

Cooperation in Resource Management: A Model Planning Process for Promoting Partnerships between Resource Managers and Private Service Providers

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ABSTRACT: This study presents a modified transactive planning process intended to improve communication and cooperation between public sector resource managers and private sector businesses that serve visitors to an outdoor recreation resource. The elements of the transactive planning process are illustrated and applied in a case study approach with the U.S. Forest Service and commercial outfitters adjacent to a forest recreation area. Outcomes of the planning process indicate that public managers and private businesses share many of the same management goals and concerns. They also agree they can and should address these concerns cooperatively. Results of the study indicate that this transactive process: (1) can promote cooperation and improved communication between public managers and private sector service businesses, and (2) can be effectively integrated into the implementation phase of the traditional allocative planning model on which most public resource agencies rely. Strengths and weaknesses of the transactive planning process are discussed.

KEYWORDS: Public-private cooperation, recreation resource management, transactive planning.

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Background

One way for public recreation resource managing agencies to meet the challenge of increasing use and declining budgets is to shift part of the agency role away from direct control to a broker or facilitator role. In this latter role, the agency works closely with various interest groups to define and protect resource values (Lime *et al.* 1989a; 1989b). Such a role might require public agencies to work cooperatively or collaboratively with organizations in the private sector to accomplish management objectives (Norman, Lime, and Roggenbuck 1989).

The purpose of this study was to implement a planning model intended to promote such public-private cooperation in the management of a public recreation resource, to present the steps involved in implementing the model, to examine the effectiveness of the model, and to make recommendations concerning the application of this model to other public-private management efforts. The approach here uses a case study analysis of a public-private sector cooperative planning process developed for the USDA Forest Service, Superior National Forest, and applied to the case of a water-based wilderness recreation resource.

The planning process implemented and evaluated in the study was intended to improve communication and promote cooperation between the groups involved, and was designed to be integrated into the planning processes already employed in the management of the resource. The planning model on which the process was based is defined as a modified transactive planning process (Friedmann 1973).

The study was set in the Boundary Waters Canoe Area Wilderness (BWCAW), an area of 1,075,500 acres in northeastern Minnesota's Superior National Forest. The study population included twenty-six Superior National Forest employees directly involved in the management of the BWCAW and seventy-three commercial and nonprofit businesses operating under contract with the Superior National Forest to issue mandatory use permits to BWCAW visitors. These commercial and nonprofit businesses provide equipment, information, and service to numerous BWCAW visitors each year.

The Forest Service sees "partnerships" with such private business groups as an increasingly important management strategy (Partnerships for the Future 1989). Private businesses help provide high-quality outdoor recreation experiences to many who would not otherwise be able to have them (Norman *et al.* 1989; Wallace, Tierney, and Haas 1990), and such partnerships offer important opportunities to help managers assure a successful future for the resource through the implementation of management plans (Hansen 1990). Forest Service managers and private businesses in the vicinity of the BWCAW now work together to provide visitors with wilderness use permits. Some members of these two groups collaborate to manage campgrounds on the periphery of the wilderness and to provide a limited number of other services to visitors to the forest (Hansen 1990).

However, two factors seem to work against improved cooperation between these groups. Historically, the two groups have often taken opposing sides in conflicts over the development and management of the resource (Proescholdt 1984). While some of the conditions which engendered the conflicts have changed, these historical conflicts still seem to limit potential for cooperation between the two groups. One possible explanation for the persistence of conflict between managers and private businesses is offered in the literature on community conflict. Coleman (1957) describes a "dynamic of controversy" which suggests that a single initial dispute (such as the designation of the BWCAW as a wilderness or the initiation of a permit and quota system) can disrupt the equilibrium of community relations. Eventually, such disputes can become generalized and independent of the initial issue. Coleman further suggests that

a generalization of conflict can impede communication between groups, which, in turn, exacerbates and perpetuates the conflict. This dynamic appears to be applicable to the situation which exists between public sector managers and private sector businesses in the BWCAW and elsewhere. The continuation of historical conflicts acts as an impediment to communication, which in turn serves to perpetuate conflict. To promote cooperation between the groups it is necessary to overcome, or at least circumvent, this persistent conflict. A number of authors (Coleman 1957; Himes 1980; LaTour *et al.* 1976; Meeks 1985; van Wagtenonk *et al.* 1990) have suggested that the first step in conflict resolution lies in opening channels of communication between groups.

A second factor which may impede cooperation between the two groups is found in the planning systems now used in managing the resource (Ashor, McCool, and Stokes 1986). Management of the BWCAW is bounded by the limits set through interpretation of the 1978 Boundary Waters Canoe Area Wilderness Act (PL 95-495) and is guided by the Superior National Forest Land and Resource Management Plan (USDA Forest Service 1986). In formulating this plan, Forest Service planners at the forest, regional, and national levels share information and link objectives through a traditional, centralized, rational-comprehensive planning process. Such processes have as their objective the identification of an "optimal path" for getting from the present to an idealized and predetermined future (Behn 1988).

This traditional planning model (and government agency planning in general) takes a strongly centralized approach to planning, and results in a situation in which the technical experts or planners—the managing agency—serve as specialists and advisors to a compulsory client—the private businesses. While this planning process permits public input to plans created by the agency (through public hearings and other venues), the agency retains control over the product of the planning process through this allocative structure. The nature of the plans reached through such a process is often fundamentally noncooperative, in that only the agency planners have any primary input in setting objectives and planning courses of action. Because this imbalance in "power" between the two groups necessarily affects the nature of the relationship between them, it seems unlikely that planning methods on which the Forest Service has traditionally relied will effectively promote cooperation between private businesses and BWCAW managers.

Transactive Planning Process

Implicit in the objectives of traditional, rational-comprehensive planning models is an assumption that the agency's strategic planners can identify "an optimal path from an analysis of the organization's resources, its capabilities, and its political, cultural, and economic environment" (Behn 1988, p. 647). This paradigm has been the object of criticism by a number of authors (Braybrooke and Lindlom 1963; Behn 1988; Friedmann 1973; McCool, Ashor, and Stokes 1986; Stokes 1982) because of its reliance on comprehensive analysis and its failure to acknowledge human limitations on knowledge (Stokes 1982).

A number of alternatives to rational-comprehensive planning have been proposed in the literature. The most commonly offered can be described as incremental planning processes—planning characterized by “decision making through small or incremental moves on particular problems” (Lindblom 1959, p. 159). While such processes have been accepted in a number of situations (McLaughlin 1977), the fundamentally conservative nature of incremental planning seems to offer little potential for effecting change (Stokes 1982). Other alternatives, including the advocacy and radical models (Hudson 1979), have found limited acceptance. The alternative model described in detail below, transactive planning (Friedmann 1973), has been accepted in the literature and offered potential for meeting the objectives of this case study situation.

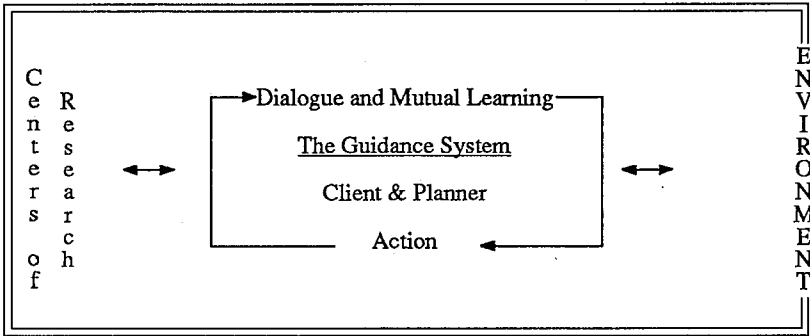
The transactive approach was developed by Friedmann (1973) in response to the problems posed by centralization in social planning situations relying on rational-comprehensive models. Transactive planning is very decentralized and emphasizes grass-roots involvement of people who may be affected by planning decisions (Ashor *et al.* 1986). This process offers a methodology which brings the professional planners together with those who will be most affected by planning decisions, to discuss and identify both the focus of the planning process and its expected outcomes.

Transactive planning should be based on small, local working groups which are designed as microcosms of the marketplace. Such planning should produce decisions which are acceptable to the constituents of that marketplace. Because all of the participants in transactive planning are regarded as valued, integral, and responsible contributors to the process (as partners with a vested interest in the planning products), tensions and dissatisfactions presumably can be greatly reduced (McCool *et al.* 1986). In addition, the process should encourage face-to-face communication between principal groups, and provide a setting for them to share ideas or establish “dialogue” and to engage in “mutual learning” through the acquisition and use of new knowledge. Dialogue and mutual learning set transactive planning apart from other models, and are, according to Friedmann (1973), the source of its efficacy.

A graphic representation of the transactive process is presented in figure 1. Each planning situation is bounded by the environment defined by its task. The guidance system is a planning milieu or set of standards for interaction evolved from the individuals (client and planner) bringing to the situation differing assets and perspectives which can be integrated through mutual learning, and augmented by information drawn from centers of research. Unlike the linear allocative model, transactive planning is cyclic, and action is a part of, rather than removed from, the planning process.

Because dialogue is “person-centered” or individually centered communication (Friedmann 1973), it must be characterized by a willingness on the part of the individuals involved to participate openly and honestly and to be accepting of the views of others involved. McCool *et al.* (1986), McLaughlin (1977), and Stokes (1982) identify seven indicators of such dialogue in the transactive process. These are: authenticity, integration of person, conflict acceptance, communication, reciprocity and mutual obligation, common concern, and common time and space.

Figure 1
A Model of Transactive Planning



Planners contribute

- Concepts
- Theory
- Analysis
- Processed knowledge
- New perspectives
- Systematic search procedures

Clients contribute

- Personal knowledge
- Realistic alternatives
- Norms
- Priorities
- Feasibility judgments
- Operational details

Adapted from Friedmann (1973, page 187)

Mutual learning is defined as the integration of personal and processed knowledge through dialogue. Personal knowledge is brought to the planning process by both the clients and the planners. It is characterized by: transfer of knowledge, operational details about the planning environment, an awareness of realistic alternatives or solutions that would be acceptable to the local culture, priorities, norms, and feasibility judgments (McCool *et al.* 1986; McLaughlin 1977; Stokes 1982). Processed knowledge is brought to the planning process by the planners and the centers of research acting in concert with the transactive process. It is characterized by: concepts, theory, analysis, new perspectives, systematic research, and the role of facilitator/coordinator (McCool *et al.* 1986; McLaughlin 1977; Stokes 1982).

Functionally, Friedmann's transactive planning is implemented through a cellular structure, with the task-oriented working group as its smallest unit. These working groups characteristically are: temporary, small scale (twelve or fewer members), interpersonal, comprised of a self-appointed and/or representative and cross-tied membership, self-guiding/autonomous, and responsible to act on plans derived through the process. In addition to the minimal cell or task-oriented working groups, transactive planning calls for the creation of networks or clusters of working groups, and working group assemblies to facilitate networks and intergroup communication and to set systemwide policy.

A Modified Transactive Planning Process

The purpose of this study was to develop, implement, and examine a planning process which would promote cooperation and improved communication between outdoor recreation resource managers and private sector businesses operating adjacent to the recreation resource, in this case the U.S. Forest Service and businesses adjacent to the BWCAW. Friedmann's (1973) transactive planning process was chosen as the most appropriate approach in this case. However, some modifications in Friedmann's process were necessary due to the historical conflict and animosity between the two groups (managers and businesses), and due to the legal limitations placed on the Forest Service by legislation and the U.S. Forest Service national office. The history of conflict made it difficult to establish the common ground and trust necessary for dialogue and mutual learning within the working groups. The legislative and administrative limitations on the Forest Service to act on potential planning process outcomes detracted from the autonomy of the planning groups. These limitations are not unusual, and indeed Stokes (1982), in his explanation of transactive planning, argues that local planning groups cannot separate themselves entirely from the institutions which comprise their planning environment.

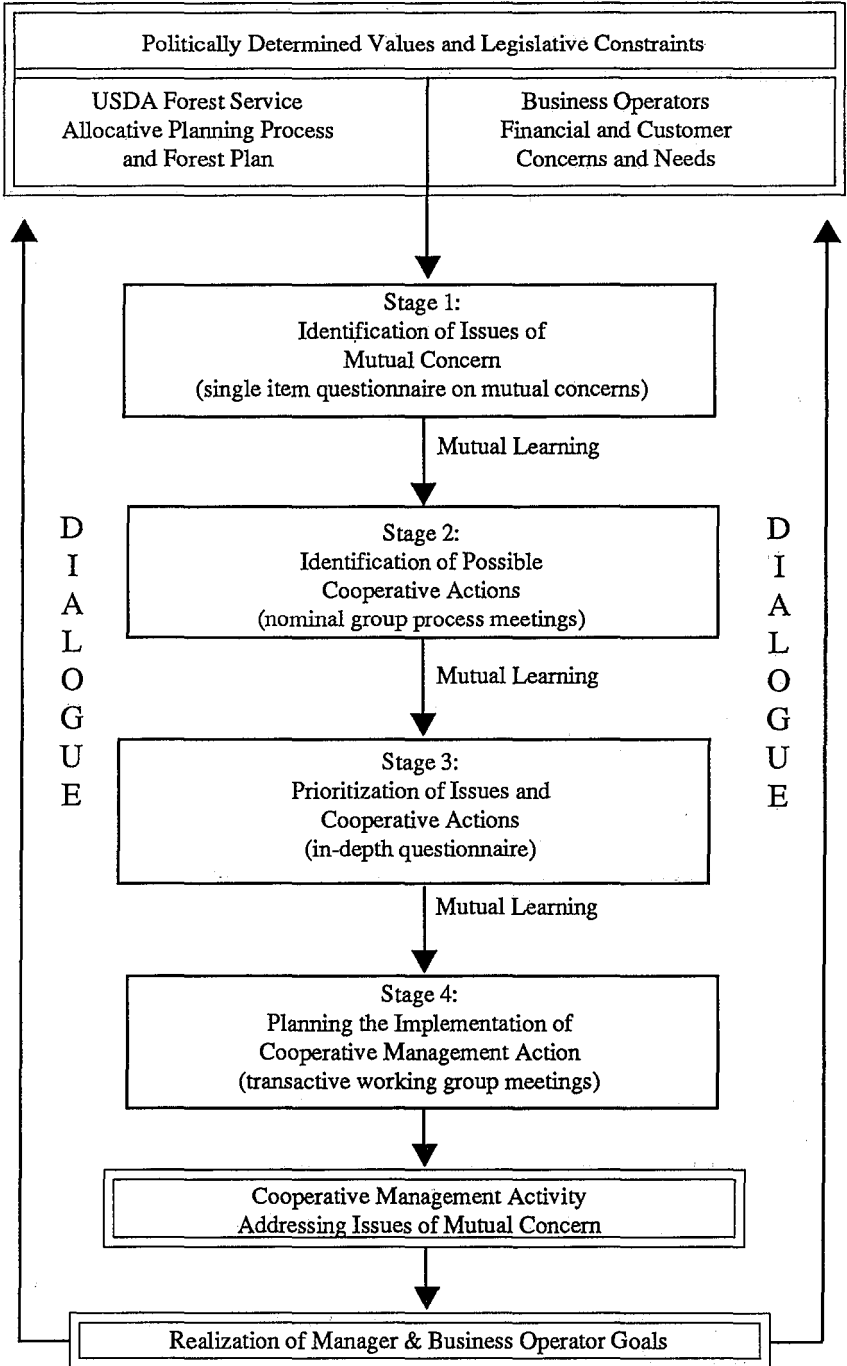
The modified transactive planning process developed and applied in this study is illustrated in figure 2. The modifications employed in this case addressed the problems of historical conflict and limitations on potential actions. Both groups had to accept the politically determined values and legislative constraints of a federally designated wilderness area, the reality that the Forest Service had to act within the administrative constraints of the current Forest Plan, and the reality that private businesses (Cooperative Permit Writers) had to accommodate their financial and customer needs. This necessitated two changes in the planning process defined by Friedmann (1973). First, the process in the current setting was limited to activities not in conflict with policies or objectives that had been determined through more traditional planning processes. Second, greater emphasis was placed on identifying common concerns and interests (to develop a context in which the working groups could operate) before transactive working groups were established.

Implementing the Model

The study population was comprised of all (twenty-six) full-time employees in the central and district offices of the Superior National Forest who are directly involved in the management of the BWCAW, and representatives of all (seventy-three) private sector businesses now operating under agreement with the Superior National Forest as Cooperative Permit Writers. Nearly 92 percent of this population participated in one or more stages of the study.

This process (figure 2) attempts to take into account the antecedent conditions—the political and legal constraints on public planning, and the needs and objectives of all of the groups involved—by focusing on issues which all of the participants identify as important. The process is intended to result in cooperative management activities that will contribute to the realization of all the participants' goals.

Figure 2
A Modified Transactive Planning Model with Planning Steps



The planning process implemented in this study is comprised of four stages:

- 1) identifying issues of concern to both resource managers and private businesses;
- 2) identifying cooperative actions which might resolve some of the issues or concerns identified in the initial stage;
- 3) prioritizing these issues and possible cooperative actions; and
- 4) planning the implementation of the cooperative actions identified and prioritized in the initial stages of the study.

Each of these stages is used to guide those that follow, and the findings or results of each stage (processed knowledge) are made available to study participants prior to the following stage to help facilitate mutual learning. The two group meetings (stages 2 and 4 above) are structured to facilitate nonconfrontational communication and dialogue. This process as a whole is designed to simulate a transactive process, and the final meeting (stage 4 of the process) was designed to be the transactive working group described by Friedmann.

All contacts between the two groups were mediated by the authors acting in the role of a "planner" as described by Friedmann, with both the managers and the business persons participating as "clients." In a preliminary step, the authors met with representatives from the Forest Service and with the presidents of the principal resort and outfitter associations near the BWCAW. This mediating was necessary due to the historical conflicts between the groups. During these meetings Forest Service representatives expressed a belief that the most important outcome of the process would be a long-term system to minimize tension and distrust and that the process should stress cooperation rather than attempting to resolve conflicts inherent in the BWCAW Wilderness Act or National Forest Policy. Similarly, the resort and outfitters' representatives suggested that the most important outcome of the process would be improved communication between the two groups. They also suggested a number of potential cooperative ventures between managers and local businesses.

Stage 1 of the planning process (identification of issues) was conducted during April 1989. A single-item open-ended mail-back questionnaire designed to elicit information from all the public managers and private businesses regarding the management needs of the BWCAW was sent to all of the subjects. This exploratory questionnaire asked participants: "What do you see as the most important things which need to be accomplished in wilderness management and visitor services over the next five to ten years to improve the quality of the BWCAW?" It was completed by 65 percent of the study population and helped identify some of the common ground necessary to the successful establishment of dialogue and mutual learning. The responses were analyzed using qualitative analysis methods described by Miles and Huberman (1984).

It is important in all planning processes to ensure that the focus is of interest and concern to all of the participants. It is particularly important in settings with a high potential for conflict between parties to keep stage 1 of this process (the identification of issues of concern) separate from the other stages. This helps mitigate the potential for conflict. In many settings, such issues could easily be

identified by the principal representatives of interested groups. But this "representative" method can alienate some potential participants. The authors believed it was appropriate to give everyone an equal opportunity to identify issues. Such issues can be identified through a survey like the one used here.

Response to this survey identified a number of categories or issues which both managers and private businesses perceive as important. While managers and private businesses did not identify all of the same issues and did not always stress the same aspects or perceptions of management issues, qualitative analysis of this survey indicates that the two groups' perceptions of what will enhance the future quality of the BWCAW are more similar than they are different.

The five management issues identified as most important to both public managers and private businesses, based on frequency of response in analysis of the stage 1 questionnaire, included: 1) interorganizational cooperation and communication; 2) user education; 3) enforcement of BWCAW rules and regulations; 4) permit and permit quota system; and 5) trail, portage, and campsite maintenance. The two groups' substantial agreement on these issues indicates that they might be effectively addressed through cooperative management action. The results of this survey were then mailed to all participants.

Stage 2 of the process combined the mutual learning and dialogue aspects of Friedmann's model. All study participants were invited to participate in two Nominal Group Technique (NGT) meetings (see Claxton, Ritchie, and Zaichkowsky 1980; Minnesota Extension Service 1987; Ritchie 1987) held in the vicinity of the BWCAW during May 1989. These NGT meetings were attended by 35 percent (thirty-six) of the study population. Those attending the meetings did so voluntarily, and were deemed to be representative of the entire study population regarding geographic locations, types of businesses, and amount of time in the BWCAW area. The five common issues from the initial survey were used to focus discussion during the NGT meetings. The meetings allowed participants an opportunity to identify cooperative efforts which might resolve some of the issues or meet some of the needs identified in the initial questionnaire. Participants in these meetings expressed a willingness to cooperate in a wide range of activities to improve the future management of the resource. This supported the assumption that there was potential for cooperative action between the two groups. The results of the NGT meetings were also mailed to all of the study participants.

Stage 3 of the process consisted of an in-depth questionnaire distributed to all study participants. This was necessary because a large segment of the population did not participate in the Nominal Group Technique meetings of stage 2. The stage 3 survey was necessary to give all participants another opportunity to have input on common issues and potential cooperative actions. The survey offered an opportunity for mutual learning, a means to provide input, a method to validate the results of the Nominal Group Technique, and a way to prevent future claims that policy was being decided by only a small "in-group" of managers and businesses. This 121-item survey was completed by 78 percent (seventy-seven) of the study population. It asked respondents to rate the importance of the management issues and the potential helpfulness of the

cooperative actions identified in stages 1 and 2 of this study, and issues raised in similar research conducted on three eastern rivers managed by the National Park Service (Lime *et al.* 1989a; 1989b; Roggenbuck *et al.* 1989). In addition, the survey asked participants to characterize the relationship existing between managers and businesspersons. Response to this survey allowed the quantification and prioritization of the two groups' perception of important management issues and potential cooperative actions. Data were analyzed in a variety of configurations using SPSS^x (SPSS, Inc. 1986). Analyses included frequency counts and t-tests to compare managers' and cooperators' responses across all of the scaled items. Analysis of this data again indicated that the managers and private businesses perceive many of the same issues as being important to the future of the BWCAW. These two groups also agree that it is important for them to work together to address these issues.

Eleven management issues and eight cooperative actions (figure 3) were identified by members of both groups as being important or very important to the future of the BWCAW. Of the eleven issues identified as important, seven deal with improving visitor education and two deal with improving interorganizational

Figure 3
Eleven "Most Important" Issues In the Management of the BWCAW
(based on average ranks assigned by public managers and private business operators)

- 1) Educating users about minimum impact camping
- 2) Educating users about wilderness ethics
- 3) Visitors' knowledge of rules and regulations
- 4) Quality of communication between USFS and visitors using their own equipment
- 5) Educating users about what wilderness is
- 6) Improving the quality of user education materials
- 7) Improving the delivery of user education materials
- 8) Improving cooperation between the USFS and BWCAW area outfitters and resorts
- 9) Improving recreational opportunities in the Superior National Forest outside of the BWCAW
- 10) Improving methods of enforcing BWCAW rules and regulations
- 11) Quality of communication between the USFS and cooperators

Eight "Most Helpful" Potential Cooperative Actions
(based on average ranks assigned by public managers and private business operators)

Managers and private businesses work together to:

- 1) develop better user education materials for "face-to-face" user education
- 2) develop new methods for delivering user education
- 3) develop better methods of managing large user groups
- 4) provide litter bags and anti-litter messages to users
- 5) develop better user education materials for inclusion with mailed permits
- 6) publicize or promote recreational opportunities in the Superior National Forest outside of the BWCAW
- 7) identify "key contact personnel" in the USFS and Cooperators' Associations to enhance the flow of information between the two groups
- 8) develop cooperative enforcement practices

communication. Of the eight possible cooperative actions identified as helpful or very helpful by members of both groups, six deal with user education or information services and one deals with improving interorganizational communication. This lends credence to the findings of the earlier stages of the research.

There were few statistically significant differences between the two groups regarding their perception of issues and important cooperative actions. However, the analysis did indicate that private businesses are supportive of increasing access to the wilderness (by building more access points and more campsites in the wilderness), of providing more services at access points, of more intensive fisheries management, and of reserving a set percentage of wilderness permits for use by their customers, while public managers generally are opposed to such actions.

The final stage of the planning process in this study was conducted during December 1989, when study participants were asked to participate in task-oriented working meetings modeled after Friedmann's (1973) transactive groups. The intended goal of the meetings was to begin planning the cooperative actions identified in the second questionnaire as agreeable to both groups. Eighteen percent (eighteen) of the study population participated in the meetings. During these final stage meetings, participants were presented a list of potential cooperative actions identified earlier in the process. Participants then selected cooperative actions they supported and were interested in discussing in more detail or working on together. Working groups were then formed, consisting of both managers and business owners, who worked together on planning specific cooperative actions. The working groups used information gathered earlier to assist in their mutual learning and to engage in dialogue.

An additional step was added to evaluate the process and its outcomes at the conclusion of the four stages shown in figure 2. This consisted of a structured telephone interview conducted with a stratified random sample of 20 percent (nineteen) of the original process participants. Selection was made separately for managers and businesspersons based on their location and their level of participation in the process. The interviewer asked each subject thirty questions designed to evaluate the degree to which the process utilized was transactive, and whether the process contributed to changes in the nature and quality of communication and cooperation between the Forest Service managers and private sector businesses. The interview questions were designed to address the integral components of transactive planning suggested by Friedmann (1973), McLaughlin (1977), Ashor *et al.* (1986), and Stokes (1986). The interview data were analyzed following the qualitative three-dimensional flow outlined by Miles and Huberman (1984) including: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification.

Process Results

The most tangible result of this use of a modified transactive process relating to the BWCAW is a list of specific cooperative actions shown in figure 4. These actions concentrate on three issues: (1) user education (2) improving commu-

nication between managers and private businesses, and (3) ways of promoting increased use of near-wilderness resources. These were identified as cooperative actions that managers and businesses are willing to work on together. Some are small projects, like initiating a preseason meeting each year between managers and businesses. Other actions are more complex, such as the joint development of a more sophisticated user education program (including the joint production of a video).

The overall purpose of implementing the transactive planning process in this case study was to improve communication and promote cooperation between the USFS managers and the private businesses near the BWCAW. The list of cooperative actions in figure 4 indicates that the process did work. But how effective was the process, was the process used indeed transactive planning, and

Figure 4
Planning Process Outcomes and Recommendations

- 1) USFS managers and private business operators, in coordination with the University of Minnesota and other interested groups, establish a BWCAW User Education Action Committee to oversee the development, production, and evaluation of BWCAW user education materials and programs.
- 2) USFS managers and private business operators work together to identify and promote opportunities for off-road mountain biking experiences in the Superior National Forest Gunflint District.
- 3) USFS managers and private business operators meet at a district level at the beginning of each canoe season to discuss district needs with respect to planned wilderness maintenance activities and the allocation of wilderness crew resources.
- 4) USFS managers and private business operators establish more frequent contact to communicate information about trail and campsite conditions, blow-downs, bears, etc.
- 5) USFS managers and private businesses identify minimum standards (time and/or content) for BWCAW user education programs.
- 6) USFS managers and private businesses work together on enforcement of BWCAW rules and regulations by developing a system for reporting violations.
- 7) USFS managers and private businesses develop a list of campsites and recreational opportunities in the Superior National Forest which are located outside of the designated wilderness.

how can it be improved? The evaluation interviews conducted after the process indicated that all the managers and business owners interviewed recommended this process for use in other wilderness management situations with a similar need for cooperation. A majority of both groups indicated that the process improved communication and the opportunity for cooperation in the future. All of the private businesses and all but one of the public managers interviewed also indicated that public managers and private businesses can work together effectively to deal with issues of mutual concern.

Friedmann (1973) asserts that two characteristics, dialogue and mutual learning, are integral to and indicative of transactive planning. An analysis of the data gathered through the evaluative interviews indicates that the participants believe the planning process developed in this study was characterized by all seven dialogue indicators identified by Ashor *et al.* (1986) and Stokes (1982) including: authenticity, integration of person, conflict acceptance, communication, reciprocity and mutual obligation, common concern, and common space and time. The analysis also indicates that mutual learning, the integration of personal and processed knowledge, was facilitated by the process. Indicators of personal knowledge identified by Ashor *et al.* (1986) and Stokes (1982) that were present in the analysis include: transfer of knowledge, operational details, realistic alternatives, and feasibility judgments.

The presence of both dialogue and mutual learning is sufficient to conclude that the process developed during this research was transactive, because—in their discussions of transactive planning—previous researchers (Ashor *et al.* 1986; Friedmann 1973; McLaughlin 1977; Stokes 1986) all focus on mutual learning and dialogue as two components integral to such processes. However, they also include a third characteristic, societal guidance, the system changes which derive from transactive planning. Societal guidance, in Friedmann's model, is characterized by autonomous working groups, responsiveness, innovation, effectiveness, efficiency, and legitimacy. Within the constraints of the antecedent conditions (the legal limitations of the Wilderness Act and administrative constraints of the Forest Service), this planning process was characterized by a limited autonomy, responsiveness, and legitimacy. Innovation and effectiveness appear to be present in that the study's planning process dealt with resolving current management issues of importance to members of both groups through new cooperative arrangements that remain untested but are at least perceived as effective. A majority of managers and business owners expressed a commitment to follow through on the recommendations reached through the process.

The efficiency (as a component of Friedmann's societal guidance) of this planning process is difficult to assess without comparison to other processes. However, response from participants indicates that it could be made more efficient. The planning process developed and examined in this study took nine months to complete. While the planning process actually asked for only about eight hours of involvement from participants (two meetings of about three hours each, and two questionnaires which took thirty to sixty minutes to complete), stretching it out over nine months appears to have complicated the process, and made it difficult for some participants to maintain interest. In a practical application (outside of the rather rigid constraints of the research milieu) it should be possible to implement a planning process based on this model in a much shorter time span. In this study, the identification and prioritization of potential cooperative actions were conducted in two distinct stages using different methodologies to allow for verification of the research findings. In other settings, these two activities can, and perhaps should, be combined into a single stage through the use of a Nominal Group Technique meeting. Doing so

would shorten the planning process and allow participants to move quickly into the final planning stage.

Within the limits established in the design of this study it is appropriate to conclude that the model implemented was transactive and that it successfully met the objectives of this study by (1) facilitating dialogue and mutual learning and (2) identifying cooperative actions which address important and current issues in resource management. It is also reasonable to conclude that the planning process designed and implemented here can provide a mechanism for effectively facilitating cooperation and improved communication between public managers and private businesses in other resource management situations.

Discussion

Data gathered during the four stages of this planning process indicate that the resource managers and business operators perceive similar needs for the future of the resource (in this case, the BWCAW) and share common concerns about both the preservation of the resource and its availability for use for recreation. This tends to contradict a popular belief common in resource management at all levels of government, that these groups view resource management needs differently (Norman, Lime, and Roggenbuck 1989). The study also provided a prioritized list of cooperative management actions agreeable to members of both groups which may help motivate continued cooperation between them. In addition, the process appears to have contributed to several management policy changes which are perceived as beneficial to members of both groups. These changes include revisions in the visitor education materials and methods, the joint production of a visitor education video, and a requirement that all visitors to the wilderness during 1991 pick up their use permits in person (rather than receiving them in the mail).

The research also supports the effectiveness of a mechanism through which public agencies can develop partnerships directed toward better serving public resources and public resource users. If public agencies are interested and willing to participate in such partnerships, this finding is of value. Finally, this study indicates that it is possible to integrate some form of transactive planning into traditional allocative models upon which most public resource management agencies rely. This study, then, supports a "new" application for transactive planning because it demonstrates that a modified transactive model can be used to focus on the implementation of values and agency policies determined through rational-comprehensive or other planning processes.

How should Friedmann's model be modified or improved to particularly suit the demands of the park and recreation field? Although the model was designed to focus on the creation of new social policy, this case study found that the model can be modified to focus on the specific implementation of predetermined public policy. Friedman envisioned the client and planner interacting on an equal standing during the planning process and that this would occur naturally when the client and planner were brought together and shared mutual learning and dialogue. This is often difficult to do when the "planner" is a public land

managing agency viewed by the “client” (general public) as the more powerful of the two. Usually the public agency initiates the planning process, holds planning meetings in its building, chairs the planning sessions, and in general appears to be the entity in charge of the process. It is no wonder the public often feels that the planning decisions have already been made before the process begins. This case study found that step 1 in the process (see figure 2) is critical. Issues of mutual concern, those issues that are appropriate to address through this particular planning effort, must be identified by all involved parties in a climate or through a process where everyone has an equal opportunity to contribute and prioritize those issues. In our case we used a mailback, open-ended question distributed to all parties in the process. This step can also be accomplished in a Nominal Group Technique where all have equal opportunity to contribute and the process cannot be dominated by neither the planning agency nor by vocal members of the client group. Once the issues of mutual concern are identified, prioritized, and limited, the process can move into the planning model process described by Friedmann.

Friedmann’s planning model would be particularly appropriate in the following settings and situations in the park and recreation field: (1) settings where private businesses are operating in, or in conjunction with, a recreation resource (national, state and local park concessions, outfitters, equipment rental businesses where use occurs in the park, and resorts in or near parks); (2) situations where use problems are occurring in a public park; (3) in any situation where long-standing management policies need to be reviewed or changed and such a change is likely to create conflict among interested parties, including private businesses; and (4) addressing issues of long-term environmental health of outdoor recreation resources.

This study did not seek to determine if the potential costs (both social and fiscal) of cooperation between agencies outweigh the potential benefits, or if the costs of the planning process used in the study outweigh its potential benefits. This study also limited participation in the planning process to two groups that may not be representative of the community as a whole. While these issues must be given consideration in future research, in the interim it might be best to heed Norman *et al.*, who suggest that while public/private cooperation is “not a panacea or cure-all for the long-term challenges facing people responsible for protecting (recreation) resources” (1989, p. 21), cooperative arrangements can be valuable and are certainly worth trying.

Management planning is generally accepted as a necessity because it is perceived as the only rational-scientific way to ensure a successful future. Unfortunately, there is little consistency or agreement on the best methods available to planners. While there is a need to identify such a “best” method, the restricted and traditional structures of many land management agencies make field experimentation problematic. The identification of effective planning mechanisms which can easily be integrated into established processes is, then, potentially valuable in both practice and theory.

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