation ethic, they will be better able to communicate its importance to the public.

7. PROVIDE BETTER TRAINING TO MAINTENANCE SUPERVISORS AND OTHER MAINTENANCE PERSONNEL

Efforts to enhance maintenance, upgrading, and rehabilitation of parkland and facilities should be advanced by providing personnel at all levels of park and recreation agencies with improved training. At the highest level, managers can benefit from improved management skills, which will allow them to plan for, budget, and carry out required maintenance activities more effectively. (Training of park and recreation managers is discussed in detail under Issue 4, Building Strong Leadership.)

Supervisors and staff members can perform their functions better if they are thoroughly familiar with the maintenance practices best suited to their agency’s land and facilities. Knowledge of these practices can be provided to them through training—both in the classroom and in hands-on and/or on-the-job sessions—in the specific techniques they need to keep their agency’s land and facilities in good condition.

8. ESTABLISH OR STRENGTHEN COMMUNITY SUPPORT

Those park and recreation agencies that have not already established a base of support in the communities they serve should develop effective friends-of-the-parks groups as quickly as possible. They should use these organizations to help seek donations of money, labor (paid and volunteer), equipment, materials, and even land. They should also use their support organizations for political support before their city councils and boards of supervisors, especially on budget matters.

Managers of park and recreation agencies that have not already established working relationships with service clubs, chambers of commerce, environmental organizations, and homeowner groups, or that have not already formed alliances with business and industry, should remedy these deficiencies. Managers of those agencies that have mustered support from these types of organizations should review their efforts. If appropriate, park and recreation managers should seek additional ties in their service areas. They should also attempt to strengthen existing relationships, and to obtain increased support from them.
Strong ties to friends-of-the-parks groups and to other community-based organizations and businesses can help to shore up deteriorating and otherwise inadequate facilities both through direct aid and through political support at budget time. (Development of community support is discussed in detail under Issue 3, Responding to Limited Funding.)

9. DEVELOP AND DISTRIBUTE CASE STUDIES OF SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

In order to assist park and recreation managers in their efforts to protect parkland and facilities, the park and recreation profession in the state should develop and distribute a casebook of success stories. This task can potentially be accomplished by the park and recreation clearinghouse discussed under Issue 7, Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research.

SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR MANAGING AGING FACILITIES

- Upgrade the maintenance function for the agency.

- Develop a maintenance plan. If necessary, limit the plan to high-level information, but provide enough details so that long-term maintenance needs can be estimated, along with the approximate time at which they will be needed, and their order-of-magnitude cost. If current staff and budget restrictions require that this high-level approach be used, future updates of the maintenance plan should provide additional detail -- all agencies.

- Develop techniques and programs for redirecting visitation from crowded units to ones receiving less use, or from over-used parts of units to less heavily used areas.

- Provide printed information on the activities and programs at and directions to less crowded units, or areas of units. Consider redirecting users to nearby units in other jurisdictions, with the approval of the receiving agencies -- all agencies.

- Provide incentives to use less crowded parks and recreation areas (e.g., special events, lower fees) -- all agencies.

- If the agency is planning to construct new facilities, plan to use the design of those facilities to channel users into areas that can handle them and away from areas that attract too many visitors, or that contain fragile resources -- all agencies.

- If necessary, restrict use of overcrowded units (e.g., by limiting parking and enforcing the limits, or by accepting entry fees from a prescribed number of visitors) -- all agencies.
- Take multiagency actions to open additional land to recreational uses, emphasizing lands already in public use.

- Develop local and regional inventories of public and quasi-public land suitable for recreational use, but currently closed to public use. (This inventory can be performed in combination with the inventory of open space land discussed under Issue 1, Improving Resource Stewardship.) -- all agencies in conjunction with local and regional planning commissions.

- Select the most promising areas of public or quasi-public land, from the point of view of proximity to potential users and suitability for recreational uses. Initiate negotiations with the agencies or organizations that own the land in question with the goal of opening that land to recreational uses -- all agencies.

(Also see related actions designed to protect park and recreation resources and open space, which are discussed in Issue 1, Improving Resource Stewardship.)

- Attempt to accommodate new recreational user needs within the framework of existing facilities.

- Review existing facilities for possible modification (e.g., baseball fields to soccer fields, picnic areas and campsites for use by extended family groups) -- all agencies.

- If appropriate, make the conversions, placing priority on the areas of greatest need -- all agencies.

- Attempt to acquire management and/or maintenance support (or other services) from new or renewed concessions agreements.

- Review anticipated concessions agreements for their potential to provide management and/or maintenance support -- all agencies.

- If appropriate, add the requirement for management and/or maintenance support to concessions agreements to be negotiated -- all agencies.
ISSUE 6. EXPANDING LEGISLATIVE SUPPORT AND MINIMIZING LEGAL SETBACKS

The park and recreation movement faces serious problems in the legislative and legal arenas. Despite the committed efforts of the California Park and Recreation Society, park and recreation agencies lack the cohesiveness and the resources to adequately represent their interest before various legislative bodies—local, state, or federal. As a result, legislation has been passed that has been difficult for park and recreation providers to implement, and costly to ongoing operations.

It is imperative that the park and recreation profession build coalitions at all levels of government to press for supportive laws and regulations, and to fight unfavorable ones.

The profession's ability to deliver services is further impeded by the current trend toward high judgements in personal injury cases. These judgements have caused termination of some activities and events, while driving insurance costs up to record levels.

Lack of Influence with Legislative Bodies. In order for the park and recreation profession to compete effectively for funds and other resources, it must be able to influence legislative bodies at all levels of government—local, state, and federal. The profession is currently limited in its ability to marshal the legislative support it needs.

This lack of legislative support is another manifestation of the general lack of influence felt by park and recreation professionals. It is a veritable subtext of this plan, and is discussed in detail in reference to several of the other issues treated in this plan, most notably Issue 3, Responding to Limited Funding, and Issue 4, Building Strong Leadership.

Being able to influence the various legislative bodies (city councils and boards of supervisors; state Assembly and Senate; federal House of Representatives and Senate) is conceptually similar. Regardless of the level involved, it requires building coalitions with like-minded supporters. These may be individuals, organizations, or other government agencies. It also requires convincing key legislators and their staffs that parks and recreation can make an important—perhaps even critical—contribution to the economic and social well-being of the jurisdiction. The benefits of coalition building can—and should—be cumulative. Local coalitions lend force to a statewide coalition, and state coalitions lend force to a national coalition.

There are significant practical differences in coalition building at different levels of government. Although local issues can be highly divisive, they involve fewer compromises than statewide or national issues. At the local level, coalition partners can work together directly, and can establish firsthand communication with elected representatives and their aides. At the state level, and even more so at the national level, the degree to which issues are aggregated and subject to compromise increases. The need also increases progressively to act indirectly and through surrogates to build contacts with legislators. The process works, however, at all levels, and non-participants are at a disadvantage.
The legislative process certainly has worked to the disadvantage of park and recreation providers, who have not had much experience politically. In part, they have not tried to build many of these types of coalitions. In the post-World War II era, they did not have to because there was enough demand for parks and enough money to build and operate them, and because park and recreation managers were discouraged from playing political roles in their jurisdictions. Since then, they have not wanted to be players in the political arena.

In the 1980s and 1990s, park and recreation managers have been preoccupied with the problems of survival under shrinking budgets. Because they are not political by nature, or because they have been long discouraged from playing an active role in the legislative process, the leaders of the profession have lacked either the commitment or the experience to do so. Until the profession takes a more active role in influencing legislation, parks and recreation will suffer from a lack of funds and of friends in high places.

**Increasing Number of Regulations.** Partially as a result of the absence of influence before legislative bodies at various levels, discussed above, park and recreation agencies have been faced with an increased number of regulations. These regulations cover a wide range of health, safety, and access issues, which reflect society’s concerns with such matters as toxic substances, water quality, sewage treatment, earthquake protection, and access for the disabled. Compliance with the regulations costs money, which has been hard to obtain in the post-Proposition 13 era. Failure to comply with those regulations subjects an agency to legal risk. As a result, park and recreation agencies usually try to comply, which takes money from other programs and projects. Since they often cannot comply fully, they are still at risk of fines and litigation.

The Americans with Disabilities Act can serve as a paradigm for the park and recreation profession. The measure was spearheaded by organizations providing support for the disabled, which built a coalition that included other groups ranging from medical organizations to welfare groups to veterans’ organizations. Business and industry lobbying organizations worked actively to control and limit ADA’s costs to their members.

Although park and recreation agencies—together with other public agencies—should have been in compliance with Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, which addresses many of the concerns of ADA, most are not. There appears, furthermore, to have been little effective participation by the park and recreation profession in the legislative process during the drafting and passage of ADA. As a result, park and recreation providers face a major obligation to satisfy ADA’s access requirements, and receive no significant help in meeting that obligation.

**Lack of Knowledge of Changes in Laws and Regulations.** In one respect, ADA is not representative of the legislative process. It was in the legislative process for many years, and was subject to wide discussion for several years before its passage. Since then, its implementation has been subject to additional discussion, including training sessions presented by the California Park and Recreation Society, specifically tailored to the needs of park and recreation providers.
Because much of the state and federal legislation that affects park and recreation agencies is more limited in scope than ADA, it is not subject to such extensive discussion. As a result, much parks and recreation-related legislation is implemented without much of the profession—especially employees of small- and medium-size organizations, which lack any legislative support staffs—being aware of it. They can remain unaware until they receive some official notice, a warning from a compliance officer, or an irate complaint from a park user.

Keeping abreast of implementing regulations for legislation and of legal decisions altering the interpretation of legislation are also problems. This is, again, especially true for small- and medium-size agencies without legislative or legal support. As a result, park and recreation managers may be unaware of changes in implementation or interpretation of legislation until a reported violation is called to their attention.

**Large Awards in Liability Cases Impede Delivery of Services.** Virtually all outdoor recreation activities entail some risk of injury to participants. The possibility of an accident is obvious in specialized, inherently risky activities such as hang gliding and rock climbing. Accidents also occur in routine, well supervised activities such as participating in team sports and playing on swings and slides. Accidents can even occur in apparently passive and risk-free activities such as a neighborhood fair or a holiday celebration.

Americans have demonstrated a strong propensity for litigation. Influencing this penchant is the notion that park and recreation agencies have the ability to pay big judgments. Park and recreation providers are not in a unique or even a highly exposed position. Like many other government agencies and most large businesses, they are considered to have, in common parlance, “deep pockets,” and are regarded as good targets for litigation.

As a result of large court awards and insurance payouts, rates to insure park and recreation agencies have continued escalating. Both the previous SCORP and DPR’s 1987 survey of local park and recreation agencies reported agency problems caused by the high cost of liability insurance. The trend has not abated, and agencies are paying higher premiums than they did five years ago, and are having to accept further reductions in their coverage.

Since this is a problem common to government and business, a park and recreation agency need not have a record of large insurance losses to attract the attention of its insurers. Large awards against other agencies in the same jurisdiction can cause insurers to reexamine the activities and programs of all agencies. A series of losses in park and recreation liability cases in other jurisdictions can also cause insurers to increase the cost of coverage to providers with excellent safety records.

As has happened during the last decade, some park and recreation agencies have been able to obtain insurance only after they have modified their activities and programs, sometimes eliminating high-risk ones, and, in some cases, even low- and medium-risk ones. In some cases, insurance is not available at any cost. This same insurance crisis has dampened enthusiasm for, or eliminated outright, sponsorship of some special events—celebrations, fun runs, and other gatherings sponsored by agencies or charitable and service organizations using public facilities.
The following general actions suggest ways in which park and recreation agencies can respond to the problems and opportunities offered by the legislative and legal system.

1. SEEK CHANGES TO CURRENT LAWS

In general, the park and recreation profession should pursue supportive laws and regulations, and oppose unfavorable ones at all levels of government. Specifically, the profession should seek several specific change to current law:

- Change the law governing liability for personal injury to put park and recreation agencies, their managers, employees, board members, and volunteers at less legal risk, including vicarious liability, and putting more responsibility on recreation users.

- Participate actively with other agencies and organizations in efforts to reform workers’ compensation law to reduce the cost to park and recreation agencies of injury and stress claims.

- Amend the laws governing the use of volunteers, including board members, to protect them from liability for actions taken in good faith; and to ease the requirements for financial disclosure, which discourage many volunteers from serving.

These activities can only be effective if the profession builds the kinds of coalitions discussed under Issue 4, Building Strong Leadership, and proceeds with legislative and regulatory activities in a forceful and unified manner.

2. PROVIDE INFORMATION TO THE PROFESSION ON CHANGES IN LAWS AND REGULATIONS

In order to keep park and recreation managers apprised of laws and regulations, provide information to the profession on changes in laws, implementing regulations, and their interpretation by the courts, which affect their agencies. To help assure that laws and regulations are complied with adequately, technical assistance should also be provided to park and recreation agencies on implementing them. This function should be performed by the park and recreation clearinghouse discussed under Issue 7, Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research.

3. REDUCE THE BACKLOG OF DEFERRED MAINTENANCE

Individual park and recreation agencies should reduce the backlog of deferred maintenance as quickly as possible. This will reduce agency exposure to personal injury claims.

4. ADOPT (OR IMPROVE) A RISK MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

Those park and recreation agencies that do not have risk management programs in force should implement them at the earliest possible time. Those agencies that have already implemented risk management programs should review their programs and revise them, as necessary, to provide better
protection from personal liability claims, and for possible containment of the increasing cost of insurance. Small- and medium-size agencies located near one another should consider jointly using the services of a risk manager.

Development of new risk management programs and review and modification of existing ones may require the support of outside consultants who specialize in the field. Any new or upgraded program should include risk management training for all staff members who can realistically be expected to expose their agencies to liability claims.

5. FIGHT FRIVOLOUS AND UNMERITED SUITS

All park and recreation agencies should vigorously fight frivolous and unmerited suits. Out-of-court settlements should be offered only to resolve claims in which agency attorneys consider the plaintiffs are likely to prevail if they go to trial, or in which the costs of settlements are clearly less than the costs of defending against the claims. Taking a strong stand will discourage minor and false claims, and reduce the likelihood of claims and trials.

6. DETERMINE THE AMOUNT LOST STATEWIDE ON CLAIMS IN A SINGLE YEAR

There are no reliable estimates of the actual number of personal liability claims against park and recreation agencies, or the amount of loss they suffer as a result of those claims. The park and recreation profession should establish a project to determine this information for a recent, representative year. Such information will help to determine the true cost of personal injury claims to park and recreation providers. This study should be performed by, or under the direction of, the park and recreation clearinghouse discussed under Issue 7, Improving Recreation Opportunities through Planning and Research.

7. RECRUIT VOLUNTEERS TO PROVIDE LEGAL ADVOCACY

Park and recreation agencies should consider seeking legal support from law firms and individual attorneys to provide legal support and advocacy on a pro bono basis. Addition of attorneys to the list of skills available from volunteers can potentially help park and recreation agencies--especially small- and medium-size ones--keep abreast of legal opinions, minimize exposure to personal liability claims, and respond promptly and firmly to frivolous and unmerited ones.

SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR EXPANDING LEGISLATIVE SUPPORT AND MINIMIZING LEGAL SETBACKS

- Take the initial steps necessary to develop greater political influence.

- At the state level, select a few key issues (e.g., reform of workers’ compensation) to start building alliances in the legislative arena. Articulate the position of the park and recreation profession on these issues to state legislators -- CPRS.
— At the local level, select several major issues to begin alliance building. State the position of the park and recreation profession on the selected issues to members of city councils and boards of supervisors -- all local agencies.

• Make it easier to recruit volunteers by reducing the liability exposure of volunteers working in parks and recreation areas, and by limiting the need for filing financial disclosures.

— Introduce legislation to accomplish the desired objectives -- CPRS.

• Work to reduce excessive liability insurance costs.

— Fight lawsuits and insurance claims to control the number of unfair claims, and to discourage questionable suits -- all agencies.

— Recruit law firms and individual attorneys to serve your agency on a pro bono basis -- all agencies.

— Institute a risk management program to encompass the agency’s maintenance, operations, and programming activities -- all agencies.

ISSUE 7. IMPROVING RECREATION OPPORTUNITIES THROUGH PLANNING AND RESEARCH

Like most activities, provision of park and recreation services requires serious efforts at basic and applied research, and at long-range planning. Even in the day-to-day operations of an agency, planning and research are important in a variety of areas ranging from advances in safety methods to determining the motivations, interests, and satisfaction levels of park users. If the park and recreation profession is to take the initiative in solving existing and impending problems, it must use planning and research techniques to understand and benefit from the changing conditions under which it must function.

Limited Use Made of Long-Range Planning Techniques. It is evident that most park and recreation agencies do not conduct any significant amount of long-range planning. This deficiency can be observed in both state and local park and recreation agencies.

The paucity of long-range planning has a number of causes. Park and recreation professionals have not been conditioned to think in terms of long-range planning, and, therefore, they have been unwilling to invest resources in the data collection and analysis required by this type of planning. (This was true when park and recreation budgets were relatively adequate, and it is strongly reinforced by current budget restrictions.) Because they are unfamiliar with the techniques of long-range planning, even if they recognize its potential benefits, park and recreation managers generally lack the skills needed to determine what data to collect, how to analyze those data, and how to use the findings available to them. The absence of long-range planning results in park and recreation agencies
placing emphasis on effecting short-range solutions to their problems. Finally, because they are overwhelmed by the need to find short-range solutions to their problems (read: they are preoccupied with putting out brush fires), park and recreation managers are further precluded from taking a longer-range view, even though it might provide them with better solutions.

The absence of long-range planning means that park and recreation agencies have historically made little effort to conduct on-going needs assessments. These agencies have also historically made little or no effort to project trends to determine the future needs of their users. For this reason, park and recreation providers tend to lag in their responses to changes in their traditional clientele (such as maturing and moving on of children, changing income levels, and aging). They also tend to be slow in responding to new clientele (such as the in-migration of lower-income residents or of members of new ethnic groups into their jurisdictions). Consequently, one often finds that park and recreation providers are developing programs and facilities that may have been appropriate for their users some time ago, but do not meet the needs of their current or emerging clientele.

Together, the reliance on short-term solutions and the absence of long-range planning tend to put park and recreation agencies at a disadvantage compared to other agencies not subject to these limitations. Government agencies that develop and use long-range planning and look to longer-range solutions to their problems are better able to gauge in advance the requirements on them for services, and to determine the most effective ways to deploy their resources.

**Limited SCORP Planning Process.** The SCORP planning process is an example of the limited capabilities of park and recreation agencies to plan effectively. (Appendix 2, The California Outdoor Planning Program, describes the entire process.)

SCORP planning has been performed essentially unilaterally for other agencies by the Department of Parks and Recreation. The DPR staff members assigned to prepare each *California Outdoor Recreation Plan*, which is a major component of the SCORP planning process, have been assisted by an advisory committee composed of representatives of DPR; the National Park Service and other federal agencies providing outdoor recreation services; local park and recreation agencies; academicians in the field of park and recreation; and private providers of outdoor recreation. Despite their inclusion on each of the *California Outdoor Recreation Plan* advisory committees, the federal agencies are not bound by the plans. Except for DPR, furthermore, other state agencies that either directly or indirectly provide outdoor recreation services (such as the Department of Fish and Game, the Wildlife Conservation Board, the Department of Boating and Waterways, and the various conservancies) have not even been included on the advisory committees. Consequently, federal and state agencies (except for DPR) have simply been included in a catalogue of California’s recreation providers, and are minimally bound or guided by it.

The SCORP planning process has, nevertheless, produced a number of highly useful specialized studies. These include two surveys of public opinions and attitudes toward outdoor recreation (1887 and 1992), a survey of park and recreation agencies in California (1987, published in 1988), and an assessment of the state’s park and recreation infrastructure (1989, published in 1992). Only the public survey has been updated. Despite their importance and utility, resources have not been
available to update either the survey of park and recreation agencies or the study of California’s infrastructure, or to examine other issues of concern.

As a consequence of the limitations discussed above, the SCORP planning process has only limited relevance to the ongoing operation of state and local park and recreation agencies. The California Outdoor Recreation Plan and the Open Project Selection Process have the greatest impact. The plan is used primarily to justify the receipt of money from the federal Land and Water Conservation Fund, and the OPSP governs disbursement of that money to local park and recreation agencies for projects that qualify under its terms.

At least in theory, the California Outdoor Recreation Plan is only one component in the overall SCORP planning process. In fact, preparation of the plan has tended to dominate the rest of the process.

**State Clearinghouse Needed for Park and Recreation Information.** At present, there are a number of partial sources of park and recreation information available to the practitioner. Both the California Park and Recreation Society and the National Recreation and Park Association’s Pacific Service Center in Sacramento serve as useful, but limited, repositories of information. NRPA provides the Schole Network on a nationwide basis. The Schole Network provides on-line access to computer data bases and electronic mail among network subscribers. Schole currently has only a limited number of subscribers, and is not focused on California park and recreation issues.

The U.S. Forest Service operates the Forest Service Information Network Forestry On-line (FS INFO), which consists of a national, computer-based, on-line bibliographic system and a network of regional service centers. In California, the service center is operated by the Pacific Southwest Station, Berkeley, and is known as “INFO-PSW.” FS INFO and INFO-PSW are currently available to Forest Service and Bureau of Land Management personnel, the staff of the National Agriculture Library, state foresters, and other Forest Service cooperators. It is anticipated that budget restrictions will soon limit direct access to FS INFO and PSW-INFO to employees of the federal government. The on-line bibliographic component of FS INFO, however, has recently become available to anyone who has access to the University of California’s Melvyl Library System.

NRPA’s Schole and the Forest Service’s FS INFO tend to be bibliographic in nature, with negligible interpretation. CPRS’ and NRPA’s information, while highly interpretive, does not aim at completeness. As a result, there is no single source of information—no clearinghouse—on park and recreation issues, techniques, programs, and problems and solutions as they affect outdoor recreation practitioners in the state. Consequently, park and recreation managers often have difficulty in determining what information is available on various topics of interest to them. They also have no mechanism for evaluating the quality of information that they may be able to locate.

The very fact that long-range planning and other management techniques are regarded as novelties and receive limited use by park and recreation agencies can, in part, be attributed to the lack of such a clearinghouse. After all, these “novelties” are broadly used in business, and even by other govern-
ment agencies. If, in fact, park and recreation agencies could turn to a clearinghouse oriented to their specific needs to find information on which agencies are using various management techniques, the specifics of the techniques they are using, and the benefits received, a much larger number of agencies could be expected to try similar techniques.

Similarly, the difficulty that park and recreation managers have finding, interpreting, and applying outdoor recreation research can also be attributed to the absence of a clearinghouse for park and recreation information. If agencies in the field could turn to such a clearinghouse to obtain research reports on topics that correspond to their needs, and could also obtain help, when they need it, interpreting and applying the information obtained, we could also expect to see much wider use of research results.

Baseline Information Needed on Parks and Recreation. There is little baseline information produced (and updated in a timely manner) for park and recreation agencies at any level of government. Baseline information is empirical information collected to show the condition of an organization or group of organizations at a point in time. Thus, baseline information could be collected for all local park and recreation departments in the state, for all departments in a region or county, for a single department, or even for one of that department’s parks. To be meaningful, baseline information has to be updated periodically in a consistent manner to show changes—positive or negative—in the organization or organizations being monitored.

The absence of baseline information for the park and recreation agencies of the state makes it difficult for an agency to measure itself either against other comparable agencies, or even against itself during a period of time. Because of the lack of these capabilities, a particular park and recreation provider cannot measure such critical aspects of its operations as its constituencies, budget, staff, infrastructure, and programs against other agencies. It is even difficult for a particular provider to measure its own progress (or regression) against its own performance five, ten, or twenty years ago.

The tendency of the SCORP planning process to produce useful reports on a one-time basis, but to lack the capability to update them, is symptomatic of the problem of collecting baseline data on parks and recreation in the state. The survey of local park and recreation agencies or the assessment of the condition of the local park and recreation infrastructure both have the potential of providing baseline information in two useful areas, albeit at a high level of abstraction. The absence of updates for this information prevents both studies from being useful as baseline information.

No Mechanism Available for Coordinating Research on Park and Recreation Issues. Just as there is little baseline information collected on parks and recreation in the state, research studies are also underused. This problem occurs, at least in part, because there is no means available to park and recreation managers for stimulating and coordinating research in the field of recreation. Necessary research is often not performed. In addition, park and recreation providers often complain that research findings are too abstract, or are not applicable to their own particular situations.

The following general actions suggest ways in which outdoor recreation providers can deal with the problems posed by the limited amount of planning and research currently performed in the field.
1. DEVELOP MECHANISMS FOR LONG-RANGE PLANNING

In order to escape the limitations they have imposed on themselves by concentrating on short-range solutions to problems, park and recreation agencies should increase their use of long-range planning. Encouraging long-range planning will require cooperation among academicians in the field of outdoor recreation and representatives of the larger and more sophisticated park and recreation providers. The specific arrangements required to implement long-range planning in many state and local agencies can be one of the goals of the governor’s task force on outdoor recreation discussed under Issue 4, Building Strong Leadership.

If long-range planning is to be useful to park and recreation managers, it must use techniques relevant to their needs. The selection process requires a review of applicable long-range planning methodologies. Following completion of this review, it will be necessary to select the most suitable approach to be used by park and recreation agencies. (Because of the wide range in the size and sophistication of park and recreation agencies, it may be necessary either to select several different, but complementary, approaches, each tailored to a different range of agency sizes; or to select a single approach structured to allow individual agencies to select and use those components that are applicable to their operations.)

As the next step in the process, it will be necessary to “package” the selected long-range planning methodology in a manner that makes applying that methodology as easy as possible for agency managers, and gives them results that make sense to them. It will then be necessary to train park and recreation managers to use the methodology in their own jurisdictions.

To encourage use of long-range planning by park and recreation agencies, it will be necessary to evaluate its application and publicize its successes (and problems). As use of long-range planning becomes more common, it may be necessary to revise the planning methodology to correct problems encountered with it.

To further encourage use of long-range planning techniques, applicants for grants from the Land and Water Conservation Fund and other sources should initially be rewarded for certifying that they are using these techniques. Ultimately, applications for grants should require that applicants use long-range planning techniques on a continuing basis.

2. STRENGTHEN THE SCORP PLANNING PROCESS

The Department of Parks and Recreation should take steps to improve the SCORP planning process. The goals of this SCORP improvement effort should be to:

1. Place more emphasis on SCORP as an overall process by developing a structured five-year program of SCORP planning, including a series of identified procedures and products that support and supplement the California Outdoor Recreation Plan, and which provide useful information to park and recreation professionals.
2. Involve other state agencies with direct and indirect responsibilities for providing outdoor recreation lands, facilities, and programs (e.g., the Department of Fish and Game, the Wildlife Conservation Board, the Department of Boating and Waterways, and the various conservancies) in planning to meet California’s recreational needs, and in coordinating their efforts to meet those needs.

3. Encourage more cooperation and coordination from federal agencies with responsibilities for providing outdoor recreation opportunities in California.

4. Make the SCORP planning process more meaningful and useful to park and recreation agencies at all levels of government throughout the state.

The revised SCORP planning process should use the long-range planning techniques developed for use by park and recreation agencies (described in 1, above). This will relate the revised SCORP planning process to long-range planning, and will help make the long-range planning process meaningful to park and recreation agencies. Agency long-range plans should also be an important source of inputs to the SCORP process.

3. DEVELOP A CLEARINGHOUSE FOR PARK AND RECREATION INFORMATION

DPR should establish a state clearinghouse for park and recreation information. The clearinghouse would help park and recreation professionals to determine what information is available on the full range of topics of concern to them, including:

1. Management techniques (e.g., on long-range planning and other management techniques).

2. Baseline data on local, state, and federal recreation lands, facilities, and programs.

3. Research conducted on outdoor recreation.

4. Practical guidance on improvements to park operations and maintenance.

5. Information relevant to the park and recreation profession, but developed outside the field, primarily by business, and extracted from reports and general-circulation publications.

This information should be available in a computerized, on-line, keyword-retrieval system. The system should be user-friendly to encourage its wide use by personnel in park and recreation agencies. The clearinghouse would also help agencies to interpret the information that is available, and to evaluate its quality.
The clearinghouse should be operated by one of the state's academic institutions with departments in outdoor recreation and leisure studies, or by several of them acting as a consortium. To the extent possible, the clearinghouse should use available resources (e.g., the National Recreation and Parks Association's Schole Network and the U. S. Forest Service's FS INFO and INFO-PSW). When the effectiveness of the clearinghouse has been demonstrated, it may be appropriate for using agencies to pay for some or all of the services they receive from it.

4. IMPLEMENT PROCEDURES FOR COORDINATING RECREATION RESEARCH

DPR should also establish a mechanism for coordinating research in the field of recreation. This mechanism, which should probably operate in conjunction with the clearinghouse discussed in 3, above, would collect information on the research needs of park and recreation agencies throughout the state. Collection of this information will be in terms of specific information needs of the state's park and recreation managers, and should be integrated with the revised SCORP planning process (which is described in 2, above).

The clearinghouse would consolidate and prioritize research needs in a range of areas important to recreation providers (including areas of applied technology). The clearinghouse would then make these research needs known to academic and other research organizations. In addition, the clearinghouse would attempt to obtain full or partial funding for the research projects to which it has assigned the highest priority. A goal of the clearinghouse would be to increase the amount of research that can be done by using available funds to leverage additional government and private funds.

The clearinghouse would evaluate completed research studies. The evaluation would emphasize the applicability and usefulness of the research to the needs of the state's park and recreation agencies. In addition, the clearinghouse would help to interpret and apply the research results to the specific problems of park and recreation providers.

5. DEVELOP INFORMATION ON THE VALUE AND BENEFITS OF RECREATION

The absence of convincing evidence on the value and benefits of recreation has often made it difficult for park and recreation agencies to establish that they are providing more than pleasurable experiences to their clientele. Lacking proof of the social and economic value of recreation, it has been difficult to justify park and recreation agencies receiving funding at the expense of other apparently more valuable governmental functions with which they must compete for limited funds and other resources.

To rectify this situation, park and recreation providers should initiate efforts to establish the value and benefits of recreation services. Because of the complexity of this issue, it must be undertaken using both qualitative and quantitative investigative approaches. These efforts should be performed under the auspices of the state's park and recreation clearinghouse.
Using the qualitative approach, the clearinghouse would collect any information on the actual experiences that agencies have had that would show—or, at least, suggest—demonstrable benefits from recreation. This information could be drawn from park and recreation agencies or from other agencies such as police departments, probation departments, mental health departments, and the courts. Information on the economic benefits of parks and recreation could also be collected from banks, real estate companies, and other private-sector firms.

Park and recreation agencies should be asked to submit statements of their own experiences specifically to build a record of the benefits of recreation. Supplemental use could be made of newspaper accounts and peripherally related research reports. The clearinghouse would periodically summarize findings and make them available to interested park and recreation agencies.

Using the quantitative approach to the research, which could go on simultaneously with the qualitative one, the clearinghouse, working in conjunction with representatives of park and recreation agencies, would plan and execute research projects specifically designed to measure the benefits of recreation. In addition to articles, studies, theses, and other scholarly works, the outputs of this effort would include reports specifically designed for use by park and recreation professionals in developing programs and seeking budgetary support. (Using research findings on the value and benefits of recreation is discussed under Issue 4, Building Strong Leadership.)

6. COLLECT BASELINE PARK AND RECREATION INFORMATION

DPR should also establish procedures for collecting and disseminating baseline information. This effort should also be the responsibility of the state's park and recreation clearinghouse.

Initially, the clearinghouse should establish the information that constitutes the baseline, which should include such factors as:

- Park and recreation agencies (e.g., mission, staff and composition, budget, acreage, number of parks and other facilities, condition of infrastructure).

- User preferences for recreation (e.g., the amounts of time spent on various recreational activities, perceived problems with participation in and enjoyment of recreation, unmet recreational needs, willingness to spend money for recreation).

- User demographics (e.g., composition of the user base for agencies, including age, sex, ethnic/cultural origins, family size and structure, income).

- Non-user concerns and preferences

The information should be available for selected representative local areas, regionally, and on a statewide basis at increasing levels of aggregation.
The clearinghouse should also establish the monitoring techniques to be used (e.g., public surveys, agency surveys, focus groups, extraction from census data) and the monitoring frequency, the analytical techniques to be used to establish the baseline and to update it, and the dissemination methods to be used to communicate baseline information (and changes in it) to park and recreation professionals, to elected officials, and to the public. (These determinations can be made in conjunction with the revised SCORP planning process described in 2, above.)

Once the clearinghouse has made these determinations, it would proceed to establish the baseline, and to update the baseline as frequently as is practical. It would provide this information to park and recreation professionals, who would then be able to use it to evaluate the status of recreation throughout the state, and to plan for future recreational needs. The availability of baseline information would help orient park and recreation agencies away from short-range solutions to their problems, and toward a planned, long-range approach to them.

**SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR IMPROVING RECREATION OPPORTUNITIES THROUGH PLANNING AND RESEARCH**

- Take initial steps to coordinate research in the park and recreation field.

  — Solicit, through an ongoing notice in *California Parks and Recreation* and other channels of communication, proposed topics for academic research projects -- CPRS.

  — Constitute a committee on academic research in the park and recreation field, comprised of academicians in the field and experienced agency managers -- CPRS.

  — At periodic intervals, the research committee will meet, evaluate proposals, and submit the best ones to the California State University campuses with departments of recreation and leisure studies, and, if appropriate, other academic institutions in California and outside. Faculty and students at these institutions will be urged to consider adopting the proposed topics for their research, to coordinate the work with the agencies that made the proposals, and to distribute summaries of findings throughout the state’s park and recreation agencies -- CPRS, participating California State University departments of recreation and leisure studies.

- Plan for the development of key elements of a statewide park and recreation data base.

  — Conduct a survey of the public’s need for and attitudes toward outdoor recreation. This survey should provide information consistent with DPR’s 1987 and 1992 public surveys, and should be conducted at five-year intervals -- DPR.

  — Conduct a survey of the state’s park and recreation agencies. This survey should provide information consistent with DRP’s 1987 agency survey, and should be conducted no less frequently than every 10 years -- DPR.
Plan to conduct a survey to determine the condition of the state’s park and recreation infrastructure. This survey should provide information consistent with DRP’s 1989 evaluation of the condition of the infrastructure, should be conducted no less frequently than every 10 years, and should be offset by five years from the agency survey -- DPR.

ISSUE 8. RESPONDING TO THE DEMAND FOR TRAILS

Trails are important to Californians. Passage of the National Recreational Trails Act (NRTA) as part of the Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act of 1991 (ISTEA) emphasizes the national interest in and support for trail programs, both motorized and non-motorized. Interest in trails is not new. Interest in having a continuing opportunity to experience the out-of-doors by trail is, more than ever, coupled with concerns about lost opportunities as California’s population continues to grow, and increased demands are placed on the state’s land base. Demands to provide adequate space in which people can live and work diminish the open-space lands on which the public can enjoy trail experiences. While they share common features, loss of trail opportunities is different for non-motorized and motorized trails. For that reason, this issue is divided into separate sections on non-motorized and motorized trails.

NON-MOTORIZED TRAILS

Californians strongly support non-motorized trails. DPR’s 1992 outdoor recreation survey found that 88 percent of the public participated in walking, 55 percent in hiking, 31 percent in jogging or running, 46 percent in bicycling on paved surfaces, 15 percent in mountain bicycling, and 15 percent in horseback riding. In the same survey, 74 percent of the public approved development of more horseback riding, hiking, and/or mountain bicycling trails. Similar support for trails was found in a 1993 East Bay Regional Park District survey, in which 88 percent of the respondents agreed that the district’s system of regional parks and trails was a valuable public resource for the citizens of the East Bay region.

These indications of interest in and support for trails reflect the aesthetic and exercise values experienced by people who use trails in the parks and open-space areas of California. While the demand for trails is increasing, however, conversion of California’s open space to urban and suburban uses continues. This conversion of open space results in severing of linear corridors needed for trails. When land-use densities were low, many of these corridors were used for trail purposes, but were never formally designated as public trails. Protection of linear corridors and open-space networks is vital to providing the public non-motorized access to trails systems, parks, and other public and private areas. Corridors along rivers, bays, the ocean, and wetlands should be given special consideration because of their high value for scenic beauty, wildlife, trails, and public recreation.

Open-space and trail considerations are closely connected. The public finds trails that use open space and park areas more enjoyable than trails in more built-up areas; and public support of open-
space areas, such as parks, preserves, and wildlife areas, is predicated on well planned and managed access to those areas. The President’s Commission on Americans Outdoors acknowledged both the value of greenways, and of citizen action to protect them. Similarly, almost 95 percent of the respondents to the 1992 DPR outdoor recreation survey agreed that protection of the natural environment is an important aspect of outdoor recreation areas.

With the decrease in open space, the high demand for pedestrian and equestrian facilities, and the additional demand created by invention of the mountain bicycle, land managers have been faced with a new challenge: How to manage trails fairly and effectively for all three user groups, especially in and near urban areas. Agencies have developed a variety of trail-use policies, some of which allow combined pedestrian, equestrian, and mountain bicycle use on all trails; some of which allow for it only on dirt roads; and some of which segregate use. Education of users in trail etiquette and courtesy has been very helpful in making multiple use trails work.

Likewise, there is considerable mixing of uses between trails intended for transportation and those intended for recreation. With increasing recognition of the need to provide facilities for non-motorized transportation, and with development of urban trail corridors for recreational use, the boundary between recreational trails and transportation trails is becoming less distinct. The Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act provided new recognition by the Congress and the President of the need for funding for recreational trails and increased flexibility for using transportation funding for non-motorized transportation. The issue of whether on-road versus separated facilities for pedestrians and bicycles are better and safer is still being contested. The most likely answer is that both types of facilities are needed to meet the needs of a variety of potential users.

The 1978 California Recreational Trails Plan has provided general guidance on trail issues. Because of funding limitations, the policy aspects of the plan and of statewide trail corridors have not been updated. While this California Outdoor Recreation Plan—1993 cannot provide the same level of detail as the 1978 California Recreational Trails Plan, significant policy updates and trail corridor additions will be addressed.

**Continuing Loss of Informal Areas for Trails.** There is a continuing loss of informal areas for non-motorized trails. The population of California is largely located in and near urban areas. The population of many of these areas is growing at a rapid rate. In spite of the fact that many citizen groups and public officials are making efforts to protect open space and trail corridors, trails users are seeing a loss of the ability to access recreation and park areas, regional trail systems, and community facilities, such as schools and businesses.

**Limited Funding for Non-Motorized Trails.** Limited funds have been made available for recreational trails in recent years. The 1988 Statewide park bond act provided $5 million for recreational trails to local agencies. DPR received applications for approximately 10 times that amount over the two years of the program. As of 1993, state and local governments have virtually no general fund money available for trails.

The recently passed National Recreational Trails Act, which is part of the ISTEA, authorized $30 million per year for both non-motorized and motorized recreational trails. The first-year
appropriation was, however, only $7.5 million. California, furthermore, is receiving only about $293,000, or 4 per cent of the funds, which results in a non-motorized program of only a little more than $200,000 for fiscal year 1993-94, severely limiting the program's effectiveness.

The ISTE A Enhancement funding program provides about $30 million per year to California for a variety of activities, including pedestrian and bicycle facilities for transportation purposes. Since the program is just being implemented, the amount of funds that may be used to improve combined transportation and recreational trail systems is not yet known.

**Multiple Use of Trails.** With the continuing increase in pedestrian and equestrian trail users, and with the advent of the mountain bicycle, trail users must often share trail corridors because there will never be enough trail corridors to enable each type of user to have a separate path. Hikers and equestrians have traditionally shared non-paved trails, and bicyclists and hikers have often shared paved bicycle paths (or pedestrians have used the shoulders of bicycle paths). Invention of the mountain bicycle has added a new type of trail use with resulting impacts of one type of user on another. Where space has allowed, separate trails have been developed for each user group, or, in certain cases, some areas have been closed to equestrians and/or bicycles. Closure of trails is the least preferable option because it can result in relocation of the use, often causing crowding and adverse environmental impacts. A far better solution is to designate or develop trails for multiple use, and to educate users in trail manners and acceptable behavior. Another solution is to provide parallel routes near trail heads (where use is heaviest), and to merge the routes into multiple-use trails at a distance from the trailheads (where the trails are less crowded). Multiple use of trails by both non-motorized and motorized users has been typically successful away from heavy-use and populated areas. Combined use of trails by non-motorized and motorized users occurs primarily on lands managed by the U.S. Forest Service and the U.S. Bureau of Land Management. Multiple use is part of these agencies' land-management policies, and they administer large tracts of land in the more remote areas of the state, on which this type of combined use can succeed. In or near urban areas, heavy use and neighboring land owners often preclude motorized trail use.

**Volunteers Essential to Trails Construction, Maintenance, and Patrol.** Volunteerism plays a key role in trail programs in California. Most visible is California Trail Days, which annually attracts thousands of participants to assist with trail construction and maintenance. In addition, many clubs and individuals volunteer to work year around on trail construction, maintenance, and patrol.

**Complying With ADA.** Since trails are developed for many different purposes and in a wide variety of terrain, compliance with the Americans with Disabilities Act presents many challenges. There is no question that barriers to trail access should be removed, and that trails should be developed to accommodate people with disabilities. There are circumstances where a decision must be made as to the level of accessibility that will be appropriate. It may not be appropriate to develop paved trails where the purpose of the trail is for mountain bicycle or equestrian use, or where such development will have undue impact on sensitive resources (e.g., excessive cuts and fills on steep, erodible slopes).
Improve Coordination between Transportation and Recreational Trail Programs. Funding sources typically require that funds be spent on either transportation trails or recreational trails. This approach fails to recognize that many trails serve both purposes, particularly in more densely populated areas. In addition, transportation plans and recreational trail plans are often developed without coordination between them. It would be more effective and efficient to consider all non-motorized trail use, whether for transportation or recreation, as part of one interrelated network. If use of non-motorized trails results in less vehicular use, air quality will be improved, and congestion problems will be reduced, regardless of whether such use is for business or to reach recreation opportunities. The following general actions suggest ways in which providers of outdoor recreation can deal with the problems and opportunities inherent in responding to the demand for non-motorized trails.

1. PROTECT SIGNIFICANT OPEN-SPACE CORRIDORS THROUGH LAND-USE PLANNING

All levels of government that have authority over land-use planning should be encouraged to develop trail elements as part of their general plans. Trail elements should provide for a system of trails that connect with local, regional, state, and federal trail systems. Where feasible, trail elements should incorporate both recreational and transportation needs in one integrated system. Trail elements should also recognize existing, informal trail-use patterns in open-space areas. Cities and counties should be encouraged to use mandatory dedication of trail corridors, where necessary, as part of the subdivision approval process to ensure that the development process does not permanently sever trail corridors.

2. IMPROVE FUNDING FOR NON-MOTORIZED TRAILS

Park and recreation agencies should support the full appropriation of $30 million per year to NRTA. In addition, park and recreation agencies should also support California’s receiving a more equitable share of NRTA funds. Both of these changes will make NRTA more effective in helping to meet California’s trail needs. All federal, state, and local government trail plans will be considered part of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan—1993 for the purposes of eligibility of trail projects for the NRTA program.

When future statewide park bond act legislation is planned, funding for state and local non-motorized trails and greenway corridors for should be included.

3. ENCOURAGE MULTIPLE USE OF TRAILS AND COORDINATION BETWEEN TRANSPORTATION AND RECREATIONAL TRAIL PROGRAMS

All land managers should develop trail-use policies that provide guidance on the multiple use of trails. Since multiple use can accommodate the largest number of user types on a limited land base, it should be given preference, provided that uses will be compatible and safely accommodated. In making decisions about multiple-use trails, consideration should be given to the number of users, the width of the trail, the trail’s resource impacts, and the topography through which the trail passes.
Recognizing that many trails receive both recreational and transportation uses, park and recreation agencies should encourage federal, state, and local agencies to coordinate their recreational and transportation planning and implementation. Administrators of funds should be encouraged to be flexible in their interpretation of grant guidelines, and, thereby, support trails that provide both recreational and transportation opportunities.

4. CONTINUE SUPPORT OF VOLUNTEERS

In the current period of shrinking park and recreation budgets, volunteers play an important role in a broad range of programs. With regard to trails, the Department of Parks and Recreation should continue to work with the California Trails Foundation in support of the annual California Trail Days. Additionally, all public agencies should organize Trail Days events, and encourage volunteerism by supporting volunteer organizations, and by recognizing distinguished volunteer efforts.

5. MAKE TRAILS ACCESSIBLE TO PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES

A diligent effort should be made to eliminate barriers to trail use by people with disabilities, and to provide an adequate number of trails they can use. All park and recreation agencies should develop policies that clarify the types of improvements that must be made to accommodate people with various disabilities, and to determine the levels of accessibility that are appropriate in a variety of circumstances.

SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR RESPONDING TO THE DEMAND FOR NON-MOTORIZED TRAILS

If a trail element has not been prepared as part of the jurisdiction’s general plan, initiate preparation of one.

— Work with the jurisdiction’s planning department, planning commission, and city council or board of supervisors to establish the necessity for a trails element — all local park and recreation agencies with non-motorized trail programs.

— Contribute to (or take the lead in) preparation of the trails element — all local park and recreation agencies with non-motorized trail programs.

Support increased funding for non-motorized trail programs.

— Seek up to $30 million funding for NRTA for fiscal year 1994-95 and after — DPR, CPRS.
— In any new statewide park bond act, seek funding dedicated to planning, construction, and maintenance of non-motorized trails — DPR, CPRS.
Coordinate planning for recreational and transportation use of non-motorized trails.

— Work with the jurisdiction’s transportation, traffic, or street/highway department to establish the need for coordination in transportation and recreational planning -- all local park and recreation agencies with non-motorized trail programs.

— Contribute to (or take the lead in) preparation of a coordinated recreational and transportation trails plan -- all local park and recreation agencies with non-motorized trail programs.

Support volunteer trail building, maintenance, and patrol activities.

— Continue the annual California Trail Days -- California Trails Foundation, DPR.

— Arrange local Trail Days events -- all local park and recreation agencies with non-motorized trail programs.

Make appropriate trails available to people with disabilities.

— Develop policies that clarify the types of improvements that must be made to accommodate people with various disabilities, and to establish the levels of accessibility that are appropriate -- DPR, all local park and recreation agencies with non-motorized trail programs.

— Conduct a survey of barriers to non-motorized trail access for people with disabilities. Prioritize barriers to access according to the policies established -- DPR, all local park and recreation agencies with non-motorized trail programs.

— Begin to eliminate the highest-priority barriers (consistent with budget limitations) to non-motorized trail access for people with disabilities -- DPR, all local park and recreation agencies with non-motorized trail programs.

MOTORIZED TRAILS

California has witnessed a tremendous growth in the recreational use of off-highway motor vehicles (OHV) since World War II. These vehicles include off-highway motorcycles, four-wheel-drive vehicles, all-terrain vehicles, snowmobiles, and dune buggies. In 1990, 14.7 percent of all households in California operated at least one of their vehicles off-highway.

Much of that use is on motorized trails. Increasingly, the public is going off-highway, often in family units, in pursuit of such activities as hunting, fishing, camping, sight-seeing, and organized vehicular competition. Many people use OHVs to relieve stress. Also, as the baby-boom generation
ages, and as the number of Californians aged 60 and over increases, OHV use on trails will become a significant method for active seniors to visit California's remote, natural areas.

The use of “dual-sport” and sport-utility vehicles, which are street-legal, off-highway vehicles, is increasing. Dual-sport vehicles provide greater flexibility by allowing users to operate on roads and streets between OHV trail segments. Some park and recreation agencies, however, severely restrict OHVs, often making dual-sport vehicles the only means of gaining access to these areas.

**OHV Trail Opportunities Shrinking while Demand Increases.** The total amount of trail mileage available for OHV use is decreasing as a result of increasing environmental constraints, land transfers to wilderness, government fiat, expansion of urban housing areas into rural OHV use areas, limited funding to maintain existing OHV trails, and little to no acquisition or development funding. While supply decreases, the demand for OHV trail riding opportunities continues to increase with the state’s population and increased awareness of OHV recreational opportunities.

With shrinking OHV trail riding opportunities, OHV use will be concentrated in those areas remaining open. As use becomes more intensive, the potential for negative environmental impacts and trespassing onto private property will increase, while safety and user satisfaction will decrease.

**The Negative Image of OHV Recreation and OHV Users.** The vast majority of OHV users are law-abiding citizens who are concerned about the lands they use and the rights of others. In fact, families comprise a high proportion of OHV users. OHV recreation and OHV users, nevertheless, are viewed negatively by much of the public. These negative images have been produced by a few OHV users who have acted irresponsibly when using their vehicles. In some instances, OHV users have been blamed for the destructive actions of non-OHV users.

The following general actions are suggested for providers of OHV recreational opportunities to deal with the problems and opportunities inherent in responding to the demand for motorized trails.

**1. IMPROVE FUNDING FOR OFF-HIGHWAY VEHICLE FACILITIES**

The California Off-Highway Motor Vehicle Recreation Program is a user-funded program. Funding sources include fuel tax transfers that are based on the fuel consumed off road by off-highway vehicles; “Green Sticker” registration fees, which are paid by OHV owners; entrance fees to state vehicular recreation areas; and interest earned on the fund balance.

Since 1982, more than $52 million in OHV funds have been redirected to non-OHV activities by the legislature. These fund transfers, plus one loan, have significantly reduced the amount of money available for OHV trail acquisition, development, maintenance, and operation throughout the state. The Off-Highway Motor Vehicle Recreation Commission is working to ensure that these funds are used for their intended purpose in support of OHV use areas, and that all money owed is repaid in full.
The National Recreational Trails Act of 1991 is a federal trails program that will be administered by the states that participate. The act provides up to $30 million nationwide that can be appropriated annually to provide for and maintain recreational trails. In fiscal year 1992-93, Congress appropriated only $7.5 million. California’s share of that appropriation was only $293,000 (3.9 percent of the total). The first-year funding distribution used by the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) grossly underestimated the amount of fuel used by OHVs in California, resulting in under funding what the state should have received. There was only $88,000 for the motorized trails (30 percent) in fiscal year 1992-93.

Funding for motorized trails through NRTA can be increased by Congress appropriating up to the $30 million maximum as established by the act. California has forwarded to FHWA the state’s fuel tax information with a request for FHWA to adjust its funding formula to better reflect actual OHV fuel use in the state.

2. BECOME MORE INVOLVED IN PLANNING AND ACQUISITION PROCESSES

All government agencies and private enterprises providing OHV trails should ensure that their trails are identified in local, regional, or statewide trail plans. These plans can help to protect a trail from closure. They can also support development of new routes by identifying the need for them, providing long-term public and private support, identifying the trail’s relationship and importance to the overall trail system, and providing action plans for their design, development, and operation.

All segments of the OHV recreational community, including government, the private sector, OHV clubs, and the OHV user public, should aggressively track, review, and comment on development and environmental documents that affect OHV recreation. Through this process, loss of existing trails can be minimized or mitigated. Innovative mitigation measures should be tried. These solutions can include requiring a developer to provide a buffer zone between a new development and an established off-highway-vehicle trail. This buffer zone would function as a green belt providing hiking, bicycle, and equestrian trails, as well as wildlife habitat. Proposals for new wilderness areas should be carefully reviewed for their impact on existing OHV trails, and to ensure that the proposed areas meet the high standards that define wilderness.

As the space available for recreation becomes scarce, and acquisition and development budgets shrink, fewer areas will be available for exclusive use by any single group. To maximize land use for enjoyment by the greatest number of people, all new and existing trails and trail corridors should be studied to determine if they can accommodate combined use by various user groups, including hikers, bicyclists, equestrians, and OHV users.

Zoning changes and open space dedications should be sought to protect both OHV trails and the surrounding land. Agricultural land is of prime importance to California. It provides food, an economic base, open space, and often a good neighbor for OHV trails.

All agencies responsible for providing OHV recreation should acquire areas, trails, or corridors where OHV use is occurring on an unapproved, but unopposed basis, and which are in jeopardy of conversion to some other use.
3. WORK TO IMPROVE THE IMAGE AND ACCEPTANCE OF OHV RECREATION AND OHV PARTICIPANTS

Every agency managing off-highway-vehicle areas and trails should take an active role to positively and accurately portray OHV recreation. Each agency should develop and nurture contacts in the media, and develop a strong public relations program. Stories relating to OHV volunteerism, humanitarian efforts, and projects to improve the environment are especially effective.

To ensure good relations with other trail users and neighbors, noise levels produced by OHVs should be actively enforced where limits have been established by law. All OHV users should actively support established noise levels, and, in those circumstances where noise laws do not apply, but others may be disturbed, show courtesy by operating quietly.

The “Tread Lightly!” program, which promotes wise use of the land and respect for others, should be adopted by all segments of the OHV community. All OHV users should be exposed to or provided “Tread Lightly!” material. With OHV encouragement of responsible use being supported by the environmental community, programs such as “Tread Lightly!” are essential to continue the trend toward increased public awareness and acceptance of motorized recreational activities.

Research should be funded to accurately identify the negative impacts of OHV use, and to suggest mitigation that provides for continued OHV use. Programs similar to the DPR Off-Highway Motor Vehicle Recreation Division’s soil conservation and wildlife management programs should be used as models by other agencies managing OHV use areas.

All agencies and private-sector operators of OHV recreational trails should properly maintain their resources to lessen the chances of environmental damage, and to reinforce the image of OHV providers as responsible managers. These maintenance efforts have the added benefit of reducing the need for expensive, major capital repair and restoration programs.

SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR RESPONDING TO THE DEMAND FOR MOTORIZED TRAILS

° Seek improved funding of NRTA.

— Seek up to $30 million funding for fiscal year 1994-95 and after -- DPR, CPRS.

— Seek a more equitable estimate from the Federal Highway Administration of the amount of fuel used by OHVs in California -- DPR.

° Participate in planning and acquisition processes.

— Press for inclusion of motorized vehicle trails on local, regional, and statewide trail plans -- DPR, all local park and recreation agencies with motorized trail programs.
— Seek zoning changes and open-space dedications to protect OHV trails and surrounding land
-- all local park and recreation agencies with motorized trail programs.

— As budgets permit, acquire areas, trails, or corridors where OHV use is occurring on an
unapproved, but unopposed basis, and which are in jeopardy of conversion to some other use
-- DPR, all local park and recreation agencies with motorized trail programs.

° Improve the image of OHV recreation and OHV participants.

— Publicize OHV volunteerism, humanitarian efforts, and projects to improve the environment
-- DPR, all local park and recreation agencies with motorized trail programs.

— Where they have been established, enforce OHV noise limits -- DPR, all local park and
recreation agencies with motorized trail programs.

— Make plans to expose as many OHV users as possible to material prepared for the “Tread
Lightly!” program -- DPR, all local park and recreation agencies with motorized
trail programs.

— Maintain and restore land and facilities affected by OHV use -- DPR, all local park and
recreation agencies with motorized trail programs.

**ISSUE 9. HALTING THE LOSS OF WETLANDS**

Wetlands are areas where water and land combine to produce distinctive natural environments.
Typically these areas support plant and animal life uniquely adapted to the conditions found at the
margin of land and water. Since different geographic areas in California produce different condi-
tions, a variety of different wetland types can be found in the state.

For example, wetlands in California occur in association with both fresh water and salt water envi-
ronments. Some wetlands are wet the whole year around, while others are flooded seasonally. Some
wetlands support a wide diversity of plant and animal life, while others support a limited number of
species, which are, nevertheless, uniquely adapted to their prevailing conditions. California’s wet-
lands presently exist in greatest abundance in the San Francisco Bay-Delta Estuary and the Central
Valley, but important wetlands also occur along the south and central coast, Humboldt Bay,
Monterey Bay, the Modoc plateau, the Sierra Nevada, and the desert.

Once considered swampy wasteland best converted to productive economic uses, wetlands gradually
have been recognized as valuable natural areas and productive ecosystems. Wetlands provide open
space that can add significantly to the value of surrounding property. They provide extensive in-
come-generating recreation opportunities, including fishing and waterfowl hunting. Wetlands also
provide a variety of important ecological functions, including primary productivity in the food chain,
nutrient recycling, flood retention, groundwater recharge and discharge, and essential habitat for
more than half the plant and animal species listed as threatened or endangered by the state.
Wetland Losses

Approximately ninety percent of California’s historic wetlands base has been converted to other non-wetland uses. Much of this loss occurred in the early part of the 20th century, as land was reclaimed for farming, and the normal cycle of winter flooding that sustained wetlands around the state was interrupted.

At present, wetlands continue to be altered or completely converted, although at a rate much reduced from that which prevailed in the 19th century and the first half of this century. Wetlands are altered by insufficient and/or variable water supplies, chemical degradation, sedimentation, and the loss of connectivity with upland habitat. These factors threaten to reduce the functional values of a large number of California wetlands, including many of those in public ownership. Despite an array of state and federal regulations, which have been developed to protect wetlands, the state’s wetlands base continues to be at risk through direct conversion because:

1. Many smaller wetlands have been, for practical purposes, largely exempted from regulation through U.S Army Corps of Engineers permits.

2. Wetland losses covered by individual permits have not always been successfully mitigated.

3. Enforcement of permit requirements has sometimes been weak or inconsistent from agency to agency and locale to locale.

4. Some types of wetlands in California, such as riparian forests, mudflats, and vernal pools, are not fully covered by the existing regulatory structure.

As a result of these historic and ongoing losses, approximately 450,000 of California’s original 5 million wetland acres remain.

Past Conservation Efforts

There have been serious efforts in the past to address the conversion and loss of California’s wetlands. Federal government efforts have involved habitat protection through acquisition and easement programs, as well as through regulation of dredging and filling of wetlands. State efforts have involved a variety of different regulatory programs, as well as acquisition and easement programs. Private interests have developed wetlands acquisition and easement programs to protect habitat and to provide for recreational opportunities such as hunting.

At the federal level, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and U.S. Army Corps of Engineers share legal authority under Section 404 of the Clean Water Act to determine which land and water areas constitute wetlands, and to protect them from development. Other acts such as the Endangered Species Act, the Food and Security Act of 1985 (which attempts to deny federal subsidies to farmers who fill or drain wetlands), and the National Environmental Policy Act provide tools for controlling the loss of wetlands. Title 35 of Public Law 102-575 upgrades the priority given to fish and wildlife to equal that of agriculture, and could positively affect preservation of wetlands, especially in the Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta.
At the state level, a landmark California State Supreme Court decision in the spring of 1983, invoking the public trust doctrine, ruled that the state has a constitutional authority and duty to “protect the people’s common heritage of streams, lakes, marshlands, and tidelands.” This decision is highly supportive of state agency efforts to protect California’s wetlands.

State agencies such as the Department of Parks and Recreation, the Department of Fish and Game, the Wildlife Conservation Board, and the California Coastal Conservancy have made wetlands preservation, restoration, and creation a top priority. Many projects have been completed around the state that have restored or created wetlands.

Passage in 1976 of the California Coastal Act (also known as “Proposition 20”) created the California Coastal Commission, and established policies and regulatory authority to protect wetlands in the California coastal zone, a region varying from 1,000 feet to more than 5 miles inland from the mean high tide line along the entire coast. In the coastal zone, the act has decreased direct filling of wetlands, and has partially controlled development in sensitive watersheds. Some former wetlands have been restored as off-site mitigation for new projects.

In the San Francisco Bay Area, the legislature’s creation in 1965 of the Bay Conservation and Development Commission (BCDC) and establishment of regulatory authority has greatly reduced direct filling of wetlands along the periphery of the bay and in adjacent Suisun Marsh. The jurisdiction of BCDC extends inland only 100 feet from the bay, and does not include watersheds, diked wetlands, or former, restorable wetlands. These limitations on BCDC’s authority make it difficult for the agency to buffer wetlands from development.

In recent years, a number of cities and special districts, in cooperation with state and federal agencies, have developed projects on former marshlands of San Francisco Bay and along coastal streams to preserve and restore riparian habitats. These projects provide wildlife habitat and public recreation while still providing flood control, which was their original aim. Other coastal projects have focused on erosion control and channel clearance to increase fish populations. Highly degraded industrial sites have been restored to wetlands, wildlife habitat has been reclaimed, and public recreation, including nature study, hiking, and camping, have been provided. Recreational trails are being installed around, and, in some case, through wetlands.

SB 1866 creates the Delta Protection Commission. This legislation requires preparation of a Delta plan, which accomplishes 19 stated objectives, including protection of water quality, preservation of habitat, and creation of recreational opportunities. General plans for jurisdictions in the primary zone, as defined in the legislation, will have to be amended for consistency with the completed Delta plan. Except for the Delta, inland areas of the state are not subject to direct state regulation to stop the filling of wetlands. These areas also suffer from watershed sedimentation, water diversion, and pollution.

Through acquisition and easement programs, state and federal agencies and private organizations now own some two-thirds of California’s remaining wetlands, or approximately 300,000 acres.
Activities on many of the remaining approximately 150,000 privately-owned wetland acres in California (.15 percent of the state’s 100 million acre total land base) are regulated under a variety of state and federal authorities. Unfortunately, however, most of these authorities were not developed specifically to protect wetlands, resulting in a complex, fragmented regulatory structure, which is multi-tiered in some areas and missing altogether in others.

**Landowner Concerns**

Landowners have expressed considerable frustration at the costs and time delays imposed by the lack of coordination of wetlands regulatory programs. For example, a private property owner wishing to alter a coastal wetland could conceivably face separate regulatory reviews by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, National Marine Fisheries Service, California Regional Water Quality Control Board, California Department of Fish and Game, California Coastal Commission, State Lands Commission, and various local government entities. Lack of agreement on a consistent wetlands definition, delineation practices, mitigation requirements, and permitting procedures compounds this complexity, and increases the potential for higher costs and delays in the permitting process.

**Need for a New Approach to the Wetlands Issue**

What is needed is a coordinated set of policies and programs that increase the quantity, quality, and permanence of California’s wetlands base, while, at the same time, reducing the cost and complexity of the regulatory process. A fundamental shift must occur from the existing approach, which has been characterized by project-by-project conflict, or missed opportunity, to a new approach, which is based on long-term conservation planning, and the development of conservation partnerships between government and the private sector.

**California Wetlands Conservation Policy**

In August 1993, Governor Pete Wilson announced the California Wetlands Conservation Policy, which represents this new approach. For the first time, the many and varied acquisition, mitigation, regulatory, restoration, and management programs currently operating throughout the state will be coordinated to achieve common goals. Effective planning will be relied on to set resource protection priorities both statewide and within regions. This will ease the project-by-project regulatory conflicts that have characterized the wetlands debate to date. Effective planning will also help integrate resources-constrained acquisition and easement programs, permitting them to go further then they could go in isolation.

The goal of the California Wetlands Conservation Policy is to establish a framework and strategy that will:

- Ensure no overall net loss of wetlands, and achieve a long-term net gain in the quantity, quality, and permanence of wetlands acreage and values in California in a manner that fosters creativity, stewardship, and respect for private property.
- Reduce procedural complexity in the administration of state and federal wetlands conservation programs.

- Encourage partnerships to make landowner incentive programs and cooperative planning efforts the primary focus of wetlands conservation and restoration.

Three policy means will be used to achieve these objectives:

- Statewide policy initiatives (1. through 6.)

- Geographically based regional strategies (7)

- Interagency wetlands task force (8)

These elements of the California Wetlands Conservation Policy are discussed below.

1. **Statewide wetlands inventory.** The state will compile wetlands data, which is available from the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service and other sources, into an understandable and accessible inventory of wetlands. The inventory will serve as a baseline from which to determine gains and losses to the state’s wetlands base.

   Using information derived from the wetlands inventory, the state will identify statewide and regional goals for conserving, restoring, and enhancing wetlands. Achieving these goals will emphasize maintaining economic uses of restored and enhanced lands (e.g., agriculture), and will be accomplished through the voluntary participation of landowners. The goals are not meant to be achieved on a permit-by-permit basis.

2. **Support for wetlands planning.** The state will encourage local and regional governments to incorporate wetlands into planning processes, and to coordinate with state growth-management efforts.

3. **Improved administration of existing regulatory programs.** The state will remove one layer of review from the wetlands regulatory process by negotiating with the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers the delegation of federal Clean Water Act Section 404 permitting authority, starting with a demonstration project in the San Francisco Bay area, and, later, expanding authority to other areas of the state. In the San Francisco Bay area, Section 404 permitting authority will be vested in the Regional Water Quality Control Board and the San Francisco Bay Conservation and Development Commission. Adequate federal funding will have been obtained to support the delegated Section 404 permitting process. In addition, the state will work with Congress to amend Section 404 to enhance the program’s administration, to transfer the program to the states, and to provide funding for it.
In addition, the state will develop and adopt a consistent wetlands definition, as well as consistent standards and guidelines for all state regulatory processes. The state will also enhance efficiency of and coordination in the permitting process. The State Water Resources Control Board (SWRCB) will develop and adopt a balanced policy on U.S. Army Corps of Engineers nationwide permits, and will adopt as many of these permits as possible.

The state will encourage regulatory flexibility in situations in which private landowners and public agencies unintentionally or incidentally create wetlands (e.g., drainage ditches, land held under agricultural best-management practices). The state will also encourage regulatory flexibility to allow public agencies to create wetlands, but later remove them, if the wetlands conflict with the primary purpose to which property is devoted.

4. **Strengthened landowner incentives to protect wetlands.** The state will support funding for the U.S. Department of Agriculture’s Wetlands Reserve Program (WRP), and modification of WRP to meet California’s unique needs. The state will also support additional federal funds from the Land and Water conservation Fund, and state funding of wetlands incentive programs.

The state will continue to support the voluntary acquisition, restoration, and management of wetlands through sufficiently funded state, federal, local, and private programs. The use of state funds will emphasize the restoration, enhancement, and management of existing state-owned wetlands.

The state will convene regular meetings of all agencies involved in wetlands acquisition, restoration, and management with the intent of improving the coordination of existing programs, and leveraging limited funds for the implementation of these programs.

The state will explore the need for a natural resources bond act for wetlands acquisition, restoration, and enhancement.

The state will publish and distribute a landowner’s assistance guide, which details the range of state, federal, and private wetlands incentive programs.

5. **Support for mitigation banking.** Wetland mitigation banking allows proponents of unavoidable wetland fills to buy credits in pre-established mitigation sites. The goal is to develop high-quality mitigation, while freeing developers from the responsibility of developing new mitigation for every project. To facilitate wetlands mitigation banking, the state will develop and adopt guidelines for such mitigation banks. The guidelines will recognize regional concerns, contain flexible mitigation ratios, be consistent with federal guidelines, and encourage decisions to locate banks in the context of local or regional plans.

6. **Development and expansion of other wetlands programs.** Recognizing that the responsibility for wetlands only begins with acquisition or restoration, the state will work to provide adequate financial resources for wetlands management and operations, including water source and delivery, mosquito abatement, and vector control. The emphasis for
these programs will be on state-owned wetlands. The state also recognizes the responsibility public and private wetlands owners have to their neighbors, and will establish a model “good neighbor” policy to guide management of newly created, restored, or enhanced wetlands.

Because there is no single repository for information on wetlands in the state, the Resources Agency will establish such a facility, which will collect, store, and distribute information on the full range of wetlands policies, programs, and projects. The state will also undertake programs to increase the public’s awareness of wetlands, and to better coordinate and direct the wetlands research agenda.

The California Wetlands Conservation Policy directs state agencies to develop internal wetlands conservation programs, which are compatible with programmatic goals such as flood control, groundwater recharge, water management, water pollution control, and recreation.

Because over half of the land in California is owned and managed by the federal government, the state will work closely with the federal land-management agencies to maximize wetlands conservation, while maintaining appropriate economic uses.

7. Regional Strategies. The use of geographically based regional strategies allows wetlands programs to be implemented, refined, and combined in unique ways to achieve the goals and objectives of the California Wetlands Conservation Policy. The policy calls for regional strategies to be implemented in the Central Valley, the San Francisco Bay area, and Southern California.

8. Interagency Wetlands Task Force. To ensure coordinated development and implementation of the California Wetlands Conservation Policy, the state will establish an interagency wetlands task force. The wetlands task force will be comprised of senior administration officials representing the full range of interests on wetlands issues. The task force will be advisory to the governor. It will also help resolve interagency conflicts on wetlands. The task force will appoint an advisory committee of wetlands stakeholders, and may seek additional technical advice as necessary.

The following general actions are designed for providers of outdoor recreation to deal with the problems and opportunities of wetlands protection.

1. PARTICIPATE IN LOCAL AND/OR REGIONAL WETLANDS PLANNING EFFORTS

As called for in the California Wetlands Conservation Policy, park and recreation agencies with significant wetlands holdings or with interests in open space wetlands should participate actively in local and/or regional wetlands planning efforts. Participation in these planning efforts will allow park and recreation agencies to protect their wetlands holdings from new development projects that will be sources of such threats as interruption of water supplies, pollution, and sedimentation. It will also help to avoid placing new development projects in locations that will isolate wetlands from associated upland habitat. All of these threats can significantly reduce the functional values of wetlands. Participation by park and recreation agencies in local and/or regional wetlands planning
efforts can also help to direct growth-inducing and other development projects away from open-space wetlands. Where privately held open space wetlands are involved, the planning effort can also assist in identifying suitable mitigation for unavoidable development-caused losses.

In addition, because of the narrow view of wetlands that park and recreation agencies—and most other government agencies—have often taken, it has not always been possible for them to identify existing sources of off-site threats to wetlands. Participation in wetlands planning efforts can force park and recreation agencies—and other agencies—to take a broader view and, thereby, can help to identify these threats. Such identification, by itself, does not guarantee the unimpaired survival of wetlands. Identification of the threats to wetlands and their sources, however, at least makes it possible to take protective measures against the threats, or, if necessary, to find mitigations for them.

2. DEVELOP MULTIAGENCY AND PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS TO PROTECT WETLANDS

Because of the limited funds and other resources available for wetlands, it is essential that agencies with interests in wetlands develop effective partnerships. Such partnerships will allow agencies to work together productively on acquiring, restoring, enhancing, and managing their wetlands. In particular, partnerships among park and recreation agencies with interests in wetlands will facilitate the sharing of information on wetlands, personnel with specialized wetlands-related knowledge and skills, and other resources. These types of partnerships also expand the wetlands base available to the partnership, and can, consequently, broaden the perspective agencies take on the conservation, restoration, enhancement, and management of their wetlands.

Since federal land-management agencies own and manage more than 46 percent of all land in California, they must play a major role in preserving and managing wetlands. In addition, almost 94 percent of federal land in California is controlled by agencies with legally mandated responsibilities for outdoor recreation; the role of those agencies is particularly important in assuring that high-quality wetlands continue to be available for outdoor recreation. Assuring that the federal government’s wetlands are under appropriate stewardship and that they are available to the state’s residents and visitors for outdoor recreation can be furthered by developing and maintaining effective partnerships among state, and, where appropriate, local agencies and federal agencies.

Park and recreation providers should also develop partnerships with the owners of privately held wetlands. Such partnerships can provide owners of wetlands income from such outdoor recreation activities as fishing and wildfowl hunting. Consequently, these types of public-private partnerships can provide strong incentives for the acquisition, restoration, enhancement, and management of wetlands.

The furtherance of these types of public-private partnerships generally requires creating incentives for private wetlands owners to help reduce their annual operating costs, and increase their revenues. A wetlands conservation easement program could include tax incentives for lands under easement. One incentive would require the lowest property tax assessment rates for wetlands flooded for waterfowl between October and the end of February; or later. Another would also require the lowest assessment rates for waterfowl nesting areas, when adequate water levels exist to maximize nesting success. In addition, tax credits could be provided for wetland owners who develop new wetlands or
improve existing ones for wintering waterfowl. Granting such incentives is usually beyond the authority of park and recreation agencies, and requires the support of the jurisdictions’ taxing authorities.

3. PARTICIPATE IN WETLANDS MITIGATION BANKING

Park and recreation agencies should consider providing wetlands mitigation banking services. Such services can be provided either by an individual park and recreation agency, by a partnership of several park and recreation agencies, or by park and recreation agencies in partnership with non-park agencies and/or private-sector organizations.

Those park and recreation agencies that already have an interest in wetlands will often have experience in preserving, restoring, enhancing, and managing wetlands. Their experience will be useful for operating a wetlands mitigation banking service. Park and recreation agencies that already manage wetlands are also likely to have in their wetlands bases degraded areas in need of restoration or enhancement. Their managers are also likely to have identified other areas that they want to add to their wetlands bases.

Using guidelines for wetlands mitigation banks and “good neighbor” management, both of which will be developed by the state under the terms of the California Wetlands Conservation Policy, park and recreation agencies--either singly, or in partnership with other park agencies, non-park agencies, or private-sector organizations--can potentially provide the bases for contiguous, extensive, and high-quality mitigations of unavoidable wetland fills.

4. PARTICIPATE IN REGIONAL WETLANDS PROTECTION STRATEGIES

In the Central Valley, the San Francisco Bay area, and Southern California, park and recreation agencies with wetlands holdings, or with interests in open space wetlands should be actively involved in implementing regional wetlands strategies, which are identified in the California Wetlands Conservation Policy. As specified in the policy, these regional strategies will allow the overall wetlands policy to be adapted to the special conditions and capabilities of each of the three target regions. By actively participating in implementation of the regional strategies, park and recreation providers will be able to influence the preservation of wetlands in their regions, and the provision of wetland-related recreational opportunities to their constituencies.
SPECIFIC ACTIONS FOR HALTING THE LOSS OF WETLANDS

° Participate in local and/or regional wetlands planning efforts.

— Work with other agencies with local and/or regional responsibilities for planning to assure that wetlands are incorporated in the planning process and in new or updated plans -- all agencies with local and/or regional wetlands responsibilities.

° Develop multiagency and public-private partnerships to protect wetlands.

— Identify other agencies with common interests in wetlands acquisition, protection, and management, and initiate development of partnerships with them -- all agencies with wetlands responsibilities.

— Coordinate wetlands protection and management strategies with federal land management agencies -- all state and federal agencies with wetlands responsibilities.

— Identify potential public-private partnerships to acquire, restore, enhance, and manage wetlands. Initiate implementation of the most promising of these partnerships -- all state and local agencies with wetlands responsibilities.

— Explore a natural resources bond act for wetlands acquisition, restoration, and enhancement -- all state and local agencies with wetlands responsibilities.

° Develop internal wetlands conservation programs.

— Review existing wetlands conservation programs for compatibility with programmatic goals of the California Wetlands Conservation Policy. If appropriate, revise these programs and develop new ones as necessary to achieve compatibility with the programmatic goals of the wetlands policy -- DPR.

° Participate in wetlands mitigation banking.

— Evaluate the feasibility of providing wetlands mitigation banking services either individually, through a partnership with other government agencies, or through a public-private partnership. If the provision of such services is determined to be feasible, initiate implementation of a wetlands mitigation bank -- all local and regional agencies with wetlands responsibilities.

° In the Central Valley, the San Francisco Bay Area, and Southern California, participate in regional wetlands protection strategies.

— Work with other agencies in each of the three regions to develop wetlands strategies that are consistent with the California Wetlands Conservation Policy, and are adapted to the special conditions and capabilities of the regions -- all agencies with wetlands responsibilities in each of the three regions.
APPENDIX 1

Plan Methodology

Preparation of this assessment and policy plan began by reviewing both the previous assessment and policy plan and its implementation during the intervening five-year period. The staff reviewed the conceptualization and execution of the previous effort, noting the various strengths and weaknesses. The staff also attempted to evaluate the impact of the finished plan on subsequent events, to determine what proved useful, and what did not. Finally, changes in federal and state requirements relevant to statewide recreation planning were analyzed and incorporated into the new effort.

This done, a rough work outline was prepared for development of the planning effort that produced the present document. Major tasks were described, relationships and sequences determined, and tentative deadlines assigned for task completion. Adjustments were subsequently made to reflect changes in available resources.

Five major work phases were identified:

1. Issue identification
2. Policy determination
3. Public opinion survey
4. Basic information gathering
5. Final report preparation and publication

Each of these phases is discussed briefly, below.

PHASE 1. ISSUE IDENTIFICATION

The central purpose of the entire planning effort is to identify and recommend means of dealing with the major issues—problems and opportunities—that affect outdoor recreation in California. As was done for the previous assessment and policy plan, a current set of issues was determined by an advisory committee, which was appointed by the director of the California Department of Parks and Recreation. The advisory committee was aided by a professional facilitator and the department’s planning staff.

This committee, while representing a wide range of backgrounds and expertise, was small enough to encourage complete, focused participation by all its members. (The membership of this group is listed in Appendix 5.) Committee members were asked to focus mainly on issues for which the actions of state government and Land and Water Conservation Fund grants were most relevant. Two exhaustive meetings produced a list of eight issues. Each issue was accompanied by a number of recommended actions for dealing with that issue. When the staff worked on preparing the plan,
they determined that two of the eight issues were essentially identical, and merged them into a single issue. In addition, two issues required by the federal government were added, one dealing with trails, and the other with wetlands preservation. The former is a newly mandated issue, but the latter was included in the previous plan.

PHASE 2. POLICY DETERMINATION

Each outdoor recreation plan revision fulfills the requirement of the California Public Resources Code (Section 540b) that the State Park and Recreation Commission formulate a State Recreation Policy. The previous policy, adopted in 1987, was examined by staff, and modifications were developed by the commission with staff assistance. When it has been completed, the final revision will be adopted by the commission and by the director of the Department of Parks and Recreation.

PHASE 3. CONCURRENT DATA DEVELOPMENT

It was determined that current information was needed on public attitudes and opinions on a wide range of park and recreation issues. For this purpose, a public opinion survey was begun early in the planning effort. This information was considered essential to evaluating the current outdoor recreation situation, and to analyzing the advisory committee's recreation issues and its recommended actions. The Bureau of Land Management and the U.S. Forest Service suggested questions for the survey, and contributed funding for it.

To conduct the public opinion study, the services of a private firm were retained. The firm made a similar public opinion survey in 1987 to support the previous planning effort. The same firm was used to help assure consistency with the earlier survey.

Before awarding the study contract, the staff reviewed the prior survey, and revised the list of questions to be asked. To reflect current concerns, a few new questions were added, and a number of old ones were deleted. To assure findings comparable to the 1987 survey and to allow longitudinal tracking of public attitudes, however, many of the questions were retained from the earlier survey.

The questions included in the survey emphasize policy matters so answers would be directly useful in administrative and managerial decision making at all levels. For example, one component of this study was to determine the relative importance to the public of 42 outdoor recreation activities. This information is critical for revising the criteria by which federal Land and Water Conservation Fund grants are made to local park and recreation agencies. (See Appendix 4, Summary of the Open Project Selection Process).
A new mail survey of the outdoor recreation interests of young people between 8 and 17 years of age was also developed, and conducted separately from the adult survey. Because of difficulties in getting responses from a representative sample of young people, the findings of the youth survey are not considered to be statistically reliable. For readers who may be interested in the qualitative findings of the youth survey, they are reported in the survey report, Public Opinions and Attitudes on Outdoor Recreation in California--1992.

PHASE 4. BASIC INFORMATION GATHERING

Much of this plan consists of information gathered by department staff. A large share of the factual information provides a picture of the current outdoor recreation situation in California, such as the purpose and achievements of the recreation providers at the federal, state, and local level, as well as in the private sector. The plan’s section on the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the state also provides information relevant to outdoor recreation.

The other major area of information gathering involved explaining the nine issues featured in this document, and describing the actions to implement each of them. In this effort, much assistance was provided by other agencies and key practitioners in the outdoor recreation field. A consultant was retained to help delineate a number of the issues.

More subjective information went into the report’s section on the value of outdoor recreation. Much of this material came from a variety of disciplines, including health, sociology, and economics. Additional opinions and judgments were gathered from professionals in the outdoor recreation field.

PHASE 5. FINAL REPORT PREPARATION AND PUBLICATION

An initial draft was finished in early July 1993, and was circulated for review and comment. Additionally, the information contained in the draft was checked against the input received in 23 public meetings conducted throughout the state by the State Park and Recreation Commission. The draft was further checked against the input received from questionnaires distributed following the commission’s public meetings and focused discussions with minority organizations. Ideas and comments were incorporated into a final draft, which was approved early in 1994 by the secretary of the California Resources Agency and the State Liaison Office, and accepted by the National Park Service.

The public opinion survey was published separately. It and other statewide outdoor recreation planning products are described in Appendix 3.

As indicated earlier, the revised Open Project Selection Process, which determines how Land and Water Conservation Fund grants will be allocated, was in part derived from the results of the public opinion survey. This process is published by the department in a separate document designed for potential California grant applicants. The process is summarized in Appendix 4.
APPENDIX 2

The California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program

California's statewide outdoor recreation planning program is a continuous process. Through studies, surveys, technical assistance, and cooperation among various agencies and organizations, the process identifies, analyzes, and works to solve problems of providing recreation opportunities for the state's citizens and visitors. Undertaken by the California Department of Parks and Recreation, this planning program offers leadership, policy guidance, program direction, and information to public and private recreation suppliers. This effort helps suppliers to determine what sort of facilities and programs are best suited to the needs and desires of recreationists.

OBJECTIVES

The major objectives of this program are to:

- Identify the statewide outdoor recreation needs of Californians.
- Examine critical issues--problems and opportunities related to providing needed outdoor recreation opportunities.
- Provide a policy and program framework in which public and private recreation suppliers can work together to meet the public's outdoor recreation needs.
- Enable government agencies and the private sector to work together to devise solutions, mobilize resources, and resolve conflicts related to outdoor recreation matters.
- Maintain California's eligibility to receive money from the federal Land and Water Conservation Fund.

This program may be characterized by its orientation to future trends, its emphasis on process and continuity, and the wide variety of its activities and products.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PROGRAM

The product of this total planning effort is not a single, definitive document, or even a set of documents. Instead, the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program is better described as a wide range of publications, products, and activities--studies, analyses, surveys, reports, grant procedure
guidelines, computer tapes, workshops, task forces, and other efforts. All these work items, whether published or not, are considered elements of the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program, and will be labeled as such.

A major element, the cornerstone of the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program, is periodic publication of a statewide assessment and policy plan. This plan serves as a tool by which to direct long-range statewide recreation analysis and planning. The purposes of this document are to periodically examine the current recreation environment in California; to evaluate existing programs and planning materials; to rethink current state recreation policy and objectives; and to recommend or direct relevant public and private recreation involvement in the subsequent five-year planning period. This document, the California Outdoor Recreation Plan--1993, is the most current update in the long series of assessment and policy plans.

A diagram of the overall statewide outdoor recreation program process appears in Figure 6. At any given time, the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program is the total of all current materials and efforts.

**PRODUCTS OF THE PROGRAM**

As indicated above, the California Outdoor Recreation Plan is not a single, published document. Instead, it is made up of various elements, forming a continuing series of studies, analyses, and related planning efforts that deal with outdoor recreation throughout California.

The following documents constitute the major outdoor recreation plan elements as of June 1993. All were prepared and published by the California Department of Parks and Recreation, Sacramento, California. Most of the recent publications are in print, and can be obtained from the Department’s Publications Unit, P.O. Box 942896, Sacramento, CA 94296-0001.

![Diagram of the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program](image-url)
Specific Plans and Related Documents

California Outdoor Recreation Resources Plan, 1974.


California Historical Landmarks, 1979.

Catalog of Mass Transportation Opportunities to Selected State Parks (unpublished), 1979.

California State Park System Plan, 1980.


Planning for the Fun of It; How to Prepare a Recreation Element for a General Plan, 1982.

California Recreation Action Program Report (now referred to as Recreation Action Reports), starting in 1981.


Recreation Activity Profiles (a series of 20 booklets, each on a different set of activities, providing projections through the year 2000), late 1982 through 1983.

The Recreation and Leisure Industry’s Contribution to California’s Economy, 1984.


An Assessment of California’s Local Park and Recreation Infrastructure, 1992.


Guides and Handbooks


Why Go to the Park: Questions to Measure Parks, People, and Patterns, Rec Tip No. 10, 1979.


Vandalism and Crime...can we really do anything about it effectively?, 1980.

A Summary of State Funding Sources Related to Parks and Recreation, 1981.


APPENDIX 3

Description of Selected Products of the California Outdoor Recreation Planning Program

California’s outdoor recreation planning program generates a wide range and variety of activities, processes, and documents. The present document, the assessment and policy plan, is only one of many. Because it is issued with regularity every five years is not an indication that it is more or less critical than other materials produced by the process.

Following are brief descriptions of the most important published documents developed by the statewide planning staff over the last few years.

Local Park and Recreation Agencies in California--a 1987 Survey (April 1988)

This survey provides census-quality data on the most critical aspects of the park and recreation services provided by the cities, counties, and special districts of California. The survey’s 85 percent return was statistically treated to simulate full coverage for all local park and recreation providers throughout the state.

Current 1986 data are provided for parks, acreage, and their use. Current data are compared with that of five years earlier to provide trend information on agency funding (source and object of expenditure), as well as on staffing and use of volunteers. Finally, agency administrators provide information about which issues they believe will be most critical to local government park and recreation providers during the next five years.

Specific data provide a point-in-time picture of the condition of local public park and recreation suppliers, and, by inference, of the impacts of Propositions 13 and 4.


This study is an analysis of recent statewide comprehensive outdoor recreation plans (SCORP) and related outdoor planning studies prepared in all 50 states and the District of Columbia. In all, 263 documents are analyzed. Leadership in preparation of the study was provided by the National Association of State Recreation Planners (NASRP). (Information on policy plans and studies for the five trust territories is not included because the trust territories did not respond to requests for information.)
The study presents the SCORP issues and their priorities as determined by each state and the District of Columbia. Analyses of the issues indicate the degree to which issues are common to many states, or are limited to a few states. In addition, the study catalogues innovative approaches taken by the various state SCORP planners in preparation of their policy plans.

A total of 211 special studies are described and categorized. These special studies treat 35 topics such as wetlands, park visitor surveys, technical assistance to local agencies, and public opinion surveys. The study also contains simplified organization charts, which show the location of SCORP planners in each state. A SCORP contact is provided for each state.

**An Assessment of California’s Local Park and Outdoor Recreation Infrastructure**
(February 1992)

This report presents the findings of a survey of the backlog of rehabilitation work on the infrastructure of local parks and recreation agencies as of fiscal year 1987-88. Two assumptions were made in developing the study: 1.) An agency’s dollar backlog in rehabilitation work would be an appropriate surrogate for the undone work, itself. 2.) The term “rehabilitation” would be used in the broad sense, and would include not only repair of the infrastructure, but also upgrading it to meet current standards.

A questionnaire was mailed to all identifiable local providers of outdoor recreation. The questionnaire asked for information on agency spending on basic budget categories; the amount of funding that would be needed to eliminate any backlog that might exist; the problems that caused the backlog; the impact of the backlog on lands, facilities, visitors, and the managing agency; the agency’s priorities for eliminating the backlog; and sources of funding currently used for rehabilitation work.

A total of 762 questionnaires were mailed, and 541 were returned. The responses were processed statistically to simulate full coverage for all local agency providers throughout the state. Based on the responses, it was estimated that local park and recreation providers had a rehabilitation shortfall of $642 million. The study also provided useful information on the reasons for and the impacts of the backlog.

A brief survey was also made of the rehabilitation backlog of the State Department of Parks and Recreation and of the four major federal providers of outdoor recreation (National Park Service, U.S. Forest Service, Bureau of Land Management, and U.S. Army Corps of Engineers). Together, these five agencies had a rehabilitation backlog of more than $282 million.

**Public Opinions and Attitudes on Outdoor Recreation in California--1992** (December 1992)

This is the report of a survey of a representative sample of the California population, and of what the public felt, believed, and wanted in terms of public parks and recreation services. For the survey, a sample size of 2,024 people was used.
Intentionally, no distinctions were made between the different providing levels--local, state, and federal--so that the focus is on the public’s reaction to outdoor recreation issues in general.

Areas of the study’s inquiry include: the importance of and satisfaction with existing outdoor recreation opportunities; the kinds of areas most visited and liked; the means of funding outdoor recreation services; priorities for agency spending; the degree of privatization that is acceptable; and reactions toward a list of statements on the availability, quality, and overall importance of outdoor recreation and outdoor recreation facilities.

In addition, information was gathered on the degree to which Californians participated in 42 outdoor recreation activities. Criteria for the Open Project Selection Process of the Land and Water Conservation Fund were developed using responses to two questions: 1.) which of the 42 activities would the respondent do more of, if good facilities were available; and 2.) which activities were felt to be the responsibility of the public sector to provide facilities for.

A separate youth survey was also conducted. Areas of inquiry in the youth survey include: favorite outdoor activities; outdoor organizations, clubs, and groups joined; and perceived problems with outdoor recreation. Information was also collected on the degree to which youth participated in the 42 outdoor recreation activities analyzed in the adult survey. The youth survey was conducted entirely by mail, and the high rate of non-responses makes the results statistically unreliable. The responses do, however, provide a qualitative point of departure for determining the outdoor recreation activities of California’s youth.
APPENDIX 4

Summary of the Open Project Selection Process
for the Land and Water Conservation Fund

The State Department of Parks and Recreation has successfully administered the distribution of California’s allocation of funds from the Land and Water Conservation Fund (LWCF) since the program’s inception in 1965. Under this program, part of the state’s share of LWCF money is allocated to local government projects, and part goes to finance projects selected by four different state agencies.

Local government projects receiving LWCF money are selected by the State Department of Parks and Recreation from among a large number of applicants from throughout the state, using specific criteria and an open project selection process (OPSP). Each state agency, however, selects the projects on which to spend its share of LWCF money, using its own SCORP-based criteria and its own selection process. All the criteria used to select any project, whether state or local, are designed to be responsive to public recreation activity preferences and the set of major issues facing park and recreation organizations in California, issues identified in this California Outdoor Recreation Plan. The state is, therefore, able to demonstrate a consistent policy basis for the investment of these funds.

STATE AGENCY SELECTION PROCESSES

Each of four agencies receive a legislatively determined portion of the state share of the Land and Water Conservation Fund. These agencies have quite different mandates and programs, as set forth by the legislature. As a result, these agencies have a high degree of freedom to select the projects for which their portion will be used. Such projects, however, must still directly address one or more of the major outdoor recreation issues identified in this plan.

The LWCF criteria used by each of the four state agencies are as follows:

1. The California Department of Parks and Recreation is the largest state agency recipient of LWCF money. A small amount is allocated for statewide planning, with the bulk being spent on the State Park System. The criteria used to select projects for the State Park System are designed to stimulate contributions from nonprofit organizations, and to facilitate acquisition projects for new units near urban centers, critical additions to existing parks, or inholdings in established parks. Also, these criteria encourage rehabilitation of deteriorating and outmoded facilities and development of campsites, picnic sites, and other popular facilities in areas where demand is demonstrably high.
2. The Wildlife Conservation Board focuses its criteria on acquiring wildlife habitat—lands suitable for recreation and developing public access. Specifically, it stresses projects where local operations and maintenance funds are available, rehabilitation of existing structures, development near urban areas, and design for disabled users.

3. The California Department of Boating and Waterways considers economics as a dominant factor in consideration of its LWCF projects. A high benefit-to-cost ratio is a prominent criterion—buttressed by low-maintenance design and an expectation of high use. The department also gives credit for facilities that are vandal-proof, offer new or retrofitted access for disabled people, and provide better security for all users.

4. The Department of Water Resources uses its LWCF money for recreation features of the State Water Project. Generally, these facilities are extremely popular water-oriented attractions, and some are units of the State Park System. In general, LWCF money is used to provide better access, and to protect existing areas and facilities.

**LOCAL GOVERNMENT PROJECTS--OPEN PROJECT SELECTION PROCESS**

The California Department of Parks and Recreation, through its Local Assistance Section, selects local government projects to be funded each year. Using an established open project selection process, cities, counties, and park and recreation districts apply to receive funding for projects in their jurisdiction. Such applications are evaluated through the procedure described below.

Projects submitted by local agencies are evaluated by two sets of criteria:

- Screening Criteria.
- Ranking Criteria.

The screening criteria determine whether a project is eligible:

- Does the project meet the eligibility requirements of the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act and the criteria established by the National Park Service?
- Is the project consistent with priority needs identified in the California Outdoor Recreation Plan?
- Is the application technically complete?
- Was it submitted by the deadline?
- Does the project have an assured source of eligible matching funds to meet the nonfederal share of the cost?
- Does the applicant have, by the deadline, adequate tenure to the land to be developed?
After a local project has been screened, it is evaluated by ranking criteria to assign a numerical rating. The ranking criteria consist of a number of components:

1. The extent to which the project meets the priority statewide outdoor recreation needs identified in the current assessment and policy plan, including:
   - Recreation activities. The DPR statewide opinion survey determined the latent demand for outdoor recreation activities. It resulted in a priority statewide ranking of activities.
   - Support facilities. Restrooms, parking areas, entrance stations, maintenance areas, and fencing needed to improve the quality of the recreation experience, or to make the project available for visitation, will be considered for funding.

2. The local need for the project balances California’s great diversity in climate, landscape, population distribution, density, and jurisdictional stages of development by allowing projects to be compared against one another using criteria that can be objectively applied:
   - Does the project appear on an agencywide master plan?
   - Does the project appear on an approved site plan?
   - Is there a lack of similar opportunities within the area served by the project?
   - Will the project be accessible to special populations?
   - What is the population and density within the service area of the park?
   - Is there demonstrated public involvement in the proposed project selection and planning?

3. Project-specific criteria compare projects by evaluating a number of site-specific factors:
   - Cost/benefit ratio.
   - Accessibility of site.
   - For acquisition only:
     - Urgency of acquisition.
     - Acquisition of wetlands/open space in urban areas.
   - For development only:
     - Least alteration of site.
     - Type of development (rehabilitation versus new and additions).
4. Applicant criteria compare projects by assessing the applicant’s effectiveness and timely administration of previously awarded grant funds, and stewardship of existing facilities:
   - Administration of previously awarded grants.
   - Ability to operate and maintain the project.

5. Bonus points are awarded for applications that are technically complete by the annual deadline.

6. Finally, if projects are tied after being ranked, the following tie-breaking criteria are used to judge the projects:
   - Geographical distribution.
   - Applicant with the least recent LWCF grant.
   - Project’s overall merit.
   - An applicant that has received less LWCF money than others will be favored.

The final numerical ranking of an eligible grant request is calculated by combining the points for each of the components of the ranking criteria. Then, projects are recommended for funding in the order of their assigned score until the funds allocated for local projects are exhausted.

Although there are differences among the criteria used by each of the state agencies involved in this program, and differences between the criteria used by state agencies as a group and those for local agencies, there is a strong common thread among them. It is that all of these criteria are designed to respond to the major issues identified in this California Outdoor Recreation Plan--1993. The resulting projects offer the public a tremendous variety from which to choose. Altogether, they offer healthy diversity while meeting significant needs in their specific areas.
APPENDIX 5

Outdoor Recreation Plan Advisory Committee

The major outdoor recreation issues, which form the core of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan, were identified and developed by a special statewide advisory committee appointed by the director of the California Department of Parks and Recreation. The committee had 14 members, including top managers representing private, federal, state, and local government recreation suppliers, environmentalists, academicians, and professionals in recreation-related fields.

The committee members are listed below. Their titles and affiliations were the ones current at the time of the project, and do not reflect subsequent changes.

Richard Barbar, Chief
Lands and Recreation Branch
Bureau of Land Management, California Office

Dr. Jimmy Calloway, Chairperson
Department of Leisure Studies and Recreation
California State University, Northridge

Joan Chaplick, Chief
Grants Branch
National Park Service, Western Region

Pauline desGranges, Member
California State Park and Recreation Commission

Chris Jarvi, Director
Department of Parks, Recreation, and Community Services
City of Anaheim

John W. Koeberer, President
California Parks Company

James R. Mills, Chief
Office of Operations Evaluation
National Park Service, Western Region
Robert Overstreet, President
Overstreet Associates

Gary W. Plisco, Group Leader
Recreation Management
U.S. Department of Agriculture
Forest Service, Pacific Southwest Region

Paul Romero, Director
Regional Park and Open Space District
Riverside County

Murray Rosenthal, Chairperson
Southern California State Parks Committee
Sierra Club California

William G. Shafroth, Assistant Secretary for
Land and Coastal Resources
Resources Agency
State of California

J.P. Tindell, President
Future Focus

Mary Wright, Deputy Director for External Affairs
California Department of Parks and Recreation
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adams, Jane H.  

Bouvier, Leon F. and Philip Martin  

California Assembly Office of Research  

California Council on Biodiversity  
Coordinated Regional Strategy to Conserve Biological Diversity in California, 1991.

California Department of Commerce  
Regional Economic Impacts of California Travel: 1985 and 1986-88.


California Department of Finance, Population Research Unit  


California Department of Parks and Recreation  

California Recreation Action Reports, various years.

The Recreation and Leisure Industry’s Contribution to California’s Economy, 1984.


An Assessment of California’s Local Park and Outdoor Recreation Infrastructure, 1992.

California Governor’s Office of Planning and Research


California Park and Recreation Society
Environmental Policy, no date.

Carnegie Corporation of New York, Task Force on Youth Development and Community Programs

Center for the Continuing Study of the California Economy

Dahl, Rene Fukuhara

Gramann, James H.

Harris, Louis

Leopold, Aldo

Lorenz, Jack
The Need for Outdoor Ethics Education for Natural Resource Users (Option Paper), presented to the President’s Commission on Americans Outdoors, March 1986.

Meral, Gerald H. and Jennifer Jennings
Funding for Land Protection: a California Primer, Planning and Conservation League Primer, 1993
Michaelson, Janet and Gerald H. Meral
Local Votes to Preserve the Environment of California, Planning and Conservation

President’s Commission on Americans Outdoors

Decision Paper No. 10 - Public Awareness and an Outdoor Ethic, undated.

Soderberg, Jon P.
Parks and Recreation Ballgame of the 90s: Benched or First-String Players, unpublished, 1993.

U.S. Department of the Interior, Fish and Wildlife Service

Wilson, Governor Pete


Yankelovich Partners Inc.
Copies of the California Outdoor Recreation Plan - 1993 are available from:

California Department of Parks and Recreation
The State Parks Store
P.O. Box 942896
Sacramento, CA 94296-0001

The price of this report is $5.00 plus $2.50 for shipping and handling. California residents add current sales tax. Make checks payable to Department of Parks and Recreation.