

6. Forest Users and Uses

The purpose of this section is to describe various past and current uses of the Prescott National Forest (PNF) as well as the multiple groups that engage in these uses. This includes use for both extractive and non-extractive purposes as well as special uses and user groups. The following subsections include historical context and user groups, extractive users and uses, non-extractive users and uses (including recreation; recreation planning; special users and uses, such as Native Americans, wildlife, wilderness; and illegal uses).

A review of available data on users and uses within the Prescott NF is consistent with larger surveys of trends at the regional and national levels. These trends show a marked decline in extractive uses of national forests concurrent with an increase in recreational use, particularly in visitors to wilderness areas and users of off-highway vehicles (OHVs). These and other socioeconomic factors discussed in this section present significant challenges for multiple-use management of the PNF.

6.1 Historical context and user groups

Federal agencies often struggle to balance the needs and wishes of different users on public lands. Not long after the establishment of the first national forest reserves in 1891, Congress passed the Organic Act to help direct the management of those forests. The forest reserves, later to become the national forests, were to be used in a way that protected or improved the forest itself (including protection from fire), secured waterflows for use in other areas, and provided a reliable supply of timber. Public lands deemed to be more valuable for mineral extraction or agricultural uses were not to be included in the national forests, and individuals were allowed free use for certain extractive purposes. Essentially, all types of use were permitted, provided that the use was not destructive to the forest. At the time, this was considered to include grazing, recreation, the construction of homes and resorts, and use for rights of way. The essential aim of the policy was to use the forests wisely to support local, regional, and national development and growth (USFS 1993).

A practical doctrine of managing for multiple uses eventually developed out of the conflict and cooperation among competing users and user groups. This doctrine was formally expressed in the 1960 Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act (USFS 1993). Managers were directed to give equal consideration to all resource users, and national forest lands were to be used in the ways that best met the needs of the American people. They were specifically not to be managed with the singular goal of maximizing output or economic profit (Fedkiw 1998). Similarly, the National Forest Management Act of 1976 “reinforces the mission laid out in other governing statutes—that the agency will both provide goods and services, such as timber and recreation, and protect forest resources, such as clean air and water, aesthetics, and fish and wildlife habitat” (GAO 1999a). However, multiple-use laws generally provide little or no guidance as to how forests should balance conflicting or competing uses (GAO 1999a).

Fedkiw (1998) describes managing for multiple uses as, “the fitting of multiple uses into ecosystems according to their capability to support the uses compatibly with existing uses... in ways that would sustain the uses, outputs, services, and benefits, and forest resources and ecosystems for future generations.” From this perspective, forest users and uses are seen as the primary drivers of management. These ideas will be crucial in this section, which aims to describe how the Prescott National Forest is used, who uses it, and how trends in forest users and uses compare to historical and national trends.

Uses and users of the national forests can be defined roughly as being either extractive or non-extractive. Extractive uses include livestock ranching, timber cutting, and mining. While not strictly extractive, the use of public lands for infrastructure (such as power lines and communication sites) is also included in this group. Recreation is the most common non-extractive use although the national forests are also

commonly used for research and tribal activities. Hunting, fishing, and gathering, though arguably extractive, are included here because they are considered in recreation data. Notably, forest use can also be legal or illegal.

6.2 Extractive users and uses

Nationally, livestock grazing, timber cutting, and mining are the most common extractive uses on national forest land. Although extractive uses have historically played a major role in public-lands management, most recent evidence seems to suggest that they are being slowly succeeded in policy and management by an emphasis on non-extractive uses (Davis 2001). Also, environmental citizen groups and recreation users are increasingly challenging extractive uses.

In fiscal year 2002, 7,750 operators were permitted to graze livestock on a total of about 95 million acres of available FS-administered land (Vincent 2004).¹ As Davis (2001) notes, the number of permits issued for livestock grazing on public lands has decreased slightly overall in recent years. However, in 2000, the PNF issued fifty-one grazing permits. This number was unchanged from 1990.

The FS sells timber for a variety of reasons, most commonly to support local mills and communities that were, in some cases, built around a specific forest's timber supply and to modify forest structure or composition to meet a variety of management goals (Gorte 2004). Timber sales on national forest land have been steadily decreasing since the late 1980s, when total production reached 11 billion board feet annually (GAO 1999b). In contrast, just over 2 billion board feet were harvested during fiscal year 2004, at a total value of approximately \$218 million. An additional \$3.17 million in special forest products, including Christmas trees, fuel wood, mushrooms and berries, and the like, were harvested that year (USFS 2005g). In 1997, the FS timber sales program reported a loss of \$88.6 million (GAO 2001a).

Timber cutting in the PNF includes sawtimber, small-diameter wood, and fuelwood. In 2000, the last year for which data are currently available, the forest issued permits for 1,295 mbf of sawtimber, which represented a slight decrease from 1990. Permits for both small-diameter wood (868 mbf in 2000) and commercial fuelwood (875 mbf in 2000) have increased since 1990. Illegal timber cutting and wood use are two of the most common infractions by forest users (see *Illegal Uses* below).

Mining in the national forests is directed by the General Mining Law of 1872, which allows individuals and corporations free access to prospecting on FS lands. Upon discovery of a mineral resource, an individual or corporation can then stake a claim, which allows full access to mineral development, and can in turn be patented to claim full title to the deposit. Small fees are generally required to stake, maintain, and patent a claim (Humphries and Vincent 2004). Nationally, mineral and energy production, from gravel to gold to carbon dioxide, totaled about \$2 billion in fiscal year 2003 (USFS 2005i). In 2002, Region 3 issued \$557,042 in sale permits and \$1,773,756 in free use permits for mineral extraction (Jevons, pers. comm.). In 2002, Prescott issued a total of fifty-one permits for the sale and free use of nearly 50,000 tons of minerals (nearly all landscaping or decorative rocks, gravel, and cinders). The total value of these permits was approximately \$98,000 (Jevons, pers. comm.).

Forests also commonly allow communities and other entities to use public lands for infrastructure, including power lines, rights of way, telecommunications, and the like.

6.3 Non-extractive users and uses

Non-extractive users, particularly recreation users, play a major role in forest use and planning. The national forests are mandated to provide outdoor recreation opportunities in natural settings, to maintain

¹ Data given are the most recent available.

and enhance open spaces and public accessibility, and to maintain and enhance “cultural, wilderness, visual, and natural resource values” through a variety of management tasks and activities (FSH 2302). However, unmanaged recreation has also been identified by the FS as one of four “key threats” to the nation’s forests and grasslands. As participation in outdoor recreation increases, the FS predicts that recreation pressure on undeveloped areas in most of the Southwest and Rockies regions will be heavy. Much of this pressure can be traced back to population trends throughout the West. The use of OHVs (discussed below) is seen as a major component of unmanaged use (USFS 2005j).

Recreation use has increased steadily throughout the history of the national forests. Over the past few decades, the growth in recreation has been truly extraordinary. Participation in camping has increased from about 13 million people in 1960 to 19 million people in 1965 to almost 58 million people in 1994-95 (Cordell et al. 2004). The 2004 Roper Report estimated that nine in ten Americans had participated in some sort of outdoor recreation during the previous twelve months (RoperASW 2004). However, the same report showed a decline in recreation participation beginning in 2001. It attributes this trend in part to travel concerns following September 11, 2001 but also to the expansion of indoor recreation opportunities through Internet and television (RoperASW 2004). Cordell and others (2004) also note slight decreases in several categories of outdoor recreation following September 11. Nationally, there were 209 million national forest visits in 2001. The forests of the Southwest Region (region 3) received 19.5 million visits² (USFS 2001e).

Arizona in particular (but also the West and the nation in general) has experienced significant demographic changes in recent years, and these demographic trends have likewise influenced recreation trends. In Arizona, where more than 42% of the land base is managed by federal agencies for public use, the population has increased about tenfold since 1940 to more than 5 million people in 2000. The state had the second largest growth rate in the nation in the 1990s (Arizona State Parks 2003). Perhaps even more importantly, the proportion of Arizona residents living in urban areas has increased dramatically, so that more than 88% lived in urban settings by the year 2000 (Arizona State Parks 2003). In phone surveys conducted by the Arizona State Parks in 1994 and 1998, nearly 50% of Arizonans said that they had visited an Arizona national forest within the previous twelve months (Arizona State Parks 2003). Access to public lands is considered a major contributor to quality of life by many Arizonans, and many parks and forests are experiencing very high recreational use even while urban expansion is decreasing the amount of available open space. As a result, this trend of increasing pressure on recreational resources can be expected to continue well into the future.

According to National Visitor Use Monitoring (NVUM) data, the 1.25 million acres of the Prescott NF received approximately 772,000 visits during fiscal year 2002. A majority of visitors to PNF are male (67.3%). Visitors are predominately white (95.1%). Spanish, Hispanic, or Latino visitors make up approximately 3.5% of total visits. Most visitors, an estimated 76.2%, are between the ages of 31 and 70, and an estimated 24.8% are over the age of 50. None of the visitors interviewed in NVUM surveys were from a foreign country. The most frequently reported zip codes were from the Flagstaff area (Kocis et al. 2003a).

Recreation Planning

The Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) system provides a framework for understanding recreation users, their needs and wishes, and the abilities of forests to accommodate these (USFS 1982). As understood through an ROS lens, a recreation opportunity consists of three elements: the activities, the setting, and the experience. All land and water resources are classified in one of six categories, based on physical, social, and managerial criteria.

² However, for the latter figure there is a 41.2% margin of error at the 80% confidence level.

Table 1. Description of ROS Classifications

Category	Description
Primitive	Setting is unmodified and remote and of a fairly large size. Users are generally isolated from one another, and typical activities include hiking and walking, viewing scenery, horseback riding, tent camping, and hunting.
Semi-Primitive Non-Motorized	The environment is predominately natural and of moderate to large size. Users' opportunities to experience solitude are less than in primitive areas, but user density remains low. Motorized activities are not permitted.
Semi-Primitive Motorized	Setting is similar to semi-primitive non-motorized, but off-road motor vehicles are permitted.
Roaded Natural	Setting is predominately natural but with a moderate level of human impact. There is a probability of contact with other users. Roads are present, and there may be substantial motorized use, including automobiles, buses, trams, and boats.
Rural	Setting is substantially modified. Facilities and management practices allow multiple uses and a large number of users and may be designed to facilitate specific activities. There is convenient access, and user density is moderate to high.
Urban	Levels of modification and user convenience are high and characteristic of urbanized areas. Opportunities to interact with other individuals and groups are emphasized.

Source: USFS 1982

Another important element of recreational setting is scenic integrity, or the visual quality of the landscape. The Scenery Management System guides forests in planning management activities that harmonize with existing natural landscapes (USFS 2001e).

The activities that recreation users prefer can also provide a guide for land management planning. The National Survey on Recreation and the Environment (NSRE), which tracks national outdoor recreation trends, lists the ten most popular recreation activities, summarized in Table 30 below for 2000-2001 (Cordell et al. 2004):

Table 2. Ten Most Popular Recreation Activities, NSRE 2000-2001

Activity	Percent of Population Participating
1. Walking for pleasure	83.0%
2. Family gatherings	73.5%
3. Visiting nature centers	57.1%
4. Picnicking	54.5%
5. Sightseeing	51.8%
6. Attending outdoor sports events	49.9%
7. Viewing historic sites	46.2%
8. Viewing/photographing wildlife	44.7%
9. Swimming (lakes, streams)	41.8%
10. Swimming (outdoor pools)	41.0%

Source: Cordell et al. 2004

As Table 30 illustrates, walking is currently the most popular outdoor activity. 83% of the adult population participates annually. Of the nearly 177 million people estimated to have walked outdoors for pleasure within the last year, an estimated 71 million did so in the form of a day hike or a visit to a wilderness or primitive area (Cordell et al. 2004). The most popular activities, such as picnicking, sightseeing, and swimming, tend to be available in a variety of settings and readily accessible to families and groups. Less popular activities, such as specialized hunting, rock climbing, and sailing, tend to require specialized equipment, specific skills and knowledge, and greater physical stamina (Cordell et al. 2004). Even activities that are only moderately popular, such as mountain biking, driving off-road, canoeing, or sledding, attract many millions of users annually (45.6 million, 37.2 million, 20.7 million, and 31.2 million, respectively). The three least popular activities, snowshoeing, orienteering, and migratory bird hunting, claim a combined total of approximately 13.1 million participants annually (Cordell et al. 2004). NSRE data for several general kinds of outdoor activities are summarized in Table 31 (Cordell et al. 2004):

Table 3. Participation in General Outdoor Activities, NSRE 2000-2001

Activity	Percent of Population Participating
Viewing/learning/gathering activities ³	88.4%
Developed site activities	94.9%
Trail activities	40.4%
Swimming/surfing/beach activities	62.8%
Motorized activities	62.0%
Hunting and fishing	38.1%
Snow activities	19.3%
Risk activities	35.2%
Other non-motorized activities	22.8%

Source: Cordell et al. 2004

³ Viewing/learning/gathering activities are defined as, "visits to... recreation sites, wildland, or open space sites... to watch study, identify, photograph, sample, observe, and learn about natural or cultural history, or to gather natural products" (121).

The PNF includes ten campgrounds, four group reservation campgrounds, seven picnic areas, and two group reservation picnic areas. Fishing is available in the Verde River and Lynx Lake, and both are stocked with rainbow trout by the Arizona Game and Fish Department. Nearly 450 miles of trails are available for hiking, backpacking, horseback riding, or mountain biking, and opportunities for hang gliding, rock climbing, and whitewater rafting are also available. The Chino Valley ranger district, which covers the northern parts of the forest, has no developed recreation sites and instead emphasizes dispersed recreation; fuelwood use; and watershed, wildlife, and range management.

The five most popular activities for visitors were hiking/walking (61.9% participation), viewing wildlife (60.1%), viewing natural features (57.5%), general relaxing (52.0%), and driving for pleasure (20.1%). Hunting, picnicking and camping at developed sites and the use of bicycles and OHVs were also very popular (Kocis et al. 2003a). While the most popular activities are generally similar among Arizona's six national forests, hiking and walking are more popular and driving on roads is less popular in Prescott NF than in most other Arizona forests.

6.4 Special users and uses

A number of special user groups merit attention in Arizona's national forests. They are unique in that they do not fit into the profile of the majority users described above. Some user groups need special accommodation, and this accommodation can at times become politically charged.

Tribes

Federally recognized American Indian tribes occupy about 53.5 million acres (7%) of land in the western states. These tribes are legally considered to be sovereign nations, so the relationship between the FS and tribes is a government-to-government relationship (Toupal 2003). Tribes that enter into contracts with the federal government do so just as state governments or sovereign nations do (NFF and USFS 2005). However, the federal government also holds a special responsibility to consult with tribes over management issues that may affect them. This process is governed by a variety of federal regulations and policies, including the Forest Service Handbook (FSH 1509.13), the National Environmental Policy Act, the National Indian Forest Resources Management Act, the Tribal Forest Protection Act, the Archeological Resources Protection Act, and several presidential executive orders.

Tribes' use of FS land includes free activities such as gathering boughs and basket materials for which permits are unnecessary as well as the use of products such as sawtimber, for which fees are charged (pers. comm.). In 2003, the National Tribal Relations Task Force recommended a legislative proposal that would authorize the USFS to allow federally recognized tribes to use forest products for traditional cultural purposes free of charge. In addition, many national forests contain traditional cultural places whose locations are known only to the tribes. Because the tribes cannot divulge the locations, they cannot apply for permits (personal communication).

OHV Users

On public lands throughout the country, the use of OHVs has increased in popularity and is now a major concern to many forest managers. Between 1982 and 2000, OHV users increased more than 109% nationally (Cordell et al. 2004). In 1995, a GAO study found OHV use on federal lands to be generally undermanaged. The FS, according to the study, devoted limited funding and staffing to managing OHV use and relied heavily on state funding (GAO 1995). According to surveys conducted by the Arizona State Parks, most Arizonans consider the provision of OHV recreation opportunities to be a lower priority than other services, such as the preservation of cultural resources and natural areas. More Arizonans,

however, considered management for OHVs to be important in a 1998 survey than in an earlier survey (Arizona State Parks 2003).

In 2004, the FS proposed a new rule to help manage OHV recreation in the national forests. Under the proposed rule, forests would establish a system of roads, trails, and areas designated for motor vehicle use and would prohibit the motor vehicle use that is off the designated system or inconsistent with the designations. This system would replace the previous assumption that all areas are open to OHV use unless specifically posted otherwise (USFS 2004j).

Wildlife Users

The National Survey of Hunting, Fishing, and Wildlife-Associated Recreation collects longitudinal data on anglers, hunters, and wildlife watchers in the United States (USFWS 2001). The 2001 survey found that 82 million U.S. residents 16-years and older participated in some wildlife-associated recreation during that year: 34.1 million fished, 13.0 million hunted, and 66.1 million engaged in some sort of wildlife watching activity (including photographing, observing, or feeding fish and other wildlife). Their spending totaled an estimated \$108 billion, or 1.1% of the U.S. GDP. That year's 38.7 million hunters and anglers accounted for approximately \$70 billion of that amount (USFWS 2001). Generally, the rate of growth in fishing participation has been greater than U.S. population growth since the survey began in 1955 whereas the growth in hunting participation has failed to keep up with population growth during that time. There has also been an overall decrease in wildlife-watching activities since 1980 (USFWS 2001). However, birding (viewing or photographing birds) has been the fastest growing recreational activity since the early 1980s, adding more than 50 million participants and growing 231% in just under twenty years (Cordell et al. 2004).

In the PNF, wildlife viewing is a more common activity *than* either fishing or hunting. NVUM data from 2002 show that 60.1% of the visitors interviewed participated in some sort of wildlife viewing activity; however, only 6.3% described it as their primary activity.⁴ Approximately 8.5% of interviewed visitors fished (with nearly all of those describing it as their primary activity), and about 6.0% hunted. 5% used a developed fishing site or dock (Kocis et al. 2003a).

Wilderness users

With the Wilderness Act of 1964, Congress laid the foundation for a National Wilderness Preservation System comprised of federal lands, "where the earth and its community of life are untrammelled by man, where man himself is a visitor and does not remain" (16 USC 1131 et seq.). Wilderness areas are designated by Congress and are generally protected from commercial enterprises, road construction, mechanical vehicles, and structural development. The Forest Service Handbook directs managers to minimize the impact of human use while protecting the wilderness character and public values of wilderness land (FSH 2320.2).

As a result of these management requirements, wilderness areas are open to some uses (e.g., primitive camping, backpacking, horseback riding, hunting, and fishing) and closed to others (many extractive uses, bicycling, and off-highway vehicles), and the decision to designate a roadless area as wilderness can be controversial. However, many forest users value the solitude and isolation, closeness to nature, and self-reliance experienced in wilderness areas. Activities available in wilderness or primitive areas attract millions of visitors nationally. For example, an estimated 34.1 million Americans participated in primitive camping in 2000-2001 while participation in backpacking and mountain climbing drew an estimated 22.8 million and 12.9 million visitors respectively (Cordell et al. 2004).

⁴ The NVUM definition of wildlife viewing appears to be somewhat broader than that used by the national survey discussed above.

The PNF includes 100,000 acres of wilderness, including all or portions of eight designated wilderness areas, and 140,000 acres of inventoried roadless areas (USFS 2001c). Users of designated wilderness areas fit a profile similar to other forest users. They are largely male (60.5%), white (97.4%), and generally travel from the Flagstaff and, to a lesser extent, Phoenix metro areas. NVUM data suggest that roughly 17,000 wilderness visits were made during fiscal year 2001 (Kocis et al. 2003a).

Special use permits

While research is rarely considered by the public to be a major use of federal lands, the Prescott, like most forests, issues special use permits for research purposes.

6.5 Key issues for forest planning and management

Extractive and non-extractive uses of national forests are often seen as competing with one another, and balancing the uses of different user groups can be challenging. Livestock grazing is no exception. Overgrazing, especially on arid lands, can seriously damage ecosystems. Soil erosion, watershed destruction, and the loss of native plants are commonly cited as potential impacts. In the late 1980s, the most recent reports issued by the USDA and Department of Interior on the condition of grazing allotments showed that more than half of the public rangelands were in either poor or fair condition, and a GAO survey of range managers' professional opinions showed that the BLM and FS authorized grazing levels higher than the land could support on 19% of allotments (GAO 1988). Disagreements among citizen groups over the appropriate fee system for public-lands grazing, the refusal of some operators to pay grazing fees, the retirement of allotments, and calls for government buy-outs of permits are all key issues for both ranchers and other user groups (c.f. Section 9.2) (Vincent 2004).

Timber harvesting in the national forests has declined since the late 1980s (GAO 1999b). Meanwhile, a new emphasis is being placed on the utilization of small-diameter fuels, which are increasingly being removed from western forests to manage fire frequency and behavior. As public concern over wildland fire grows, the FS and other federal agencies have emphasized the development of a market for these fuels to help mitigate the costs of removal. For example, the 2004 Healthy Forests Restoration Act provides direct subsidies for the development of industries that use previously unmarketable biomass from mechanical thinning projects (16 USC 6531).

The policies that govern mineral extraction in the national forests have also come under increasing scrutiny over the past two decades. Public concern over the Mining Law of 1872, under which about 3.2 million acres of public land had been sold by the late 1980s, was sparked in 1986 when the federal government, under the law's patent provision, sold 17,000 acres for \$42,500 to patent holders who then almost immediately resold the land to oil companies for \$37 million (GAO 1989). A GAO report called for substantial changes to the law. Many of these controversial aspects of mining law remain unchanged today, and calls for reform continue (Humphries and Vincent 2004).

Meanwhile, as the western United States becomes increasingly urbanized, national forests are experiencing an increasing demand for recreational uses and, in many cases, decreasing support and demand for extractive uses. While these trends generally have not caused a clear rise in environmental or pro-conservation politics and policy, the forces of supply and demand are changing the face of the national forests (Davis 2001). The following figure, provided by the USDA Forest Service to the General Accounting Office, clearly illustrates these changes (GAO 1999a).

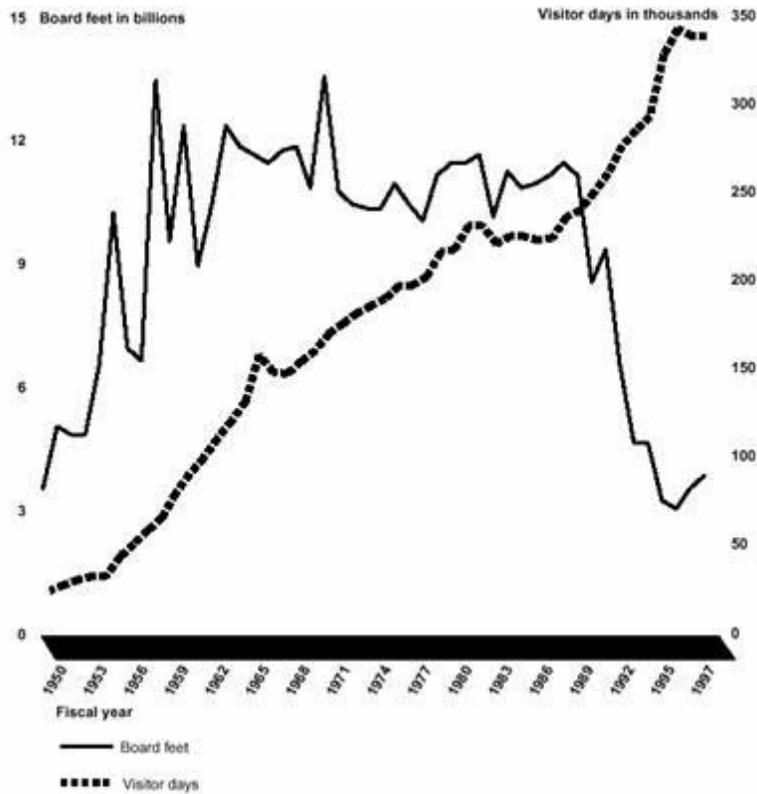


Figure 1. Visitor Recreation Days as Compared to Timber Extraction, 1950-1997

Several important management issues have arisen from demographic and use changes. As discussed above, recreation users represent a wide variety of uses, and their management priorities also differ significantly and sometimes come into conflict. NRSE surveys identify trends in characteristics of outdoor recreation trips, wildlife as a component of recreation trips, service and accessibility issues for persons with disabilities, and user attitudes and opinions concerning site attributes, funding, and management policy. These data show that, nationally, large proportions of recreation users visit both more developed areas, such as developed campgrounds and restaurants, and less developed areas, such as primitive camping areas, trails away from roads, and wilderness areas. At the same time, significant proportions of users prioritize such potentially contradictory values as accessibility and wilderness preservation or service provision and low use fees (Cordell, Teasley, and Super 1997). Striking an acceptable balance among these values will continue to be a major challenge for forest managers.

Under conditions of increasing recreation demand, simply maintaining services and facilities has become a challenge for many forests. Between 1989 and 1991, the GAO issued several reports on the condition of the FS's recreational sites and areas and found that funding levels were hundreds of millions short of what would be needed to complete backlogged maintenance and reconstruction for trails, developed recreation sites, and wilderness areas. Funding shortages and a lack of consistent, uniform monitoring data were cited as the primary roadblocks to recreation management (GAO 1991). However, the practice of increasing recreation fees to fill funding gaps has been contentious. In 1996, Congress authorized a recreation fee demonstration program, allowing land management agencies to test new or increased fees to help address unmet needs for visitor services, repairs and maintenance, and resource management. Evaluations of fee demo programs have cited concerns about equity, administration, interagency coordination, and the use of fee monies but concluded that increasing fees have not negatively impacted overall visitor numbers (GAO 1998, 2001b). Conversely, the fees charged for recreational special use permits, especially for large-scale commercial operations such as ski lodges, resorts, and marinas, have

been criticized for remaining well below fair market value (GAO 1996). For additional discussion regarding fees, see section 9.1

Changes over time in forest uses and user groups can and should help guide forest managers in land use planning. The need to balance the priorities and values of a wide variety of extractive and non-extractive users aptly demonstrates both the challenges and the benefits of multiple use doctrine.

7. Designated Areas and Special Places

This section describes those places in and around the Prescott National Forest (PNF) which have been designated for public uses, such as camping and picnicking, biking, hiking, OHV use, rock climbing, fishing, scenic drives and vistas, and so forth, or recognized as important to the public as so-called undesignated special places. An attempt was made to identify all designated areas and special places on the PNF. However, the nature of these resources makes this task difficult. As will be discussed in later subsections, some of these areas are held in secrecy by the parties who regard them as special (indeed that is why they are “special”) and, thus, there is reluctance by these people to disclose these places and their locations.

A review of available information on designated areas and special places suggests that the PNF contains considerable recreational, interpretive, and cultural resources. Forest GIS Staff provided specific names and locations of 109 designated areas within the PNF, including dispersed sites, campgrounds, picnic areas, and scenic areas. Additionally, various mountain ranges, canyons, and water sources throughout the Prescott NF are home to numerous special places for Native Americans, descendants of settlers, recreational users, and wildlife enthusiasts in central Arizona.

7.1 Historical context and methods of designation

Although the concept of special places has existed in social science literature for decades, the idea of incorporating it into forest management plans is relatively new. Traditionally, forest professionals focused on science-based management policies rather than on the subjective, difficult-to-quantify issues of public values (McCool 2001, Mitchell et al. 1993).

Special places can be described as spaces that have been given meaning by the humans who have experienced them in a way that inspired an emotional response (Cheng, Kruger, and Daniels 2003). Although often unrecognized in any official way, special places are significant to visitors of our national forests; however, the FS also recognizes special areas for their “unique or special characteristics” (USFS 2005c) and for the contributions the areas make to our public lands. These areas are noted for generally agreed-upon attributes such as scenic qualities, habitat significance, and other virtues and are delineated on FS maps. But, as will be shown, the distinction between those designated areas and special places—the subject of this section—involves more than semantics and, thus, is worthy of discussion.

The key difference between the two terms is that areas are considered special for their own attributes whereas the value of places derives from the people who experience them. A pristine riparian area, for example, is not necessarily a special place until a person or group forms an emotional attachment to it. More detailed explanations emphasize place as the intersection and integration of “ecological, economic, and spiritual values” (Williams and Patterson 1996) or of “biophysical attributes and processes; social and behavioral processes; and social and cultural meanings” (Cheng, Kruger, and Daniels 2003). All of these definitions make it clear that the idea of special places is complex, subjective, and often exceedingly difficult to define in a concise manner.

The methods used to identify these places were as follows. For the first category (i.e., designated areas) the Forest GIS Coordinator was asked to query the INFRA data base in order to identify the designated areas. Furthermore, many of these areas are also identified on the Prescott National Forest website found at <http://www.fs.fed.us/r3/prescott/recreation/>. Maps, geographic coordinates and brochures for these designated places can be found at <http://www.fs.fed.us/r3/prescott/maps/>.

The method used to identify the more elusive second category (i.e., undesignated special places) was to contact the forest archeologist. This individual was given the opportunity to name and describe, to the best of his ability, the key special places in the forest. Also, he was asked to identify the key user publics

and, finally, to specify the main management issues associated with these special places. Native American tribes are a particularly important constituency in the designation and protection of special places. The involvement of area tribes with the PNF is discussed in greater detail in the following section, Community Relationships.

7.2 Designated areas

Table 32 provides information on the designated areas within the Prescott National Forest.

Table 4. Designated Areas on the Prescott National Forest

Site Type	Site Name
Boating Site	Granite Basin Boat Launch
Boating Site	South Lakeshore Boat Ramp
Boating Site	Horse Thief Boating Site
Campground	Indian Creek Campground
Campground	White Spar Campground
Campground	Lower Wolf Creek Campground
Campground	Kentucky Springs Campground
Campground	Hazlett Hollow Camp Ground
Campground	Mingus Mountain Campground
Campground	Potato Patch Camp Ground
Campground	Yavapai Camp Ground
Campground	Punta Roca Proposed 25' Spur
Campground	Hilltop Camp Ground
Campground	Powell Springs Camp Ground
Campground	Lynx Camp Ground
Campground	Yavapai Area "B" 40' Spur Proposed
Horse Camp	Groom Creek Horse Camp
Campground	Descanso Proposed - 55'
Group Campground	Upper Wolf Creek Group Camp
Group Campground	Playground (Mingus Area)
Group Campground	Turkey Gulch Group Campground
Complex	South Lakeshore Day Use
Picnic Site	South Lakeshore Picnic
CUA Other	Horse Thief Lake
Fishing Site	Clear Creek Fishing
Fishing Site	Prairie Lane Fishing
Fishing Site	Sheep's Crossing
Fishing Site	Black Canyon Fishing
Playground Spec. Sport	Horse Thief Community Center
Interpretive Site (Major)	Lions Accessible Nature Trail
Trailhead	Lynx Creek Ruin
Interpretive Site (Major)	Groom Creek School House
CUA Day Use Area	Taylor Cabin
CUA Other	Palace Station Historical Area
CUA Other	Alvarez Family Homestead Barn
CUA Other	Alvarez Family Rock House
CUA Other	Alvarez Family Adobe House

Table 32 (cont.). Designated Areas on the Prescott National Forest

Site Type	Site Name
CUA Other	Dar Plantation
CUA Other	Walker Town Site
CUA Other	Charcoal Kiln
CUA Other	Charcoal Kiln (D-1)
Interpretive Site (Minor)	Shurlett Spring Environment Prot.
CUA Other	Cleator
Interpretive Site (Minor)	Lynx Lake Amphitheater
Interpretive Site (Minor)	White Spar Amphitheater
Interpretive Site (Minor)	Sheldon Mine
Interpretive Site (Minor)	Henderson Cabin
Interpretive Site (Minor)	Abby Place
Interpretive Site (Minor)	Arnold Place
Interpretive Site (Minor)	Geronimo's Cabin
Observation Site	Mingus Overlook (C)
Observation Site	Mingus Vista A
Observation Site	Fire Center Observation Point
CUA Day Use Area	Mescal Canyon
CUA Day Use Area	Caldwell Canyon
CUA Day Use Area	Hells Hole Cr 59
CUA Day Use Area	Silver Mountain Observation Pt.
CUA Day Use Area	Maverick Overlook
Group Campground	Granite Group Camp
Group Campground	Granite Proposed Group Camp
Boating Site	Lynx Lake Marina & Store
Picnic Site	Thumb Butte Picnic Ground
Picnic Site	Lynx Lake North Shore
Picnic Site	Beasley Flat Picnic Ground
Picnic Site	White Bridge Picnic Ground
Picnic Site	Bignotti Picnic Ground
CUA Day Use Area	Mt. Union Picnic Ground
Picnic Site	Mingus Vista (B)
Picnic Site	Skidmore Day Use
Picnic Site	Playa Picnic Ground
Picnic Site	Wekuvde Picnic Ground
Picnic Site	Mingus Picnic
Picnic Site	Spruce Mountain Pg
Picnic Site	Wekuvde Pic/Day Use Area
Picnic Site	Playa Picnic Day Use "B" Proposed
Picnic Site	Lynx Creek Gold Pan
Group Picnic Site	Thumb Butte Picnic Reservation (A)
Group Picnic Site	Thumb Butte Picnic Reservation (B)
Group Picnic Site	Groom Creek Picnic Site
Group Picnic Site	Five Springs Proposed
Playground Spec. Sport	Mingus Hang Glider Launch
Playground Spec. Sport	Alto Pit OHV Day Use Site
Playground Spec. Sport	Hayfield Draw OHV Day Use Site
Playground Spec. Sport	Prescott Sportsmen's Rifle Range
Snowpark	Mingus Summit/Rest Area

Table 32 (cont.). Designated Areas on the Prescott National Forest

Site Type	Site Name
Playground Spec. Sport	Horsethief Playground
CUA Day Use Area	Lynx Recreation Area
CUA Other	Horsethief Recreation Area
CUA Other	Granite Basin Recreation Area
Boating Site	Lynx Lake Reservoir
Boating Site	Horsethief Reservoir
Boating Site	Granite Basin Reservoir
Fishing Site	Mingus Lake
CUA Day Use Area	Coal Camp Trailhead
Trailhead	Woodchute Trailhead
Trailhead	Groom Creek Trailhead (307)
Trailhead	Ranch Trailhead (62)
Trailhead	Black Canyon Day-Use
Trailhead	Mingus Trailhead
Trailhead	Metate Trailhead
Trailhead	Cayuse Equestrian Trailhead
Trailhead	Grief Hill Day Use Area
Trailhead	Salt Flat Trailhead
Trailhead	Williamson Valley
CUA Day Use Area	Little Granite Trailhead
CUA Day Use Area	Hassayampa Trailhead And Overlook
CUA Day Use Area	Senator Trailhead
CUA Day Use Area	Horsethief Lookout Picnic Site

Source: T. Potter, GIS Coordinator, Prescott NF
INFRA Database

7.3 Special places

The concept of “Special Places” within the Prescott NF has never been treated in a focused or systematic manner. The only studies that marginally qualify are those that have dealt with tribal connections to the forest, but these are either outdated or too limited to provide broad-scale planning. To be sure, the information presented below is an informal “first attempt” toward providing some sort of basic information about “Special Places” and “Special Areas” within the PNF. Clearly, this effort is a work in progress.

Guidance for what will be presented about “Special Places” in the PNF will be based on the following parameters: 1) a description of all undesignated special areas on the forest, 2) description of the users of these areas, and 3) Forest Service views on the role of special places in the National Forest to the public. Because the information to be presented for these parameters has not been collected using any systematic or standard approach, the observations below are more like “impressions” rather than actual documentation supported by data.

Finally, the PNF acknowledges that many “Special Areas” and/or “Special Places” exist within the forest. The FS also recognizes that such places are not only historically based, but the selection of these places is an ongoing process that is determined by societal values. The challenge for the FS arises when competing values come into conflict over the use of these “Special Places or Areas.” However, through the process

of collaboration built on good information, understanding, and sensitivity, all parties can successfully navigate through competing values in hope of resolving issues related to Special Places and Areas.

Native American Special Places and Traditional Cultural Places

Ethnographic efforts to identify Native American special places in the Prescott area have been meager. The best-documented locations can be associated with Native American use, but this is strictly because early efforts were made to gather this kind of information.

The earliest and perhaps the most comprehensive study concerning Native American use of the area was done in the 1930s, focusing on the Yavapai. There were indeed 19th century references to Native Americans in the area provided by military personnel and travelers, and some even provided useful cultural information. Much of what is available today remains sketchy at best, and this pattern continues in contemporary reports.

With a better understanding of what tribes and nations can provide in terms of cultural histories and land-use patterns, a greater appreciation of tribal oral traditions has followed. In addition, the advent of legislation that supports the use of tribal traditional knowledge has provided researchers and land managers further support in tapping this unique and very useful resource.

Native American Indian tribes or Nations that have expressed cultural affiliation—at one time or another—to the lands within the PNF include the Yavapai, Yavapai-Apache, Tonto Apache, Fort McDowell Indian Community, Hopi, Navajo, Hualapai, and Zuni. Though these tribes and nations have expressed an interest in the lands administered by the PNF, there are actually few traditional cultural places or “special places” within the forest that have been actually identified. Though the locations of few of these places have been clearly defined, the reluctance to convey these locations can be partially understood within the framework of “protected” cultural knowledge. Clearly, while only a couple of such places within the forest have been alluded to, some are likely to include mountain tops; water sources such as rivers, springs, and seeps; transportation routes; former places of habitation; resource areas for hunting and gathering; and areas with cosmological importance. In the future, it would be most useful for land managers to develop a spectrum of ways to share information, information that benefits the management of resources as well as the protection of traditional cultural places.

Thus far, a limited number of areas have been designated as special by local tribes. The Yavapai Tribe has identified Granite Mountain, Sycamore Canyon, the Verde River area, and the Camp Verde Salt mine as special places to their community. The latter two sites have also been identified as special by the Yavapai-Apache and Hopi Tribes. Squaw Peak near the Verde River (Porcupine Mountain) is another special place for the Yavapai–Apache Tribe. Additionally, the Hopi Tribe has asserted that all archaeological sites are considered special.

Historic Special Places—Euro American

Historic use of the PNF and its nearby surroundings by Euro-American settlers began in the late 16th and early 17th centuries by Spanish explorers. It was not until the early 1860s that Europeans gained a strong and permanent foothold within the highlands of central Arizona through a focus on mining and services associated with mining. It was from that point on that “Special Places” for the historic period began to develop. In general, some of these places are connected to mountains, view sheds, water sources, rock formations, trails, roads, camping areas, health trends, summer homes, and their personal “feelings” about historic ties to the land.

Historic Areas and Uses of Local Interest

Communities in and around the PNF have developed close and long-lasting ties to the land. Mining—both placer and hard rock—was one of the earliest traditional uses in the Prescott NF. Today, this trend continues although not on the same scale as it did historically. Mining areas of special interest include Lynx Creek, Hassayampa River, Copper Basin, Big Bug Creek, Crown King, and a number of smaller areas and tributaries. Historic communities grew-up around areas such as Prescott, Walker, Groom Creek, Crown King, and many others. Today mining continues, mostly in the form of small-scale operations and recreational gold panning.

A small area in the PNF north of Chino Valley once supported three small, closely situated communities known as Puntenny and Drake/Cedar Glade. Puntenny was the earliest of the three, being established during the 1880s, followed by Cedar Glade (later named Drake) around the turn of the century. The history of these settlements is closely aligned with limestone quarrying and processing with the added advantage of having a rail line passing between all three settlements. Because of the availability of jobs, and perhaps some social or unknown reasons, these small settlements became a focal point for drawing young Hispanic workers and their families. This area remained active for some thirty years or so until limestone mining began to slow, causing the abandonment of Puntenny and Drake (Cedar Glade remained a Prescott National Forest District Office until 1963). Although the limestone industry and related employment has waned, Hispanics continue to be drawn to the area because of jobs associated with mining tabular sandstone that is used for decorative purposes in homes. The significance of the Puntenny/Cedar Glade/Drake area to the Hispanic population is probably associated with employment, yet there may be other social reasons why this area was favored by them as well.

Ranching was also an early use of the Prescott NF and remains so today. Ranches are closely tied to allotments, which are themselves historic areas located in the forest. The ranching lifestyle is expressed in ranches that are adjacent to the National Forest and their associated “improvements,” such as spring developments, “tanks,” fences, corrals, pastures, line shacks, and a myriad of cattle trails.

The Prescott area has always been viewed as place where those living in lower elevations can find climatic relief from the summer heat. Two developments—Iron Springs and the Horsethief Basin Resort—were built on national forest land specifically for that purpose as were a number of other summer home areas. PNF campgrounds and dispersed camping areas offer the same climate-relief opportunities as did earlier, more formalized developments.

Because the Prescott NF provided a cooler climate and contained numerous open spaces, organizations such the Boy Scouts, the YMCA, and churches constructed camps in the forest. These camps have been active for over fifty years, and they remain an important use by these organizations.

Scenic Special Use Areas

The characteristics that seem to draw people to scenic areas in the PNF appear to be associated water, view sheds, geology, wildlife, solitude, and vegetation. Special areas with these attributes are visited time and time again, stretching back to historic and, possibly, prehistoric timeframes. Some of these are very specific locations and are visited often while others are more general in nature. Areas and places in the Prescott NF that fit this category of use are Thumb Butte (Bradshaw Ranger District), Sycamore Canyon (Chino Valley Ranger District), Walnut Creek (Chino Ranger District), Camp Wood (Chino Valley Ranger District), Mingus Mountain (Verde Ranger District), the Hassayampa River (Bradshaw Ranger District), the Verde River (Verde Ranger District), Granite Mountain (Bradshaw Ranger District), Granite Basin Lake (Bradshaw Ranger District) and Lynx Lake (Bradshaw Ranger District), Sierra Prieta Overlook, the Yavapai Ranch area (Chino Ranger District), and the Cellars Basin/Southwest area of the Bradshaw Mountains (Bradshaw Ranger District).

Congressionally designated wildness areas in the forest include Juniper Mesa Wilderness (Chino Valley Ranger District), Apache Creek Wilderness (Chino Valley Ranger District), Sycamore Canyon Wilderness (Chino Valley Ranger District), Granite Mountain Wilderness (Bradshaw Ranger District), Castle Creek Wilderness (Bradshaw Ranger District), Woodchute Wilderness (Verde Ranger District), Cedar Bench Wilderness (Verde Ranger District), and the Pine Mountain Wilderness (Verde Ranger District).

Heritage or Historic Special Areas

Special heritage sites and areas in the PNF display unique characteristics absent from other areas and sites. However, while trying to avoid naming the entire forest as one enormous cultural area, which indeed has some merit to it, some of the more interesting and unique areas and sites include Walnut Creek (Chino Valley Ranger District), Hassayampa River Drainage (Bradshaw Ranger District), Verde Valley (Verde Valley Ranger District), Senator Highway mining associations (Bradshaw Ranger District), Crown King/Horsethief Basin area (Bradshaw Ranger District), Palace Station (Bradshaw), Historic Lookouts (All Districts), Prehistoric Defensive Sites (All Districts), Camp Wood/Yolo Ranch Area (Chino Valley Ranger District), the Walker Mining Area (Bradshaw Ranger District). There are also a number of historic railroads located in the forest that no longer operate but the railroad grade is still evident. These include the Bradshaw Mountain Railroad Company, the Santa Fe, Prescott, and Phoenix Railroad Companies, the Prescott and Eastern Railroad Companies, and the narrow gauge line that ran from Chino Valley to Jerome. All of these were extremely important to the historical development of the Prescott area.

“Special Interest” Areas

Finally, there are a number of places that are of value to more limited groups who use certain areas and develop emotional connections to them. The following is only a snapshot of the activities that be called Special Interests.

- Rock Climbing
Granite Mountain (Bradshaw Ranger District)
- Water Rafting/Kayaking/Swimming
Verde River (Verde Valley Ranger District), Hassayampa River (Bradshaw Ranger District), Wolf Creek (Bradshaw Ranger District), Yellow Jacket Wash (Verde Ranger District)
- Mountain Biking/Hiking
Granite Mountain (Bradshaw Ranger District), Groom Creek (Bradshaw Ranger District)
- Off-Highway Vehicles
Alto Pit (Bradshaw Ranger District), Hayfield Draw (Verde Ranger District), Camp Wood area (Chino Valley Ranger District), Bradshaw Mountains (Bradshaw Ranger District), Groom Creek (Bradshaw Ranger District)
- Hang Gliding
Mingus Mountain area (Verde Ranger District)

- Fishing
Granite Basin Lake (Bradshaw Ranger District), Lynx Lake (Bradshaw Ranger District),
Mingus Lake (Verde Ranger District), Verde River (Verde Ranger District)
- Gold Panning
Bradshaw Ranger District

The majority of the following special places in the PNF are organized by Ranger District. In some cases, special areas span several districts.

Table 5. Special Places by Geographic Area

Ranger District	Special Place
Chino Ranger District	Camp Wood area, Walnut Creek, Sycamore Canyon, and the Upper Verde River, Yavapai Ranch area, and three wilderness areas.
Bradshaw Ranger District	Thumb Butte area, Granite Basin area, Crown King/Horsethief Basin area, Hassayampa River, Lynx Creek area, Groom Creek, the Bradshaw Mountains, the Walker area, Sierra Prieta Mountains, Milk Creek, Cellars Basin, and two wilderness areas.
Verde Ranger District	Verde River, Mingus Mtn area, Woodschute Mountain area, Pine Mountain area, and three wilderness areas.

Source: James McKie
Archaeologist, Prescott National Forest

7.4 Scenery management

The USFS has explored the issue of scenery management on the national forests, and several publications have been written which can serve as guides to the forest manager for management of scenic resources. Some of the more important publications are available on-line at <http://www.esf.edu/es/via/>. Two of these publications which might be particularly useful are *Our National Landscape: A Conference on Applied Techniques for Analysis and Management of Visual Resources* (Elsner and Smardon 1979) and *Landscape aesthetics: A handbook for scenery management* (USFS 1995).

The latter deals with the character and nature of landscapes, the integrity of natural scenes, the means to obtain information from constituent publics regarding scenic preferences, the determination of landscape visibility, and application of the Scenery Management System. The appendices contain information about the history of the scenery management issue in the USFS. The scenery management issue, according to this handbook, arose during the 1960s as a result of public concern over the visibility of forest management activities, particularly timber cutting. This handbook provides a guide to practical methods for minimizing the impact of those activities on the user public, principally recreationists. The Forest Service also provides guidance to the national forests regarding landscape management in the Forest

Service Manual, Chapter 2380 –“Landscape management.” Scenery management issues specific to the Prescott National Forest are addressed in section 7.3.

7.5 Key issues for forest planning and management

Special places exist because humans form emotional attachments to them based on sensory connections. Sometimes people are aware of this experience and the feelings they develop, but often, this is an unconscious process. The ability and opportunity to form these connections fulfills people’s need to feel a part of something greater than themselves, which is “an essential aspect of human existence” (Brandenburg and Carroll 1995). Researchers advise that the recognition of unique and special places is of growing importance because people in today’s age of cultural homogenization seek unique and special qualities in their public lands (Williams and Stewart 1998). This, in turn, places higher demands on public lands, particularly in a rapidly growing state like Arizona.

With the complexities of special places in mind, researchers like Williams and Stewart (1998) caution that it is unwise to reduce special places to “single attributes” as they are clearly a collection of values, contexts, and experiences. Consequently, it is not always possible to identify special places as discrete points on a map. The challenge of mapping special places is thus ideally accomplished in cooperation with the individuals that value the place, marking the general boundaries of the area (rather than a point) on the map (Richard and Burns 1998). Using a Geographic Information System (GIS) as a tool to combine the special place maps of different groups or individuals can be very helpful to forest planners seeking to identify overlapping areas that might indicate future sources of conflict (Brandenburg, Carroll, and Blatner 1995). Disputes can arise over the diverse place definitions people give the same physical space, and, given the subjective emotional nature of special places, these disagreements can be quite contentious. Forest professionals are advised that “various sentiments—whether local or non-local in origin, new or long established—are all legitimate, real, and strongly felt” (Williams and Stewart 1998).

Given that these places require sensory experiences, distant landmarks and conditions can affect one’s experience of a particular special place and thus are a part of the place even if only to that person. Thus, management of forests for traditional extractive resources and the motorized vehicle use of some may have an impact on forest places that are considered special to others. These potential effects can generate conflict; therefore, a better awareness of the significance of special places can potentially enhance forest planning and management.

Researchers have recognized that the relationships people form with special places often cut across traditional categories of liberal/conservative, extractive/environmentalist, urban/rural, and so on (Brandenburg and Carroll 1995). Wondolleck and Yaffee (2000) advise that “places can be powerful symbols that encourage people...to interact with [others] that historically have been viewed as outside their geographic, interest-based, or perceptual boundaries.” As a result, it can be difficult to pin down special places in public town-hall meetings—people who strongly identify with a particular lifestyle group are often reluctant to speak out in a way not supported by that group and yet may feel strongly about a very personal place relationship. Therefore, it becomes important to consider a combination of styles of data collection in order to represent all of these interests. Some findings have suggested that the traditional public meeting may serve to exclude some interested groups or individuals and to encourage a ‘majority (or loudest) rules’ mentality (Brandenburg and Carroll 1995; Brandenburg, Carroll, and Blatner 1995). The potential loss of social capital within the community when voicing a dissenting opinion in a public meeting may outweigh one’s strong special place connection: “an individual may not share his or her emotive personal values regarding the place in a public or group setting because of the pressures of the primary social groups’ common values” (Brandenburg and Carroll 1995). Thus, a mixture of town-hall meetings, surveys, and open-ended individual interviews and conversations may provide a more balanced and clearer picture of special places in the forest (Brandenburg and Carroll 1995; Brandenburg, Carroll, and Blatner 1995).

Cheng, Kruger, and Daniels (2003) emphasize the importance of understanding human-place relationships in planning for, anticipating, and mitigating potential conflicts in multiple-use public land (e.g. forests). These researchers propose that “a key goal of place-based inquiry is to foster more equitable, democratic participation in natural resource politics by including a broader range of voices and values centering around places rather than policy positions.” Another study suggested that attention to stakeholders’ place-value concerns could help avoid “continued acrimonious debate” (Brandenburg, Carroll, and Blatner 1995).

Often, decision makers lack the tools and training necessary to achieve a deeper understanding of social issues (McCool 2003). Nonetheless, studies have shown that by becoming more aware of community values, the FS shows good will toward the public and is better equipped to make management decisions that consider all of the potentially affected people (Mitchell et al. 1993, Richard and Burns 1998). In a recent social assessment prepared for two Idaho forests, researchers noted that “[s]entiments about attachment to place...result in a configuration of social life, individual life, and geographic space that is likely to influence how forest management issues will be evaluated [by the public]” (Adams-Russell 2004). Thus, it benefits the forest managers to know the local communities and consider their individual interests during planning. Increased and continued interactions between forest managers and the visitor public are interpreted as a sign of respect for local knowledge and culture (Mitchell et al. 1993, Williams and Stewart 1998).

Unfortunately, it is not safe to assume that visitors to public lands will recognize and share the values for that landscape that are in its best interest (McCool 2003). By encouraging special place relationships, the Forest Service stands to gain caring partners in the stewardship of forest resources. This occurs because when people develop a bond with a location, they become emotionally invested in the continued health and balance of the ecosystem (Mitchell et al. 1993, Wondolleck and Yaffee 2000).

Arizona is one of the fastest growing states in the country, and like many states in the Interior West, the majority of its population is concentrated in a few urban areas. The Forest Service should expect significant impacts on public lands near or adjacent to urban areas in Arizona. These stresses may come from increased day use, conflicts over traditional versus new uses, the desire of developers to build directly to the forest’s edge, and more.

8. Community Relationships

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the relationship between the Prescott National Forest (PNF) and its neighboring communities. Knowledge of local communities is of interest to the Prescott due to the importance of the reciprocal relationship that exists between the forest and these communities. Also, in some instances, there are legal authorities that require interaction with external communities. The subsections of this chapter are as follows: historical context and methods of designation, community profiles and involvement with natural resources, communities of interest and forest partnerships, historically underserved communities and environmental justice, community/forest interaction, and key issues for forest planning and management.

Information gathered on the nature of the relationships between the PNF and surrounding communities reveals a complex network of interests involved in a variety of issues that affect forest management and planning. In addition to wider public concern for issues such as water provision, wildlife protection, and fire prevention, a growing number of local government organizations and special advocacy groups are seeking to participate directly with the PNF in the formation of policy. Although a comprehensive analysis of the social network surrounding the forest is beyond the scope of this assessment, this section provides insight into the roles and purposes of key stakeholders and establishes a framework for the development of a comprehensive community-relations strategy.

8.1 Historical context and methods of designation

The concept of community relations in a culturally diverse society is about working together as one, both respecting and valuing individual differences (McMillan 1999). It encourages a greater degree of acceptance and respect for, as well as communication between, people of different ethnic, national, religious, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds. Furthermore, it promotes notions of inclusiveness, cohesion, and commitment to the way we shape our future. Above all, a good community relations system ensures that people from all backgrounds have full access to programs and services offered by government service providers, recognizing and overcoming barriers faced by some groups to enjoy full participation in the social, cultural, and economic life of the community.

The act of understanding and maintaining good community relationships is one of the most central responsibilities of the National Forest System. Nonetheless, the importance placed on documenting and enhancing community relationships as part of the overall process of forest planning must be regarded as a relatively recent development. At the time of the creation of the national forest system through the Forest Reserve Act of 1891 and the Transfer Act of 1905, the principal community of concern to the agency was limited, consisting for the most part of a select group of forestry professionals, scientific and professional societies, special interests, and politicians. As such, the forest “community” of the late 19th and early 20th century was considerably less complex than the collection of interested stakeholders today.

However, following World War II, the general public began to show a greater interest in the activities of the national forests. By the late 1960s, with the advent of modern environmental concern, the forest community had expanded to include an extremely broad spectrum of the general public. Statutes such as the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969, the National Forest Management Act of 1976, and more recently, laws such as the Native American Sacred Lands Act of 2002, have officially recognized the array of publics and mandated that the USFS actively involve them in management decisions. In addition to these and other statute laws, there are other written authorities that require and provide direction for external contacts. These include 36 CFR 219.9 (Public participation, collaboration, and notification), the Forest Service Manual chapters 1500 (External relations) and 1600 (Information services), and the Forest Service Handbook chapters 1509 and 1609. Effective public involvement requires knowledge; thus, the purpose of this section is to assist in improving that knowledge base.

In this report, the term and concept “communities” received a broad interpretation and, hence, designation. In one sense, “communities” refers to the towns and cities located in the counties surrounding the PNF. In a broader sense, however, “communities” refers also to tribes, governments, the media, educational entities, partners, and special advocacy groups. Both of these types of “communities” are examined in this section.

8.2 Community profiles and involvement with natural resources

This section presents links to community profiles of the towns and cities surrounding the Prescott NF. It also provides information on local news sources as a gauge of community involvement with natural resources, including Arizona’s national forests. Weblinks to community profiles for each of the counties and selected municipalities within the area of assessment are listed below in Table 34. These profiles generally contain the following information for each community: historical information, geographic/location information, population data, labor force data, weather data, community facilities (e.g., schools, airports), industrial properties, utilities, tax rates, and tourism information. They were developed by the Arizona Department of Commerce, which also provides data for many other communities outside of those listed in Table 34. Table 35 categorizes national forest acreage in Arizona according to current congressional districts.

Table 6. Weblinks to Community Profiles for Counties and Municipalities in the Area of Assessment

Coconino County	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/Coconino%20County.pdf
Flagstaff	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/flagstaff.pdf
Sedona	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/sedona-oak%20creek%20canyon.pdf
Page	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/commune/page.pdf
Williams	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/commune/williams.pdf
Fredonia	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/fredonia.pdf
Yavapai County	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/Yavapai%20County.pdf
Prescott	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/commune/prescott.pdf
Prescott Valley	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/prescott%20valley.pdf
Cottonwood - Verde Village	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/verde%20village.pdf
Sedona	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/sedona-oak%20creek%20canyon.pdf
Camp Verde	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/camp%20verde.pdf
Cottonwood	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/cottonwood.pdf
Chino Valley	http://www.azcommerce.com/doclib/COMMUNE/chino%20valley.pdf

Source: Arizona Department of Commerce

Table 7. Acreage of Arizona National Forests in Federal Congressional Districts

Congressional District	County	National Forest	Total Forest Service Acres
2nd	Pima	Coronado NF	42,961
	Santa Cruz	Coronado NF	418,879
			461,840
3rd	Coconino	Coconino NF	848,725
		Kaibab NF	1,528,594
		Prescott NF	43,695
	Mohave	Kaibab NF	5,487
	Yavapai	Coconino NF	431,119
		Kaibab NF	25,119
	Yavapai	Prescott NF	1,195,551
		Tonto NF	317,051
		4,395,341	
5th	Cochise	Coronado NF	489,396
	Graham	Coronado NF	396,174
	Pima	Coronado NF	346,910
		1,232,480	
6th	Apache	Apache NF	447,223
		Sitgreaves NF	45,591
	Coconino	Coconino NF	569,772
		Sitgreaves NF	285,693
	Gila	Coconino NF	6,063
		Tonto NF	1,698,631
	Greenlee	Apache NF	751,151
	Maricopa	Tonto NF	657,695
	Navajo	Sitgreaves NF	488,158
	Pinal	Coronado NF	23,331
		Tonto NF	199,558
		5,172,866	
	State Total	11,262,527	

Source: USFS Lands and Realty Management

<http://www.fs.fed.us/land/staff/lar/LAR04/table6.htm>

The communities surrounding the Prescott NF have a history of involvement with the national forests and with natural resource issues in general. Central Arizona, like the rest of the state, has long been dependent upon natural resources for commodity production, tourism, and aesthetic enjoyment. As a result, the public has frequently expressed intense interest in the use and management of these resources.

The best and most generally available record of community involvement and interest in the PNF and in natural resources is to be found in the state's newspapers. Journalists publish hundreds of articles each year dealing with almost every aspect of community involvement surrounding natural resources and the forest. Links to Arizona's major newspapers can be found at <http://www.50states.com/news/arizona.htm>.

A search of natural resource keywords was conducted for six state newspapers: The Arizona Daily Star (Tucson), The Arizona Daily Sun (Flagstaff), The Arizona Republic (Phoenix), The High Country Sentinel (Heber-Overgaard), The Prescott Valley Tribune (Prescott), and The Grand Canyon News (Williams). These newspapers were chosen because they represent the principal newspapers for cities located near each of the six national forests. In addition to the names of the six Arizona national forests, the keyword search included terms such as “forest,” “conservation,” “wildlife,” and “endangered” species. The results of this keyword search are presented in Table 36. The Prescott Valley Tribune (Prescott) is the newspaper most proximate to the PNF and thus will be of greatest interest to this assessment. However, the other five newspaper searches are also presented because journalism today has broad statewide and even national coverage that might reveal stories related to the Prescott in many of the state’s newspapers.

The keyword search (Table 36) indicated that the six newspapers have collectively published more than 100,000 articles potentially related to natural resources since 1999. This would indicate a tremendous public interest and opportunity for involvement with the state’s natural resources. Also, the data indicate that the PNF’s nearest paper, The Prescott Valley Tribune, is important in terms of natural resource news coverage. The keyword search found 2,852 natural resources-related articles. Please note that this was for a shorter period than was examined for most of the other newspapers due to the more limited database for The Prescott Valley Tribune. Furthermore, the search indicated that the PNF itself was the subject of 337 news articles during the period examined (approximately 1999-2005 although the exact period varied by paper).

Table 8. Natural-Resource Related Keyword Search of Six Arizona Newspapers

City:	Flagstaff	Phoenix	Williams	Heber-Overgaard	Prescott Prescott Valley Tribune	Tucson	Total	Percent of
Newspaper:	Arizona Daily Sun	Arizona Republic	Grand Canyon News	High Country Sentinel		Arizona Daily Star	Articles	Total
Nearest National Forest:	Coconino	Tonto	Kaibab	Apache-Sitgreaves	Prescott	Coronado	Articles	Total
Issues Searched:	1999-April 2005	1999-April 2005	2000-April 2005	2000-April 2005	2003-April 2005	1999-April 2005	Found	Articles Found
Key Word Searched:								
Forest	8,066	319	732	399	367	3,414	13,297	13.2%
Natural Resources	690	79	29	23	16	688	1,525	1.5%
Conservation	732	133	109	7	62	732	1,775	1.8%
Water	0	1,382	741	244	728	10,960	14,055	14.0%
Lake	7,313	788	294	294	178	2,708	11,575	11.5%
River	5,033	625	370	131	279	n/a	6,438	6.4%
Stream	1,602	169	24	36	67	n/a	1,898	1.9%
Recreation	3,224	2,334	483	314	211	1,969	8,535	8.5%
Fish	4,708	5,028	131	248	285	2,646	13,046	13.0%
Native fish	98	2	15	15	3	135	268	0.3%
Sportfish	22	0	0	0	2	1	25	0.0%
Fishing	480	502	55	434	147	1,035	2,653	2.6%
Forest Fire	247	15	28	3	16	2,491	2,800	2.8%
Mining	165	282	25	9	43	1,504	2,028	2.0%
Endangered species	544	18	23	2	14	638	1,239	1.2%
Wildlife	2,747	167	185	135	120	2,824	6,178	6.1%
Native Wildlife	22	4	5	0	0	24	55	0.1%
Bird Watching	17	26	1	30	1	153	228	0.2%
Hunting	3,231	514	56	253	63	1,114	5,231	5.2%
Range	0	1,194	56	67	146	1,062	2,525	2.5%
Grazing	865	41	40	11	19	402	1,378	1.4%
The National Forests:								
Coconino National Forest	1,046	15	15	3	0	22	1,101	1.1%
Coronado National Forest	120	9	2	20	0	755	906	0.9%
Apache-Sitgreaves Nat. For.	109	12	2	87	0	68	278	0.3%
Kaibab National Forest	441	16	245	0	0	20	722	0.7%
Tonto National Forest	135	37	3	14	7	176	372	0.4%
Prescott National Forest	141	11	7	73	78	27	337	0.3%
Total articles found	41,798	13,722	3,676	2,852	2,852	35,568	100,468	100.0%

Past issues of The Prescott Valley Tribune were also examined to determine the types of natural resource topics that were of interest to the public in the region. Selected topics and their dates of publication in The Prescott Valley Tribune are provided in Table 37 below:

Table 9. Selected Key Public Issues for the Prescott National Forest

Topic	Date
1. Feds and states need to find new uses for harvested trees	March 2005
2. Experts foresee heavy wildfire season	March 2005
3. Peregrine nesting closes some climbing sites	February 2005
4. A managed forest means a logged forest	December 2004
5. Trout stocking on Lynx Lake	June 2004
6. PNF strip mine is back on the table	November 2004

Source: The Prescott Tribune

8.3 Communities of interest and forest partnerships

The Prescott National Forest has many communities of interest: that is, entities that share an interest along with the FS in the management of the forest. For the purpose of this assessment, a distinction should be made between communities of interest and forest partners. Communities of interest may include residents of physical communities or members of an interest group, agency, or private organization that are influenced by, and in turn, stand to influence forest planning and management. Consideration of their stake in forest management is important, but not specifically directed through formal partnership agreements. Following, in Table 38, is a listing of some of those communities of interest. These are grouped according to government agencies; special advocacy groups; and educational, business, and media organizations. Specific contact information and the names of principal individuals are available from the PNF. An especially noteworthy community of interest to the PNF is the Native American tribes. The tribal contact list for the PNF is found in Table 39. There are seven tribes for which the PNF has consultation responsibilities.

Table 10. Communities of Interest for the Prescott National Forest

Governmental	Special Advocacy Groups	Business
Yavapai County Board of Supervisors	Hyde Mountain Vista Group	Almida Land & Cattle Co
City of Prescott	Back Country Horsemen of Arizona	
Yavapai-Apache Nation Chairman	Prescott Open Trails Association	Media
Yavapai-Prescott Indian Tribe	Prescott Valley Economic Development Foundation	Prescott Courier
	Prescott National Forest Friends	
	Sharlot Hall Museum	Educational
	Highland Center for Natural History	Prescott College
	PAWUIC	
	Hyde Mountain Vista Group	

Source: M. Leonard, Staff Planning Officer, Prescott NF

Table 11. Tribal Consultation Responsibilities for the Prescott National Forest

Arizona Indian Tribe
Ft. McDowell Mohave-Apache Indian Comm.
Hopi Tribe
Hualapai Tribe
Navajo Nation
Tonto Apache Tribe
Yavapai-Apache Nation
Yavapai-Prescott Indian Tribe

Source: D. Firecloud, Regional Tribal Program Manager, Southwestern Region, USDA Forest Service

National Forest Partnerships

Although the USFS claims responsibility for approximately 193 million acres of forests and grasslands throughout the United States, it acknowledges that effective management and protection of the vast resources within forest boundaries would be virtually impossible without the effective involvement of individuals and organizations from neighboring communities. Given the agency’s constraints on personnel, funding, and other resources, as well as the direct links between forest management and community well being, the FS places a high priority on the development of partnerships. In addition to the obvious financial benefits that accrue from partnerships, the agency views them as part of its continuing cultural shift from “lone rangers” and “rugged individualists” to facilitators and conveners. As such, partnerships have become a central strategy for strengthening relationships between the Forest Service and surrounding communities (USFS 2005c).

In an effort to promote partnerships and guide individual forest managers through the process of establishing and maintaining cooperative relationships with surrounding communities, the USFS has recently updated its Partnership Guide. Intended as a reference tool for employees and partners of the FS, the guide offers insight into the structure and management of non-profit organizations, issues surrounding forest cooperation with volunteers, and use of grants and other agreements as well as information on the common challenges and ethical issues involved in sustaining effective partnerships. The guide also includes an array of resources and tools based on previous partnership efforts of the Forest Service (NFF and USFS 2005).

Like other forests throughout the country and the region, the PNF is involved in multiple partnerships that contribute to forest health and fire management, the construction of community infrastructure, economic involvement with natural resources, and, most recently, issues surrounding the sustainability of regional water supplies. Previous planning processes such as the National Forest Management Act (NFMA) have attempted to implement policies aimed at enhancing participation of a growing number of interested stakeholders in forest planning and management.

Meanwhile, the Region 3 (Southwest) of the Forest Service has also outlined several priorities which directly affect the development of partnerships. They include the restoration of ecological functionality to forests and rangelands, the protection of communities adjacent to national forests, and the contribution to the economic vitality of communities. In addition to these priorities, the Southwestern Region of the Forest Service has established five objectives regarding the formation and maintenance of partnerships. They are to continue to increase the visibility and understanding of successful partnerships and collaboration, encourage and promote cultural change that supports and expands partnerships and collaboration, develop and maintain an accessible and user-friendly partnership process, identify the opportunities and needs for forest and regional coordination, and educate and train for a common understanding of partnerships.

Although the term “partnership” may be defined differently by individual stakeholders with distinct agendas, the FS has identified nine broad categories of forest partnerships. They are volunteers, cost-share contributions, donations and gifts, memoranda of understanding, cooperating associations, grants, “payments to states,” stewardship contracting, and interagency collaboration.

Obviously, the number and quality of forest partnerships varies over time according to the level of interaction between individual forests and their communities. The Southwest Region, however, has established a list of partner organizations according to the nature of their involvement. This list, obtained from the regional partnership website, is included as Table 40 below. Additional information on partnerships in the Southwest Region is available at <http://www.fs.fed.us/r3/partnerships/>. Table 41 presents a list of the partnerships between the PNF and external groups.

Table 12. United States Forest Service, Southwest Region Partners

Conservation Organizations	
Ducks Unlimited	http://www.ducks.org/
Environmental Systems Research Institute (ESRI)	http://www.conservationgis.org/
Federation of Flyfishers	http://www.fedflyfishers.org/
Mule Deer Foundation	http://www.muledeer.org/
National Wild Turkey Federation (NWTf)	http://www.nwtf.org/
Quail Unlimited	http://www.qu.org/
Rocky Mountain Elk Foundation	http://www.rmef.org/
Trout Unlimited	http://www.tu.org
Wildlife Management Institute	http://www.wildlifemanagementinstitute.org/
Arizona Conservation Partners	
Arizona Department of Game and Fish	http://www.gf.state.az.us/
Arizona Wildlife Foundation	http://www.azwildlife.org/
Sonoran Institute	http://www.sonoran.org/
New Mexico Conservation Partners	
New Mexico Department of Game and Fish	Http://www.wildlife.state.nm.us/
New Mexico Wildlife Federation	Http://leopard.nmsu.edu/nmwf/
Audubon Society – New Mexico State Office	Http://www.audubon.org/chapter/nm/nm/rdac/index.html
New Mexico Museum of Natural History	Http://museums.state.nm.us/nmmnh/nmmnh.html
Youth Conservations Organizations	
AmeriCorps – New Mexico	http://www.nationalservice.gov/state_profiles/overview.asp?ID=38
National Association of Conservation and Service Corps	http://www.nascc.org/
Student Conservation Association	http://www.thesca.org/
Rocky Mountain Youth Corps	http://youthcorps.org/
National Ecosystem Health Organizations	
National Arbor Day Foundation	http://www.arborday.org/

Table 40 (cont). United States Forest Service, Southwest Region Partners

Arizona Ecosystem Health Organizations	
The Nature Conservancy – Arizona	http://www.nature.org/wherework/northamerica/states/arizona/
Sky Island Alliance	http://www.skyislandalliance.org/
Grand Canyon Trust	http://www.grandcanyontrust.org/
Greater Flagstaff Forest Partnership	http://www.gffp.org/
Northern Arizona University	http://www.for.nau.edu/cms/
New Mexico Ecosystem Health Organizations	
New Mexico Forestry Division	http://www.emnrd.state.nm.us/forestry/index.cfm
New Mexico Highlands University	http://www.nmhu.edu/forestry/
The Nature Conservancy – New Mexico	http://www.nature.org/wherework/northamerica/states/newmexico/
National Interpretive Recreation	
Public Lands Information Center	http://www.publiclands.org/home.php?SID=
Association of Partners for Public Lands	http://www.appl.org/
Tread Lightly	http://www.treadlightly.org/
National Outdoor Leadership School	http://www.nols.edu/
Leave No Trace	http://www.lnt.org/
Arizona Interpretive Recreation	
Arizona Trail Association	http://www.aztrail.org/
Arizona State Association of 4-Wheel Drive Clubs	http://asa4wdc.org/
New Mexico Interpretive Recreation	
New Mexico Environmental Education Association	http://www.eeanm.org/
Back Country Horsemen – New Mexico	http://www.bchnm.org/
New Mexico Council of Guides and Outfitters	http://nmoutfitters.org/
New Mexico Volunteers for the Outdoors	http://www.nmvfo.org/
Arizona Environmental Organizations	
Sierra Club – Arizona Chapter	http://www.sierraclub.org/az/
New Mexico Environmental Organizations	
New Mexico Wilderness Alliance	http://www.nmwild.org/
Sierra Club – New Mexico Chapter	http://www.sierraclub.org/nm/

Source: USDA Forest Service, Southwest Region – Partnerships

<http://www.fs.fed.us/r3/partnerships/>

Table 13. Partnerships for the Prescott National Forest

Cooperator Name	Project Title
Central Yavapai Fire District	Co-Location Of Fire Resources
Prescott Fire Department	Co-Location Of Fire Resources
Yavapai County Sheriff's Office	Cooperative Lease Agreement
Yavapai County Sheriff's Office	FY2005 AOP Agreement
Arizona Public Service Corp	NEPA 69kv Transmission Line
USDI, BLM - Phoenix Dist.	BLM Dispatcher O/T Work
Arizona State University	Lower Lynx Creek Restoration Project
M3 Companies	NEPA And Trail Construction
Sharon Ann and Rodney Cole	Small Tracts Act Case No. 0066
Arizona Department Of Water Res.	Verde Wild And Scenic River Fence
U.S. Department Of The Treasury	Heavy Equipment Work
Coconino County Sheriff's Office	Search And Rescue Operations
Creative Networks	Fee Demo Day-Use Passes
Sterling Ranch	Fee Demo Day-Use Passes
U.S. Department of the Treasury	Maintenance Of Roads
U.S. Department of the Treasury	Road Maintenance And Surfacing
Federal Land Exchange, Inc.	Federal Land Exchange, Inc.
Arizona Natural History Assoc.	Arizona Natural History Association
BLM, Phoenix Field Office	Fire Management
Donald Manville	Donald And Wanda Manville
Drake Cement, LLC	Drake Cement, LLC
Arizona State University	Arizona Water Protection Fund
Arizona Water Protection Fund	Arizona Water Protection Fund
Arizona Game And Fish Department	Arizona Game And Fish Department
Aires	Aires - Fee Demo Day-Use Passes
Northern Arizona University	School Of Forestry
USGS	U. S. Geological Survey
USDI – National Park Service	Montezuma Castle National Mon.
Department Of Veterans Affairs	Flu Shots
Arizona State Parks	Arizona State Parks
USDI, Geological Survey	Paulden Gauge – NFWF10 Funding
Arizona Game And Fish Department	Page Flat Juniper Treatment
Highlands Center For Natural History	Highlands Center For Natural History
Yavapai County	Forest Road Agreement
Arizona Dept. Of Water Resources	Verde River Riparian
Arizona Game And Fish Depart.	Lynx Creek Restoration At Sediment Trap #2
Arizona Dept Of Water Resources	Lynx Creek Restoration At Sediment Trap #2
Arizona Dept Of Water Resources	Arizona Water Protection Fund
Yavapai County Sheriff's Office	Rappel Tower
Arizona State Land Department	Arizona State Land Department
City Of Prescott	Fire Center Well
Financial Management Service	Financial Management Services
Arizona Game And Fish Depart.	Bald Eagle Nestwatch Program
Department Of Veterans Affairs	Administrative Health Care Services

8.4 Historically underserved communities and environmental justice

This section deals with special communities located near the PNF that may have been historically underserved in terms of public services received and their participation in business. This information will be of particular interest to PNF managers as they consider ways to improve delivery of services to minority groups which may have been underserved in the past.

Arizona's rapid population growth has affected the availability of affordable housing and fundamental social services, segregated social groups, created urban sprawl, stressed the state's infrastructure, and caused financial burdens and conflicts for local and state governments (Arizona Town Hall 1999). These factors can have an especially negative influence on Arizona's ethnic and racial minorities and their employment opportunities.

Data on individual racial and ethnic groups as a percentage of total county population were presented in Chapter 2 of this report (Table 7). In 2000, Native Americans were the largest minority group in Coconino County (28.51%) while Hispanics represented the predominant minority group in Yavapai County (9.78%). Note that individuals claiming Hispanic heritage may also claim identification with other ethnic and racial groups and be counted in those categories as well. As of 2000, individuals of Hispanic origin accounted for 25.25% of the statewide population.

The Census Bureau has estimated that, by 2025, Whites will comprise 57.5% of Arizona's population. The number of people of Hispanic origin is expected to increase from its 1995 level of 20.6% of the population to 32.2% in 2025. The African American population is projected to grow by 65.7% and the Native American population by 34.9% (U.S. Census Bureau 2005, Partnership for Community Development 2000). Thus, in the future, the national forests must prepare to serve even larger minority populations than at present.

Possible assistance in the formation of minority- and woman-owned businesses is another issue for the PNF to consider. Table 42 presents data on minority- and woman-owned businesses for surrounding Arizona counties. As the data indicate, minorities currently own a smaller number of businesses than the size of their populations might suggest.

Table 14. Minority- and Women-owned Businesses by County, 2002

County	All Businesses	Total Minorities	African American	Native American	Asian or Pacific Islander	Hispanic	Women
Coconino	17,940	2,456	-	1,046	341	927	5,339
Yavapai	31,225	2,030	-	218	-	1,579	8,439

Sources: Arizona Dept. of Commerce, 2002
U.S. Census Bureau – 1997 Economic Census

Finally, the long term goals of the USFS have led to the development of specific outreach activities designed to enhance the participation of underserved populations in forest planning and management. They include the provision that each FS unit will perform the following tasks (USFS 2000b):

Ecosystem Health

- plan for underserved communities and develop an outreach analysis
- ensure the representation of underserved communities in team membership, participation, and implementation of decisions

- develop a nationally coordinated effort to establish dialogue with underserved communities about FS programs and land management
- expand financial and technical support for underserved communities' participation in land management activities

Multiple Benefits to People

- develop relationships by establishing a FS presence within networks of urban and rural community-based organizations that represent underserved people and conduct community assessments with underserved populations by working closely with existing leadership and resources
- partner with a broad range of non-governmental organizations to increase benefits and other FS resources to underserved communities to help them organize and develop national and localized programs of work which reflect their priorities
- collaborate with underserved populations to create customized delivery systems

Scientific and Technical Assistance

- conduct a research and development review with the direct involvement of underserved people to identify their concerns
- share and conduct collaborative social science research through a Federal Center of Excellence to share information across organizations, foster effective use of federal research resources, and include the needs of underserved communities in setting social science research priorities
- improve access to and distribution of information, including research findings and technical assistance, through partnerships with existing public and private networks involving cities and counties (such as the Joint Center for Sustainable Communities), federal agencies (such as the Sustainable Development Network), culturally sensitive employees (such as employee resource groups), and professional marketing specialists with expertise that benefits underserved communities

Effective Public Service

- develop training programs that strengthen the capabilities of employees and partners to engage underserved communities
- increase scholarship, education, and work experience opportunities to train employees and partners in how to engage underserved groups
- implement grants and training agreements for employees along with representatives of underserved communities

In addition to these general guidelines, the FS currently interacts with its neighboring communities in the following ways:

Rural Community Assistance

The FS implements the national initiative on rural development in coordination with the USDA Rural Business and Cooperative Development Service and State rural development councils. The goal is to strengthen rural communities by helping them diversify and expand their economies through the wise use of natural resources. Through economic action programs, the FS provides technical and financial assistance to more than 850 rural communities that are adversely affected by changes in availability of natural resources or in natural resource policy.

Urban and Community Forestry

The FS provides technical and financial assistance to more than 7,740 cities and communities in all States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico for the purpose of building local capacity to manage their natural resources.

Human Resource Programs

Human Resource Programs provide job opportunities, training, and education for the unemployed, underemployed, elderly, young, and others with special needs, simultaneously benefiting high-priority conservation work. These programs are a major part of the FS work force.

Southwestern Strategy

In November of 1997, the Secretaries of Agriculture and the Interior issued a directive to their agency leaderships to develop a collaborative approach to resolving quality of life, natural resource, and cultural resource issues in Arizona and New Mexico. The result was the Southwest Strategy, which addresses community development and natural resources conservation and management within the jurisdictions of the involved federal agencies.

Environmental justice is the fair treatment and involvement of all people regardless of race, color, national origin, or income with respect to the development, implementation, and enforcement of environmental laws, regulations, and policies. Fair treatment means that no group of people, including racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic groups, should bear a disproportionate share of the negative environmental consequences resulting from industrial, municipal, and commercial operations or the execution of federal, state, local, or tribal programs and policies. Inequities can result from a number of factors, including distribution of wealth, housing and real estate practices, and land use planning that may place African Americans, Latinos, and Native Americans at greater health and environmental risk than the rest of society (Bullard 1993).

The White House, with Executive Order 12898, elevated environmental justice issues to the federal agency policy agenda. EO 12898 instructs each federal agency to identify and address “disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental effects of its programs, policies, and activities on minority populations and low-income populations” (Clinton 1994).

The USDA’s goals in implementing EO 12898 are as follows (from USDA 1997):

- To incorporate environmental justice considerations into the USDA's programs and activities and to address environmental justice across mission areas;
- To identify, prevent, and/or mitigate disproportionately high or adverse human health and environmental effects of USDA programs and activities on minority and low-income populations;
- To provide the opportunity for minority and low-income populations to participate in planning, analysis, and decision making that affect their health or environment, including the identification of program needs and designs;
- To review and revise programs in order to ensure incorporation and full consideration of the effects that agency decisions have on minority and low-income populations;
- To develop criteria consistent with the USDA's environmental justice implementation strategy which determine whether the agency's programs and activities have, or will have, a disproportionately adverse effect on the health or the environment of minority or low-income populations;
- To collect and analyze data to determine whether agency programs and activities have disproportionately adverse human health or environmental effects;

- To collect, maintain, and analyze information on the consumption patterns of populations that principally rely on fishing, hunting, or trapping for subsistence;
- To develop, as part of ensuring the integration of the USDA's environmental justice strategy, outreach activities that include underserved populations in rural and urban America, including women, minorities, persons with disabilities, and low-income people, as well as tribal governments, in natural resource management activities;

Native Americans pose a special environmental justice case since few reservations possess environmental regulations or waste management infrastructures equivalent to those of the state and federal governments. In the past, these areas have been targeted for landfills and incinerators. However, these ecological inequities have met with an increasingly resistant environmental justice movement.

8.5 Community-forest interaction

As the national forests and other federal agencies focus on stakeholder and community-based management, the social linkages, or social networks, formed by different groups and individuals are becoming increasingly important. Social networks provide a framework for balancing needs and priorities in the forest, and they often provide a cadre of willing and eager participants in the forest planning process. Nonetheless, they can also represent a significant challenge to managers trying to accommodate conflicting multiple uses.

The Forest Service has identified three processes resulting from greater agency attention to the social value of forests, the need for greater public involvement, and the ecosystem approach to management. Frenz and others (1999) describe them as follows:

- An increasing demand by the general public, interest groups, and local communities to become more involved in resource management planning and decision-making;
- An awareness that stewardship of natural resource systems by knowledgeable and committed community members is more effective than top down governmental mandates and regulatory procedures; and
- Growing support for an ecosystem management approach that is community based and incorporates both ecosystem and community sustainability into an overarching theory of holistic ecosystem health.

As awareness and commitment to these processes grow, so does the need for forest managers and planners to understand the social linkages within and surrounding the national forests. The FS emphasizes these ideas in many of its policies and publications. For example, it lists among its guiding principles,

- Striving to meet the needs of our customers in fair, friendly, and open ways;
- Forming partnerships to achieve shared goals; and
- Promoting grassroots participation in our decisions and activities. (USFS 2005n)

Recent changes to the NFMA planning process similarly underscore the role of social linkages in forest management, stating, “Public participation and collaboration needs to be welcomed and encouraged as a part of planning. To the extent possible, Responsible Officials need to work collaboratively with the public to help balance conflicting needs, to evaluate management under the plans, and to consider the need to adjust plans” (USFS 2005o). A careful examination of existing and potential social networks can help guide these planning processes.

A social network analysis visualizes social relationships as a set of “nodes” (i.e., individual actors within the network) and “ties” (i.e., the relationships between the actors) (Hanneman 1999). Formal network analyses generally diagram social networks of interest and often attempt to quantify the personal

relationships involved. Computer software is available to conduct formal network analyses by calculating aggregate measures of centrality, density, or inclusiveness and aiding in the visualization of social networks (Garson 2005). A variety of methods exist for graphically displaying these networks (Brandes et al. 1999).

In addition to displaying and/or quantifying the relationships among individuals, sociologists and other social scientists often use social network theory to study relationships among organizations (Stevenson and Greenberg 2000). The distinguishing feature of social network analysis is that it focuses on the relationships among individuals or organizations instead of analyzing individual behaviors, attitudes, or beliefs. The social interactions are seen as a structure that can be analyzed, and formal network analysis aims to describe social networks as compactly and systematically as possible (Galaskiewicz and Wasserman 1994, Hanneman 1999).

While social network analysis offers a significant alternative to analyzing individuals and organizations as if they were isolated from one another, it also contains some problematic simplifications. First, in viewing social networks as analyzable structures, this method inevitably treats networks as static and overlooks the dynamic nature of interpersonal and inter-organizational relationships (Sztompka 1993). It is assumed that the position of the actor in the network is static (Stevenson and Greenberg 2000); however, most managers that work with the public would agree that the relations among network members are not only changeable but are, in many cases, in almost constant flux.

In addition, the focus on quantitative features of social linkages overlooks a wide variety of important qualitative factors, including the kinds of ties involved and the power relationships among the actors (Bodemann 1988). For example, the ties in a social network can represent relationships as different as kinship, patronage, reciprocity, avoidance, or assistance (Breiger 1988). Managers attempting to explain community relationships through social network analysis would no doubt consider ties between network members involved in cooperative management and those between opponents in litigation to be very different; however, in the mere visual representation of a network it would be difficult, if not impossible, to represent this difference.

Finally, network analysis often assumes that social networks operate as constraints on action (or, at the very least, as constraints on peripheral actors) and fail to recognize the agency of individuals acting within the network (Stevenson and Greenberg 2000). This is not a necessary function of network analysis, but this common assumption can easily hamper attempts at cooperative management.

As such, a reliance on formal network analysis for understanding stakeholder linkages can be somewhat misleading. Unfortunately, the graphic representations and statistical conclusions of social networks offered by formal network analyses often convey an impression of objectivity and inclusiveness. It is important to note that research on networks has thus far generally failed to draw reliable conclusions on the actions of individuals based on the characteristics of their networks (Stevenson and Greenberg 2000). In line with many other social researchers, this assessment suggests that the qualities of relationships and strategies used by actors should be of more concern than a visual or mathematical representation of networks.

In place of a formal network analysis, which is both time consuming and based in an incomplete conception of social interactions a view of the PNF's social linkages is offered that communicates the importance of relationships and the uncertain, active, and dynamic nature of the actors.

Provan and Milward (2001) outline three broad groups of "network constituents," or stakeholders: principals, agents, and clients. Principals are individuals or groups that "monitor and fund the network and its activities" (3). Agents "work in the network both as administrators and service-level professionals," and clients "actually receive the services provided by the network." However, as Provan and Milward also note, actors can and often do fulfill multiple roles, acting, for example, as a client at one geographical or political level and as an administrator at a different level. Figure 20 illustrates the

interactions of these groups in the context of natural resource management. Different stakeholders interact with one another and with the resources being managed.

According to this view, a national forest is managed not simply by a USDA chain of command, but by a network that includes a wide variety of stakeholders. The resource itself forms the “center” of the network, and these stakeholders both affect the management of the resource and are in turn affected by its management direction. In a very real sense, non-USDA actors such as county officials, the U.S. Border Patrol, and even media and citizen groups participate in forest management. Figure 21 provides examples of principals, agents, and clients involved in the management of the PNF (see Table 38 for a more complete list).

While this network is by no means exhaustive, Figure 21 shows how different actors interact in the social network involved in managing the Prescott NF. However, this typology is neither unambiguous nor static. For example, forest-level administrators can function as principals, agents, or clients depending on the situation and geographic scale. They monitor and administrate the network, but they also receive services provided by other stakeholders, such as recreation users and those with special permits. Local residents are generally seen as clients of the forest, but some residents also actively participate in network monitoring to ensure that they receive the services they expect. Environmental groups, while perhaps most often seen as clients, can also play an important role in monitoring management and even directly helping to manage the forests. While none of these designations is set in stone, this framework provides a unique perspective on the linkages among and the roles of different stakeholders (or network members) in managing the forest.

The framework and diagrams presented here are intended to facilitate a discussion of social networks and the roles of stakeholders that effectively describes the actors and relationships in the Prescott NF social network. Future research might address the different needs, priorities, skills, and challenges of different kinds of stakeholders. For example, how does policy or practice differentiate among principles, agents, and clients? Does the Forest Service’s vision of visitors and users (i.e., clients) as customers in any way influence the latter’s ability to participate in forest planning processes? What management practices help Forest Service personnel treat different kinds of stakeholders in a fair and equitable manner? And, perhaps most importantly, how can managers and planners use existing networks to bring maximum benefit to the forest itself?

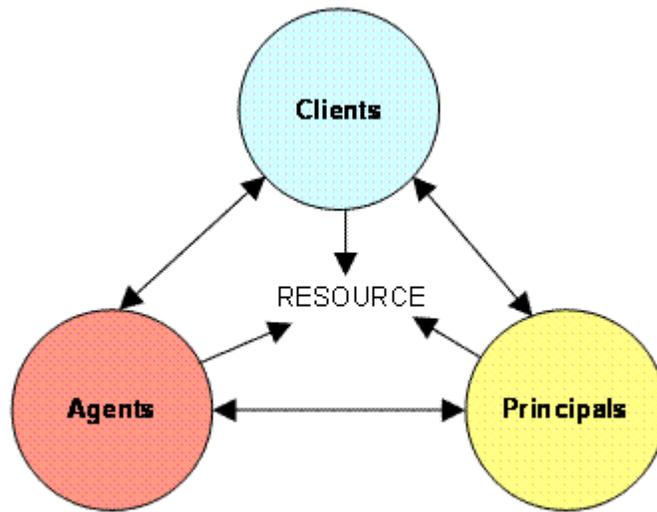


Figure 2. Social Networks in Natural Resource Management

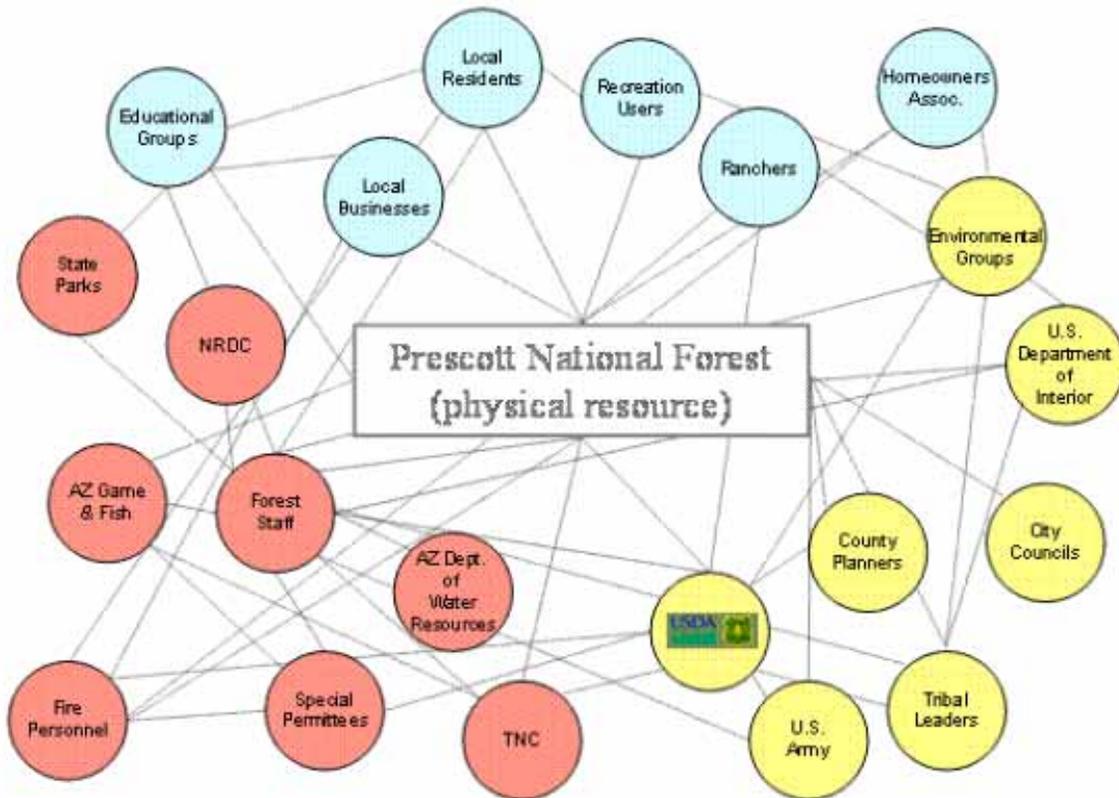


Figure 3. Partial Social Network for the Prescott National Forest

8.6 Key issues for forest planning and management

Arizona communities are experiencing rapid economic and demographic transformation, resulting in considerable changes in racial and economic diversity, multiculturalism, and social values. These trends have been well documented in other parts of this assessment through analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data which point to the challenges the national forests face as they try to accommodate diversity while delivering forest-based goods and services to the public.

Such an identification and analysis of social and economic trends, however, does not provide sufficient information on community stability, satisfaction, or capacity needed to fully analyze interactions between individual communities and national forests. Therefore, increasing attention has been paid to assessing community interaction with natural resource managers. Methods such as social impact assessments and community surveys have gained prominence as communities evolve from rural to urban patterns of development while striving to incorporate more diverse interests in participatory decision making. An added benefit of these community-based approaches is that they can provide opportunities for community members to verify, comment on, and learn from collected secondary economic and social data. Perhaps most importantly, previous studies have shown that participants in these types of social assessments are better able to identify common concerns and links to structural conditions in a manner that contributes to resource and community development planning (Kruger 1996, USFS 2003f)

Although the size and organization of communities have traditionally been considered important influences in the fields of natural resource and forest management, there remains a lack of appreciation for the various roles and modes of interaction between communities and resource managers. The failure to recognize these different roles and purposes contributes to increasingly polarized debates over the appropriateness of forest management practices. A case in point is the common conflict between communities clinging to historic dependence on commodity use and those expanding communities seeking to capitalize on natural amenities to support retirement and recreation-based activity. Such disputes often make management objectives for stewardship and sustainability difficult, if not impossible, to achieve. Alternatively, a better understanding of the nature of relationships between forests and neighboring communities can provide important insight into divergent and sometimes competing interests and concerns. Ultimately, this process could provide for an enhanced analysis of forest management alternatives and their potential affect on communities (USFS 2003f).

The task of planning for multiple resource use is further complicated by the number and nature of interest groups and stakeholders that interact with the forest in a given community. In fact, as a Forest Service Technical Report asserts, “There are as many potential measures of organization and interaction in social communities as there are ecological interactions in biophysical systems” (USFS 2003f). Evidence of the dynamic nature of relationships between the PNF and various groups, individuals, and organizations is found in ongoing debates over the preservation of open space, the administration of recreation and grazing fees, the protection of water resources and wildlife, and the security of forest lands and communities along the international border.

Despite a growing consensus as to the importance of analyzing community relationships for forest planning and management, there remain relatively few applicable guidelines for developing an effective community-forest relations strategy. Whereas the Forest Service Manual and the Forest Service Handbook provide some guidance for the conduct of external relations, there is an opportunity for a more comprehensive plan to guide the management of local community relations. A good starting point for the development of such a plan is offered by research conducted by the Queensland Government in Australia on strengthening relationships between communities and government agencies (McMillan 1999).

The study focuses on five principal recommendations for enhancing the effectiveness and sustainability of community relations that may also prove useful to Arizona's national forests. They include 1) development of a concept and definition of community relations relevant to the national forest, 2) development of an understanding of the possible benefits of a positive community relations program, 3) development of a common agency image of what a positive community relations program might resemble, 4) development of some essential principles of an effective community relations program, and 5) development of a list of potential community relations questions and issues to be dealt with by the community relations plan (McMillan 1999).

Although identification of the essential principles in an effective community relations program will require community input and therefore vary in individual cases, the Queensland study offers the following examples:

- *Leadership*—improvements in community relations require leadership at the forest level.
- *Local Ownership*—community relations strategies work best when they are owned and designed by the local community, the groups in that community, and the institutions that serve that community.
- *Administrative Support*—community relations needs to be supported by appropriate forest administrators.
- *Planning*—in seeking to ensure positive conditions for community relations, planning is the key.
- *Positive Framework*—community relationships seek to provide a positive framework and infrastructure for dealing with community-related problems.
- *Integration*—community relationships work better when they are integrated into existing forest processes and procedures rather than regarded as add-ons that can be addressed outside the framework of those processes and procedures.
- *Holistic Approach*—effective community relations strategies frequently need to be multi-pronged and very frequently require the collaboration of a number of organizations, groups, and agencies in order to work effectively.
- *Informed Decision Making*—information from the community is vital in forming community relations, as is information from other sources (including research literature) from other organizations who have tried community relations projects, and from people with knowledge and expertise in the field.
- *Inclusion of Diversity*—community relations values and respects diversity and works to include all cultural and linguistic backgrounds into the social, cultural, and economic life of the community as well as into the decision-making mechanisms of the community.
- *Ongoing Effort*—recognize that improved community relations is an on-going effort and requires a long-term commitment by the agency. (McMillan 1999)

Finally, a list of issues and potential questions for inclusion in a comprehensive community-forest relationships plan should address the following:

- *Access to services*—how will the forest improve its delivery of goods and services and what will those goods and services be?
- *Employment opportunities*—does the forest have a role in providing improved employment opportunities for the community?
- *Information*—how might the forest improve its flow of information to the community?

- *Racial sensitivity*—how might the forest be more sensitive in accommodating the needs of different racial and ethnic groups who use the forest?
- *Youth*—is there a special role for the forest in helping the community’s youth?
- *Media*—how might the forest develop a positive working relationship with the community’s media services?
- *Change*—finally, how will the forest cope with the future in terms of changes in the community and in the delivery of forest-based goods and services to that community? (McMillan 1999)

Although these lists represent a fraction of the elements that may be addressed in any single plan for community-forest relations, they reflect the diversity and urgency of the issues the Prescott National Forest faces as it takes positive steps to respond to a rapidly-changing demographic, political, and physical environment.