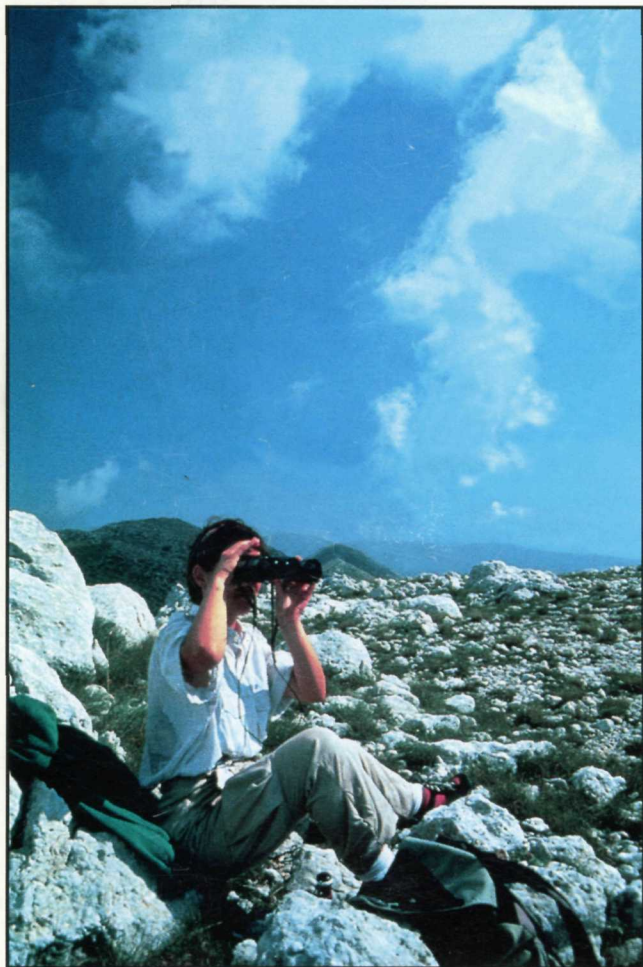


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of Cultural and Natural Parks and Reserves
Through Research and Education

The George Wright Society

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On the Cover: Volunteer working in Abruzzo National Park, Italy. *Courtesy Centro Parchi di Roma.*

Society News, Notes & Mail

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ON THE FRONTIERS OF CONSERVATION: DISCOVERY, REAPPRAISAL, AND INNOVATION The 1999 George Wright Society Conference

The beautiful Blue Ridge Mountains will be the setting for the next GWS conference, the 10th Conference on Research and Resource Management in Parks and on Public Lands. We will meet March 22-26, 1999, at the Great Smokies Holiday Inn SunSpree Resort in Asheville, North Carolina. The biennial GWS meetings are the USA's premier interdisciplinary conferences on parks and protected areas. The 1999 conference, "On the Frontiers of Conservation: Discovery, Reappraisal, and Innovation," will explore parks and protected areas as:

- Places of discovery, where we gain understanding through scientific and historical inquiry, experience of place, and personal reflection.
- Places of reappraisal, where we invigorate the past with new interpretations, reassess the meaning of nature, and search for a renewed relationship to our environment.
- Places of innovation, where we celebrate connections of people and place, and forge new approaches to conservation and the management of resources.

We are now accepting abstracts to be considered for inclusion in the concurrent and poster session. We welcome abstracts from both GWS members and non-members on any topic related to research, resource management, and public education in parks and protected areas, from any field in natural or cultural resources. Before submitting, be sure to read the complete details and instructions in the Call for Papers brochure. To view it, visit the conference Web site at

<http://www.portup.com/~gws/gws99.html>

and click on "Call for Papers." There you will find the complete text of the brochure as well as an on-line abstract submission form. *We strongly urge submitters to use the Web form*—it is by far the easiest way for us to process abstracts. Just follow the instructions. We also have a printed Call for Papers brochure available. GWS members will receive it automatically; if you're not a member, you can get one by contacting us at The George Wright Society, P.O.

Box 65, Hancock, MI 49930-0065 USA; 1-906-487-9722; fax 1-906-487-9405; gws@mail.portup.com. **The deadline for abstracts is October 15, 1998.** So mark your calendars, and make plans to join us next spring in Asheville! [The complete text is reprinted starting on page 91 of this issue.]

Doing Science in Wilderness

It is evident that scientific research is necessary to understand and manage designated wilderness areas, but "wilderness managers are faced with the dilemma of how to encourage scientific activities without destroying the resources and values an area was established to protect." This is one of the special problems of doing science in wilderness that was explored at last year's GWS conference in Albuquerque in a workshop organized by GWS member David J. Parsons of the Aldo Leopold Wilderness Research Institute. Now Parsons has published a summary of the workshop in the *International Journal of Wilderness* (1998; Vol. 4, No. 1; pp. 10-13) entitled "Scientific Activities in Wilderness: A Workshop to Address Issues and Concerns." The article gives a manager's and a scientist's perspective, a case study of research-management cooperation from Sequoia-Kings Canyon National Park, and a proposed protocol to evaluate research proposals. For more information, contact Parsons at the ALWRI, P.O. Box 8089, Missoula, MT 59812 USA; 1-406-542-4190; dparsons/rmrs_missoula@fs.fed.us.

Slide, Anyone?

Anyone with a slide, or slides, that s/he is proud of, and who wishes to share it or them, is welcome to send them to us for scanning. They would immediately be returned to you. Include: "where, when, of what" the slide is about. We can not promise to use it/them, at least not immediately.

WCPA News: Imperatives for Protected Areas

Last November, IUCN's World Commission on Protected Areas convened a symposium on "Protected Areas in the 21st Century: From Islands to Networks," in Albany, Western Australia. The symposium was conceived of as a midway review of progress since the 1992 World Parks Congress in Venezuela, looking forward to the next Congress in 2002. At the symposium, the following statement on "Imperatives for Protected Areas" was adopted:

A new alliance is sought among all stakeholders at the local, national, regional and global levels to pool their talents and capacities to realise a new vision for protected areas in the bioregional context.

Protected areas are special places on land and sea which are managed for conservation purposes. The current global system comprises some 30,000 sites, covering about 13.2 million sq km (almost the size of Antarctica). They are of various kinds. Many have cultural components and support appropriate sustainable use. They play a key role in conserving natural ecosystems and,

where managed effectively, contribute substantially to sustainable development.

Protected areas provide options for humanity in a rapidly changing world. They ensure the continuing flow of ecosystems services, including maintaining water and air quality and the availability of soil nutrients and act as carbon sinks. They provide economic benefits and contribute to spiritual, mental and physical well-being. Protected areas also helps fulfil our ethical responsibility to respect nature.

This role is challenged by various factors such as macroeconomics policies, rural poverty, land tenure issues, habitat fragmentation, climate change, and inadequate funding, inadequate management capacity and lack of political commitment. There is insufficient appreciation of the linkage between protected areas and the realisation of human expectations.

If, in the 21st Century, humanity is to have:

- security for habitats and species;
- an environment which is productive, healthy and harmonious;
- restored productivity of soils, forests, water, air and seas; and
- sustainable use of the biosphere and natural resources for food security;

Then we call on all members of the protected areas community to:

- *Rethink:* We need to place protected areas in their broader context so as to demonstrate that they contribute to local economies and human welfare as integral components of a productive and secure environment. We need to ensure that our sites are selected and managed primarily for their biodiversity and ecosystem service values, while considering the livelihoods of the communities dependent upon them. Our communication strategies need to convey this new image.
- *Reorient:* We need to expand on our principal role of establishing and managing protected areas by emphasising the bioregional approach, and working for the compatible management of surrounding areas. We need to connect them with nature-friendly corridors to form a conservation matrix using a range of protected areas types.
- *Respond:* We need to respond to global concerns about issues such as biodiversity, climate change, desertification, international waters and peace, and emphasise the role protected areas can play in addressing these.
- *Reach-out:* We need to establish partnerships and encourage co-operation with neighbours and other stakeholders, promote stewardship, enhance the use of relevant information, and develop and strengthen the policies, economic and other instruments which support protected areas objectives. Our efforts need to be complemented by those of other public and private organisations and interests that have the required skills and capabilities, and especially by those with authority and responsibility over natural resources as to realise this vision.

Box 65: Commentary from the GWS Office and Our Members

Blasphemy from the Hinterland:

Using NPS History to Improve Science and Natural Resources Management

At the last George Wright Society conference (the Ninth Conference on Research and Resource Management in Parks and Public Lands, Albuquerque, New Mexico, March 1997) frustration and despair over the state of natural resources management in America's national parks were evident among the National Park Service (NPS) natural resource managers in attendance. These emotions were apparent in discussions in formal sessions, as well as conversations at breaks and other social gatherings. An evening session was devoted to "Rebuilding and Strengthening NPS Science and Resource Management"; the title of the session suggests a program in ruins, or at least very weakened, and is itself evidence of the mood.

Reasons for these emotions are many and varied. They can be traced back to tightened federal budgets and downsizing since 1994. Resource management budgets at the park level have stagnated or declined and are often only a small percentage of park base budgets. Despite recent professionalism efforts, staffing remains inadequate to address needs. Funding for research, always inadequate, has fallen far behind the need; in 1993 NPS scientists and much of the agency's meager science budget was transferred to the newly created National Biological Survey (NBS), now the Biological Resources Division of the U.S. Geological Survey (BRD). All this has occurred in a time when, according to Assistant Interior Secretary George Frampton, resource management is supposed to "flourish" in the national parks (Krumen-

aker 1997).

While those of us in the NPS may tend to think of our problems as a fairly recent turn of events, Richard West Sellars' *Preserving Nature in the National Parks* (1997) provides a historical context. Sellars traces the evolution of science and resource management in the NPS, and shows that the problems we see today are a continuation of those encountered through the decades by our forebears in the agency. While there have been many discussions and analyses, and various solutions have been proposed through the years, the problem remains. Now, the new NPS director, Robert Stanton, has stated a priority "to rejuvenate natural resources," and established a work group to develop a strategy to strengthen natural resource management and protection (Krumenaker 1998). With this in

mind, it would seem like a good opportunity to examine our situation in a historical context, clarify issues, and propose new ways to address them. This paper is a contribution to the discourse from the perspective of a resource manager in a small park in the hinterland of the National Park Service, far from the centers of power in the agency. It proposes that much of our problem may lie within ourselves—the natural resources realm of the NPS—and that we must learn from our agency’s history in order to choose new ways to address longstanding problems.

What is Resource Management in the NPS?

Too often the terms “science” and “resource management” are used interchangeably or melded together as “science-based management” or “ecologically sound management” without clear definition. These terms in fact encompass two separate roles which require clarification.

To illustrate this point, consider the popular television show “Law and Order.” Each episode begins with a voice-over against a black background:

In the criminal justice system, the people are represented by two separate, yet equally important, groups: The police, who investigate crime, and the district attorneys, who prosecute the offenders.

The statement very simply and concisely explains the fundamental difference between two important societal roles. In much the same way, the separation of function within America’s national parks can be stated:

In national parks, the natural resources are represented by two separate, yet equally important groups: The research scientists, who gather and analyze ecological data, and the resource managers, who integrate resource information into park management.

This separation of function, although often overlooked or ignored, is a fundamentally important concept. The research aspect is one of *objective investigation and analysis*. It is a non-advocacy role, other than advocating the proper gathering and interpretation of data. The resource manager, on the other hand, is an *advocate* for the natural resources within the context of the scientific evidence, the agency’s legal mandates, and established policies. This advocacy in the decision-making process is fundamental to integration of research results into management to establish ecologically sound (science-based) management. The *Natural Resources Strategic Plan Professional Development Program* (NPS 1994) recognized the importance of this “integrator” role of resource managers. Blurring these roles, where the research scientist advocates policy beyond what the data supports or the resource manager offers analysis without proper scientific investigation, opens the door for politicized science and diminished credibility for the agency. Our society is awash in politicized science; very often the public recognizes it and distrusts research, scientists, and associated organizations because of it.

Furthermore, although there are separate roles, science (including re-

search, as well as monitoring and technical expertise) is, in fact, a vital part of resource management. It is an essential tool for the resource manager—as are the pertinent laws, policies, and public opinion—for protecting ecosystems for which the NPS is steward. The research scientist and the natural resources manager work together, within their roles, to ensure scientific information effectively influences decision-making.

Parks as a “Social Construct”

If we recognize these roles, it follows then to clarify the importance of going beyond data gathering and analysis to integrating it into management. Why don't we just act on the results of scientific study of park ecosystems?

The answer is simple, yet disconcertingly complex. Historian Richard White effectively argued in Albuquerque that “nature” (including parks) is a “social construct” (White 1997). In other words, the concept is a creation of society, and as such is the product of human values. Yellowstone National Park is more important than a urban vacant lot only because our society has placed a greater value upon the physical and biological features of that system. Without human values the concepts of “native” and “non-native” species, “resource degradation,” “pristine,” and “biodiversity” lose their meaning. Broken down to the most elemental concept, divorced from human values, ecosystems are merely suites of organisms, each struggling

for survival within the physical setting in which they exist; no species is more important than another, no state of the system is more desirable than another.

The national parks, therefore, reflect conditions our society (at least a vocal segment of it) desires, and our attitudes toward nature. They are democratic institutions rather than intact ecological systems. In fact, as Sellars (1997), Runte (1979), Ise (1961) and many others have described, the early parks were established to protect scenery and “desirable” animal populations. Only as scientists learned more about the complexity of natural systems and developed the principles of ecology, and these principles became accepted, did preserving *ecosystems* become a recognized goal in national parks.

Many in the NPS, while extolling the national park idea as one of the finest expressions of democratic society, are repulsed by the political realm within which the parks were created and exist. They believe in the importance of science, and are contemptuous of decisions based on “politics” and those who work within that realm. One former NPS scientist, addressing a group of NPS resource managers, stated with disdain that the toughest part of his job was dealing with “resource management *politicians*,” leaving no doubt he was referring to his audience. Nonetheless, science cannot be divorced from societal values. Lautenschlager (1997) cites Wicklum and Davies (1995) ar-

guing that the concepts of "ecosystem health" and "ecosystem integrity" are not inherent properties of an ecosystem supported by empirical evidence or ecological theory; rather, they are concepts derived from our perceptions of what is "good" in an ecosystem. These concepts are, in fact, the incorporation of our social construct of nature into a framework for scientific study. It follows, then, that science generally does not provide clear answers to our social issues; it provides information necessary (along with non-scientific considerations) for decision-makers to make informed decisions. It is these non-scientific considerations that makes the NPS a *land management agency* rather than a *research agency*.

Perhaps nowhere is the conflict between social concerns and scientific investigation more evident in the NPS than in wildlife management issues. The Park Service has recently been pummeled by criticism of its wildlife management policies, most vehemently by Chase (1986) and Wagner et al. (1995). In particular, management of Yellowstone elk has been controversial for nearly forty years. What is clear, and what critics seem incapable of accepting, is that there is no single paradigm for wildlife management in the national parks (Huff 1997a). Instead "the NPS exercises a wide continuum of approaches" (Huff 1997b) reflecting various social concerns expressed in laws and policies for individual parks. Criticism, even from acknowledged experts, often seems less rooted in

empirical science than in the values from which the individual develops a framework for examining the issue. Opinions often seem to reflect training and experience as "range" or "game" biologists, favoring stable, sustainable harvested populations (deer, elk, etc.) over more dynamic populations in constant struggle with other species and their habitats as described by Botkin (1990).

Yet, it is our values that give significance to the parks and prevent a single paradigm for management across the range of park units. When they conflict with science they cannot be dismissed as "anti-intellectualism," as is done by Coonan and Schwemm (1995). While the values that give rise to appreciation for charismatic species or concern for animal rights often create conflict for the NPS, they cause us to see resources as more than food or data, and they may be our deepest expression of intellectualism. They are essential to the social construct, and must be acknowledged and considered along with scientific information in managing natural resources.

However, recognizing nature and national parks as social constructs does not diminish their importance nor require a change in our perspective. It only provides a means of recognizing the connection between the scientific and the social (political) realms. There will always be friction between the two—it is inherent in the system. The key, then, is to maintain the proper relationship, where political influence is kept out of scientific

investigation, but results are properly integrated into political discourse in order to influence decisions in park management and society in general.

Identifying the Problem

If we accept the role separation of research scientist and natural resource manager, and the concept of the parks as a social construct, it is then possible to more correctly identify the root problem facing natural resource management in the National Park Service.

For most of the Park Service's history, various entities have cited the need for more science. In 1916 Joseph Grinnell wrote of the need for national park management to have a firm scientific basis (Sellars 1997). In the 1930s, NPS wildlife biologist George Wright recognized this critical need and personally funded the first attempts to obtain important baseline data (Sellars 1997). In 1963 the Leopold Report (Leopold et al. 1963) and the Robbins Report (NRC 1963) both cited the need for stronger research programs, and *The Vail Agenda* (NPS 1991), the National Academy of Sciences (NRC 1992), Wagner et al. (1995) and Sellars (1997) made the case in the 1990s. In Albuquerque, most of the "Rebuilding and Strengthening" session was focused on a \$2.4 million initiative the Park Service was presenting to Congress to create a pilot program of Cooperative Ecosystem Study Units (CESU). This initiative was essentially a plan to regain NPS science capability "lost" to the BRD.

Many believe that improving resource management in the parks can be accomplished by increasing the number of scientists and the amount of research in the parks.

However, if our goal is more ecologically sound (science-based) management, the lack of research, or scientific investigation, is *not* the root problem—it is a conspicuous symptom of a deeper problem. The real problem today, as it has been for most of our agency's history, was perhaps best stated by Krumenaker (undated): "Natural resource programs remain outside the mainstream of National Park Service culture." In other words, natural resource programs, including both roles of scientific investigation and advocacy of ecological concerns, have not become fully integrated into park management *at all levels*. While it may seem like a minor distinction, our history of treating the symptom rather than the problem itself has led us to ineffective or inappropriate courses of action.

If we recognize the need to strengthen natural resource programs in order to effect more ecologically based management, then we need to look at the organization as a whole in order to determine the best means to bring it about; in order to become part of the mainstream culture, we must first examine the mainstream culture.

Since the creation of the National Park Service, the mandate from the Organic Act (16 U.S.C. §1 et seq.), "to promote and regulate use" and "to conserve the scenery and the nat-

ural and historic objects and the wild life 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" has been framed as dual purposes. This dichotomy of preservation versus use has too often forced false choices of one or the other. And, in fact, in two amendments to the Organic Act in the 1970s Congress explicitly directed the NPS that "management ... shall not compromise these resource values," and keeping them "unimpaired" was a "paramount duty" (Mantell and Metzger 1990). The mandate, then, can be more correctly framed by conceptualizing a continuum with human-focused, or *anthropocentric*, management on one side and ecosystem-focused, or *biocentric*, management on the other. Anthropocentric management seeks to increase public use; social considerations predominate over biological or ecological concerns because of the perceived human benefits to be derived (Hendee et al. 1978). Biocentric management emphasizes preservation of the natural system in order to protect the recreational and scientific values placed on the preserved system and processes; human benefits are derived from the preserved system and its processes (Hendee et al. 1978). Clearly the NPS mandate is for biocentric management, located somewhere on the continuum away from extreme anthropocentrism (the Disneyland experience) and toward extreme biocentrism (absolutely pris-

tine wilderness) (Kenner 1985). Law, NPS policy, and ecology all dictate a management goal toward the biocentric end, but often beyond what management achieves; historically, management has focused more on providing recreational tourism than on protecting ecosystems. The proper role for the natural resources manager, then, as advocate for the resources, is to encourage management toward the biocentric end of the continuum—toward the goal set by law, policy, and science. One measure of success can be the extent to which management efforts are focused on maintaining or restoring ecosystem processes.

From the natural resources perspective, then, the problem is that NPS mainstream culture does not strive hard enough to attain the goal. Thus, in order to ensure ecologically sound, science-based management, the mainstream culture must be oriented toward a more biocentric management philosophy.

How Can We Address the Problem?

If our goal is to move NPS mainstream culture toward a more biocentric management focus and thus more ecologically based management, we must address the problem of a lack of integration of science and natural resource management concerns into management at all levels of the organization. The following are three steps that can be taken by NPS leaders *within the natural resources realm* to address the problem and reach our goal:

Encourage grassroots, instead of top-down, management. Knight and Meffe (1997) describe most resource management agencies as hierarchical, top-down organizations. In some ways the NPS has generally followed this model through its history. Sellars (1997), Runte (1979) and others have described the power of strong NPS directors from Mather through Hartzog. "Mission 66," the massive Servicewide development program of the 1950s and 1960s, was perhaps the grandest example of a top-down initiative, with the greatest impact on the National Park System. However, the evolution of the system does not favor top-down management. The first parks were established before there was any management agency. Most parks have been created with individual legislation, while others were created through other legislation such as the Antiquities Act (16 U.S.C. §§431-33). Many park organic acts have special provisions for hunting, trapping, and commercial fishing, consumptive activities generally prohibited by law or policy. Also, throughout NPS history many different types of units have been added to the system: historic sites, battlefields, and birthplaces; recreation areas; lakeshores and seashores; preserves and scenic rivers. The entire park concept has been expanded to include new kinds of cooperative protection involving state and private groups. Further, parks have local political environments within which managers must function.

Even as the NPS has evolved as a

decentralized agency (formalized as a goal of the recent agency reorganization), nearly all of the calls to improve science and natural resources management in the NPS have followed the top-down model. Many have come from outside the agency, some have come from within, but nearly all have promoted a centralized, Servicewide approach, and criticized the NPS for not having a centralized science program. In the past ten years several Servicewide science initiatives have originated from within the NPS (Targeted Parks Program, Global Climate Change Program, Inventory and Monitoring), but have had limited success. These initiatives, if funded by Congress at all, have been underfunded, and arguably have had little direct benefit to the majority of parks.

Many central office personnel distrust park individualism. Wagner et al. (1995) quote Carol Aten (at the time chief of the Office of Policy Development in the NPS) as stating that "at the park level there is no System view." Many feel superintendents have too much autonomy, leading to "Balkanization" of the parks, and that trying to get parks to take a "Systemwide" perspective is akin to herding cats. Regarding the recent agency reorganization, Sellars wrote that "the emancipation of the parks from the leadership and oversight of well-staffed central offices reduced the park superintendents' accountability to higher authority and to national standards of park management," and it "has created a situation

where, with less oversight and fewer constraints, traditional attitudes may be reinforced and flourish.”

However, Knight and Meffe (1997) offer a contrasting perspective. They propose a more grassroots model of natural resource management, based on an ecosystem approach that “emphasizes individual initiative and input from all levels.” “Because ecosystem management encourages partnerships, cooperation, and risk-taking,” they state, “it contrasts sharply with the linear command-and-control approach of traditional resource management that encouraged hierarchical decision-making and risk aversion.” Knight and Meffe recognize that “a one-size-fits-all approach issued from the top often clashes with specific needs of individual projects.” In examining histories of various natural resource agencies, they found that

accumulation of power at the top of agencies, and the painfully slow ability for bureaucracies to adapt to change, meant that resource issues were not always addressed in a timely fashion. Employing a decentralized approach with feedback loops acknowledges the intricacies inherent in managing landscapes and allows for greater flexibility and efficiency in meeting the multiple challenges of management.

This flexibility is in contrast to traditional management where agencies create long-term plans and stick to them regardless of societal changes or new information. The ecosystem model, they argue, “promotes continual revisitation of decisions, their revision based on a review of initial results and new information, and the

confidence in the spirit of continually improving the mission of land stewardship.”

The Cooperative Ecosystem Study Unit (CESU) proposal discussed at “Rebuilding and Strengthening” in Albuquerque was met with skepticism from park resource managers. It was essentially a traditional, top-down concept that established a research bureaucracy for generating research projects but did not provide project funding. More important than internal skepticism is the fact that Congress refused to fund the proposal. In today’s political environment, it is clear that proposals for more bureaucracy will not find favor; a decentralized approach directly impacting parks is certain to find more favor. A more grassroots approach would be to develop a project fund with specific goals and parameters, and make it available to the parks, who would utilize their contacts with bioregional research entities to develop and accomplish studies.

Furthermore, Park Service evolution favors a grassroots approach to natural resources management. This is particularly true today because of the recognized need for superintendents to be more active beyond park boundaries in cooperative ecosystem management. “The concept of managing in the context of entire ecosystems is critical to the long-term preservation of national park lands” (NPS 1993). The past has shown that science and natural resources management will not flourish if imposed

from above. It must be supported and encouraged *at the park level*, where it can take root, grow, and expand up throughout the System. The recent agency reorganization was intended to decentralize and empower parks, but lack of funding and agency inertia have limited its success. The central offices still have a vital role to play, but they need to shift to a more *supportive* role rather than a *directive* one.

A new paradigm is needed for managing natural resources in the parks, emphasizing the ecosystem approach. It may be that we have been locked into the *System* perspective and need to focus more on the *ecosystem* perspective. Systemwide natural resources initiatives should be designed for maximum initiative and flexibility at the park level, within clearly stated parameters. Research funding should be disbursed via proposals that are peer-reviewed by NPS resource managers, using clearly established criteria. The central office role would be to provide essential feedback and ensure *accountability*, achieved through a technical review of study plans and project goal accomplishment. The Natural Resource Preservation Program (NRPP) operates much this way, and future funding initiatives should follow this model.

Properly executed, this approach demands quality, ensures accountability, supports partnerships and cooperation (not just with other landowners but with other national parks facing common issues), and

rewards creativity in seeking to accomplish agency goals. The NPS natural resources leadership should recognize the viability of this approach and encourage grassroots efforts by park resource managers and superintendents.

Increase technical expertise and integration capability in the parks.

The grassroots, or ecosystem approach can succeed because of two realities that did not exist when earlier top-down calls for improving science and resource management occurred: First, the Park Service has in place management policies (NPS 1988) and natural resource guidelines (NPS 1990) to provide detailed overall direction. Second, many parks have trained, professional natural resource managers.

Following the creation of the National Biological Survey and transfer of NPS scientists, one person commented that, in terms of science and resource management, the agency was right back to where it was when George Wright died in 1936. Wright's untimely death silenced a strong proponent of scientific management, and was followed by the decline and disappearance of science capability in the Park Service. However, this comparison is unrealistic. The "loss" of NPS scientists to the new agency has not ended science in the parks. Grassroots science continues. While underfunded, understaffed, and generally outside the mainstream culture, park resource management programs continue to provide a scientifically based influ-

ence in the parks. In the Great Lakes, for example:

- Apostle Islands National Lakeshore has implemented, with limited funding, a long-term ecological monitoring program based on the Inventory and Monitoring Program's Channel Islands model;
- Four Great Lakes parks are working cooperatively with BRD scientists on an important inland-lakes baseline study; and
- Strong advocacy by park resource managers has guaranteed continued logistical support and funding for Isle Royale's often-heralded long-term wolf-moose-vegetation relationships study, which has progressed for over thirty years with limited NPS funding—even through periods of tight budgets.

Also, Great Lakes parks have been hosting meetings with scientists from the BRD's Great Lakes Science Center in order to develop professional relationships and cooperative research projects. In fact, due to efforts by park resource managers, at least some of the parks have had more contact with BRD scientists than they had with NPS scientists.

The bottom line is that the importance of park resource managers must be recognized. Many parks now have professional staffs capable of identifying and prioritizing research and resource management needs, designing and administering research, and cooperating with partners in ecosystem management efforts. As NPS retiree William Brown commented in the closing session in Albuquerque: "The formula for success is the integration of science and resource management at the park site."

The Natural Resources Manage-

ment Training Program (NRMTTP) was begun in the early 1980s in response to a Park Service report that identified a need for trained resource professionals (Sellars 1997). It was a program that took experienced NPS employees and combined extensive, broad-ranged resource management training in a variety of settings with their regular duties over the course of 18-24 months. The NRMTTP developed skills of trainees in parks throughout the system. Many trainees were placed in smaller parks where previously there were no resource management programs. The commitment of the trainees' time required that the park support the program. The program had no specific education or experience requirement. Trainees had a variety of educational and experiential backgrounds.

Some in the NPS disparage the NRMTTP and natural resource managers in general. They note the lack of an advanced degree requirement and research credentials. One former park scientist, speaking before a regional group of park resource managers, decried the program as "a lot of money to teach people how to fill out forms." However, in 1990 (in a plenary session of the George Wright Society conference in El Paso, Texas) Destry Jarvis, then with the Student Conservation Association, called the program "the most important thing the National Park Service has done in the last ten years." These contrasting opinions are reflective of the ambivalence found within the NPS.

No doubt the program had its faults, and there is no claim that program graduates are any more competent than their peers who did not participate. However, the program did place trained resource managers in parks across the system, and significantly reduced their learning curve by providing training in environmental compliance, NPS policy and planning, inventory and monitoring, integrated pest management, geographic information systems and other activities integral to managing park natural resource programs. It exposed the trainees to NPS technical support centers capable of providing vital assistance in addressing air and water quality, mining, and other issues. A measure of the success of the NRMTP is that it produced over 100 resource managers, most of them in parks, many in smaller parks. Graduates of the program are now found at all levels in natural resources management and are moving into management ranks. Recent recipients of the National Parks and Conservation Association's Stephen Tyng Mather Award, the George Wright Society's Natural Resource Management Award, and the Trish Patterson-Student Conservation Award were all program graduates, located in parks from Alaska to the Virgin Islands. These awards recognize commitment to natural resources, and are evidence that the program is positively affecting parks.

As the NRMTP and other park resource managers who have been supported with training and funding have

proven, one very effective way to directly affect natural resource management in the National Park Service is to get more highly trained natural resource managers *in the parks*. Professional training is vitally important to improving science and resource management. Diversity in education and experience must be recognized as important for developing resource managers with a broader perspective on park management issues and thus able to function in the mainstream. NPS natural resources leaders must recognize that continued training, career development opportunities, and attendance at professional conferences are essential to maintaining a highly skilled, effective cadre of resource managers. The leadership must focus more effort toward supporting park resource managers and their professional development.

In developing resource manager positions, parks need to be more creative and look at shared positions among smaller parks with similar issues or technical needs. They must determine if the position needed is an "integrator" or "specialist" role as described by the *Natural Resources Strategic Plan* (NPS 1994), and determine the education, skills, and experience most suitable. Park resource managers must be effective both within their park to promote ecologically sound management and within the agency in pushing for a more grassroots, park-focused perspective within Servicewide policy.

Finally, we must recognize that

parks will never have enough on-staff expertise to effectively address the myriad of complex ecological issues that must be faced. Central office expertise will continue to be essential. The Natural Resources Program Center offers an excellent model of technical support for parks for research and monitoring development, planning, and policy formulation and implementation.

Change the NPS leadership culture. The early proponents of the agency, including Directors Mather, Albright, and Drury, as well as Interior Secretary Lane, were connected by California backgrounds. They were the first “leadership cadre” and they established a foundation for the Park Service that exists to this day. Sellars (1997) shows how the “leadership culture” has evolved. From the beginning of the agency engineers and landscape architects were brought into the agency to plan and develop the parks. Their influence grew after World War II, and culminated when Conrad Wirth, a landscape architect, was made director. Wirth initiated the Mission 66 program, an engineer and landscape architect’s dream—more than a billion dollars to develop roads and facilities across the National Park System. Perhaps just as important as the physical changes brought about in those years was the culture change within the agency. The landscape architects and engineers became the “leadership cadre” in the NPS for a generation, and remain highly influential to this day.

At about the same time as Mission 66, the NPS began to strengthen the ranger corps. During the 1960s the corps grew, and by 1970 social upheaval had reached the parks, forcing the NPS to recognize the need for more rangers with more professional law enforcement training. The NPS responded: anyone wanting to work for the agency during the 1970s and early 1980s knew the best way was through law enforcement. In the mid-1970s a group of rangers started the Association of National Park Rangers (ANPR), intended to articulate concerns of the growing ranger force. By the late 1980s the ANPR had grown considerably in strength, in part due to the rise of its proponents to positions of power in the agency. Rangers were becoming the new leadership cadre, and by the 1990s ranger power led to the “Ranger Careers” initiative. This program has meant significant improvements in ranger salaries, as well as twenty-year enhanced retirement for law enforcement personnel.

The lesson to be learned from the ascendancy of engineers, landscape architects, and rangers is that, in order to effect dramatic change within this agency, the leadership cadre of the future must come from the natural resources realm. If we truly believe in the need for more ecologically sound management, natural resource managers must not merely become part of the mainstream NPS culture—they must dominate it. This change cannot be imposed from above or created by well-intentioned directives. It will only be achieved through a long-term

effort to get NPS personnel with strong natural resources backgrounds into the management ranks.

Throughout the history of the agency, much of the power has resided with park superintendents. As Sellars showed, many of the initiatives for improving science and natural resources have failed because there was little support at the park level; conversely, park natural resource programs flourish if the superintendents are committed to them. In order to effect change, there must be (to paraphrase comments made by Jon Jarvis, superintendent of Wrangell-St. Elias National Park and Preserve, at the "Strengthening and Rebuilding" session in Albuquerque) natural resource managers willing and able to step into superintendencies and make the hard choices of funding and staffing when natural resource issues must be weighed against other park needs.

To accomplish this will require a concerted effort to provide resource managers with training and skills to enable them to recognize and deal with the complexities of managing a national park. One official in the higher levels of NPS natural resource management once told a group of park resource managers that "not only should all resource managers have Ph.D.s, but all superintendents should have Ph.D.s." This thinking fails to recognize that academic credibility does not always transfer well to the political realm. Other knowledge and skills are needed. In the political realm, equally important

to education in science in establishing credibility is the ability to understand law and policy, and to effectively communicate with people with no technical expertise or opposing viewpoints.

This is particularly important now, because the new focus on decentralization and ecosystem management will empower superintendents and demand more of them. There must be a new model for superintendents. New realities will favor cooperation with other parks and agencies, effective advocacy beyond park boundaries, science-based decisions, and strong, professional support staffs. Many natural resource managers, by training and experience, are well-suited to this model. Natural resources leaders in the NPS should develop a strategy for ensuring that natural resource managers willing and able to move into management ranks receive the training and support necessary to be successful.

Conclusion

In essence, the challenge for the National Park Service as it enters the twenty-first century is to move away from the anthropocentric management exemplified by Mission 66 toward a more scientifically sound, ecosystem-based management that is more reflective of its preservation mandate. Pronouncements from the new director are encouraging, and may initiate the needed culture change. However, NPS natural resources leaders, as outliers from the mainstream culture, can take positive

steps *within the natural resources realm* to assist the change.

First, there needs to be a change in strategy from the top-down, Systemwide focus aimed at increasing science. In this era of ecosystem management and cooperative partnerships, the grassroots orientation should be seen not just as a reality, but as a strength. There needs to be more effort focused on park-level programs, allowing creativity, initiative, and risk-taking to protect resources. Systemwide natural resources initiatives should be focused directly at providing funding and trained personnel at the park level, with central offices providing strict quality control requirements and constant feedback to ensure positive results and accountability.

Second, the leadership should be working to increase integrators who will work within the framework of their positions to change the culture. Park resource managers should be recognized as trained professionals capable of viewing their park within the context of its bioregion, as well as the National Park System. They should be empowered to establish re-

search and resource management priorities, cooperate with regional partners to effect ecosystem management, and expected to show positive results. Project funding should be directly tied to creativity, initiative, and scientific soundness through peer review. Strengthening park resource management programs should be a top priority and viewed as the fundamental step toward "mainstreaming" natural resources programs into NPS culture.

Finally, the natural resources leadership must recognize the need to get resource managers into the primary decision-making positions, and must direct more effort toward supporting and encouraging resource managers to make the move. The long-term goal of the natural resources realm should be to infuse the NPS leadership culture with a stronger natural resources orientation in order to effectively promote more ecologically sound, biocentric management in the national parks. When the George Wright conference is packed with superintendents, we will know that culture change has occurred.

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Reminder: this column is open to all GWS members. We welcome lively, provocative, informed opinion on anything in the world of parks and protected areas. The submission guidelines are the same as for other GEORGE WRIGHT FORUM articles—please refer to the inside back cover of any issue. The views in "Box 65" are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the official position of The George Wright Society.

Italian Park and Protected Areas

Experience and Twinning

The national parks of the USA are looked upon as an ideal in Italy. Alessandro Russi, who directs the flora and fauna division of the Italian National Conservation Service, told me that "Yellowstone is Mecca" for the Italian park professional.

Despite this connection between Italy and the USA, it would appear that there is little in the way of shared park and protected area experience. Italian parks have relatively little wilderness or wild land as we Americans know it. They are characterized by a richness of historic and cultural heritage. And they are inhabited parks, as exemplified by Abruzzo, Italy's oldest and premier national park, which owns only 1% of its primary 40,000 acres.

Yet, when I recently spent six months in Italy as a Rome Prize Fellow of the American Academy in Rome, I did not have to dig too deep to realize that our respective park experiences are increasingly intersecting and that we are facing similar challenges and opportunities.

This is particularly the case with regard to the northeastern USA, with its six-million-acre Adirondack Park, which has 130,000 inhabitants and has been in the painful process of becoming a park for 106 years; regional greenways, such as Hudson River Valley Greenway; and heritage areas. Even though the public-estate park is still the predominant model in the USA, the cultural landscape as a park

or protected area, where the park encompasses an entire setting, is a growing and increasingly important trend.

The intersections are also there with regard to our traditional state and national parks, which can no longer exist as islands separate and apart from their larger ecosystem and human communities. Yellowstone, in fact, is a good example. Paul Schullery, in *Searching for Yellowstone*, points out that

the National Park Service is routinely involved in regional planning. The park's connection to the rest of GYE [Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem], made clear by the wanderings of grizzly bears, the migrations of elk and bison, and geothermal aquifers that cross park boundaries in many directions, are now seen as giving

Yellowstone superintendents a strong mandate to speak out on issues affecting the GYE. Management of the park, for so many decades a fairly contained assignment, now involves paying attention to a minimum of 20 million acres of land, 90 percent of which is beyond the boundaries.

While the USA is blessed with a vast area of land, we cannot escape the challenges of integrated regional management of natural and cultural resources that the Italians are aggressively addressing.

Italy is a particularly interesting place at this time to consider matters of integrated nature and cultural conservation and sustainable development in the park and protected area context. Responding to standards relating to protected areas of the European Community, and a growing groundswell of attention to park expansion, such as "The Challenge of 10%" campaign of the World Wildlife Fund-Italy and the Italian National Park Committee to protect at least one tenth of Italy's land mass by the end of the century, Italy has tripled its number of national parks and has increased its protected land mass from 1% to 7% in the last decade.

In 1991 a major, comprehensive park frame law was enacted to guide and advance park-making and management activity. It charts the course towards protecting the highest conservation values, including the protection of wildlife and biodiversity, while recognizing that Italian parks and protected areas depend upon

achieving sustainable development to support park economies. This law-making and park-making is taking place at a time of political transition, devolution of national authority to Italy's regional governments, and fiscal constraints required for Italy to be eligible for the new European monetary system.

In February 1997 I organized a roundtable at the American Academy in Rome on the intersecting Italian and USA park and protected area experience which gave birth to a park-to-park, people-to-people twinning initiative that continues to evolve and grow.

The five matches that have been identified so far are Abruzzo National Park with Adirondack Park, Po Regional Nature Park with Hudson River Valley Greenway, Pisa Regional Parks with Long Island Pine Barren, Parco Val d'Orcia in Tuscany with Mohawk Valley Heritage Corridor, and Parco Litorale Romano and Hudson Mohawk Urban Cultural Park (Riverspark).

The similarities in experiences between these parks, protected areas, greenways, and heritage areas are striking. For example, both the Abruzzo and Adirondack parks have villages within their borders, are located not far from major metropolitan areas, faced major development pressure in the 1970s, and developed park zoning system to manage parkland. An endangered wolf population has been restored to a healthy level in

Abruzzo, while the much vaster Adirondack Park is just beginning to address the social and biological feasibility of wolf restoration. There is much to talk about between the professionals from the two parks as well as between local municipal officials and respective park advocates.

The twinning (*gemellaggio* in Italian, or "partnering," as some prefer to call it) has proceeded on many fronts and at varying speeds. Some have referred to the effort by comparing it with the sister city initiative, but it is perhaps much more complex as it grows on a park-to-park, academic consortium-to-academic consortium, NGO-to-NGO, and people-to-people basis.

A highlight was the visit in September 1997 of Abruzzo Park Director Franco Tassi to Adirondack Park to participate in a wilderness roundtable sponsored by the Association for the Protection of the Adirondacks. Tassi's visit, which included meetings with state officials, led to a memorandum of agreement to develop exchanges between Tassi and Commissioner John Cahill of the New York State Department of Environmental Conservation, which manages the public land of Adirondack Park.

Academic consortia made up of the State University of New York (SUNY) College of Environmental Sciences and Forestry at Syracuse, Albany Law School, SUNY at Albany Department of Geography and

Planning, Bard College, and Pennsylvania State University Department of Landscape Architecture in the USA, and the Politecnica of Torino, University of Florence Economics Faculty, and University of Brussels in Europe, are being organized to facilitate study and research of the twinned parks, greenways, and protected areas which can serve as conservation laboratories of international relevance.

A number of Italian publications, such as *Sherwood*, a forestry journal, and *Gazzetta ambiente*, published jointly by the Ministry of the Environment and Istituto Poligrafico e Zecca dello Stato, have published articles relating to the twinning, and I will be the USA correspondent for *Parchi*, a thoughtful Italian parks journal.

The Glynwood Center, which has sponsored stewardship exchanges for ten years, primarily between the USA and Great Britain, is taking a close look at the connections developing with Italy for the purposes of expanding their program internationally.

Also strengthening the ties is the increasing attention being given to environmental restoration projects and the historic role of George Perkins Marsh. Marsh holds the record for being the longest-serving U.S. ambassador for his service in Italy during the 1860s and 1870s. During this period he penned the book *Man and Nature*, which helped lay the foundation for the creation of Adirondack Park. The former Marsh

property in Vermont is now a national historic site with a focus on land stewardship.

This special section of THE GEORGE WRIGHT FORUM offers a good introduction to the connections between the Italian and USA conservation experience, the uniqueness and relevance of the Italian conservation tradition, and current developments in the twinning project.

In "Ideas from Overseas," Marcus Hall introduces us to the basis for what Italians and Americans can learn from each other about the complexities of preserving and restoring both wild and cultural nature. Jamie Sievert, who has written a soon-to-be-published history of Italian conservation, points out in "Italy's Leap Forward in Nature Protection Legislation" that "Italy is once again in the forefront of environmental legislation and protection." Italy's pre-eminent park planner, Professor Roberto Gambino, calls attention to the increasing interrelation of park planning with territorial or regional planning in "Parks and Protected Areas in Italy: An Overview."

Gambino also notes that there is increasing recognition of the "rele-

vance of networks connecting parks and protected areas for the enrichment and enlargement of public enjoyment." Franco Tassi goes on to describe the trend towards networks in "From the National Park to Regional Systems of Linked National Parks and Protected Areas," which describes in part the effort to create the South European Park, with Abruzzo National Park at its heart. Finally, Professor Vieri Quilici writes about the development and intentions of five neighboring towns that have organized themselves as a regional park "to protect and sustain their unique qualities of place."

The growing intersections between Italian and American park, greenway, protected area, and heritage area experience has created a fertile opportunity for discourse and learning about new approaches for integrated natural and cultural resources protection and management. Both the Italian and American societies are creative and dynamic, and as we both continue to discover more about the other's conservation tradition and current challenges, the more we all shall surely benefit.

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Ideas from Overseas:

American Preservation and Italian Restoration

In 1976 the American historian Roderick Nash delivered a series of lectures (sponsored by the Rockefeller Foundation) to Italian leaders at Bellagio, a picturesque village on the shores of Lake Como fringed by the Alps. Nash, a wilderness expert, spoke on nature and world development. "While Italy is in the vanguard in the protection of man's cultural and artistic heritage," he asserted, "the United States has led the world in nature protection." Nature appreciation and nature preservation, he told his audience, "are characteristic of highly civilized societies. They are full-stomach phenomena." Nash went on to explain that older nations, when establishing national parks, must often incorporate cultural artifacts within park borders. Even in the high valleys that lead to the peaks above Lake Como, he reminded his listeners, hikers cannot escape the "paraphernalia" of civilization: "Spectacular, yes; dangerous, yes; wild, no." Concerning the prospects of preserving wilderness in Italy, Nash remained skeptical. "One reason that wilderness preservation has made so little progress in Europe," Nash summarized, "is that, by many definitions, there is no wilderness left to preserve."¹

But in surprising defiance to Nash's analysis, several Italian environmental groups have recently identified wilderness areas from the Apennines to the Alps. Part of the reason for this expansion of Italian wilderness lies in the accelerated abandonment of marginal agricultural lands, which has resulted in dense vegetation and enlarged habitats for some kinds of wildlife, such as deer, boar—even wolves and bears. Yet most of the reason for an expanding Italian wilderness depends not on agricultural abandonment, but on redefining the landscape. Instead of

Nash's narrow concept of wilderness, which apparently includes only limitless vistas, old-growth forests, and fierce grizzly bears, Italian wilderness encompasses smaller areas, brambled woods, and the occasional *stambecco* or *camoscio*. The Italian concept of wilderness has been expanded to encompass greater varieties of landscapes. Bianca Vetrino, an Italian delegate at the Fourth World Wilderness Congress held in 1987 at Denver, assumed this wider definition of wilderness when she nominated a hidden valley in northwestern Italy, Val Grande, to be included

within the world's wilderness system. In 1992, this valley became one of Italy's newest national parks, yet its official wilderness status was still being debated by the government. Undoubtedly, the lack of an Italian consensus for "wilderness" lies, in part, with the unfamiliarity of Italians with the American wilderness idea; indeed this word's imperfect translation and closest equivalent, *deserto*, usually implies an empty and inhospitable wasteland. One begins to realize that in Italy nature appreciation and nature preservation usually include the human element.²

But there is another reason for the recent expansion of Italian wilderness beyond the effects of land abandonment and broader definitions of wilderness. This other reason was highlighted by wilderness advocate, Franco Zunino, who wrote in a recent newsletter of the Italian Wilderness Association that "the maximum utopia for the wilderness movement is the actual restoration of the original state by erasing signs of human influence." Zunino explained that although the restoration movement comes from America, it can be applied to Italian land management. While he admitted that not all areas can be restored to a pristine state, many nature reserves, like Italian national parks, could theoretically be made wild again. Italians especially, and Europeans generally, he asserted, "could re-create at least a semblance of what our ancestors experienced."

Like the Americans who plan increasingly elaborate projects of environmental restoration, he concluded, Italians should also begin renewing wetlands, mountainsides, and forests, while erasing the ubiquitous scars arising from human activities: "some of our domesticated nature must be returned to the wild, for itself and for our spirit." As if responding to Zunino's plea, programs of *rinaturazione*, *ripristinazione*, or *ingegneria naturalistica* reflect the recent push for re-naturalizing and re-wilding some of Italy's natural heritage.³

Yet unbeknownst to some Italian and American land managers, restorative land management has long been present in Italy and across Europe. Indeed, Italians have long been at the vanguard of the restoration movement. Italian foresters, civil engineers, and agriculturists have long labored to find the best ways to repair exhausted lands and reforest ravaged hillsides. When checking the records, one discovers that several American land-use experts traveled to Italy precisely for observing the tried-and-tested techniques of ancient land management: in the period between the world wars, for example, the U.S. Forest Service's Arthur Ringland studied Italian reforestation methods, the Soil Conservation Service's Walter Lowdermilk observed Italian erosion control, and the Department of Agriculture's Rexford Tugwell applauded the successes of an Italian

conservation corps which he mentioned to Franklin Roosevelt as a model for the United States' own Civilian Conservation Corps.⁴ Thus when Roderick Nash, while lecturing to Italians about nature protection, claimed that "the needs and situations of Italians and Americans ... are similar enough to raise hopes that the experience of the United States can be instructive," in fact, the opposite may be even truer: the experience of Italy can be instructive to the United States. If Italian land managers can benefit by observing how Americans preserve nature within reserves and parks, American land managers can learn by observing how Italians *restore* nature inside or outside formal reserves and parks.

Another expert who recognized the rich Italian tradition of restoration was George Perkins Marsh, the first U.S. ambassador to Italy from 1861 to 1882, and a major inspiration for the American conservation movement. In his masterpiece, *Man and Nature* (1864), which Marsh wrote almost entirely in Italy, he not only clarified the dangers of interfering "with the spontaneous arrangements of the organic or the inorganic world," but he also emphasized the "possibility and the importance of the restoration of disturbed harmonies." In numerous publications and speeches, in fact, Marsh called attention to Italy's expertise in restoring its heavily consumed lands. During one such speech to his fellow New Eng-

landers, Marsh described how Italian engineers as early as the eighteenth century had periodically diverted silt-laden rivers onto eroded swamplands in Tuscany's *Val di Chiana*, in order to rebuild soils, eventually "restoring them to fertility and salubrity." According to Marsh, these restored areas, called *colmate*, are "among the most remarkable triumphs of humanity over physical nature, and they possess special interest as exhibiting almost the only instance where a soil, which man has once used, abused, exhausted, and at last abandoned, has been restored to his dominion...."⁵

Like the soils, Marsh advocated restoring the forests and wildlife, again praising Italian precedents. Serving briefly as Vermont's State Fish Commissioner, for instance, Marsh recommended ways for restoring New England's devastated fisheries. Because fishing closures had brought few reversals in the declining nineteenth-century fish runs, Marsh called for active fish restoration: preservation was not enough. He recommended that Americans study European ways of fish propagation, noting that fish hatcheries dated from the Romans, with medieval monks perfecting fish rearing techniques. He also predicted that some day, after sufficient observation and experiment, Americans will pass laws "for restoring the primitive abundance of the public waters" such as Lake Champlain. Concerning forest restoration, Marsh again ap-

plauded the Italians, as when he saw them re-planting forests on the extensive barren hillsides in the western Alps near Turin: "Hundreds of acres are annually planted with oaks, larches, and other timber trees." Marsh also toured the arboretum at Vallombrosa near Florence, where he talked with Italian foresters about silvicultural techniques, and provided them with seeds of promising varieties of North American conifers. After highlighting Italian successes with reforestation, he pleaded with his readers that "we have now felled forest enough everywhere, in many districts far too much. Let us restore this one element of material life to its normal proportions...." Even though Marsh observed Italians re-creating stable, productive lands, instead of re-creating pristine, wild lands, he had nevertheless witnessed early precedents to today's endeavor of ecological restoration: the conversion of damaged areas into ideal landscapes.⁶

Importantly, just as *Man and Nature* is considered the "fountainhead" of such crucial laws as the U.S. Forest Reserve Act of 1891, its Italian translation, *L'Uomo e la Natura* (1870), can be considered an important inspiration for the major Italian Forest Law of 1877. During the Italian parliamentary debates leading to the enactment of this forestry law, in fact, Marsh's work was cited more than that of any other expert. And with some refinements to the 1877

law, the Italian government passed a new, improved "reforestation" law of 1888, which forestry expert Bernard Fernow labeled in his international survey of forest legislation as "one of the best laws of its kind in existence anywhere." Thus, it seems that Marsh not only helped spearhead the American preservation movement, as through laws for creating the first forest preserves from the Rockies to the Adirondacks, but he also helped promote the Italian restoration movement, as through laws for reforesting denuded hillsides from the Apennines to the Alps.⁷

If "America's Best Idea," according to recent slogans at Yellowstone, was to create national parks in order to preserve pristine nature for posterity, then perhaps Italy's best idea was to help refine restoration in order to recover some of the Earth's natural and cultural heritage. Good land managers keep one eye on the past and the other on the future, always seeking to recognize the degradation that has been done, always learning to identify the remediation that needs doing. I believe that in both Italy and the U.S., one can manage for wilderness as well as for *restored*-wilderness, and that nature lovers in both countries can begin to appreciate many types of natures. As Americans and Italians learn from each other about preserving and restoring, they will also learn to better appreciate both wild and cultural nature. One of the best ways to learn better land

management, after all, is to follow the example of George Perkins Marsh by traveling overseas: he once declared that the considerable contrasts between Italian and American land-uses "impresses you much more powerfully, and you are more likely

to derive instruction from such observation."⁸ While Italians can learn from the American experience of displaying a nature that excludes people, Americans can learn from the Italian experience of displaying a nature that incorporates people.

Endnotes

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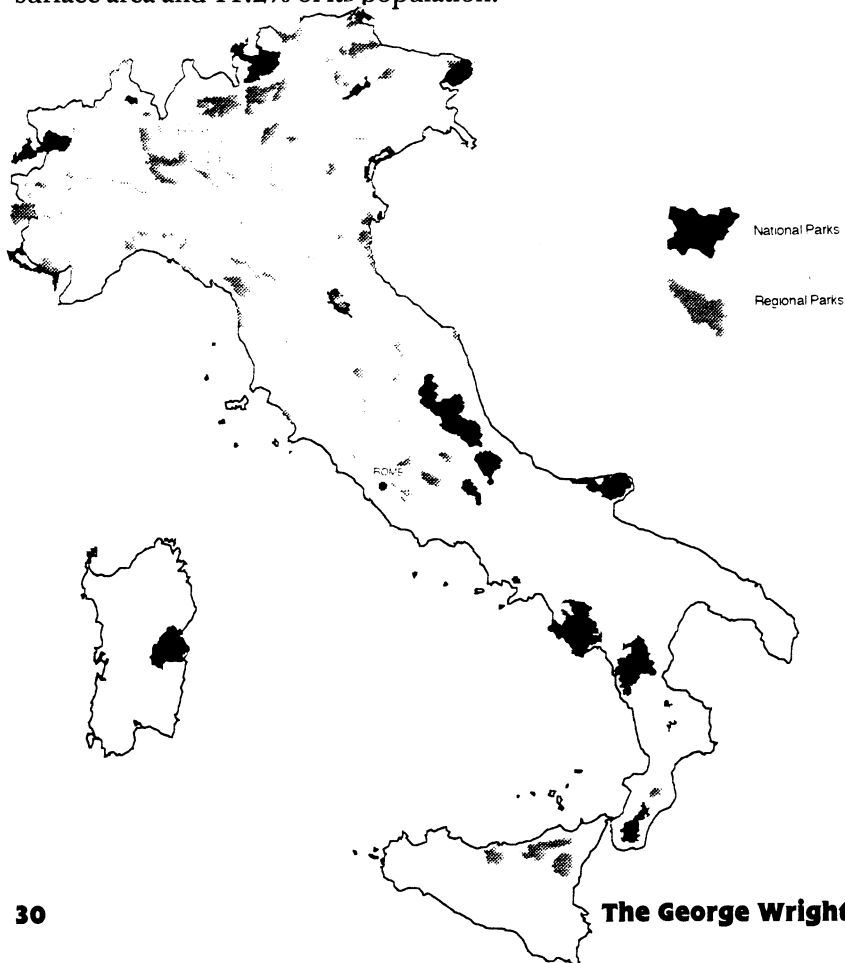


Parks and Protected Areas in Italy:

An Overview

Situation and Tendencies

In recent decades, the Italian park and protected area system has assumed a growing importance in the European framework. First of all, the surface covered by our national and regional parks now comes to 2,886,035 hectares; that is, nearly 10% of the nation's area and 11.7% of the total surface area covered by Europe's natural parks (excluding those in the former Soviet Union). By comparison, Italy as a whole comprises 6.04% of Europe's surface area and 11.2% of its population.



Secondly, the Italian protected areas, mostly scattered along the Alpine and Appennine chains, play a crucial role in bridging Central Europe with the Mediterranean arch, both in ecological and cultural terms. The Appennine chain constitutes in fact a southern branch of the Euro-Siberian region, penetrating into the Mediterranean region: here, five national parks and a number of regional parks are located (Pedrotti 1996). While the Alpine parks are distributed along the southern border of Central Europe, the whole of the Italian natural system is tightly tied in with cultures that in the past played a central role in the Mediterranean.

Furthermore, Italian parks and their surrounding areas are characterized by an exceptional richness of historic and cultural heritage and a high intensity of anthropic land uses. Their management and planning thus may offer significant experiences for European research on nature conservation and sustainable development.

This prominent position in the European framework is mainly due to the rapid growth of protected areas taking place in Italy, as in most European countries, in the last decades. Until the 1960s, the only natural parks were Gran Paradiso (instituted in 1922), Abruzzo (1923), Circeo (1934), Stelvio (1935), and Calabria (1968). The number of natural parks (national and regional) grew from these five in the 1960s to 122 in the 1990s, while their total extent grew

from 257,402 to 2,886,035 hectares. We may remember that in the same period the number of the European natural parks grew from 126 to 626 and their surface area from 6,206,176 to 24,641,970 hectares, and that most of the change was due to increases in the number of regional parks (now constituting 85% of the total number of parks in Italy, 60% in Europe). We may also notice that in Italy (unlike in other countries, such as Germany or France) regional parks often have size and natural characteristics quite comparable to national parks.

As a consequence of this spectacular growth, the location and environmental character of the Italian parks are very different from the past. Only a small part of them (7.4%) are now located in natural contexts, far from metropolitan and urban cores, as is the case for the older parks like Gran Paradiso, Abruzzo, and Stelvio; for a few of them the old image of the "nature sanctuary" may look still suitable. While a part (24.6%) still remain in rural landscapes, most are very close to urban and industrial areas or even inside them, like "besieged isles" (36.9%) or really urban parks (12.3%). Furthermore, for some of them even the appellation of "natural" park may look inappropriate, given the prevailing importance of their cultural resources. Even after revision, the IUCN protected area classification (IUCN-CNPPA 1994) reflects this ambig-

uous situation, placing six Italian protected areas in Category II ("national park") and 61 more in Category V ("protected landscapes"), while leaving the remaining 55 unclassified.

Problems and Conflicts

The above-mentioned growth process, in relation to the strong evolution of the economic, social, and cultural conditions observed in Italy as in other Western countries in the second half of the century, has deeply changed the problems to be faced within the protected areas and around them. While the main worry of Italian lawmakers instituting the first parks in the 1920s was related to shooting and traditional exploitation of natural resources, and to perturbations, ravages, and threats deriving from infrastructures, currently urbanisation and tourism are much more aggressive and irreversible. In Gran Paradiso National Park, for instance, major changes have come from the building of dams and plants for hydroelectric production, roads, and power lines; in Abruzzo National Park, the park authority had to fight a hard battle against tourist buildings and development pressures; in Stelvio National Park, cableways, hotels, and other facilities for skiing have largely disfigured the landscape. Long-distance environmental risks and impacts are more and more widespread: they can influence protected area conditions even when these processes take place outside

their borders. Changes in agriculture, sheep-raising, and forestry (both through technological innovations and modernisation of practises, on the one hand, and desertification and abandonment—above all in mountain areas—on the other) also have important effects on environmental conditions and the landscape, both inside and outside the protected areas.

While the growth of protected areas has increased remarkably the territorial, economic, and cultural impact of park policies, their problems and objectives are more and more interrelated with the problems of social and economic development. This interrelation is particularly apparent for the regional parks. Very often their purpose—prior to the traditional double purpose of conservation and public enjoyment—concerns the improvement of the social and economic conditions of local communities, according to the regional laws. The general goal of sustainable development thus assumes a special significance in Italian nature park management. A growing number of park managers are becoming conscious that their efforts to maintain landscapes and natural resources cannot be successful if present patterns of development cannot be exchanged for more sustainable ones; that their actions to improve the environmental conditions and control the threats of urbanisation require the partnership of local authorities; that

attempts to promote tourism and public enjoyment without encouraging waste and ravages require important changes in tourism strategies within their regional context.

If “collaborative management is an essential feature of the emerging face of conservation” (IUCN 1996), then this is particularly true for Italian parks, which are often small parts of broader systems of natural and cultural resources, within complex and densely inhabited territories.

This is why in the Italian parks experience—above all at the regional level—two crucial and interrelated problems are receiving growing attention: the relationship between parks and their territorial contexts, and the relationship between protection and promotion policies.

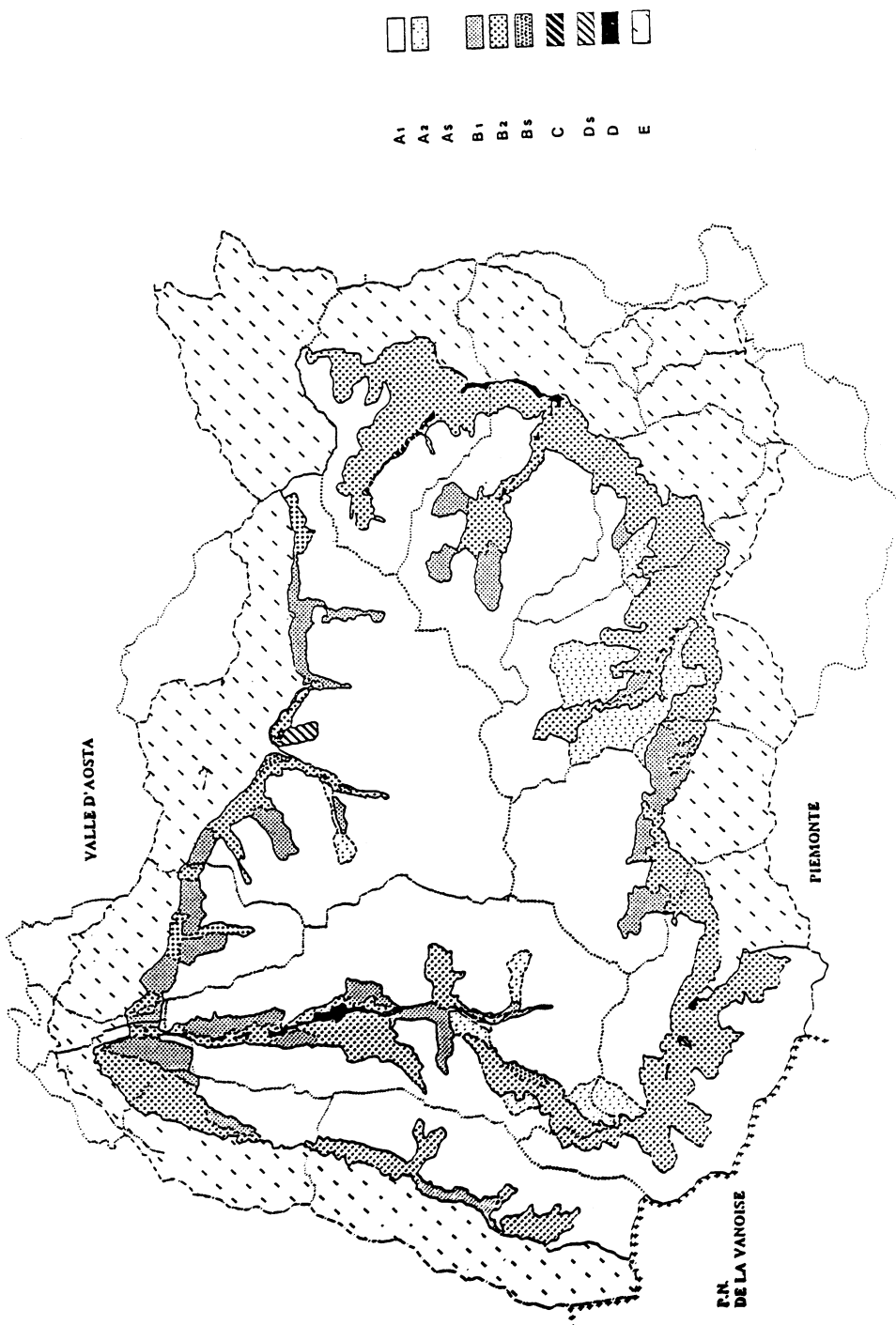
It is worth noticing that these issues are assuming a central place in all Italian regions (as in most European countries) regardless of their environmental, economic, and political differences. But the relationship of park and context is much more worrisome when the delimitation of the park borders is too reductive as to the spatial extension of ecosystems and landscape wholeness, while buffer zones around parks are lacking. This happens often in the Italian situation, both for national and regional parks. Also, the relationship of protection and promotion is much more worrisome when local communities are poor and weak, spoiled by past emigration and the economic

marginality typical of mountain areas.

Legislation and Planning

Although the first national parks were instituted in the 1920s, and in the 1970s many Regions had issued special laws on the matter, it was only in 1991 that the Italian protected area system became ruled by a General Act (L. 394) aimed at promoting the conservation and valorisation of the natural heritage. It identifies several designations:

- *National Parks*, areas “containing one or more ecosystems unaltered or partially altered by anthropic interventions, one or more physical, geological, geomorphological or biological forms of international or national relevance for naturalist, scientific, aesthetic, cultural, educational and recreational values, requiring State intervention for their conservation for present and future generations”;
- *Natural Regional Parks*, areas “of naturalist and environmental value, constituting, in the limits of one or more contiguous regions, a homogeneous system defined by natural local assets, landscape and artistic values and cultural traditions of local people”;
- *Natural Reserves*, areas “containing one or more flora and fauna species of naturalistic relevance, or presenting one or more ecosystems important for biodiversity or genetic resource conservation. They may be national or



Parco Nazionale del Gran Paradiso, Schema di Piano del Parco: Zonizzazione, 1983 (Gran Paradiso National Park: Zoning Plan, 1983)

First Italian national park, established 1922 (a royal hunting reserve since 1856). Area: 70,200 ha: 32,500 in the Region of Piemonte, 37,500 in the Region of Val d'Aosta. Fourteen km border on the Parc national de la Vanoise in France; together, one of the largest protected areas in Western Europe. Alpine environment with glaciers, woods, outstanding Alpine pastures, watercourses; remarkable floral, faunal, historic-cultural heritage. Thirteen municipalities involved, with 8,000 inhabitants; 300 of which inside park borders. Main economic activities: forestry, sheep-raising, tourism.

The drawing up of the park plan is still in progress. The most complete existing plan dates from 1983, drawn up by a special commission set up by the Park Authority and both the Regions. It contains guidelines for regulations, resource and environmental protection, public information and interpretation, accessibility, visitor facilities, research, and education.

Zone	Objective	Extent
A	Integral reserves, for complete nature conservation	70.6%
A1	Wilderness	
A2	Semi-wilderness	
AS	Area of special interest	
B1, B2,	General reserves: traditional forestry & sheep-raising	28.5%
BS	allowed	
C	Visitor & tourist areas	0.2%
D, Ds	Controlled development areas (farms, villages, etc.)	0.7%
E	Contiguous zones: 34,000 ha around park borders where local development is to be coordinated with park purposes	—

regional according to the relevance of the represented interests"; and

- Other categories, such as marine areas and Ramsar wetlands.

One of the basic points of Act 394/1991 concerns the planning activity, both at the national level (through triennial programs) and locally. Each park's management must be based on three tools: (1) regulations, delineating allowed activities; (2) the park plan, defining the spatial organisation and zoning, land-use constraints, accessibility systems, facilities and services, and environmental management criteria; and (3) the socio-economic plurannual plan (SEPP), defining the promotion of compatible activities and initiatives fostering the local development within and around the park.

Pointing out the importance of planning, the Italian Act reflects of course an emerging European orientation. We must remember that, while the United States National Park Service (USNPS) recommended planning as a basic tool for management since the beginning of this century, it was, up to the 1980s, very rarely practised in most European countries, even those with a sound tradition in nature conservation such as Norway. In fact, spatial planning is needed by the above-mentioned change in park policy problems, particularly for:

- Assuring the protection of "non-tradable" values (such as the con-

servation of natural habitats and cultural heritage, or the survival of threatened species) by a proper differentiation of limits and constraints;

- Setting out strategic, comprehensive frameworks for long-term objectives and highlighting environmental systemic interactions, in order to coordinate different policies concerning the same sites or resources;
- Pointing out stakes, costs, and benefits of different strategies of development and land use, in order to justify protective choices and to foster partnership between local authorities, economic actors, and park managers.

Now a good share of Italian parks have a management plan (64.7%, as compared with 55.3% in Europe as a whole). But in the Italian and European experience, park planning provides a great variety of answers to the above demands, with very different approaches, philosophies, and tools (e.g., the zoning of the French or British or Dutch National Parks are totally different). This makes for a big difference from the American system, which is coordinated by the USNPS Guidelines. And it raises growing problems of harmonization, first of all in the transborder areas, such as the Alpine system.

However, park planning is going to contribute decidedly to "territorialising" environmental policies,

joining protection and promotion with more coherent socio-environmental assets and fostering sustainable development. To this purpose, a crucial condition is the integration of park planning in local and regional planning and policies. This is just the suggestion of the US-NPS (1988): "Through planning, parks will be considered within the broader context of the surrounding region. Cooperative regional planning will be undertaken to integrate parks into their regional environments and to address adjacent land use issues that influence park resources."

As in other countries, some Italian experiences, both in national parks (e.g., Gran Paradiso) and in regional ones (Colli Euganei, Po River), have tried to define an effective interaction among park, local, and regional planning—have tried to start, in other words, a real co-planning process. This is an open problem, not yet solved at the legislative level, because our basic Act 394/1991 doesn't provide any linkage between park and local-regional planning, giving to the park plan the ambitious role of "substituting" for every other plan within the borders of the park (what is often seen as an abuse conflicting with the autonomy of the local administrations).

Another crucial condition for joining protection and promotion is the integration of economic programs into park planning. We must remem-

ber that the separation between physical planning and the economic decision process (unlike what happens in other European countries) is a peculiar weakness of the Italian system. Despite the efforts of some Italian regions in trying to mitigate such separation within the limits of their legislation, and despite the practical actions of some park authorities, it remains an open problem, as even the Act 394/1991 provides two different tools—park plans and SEPPs—referring to different institutional subjects and procedures. This separation is one of the main reasons why many Italian parks are still considered "paper parks."

This need for integrating park and territorial plans has relevant implications for the content of the plans themselves, particularly in the role and character of zoning. According to Act 394/1991, the park plan shall divide the park's territory into four zones: a) integral reserves, for complete natural conservation; b) general-oriented reserves, where traditional resource exploitation, management, and maintenance may be permitted; c) protection areas, where agriculture, sheep-raising, forestry, and local craftsmanship are allowed or encouraged, as well as the restoration of existing buildings and infrastructures; d) socio-economic promotion areas, where every compatible activity may be permitted, aiming at the improvement of local living conditions and public enjoyment of

the park.

This zoning was often criticized even before its inception in the law (Giacomini and Romani 1982), as it can favour a simplifying functional division of the protected space, contrasting with the ecological principle of "separating when necessary, interweaving when possible" (Centrum voor Milieukunde 1990). In many planning experiences, it has been overcome in favour of more complex approaches based on the acknowledgment of the interrelations characterizing places and landscape units. But these approaches imply, of course, a strong orientation towards co-management.

Perspectives

The increasing interweaving of conservation and development is deeply changing the role of nature parks, in the Italian experience. They can't any longer be considered as nature sanctuaries, different and separate from their territorial context, since they are nodes of broader ecological networks, needing to involve the whole territory. They can't any longer be considered as special areas, conceived essentially for the public enjoyment, since they are always (at least in the Italian and European experience) inhabited territories and cultural landscapes, where public enjoyment must be admitted or promoted only when and if it can improve or, at least, doesn't disturb the ecological, cultural, and economic local balance. They can't any longer

be considered as mere recreational areas or leisure parks or even a spectacular show for urban visitors, since their identity is strictly tied with local culture and dynamics. And they can't even be conceived as mere tools for improving local development, drawing on national or regional funding, since sustainable development goals can't be pursued inside the park boundaries and require strategies involving the regional context (WCED 1987).

Certainly, nature parks are essential workshops for searching out more sustainable development paths, experimenting with new models of interaction between social and natural processes, creating new jobs based on nature conservation instead of nature despoliation. But these goals do not concern exclusively park designation and management, they concern the whole territory. So, what is or could be the specific role of nature parks?

Some believe that nature parks are only a temporary tool, and park policies have to be substituted by broader environmental policies, organically involving territorial systems and networks. This is, in fact, the choice of some countries, well interested in nature conservation, like Denmark. But the Italian and European experience shows that nature parks can play a powerful role in heightening public awareness of—and respect for—the natural and cultural heritage. Despite their limits and problems, they make visible environmental stakes and

stress the priority of conservation values over development choices. Further, they make a fundamental contribution to the recognition of regional and national identities. In other terms, they play an essential role as social communication tools, highly representative symbols and living metaphors of what could and should be done in the whole territory. The growing importance of interpretation (as a basic interaction between resources and visitors) in park management testifies that the educational and cultural purposes, clearly identified also in Italy when the first national park was designated, are even more important in a communications-oriented society. They can be pursued today only if parks are no longer conceived of as individual entities, separate from their context, but as excellent nodes of highly connected environmental networks.

This is why there is in Italy a growing consciousness that a serious park policy must be framed in a European perspective, particularly contributing to the building of a national protected area system, as a part of a pan-European system. Such a system may be seen as an essential integration of urban and infrastructure networks, aiming to re-design the European space to ensure sustainable development (European Community Commission 1993).

In this direction, many programs and initiatives have been undertaken in the last decades, aiming to stimu-

late twinning, cooperation, exchange of information and expertise, common actions, and networking among Italian and European parks. In the case of the parks located along the Alpine border, such initiatives are particularly important as they can be a prelude to a real integration of different contiguous parks in new trans-border protected areas of great size and prestige. This could be the case of the Gran Paradiso National Park (Italy) with Vanoise National Park (France), Argentera Regional Park (Italy) with Mercantour National Park (France), Stelvio National Park (Italy) with Engadina National Park (Switzerland), or perhaps of the "Espace Mont Blanc," a French-Italian-Swiss initiative aiming to the protection-valorisation of the entire region dominated by this famous mountain (CTMB 1994). Such co-operative initiatives will be important steps in implementing the Alpine Convention (1995), signed by all countries encompassing the mountain range.

The national parks scattered along the Appennines (Foreste Casentinesi, Monti Sibillini, Laga-Gran Sasso, Abruzzo, Maiella, Cilento, Pollino, Calabria, Aspromonte), together with a wide number of regional parks, are also interested in an important project, the "Appennine Park of Europe" (APE), aiming to link them in a very long chain of extraordinary natural and cultural richness, of international relevance. But it is ever more

necessary to go far beyond the park policies.

An effective protected area system cannot be conceived outside a strategic framework of policies affecting the whole territory. Parks cannot be efficiently protected if the land uses and the development processes of the surrounding regions are not effectively controlled, and they cannot continue to play their magnificent role if they are not integrated into broader environmental networks.

In this direction, the most important effort concerns the creation of the European Ecological Network (Eeconet, launched at the Maastricht Conference on Natural Heritage 1993) aiming to apply the sustainability principle in the whole European space and particularly "to improve the resilience of its natural systems to adverse environmental changes." The project, characterized by a proactive and trans-scale approach (at the European, national, and local level), is basically oriented towards the creation and the safeguard of a network of "ecological corridors" connecting the "core areas" of particular biological value (existing and to be created), their protection with "buffer zones" and the improvement of environmental conditions in the countryside (IPEE 1991; Bennett 1994; European Centre for Nature Conservation 1996). The Eeconet criteria have been experimented with in studies concerning the APE project (Romano

1996), and in some plans, such as for Colli Euganei Regional Park (Parco dei Colli Euganei 1994), Po River Regional Park (Regione Piemonte 1994), Pavia Province (Malcevschi 1996) Lambro-Seveso-Olona basin. The building of Eeconet is very important for Italy, because most of its natural parks are located along the Alpine and the Appennine chains, which are (together with the great rivers, like the Po, and the coastal systems) amongst the basic components of the network (European Environment Agency 1995).

Such studies, as well as some park experiences, have also highlighted the relevance of networks in connecting parks and protected areas for the enrichment and enlargement of the public enjoyment. These connections, mostly based on historical networks of roads and paths, forests, or other natural features, can foster the enjoyment, in soft and proper forms, of natural and cultural resources within and outside the protected areas, "making sense" of the landscapes to be protected and valorised. On one hand, this concept may be referred to the "environmental corridors" of Lewis (1964) or even the "greenway" concept. But, on the other hand, it refers to the strategies for the conservation of "cultural landscapes" recently designed by the Council of Europe (1997). It is in fact in these "working" landscapes, where natural resources have long been elaborated through history, work, human suffer-

ing, and creativity, that we can find the best expression of the Italian heritage, as happens in most European countries. And it is also in these landscapes that most of the changes threatening parks and protected areas

take place. It is therefore not surprising that park policies in the Italian experience are more and more related to landscape management and planning.

Most of the data and information presented here refer to the European Centre of Documentation on Nature Park Planning (CED-PPN), c/o Polytechnic of Turin, c. Trento 26/c, 10129 Turin, Italy. Data on nature parks (national and regional) refer to the original classification adopted by CED, crossing the different categories used by the different countries. Data on other protected areas are not available in homogeneous terms.

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James Sievert

Italy's Leap Forward

in Nature Protection Legislation

The First Parks

Nature protection in Italy today is anchored around the two "historic parks," the Abruzzo National Park in the central Apennines and the Gran Paradiso National Park in the Graian Alps, both created in 1922. Though Abruzzo is an area noted for its history of sheep herding and transhumance, it is also an area where wilderness still reigns. The wolf's howl echoes through its mountains and the bear's track imprints the terrain. Both these big fauna were spared extinction in the late nineteenth century thanks to a royal hunting preserve. When the royal house renounced its hunting rights around the turn of the century, Italy's nascent nature protection movement helped create the nation's first national park.

A royal hunting preserve also formed the nucleus of the Gran Paradiso National Park in northwestern Italy. This wilderness area is home to the ibex, a species hunted almost to extinction in the nineteenth century. The Italian king Vittorio Emanuele III ceded his hunting preserve in Gran Paradiso to the state in 1919 with the intention of creating a national park. The fact that both Abruzzo and Gran Paradiso had once been hunting preserves not only spared the big fauna from extinction, it also eased the transition to national parks for a local population for which the words "national park" "sound strange," as one naturalist put it.

In 1934, a third national park was added in the Pontine Marshes south

of Rome. Italian bureaucrats had long dreamed of turning this thick tangle of forest and swamp into an ordered and regimented landscape. A land wet with bubbling springs, overflowing lakes, and brackish sea water, it was split open and drained by canals. In the core area of about 30,000 acres, a dense jungle of oak and umbrella pine, the forest was blasted with dynamite.

Amid the destruction, however, the government set aside a portion of wilderness area, a small sample of the great diversity of swamp, forest, lake, dunes, and sea. Out of the devastation of the Pontine Marshes, the Circeo National Park, Italy's third, was created in 1934. And with the addition of the Stelvio National Park along the

border of the Swiss National Park, by the mid-1930s Italy had four national parks with a combined area of over 500,000 acres at a time when most European countries still had none.

Random Stabs at Nature Protection

Despite the early successes, Italy's nature reserves were the result of episodic attention, not coordinated planning. It took the near-extinction of wildlife in Gran Paradiso and Abruzzo before action was taken. Many natural areas in Italy did not even receive the afterthought given to the Pontine Marshes. They were simply dug under, rolled over, paved up.

The first attempt at some planning in the protection of natural beauty, i.e. nature, came in 1939, with act number 1497. This new law empowered the Ministry of Public Instruction—renamed the Ministry of National Education under the Fascists—to draw up what may loosely be described as land-use plans for all the areas to be protected, so that they were not “utilized in a way that could damage their panoramic beauty.” Under this law, nature protection was the responsibility of the central authority in Rome, which decided in advance on the protection of a few areas of undisputed environmental value.

As with many other Italian laws, however, the usual problem of turning statute directives into practical

applications stunted their effectiveness. Local superintendents of the education ministry were charged with drawing up plans according to ministerial directives. These low-level provincial bureaucrats by and large had no training in land-use planning. The 1939 law was successful, however, in protecting a few prestigious natural monuments.

The Economic Miracle

After World War II, act number 1497 remained in force as Italy's only environmental protection law. With little muscle to begin with, the law fell flat under the stampede of Italy's economic miracle. The country's economic revival was underway, and cement flowed freely. The central Adriatic coast became a parking lot. Even the national parks were thrown open to speculators, loggers, and ski operators. Meanwhile, construction firms across Italy had free rein, and they built fast: 73,400 new houses in 1950, 273,500 in 1957, and 450,000 in 1964. Environmental protection was left to a handful of private groups and the isolated efforts of local politicians and individual judges.

Land Use and the Environment

In 1972, Italy was divided into 20 administrative regions, which took on many of the functions formerly held by the national government in Rome. Environmental regulations, the establishment of protected areas, town and land-use planning—all became

concerns for regional authorities. Although the development of nature-protection regulations among the regions was uneven, some key concepts regarding protected areas have generally been accepted throughout Italy. First, the presence of people and their economic activities within a national park or nature reserve are not viewed as incompatible with the park, as long as they are integrated with it. Second, nature reserves must not be artificially separated from the areas surrounding them.

Though many regional governments had established protected areas, the old 1939 law still served as the basis for nature protection. Change came at the national level with a sweeping new law of August 8, 1985, act number 431. A sense of integration and globality replaced the old notion of isolating and protecting only those elements of nature with a high aesthetic value. In short, the concept of environment—including flora, fauna, and ecosystems—was introduced to decision-making procedures. The new law also broke away from the concept of imposing prohibitive restrictions piecemeal to save threatened areas; rather, it required each administrative region in Italy to draw up detailed land-use plans with ecosystems in mind, along with “equal preoccupation for cultural and historic sites.”

In its application, however, the Galasso Law, named after its author, reflected the kind of inaction that of-

ten accompanies Italian legislation. Ten years after the law's promulgation, for instance, only a handful of Italy's 20 regions had actually drawn up a land-use plan. Italy's most important region—Lombardy—was without a plan up to 1994. In some regions, local authorities worked out land-use plans that more closely resembled land-abuse plans. Other regional authorities drew up excellent plans that were never implemented on a daily basis. As one critic put it: “It would be difficult to say there has been any real encounter with planning if we look at the dire situation of delay, apathy, and bureaucratic withdrawal that seems to characterize the Galasso Law's application, even in the more ‘advanced’ regions.”

The core problem has been a lack of environmental and land-use expertise in many regional governments. Moreover, the central government has been reluctant to step in when regional authorities fail to fulfill their obligations. A further complication was the law's unrealistic expectation that each region should draw up detailed land-use scheme's in only sixteen months, with a ban on any new construction during that period.

Though at times woefully ignored, the Galasso Law has had the merit of making government officials at all levels aware of the need for integrated land-use planning. The law has opened the way for an interdisciplinary approach to land-use plan-

ning, away from the urban technocrats and toward ecologists, naturalists, geographers, and geologists. In the past, land-use planning had meant the draining of wetlands for agriculture and the paving over of farmland for industry. The Galasso Law, along with the creation of the Ministry of Environment in 1986, brought to the halls of government the long-overdue attention to environmental issues. This new awareness had positive results: the institution of six new national parks between 1986 and 1989.

Integrating Man and Nature

On December 6, 1991, the Italian legislature approved act number 394, the Framework Law on Protected Areas. This is a comprehensive law for the creation, planning, and integration of protected natural areas that encourages input from national, regional, and local agencies as well as private environmental organizations, and even from individuals. The inspiration for the new law was not merely conservation, but a dynamic and active management of the land that emphasizes the social character of the landscape. The law states that the main goal in setting up reserves is "the integration of man and the natural environment through the protection of anthropological, archaeological, historical and architectural values, of traditional activities, of agricultural, pastoral, and forestry practices." One legal scholar has interpreted the law as meaning that the protection of na-

ture does not imply the exclusion of human activity: humans are part of nature, and their actions, inasmuch as they are rigorously held within the limits of ecological equilibrium, are not incompatible with the conservation of nature.

Dynamic Management

Act number 394 also states that natural reserves must restore or preserve "species of animals and plants, forest and plant associations, geological and paleontological formations, biological communities, biotopes, scenic and panoramic values, and ecological harmony." The emphasis on biological and ecological preservation indicates a shift from protecting natural beauty to protecting nature. But the law also recognizes one important aspect of the nature-culture dialectic: where humans have intervened, the results have sometimes been beautiful, not merely destructive. Culture, society, history, and nature can coexist in a system of land-use management that allows for both conservation and sustainable human use. The director of Argentera Nature Park in Piedmont summed up the new vision of protected areas:

Increasingly, parks are seen not only as a goal for conservation but as an instrument for it, not as a destination but as a take-off point, not as an "alibi-island" for plundering the remaining territory but as a stronghold on which to build a sustainable relationship with the environment.

The basis of the law is a four-tier planning system, starting with com

prehensive reserves in which the integrity of the natural environment is to be preserved in its entirety. The second level is one of general reserves in which there is a ban on any infrastructure development, except in connection with the management of the reserve. The third level, protected areas, allows for the continuation and development of sustainable practices such as organic farming, the harvesting and use of natural products, and small-scale industry based on artisan production. And finally, the law envisions zones to promote economic and social activities. These are areas whose natural environments have been heavily modified by human activity. Only those activities compatible with the aims of the protected area will be allowed in these zones.

All these activities are to be worked out locally by the so-called *Comunità del parco*, which consists of government representatives at the regional, provincial, and municipal level. Local leaders from the *Comunità del parco* also form part of the park agency, along with leaders from environmental groups and scientists. Only in cases of disagreement among the various parties does the national government get involved directly, with the Ministry of Environment responsible for mediation and arbitration.

One of Italy's newest national parks is the *Parco Nazionale delle Foreste Casentinesi*, Monte Falterona e Campigna, in the mountains

of Tuscany and Romagna. The debate over what kind of park it should be is typical of environmental thinking in establishing protected areas. Within the park area, forestry practices must be ecologically sound. Organic farming and agricultural tourism are preferred. There is limited access for cars, unlimited access for hikers. In the core area, access for humans is limited as well. In villages within the park, old buildings and housing must be renovated, while new construction is severely restricted. Businesses and industries interested in conserving nature, rather than exploiting it, are encouraged through preferential treatment.

This new park also signals a return to earlier notions of an aesthetic construction of the landscape that takes into account the needs of people and society. Here, in the highlands along the border between Tuscany and Romagna, "the old balance of nature, society, and livelihood that marked both the land and the landscape of the mountains can be revived, once the lacerations and traumas of the twentieth century have been overcome. This can be accomplished with a land-use management capable of fostering the inventiveness and the versatility—in short, the culture—that has for centuries characterized the mountain way of life."

The Critics

Critics of the Framework Law are not hard to find. One of Italy's lead-

ing theorists of landscape planning, Roberto Gambino of the University of Turin, calls the idea of zoning in national parks and natural reserves "an unrealistic and pernicious division of the landscape into protected and unprotected areas." Gambino sees the various zoning levels as a separation, not an integration. And looking to the U.S. National Park Service, Gambino notes that zones should be seen not in terms of restrictions, but rather in terms of planning goals.

Other critics claim that the Framework Law puts too much power in the hands of local authorities. The result is that some of Italy's national parks are managed not by professional naturalists, wildlife experts, or land-use specialists, but by local politicians, who may just as easily decide to spend funds allotted to parks for the restoration of a church, not landscapes.

Critics also point out that the Framework Law favors quantity over quality. Too many new protected areas were established too quickly. Indeed, some parks exist only on paper. Furthermore, there is a serious dearth of adequately trained people in park and wildlife management. What many of the new national parks have in common is a lack of the infrastructure normally found in a U.S. national park: an information center, signage and well marked nature trails. The Framework Law in this sense is typical of much legislation in Italy:

the ideals race ahead of the realities.

Network of Reserves

Another flaw in the new legislation, critics point out, is the lack of interconnectedness between the protected areas. But where the law is remiss in addressing the question of environmental corridors, private groups have been taking up the slack. In fact, Europe's most ambitious plan to link protected areas is taking place in Italy's central Apennines in a project called the South European Park. Under this plan, the Abruzzo National Park will anchor a chain of parks in the central Apennines that also comprises three new national parks: Gran Sasso-Laga, Majella, and Monti Sibillini. In addition, numerous regional and inter-regional parks, along with nature reserves and refuges, will form part of the network as well, for a total surface area of 1.25 million acres.

Conclusion

Creating national parks and reserves in Italy and maintaining the integrity of existing ones is a tough job. Franco Tassi, who has been the superintendent of the Abruzzo National Park for nearly three decades, has called it a mission impossible. Nevertheless, under Tassi's leadership, Abruzzo has become a model for Europe in running a park efficiently, balancing the needs of nature with the needs those of people living in the park. Abruzzo National Park has spearheaded the change in public and private attitude's in Italy regard-

ing nature protection over the last two decades. For example, the Abruzzo village of Civitella Alfedena gained much national attention when Italy's leading financial newspaper reported that this hamlet of a few hundred was the richest in Italy.

In fact, the national parks may now be a victim of their own success. Small towns in Italy that once viewed national parks as potential local disasters are now clamoring to be included within the boundaries of national parks or reserves. Though on a whole this trend may be good, the motives are not always pure. The creation of a national park opens the spigot of public money for some small towns, which may not spend the money wisely if informed leadership is lacking. Moreover, some municipalities within national parks are encouraging the repopulation of areas deserted during the past 50 years of the economic miracle. Many naturalists doubt the wisdom of such policies, maintaining it is better to abandon many of these areas to nature rather

than to encourage their resettlement. The purpose of national parks in Italy is now under scrutiny. Some conservationists say that with the new Framework Law, Italy's national parks, by trying to embrace too much, seem to have moved away from the essential purpose of protecting nature. Franco Tassi has noted that Italy today is "in a situation in which a park is meant to please everybody. Now that the environment has become a trendy topic, there is a strong tendency at the political, cultural and economic level to consider a park as a container for just about anything but conservation."

Back in 1922, Italy was Europe's leader in establishing of national parks. After a long period in which its achievements were neglected, Italy is once again at the forefront of environmental legislation and protection. The outcome of the debate in Italy over how human activities are to be integrated in national parks and other reserves will have a resounding impact on the rest of Europe.

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From the National Park to Regional Systems of Linked National Parks and Protected Areas

Abruzzo National Park, created in 1922 and therefore the oldest in Italy, is proud of its international recognition as a pilot organization in nature conservation. It was organized by a few enlightened men, among them Erminio Sipari (a cousin of the great philosopher Benedetto Croce), who was the real conceiver and founder, with the active support of a young naturalist organization known as the Pro Montibus et Sylvis Federation of Bologna. Today, Abruzzo is in the vanguard of linking the national parks and protected areas in the various regions of Italy to better meet the urgent needs of nature protection.

Over seventy years have passed, and, like any other Italian park, Abruzzo has not had an easy life, having to overcome all kinds of political and financial issues, right up to fearing for its own survival in the 1960s. However, since 1969 there has been a real (albeit gradual) gradual recovery with new ideas, new persons, and new programs leading to a different chapter in its history in this corner of the Central Apennines, both with regard to life and activities which are still ongoing.

In the last quarter of a century, the park has grown from 30,000 to 44,000 hectares. It has established a buffer zone of 70,000 hectares which has practically taken on the function of being a complementary area, almost as protected and rich in wildlife as the park itself. This promoted a lively and constant dialogue by inte-

grating very strict conservation with the most sustainable modern development: in other words, with ecodevelopment based on the revival of cultural and traditional activities, as well as on modern ecotourism.

Abruzzo protects and fosters not only ungulate populations (such as the Abruzzo chamois—the boast of the park—and the red deer and the roe deer, which have been gradually reintroduced) to the point where they thrive, but also the surviving groups of large carnivorous predators (among them the Marsican brown bear, the Apennine wolf, and the European lynx). This has not been a simple feat in contemporary Italy.

Abruzzo National Park set many firsts, including having the first visitor centre among the Italian national parks, created in 1969 in Pescasseroli; the first scientific group

working in a European park, the Apennine Centre for Ecological Research, created in 1972; the first wildlife area for Apennine wolves at Civitella Alfedena, created in 1971; and the first strict nature reserve, the Camosciara, created in 1972.

It is now recognized that what has been achieved in the park could succeed even better if one could safeguard vaster areas, somehow connected to each other. The greater Abruzzo region and its surrounding territories seems to have begun to accept this striking vision.

This is how a whole series of events developed to create a project known as the South European Park to make the Central Apennines a real protected "Nature Eden," representing a pilot model for the unified Europe of the Third Millennium. Since the Castelli Conference in 1976, inspired by the deceased Senator Giovanni Spagnoli, president of the Italian Alpine Club, to the Round Table Meeting of 1988, presided over by Professor Franco Pedrotti, president of the Italian Botanical Society, this project has been gradually taking shape. It took definite form at the beginning of 1990 when, thanks to a group of environmentalists, the ARVE Club (Abruzzo Regione Verde d'Europa, the Green Region of Europe) was set up. This club—with the support of all cultural, social, and political forces concerned about the fate of the Central Apennine natural environment—advocates a large

system of parks and protected areas in the Central Apennines which radiates out from the natural and historical hub of Abruzzo National Park.

This idea has continued to gain allies, and strengthened old, long-forgotten, and languishing proposals which found and continue to find a specific reference point in the national park. Critical elements of the project have started becoming a reality: the big national parks of Monti Sibillini, Gran Sasso-Laga, and Maiella were set up, including the Sirente-Velino Regional Natural Park. These three new national parks and one regional park will, along with Abruzzo National Park, make up the core of a grand South European Park.

Complementary activities are also taking place. In the greater Abruzzo region and in neighbouring ones 43 minor areas have emerged or were consolidated, among which are various types of reserves, refuges, and oases (natural areas managed by World Wildlife Fund-Italy) partly destined to be absorbed in or connected with the new parks mentioned above that will be part of the South European Park.

In addition, across Italy proposals are being studied for many future natural reserves (including marine areas). To complete the picture, two very important inter-regional parks will need to be created: Monti Ernici-Simbruini Natural Park between Abruzzo and Lazio, and Matese Natural Park between Molise and Cam-

pania. All future efforts of ARVE will be focused on creating a whole system of parks and protected areas.

It is obvious that once the basic framework for linking parks and protected areas into systems has been set up, it will have to develop active, modern promotional programs with creative management for each park and protected area in the system. These systems must be more than a vision on paper. For example, there is no doubt that to properly complete the system of the South European Park (destined to protect over 600,000 hectares of extraordinary Apennine natural environment) there must be a substantial series of wildlife ecological corridors among the various parks in order to attain one of the main goals of the project.

Conservation of the rarest, most precious, and important animals, such as the Marsican brown bear, the Abruzzo chamois, the Apennine wolf, and the European lynx, will be the most demanding task. These are the real "stars" of the adventure: living creatures from the huge "symbolic change" or "guide" species, species which are capable of expressing "maximum values," acting as "indicators" of the completeness of the ecosystem or as "quality brands" of Nature. However one wants to define these "animal-leaders" (or, according to some people, "animal-totems"), they have already carried out the duty of "park ambassador" by sweeping away any strong

preconceived resistance. The best example was at Maiella, where discussions about the park went on for at least 15 years. In spite of this, the public's concern for wildlife was sufficient to create a wildlife area for chamois at Lama dei Peligni, eventually leading to the successful relaunch of an old park proposal with substantial consensus by all the communities concerned.

Something similar is also happening, though more slowly and with some difficulty, in the rest of the Apennines from the Casentinesi forests to Aspromonte, from Cilento to Gargano. Pollino National Park, which was the most inspired by the Abruzzo experience and indeed has been living for 40 years in cultural symbiosis with it, is having difficulty taking off due to numerous political intrigues, local conflicts, and managerial inability.

Meanwhile, additional systems of parks and protected areas are being envisioned in other well-characterized geographical regions of peninsular Italy that are rich in special features and natural values, such as Maremma of Tuscany and Latium; Calabria, "the green point of Europe"; and Campania felix, the ancient and wealthy land around Naples and its environs.

The National Parks Committee, which from 1980 onwards aimed tenaciously to protect at least 10% of the "Bel Paese" (Italy), has carried out a very successful campaign (in the

Abruzzo region more than 30% of the regional territory is already protected). Beyond its environmental and cultural meaning, this new strategy of creating systems of parks and protected areas is turning out to be dynamic from a social and economic standpoint because it has already demonstrated by incontrovertible

facts that the best way to re-animate declining communities and attract consistent flows of wealth from the "strong" areas to the "weak" and peripheral ones is to focus on natural resources. Hence a national park, or a system of parks and protected areas, can be the best solution for the future.

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The Parco Artistico, Naturale e Culturale della Val d'Orcia

The Parco Artistico, Naturale e Culturale della Val d'Orcia represents a new idea of park in Italy as it encompasses the entirety of five neighboring municipalities (60 hectares) in the province of Siena and the region of Tuscany: Castiglionne d'Orcia, Pienza, Radiconfani, San Quirico d'Orcia and Montalcino.

In the words of the visitor brochure: "To visit the Parco Artistico, Naturale e Culturale della Val d'Orcia means to immerse oneself in a territory which is not static, is not similar to a museum, but is, on the contrary, an entity strongly tied to daily life, a life inspired by a model that carries on a continuity with the local tradition."

The park has been defined "Artistico, Naturale e Culturale" because it is a landscape that is a unitary whole of historic urban centers and rural land shaped by human efforts.

The area of the park is characterized as a frontier in Italy. It was at the extreme limits of the ancient Ducato of Tuscany and before that of the Sienese Republic and was subject to strong collision between strategic interests. This is reflected in the fortified urban texture of Montalcino, the papal stronghold of Radicofani, and fortress of the Salimbeni family at Tintinnano (Rocca d'Orcia). Areas

within the park are also strongly associated with the Francigena, or the pilgrims way from Canterbury to Rome.

From the many natural balconies of Val d'Orcia the countryside is revealed. One sees many domes and clay hills, sudden cliffs and gullies, that look sterile and barren where the hills become steeper and the clay harder. There is also the Val d'Orcia of the wheat fields changing colors with the seasons (gray to green to yellow) and, in the fertile alluvial soils of the valley bottom, the cultivation of grapes and olives. It is a natural landscape built by humans, the hidden and skilled work of generations of peasants laboring over a difficult land.

The idea of the park has two aims. On one hand, it is to preserve the present, almost perfect balance between natural landscape and human settlement. The other aim is to improve the social and economic development

based essentially on local natural and cultural resources. The park is viewed as an attempt to provide an alternative between unguided speculative development and museum-like guardianship of the environment.

Agriculture and cultural tourism are the main sectors for development and they are treated as interrelated. The park is an attempt to respond to what it calls "itinerary visits" where the tourist is attracted by sequences of historical themes and environmental qualities. It is a rediscovery of the traveler's tourism which from the 18th century onwards chose Italy as a land to discover historical features without refusing contact with local social and cultural realities. Visiting travelers had a unified interest in the artistic object, the monument, and ancient historical traces while savoring the taste and way of life that was rooted *in situ*.

Agriculture itself is viewed within the park as a primary element of the attraction. The agricultural focus is not on maximum production but rather on the sense of quality and particularity of the product. The park authorities want the visitor to comprehend and appreciate the strong bond between agriculture and environment, the result of which can only be a high quality of production not only of wine, cheese, and oil, but also honey, meat, typical charcuterie, cereals, and handicrafts. Biological (organic) cultivation is encouraged, as well as specialized production

such as the growing of hard corn, which has a niche market in Germany.

Small industries related to such local resources as brick kilns are also encouraged under the same principle of "quality as resource," both in intrinsic product quality but also in the nature of the process between humans and environment.

The park is a reality based on the action of the town councils of its five municipalities acting as an association, yet there is still work to be done on building the public awareness of belonging to the park and of the park as an effort to rediscover and revalue the territory of Val d'Orcia that is required for the achievement of a collective social and cultural identity.

There are currently three foci of attention: planning, the governing framework, and economic organization.

With regard to planning, action has been taken to protect biotopes. The park authority, or association of town councils, have applied the national and regional standards for protected areas to the Lucciola Bella for its geomorphologic peculiarity of "Crete senesi" (clay formations). Still pending is whether the park will be able to stretch the envelope and receive protected area status as a unitary whole.

Physical plans have been prepared to handle visitor use of this "park without gates." Primary roads enter-

ing the park have been identified as entry points with information and campsite facilities. There are also plans for a system of roadside turnoffs, signage, and trails for enjoyment of the park. A visitor facility has been opened in San Quirico d'Orcia.

So far the collaborative effort that is the park has been governed by an association made up of mayors of the five towns, but its legal constitution is still being worked out. To be decided is the status and relationship of the park organization in relation to the provincial and regional governments. A Comitato Scientifico di Consulenza della Val d'Orcia made up of scholars from various disciplines has been established to propose and assess cultural and environmental projects.

In the economic sphere, a company which will carry out that aspect

of the park has been created and is known as the Parco Val d'Orcia s.r.l. It is coordinating both public and private investments for tourist and economic development in the park. To market local products and safeguard high quality standards, the company has created the trademark "Val d'Orcia" to certify origin and quality of products.

The Parco Artistico, Naturale e Culturale della Val d'Orcia is a creative, dynamic, and ambitious collaborative effort of communities to protect and sustain their unique qualities of place. It incorporates all the traditional aspects associated with parks and adds the dimension of sustainable development. Many hurdles to its ultimate success remain, but so far the park has defined and followed its own path to success.

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Preserving Kentucky's Civil War Sites: Grassroots Efforts and Statewide Leadership

Background

In 1991, as the American Battlefield Protection Program (ABPP) was being organized in Washington, the Kentucky Heritage Council (KHC) began what would become its Civil War Sites Preservation Program. The Heritage Council never planned this program; rather, it simply grew out of our response to the ABPP and requests for assistance from local groups.

Kentucky's Civil War initiative got underway in the fall of 1991. Using recaptured historic preservation funds (HPF), a preservation and management plan was begun for the Battle of Perryville State Historic Site, the location of the largest Civil War battle fought within the state. A portion of the site had been owned by the state since about 1902, and in 1991 the park occupied some 98 acres. Unfortunately, documentation for a National Historic Landmark nomination indicated there were over 3,000 acres of critical battlefield lands. Almost all of these were in private hands and had little or no protection whatsoever.

With guidance from the ABPP, the KHC and consultant Mary C. Breeding began work on what would be the first "community consensus" planning project in our state. Susan Braselton (currently of The Civil War Trust, then the KHC staff person in charge of this project) put it this way:

"We really did not know exactly what we were doing in the beginning. We played it by ear. But we knew that in order for the project to be successful we had to have both the support and input of the battlefield landowners." KHC staff and the project consultant held several community meetings to solicit input and to try and reach a level of trust with the landowners.

Over the years there had been many efforts, at least on paper, to turn the Perryville Battlefield into a first-rate tourist destination. Because this had not happened, many of the people in the area were hesitant to believe that anything would really come of this planning effort. The community consensus planning approach made the difference as landowners slowly came to realize that their future was not being planned for them, but by them. At first it was like pulling teeth to get any information out of them, but by the third meeting they began to open up and tell us their vision for the

battlefield area and how the plan could best serve their needs in the future.

It also didn't hurt that in June 1992, Kentucky Governor Brereton Jones announced that \$2.5 million dollars in Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act (ISTEA) funds had been awarded to the Perryville Battlefield. These funds were to be used for land acquisition, interpretation, and other improvements to make Perryville one of the premier Civil War sites in the nation. The preservation and management plan would serve as the blueprint for the ISTEA project.

The Perryville planning project was the catalyst for Kentucky's Civil War sites preservation effort. It introduced us to the national players and was the springboard that launched the program we have today. In the midst of the effort at Perryville three things happened that turned a planning project into an agency program: the congressionally mandated Civil War Sites Advisory Commission (CWSAC) survey, a preservation effort at the Mill Springs Battlefield, and the first national battlefield preservation conference, held in Lexington in June 1992.

All of a sudden all hell broke loose and we were knee deep in the Civil War. The CWSAC forced us to inventory eleven of the battlefields in our state. This survey effort was part of a larger project designed to quickly examine some 384 Civil War battle-

fields in 26 states. The idea was for someone (in the case of Kentucky, me) to go out and physically survey and assess the condition of each of the battlefields according to the criteria set up by the CWSAC and the National Park Service (NPS). The survey broadened both the scope of the sites at which we were looking and our constituency. From this effort we also came to understand that one could not really comprehend the Civil War in Kentucky simply by examining the battlefields.

We found that in Kentucky there were numerous extant Civil War sites that never saw combat, but their story was essential to understanding what happened here between 1861 and 1865. It fell to the KHC to provide guidance for these types of sites because both the ABPP and the CWSAC were only looking at battlefields.

All the same we began our effort with battlefields. In April of 1992 we felt that we must get a preservation effort underway at Mill Springs. To jumpstart this effort we mailed out a flyer to people in the Pulaski County-Somerset area who were on our mailing list asking them to come to a meeting at Somerset Community College to discuss the future of the Mill Springs Battlefield. Approximately 25 people attended this meeting. We outlined the efforts of the ABPP and the CWSAC and explained the funding opportunities available for battlefields at the time.



The “Mother” of the Mill Springs battlefield preservation effort, Dorothea Burton, seen here in a 1930s photo, began decorating the *Zollie Tree* in the early 1900s. Her efforts led to the erection of two monuments here and began the long process of preserving the site.



The “Mother” of the Mill Springs battlefield preservation effort, Dorothea Burton, seen here in a 1930s photo, began decorating the *Zollie Tree* in the early 1900s. Her efforts led to the erection of two monuments here and began the long process of preserving the site.

That night, in fact, before we left the classroom, the Mill Springs Battlefield Association was formed. We worked with them to secure funding from the ABPP to begin their own community consensus preservation and management plan.



Reenactors fire and 21 gun salute and play taps for the dead at Zollicoffer Park at the Mill Springs Battlefield National Historic Landmark as a part of the annual memorial service on the Saturday closest to January 19.

Two months later, the first national battlefield preservation conference, "Civil War Battlefields: Forging Effective Partnerships," was held in Lexington. This conference was held in conjunction with a CWSAC meeting, and the two events brought national recognition to our efforts. One of the most important conference activities involved a bus tour organized for the CWSAC. The tour took the commission to the Perryville and the Mill Springs battlefields. At

the town of Nancy, where the Mill Springs Battlefield is located, the bus was met and escorted by local police to Zollicoffer Park. There several hundred people met and welcomed the CWSAC to Pulaski County. This was real down-home stuff: Boy Scouts were on hand, as well as local officials, and the Nancy Ladies Club served lemonade and homemade cookies. The commission was overwhelmed by the show of support for them and the effort to save the battlefield. Prior to the Kentucky meeting they had been confronted by land-rights advocates in Virginia and the positive reception was in stark contrast to those meetings.

The conference itself was also a resounding success: over two hundred people attended two days of meetings in Lexington that brought together speakers from all over the country to exchange ideas and look at methods for saving our nation's Civil War heritage. The conference and the ABPP emphasized the importance of forming partnerships to find creative ways of preserving land when the shrinking government made finding large sums of federal money difficult at best.

That same year saw the Middle Creek Battlefield, a CWSAC site in extreme eastern Kentucky, earn listing as a National Historic Landmark. Also, the Mill Springs Battlefield Association purchased their first 19 acres with funds from The Civil War Trust, the KHC, and moneys they raised locally. Wildcat Mountain

Battlefield, also a CWSAC site, erected two interpretive signs as part of a Kentucky Bicentennial project. The result of these efforts was that by the end of 1992 the KHC had a Civil War Sites Preservation Program in everything but name.

In 1993, the preservation effort mushroomed and my job as the "Civil War guy" was pretty much confirmed. This was a year of rapid development as the Kentucky Department of Travel, with input by the KHC, created their first heritage tourism piece. This publication included a 25-stop tour of Civil War sites across the state. The Heritage Council has enjoyed a close relationship with the Department of Travel ever since and we have worked together on numerous projects.

Also in 1993, the Heritage Council first made a strong commitment of grant funds to Civil War projects. Of slightly over \$100,000 in grant funds, some \$38,500 went to Civil War sites. These funds were spread over six projects at four sites, and only one, the Battle of Richmond, was a CWSAC site. The KHC has always had a strong HPF grant program and once we became serious about working with Civil War sites, we began to use our grant funds to help them. This was essential since the ABPP funds were limited to priority-one sites, and in Kentucky that meant Perryville and Mill Springs. Never underestimate what \$5,000 can do for a fledgling organization.

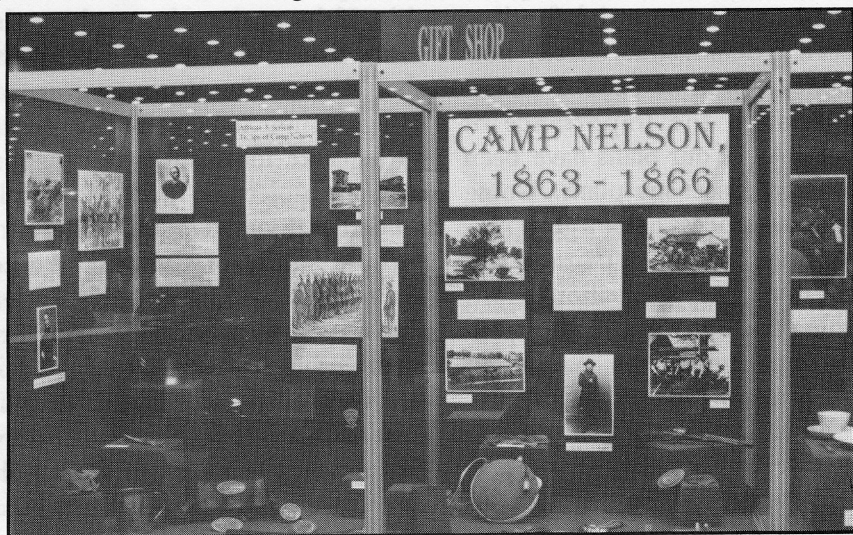
The key to our program has been the willingness on the part of the State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO), David L. Morgan, to make our funds and staff stretch as far as possible. This means that staff will, in special situations, do National Register nominations themselves rather than use grant funds to pay consultants. This occurred for Mill Springs, Fort Duffield, Middle Creek, Fort Sands, and the statewide multiple-property nomination for the Civil War monuments. We were proactive instead of reactive. Often I would go to areas that had sites and encourage them to apply for grant funds or offer them technical assistance. Of course, this often meant long hours and a lot of travel.

As you might imagine, this kind of commitment is not without its rewards. By 1994 our efforts had not only gained national recognition, but we were gathering steam in the Commonwealth. To help our partners, we had begun publishing a Civil War newsletter that included information on grants, research, and other forms of technical assistance. In addition we held a Civil War preservation conference in Harrodsburg that drew nearly 100 people from within the state and the region. Our goal was to develop partnerships with the local nonprofit organizations, and to help them partner with their local governments and other governmental agencies to enhance their efforts.

In 1994 we turned the corner with our program. Two sites, Camp Nelson and Fort Duffield, received ISTEA funding. Again, neither of these sites was a battlefield. The key to their success was that both had committed nonprofit groups who worked closely with their local governments. The Heritage Council also worked with the Kentucky Department of Parks to help it develop a preservation and management plan for Columbus-Belmont State Park. This was a straight partnership project. We brought in people from the NPS, Murray State University (MSU) and the University of Kentucky, Kentucky Department of Travel, and of course our staff. We held a community meeting at the park and then spent a day and a half hammering out the

details. As a result, we have developed a better working relationship with parks.

Another development from that project has been our relationship with Murray State University, which has become a strong partner in the preservation process. MSU has worked with us and other agencies to obtain funding to help several sites in the western Kentucky area. MSU archaeologists have worked over the past several years at Fort Smith in Livingston County. These efforts have involved the local high school and have created an atmosphere of pride within the community that simply did not exist before. The public history program at MSU has helped at Columbus-Belmont and Sacramento. Bill Mulligan's article



The Camp Nelson archaeological display at the 1997 Kentucky State Fair. This was part of a larger exhibit "Kentucky African Americans in the Civil War: The Defining Moment in the Quest for Freedom" sponsored by the Kentucky Heritage Council, Kentucky State University and the Kentucky African American Heritage Commission .

[in Part 2 of this series] will go into these efforts in great detail, so I will simply say that they have been an important part of our effort, one that has made a huge difference within our state.

All of these efforts paid dividends. Not only did our sites see the benefits of working with their local governments and universities, but we began to develop a process for the nonprofits to bring their sites "on line," if you will. First, if the site was not listed in the National Register, we urged them to have a nomination prepared, and as noted we often prepared it for them. We then encouraged them to develop a preservation and management plan. Such a plan gives each effort legitimacy; this cannot be stressed too much. Once a plan is developed a site can go to potential funding sources and demonstrate exactly how the money would be used. I cannot stress enough the importance of planning. All of our plans have been community consensus plans. Going through this process helps a group focus and often brings new partners and players into the preservation effort. Just going through the planning process is important to the maturation process of a nonprofit group.

Reality Check

From the above narrative it would appear that we had no problems and everybody was in favor of everything that we tried. It might also seem we did it all by ourselves, with a little

help from the ABPP. Well, yes and no. The CWSAC survey revealed that the battlefields at Paducah, Ivy Mountain, and Barbourville were lost. The problems related to urban sprawl, even in towns as small as Barbourville, can easily destroy a fragile resource. The battlefield at Paducah actually was mostly gone by the late 19th century. Ivy Mountain, or Ivy Narrows, was lost when the narrows were bulldozed away for the improvement of U.S. Highway 23 between Prestonsburg and Pikeville in eastern Kentucky. Local historians were aware of the battlefield at the time of the road construction in the 1920s, and a memorial arch was promised, but never built.

One truism is that nothing can be accomplished without local leadership. If the reader takes nothing else away from this article, he or she should remember that a state or federal governmental agency cannot buy or legislate local support. Without that, any project, no matter how well-funded, is doomed to fail. Fort Sands and the Battles of Cynthiana reflect the problems when no local leadership exists. Fort Sands is a pristine earthen fort complex constructed in late 1862 to protect a vital railroad trestle. Located in Hardin County, Kentucky, just north of Elizabethtown, a mid-sized Kentucky community, Fort Sands' location astride Interstate Highway 65 makes it a prime location for tourists. The fort is in private hands, but the landowners

have expressed a desire to have the site open to the public. Several well-attended public meetings demonstrated support for a project to identify and mark the Civil War sites in the Elizabethtown area. However, no person was identified to lead the effort. Consequently, nothing has happened. The landowners are frustrated at the inactivity.

The situation at Cynthiana is similar. Confederate General John Hunt Morgan attacked this Bluegrass town twice, once in 1862 and again in 1864. Portions of two of the battlefields remain intact. In fact, the battlefield was given a priority-two rating by the CWSAC. To date, this office has been unable to find anyone in Cynthiana or Harrison County who is willing to lead a preservation effort. Again, there has been little activity in the area.

Friends, Partners, and Self-help

As a historian one of my on-going pet peeves is that all too often, especially in the interpretation of Civil War sites, the event or place is not put into context. Therefore, it is important that our Civil War sites preservation effort needs be placed into context as well. Even though we would like to, we can't take all of the credit for doing everything all by ourselves: coming up with all the ideas and arranging all of the conferences and publicity. We didn't, but we took advantage of every opportunity that came our way.

Perhaps one the most useful efforts we have participated in has been The Civil War Trust's Civil War Discovery Trail. To date, this is only national effort to promote and market Civil War sites as heritage tourism destinations. We were one of the early partners with the trust on this venture. The KHC and the Kentucky Department of Travel have worked together to make this program successful in our state. The Civil War Trust designed the trail to ensure its success. No site could be on it unless properly interpreted. The reason for this is simple: there is nothing worse than sending tourists 50 miles out of their way and, when they get there, all they get for their efforts is a pasture and a highway marker. This leads to frustration and bad word of mouth.

We now have over 50 sites on the Discovery Trail. These include everything from battlefields to house museums to cemeteries. Once the initiative began, people wanted to know: "How can we get on that trail?" A site's inclusion on the trail has helped gain wider support for some sites. When the local tourism office begins to get calls from all over the country wanting to get information on their site, it makes them take notice.

The sale of Civil War commemorative coins also proved to be a plus for at least two of our sites. Both Perryville and Mill Springs received funds from the coin sales. However, we went a step further and utilized a

ceremony at Mill Springs to help kick off the drive to sell the coins. In January 1995, United States Treasurer Mary Ellen Withrow came to Nancy, Kentucky, to unveil the Civil War commemorative coins. This event drew several hundred local people on a very cold January day. It brought a great deal of positive publicity too for the efforts at Mill Springs, and again demonstrated what strong grassroots support can do.

But perhaps the most significant development to date has been our judicial use of ISTEA funding for our Civil war sites. Kentucky's SHPO, David L. Morgan, realized the potential impact this funding could have not only on Civil War sites, but on historic preservation in general. Morgan worked closely with the Kentucky Department of Transportation and helped them develop the committee that evaluated the ISTEA applications. The net result of Morgan's foresight is that over \$4 million of ISTEA enhancement funds have been made available to six Civil War sites. This windfall has brought about a profound change in the landscape of Civil War sites, and by the year 2000 Kentucky will have some of the best state, local, and private battlefield parks in the nation.

While ISTEA has accounted for the lion's share of the funding going to Civil War sites in Kentucky, these funds have only made their way to six sites. On the other hand, the KHC

has expended nearly \$200,000 at fifteen sites across the Commonwealth. This seed money has helped small organizations grow and get themselves into the position to seek funding of the magnitude offered by ISTEA. In addition to our funding, moneys from the Kentucky Humanities Council, the Kentucky Oral History Commission, a state parks bond issue, and a matching grant fund administered by the Kentucky Department of Travel have affected a total of twenty Civil War sites statewide. To date, \$6,362,037 has found its way to sites; over \$1.2 million of that was money raised locally.

Our success is due to a willingness to work hard for our constituency, help them find creative ways to fund projects, going into the field to help them. We do not expect people to come to Frankfort to meet with us. Most of these people are volunteers and they work during the day. So it is often up to us to go to them and meet with them when and where it is the most convenient for them. We have guided them through the grant process and have offered them technical advice or helped them find it from other sources. We have benefited from the SHPO's attitude toward preservation and use of the limited funds available to us. The long and short of it all is that hard work, creativity, and local support are the secrets to success. Without them none of this would have been possible.

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Tanya M. Gossett

The American Battlefield Protection Program —Forging Preservation Partnerships at Historic Battlefields

In the late 1980s, Congress and the secretary of the Interior found themselves embroiled in a struggle between land developers and land preservationists. At stake were 542 acres of historic¹ land adjacent to the Manassas National Battlefield Park in Virginia. The developer had local political support, but the preservationists had national public support. Ultimately, Congress authorized federal condemnation of the land, compensated the landowners at a cost of more than \$120 million, and added the newly taken tract to the national park. The secretary and Congress learned two significant lessons as the most recent "Battle of Manassas" unfolded. First, national public concern and support for the protection of Civil War battlefields were tremendous. Second, reactive federal efforts to protect land are much too costly to be politically or fiscally viable in the future.

Since the Manassas controversy, the federal government has taken a different, proactive approach to protecting historic battlefield lands, most of which are in private ownership.² In 1990, the Secretary of the Interior established the American Battlefield Protection Program (ABPP) within the National Park Service to help protect 25 Civil War battlefields the Secretary deemed to be among the most significant and endangered in the country. The ABPP was set up to provide technical and financial assistance to state and local governments and nonprofit preservation organizations that endeavor to identify, evaluate, plan for the preservation of, and interpret battlefields. The ABPP could not, however, provide funds

for the acquisition of battlefield lands, since that was the scenario the federal government was trying to avoid.

Soon after the ABPP began its work, Congress created the Civil War Sites Advisory Commission. The commission's charge was to determine which Civil War battlefields should and could be saved by immediate or long-range preservation action. More than 10,500 armed conflicts occurred during the Civil War. The commission concentrated on the 384 most historically significant battle sites. Each site was surveyed, documented, and evaluated based on its historic significance to the war, a campaign, or local events; the condition of the battlefield; and the immediate threats to the site.

In its 1993 *Report on the Nation's Civil War Battlefields*, the commission found that 50 battlefields (a list that included Gettysburg, Antietam, Vicksburg, and Chickamauga) were in need of immediate preservation action. Seventy-eight more were largely intact, and presented excellent opportunities for complete preservation. The commission reported that 105 more, most of which were already partially protected, needed "some additional protection," and that 135 were fragmented so badly that little chance remained for preservation or restoration of the battlefield landscape *in toto*.³ The commission also studied alternative battlefield preservation strategies and made recommendations concerning the roles that federal, state, and local governments, nonprofit organizations, and private landowners should assume to help protect historic battlefields. After issuing its report, the commission disbanded. The ABPP was left to carry out the commission's recommendations. ABPP staff had worked with the commission for two years, and the program had shifted its focus from the 25 battlefields targeted by the secretary to the 384 battlefields studied by the commission.

Since 1993, the ABPP has helped 78 partner organizations and agencies protect and enhance more than 75 historic battlefields. Working with its partners at battlefields as far apart as New York and New Mexico, the ABPP learned quickly that four land-

scape components must be considered if preservationists hope to protect an entire battlefield site. These components are the core area, the study area, significant viewsheds, and buffer zones. The "core area" is the area or areas of the heaviest and most significant fighting during the battle. Core areas are usually the most hallowed ground on a battlefield, and are the first areas targeted for preservation. The "study area" is the area or areas of secondary fighting, troop movements, bivouacs, hospitals, and other services. Study areas are generally more expansive and more difficult to define than the core areas, making them more vulnerable to modern development and destruction. "Significant viewsheds" are unblemished vistas to and from historically important positions on the battlefield. Viewsheds may encompass lands beyond the boundaries of the core and study areas. "Buffer zones," meaning additional lands that may or may not have historic value but may protect historic viewsheds and keep development from abutting historic battlefields (as is plainly the case at such famous sites as Chickamauga and Gettysburg), should also be considered before battlefield land acquisition begins. Taken together, these four battlefield landscape components represent considerable acreage, especially at Civil War sites where the numbers of troops involved varied from a few thousand to more than 100,000. A good example

of a large battlefield is Brandy Station, Virginia, site of the largest cavalry battle of the Civil War, which includes 13,904 acres and is almost all in private ownership.⁴

To protect lands associated with often-expansive battlefields, an arsenal of different preservation, planning, financial, and consensus-building techniques is required. No standard approach applies universally; every site is different and every community is different. The ABPP works closely with State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) to determine possible preservation strategies based on the condition and significance of the battlefields, immediate and long-term threats to the battlefields, local and state political issues, and grassroots support for the battlefields.

In most cases, various combinations of site identification and evaluation, site recognition, public education, community consensus-building, local land-use planning, and partnerships have proved effective in preserving battlefield lands. The ABPP encourages its partners to start the battlefield preservation process with site identification and evaluation. This step should include historical research, archaeological and above-ground resource identification, establishment of boundaries (based on core and study areas and with consideration of significant viewsheds and buffer zones), evaluation of the current

condition of the site, identification of current land use and ownership for the parcels within the determined boundaries, and an assessment of current threats (such as mining activity already on the battlefield or incompatible local zoning ordinances) and possible future threats to the site (for example, could declining agricultural trends lead farmers to subdivide and sell their land to commercial or residential developers?).

The ABPP has worked with more than 20 partner organizations to identify and evaluate battlefield resources at more than 30 sites. One such project was an ABPP-funded survey of all earthworks associated with the siege and battle of Corinth. Staff from the National Park Service's Cultural Resources Geographic Information Systems (CRGIS) facility digitally mapped each resource and produced a report on the condition and possible future preservation of the earthworks. The CRGIS team determined that the original entrenchments extended 29.5 miles, but that only 7.5 miles survive today, and only 16% of the surviving resources are in good condition.⁵ The baseline survey data was entered into a local GIS so local planners and preservationists could monitor and help protect the area's resources. Project partners included the Siege and Battle of Corinth Commission, the Mississippi Department of Archives and History, Alcorn County, the City of Corinth, the

Tennessee Division of Archaeology, and Shiloh National Military Park.

Once a battlefield has been evaluated and defined, it may need to be publicly promoted to raise community awareness and support for the site. Some communities are completely unaware of nearby battle sites or do not believe the sites are historically significant. A good way to rectify those perceptions is to have the battlefield listed in the National Register of Historic Places or have it honored in some other way. Listing in the National Register signals to local citizens that a battlefield site meets stringent federal and *impartial* criteria for listing, that it indeed deserves to be called historic and is worthy of preservation. National Register listing also helps local citizens, officials, and battlefield landowners realize that they are the stewards of a site that may be important to other people in their state and across the country. Listing in the National Register also gives battlefields and their component resources a modicum of protection if federal or federally funded projects, such as new highways, may threaten the site.

Other honorary designations and awards are also important. In Pennsylvania, the governor, legislature, and the Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission honored the Brandywine Battlefield with the state's first "Commonwealth Treasure" award in September 1997. Although the Revolutionary War bat-

tlefield was designated a National Historic Landmark in 1961, the state award reiterated the site's importance to the commonwealth, both historically and economically (tourism is Pennsylvania's second-largest industry), and focused public attention on the devastating effects that subdividing traditional farmsteads for residential development has had on the battlefield landscape.

Public participation and education are also integral parts of the ABPP's approach to preserving and interpreting historic battlefield lands. Local property owners are sometimes hostile to attempts by preservationists to identify their land as historically significant: owners suspect preservationists will either take their land or place restrictions on its use. Others in the community may be uneasy about plans to interpret the site and draw unknown numbers of tourists into the area, a decision that may increase local revenue but may also increase traffic and spur unwanted commercial strip development near the battlefield. Local battlefield preservation groups must then balance their efforts between negotiating and building positive relationships with battlefield landowners who want little or no publicity and educating the public about the benefits of protecting and interpreting a historic battlefield. The ABPP requires that public notification and public meetings be incorporated into any planning project receiving ABPP funds. Although pub-

lic involvement slows the planning process, it ensures a decision balanced between the desire to protect every inch of historic battlefield land and the need to respect the wishes of landowners and neighbors.

In northern Georgia and southeastern Tennessee, the ABPP funded the Chattanooga Area Civil War Sites Assessment in 1996. The goal of the assessment was to identify and evaluate sites associated with the campaigns for Chattanooga and Chickamauga, and develop management objectives and preservation strategies for significant sites. Public participation was essential. The assessment's multi-agency planning team invited all battlefield landowners to participate in the team's site visits and public meetings. During site visits, owners and interested neighbors learned about the history of the site and provided comments about possible preservation treatments. During the public meetings, the team discussed the benefits of preservation, such as tax credits and tourism revenue, and the mechanisms of preservation, such as scenic easements and local land-use regulations. Several landowners who attended the site visits and meetings later approached the assessment team to discuss placing voluntary easements on their properties. The planning team also personally invited local elected officials to meetings, and, when they were unable to attend, offered follow-up briefings. Now faced with implemen-

ting the recommendations, the planning team expects little public or governmental resistance because the assessment process encouraged local participation in the project from the very beginning, which in turn led to the community's understanding and sense of ownership of the project and its goals.⁶

Public support for battlefields usually builds political support for preservation. Unfortunately, many local planning departments and elected officials continue to sacrifice historic sites in the name of development, progress, and tax revenue. In August 1997, a local government was faced with cutting through a nationally significant line of earthworks associated with Civil War coastal batteries to provide vehicular access to two new commercial "super-stores." The battery was included in the local planning department's land-use GIS, but the zoning decision to allow the super-stores did not reflect a thorough evaluation of the impacts of such development on the historic resource (or on an adjacent wetland, the alternative access route). While this example is small in scale to the detrimental effects of insensitive planning on large battlefields, it does represent the symptomatic apathy of many local governments to plan seriously for the protection of cultural landscapes and resources. Local governments committed to protecting historic battlefield lands and resources in the long term will incorpo-

rate cultural resources information into local planning databases, place historic district overlay zones on battlefields, and perhaps most importantly, establish a policy of preservation for battlefield resources in the government's comprehensive plan.

In 1993, the ABPP entered into a cooperative agreement with Spotsylvania County, one of the fastest-growing counties in the commonwealth of Virginia, to survey Civil War resources associated with the battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Wilderness, and Spotsylvania Court House and incorporate data on those resources into the county's comprehensive plan. Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park (FSNMP) was the third partner in the project. The ABPP provided \$50,000 for the county and park to identify significant battlefield lands and viewsheds, determine the current and expected development pressures on those lands, and establish a county policy for their treatment. In cooperation with the ABPP, the National Park Service's CRGIS team digitally mapped the Civil War resources both in public and private ownership. Data on approximately 7,000 acres of privately owned battlefield land was ultimately incorporated into the county's land-use GIS.⁷ The three-year partnership between the National Park Service and Spotsylvania County not only resulted in a Civil War resources component in the county's comprehen-

sive plan, it also improved relations between county officials and the park and raised awareness within the county planning department about the importance and sensitivity of the resources. The county now invites FSNMP to comment on land-use changes, such as re-zoning and subdivision permitting, that may affect the inventoried Civil War resources. FSNMP and county staffs also work with developers to avoid unnecessary destruction or damage to viewsheds, earthworks, archaeological sites, and other resources while still capturing the developer's earning potential from the investment.

In 1994, the ABPP expanded its scope from primarily Civil War battlefields to battlefields associated with other wars. Incompatible development and neglect at these sites are often more ominous than threats to Civil War sites. The histories of other wars—though just as significant in our nation's history—have not captured the country's imagination as has the Civil War. Few Americans, for instance, can name more than two battles that occurred during the War of 1812, let alone why the war occurred at all. And while the Civil War had a direct and personal effect on people from nearly every state in the country, other wars were regionalized, such as the Mexican War and even the Revolutionary War. The lack of national memory of and support for these battlefields endangers them further.

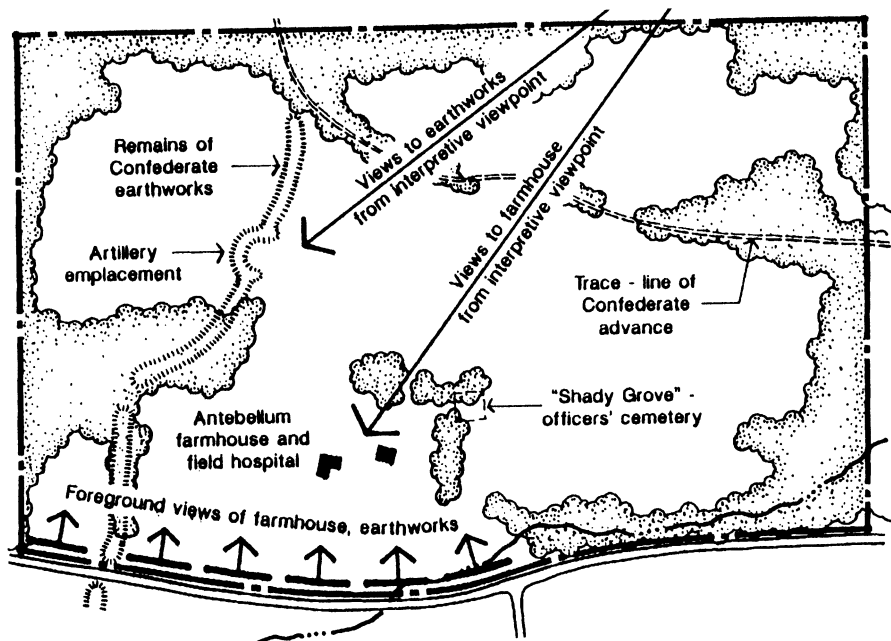


Figure 1. Many farms in Spotsylvania County, Virginia, contain features relating to military events of the Civil War. Few of these features are currently protected, but could be preserved through sensitive site planning.

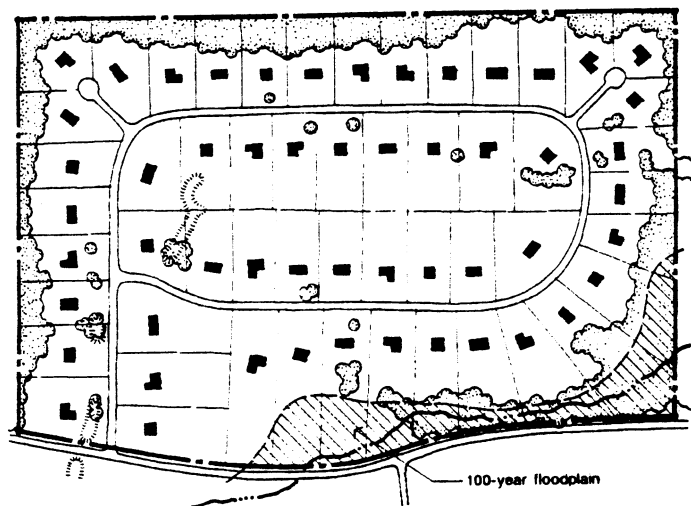


Figure 2. Zoning ordinances in most counties allow land to be subdivided and developed in a "checkerboard" pattern, which maximizes individual lot sizes but also destroys significant cultural resources. This plan contains fifty-four two-acre lots.

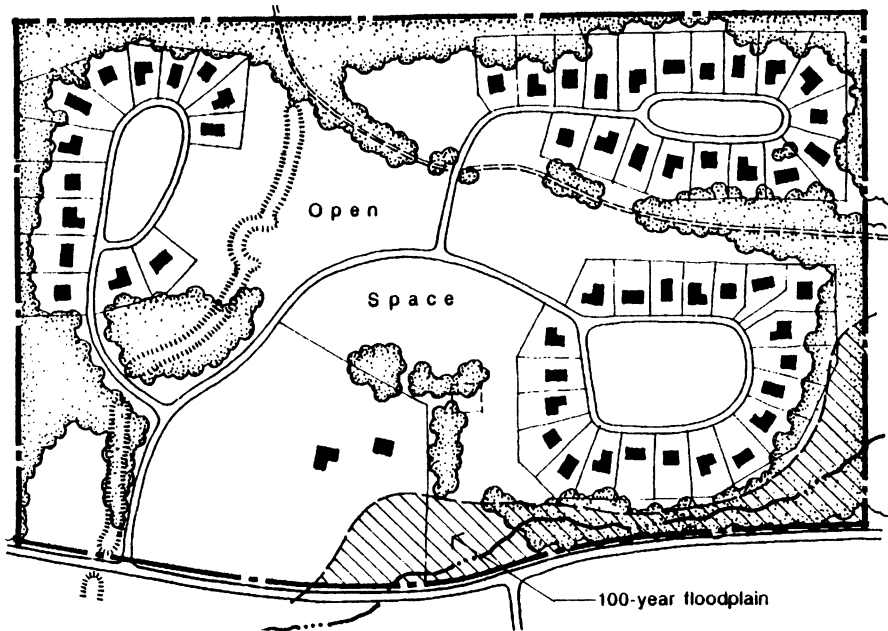


Figure 3. Creative lot averaging and cluster development techniques can yield maximum housing while sparing historic features and providing scenic and recreational open space for homeowners. This plan contains fifty-four 0.75-acre lots and a 17-acre historic farmstead.

The ABPP encourages its partners to look for battlefield preservation and public education opportunities at all types of battlefield sites. Since 1994, and apart from ongoing work at Civil War battlefields, the program has sponsored surveys of battlefields associated with the Great Sioux War of 1876-1877 and Mexican War battlefields in Texas and California, two Revolutionary War battlefield preservation planning and consensus-building projects in New York and Pennsylvania, interpretive signs at a French and Indian War site in Pennsylvania, and a multi-media education project at a World War II battlefield in the Aleutian Islands,

Alaska. The ABPP recognizes, however, that this is ad hoc preservation at best. Similar to the Civil War Sites Advisory Commission's study, comprehensive, national battlefield surveys and evaluation processes are needed for each of these other wars. Congress has agreed. In November 1996, it enacted and President Clinton signed the Revolutionary War and War of 1812 Historic Preservation Study Act of 1996.⁸ In 1997, the director of the National Park Service chose the ABPP to coordinate the study once Congress appropriates funds for that purpose.

Congress officially authorized the ABPP in 1996. The authorizing leg-

islation gave the program broad powers to use cooperative agreements, grants, contracts, and "other generally adopted means of providing financial assistance" to "assist citizens, public and private institutions, and governments at all levels in planning, interpreting, and protecting sites where historic battles were fought on American soil during the armed conflicts that shaped the growth and development of the United States."⁹ The inclusive language of the authorization affirmed the ABPP's perception that all historic battlefields—not

just Civil War sites—should benefit from federal preservation efforts.

In seven years the ABPP has helped protect, interpret, or enhance more than 75 battlefields. The total cost has been roughly \$7.2 million, only 6% the amount of the one-time federal purchase of battlefield land at Manassas. While emergency preservation efforts are still required at some sites, the ABPP will continue to encourage local, state, and federal partnerships that lead to pre-crisis planning for the preservation of America's historic battlefields.

Endnotes

1. For the purposes of this paper, "historic" defines a site that meets the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places or is one of the 384 principal battlefields named by the Civil War Sites Advisory Commission.
2. Civil War Sites Advisory Commission, *Civil War Sites Advisory Commission Report on the Nation's Civil War Battlefields*, prepared for the Committee on Energy and Natural Resources, United States Senate; the Committee on Natural Resources, United States House of Representatives; and the secretary of the Interior (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1993), 18.
3. *Ibid.*, 49-53. Totals do not add to 384 because of missing information for the remaining 16 sites.
4. National Park Service, "Supplementary determination record for Brandy Station Battlefield and related locations," National Register of Historic Places (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, April 1992).
5. National Park Service, *Atlas of Surviving Civil War Features in the Vicinity of Corinth, Mississippi*, prepared by the Cultural Resources Geographic Information Systems Facility in cooperation with The Friends of the Siege and Battle of Corinth and the American Battlefield Protection Program (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1997), 4-5.
6. Patrick Reed, James Ogden III, and Chris Abbett, "Planning partnerships work: The Chattanooga Area Civil War Sites Assessment," *CRM* 20:5 (1997), 12-14. Represented on the assessment planning team itself were the Chattanooga-Hamilton County Regional Planning Agency, Coosa Valley Regional Development Center, Georgia Department of Natural Resources, Southeast Tennessee Development District, Chickamauga and Chattanooga National Military Park, the National Park Service's Rivers, Trails and Conservation Assistance Program, and the Association for the Preservation of Civil War Sites, Inc.
7. National Park Service, *Administrative Guidelines for Assisting Landowners and Local Government Jurisdictions in Evaluating Civil War Battlefield Sites* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1996), I-1.
8. P.L. 103-333, Section 603. Congress and the president authorized, but did not appropriate funds for, the study. As of January 1998, the study remains unfunded.
9. P.L. 103-333, Section 604. The ABPP is authorized for ten years from the date of enactment.

Figures 1-3 are from National Park Service, the County of Spotsylvania, Virginia, and the Natural Lands Trust, *A Community Guide to Protecting Civil War Battlefield Sites and Features in the Fredericksburg Region of Virginia* (1996), 6-8.

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Joseph E. Brent

Preserving Kentucky's Civil War Sites: Grassroots Efforts and Statewide Leadership

Background

In 1991, as the American Battlefield Protection Program (ABPP) was being organized in Washington, the Kentucky Heritage Council (KHC) began what would become its Civil War Sites Preservation Program. The Heritage Council never planned this program; rather, it simply grew out of our response to the ABPP and requests for assistance from local groups.

Kentucky's Civil War initiative got underway in the fall of 1991. Using recaptured historic preservation funds (HPF), a preservation and management plan was begun for the Battle of Perryville State Historic Site, the location of the largest Civil War battle fought within the state. A portion of the site had been owned by the state since about 1902, and in 1991 the park occupied some 98 acres. Unfortunately, documentation for a National Historic Landmark nomination indicated there were over 3,000 acres of critical battlefield lands. Almost all of these were in private hands and had little or no protection whatsoever.

With guidance from the ABPP, the KHC and consultant Mary C. Breeding began work on what would be the first "community consensus" planning project in our state. Susan Braselton (currently of The Civil War Trust, then the KHC staff person in charge of this project) put it this way:

"We really did not know exactly what we were doing in the beginning. We played it by ear. But we knew that in order for the project to be successful we had to have both the support and input of the battlefield landowners." KHC staff and the project consultant held several community meetings to solicit input and to try and reach a level of trust with the landowners.

Over the years there had been many efforts, at least on paper, to turn the Perryville Battlefield into a first-rate tourist destination. Because this had not happened, many of the people in the area were hesitant to believe that anything would really come of this planning effort. The community consensus planning approach made the difference as landowners slowly came to realize that their future was not being planned for them, but by them. At first it was like pulling teeth to get any information out of them, but by the third meeting they began to open up and tell us their vision for the

battlefield area and how the plan could best serve their needs in the future.

It also didn't hurt that in June 1992, Kentucky Governor Brereton Jones announced that \$2.5 million dollars in Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act (ISTEA) funds had been awarded to the Perryville Battlefield. These funds were to be used for land acquisition, interpretation, and other improvements to make Perryville one of the premier Civil War sites in the nation. The preservation and management plan would serve as the blueprint for the ISTEA project.

The Perryville planning project was the catalyst for Kentucky's Civil War sites preservation effort. It introduced us to the national players and was the springboard that launched the program we have today. In the midst of the effort at Perryville three things happened that turned a planning project into an agency program: the congressionally mandated Civil War Sites Advisory Commission (CWSAC) survey, a preservation effort at the Mill Springs Battlefield, and the first national battlefield preservation conference, held in Lexington in June 1992.

All of a sudden all hell broke loose and we were knee deep in the Civil War. The CWSAC forced us to inventory eleven of the battlefields in our state. This survey effort was part of a larger project designed to quickly examine some 384 Civil War battle-

fields in 26 states. The idea was for someone (in the case of Kentucky, me) to go out and physically survey and assess the condition of each of the battlefields according to the criteria set up by the CWSAC and the National Park Service (NPS). The survey broadened both the scope of the sites at which we were looking and our constituency. From this effort we also came to understand that one could not really comprehend the Civil War in Kentucky simply by examining the battlefields.

We found that in Kentucky there were numerous extant Civil War sites that never saw combat, but their story was essential to understanding what happened here between 1861 and 1865. It fell to the KHC to provide guidance for these types of sites because both the ABPP and the CWSAC were only looking at battlefields.

All the same we began our effort with battlefields. In April of 1992 we felt that we must get a preservation effort underway at Mill Springs. To jumpstart this effort we mailed out a flyer to people in the Pulaski County-Somerset area who were on our mailing list asking them to come to a meeting at Somerset Community College to discuss the future of the Mill Springs Battlefield. Approximately 25 people attended this meeting. We outlined the efforts of the ABPP and the CWSAC and explained the funding opportunities available for battlefields at the time.



The “Mother” of the Mill Springs battlefield preservation effort, Dorothea Burton, seen here in a 1930s photo, began decorating the *Zollie Tree* in the early 1900s. Her efforts led to the erection of two monuments here and began the long process of preserving the site.



The “Mother” of the Mill Springs battlefield preservation effort, Dorothea Burton, seen here in a 1930s photo, began decorating the *Zollie Tree* in the early 1900s. Her efforts led to the erection of two monuments here and began the long process of preserving the site.

That night, in fact, before we left the classroom, the Mill Springs Battlefield Association was formed. We worked with them to secure funding from the ABPP to begin their own community consensus preservation and management plan.



Reenactors fire and 21 gun salute and play taps for the dead at Zollicoffer Park at the Mill Springs Battlefield National Historic Landmark as a part of the annual memorial service on the Saturday closest to January 19.

Two months later, the first national battlefield preservation conference, "Civil War Battlefields: Forging Effective Partnerships," was held in Lexington. This conference was held in conjunction with a CWSAC meeting, and the two events brought national recognition to our efforts. One of the most important conference activities involved a bus tour organized for the CWSAC. The tour took the commission to the Perryville and the Mill Springs battlefields. At

the town of Nancy, where the Mill Springs Battlefield is located, the bus was met and escorted by local police to Zollicoffer Park. There several hundred people met and welcomed the CWSAC to Pulaski County. This was real down-home stuff: Boy Scouts were on hand, as well as local officials, and the Nancy Ladies Club served lemonade and homemade cookies. The commission was overwhelmed by the show of support for them and the effort to save the battlefield. Prior to the Kentucky meeting they had been confronted by land-rights advocates in Virginia and the positive reception was in stark contrast to those meetings.

The conference itself was also a resounding success: over two hundred people attended two days of meetings in Lexington that brought together speakers from all over the country to exchange ideas and look at methods for saving our nation's Civil War heritage. The conference and the ABPP emphasized the importance of forming partnerships to find creative ways of preserving land when the shrinking government made finding large sums of federal money difficult at best.

That same year saw the Middle Creek Battlefield, a CWSAC site in extreme eastern Kentucky, earn listing as a National Historic Landmark. Also, the Mill Springs Battlefield Association purchased their first 19 acres with funds from The Civil War Trust, the KHC, and moneys they raised locally. Wildcat Mountain

Battlefield, also a CWSAC site, erected two interpretive signs as part of a Kentucky Bicentennial project. The result of these efforts was that by the end of 1992 the KHC had a Civil War Sites Preservation Program in everything but name.

In 1993, the preservation effort mushroomed and my job as the "Civil War guy" was pretty much confirmed. This was a year of rapid development as the Kentucky Department of Travel, with input by the KHC, created their first heritage tourism piece. This publication included a 25-stop tour of Civil War sites across the state. The Heritage Council has enjoyed a close relationship with the Department of Travel ever since and we have worked together on numerous projects.

Also in 1993, the Heritage Council first made a strong commitment of grant funds to Civil War projects. Of slightly over \$100,000 in grant funds, some \$38,500 went to Civil War sites. These funds were spread over six projects at four sites, and only one, the Battle of Richmond, was a CWSAC site. The KHC has always had a strong HPF grant program and once we became serious about working with Civil War sites, we began to use our grant funds to help them. This was essential since the ABPP funds were limited to priority-one sites, and in Kentucky that meant Perryville and Mill Springs. Never underestimate what \$5,000 can do for a fledgling organization.

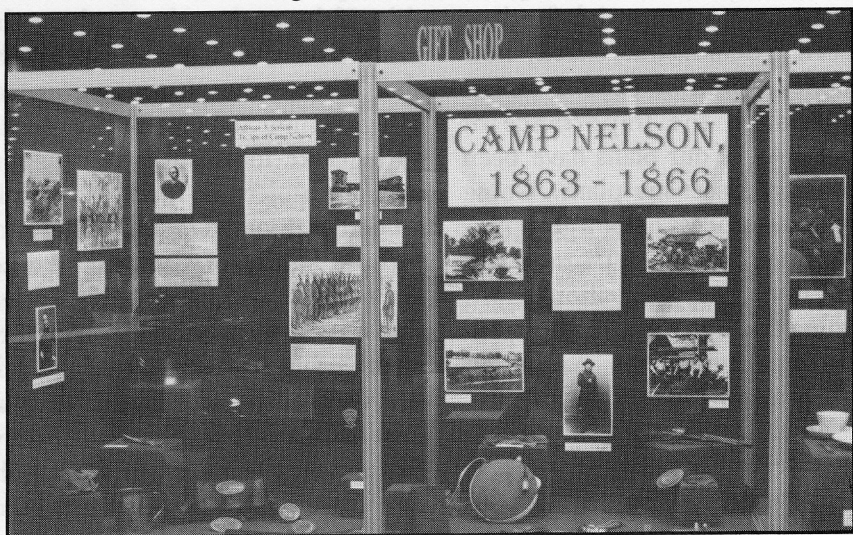
The key to our program has been the willingness on the part of the State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO), David L. Morgan, to make our funds and staff stretch as far as possible. This means that staff will, in special situations, do National Register nominations themselves rather than use grant funds to pay consultants. This occurred for Mill Springs, Fort Duffield, Middle Creek, Fort Sands, and the statewide multiple-property nomination for the Civil War monuments. We were proactive instead of reactive. Often I would go to areas that had sites and encourage them to apply for grant funds or offer them technical assistance. Of course, this often meant long hours and a lot of travel.

As you might imagine, this kind of commitment is not without its rewards. By 1994 our efforts had not only gained national recognition, but we were gathering steam in the Commonwealth. To help our partners, we had begun publishing a Civil War newsletter that included information on grants, research, and other forms of technical assistance. In addition we held a Civil War preservation conference in Harrodsburg that drew nearly 100 people from within the state and the region. Our goal was to develop partnerships with the local nonprofit organizations, and to help them partner with their local governments and other governmental agencies to enhance their efforts.

In 1994 we turned the corner with our program. Two sites, Camp Nelson and Fort Duffield, received ISTEA funding. Again, neither of these sites was a battlefield. The key to their success was that both had committed nonprofit groups who worked closely with their local governments. The Heritage Council also worked with the Kentucky Department of Parks to help it develop a preservation and management plan for Columbus-Belmont State Park. This was a straight partnership project. We brought in people from the NPS, Murray State University (MSU) and the University of Kentucky, Kentucky Department of Travel, and of course our staff. We held a community meeting at the park and then spent a day and a half hammering out the

details. As a result, we have developed a better working relationship with parks.

Another development from that project has been our relationship with Murray State University, which has become a strong partner in the preservation process. MSU has worked with us and other agencies to obtain funding to help several sites in the western Kentucky area. MSU archaeologists have worked over the past several years at Fort Smith in Livingston County. These efforts have involved the local high school and have created an atmosphere of pride within the community that simply did not exist before. The public history program at MSU has helped at Columbus-Belmont and Sacramento. Bill Mulligan's article



The Camp Nelson archaeological display at the 1997 Kentucky State Fair. This was part of a larger exhibit "Kentucky African Americans in the Civil War: The Defining Moment in the Quest for Freedom" sponsored by the Kentucky Heritage Council, Kentucky State University and the Kentucky African American Heritage Commission .

[in Part 2 of this series] will go into these efforts in great detail, so I will simply say that they have been an important part of our effort, one that has made a huge difference within our state.

All of these efforts paid dividends. Not only did our sites see the benefits of working with their local governments and universities, but we began to develop a process for the nonprofits to bring their sites "on line," if you will. First, if the site was not listed in the National Register, we urged them to have a nomination prepared, and as noted we often prepared it for them. We then encouraged them to develop a preservation and management plan. Such a plan gives each effort legitimacy; this cannot be stressed too much. Once a plan is developed a site can go to potential funding sources and demonstrate exactly how the money would be used. I cannot stress enough the importance of planning. All of our plans have been community consensus plans. Going through this process helps a group focus and often brings new partners and players into the preservation effort. Just going through the planning process is important to the maturation process of a nonprofit group.

Reality Check

From the above narrative it would appear that we had no problems and everybody was in favor of everything that we tried. It might also seem we did it all by ourselves, with a little

help from the ABPP. Well, yes and no. The CWSAC survey revealed that the battlefields at Paducah, Ivy Mountain, and Barbourville were lost. The problems related to urban sprawl, even in towns as small as Barbourville, can easily destroy a fragile resource. The battlefield at Paducah actually was mostly gone by the late 19th century. Ivy Mountain, or Ivy Narrows, was lost when the narrows were bulldozed away for the improvement of U.S. Highway 23 between Prestonsburg and Pikeville in eastern Kentucky. Local historians were aware of the battlefield at the time of the road construction in the 1920s, and a memorial arch was promised, but never built.

One truism is that nothing can be accomplished without local leadership. If the reader takes nothing else away from this article, he or she should remember that a state or federal governmental agency cannot buy or legislate local support. Without that, any project, no matter how well-funded, is doomed to fail. Fort Sands and the Battles of Cynthiana reflect the problems when no local leadership exists. Fort Sands is a pristine earthen fort complex constructed in late 1862 to protect a vital railroad trestle. Located in Hardin County, Kentucky, just north of Elizabethtown, a mid-sized Kentucky community, Fort Sands' location astride Interstate Highway 65 makes it a prime location for tourists. The fort is in private hands, but the landowners

have expressed a desire to have the site open to the public. Several well-attended public meetings demonstrated support for a project to identify and mark the Civil War sites in the Elizabethtown area. However, no person was identified to lead the effort. Consequently, nothing has happened. The landowners are frustrated at the inactivity.

The situation at Cynthiana is similar. Confederate General John Hunt Morgan attacked this Bluegrass town twice, once in 1862 and again in 1864. Portions of two of the battlefields remain intact. In fact, the battlefield was given a priority-two rating by the CWSAC. To date, this office has been unable to find anyone in Cynthiana or Harrison County who is willing to lead a preservation effort. Again, there has been little activity in the area.

Friends, Partners, and Self-help

As a historian one of my on-going pet peeves is that all too often, especially in the interpretation of Civil War sites, the event or place is not put into context. Therefore, it is important that our Civil War sites preservation effort needs be placed into context as well. Even though we would like to, we can't take all of the credit for doing everything all by ourselves: coming up with all the ideas and arranging all of the conferences and publicity. We didn't, but we took advantage of every opportunity that came our way.

Perhaps one the most useful efforts we have participated in has been The Civil War Trust's Civil War Discovery Trail. To date, this is only national effort to promote and market Civil War sites as heritage tourism destinations. We were one of the early partners with the trust on this venture. The KHC and the Kentucky Department of Travel have worked together to make this program successful in our state. The Civil War Trust designed the trail to ensure its success. No site could be on it unless properly interpreted. The reason for this is simple: there is nothing worse than sending tourists 50 miles out of their way and, when they get there, all they get for their efforts is a pasture and a highway marker. This leads to frustration and bad word of mouth.

We now have over 50 sites on the Discovery Trail. These include everything from battlefields to house museums to cemeteries. Once the initiative began, people wanted to know: "How can we get on that trail?" A site's inclusion on the trail has helped gain wider support for some sites. When the local tourism office begins to get calls from all over the country wanting to get information on their site, it makes them take notice.

The sale of Civil War commemorative coins also proved to be a plus for at least two of our sites. Both Perryville and Mill Springs received funds from the coin sales. However, we went a step further and utilized a

ceremony at Mill Springs to help kick off the drive to sell the coins. In January 1995, United States Treasurer Mary Ellen Withrow came to Nancy, Kentucky, to unveil the Civil War commemorative coins. This event drew several hundred local people on a very cold January day. It brought a great deal of positive publicity too for the efforts at Mill Springs, and again demonstrated what strong grassroots support can do.

But perhaps the most significant development to date has been our judicial use of ISTEA funding for our Civil war sites. Kentucky's SHPO, David L. Morgan, realized the potential impact this funding could have not only on Civil War sites, but on historic preservation in general. Morgan worked closely with the Kentucky Department of Transportation and helped them develop the committee that evaluated the ISTEA applications. The net result of Morgan's foresight is that over \$4 million of ISTEA enhancement funds have been made available to six Civil War sites. This windfall has brought about a profound change in the landscape of Civil War sites, and by the year 2000 Kentucky will have some of the best state, local, and private battlefield parks in the nation.

While ISTEA has accounted for the lion's share of the funding going to Civil War sites in Kentucky, these funds have only made their way to six sites. On the other hand, the KHC

has expended nearly \$200,000 at fifteen sites across the Commonwealth. This seed money has helped small organizations grow and get themselves into the position to seek funding of the magnitude offered by ISTEA. In addition to our funding, moneys from the Kentucky Humanities Council, the Kentucky Oral History Commission, a state parks bond issue, and a matching grant fund administered by the Kentucky Department of Travel have affected a total of twenty Civil War sites statewide. To date, \$6,362,037 has found its way to sites; over \$1.2 million of that was money raised locally.

Our success is due to a willingness to work hard for our constituency, help them find creative ways to fund projects, going into the field to help them. We do not expect people to come to Frankfort to meet with us. Most of these people are volunteers and they work during the day. So it is often up to us to go to them and meet with them when and where it is the most convenient for them. We have guided them through the grant process and have offered them technical advice or helped them find it from other sources. We have benefited from the SHPO's attitude toward preservation and use of the limited funds available to us. The long and short of it all is that hard work, creativity, and local support are the secrets to success. Without them none of this would have been possible.

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The Making of the "Lee's Retreat" Driving Tour

During the spring of 1993 I found myself about to play a role in one of the most phenomenal happenings dealing with Civil War history and the American public. Two civic leaders and I met in Farmville, Virginia, to discuss possible efforts for regional tourism. One was a member of the Prince Edward County economic development board, another was the director of Petersburg's tourism department, and then there was me, a historian for the National Park Service at Petersburg National Battlefield. We talked of the commonalities this region, historically known as Southside Virginia, held. It was pointed out that the most well-known historical event, "Lee's Retreat" (the Appomattox Campaign of April 1865), passed through many of the counties in the area—counties which might be interested in working together on some type of project. In the next few weeks I was asked to lay out a possible driving tour, while the others contacted officials from jurisdictions which might be affected.

At our first general meeting we had county administrators, directors of economic development, directors of tourism, and elected officials, along with personnel from the Virginia Division of State Parks since one of the sites, Sailor's Creek Battlefield, is under its authority. We then had to sell them on our proposal, even though we had absolutely no idea where the money for such a project might come from.

We eventually formed a loosely knit group called "The Southern Piedmont Retreat Consortium." It originally contained representatives from seven counties (Amelia, Appomattox, Buckingham, Cumberland,

Dinwiddie, Nottoway, Prince Edward) and one city, Petersburg. By April we were holding a planning retreat to design a strategy for our group—that being to increase tourism and economic development activity for the region involved in the proposed undertaking.

One of the first assignments I had was determining which route (of the four used by the Confederate army as it left Petersburg and Richmond) to follow toward the first destination, Amelia Court House. In this last campaign of the war in Virginia, a portion of General Robert E. Lee's men left from Richmond, another passed through Chesterfield Court

House, a third on the north side of the Appomattox River through Chesterfield County, and a fourth through Dinwiddie County from the lines west of Petersburg. In ascertaining the route we would use for the driving tour, there were a couple of factors I had to look at first. These included what points of interest relating to the campaign were available for the public to see, and whether the scenery itself was enjoyable enough for a leisurely drive through the countryside.

Since three of the routes, including the one Lee himself took, cover the territory between Richmond and Petersburg, I examined them first. Unfortunately, development is quickly urbanizing Chesterfield County, as mile after mile showed new subdivisions being thrown up. Since the Union army did not pursue the Southerners on this portion of the march, there would also be no military action to interpret. In fact, the only historical site connected with the campaign is the plantation "Clover Hill," which was the Cox home at Winterpock where Lee and other Confederate officers dined. Because this private home is not immediately visible to the public from the road, it was determined that the three routes through this county were probably not the best to follow. Besides, we thought, if anybody still wants to trace any of these particular by-ways they can do so by using my published guide for driving Lee's retreat.¹

Since the existing auto (tape) tour for Petersburg National Battlefield ended at the Five Forks battlefield in Dinwiddie County, it seemed a logical choice to start "Lee's Retreat" from that point. The public could then follow the route of Confederate General Fitzhugh Lee's cavalry and General Richard Anderson's corps (Generals Bushrod Johnson and George Pickett), along with elements of General Henry Heth's infantry which were cut off during the final assault on Petersburg. This is also the route over which most of Union General Ulysses S. Grant's army immediately pursued the Confederate forces. Because of this, there would be many instances of military action along the way which could be seen and interpreted for the followers of the driving tour. Additionally, this route was the most pristine and picturesque. Therefore, it was decided that the tour would start near Sutherland Station, one of the last engagements around Petersburg which precipitated the retreat on April 2, 1865.

To make it interesting and enjoyable for our travelers, in putting together the tour I came up with at least two points of interest for every locality that was interested in participating. The only problem site was Nottoway County, through which none of Lee's army passed. A portion of Grant's did, though, and this would be explained in the village of Nottoway Court House. Another site in the county, although it had nothing to do

with the final campaign, was a cavalry battle fought on June 23, 1864, as part of the famous Wilson-Kautz Raid. I would loosely tie its story into "Lee's Retreat" by the fact that it centered around the destruction of one of Lee's soon-to-be-used supply lines, the South Side Railroad.

After a series of monthly meetings, eventually we had a package to present to the various localities. We proposed to develop a twenty-stop driving tour, with the interpretive information being provided to the public via remote radio transmitters. This idea came from one of the state park staff members who had used them

successfully at Sailor's Creek Battlefield. The followers of the tour would reach each point of interest, where, upon turning into a hard-surfaced pull-off, they could tune their radios to 1610 AM and hear a three-to-five-minute narrative on what actually happened at that site. A large metal map at each location would orient those who stop by and tell them how to use the radio station. The entire tour, around 100 miles in length, was estimated to take about four hours to complete, ending with a visit to Appomattox Court House National Historical Park.

While everyone thought the idea



Lee's Retreat. The Fork Inn at Sutherland Station. *Photo by Brian J. Soule, 1998.*

was great, we still wondered where we would get the money from to finance such a project. We first applied for a grant from the American Battlefield Protection Program, but at that time they weren't financing such interpretive ideas. Then information came to us on the Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act, better known as ISTEA (pronounced "ice tea"). Under this program, a grant could be given for 80% of the cost of a project which enhanced highways and byways, with a 20% match having to be provided by each county or city. We then decided to try this approach. After developing our grant proposals, it came time to go in front of the various county boards of supervisors and plead our case.

Receiving almost unanimous support from most of the communities, we went about completing the program by applying for the grants. Soon though, we had our first controversy. A few members of the public had a problem with the terminology "Lee's Retreat." They argued that Lee never retreated, but was only withdrawing from his position. In fact, to some, he was actually advancing. It didn't matter that all the Virginia state historical markers, placed in the 1930s, were titled "Lee's Retreat." Nor the fact that a driving tour done in the late 1950s also was marked with signs saying "Lee's Retreat" (see endnote 1). In standing firm on our decision to use this designation for our newly developed tour, I ended up writing a

treatise, using primary sources and contemporary accounts, to prove that it was indeed a retreat. (This was later included in my book on the Appomattox Campaign as a sidebar.)² Unfortunately, the debate caused one county to not participate in the tour initially, as its supervisors deferred any action favoring it.

We eventually were able to successfully compete for two ISTEA grants for our project, the cost running in the neighborhood of \$607,000. Besides purchase of the twenty radio transmitters, asphalt pull-offs needed to be constructed, easements obtained from landowners, and signs erected. Of special note is the fact that out of the twenty property owners we dealt with, nineteen donated their easements. Two individuals, whose property was at first left off the tour for privacy reasons, actually approached us and asked to be included, which we happily did. This says a lot about the local support we received.

Others in the group worked with designers for a colorful brochure and a tear-off pad map of the drive, while I developed the various historical scripts. In doing so I had to keep within a certain time limit, yet give a story that would build upon itself from site to site. Even though the tour was touted as "Lee's Retreat," the narrative was actually written in a nonpartisan way so that the story would be told from both points of view.

Diligently continuing our work on the tour, we set a completion date for the spring of 1995 to coincide with the 130th anniversary of the campaign. All representatives in the consortium worked extremely well together, with various facets coming together on schedule. It was decided that the first week in April would be the grand opening of the tour. It was then that things really began to happen as the media began to report the story of our efforts.

Article after article appeared in the local newspapers, and were soon picked up by the major dailies. Finally, television began appearing on the scene. The idea of presenting history to the public in this novel way stirred up quite a bit of interest. Every forward movement in developing the project was the subject of a piece in the papers.

The big moment came when I received a call from a nice lady in New York. She said she represented *Life* magazine and they wanted to do an article on "Lee's Retreat." Putting her in touch with other members of the consortium, she set up a schedule to come down to Virginia. She brought along a contract photographer to visit with me first, and we ultimately began our tour of the route. Along the way we met various consortium members who helped with the article. Eventually, in April 1995, *Life* came out with a special section on "Places of the Year 1995." It was called "Great Retreats" and four pages were de-

voted to our "Lee's Retreat" tour. It was illustrated with ghostly images from sites along the drive.

To make matters even better, that same month was to be our grand opening of the auto tour. We hoped that the governor of Virginia, George Allen, would come to Farmville and give the opening remarks of our media kick-off. Then something unexpected happened again.

A few days before our ceremony, a politically and racially charged issue took place in Danville, Virginia, along the North Carolina border. Apparently the chair of the Republican party spoke at a Confederate heritage program, and this offended certain individuals of the community. Of course they vented their feelings to the news media. Members of our group wondered if this controversy would spill over into our program, since we were dealing with the issue of the Civil War. We pondered what to do. It was decided that I would give a quick opening statement to set the tone of our ceremony, then introduce the governor and his wife.

Trying to be as nonpartisan as possible with my speech, it, and the remaining program, went off without a hitch. Nothing derogatory was said about what we had accomplished with the consortium. Congratulations were extended to all.

That the program was eventually a success can only be shown in a study done later of the printed materials alone generated by this story. Com-

piling all known articles from the various national newspapers and determining their circulation, it was estimated that over 8.5 million individuals were exposed about what we had accomplished! The program was also nationally recognized as one of the top twenty-five ISTEA projects of the year.

Local television stations continually carried stories about "Lee's Retreat" and soon other regions of the state started taking note of what we had developed. The historical community in particular saw what we did; that is, actually interpret for the general public's enjoyment not just a battle but an entire campaign. The localities between Fredericksburg and Petersburg shortly began studying the feasibility of a similar driving tour for the Overland Campaign of spring 1864. To be known as "Lee vs. Grant," it will use wayside exhibits rather than radio stations to explain its numerous historical sites. Eventually it will connect with the "Lee's Retreat" tour at the downtown Petersburg visitor center.

Other localities have taken on their own projects: The Peninsula Campaign, the Shenandoah Valley Campaigns, Mosby's Confederacy, Northern Virginia—all are among the many interpretive military campaign tours in the works. The Virginia Department of Tourism has provided great support for these undertakings and developed an overall connecting tour encompassing the routes under

the umbrella title of "Virginia's Civil War Trails." Brochures, a free newspaper, and new state map all carry information about the various regions and are available at most welcome centers.

With the achievements of our initial 20-stop driving tour being recorded through visitor surveys done by Farmville's Longwood College School of Business, the local communities wanted more. Tagging onto a third and final ISTEA grant, we added six more stops to the tour. It now begins at Petersburg in front of the original ante-bellum South Side Rail Road station. After completing "Lee vs. Grant" and visiting Petersburg National Battlefield, interested individuals can continue along the route of the armies to Appomattox, spending time at the newly established Pamplin Park Civil War Site (a private park) in Dinwiddie County along the way. Nottoway County added two more sites at Crewe and Burkeville Junction, while Buckingham County joined in on the tour this time around with two sites. The effect of the program on economic development along the route is now becoming apparent. "Heritage tourism" is the buzzword being used for our interpretive "product." Clean in its demeanor, jobs in the service industry thrive off of it. Visitors come, spend money, then go on to the next community and do the same.

Another aspect that has come out of our group's efforts is the addition

of a brochure called "Virginia's Retreat." It deals exclusively with the outdoor recreational opportunities along the retreat route. This particular program was funded with a grant from the Virginia Department of Conservation and Recreation. Since most of the tour passes through rural areas and generally follows the Appomattox River, many parks, boat landings, etc., are available for public use. This is just another way to develop the natural assets of the Southern Piedmont region.

The Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management at Virginia Tech University adopted the tour as a pilot project for the utilization of the Internet to promote Virginia history and tourism. We also can be found on another Web site under the title of "Lee's Retreat."

As I sit back and look over what this "reinvention of the wheel" has become, it's sometimes hard to believe. Others in the past have marked the route of Lee's in one way or another. Did they get this kind of response? What caused this one to be so popular? Was it Ken Burns and his PBS television series on the Civil War that sparked this interest? Undoubtedly this documentary made the American public more aware of the war, even if there are those who don't agree with the program's contents.

Who knows?—but history written for public consumption seems to have generated quite an interest in this subject.

As far as my role, I was honored to be able to tell the story of both armies during those final days on the road to Appomattox. To make it more accessible to the American public was also an accomplished goal. Seeing these historic sites along the tour being recognized and, I hope, preserved for forthcoming generations has also provided gratification to me. But I think the real reason I wanted to be part of this venture is found in a letter we received from a follower of the driving tour.

Hailing from North Carolina, her great-great-grandfather was mortally wounded in the battle of Sailor's Creek. She wrote: "It is so obvious how much work and research and time went into the endeavor, and I just wanted to let you know how very impressive it all is. We stopped at each transmitter and listened to the words and gazed at the area and I must admit that there were times I weeping. I felt so honored that people cared so much about what my great great grandfather and those other brave men went through to pay them such tribute. Thank you." That pretty much says it all.³

Endnotes

1. Christopher M. Calkins, *From Petersburg to Appomattox: A Tour Guide to the Routes of Lee's Withdrawal and Grant's Pursuit, April 2-9, 1865* (Farmville, Va.: The Farmville Herald, 1983). The "Lee's Retreat" consortium eventually worked together with the

nonprofit firm Eastern National to put together a sales-item package which contains a cassette of the driving tour narratives, the above publication, and another of my works, *Thirty-Six Hours Before Appomattox*, (Farmville, Va.: The Farmville Herald, 1980). In the late 1920s the Virginia State Commission on Conservation and Development began a program of placing highway historical markers at points of significance in the Commonwealth. One subject matter addressed was "Lee's Retreat." By the latest count, some thirty-one signs have been placed under this category dealing with its various historical episodes. In 1956, the Virginia Department of Highways developed a 20-stop tour called "Lee's Retreat Route from Petersburg to Appomattox." It was researched by Wilmer R. Turner of Blackstone and his "work was carefully studied by the Historical Division of the State Library and authenticated prior to submission of the idea to the Appropriations Committee" of the General Assembly. Two thousand dollars was allocated for small black and white signs which carry a crossed saber and rifle logo encircled with "Route of Lee's Retreat." During the early 1960s, Eastern National Park & Monument Association (precursor to today's Eastern National) published a small tour brochure for those wishing to follow the basic route of the armies from the Wilderness to Appomattox. They suggested following either Lee's route from Petersburg to Amelia (north of the Appomattox River), or the same route from Five Forks that we prescribed.

2. Chris Calkins, *The Appomattox Campaign, March 29-April 9, 1865* (Conshohocken, Pa.: Combined Books, 1997), see pp. 180-1. Another controversy arose when a local supervisor (and newspaper editor) in Nottoway County became upset about the lack of detail in the script for the Battle of Nottoway. I explained to him that only so much could be said in three minutes and that the test was written for the casual listener who had no knowledge of the Wilson-Kautz Raid or its purpose. Afterwards a wayside exhibit was placed at the site with battle maps and extensive narratives, and this seemed to placate him.
3. Doris G. Kinney, "Great Retreats," *Life* (April 1995), pp. 78-82; Virginia's Retreat, *Driving Tour of the Route of Lee's Retreat*, Media Summary 1993-1995. *Southern Living* magazine, not counted in this summary, also did a feature on the tour by Les Thomas (April 1996), pp. 2va - 5va. Longwood College Business School and Virginia's Retreat, *Lee's Retreat: Visitor's Survey Results, Fall 1996*. In a survey question concerning satisfaction with the tour, the majority indicated that they were most satisfied with the route: 77.8% said they would recommend the route to others, 74.1% liked the narrations at the pull-off sites, and 70.4% said they would return. Communication from Peter Laws, lawsp@vt.edu, "Lee's Retreat" Web site; letter to author from Susan Smith-Carpenter, 31 May 1995.

Chris Calkins, Petersburg National Battlefield, 1539 Hickory Hill Road, Petersburg, Virginia 23803



Places of Quiet Beauty: Parks, Preserves, and Environmentalism, by Rebecca Conard (Iowa City: University of Iowa Press, 1997). Illustrated. 382 pp. paperbound.

Reviewed by Ron Cockrell

Places of Quiet Beauty is not a history of Iowa parks and preserves per se, but Rebecca Conard effectively traces the progression of Iowa's park system within the context of twentieth-century environmentalism. The park movement evolved from a desire "to centralize control over resource use," with outdoor recreation and scenic preservation serving merely as secondary motivations. Iowa's example is therefore atypical of our common perception of how the U.S. conservation movement came to be, traditionally portrayed as dueling camps of conservationists and preservationists. As Conard demonstrates, such was not the case in Iowa, and thus lays down a challenge for historians to trace park movements in other states to test the veracity of our pet model.

Many readers will be surprised to learn that Iowa held a leading position in the state park movement early this century. So pleased was National Park Service Director Stephen T. Mather with Iowa's progress that in 1921 he helped organize the first meeting of the National Conference on State Parks in Des Moines, aiming a national spotlight on the state's expanding park system. [See Conard's 1997 article "The National Conference on State Parks: Reflections on Organizational Genealogy," *THE GEORGE WRIGHT FORUM*, Vol. 14, No. 4, pp. 28-43—ed.] It ranked fourth in terms of numbers of parks, behind only New York, Michigan, and Texas, and Iowans demonstrated their support by visiting these special places in record numbers. After World War II, as Conard shows, the

state allowed its leadership to wane because of state politics and increasing federal mandates.

Conard introduces key players by providing in-depth biographical sketches based on their own records and through interviews with their colleagues, students, and relatives. She succeeds in capturing their individual ideas and motivations. This admirable skill enriches *Places of Quiet Beauty* by making otherwise dull issues pertinent and pressing.

Agitation to set aside for conservation purposes a system of parks came from Iowa's academic community. Thomas Macbride, professor of botany at the State University at Iowa City, first proposed it to Iowans in 1895. Natural scientists associated with the Iowa Academy of Science pushed for a park system where re-

source conservation would dominate state land stewardship in protecting these special areas from depredation. Their effort culminated in the 1917 State Park Act and establishment of the Board of Conservation.

Conard contributes to women's history by detailing how this powerful coalition integrated the staunch support of clubwomen. Later, women exercised a distinct voice in policy formulation as state board or commission members.

Botanist Louis Pammel, the first Board of Conservation director, advocated a park system that captured Iowa's environmental diversity, and, to a lesser extent, its cultural resources deemed worthy of preservation. In 1933, the fish and game bureau merged with Pammel's group to form a new State Conservation Commission. An array of New Deal alphabet relief programs funded conservation work geared toward recreational development, but Pammel's successor, Jay Darling, insisted upon strict resource management principles guided by an overly ambitious twenty-five-year conservation plan.

This historian first picked up the book and, giving the table of contents a quick perusal, turned to the index to satisfy a long-standing research interest. In order to judge the degree of federal guidance over the state park movement, I searched for the entry "National Park Service" (NPS) and found only several pages cited under "national parks, in relation to state parks." While the index curiously omits NPS, Conard nevertheless

gives the federal bureau's role substantial treatment.

As was the case elsewhere, Iowa parks were transformed by the New Deal, principally through Civilian Conservation Corps labor, directed by NPS. Blessed by presidential resolve to "give Iowa all it wants," Iowa had planning documents on hand, ready to take full advantage of the financial avalanche, and often contributed state funds to cover any shortfalls. Iowa had already implemented its own brand of rustic architecture that NPS subsequently formalized and imposed nationwide on New Deal construction. In fact, many park planners or design engineers of the era were graduates of Iowa State University's school of landscape architecture. So much was happening in Iowa that the NPS inspector relocated from the Omaha regional office to Ames. Indeed, Iowa officials were perturbed with the Omaha office for not processing its paperwork fast enough to keep the money-powered steamroller going. In the willy-nilly spending race, Iowa inevitably strayed from its stringent resource management approach, and went in other directions not provided for in its twenty-five-year plan.

Following a period of stagnation during World War II, Conard reveals how historic preservation became an emphasis as a pet project of Commissioner Louise Lange Parker, with assistance from the botanist Ada Hayden, whose own professional interest included prairie preservation. Recreation gained ascendancy in the

1950s, with flood control and artificial lake construction inflating the numbers of state parks while operational budgets remained flat. The State Preserves Act of 1965 triggered the onset of environmentalism as Iowans scrambled to incorporate remnant natural and cultural areas into a state system so dominated by recreational use. Parks became secondary in importance to fish and game interests, and remain so today.

Conard elaborates on the pivotal role state politics has played concerning Iowa parks and preserves. She concludes with a discussion of Iowa's governmental reorganization of 1986 and its aftermath, at long last fulfilling Louis Pammel's call to blend conservation with pollution-control functions in the new Iowa Department of Natural Resources. While Conard's epilogue analysis is insightful concerning obstacles facing the infant department, events are too recent to

draw meaningful conclusions beyond enumerating goals and political realities. State managers, however, have Conard to thank for providing them the historical context upon which they can make informed policy decisions.

While one may wish that Conard somehow could have worked the four-letter-word "Iowa" into her title, *Places of Quiet Beauty* exhibits few flaws. Conard, a native Iowan, has produced a well-researched and -reasoned monograph, one that masterfully explores deeper issues of resource management within the historical progression of environmentalism. Aside from the not-so-small task of making an important historiographical contribution, Conard intrigues the reader about Iowa and imbues a desire to visit and experience firsthand those "places of quiet beauty."

Ron Cockrell is with the National Park Service's Midwest Support Office in Omaha, Nebraska.



On the Frontiers of Conservation: Discovery, Reappraisal, and Innovation **Call for Papers**

The George Wright Society's 10th Conference on
Research and Resource Management
in Parks and on Public Lands

March 22–26, 1999
Great Smokies Holiday Inn SunSpree Resort
Asheville, North Carolina

"My father said to me, If you take one step with all the knowledge you have,
there is usually just enough light shining to show you the next step."

—Mardy Murie

To continually seek a fresh perspective on people, places, and one's time is the hallmark of a questing spirit. Parks and other protected areas are special places that draw those who wish to chart new horizons of knowledge and understanding. Far from being isolated, static, or frozen in time, every place—from the largest wilderness area to the smallest historic site—holds insights on nature, culture, and our communities. The 1999 George Wright Society conference will explore parks and protected areas as:

- ✧ Places of discovery, where we gain understanding through scientific and historical inquiry, experience of place, and personal reflection.
- ✧ Places of reappraisal, where we invigorate the past with new interpretations, reassess the meaning of nature, and search for a renewed relationship to our environment.
- ✧ Places of innovation, where we celebrate connections of people and place, and forge new approaches to conservation and the management of resources.

We encourage people submitting abstracts for inclusion in the concurrent and poster sessions to relate their proposed presentations to these aspects of the park experience. This is not a requirement, however, and we welcome abstracts from both GWS members and non-members on any topic related to research, resource management, and public education in parks and protected areas, from any field in natural or cultural resources. We are interested in work taking place anywhere in the world and at any level of protection

Conference Format

Four Plenary Sessions, in which all attendees come together to consider issues related to the theme of the conference, as outlined above.

Approximately 45 concurrent sessions, each lasting two hours, with up to five running simultaneously. Concurrent sessions can take a range of formats, including paper presentations, debates, panel discussions, and workshops. Presentations in concurrent sessions do not necessarily have to relate to the conference theme, although that is encouraged. The topics of concurrent sessions are either (1) predetermined by the Conference Committee (see the tentative list below), (2) taken from session proposals sent in response to this Call for Papers, or (3) put together from a grouping of individual abstracts received.

The Concurrent Sessions are divided into three tracks: a *Management track* for case studies and discussions of resource management and park administration issues;

an *Analysis & Synthesis track* for papers describing park-related research or those with a philosophical- or policy-oriented focus; and a special, regionally focused track devoted to *Appalachian Issues*.

A Poster Session, in which graph-ical presentations, exhibits, and com-puter demonstrations are presented. The poster session runs continuously on Monday and Tuesday of the conference week. A "Poster Spotlight" period on Tuesday afternoon will provide a chance for presenters to interact with other attendees.

All-day Field Trips, Wednesday of the conference week. These are learning experiences integrated into the conference.

Special Events such as a welcoming reception, evening discussions, side meetings, and the GWS Awards Banquet.

Possible Topics for Sessions in the Management Track

- Management of Threatened and Endangered Species
- Wilderness Management
- Wildlife Ecology and Management
- Vegetation Ecology and Management
- Managing Collections and Museums
- Inventory and Monitoring of Natural Resources
- Recreational and Tourism Impacts
- Partnerships Between Agencies and Communities
- Interpretation and Public Education
- Ecological Restoration
- Fire Ecology and Management
- Air Quality
- Water Quality
- Management of Invasive and Exotic Species
- Social Science Research
- Protected Areas Networks
- Parks in the Urban-Suburban Matrix
- Marine Protected Areas
- Managing Freshwater Ecosystems
- Cross-Jurisdictional Issues

Possible Topics for Sessions in the Analysis & Synthesis Track

- Public History and Public Opinion: When Revision and Tradition Clash
- Stewardship of Cultural Landscapes
- Interpreting Controversial Resource Issues to the Public
- Understanding Park Visitors and Users: Who, What, and Why
- Scientific Research in Protected Areas: Does Management Really Benefit?
- The State of Science and Resource Management in the U.S. National Parks
- The USGS-BRD and Protected Areas
- Rethinking Park Boundaries: Working Across Lines on the Map
- Are Protected Areas Really Protecting Biodiversity?
- Park Use in the Frontcountry

These topics are tentative; some may be added or deleted depending on the abstracts received. (And if you think your presentation might fit one or more of these topics, please so indicate on the abstract submission form.)

Eight Types of Abstracts Will Be Considered:

(1) A *Case Study Paper* has a relatively narrow focus (looking, for example, at a resource management project in a single park) and is mostly descriptive, although each case should have broader relevance for other protected areas. Case Study Papers accepted for the conference will be assigned to a concurrent session within the Management Track. Individual papers are allotted 20 minutes each, with a consolidated Q&A period at the end of each concurrent session.

(2) An *Analytical/Synthesis Paper* either has a research focus or else is mainly theoretical or policy-oriented: for example, a paper discussing the application of ecosystem management to protected areas, or one reviewing the effect of repatriation laws on the management of cultural artifact collections. Analytical Papers accepted for the conference will be assigned to a Concurrent Session within the Analysis & Synthesis Track. Individual papers are allotted 20 minutes each, with a consolidated Q&A period at the end of each concurrent session.

(3) A *Proposal for a Concurrent Session* within either the Management Track or the Analysis & Synthesis Track can take any number of forms, such as paper presentations, a panel discussion, a debate, or a combination thereof. Concurrent sessions do not necessarily have to relate to the conference theme, but those that do are encouraged. The abstract should indicate any such connection. The abstract should also indicate who will chair the session, what format it will take, and who will be invited to participate. If the session will involve the presentation of papers, be sure to give full information on title(s) and author(s). **IMPORTANT:** People invited to present papers, serve as panelists, or otherwise take part in these sessions must register for the conference just like anyone else—even if they are only coming to the conference to participate in this one session. (An inexpensive single-day rate is available.) This is a perennial point of confusion. If you are proposing a concurrent session, it is your responsibility as organizer to ensure that your invited participants either will pay their own way, or else cover their registration fees for them.

(4) A *Workshop* is a working session open to any conference registrant. In a Workshop, registrants can come together to work on or provide input into a specific project or product. An example might be a Workshop to gather input on a set of guidelines. Workshops will be scheduled at the same time as the Concurrent Sessions or, possibly, during the evening. Workshops cover a minimum of two hours; proposals for longer workshops will be considered. Make sure to indicate the length of the Workshop in your submission.

(5) A limited amount of space will be available for small-group *Side Meetings*. These working sessions differ from Workshops in that they are by invitation only. If the Side Meeting proposal is accepted, the title of the meeting and its location will be given in the conference program; the abstract will be used for conference organizing purposes only, and will not be published.

(6) A *Poster* is a graphically oriented presentation which is placed on a vertical poster board. Poster presentations are well-suited for visual data such as extensive maps and graphs, and for sharing information about ongoing projects that may not warrant the more formal presentations of a Concurrent Session.

(7) A *Computer Demonstration* may be an example of a GIS, a database, a WEB site, etc., and will be included in the Poster Session. If you wish to give an Internet demonstration, there will be a surcharge for the necessary modem line.

(8) An *Exhibit* is a pre-manufactured informational display. It may be free-standing or table-top. Exhibits will be accepted on a space-available basis, and will be part of the Poster Session. Noncommercial displays will be accepted free of charge. Potential commercial exhibitors must contact the GWS office for space availability and rental information. The dimensions of the exhibit, and whether it is free-standing or table-top, must be given in your abstract submission.

Conference Proceedings

A proceedings book containing papers from the conference will be published in September 1999. All registrants will receive the proceedings as part of their registration fee.

Interested in Chairing a Session?

We are always looking for volunteers willing to chair concurrent sessions that have been put together from the abstracts received in response to the Call for Papers. Session chairs are responsible for: (1) touching base with the presenters in their session before the conference (the GWS coordinates this); (2) seeing that individual presentations run on time and in an orderly fashion; and (3) coordinating the Q&A period at the end of the session. It's a great way to meet new colleagues! If you are interested, please indicate on your submission.

How to Submit Abstracts

•Abstracts (no more than 150 words) must be submitted in electronic format, either via the on-line form on the WEB, via stand-alone e-mail, or on diskette (accompanied by a hard copy). Faxed abstracts cannot be accepted.

<http://www.portup.com/~gws/gws99.html>

• **We urge you to use the on-line abstract submission form.** We much prefer to receive abstracts by this method. It is by far the easiest way for us to process your abstract, and, we think, the easiest for you as submitter. Your submission will be promptly acknowledged by return e-mail, so be sure to indicate your e-mail address in the space provided (some browsers do not return this information automatically).

• If you wish to use your stand-alone e-mail program to send in your abstract, or to submit on diskette, include all the information asked for on the on-line form. You **MUST** indicate the type of abstract you are submitting. Be sure to embed the abstract within the body of the e-mail—do not send it as an attachment. Your submission will be promptly acknowledged by return e-mail.

• If you submit on diskette, enclose a hard copy in case of compatibility problems.

• Don't forget to include a title for the presentation.

• For session proposals, clearly indicate who will chair the session and what each of the participants will be doing.

• The name, affiliation, address, telephone/fax, and e-mail of each author, presenter, discussant, or participant must be included. If someone other than the lead author is the presenter or primary contact, please mark his or her name with an asterisk.

• We also ask for a very brief (no more than 25 words) biographical sketch of each presenter which will be used to introduce her or him by the session chair.

• Don't exceed 150 words! Format the abstract as a single paragraph.

DUE DATE E-mail or postmark abstracts no later than October 15, 1998. Abstracts will be selected by the Conference Committee in early November and notification to all submitters will go out in mid-November.

SUBMIT TO:

The George Wright Society
ATTN: 1999 GWS Conference Abstracts
P.O. Box 65, Hancock, Michigan 49930-0065 USA
gws@mail.portup.com

Questions? Contact the GWS office—we're always glad to help. Phone: 1-906-487-9722.

Registration and Special-Event Fees

A note about conference fees and financial support. The GWS depends on income derived from these biennial conferences for our operating budget. We try to set our registration and special-event fees at amounts comparable with those charged at similar conferences. We offer a reduced registration fee to GWS members, to currently registered students, and to presenters and chairpersons in concurrent sessions and the poster session. We also have a registration fee designed to meet the needs of participants who can only come for a single day. Please be aware that we do not expect to have any money available for travel stipends or scholarships—nor, regrettably, are we in a position to offer registration fee waivers.

About the GWS . . .

The George Wright Society was founded in 1980 to serve as a professional association for people who work in or on behalf of parks and other kinds of protected areas and public lands. Unlike other organizations, the GWS is not limited to a single discipline or one type of protected area. Our integrative approach cuts across academic fields, agency jurisdictions, and political boundaries.

The GWS organizes and co-sponsors a major U.S. conference on research and management of protected areas, held every two years. We offer the FORUM, a quarterly publication, as a venue for discussion of timely issues related to protected areas, including think-pieces that have a hard time finding a home in subject-oriented, peer-reviewed journals. The GWS also helps sponsor outside symposia and takes part in international initiatives, such as IUCN's World Commission on Protected Areas.

Who was George Wright?

George Melendez Wright (1904-1936) was one of the first protected area professionals to argue for a holistic approach to solving research and management problems. In 1929 he founded (and funded out of his own pocket) the Wildlife Division of the U.S. National Park Service—the precursor to today's science and resource management programs in the agency. Although just a young man, he quickly became associated with the conservation luminaries of the day and, along with them, influenced planning for public parks and recreation areas nationwide. Even then, Wright realized that protected areas cannot be managed as if they are untouched by events outside their boundaries.

Please Join Us!

Following the spirit of George Wright, members of the GWS come from all kinds of professional backgrounds. Our ranks include terrestrial and marine scientists, historians, archaeologists, sociologists, geographers, natural and cultural resource managers, planners, data analysts, and more. Some work in agencies, some for private groups, some in academia. And some are simply supporters of better research and management in protected areas.

Won't you help us as we work toward this goal? Membership for individuals and institutions is US\$35 per calendar year, and includes subscription to the Forum, discounts on GWS publications, reduced registration fees for the GWS biennial conference, and participation in annual board member elections. New members who join between 1 October and 31 December are enrolled for the balance of the year and all of the next. A sign-up form is on the next page.

The George Wright Society

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Dues and contributions are tax-deductible in the USA.

\$10.00 of your membership goes to a subscription to THE GEORGE WRIGHT FORUM.

Note: Except for Life Memberships, all dues are good for the calendar year in which they are paid. New members who join between 1 October and 31 December will be enrolled for the balance of the year and the entire year following. *Special Note to Canadian Applicants:* If paying dues in Canadian funds, please add 25% to cover our bank fees.

Optional: Please name your profession or occupation and any specialty, expertise, or area of professional interest:

Mail payment to: The George Wright Society, P.O. Box 65, Hancock, MI 49930-0065 USA. Would you rather be billed? Just fax this form to 906-487-9405 or e-mail us at gws@mail.portup.com and we'll invoice you.

Thank you!

Submitting Materials to THE GEORGE WRIGHT FORUM

The Society welcomes articles that bear importantly on our objectives: promoting the application of knowledge, understanding, and wisdom to policy-making, planning, management, and interpretation of the resources of protected areas and public lands around the world. The FORUM is now distributed internationally; submissions should minimize provincialism, avoid academic or agency jargon and acronyms, and aim to broaden international aspects and applications. We actively seek manuscripts which represent a variety of protected area perspectives, and welcome submissions from authors working outside of the U.S.A.

Length and Language of Submission Manuscripts should run no more than 3,000 words unless prior arrangements with the editor have been made. Articles are published in English; we welcome translations into English of articles that were originally prepared in another language. In such cases we also publish an abstract of the article in the original language.

Form of Submission We no longer accept unsolicited articles that are not also accompanied by a 3.5-inch computer disk. Almost any such disk can be read in its original format (please indicate whether your disk is formatted for IBM or Apple, and note the version of the software). A double-spaced manuscript must accompany the disk in case of compatibility problems. We have also begun to accept e-mailed submissions; please check with the editor for details before submitting in this format.

Citations Citations should be given using the author-date method (preferably following the format laid out in *The Chicago Manual of Style*). In exceptional instances we will accept other conventions for citations and reference lists; call the GWS office for details.

Editorial Matters; Permissions Generally, manuscripts are edited only for clarity, grammar, and so on. We contact authors before publishing if major revisions to content are needed. The FORUM is copyrighted by the Society; written permission for additional publication is required but freely given as long as the article is attributed as having been first published here. We do consider certain previously published articles for republication in the FORUM. Authors proposing such articles should ensure all needed copyright permissions are in place *before* submitting the article for consideration.

Illustrations Submit original (not photocopied) line drawings, charts, and graphs as nearly "camera-ready" as possible. If submitted in a size that exceeds the FORUM'S page dimensions (6x9 inches), please make sure the reduction will still be legible. Avoid the use of dark shading in graphics. The preferable form for photographs is black-and-white (matte or glossy) prints. Medium contrast makes for better reproduction. Color prints and slides may not reproduce as well, but are acceptable. Half-tones from newspapers and magazines are not acceptable. We particularly welcome good vertical photos for use on the cover, either in black-and-white or color. Please provide captions and secure copyright permissions as needed.

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