

ROLE CONFLICT, ROLE AMBIGUITY AND  
ORGANIZATION-BASED SELF-ESTEEM  
AMONG PARK RANGER  
PROFESSIONALS

BY

BRANDON J. NEAL

Master of Science  
California State University Sacramento  
Sacramento, California 1994

Bachelor of Science  
California State University Sacramento  
Sacramento, California 1978

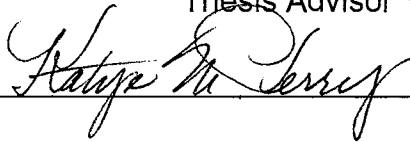
Submitted to the Faculty of the  
Graduate College of the  
Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for  
the Degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
July, 1999


Thesis  
1999D  
N338r

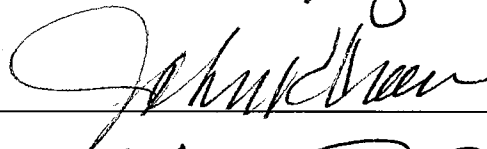
ROLE CONFLICT, ROLE AMBIGUITY AND  
ORGANIZATION-BASED SELF-ESTEEM  
AMONG PARK RANGER  
PROFESSIONALS

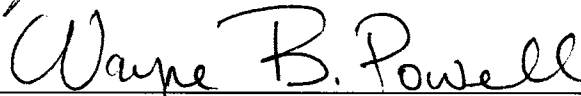
Thesis Approved:

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Thesis Advisor

  
\_\_\_\_\_

  
\_\_\_\_\_

  
\_\_\_\_\_

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Dean of the Graduate College

## PREFACE

In the fall of 1994, my wife and I began a journey that would not only test our endurance as individuals but also as a couple with extended families. Many people warned us about the pitfalls and misfortunes of others who had attempted the same journey. But, we forged ahead anyway into some unknown territory.

Not long after the start of our journey, I had an opportunity to acquaint myself with a well-educated person. Unfortunately, as this individual and I stood looking at the scenery in front of us we could not see the same forest through the trees. Then one day it happened this person looked at me and said, "you need to stop trying to be a scholar, you do not have what it takes." I was hurt, angered and confused by what had just happened. I have tried to get beyond this person's insensitive remarks, but sometimes it has not been easy. Especially, during some of the course work. Let's face it some classes were more demanding than others, but that is part of the trip.

I often think about the attributes of a good scholar. In fact, on one of many road trips with Dr. Caneday I turned towards him and asked: Exactly what is a scholar? Is it someone who has more publications than another person? Or, is it someone who has superior intelligence because the results of some test that uses a scale with no true zero said they do. Lowell thought for a moment, turned and responded, "Brandon I don't really know what makes

a good scholar, but I can give you some examples of people I regard as scholars.” I still did not have the answer to my question. However, as the journey continues and I draw upon past experiences for application on new beginnings I start to understand what it means to be a scholar. One tool that I have picked-up along the way and put in my toolbox is the ability to maintain an open mind.

To the four individuals that were willing to be a part of this research committee Dr. Lowell Caneday, Dr. John Cross, Dr. Katye Perry and Dr. Tom Kuzmic I want to express my thanks. You were chosen because of your scholarship, but more importantly, you were chosen because of your humanity towards your students. I have personally watched each one of you stop along the way and recognized the potential in some trees that others were ready to cut from the forest of knowledge.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. THE RESEARCH PROBLEM .....	1
Introduction .....	1
Background for the Study .....	3
Purpose of Study .....	6
Research Design .....	7
Delimitations .....	9
Limitations .....	9
Assumptions .....	9
Hypotheses .....	10
Definition of Terms .....	11
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE .....	13
Legislative History and Policies .....	14
National Parks .....	14
Difficulties of Managing National Parks .....	20
Military Intervention .....	27
Back to a Civilian Administration .....	32
Creation of the National Park Service .....	34
Park Rangers Take the Place of Soldiers .....	37
The Advent of State Parks .....	39
Oklahoma State Park Development .....	40
Historical Perspectives of the Park Ranger Profession .....	54
National Park Service Ranger .....	54
Era of Change .....	62
Oklahoma State Park Rangers .....	68
Operating Policies and Procedures for Oklahoma State Park Ranger .....	74
Theories of Park Resource Management .....	74
Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity, Career Satisfaction, Organizational Involvement and Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) .....	77
Summary .....	84

Chapter	Page
III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES .....	85
Data Collection .....	85
Research Instrument.....	86
Method of Analyses .....	89
IV. ANALYSES OF DATA.....	91
Demographic Profile .....	91
Hypotheses Testing .....	96
Direction and Intensity of Measures on Instrument .....	99
Self-Evaluated Perceptions on Allied Professions .....	101
V. SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	105
Summary.....	105
Findings .....	106
Conclusions and Discussion.....	109
Recommendations .....	119
LITERATURE CITED.....	122
APPENDIXES .....	133
Institutional Review Board Approval .....	134
Approval from Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department.....	135
Questionnaire .....	137

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Original State Parks in 1935 .....	44
II. Professional Training and Certification for Law Enforcement Personnel .....	94
III. Pearson Correlation Coefficients .....	97
IV. Summary of Analysis of Data.....	99



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Frequency of Employment Classification .....	93
2. Self-Evaluated Perception of the Oklahoma Highway Patrol Trooper.....	102
3. Perceptions of Resource Stewardship.....	103
4. Self-Evaluated Perception on Oklahoma Wildlife Conservation Game Ranger.....	104
5. Perceived Incompatibilities .....	110
6. Perceived Manpower Shortage.....	111
7. Perceptions of Job Performance.....	112
8. Perceptions of Commitment.....	113
9. Perceptions of Career Advancement.....	114
10. Satisfaction with Career Progress .....	115
11. Consideration of Seeking Employment Elsewhere .....	116

## CHAPTER I

### THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

#### INTRODUCTION

The career of a park ranger is one of complexity, diversification and specialization. It requires rangers to be proficient in a multitude of job tasks. It is also a profession of "stewardship" (Snizek, Shoemaker, & Bryant, 1985). In recent decades this traditional role has expanded for park rangers, and now includes job functions associated with that of a traditional police officer (Dwyer & Murrell, 1986). Stated another way, park rangers "perform many of the same tasks as city police do, but the jobs are vastly different; and each one is quite specialized" (Hays, 1994 p. 32). According to Sharpe, Odegaard and Sharpe (1994) park law enforcement is perhaps the most problematic feature of modern day park management.

A review of literature suggests that law enforcement and issues related to role conflict, role ambiguity and overall job satisfaction are historic problems, and continue to be problems for modern day park rangers and resource managers (Cong. House Doc. No 1502, 1915; Hampton, 1971; Ise, 1961; Hays, 1994). Congress, in 1883, created legislation authorizing the use of military troops to

protect Yellowstone National Park. However, it was not until 1886, at the request of the Secretary of the Interior, the U.S. Cavalry was dispatched to Yellowstone National Park. Their mission was to "prevent trespassers or intruders from entering the park for the purpose of destroying the game or objects of curiosity" (Cong. House Doc. No.1502, 1915, p. 8). Similar conditions existed in other national parks. For example, in Sequoia and Yosemite National Parks sheep owners enjoyed unauthorized use of government land for grazing purposes. Again, the use of the military was necessary to stop the destruction caused by over-grazing sheep. This "special duty," however, created a conflict between the Departments of War and Interior concerning military responsibilities (Cong. House Doc. No.1502, 1915, p. 5).

By 1914, a soldier's law enforcement function also included construction, maintenance and administration of the parks. "They have been used for checking automobiles, testing automobiles, collecting tolls, guiding tourists, patrolling for and fighting fire, registering tourists, searching for lost parties" (Cong. House Doc. 1502, 1915 p. 10).

Like these early national parks, modern day parks have similar problems. In recent times, however, many park agencies have witnessed increases not only in the number of visitors, but also increases in criminal and other inappropriate human behavior. It is also a behavior that does not favor any one political entity. Often times it leaves park administrators in a quandary concerning police authority, jurisdiction and scope of employment, as well as a host of other issues related to law enforcement (Charles, 1982; Dwyer and Price 1983; Dwyer and

Murrell, 1986; Hays, 1994; Swearingen and Johnson, 1992). For the park ranger the role of law enforcement officer may certainly have new meaning and purpose. This role also extends to state and city parks, as well as, national parks.

Clearly, park rangers serve a unique role as law enforcement officers in outdoor recreational settings. Also equally clear is that in this type of setting, law enforcement takes on unusual dimensions. What sets park law enforcement apart from the rest of the law enforcement arena is that park enforcement personnel are in the business of managing people having fun. Park agencies are typically not interested in the number of arrests or citations made by their ranger staff. Instead, managers of these agencies recognize that recreation is based on the perception of personal freedom, and park rangers should interfere as little as possible with the park visitor's recreation experience (Dwyer and Price, 1983). Given this perception it is quite possible for park rangers and their employing agency to have completely different ideologies concerning the use of law enforcement in an outdoor recreational setting.

### Background for the Study

Park rangers represent legal authority in a unique work setting, and as a result they must manage a complex network of role relationships. Dwyer and Murrell (1986) identify a "need for better understanding of the park law enforcement job" (P. 53). Other authors (Dwyer and Price 1986; Hays, 1997; Sharpe et al., 1994) concerned with the functional role of the park ranger argue

that park rangers are often unclear as to their function. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect park rangers to experience role conflict and role ambiguity, as well as problems associated with organizational involvement and career satisfaction.

Relationships between role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational involvement and overall job satisfaction have been explored in a wide variety of professions (Brayfield and Rothe, 1951; Hamner and Tosi, 1974; Martelli, Waters and Martelli, 1989; Romzek, 1989). The relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction has been linked with the amount of formalization, types of supervisory behaviors and ease of communication (Abramis, 1994). In a study of federal employees, Miles (1975) suggested that "job satisfaction, job related tension and attitudes toward role senders appeared to be causally related to experienced role conflict" (p. 338). Attitudes toward role senders refers to trust, respect and a general liking for other members involved in a hierarchical relationship (Rizzo et al., 1970).

Regoli and Poole (1980) examined law enforcement professionalism and role conflict between rural and urban police departments. The results demonstrated that role conflict was affected by three dimensions of professionalism: belief in self-regulation, a sense of calling to the profession and a belief in autonomy. On this basis they also suggested "that the identification of organizational processes unique to agency type could be useful in specifying the nature and consequences of the police role" (p. 251).

Another type of role conflict identified in the literature is "role-overload" (Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, and Cummings, 1993; Rizzo et al., 1970).

Interestingly, in a study among Virginia state park rangers, Snizek, Shoemaker and Bryant (1985) found that role-overload was significantly related to job satisfaction. Role-overload is created when a person is expected to perform a wide variety of tasks; however, completion of the tasks is not possible because of limited time. This seems plausible considering the nature of the park ranger's and park manager's job.

The work of Romzek (1989) explored the effects of employee commitment on individuals' non-work and career satisfaction. The results indicated that people with high levels of organizational involvement enjoy a higher level of non-work and career satisfaction.

Recently, a growing body of literature has pointed to the potential application measuring the effects of "organization-based self-esteem" (OBSE), on career satisfaction (Pierce et al., 1989, p.624; see also Carson, Carson, Lanford, and Roe, 1997; Pierce, et al., 1993; Tang and Gilbert, 1994).

"Organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) reflects the degree to which organizational members can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the context of the organization" (Pierce et al. 1993 p. 285). Therefore, individuals with high OBSE have a sense of personal sufficiency as organizational members and a sense of having fulfilled needs from their organizational roles in the past. Hence, organization-based self-esteem reflects the self-perceived value that an employee has of themselves as organization members acting within an

organizational context. This leads one to consider that individuals with high OBSE should perceive themselves as important, meaningful, effectual, and worthwhile within their employing organization (Carson et al., 1997; Tang and Gilbert, 1994).

The literature suggests that role conflict, role ambiguity, and diminished levels of organization-based self-esteem inhibit the effective operation of traditional law enforcement agencies. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect park law enforcement personnel, that is park rangers, to experience differential variations in the effects of organization-based self-esteem on career consequences and quality. This study was concerned with organization-based self-esteem.

### Purpose of Study

Given the unique nature of the park ranger profession and its multiple functions, the purpose of this study was to see if a relationship existed between role conflict, role ambiguity and organization-based self-esteem levels among park law enforcement personnel. A secondary aim of this study was to provide agency personnel with a better understanding of the impacts created by these variables

Clearly, there is a need for better understanding of the role of the park ranger in its differential variations within an outdoor recreation setting. The use of law enforcement is undeniable throughout many park and recreation areas,

and if not appreciated and managed properly may have negative impact on the park ranger's professional and personal life.

### Research Design

Data collection for the current study involved a self administered paper and pencil questionnaire, distributed to park rangers and property managers employed by the Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department (OTRD), Division of State Parks. This thirty-six-item test instrument was administered to park rangers and park managers during the agency's annual in-service training that was held on February 22, 1999. The respondents were instructed to give their completed questionnaires to the representative from Oklahoma State University.

The variables for this study were drawn from the previous research efforts of others. The first 14-items were derived from an instrument developed by Rizzo et al. (1970) that measures role ambiguity and role conflict. Rizzo and his colleagues used a seven-point scale ranging from very false to very true. However, for the current study the use of a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagrees (1) to strongly agree (5) was used for consistency in the instrument.

Romzek (1989) took three measures of family involvement from a study. These items used a scale with a Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Question fifteen scoring was reversed. For the family involvement scale, Romzek (1989) reported a Cronbach alpha of .71.



Six items were taken from Romzek's (1983) Organizational Involvement and Career Satisfaction scale. "The resultant organizational involvement scale has a Cronbach alpha of .77. The [career satisfaction] scale has a Spearman-Brown split-half reliability coefficient of .70" (Romzek, 1989, p. 653).

Three items were added by the researcher to measure park rangers' perceptions of role importance compared with the roles of Oklahoma Highway Patrol Troopers and Oklahoma Department of Wildlife Conservation game rangers.

A 10 item instrument developed and validated by Pierce et al., (1993) was used to measure an individual's Organization-based Self-esteem. From their study, the reported coefficient alpha was .90 for OBSE (Pierce et al., 1993). For analytic purposes scale values range from one (1) to five (5) with one representing the negative end of the dimension.

Finally, the last section requested demographic related information concerning participants' age, sex, marital status, level of education and career field tenure. The Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department submitted an item that asked employees to describe the population of the closest city or town near their park. In the remaining space of the questionnaire participants had an opportunity to make any additional comments regarding their organization and job function.

## Delimitations

Delimitations allow the researcher to establish certain boundaries concerning the characteristics of a particular study population (Baumgartner and Strong, 1994). For this study two delimitations were recognized.

1. Only state park rangers and park managers employed by Oklahoma Department of Tourism and Recreation, Division of State Parks were surveyed.
2. The test instrument served to measure role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, organizational involvement and organization-based self-esteem.

## Limitations

The current study identified one limitation:

1. Under representation of female gender, and ethnicity for the park ranger and park manager classifications.

## Assumptions

Additionally, the following assumptions were recognized. They included the following:

1. Since some park rangers and park managers may not have received law enforcement training as provided by the Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (Title 70 § 3311.), it is assumed that not all of the participants had received training.

2. Since some park managers serve only in a reserve police officer status, it is assumed that law enforcement duties are not primary functions for park managers.

### Hypotheses

Because the park ranger profession is comprised of differential variations regarding the nature of the job, the following hypotheses were developed and tested at an alpha level of .05.

- Hypothesis 1: OBSE is not significantly correlated with role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.
- Hypothesis 2: Role conflict is not significantly correlated with role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.
- Hypothesis 3: Role ambiguity is not significantly correlated with career commitment, family involvement and organizational involvement.
- Hypothesis 4: Career satisfaction is not significantly correlated with family involvement and organizational involvement.
- Hypothesis 5: Organizational involvement is not significantly correlated with family involvement.

## Definition of Terms

As with any research process, the vocabulary employed in discussion of specific ideas must be defined. The following terms are defined for the purpose of this study:

**Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET):** the training authority for all law enforcement officers in Oklahoma under Title 70 § 3311 and 3311.1.

**Organizational commitment:** a psychological attachment to a work organization (Romzek, 1989).

**Organization-based self-esteem:** "the degree to which organizational members believe that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the context of an organization" (Pierce et al., 1989 p.625).

**Park:** a "tract of tax supported land and water, established primarily for the benefit and enjoyment of the public and maintained essentially for outdoor recreation activities" (Sharpe et al., 1994 p. 4).

**Park manager:** generally an individual with responsibility for managing outdoor recreation facilities or parks (Sharpe et al., 1994).

**Park ranger:** generally considered to be a field position within a park agency or department. Legal definition of this term is defined by agency policy, and by federal, state or local laws (Sharpe et al., 1994).

**Peace officer:** generally defined as any individual who is employed by a government entity who by legal authority has the power to arrest individuals suspected of committing a misdemeanor or felony crime. This

term is also synonymous with police officer, law enforcement officer. (Black's Law Dictionary, 1991).

**Role:** "most typically defined as a set of expectations about behavior for a position in a social structure" (Rizzo et al., 1970 p. 155). According to Miller, Johnson, Hart and Peterson (1999) a role also involves certain expectations and a preferred manner in which certain tasks are to be fulfilled.

**Role ambiguity:** the uncertainty about how to carry out the work role (Abramis, 1994). Wolverton and Wolverton (1999) describe role ambiguity in terms of an amount or "the degree to which we have sufficient information to perform the tasks or to ambiguous and problematic work requirements and performance expectations" (p. 81).

**Role conflict:** "the degree of incongruity or incompatibility of expectations associated with a role" (Miles, R.H., 1975 p.335). For the law enforcement officer, role conflict is a situation involving the simultaneous occurrence of role expectation that are conflicting or contradictory" (Regoli and Poole, 1980 p. 242).

**Self-esteem:** "an attitude of approval or disapproval of self; it is a personal evaluation reflecting what people think of themselves as individuals" (Pierce et al., 1989 p. 623).

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The following review of related literature attempts to familiarize the reader with a better understanding of the park ranger profession. First, a discussion of legislative history and policies that guided the National Parks as well as Oklahoma state parks is presented. Second, the occupational role of modern day park rangers is compared and contrasted with the occupational role of early ranger professionals. The third area of review presents theories of park resource management and protection. Additionally, some of the peculiar difficulties of resource management in an outdoor recreation setting are identified. Also, three resource protection objectives are viewed. These include protecting the park from the people, protecting people from the park and protecting people from people. The final portion of this review is a discussion of role theory. Within this context four areas of human resource management impacts are discussed. They include role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational commitment and organization-based self-esteem.

The literature reviewed in this chapter presents detail on the history, purpose, the people and the property commonly known as national parks and state parks. This history, these purposes, these people and these properties demonstrate the presents of role conflict, role ambiguity and organization-based

self-esteem throughout the history of the park movement. This literature establishes the connection between parks, the people who work in those parks, the people who visit those parks and the role conflict, role ambiguity and organization-based self-esteem of the rangers and managers.

## Legislative History and Policies

### National Parks

Ultimately, the Congress of the United States controls the management and protection of the country's land resources. The property clause of the Constitution grants Congress the authority and "Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States,..."(Art. IV, § 3, cl. 2). The General Land Office was created by Congress in 1812, and placed under the supervision of the Secretary of the Treasury. This Office was charged with the control of public lands, including their survey, processing homestead applications and Indian allotments, and all mineral leases. On March 3, 1849, Congress authorized the creation of the Department of the Interior. The Department of Interior was responsible for the management of all public lands owned by the Federal Government. The Department was also vested with managing areas reserved as public pleasuring grounds, and beginning in 1872, National Parks and in 1891 reserved forest lands (Department of the Interior Annual Report, 1928).

As early as 1832, Hot Springs Reservation, Arkansas was established by an Act of Congress. Approved April 20, 1832, this Act provided "that the hot

springs in Arkansas Territory, together with four sections of land including said springs as near the center as may be shall be reserved for future disposition purposes whatever" (Hot Springs Reservation Act, 1832). The Hot Springs Reservation became the country's first federally managed area for utilitarian purposes. Black's Law Dictionary (1990) defines reservation as "a tract of land, more or less considerable in extent, which by public authority withdrawn from sale or settlement, and appropriated to specific public uses; such as parks, military posts [and] Indian lands." This withdrawn land was protected not for scenic reasons but for the protection of the hot water emitted by springs. Originally, the area was comprised of 73 springs that emitted water ranging in temperatures from 76° to 157° F, and had long since been known for their therapeutic and medicinal qualities. The actual quantity was unknown, but almost 888,000 gallons of water a day were regulated by the Department of the Interior under the provisions of the act.

In 1864, while the United States was heavily engaged in a Civil War, Congress approved an act granting to the State of California, Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Grove of Big Trees. Described as a "'Cleft' or 'Gorge'" in the original act, this valley with an average width of one mile and estimated to be fourteen miles in length, embraced "innumerable lakes and waterfalls and smooth silky lawns; the noblest forests, the loftiest granite domes" (Muir, 1901, pg. 78). This act was approved on June 30, 1864, with the stipulation that the State of California "shall accept this grant upon the express conditions that the premises shall be held for public use, resort, and recreation; shall be inalienable



for all time" (Yosemite Valley & Big Trees Grant, 1864). The act also allowed the leasing of "portions of said premises" for not more than ten years, and "all incomes derived from leases of privileges to be expended in the preservation and improvement of the property, or the roads leading thereto" (Yosemite Valley & Big Trees Grant, 1864). This was the first extensive area of spectacular scenery to be set aside for non-utilitarian purpose (Sharpe et al., 1994). Yosemite Valley was managed by the state of California for more than 40 years until June 11, 1906, when a joint resolution accepted the recession by the State of California of the Yosemite Valley Grant.

On March 1, 1872 Congress created Yellowstone Park by setting aside "a certain Tract of Land lying near the Headwaters of the Yellowstone River as a public Park" (Yellowstone National Park Act, 1872). Because the provisions of the act set a pattern for the establishment of future national parks, it is pertinent to note the provisions of the act. This organic act specified that the area near the headwaters of the Yellowstone River "is hereby reserved and withdrawn from settlement, occupation, or sale under the laws of the United States, and dedicated and set apart as a public park or pleasuring-ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people." Additionally, the act allowed for the removal of anyone who was considered to be a trespasser (Yellowstone National Park Act, 1872).

Exclusive control of Yellowstone was given to the Secretary of the Interior, "whose duty it shall be, as soon as practicable, to make and publish such rules and regulations as he may deem necessary or proper for the care and management" of the park. Regulations promulgated by the Secretary were to

"provide for the preservation, from injury or spoliation, of all timber, mineral deposits, natural curiosities, or wonders within said park, and their retention in their natural condition" (Yellowstone National Park Act, 1872).

The Secretary was also empowered to grant "leases for building purposes for terms not exceeding ten years, of small parcels of ground, at such places in said park as shall require the erection of buildings for the accommodation of visitors" (Yellowstone National Park Act, 1872). Any revenue generated from a lease agreement could be used "in the management of the same, and the construction of roads and bridle-paths therein." A final provision of this Act required the Secretary of the Interior to provide against the wanton destruction of the fish and game found within said park, and against their capture or destruction for the purpose of merchandise or profit" (Yellowstone National Park Act, 1872).

In 1875, Congress created a second National Park in the State of Michigan. Mackinac Island was a military reservation located between the upper and lower peninsula in the Straits of Mackinac, and was "set apart as a national public park" on March 3, 1875. The Act creating Mackinac National Park was in many respects a duplication of the Yellowstone Act written three years earlier. The park was dedicated "for health, comfort and pleasure, for the benefit and enjoyment of the people." There was a provision for the making and publishing of rules and regulations for the protection and preservation of the park. However, one provision that was not a duplication was that this National Park was "under the exclusive control of the Secretary of War." As such, the Secretary of War was responsible for the proper care and management of this National Park

(Mackinac Island National Park Act, 1875). Mackinac Island had been poorly protected; as a result, by 1887 most of the island was stripped of its timber. The Grand Hotel had also been built and was open for business. The island became a summer resort for the wealthy. For 20 years the island remained as a National Park until 1895 when it was given to the State of Michigan for use as a state park (Ise, 1961).

By 1891 three new national parks had been created in California. On September 25, 1890, Congress approved the creation of Sequoia National Park in order to protect the *Sequoia gigantea*, one of two species of redwood tree that only grows in California. These large trees grow in scattered groves in the Sierra Nevada mountain range between 4,000 and 8,000 feet altitude. The largest of these giant trees can often reach diameters of 33 feet and grow to a height of 300 feet (Ise, 1961).

Congress, in October 1890, created a forest reservation around the Yosemite Valley Grant (Forest Reservations California Act, 1890). Publicity concerning the exploitation of the giant sequoia, and the deteriorating condition of Yosemite Valley were the leading forces behind the creation of this reservation. Congress had essentially created a forest reservation a year before the Forest Reserve Act of 1891. This reservation was officially named "Yosemite National Park" under the provisions of a later act approved by Congress on February 7, 1905. Another rationale that helped with the creation of this reservation was that Congress operated under the assumption that parks could

be financially self-supporting (Department of the Interior Annual Report, 1898; Ise, 1961).

After defining the boundaries, the act provided that the forest reservations "are hereby reserved and withdrawn from settlement, occupancy, or sale under the laws of the United States, and set apart as reserve forestlands; and all persons who shall locate or settle upon, or occupy the same or any part thereof, except as hereinafter provided shall be considered trespassers and removed therefrom" (Forest Reservations California Act, 1890). This act specified however "that nothing in this act shall be construed as in anywise affecting the grant of lands made to the State of California by virtue of the act entitled 'An act authorizing a grant to the State of California of the Yosemite Valley and of the land embracing the Mariposa Big-Tree Grove,' approved June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four" (Forest Reservations California Act, 1890).

This "reservation" was placed "under the exclusive control of the Secretary of the Interior, whose duty it shall be, as soon as practicable, to make and publish such rules and regulations as he may deem necessary or proper for the care and management of the same" (Forest Reservations California Act, 1890). The language in the 1890 Act was similar to the Yellowstone National Park Act of 1872, in that "such regulations shall provide for the preservation from injury of all timber, mineral deposits, natural curiosities, or wonders within said reservation, and their retention in their natural condition" (Forest Reservations California Act, 1890).

The act also gave authority to the Secretary, "in his discretion to grant leases for building purposes for terms not exceeding ten years of small parcels of ground not exceeding five acres; at such places in said reservation as shall require the erection of buildings for the accommodation of visitors" (Forest Reservations California Act, 1890). Any revenue that was generated by a lease, or the proceeds from any other sources connected with the reservation were to be used for the construction of roads and paths.

In many respects this act was a duplication of the 1872 Yellowstone Act. However, in creating this new reservation, Congress carefully placed a limit on revenue spending, and did not authorize any charge against the Treasury of the United States. Also, Congress created a rather peculiar situation when they created this forest reservation – a national park that surrounded a "neglected and abused state park." This situation lasted for sixteen years (Ise, 1961 p. 58).

### Difficulties of Managing National Parks

Early national parks were difficult, if not impossible for the civilian administration to manage. Places such as Yellowstone, Sequoia and Yosemite were massive in size. Yellowstone, for example, was over two million acres, Sequoia 161,597 acres and Yosemite over 700,000 acres. The size alone made managing these places difficult considering transportation for the time would have been a mount and the use of pack animals.

Another difficulty for the Department of the Interior was that Congress failed to provide any appropriations for the care and management of each

national park. It was a common perception that parks would be self-supported from the revenue generated by concession and other leases. Even the first superintendent of Yellowstone, Nathaniel Langford, endorsed this idea. In a letter to the Speaker of the House dated February 17, 1874, the Secretary of the Interior wrote: "The superintendent expresses the opinion that after the park shall have been properly opened to the public, a large revenue to the Government will be derived from leases for building purposes and for toll-roads" (Cong. House Ex. Doc. 147 pg. 2).

This did not happen. With no appropriations, official boundaries could not be surveyed; and with no official boundaries there could be no leases; and with no lease agreements there was no revenue. In his annual report to the President, Secretary Delano, in 1873 made the following remarks concerning Yellowstone National Park:

I deem it incumbent upon me to refer to the present unprotected condition of the Yellowstone National Park. No appropriation has yet been made for the purpose of opening the park to the public, and of enabling this Department to carry into effect the necessary rules and regulations for its government....

This Department should not be held responsible for the condition of the park, so long as there is no money under its control applicable to the ends contemplated by the act of March 1, 1872. (Cong. House Ex. Doc. 147 pg. 2).

This lack of Congressional support was not an isolated condition concerning only Yellowstone. It was a trend that continued with the establishment of future National Parks (Department of the Interior Annual Report, 1898; Department of the Interior Park Service Annual Report, 1917).

Another difficulty in managing early National Parks was that the various organic acts approved by Congress failed to provide "a penalty of fine or imprisonment for violations of the park regulations" (Department of the Interior Annual Report, 1896 pg. CVIII). With no definite statute authorizing the park administration to operate in a law enforcement capacity, superintendents were virtually powerless to enforce the rules and regulations. For park visitors that were caught committing acts of vandalism or for poaching wild game were usually expelled from the park. This lack of enforcement authority frustrated early park superintendents. "Expelling these men from the park is no punishment, and it is impossible to adequately protect the game without legal enactment" (Cong. House Secretary of the Interior, 1892 pg. CXXXI).

National parks were fast becoming victims of their own popularity, and the Department of the Interior was not prepared to deal with this increase. The Secretary of the Interior was very aware that "with each succeeding year the number of visitors to the park will largely increase, and unless it is properly protected, the injuries and spoliation, already very great, would, in a few years, rob it of its chief attractions" (Cong. House Ex. Doc. 147, 1873, pg. 2). During the summer of 1874, over five hundred people visited Yellowstone National Park. This may not seem like a lot of visitors by today's attendance records, but one

must consider the remoteness of Yellowstone and the lack of adequate transportation. Twenty-two years later this number increased to 2,866 (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1896), and by 1900, visitation was 8,928 (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1900).

The increase in park visitation caused vandalism of all types to occur, and was basically uncontrolled in the early years. In a letter to the Secretary of the Interior, Nathaniel P. Langford, the first superintendent of Yellowstone in 1873 wrote that "during the past summer many of the most beautiful formations of silica, the delicately-tinted stucco and arabesque of the borders of the springs, have been broken off and carried away" (Cong. House Ex. Doc. 147, 1873). Fourteen years later this problem still persisted, and perhaps may have even intensified. The Acting Superintendent of Yellowstone made the following comments in an annual report. "Tourists still continue to commit vandalism in spite of all vigilance, and it is believed that they sometimes use firearms contrary to regulations. There are now so many camping parties in the park that it is impossible to keep up with the policing" (Cong. House Secretary of the Interior, 1892, pg. CXXX).

The national parks established in California were having just as many problems as Yellowstone, but of a different nature. In Sequoia and Yosemite cattle and sheep owners took advantage of the fact that no penalties existed for trespassing in the park. During the summer of 1891 over 500,000 sheep had been grazed in Sequoia alone. The acting superintendent in 1892 reported "the sheep herders are nearly all foreigners who care nothing for the park or the



country, and the sheep are destructive to every green thing" (Cong. House Secretary of the Interior, 1892 pg. CXXX). During a three-month period in 1898, the acting superintendent reported that 189,550 head of sheep, 350 head of horses and 1000 head of cattle had been expelled from the park. Also, during this time several forest fires were suppressed, and twenty-seven firearms confiscated (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1898).

Even Hot Springs Reservation was having problems associated with park visitors, but of a different kind. Congress approved an act on March 3, 1891, that allowed the Department of the Interior to establish rules and regulations "for the government of the Hot Springs Reservation, the management of the bath houses, and the protection of persons taking baths" (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1904, pg. 216). By the late 1890s the therapeutic baths were very well known, and with the railroad very accessible. Hot Springs was so popular, that by the turn of the century over 500,000 baths were being given annually. With this popularity came the practice of "drumming" a type of solicitation, considered to be unscrupulous. Drumming doctors paid solicitors from forty to seventy-five percent of the fees received from the patients that were brought in for treatment. (Department of Interior Annual Report, 1898). What made this such a profitable business endeavor was that "drummers, whose real work it is to take the visitor to a hotel, quote him a low rate for board and lodging, and then land him in the office of some unscrupulous quack doctor, who would proceed to fleece him of every available cent, the proceeds being divided with the steerer or drummer" (Dept. of the Interior Administrative Reports, 1913, pg. 915). Consequently,

visitors often paid excessive fees in return for very little treatment. Most of the drumming occurred in hotels, boarding houses and even doctor's offices located off the Hot Springs Reservation (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports, 1898, pg. 946).

By 1898, Hot Springs had 90 physicians practicing medicine. Of those 90, 40 to 45 of the medical physicians solicited patients through public drummers. "Some of these [physicians] make no efforts to conceal the methods they employ to get patients, and openly assert that they are here to make money" (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports, 1898, pg. 946).

Shortly after the turn of the century "a vigorous crusade had begun against this evil by the various local societies, assisted by the doctors of standing in the community, and a new State law was passed regulating the practice of medicine, which had for one of its objects the suppression of the "drumming" evil" (Dept. of Interior Annual Report, 1904, pg. 216).

Another social problem described in the historical literature was a bathing addiction behavior. "Referring to the class of people accommodated at this house, the superintendent states that there are bathing fiends, this class being similar in their cravings for the baths to those addicted to tobacco, liquor, and opiate habits, and those continuous bathing is the source of much annoyance to the management" (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1900, pg. CXLII).

Hot Springs was different from other reservation in that it had two full time police officers. In a collection of Congressional House Documents entitled Miscellaneous Reports of the Interior Department, Superintendent of the Hot

Springs Reservation, 1898, (pg. 955) describes these two positions in the following way:

Night policemen on the reservation; duties are to have a general supervision over all Government property from 9 p.m. to 9 a.m.; keep a lookout for fires; see that no stock or persons commit depredations on the reservation, and make arrest when necessity requires.

Day policemen on the reservation; duties are to have a general supervision over all Government property from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m.; see that no stock or persons commit depredation on the reservation, observe and report all cases of infractions of the bath-house rules and regulations, and to make arrest when necessity requires. (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports Superintendent of the Hot Springs Reservation, 1898, p. 955).

The night shift position had an annual salary of \$600.00, while the day shift positions' annual salary was \$480.00 (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports Superintendent of the Hot Springs Reservation, 1898).

With no appropriations and no official operating policy, combined with the increase in park users, National Parks quickly became poorly managed. Also early managers such as Nathaniel Langford had no formal training in park management. He did, however, recognize that unless Congress appropriated money for the surveying of the official park boundaries, and for protection and

preservation Yellowstone would in a few years be destroyed (Cong. House Ex. Doc.1, 1873; Hampton, 1971).

From 1872 to 1886, Yellowstone National Park went through five different park superintendents, each with their style of management. Finally in 1886, the Secretary of the Interior under the provisions of the act of March 3, 1883, that authorized the use of military troops to protect Yellowstone, requested assistance from the War Department (Hampton, 1971).

### Military Intervention

Military protection for Yellowstone National Park was intended to be a temporary solution for the many years of limited and ineffective park resource management. As mentioned above the Act of March 3, 1883, authorized the use of military troops in Yellowstone "to prevent trespassers or intruders from entering the park for the purpose of destroying the game or objects of curiosity..., or for any other purpose prohibited by law, and to remove such persons from the parks if found therein" (Cong. House Doc. 1502 pg. 8).

In late summer of 1886, at the request of the Secretary of the Interior, a United States Cavalry troop was dispatched to Yellowstone National Park. On August 17, 1886, Troop M 1st United States Cavalry under the command of Captain Moses Harris arrived at Mammoth Hot Springs in Yellowstone National Park. Their orders were to relieve the present civilian superintendent and his staff of their duties, and to then take command of the reservation. Three days later Captain Harris relieved Superintendent Wear of his position, and took

command of the park. Hence began an era that would remain in the National Parks for the next thirty-two years (Hampton, 1971).

The new military administration faced many of the same difficulties that were experienced under the previous civilian administration. Even under military administration there still was no well-defined policy for the protection of Yellowstone, or for any future national parks (Hampton, 1971). The acting park superintendent, of Yellowstone in 1898, Captain James B. Erwin, Fourth Cavalry offers the following interpretation for carrying out their directives.

Were it [Yellowstone] thrown open to the people, without restrictions of any sort, it would be only a short time before it would cease to be a pleasuring ground while, on the other hand, the restrictions should be such a nature only as to preserve intact, not only for the present but for future, the salient and wonderful features which have made the park the most remarkable, as well as the most scientifically interesting place in the world. (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports Superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park, 1898, p. 961).

Enforcing restrictions that were established for the protection of Yellowstone were sometimes misunderstood and not always appreciated. However, the military, unlike the civil administration had both the appropriations and manpower available for enforcing rules and regulations. One well established system employed by the military to gain compliance was to station soldiers at regular intervals along the roads though out the park. Additional,

soldiers were stationed at the most popular interest points, thus "preventing their desecration and the destruction of the natural phenomena" (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports Superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park, 1898, p.962).

The Act of 1883 authorizing military protection for Yellowstone National Park was not applicable to the parks created under the Acts of 1890. Therefore, any use of military troops in Yosemite, Sequoia and General Grant had no legal basis. However, aware that the same protection was needed in the new parks, the Secretary of the Interior again solicited the help of the Secretary of War.

The first military troops to arrive in Yosemite occurred in 1891. Here as in Yellowstone, the military had to operate under the same legal framework, as did the civilian administration. As mentioned earlier, the original organic acts lacked any appropriations, and were written with no provisions for the enforcement of regulations, as well as, not providing proper penalties for violations of the regulations. From 1891 to 1899, military patrols could do nothing beyond harassing and making life for shepherders uncomfortable (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1899).

This pattern of enforcing various park rules and regulations extended to other national parks. On June 6, 1900, Congress approved an Act that "authorized and directed" the Secretary of War to detail troops for the protection of Sequoia and General Grant National Parks (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1900, pg. 134). Upon the arrival of Troop G, Sixth Cavalry to Sequoia National Park in early June, 1900, the sixty-one man unit was put on alert for

possible deployment to the Philippines. However, on July 4, 1900, the acting superintendent, Captain West was notified to remain at Sequoia and carry out their original orders "to maintain order and prevent trespassing and depredation" (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1900, pg. 134). Another provision of the June 6, 1900, act was the appropriation of \$10,000 for protection, repair and maintenance of various trails and roads. "The first patrol was sent out July 18, 1900, and thereafter patrols were kept moving through different parts of the reservation to prevent trespassing and depredation" (Dept. of the Interior, 1900, pg. 131).

The use of military troops for protecting the national parks created other problems for the Department of Interior. Each national park was created from separate acts that administratively made them unrelated to each other. Even though the Departments of War and Interior shared responsibility for the management of individual national parks, still no clear management policies and procedures had been developed or were in use. As a result, acting superintendents were often unclear as to the exact scope of their mission in the management of each national park. Equally unclear was the authorization to purchase supplies for management and protection of Yellowstone. For example in 1899 superintendent requested authority to purchase certain articles required in the management and protection of Yellowstone National Park. Comptroller of the Treasury rendered an opinion that expenditures for improvement or protection were the responsibility of the Secretary of the Interior.

In 1907, the acting superintendent of Yellowstone National Park wrote in an annual report to the Secretary of the Interior:

Under the present plan of governing and protecting the park by a detail of troops from the Army -- the commander of said troops performing the duties of superintendent of the park up to the present season -- there have always been two interests to subserve. These two interests are the interests of the park and the interests of the military service (discipline, training, etc.). Such details are injurious to the Army in that regimental and squadron organization are not only disturbed, but the troop organization is largely demoralized by subdividing the men into small parties far separated for indefinite periods of time without the personal supervision of an officer.

The enlisted men of the Army are not selected with special references to the duties to be performed in police patrolling, guarding, and maintaining the natural curiosities and interesting "formations" from injury by the curious, the thoughtless, and the careless people who compose a large percentage of the annual visitors in the park. (Dept. of Interior, Acting Superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park Annual Report, 1907 p.552-53).

The acting park superintendent, a United States Army officer, answered to the Secretary of the Interior, while at the same time the troops assigned as park guards under his command were accountable and disciplined by the United State



Army. The acting superintendent was also of the belief that divided responsibility and accountability for "police control and management seldom produce the best results and should no longer obtain in the Yellowstone Park" (Dept. of Interior, Acting Superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park Annual Report, 1907, p. 553).

### Back to a Civilian Administration

As early as 1904, some military commanders in the National Parks began recommending eventual transfer of the National Parks back to civil authority. The acting superintendent of Sequoia and General Grant National Park, in an annual report to the Secretary of the Interior made the following observations concerning the administrative needs of the park.

I believe the present system of administration and guarding to be entirely wrong and quite unsatisfactory in its workings. The parks should be entirely under civil control, with a permanent superintendent, and six to ten rangers carefully selected, one being a head ranger. Soldiers should not be sent here. The system which I propose would give a more fixed policy of administration, and would secure the continual presence of a superintendent. The parks would be much better and more efficiently patrolled and protected by this ranger force than by soldiers. During the short time that soldiers are on duty here the officers and men cannot become familiar with the geography of the park and the location of trails.... It takes some time for soldiers to become familiar with their

duties here. They cannot be expected to take the interest in the park and in the enforcement of all the regulation which rangers would take. The soldiers sent here are not, for the time being, available for military duties; they have no drill; they are performing the duties of civil guards. The entire expenses of maintaining two troops of cavalry here, including the cost of supplying them, is properly chargeable to the guarding of the parks, and is borne by the War Department, whereas it should be borne by the Department of the Interior. (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1904, p. 200).

The military was of the opinion that this "special duty" of the troops practically ruined them for proper military work. Soldiers became seriously deficient in drill instruction and discipline. The military feared that if for some reason the troops that were assigned to protect the parks were deployed in a national emergency that they would lack military efficiency for effective combat (Cong. House Doc. 1502, 1915).

By 1914, Congress had created seven new National Parks, and the duties of the military soldiers had now expanded to included such tasks as "checking automobiles, testing automobiles, collecting tolls, guiding tourists, patrolling for and fighting fire, registering tourists, searching for lost parties," as well as, for many other purposes (Cong. House Doc. 1502, 1915, p. 10). In a report on the annual inspection of Yellowstone National Park several problems were brought to the attention of the War Department. Among these items were: (1) post

transportation was used to a very considerable extent for park purposes other than military; (2) the garrison had been employed extensively for road maintenance in the park; and (3) the garrison was used extensively for construction and maintenance of telegraph and telephone lines throughout the park. Military officials in Washington DC considered this to be detrimental to military instruction and training, and deemed it improper and unwarranted (Cong. House Doc. 1502, 1915).

Another reason worth noting for returning to a civilian administration was the excessive cost associated with using military soldiers for law enforcement work in the National Parks. The average cost of maintaining troops in Yellowstone National Park alone were over \$275,000, while the average cost for maintaining troops in Yosemite was slightly over \$85,000 (Cong. House Doc. 1502, 1915, p. 11). These figures in the 1999 economy would have cost the military over four million dollars (Friedman, 1999). With Mount Rainier, Crater Lake, Wind Cave, Platt, Sulley Hill, Mesa Verde, and Glacier National Parks added to The Department of the Interior's list of property the military recognized the financial cost to their Department.

### Creation of the National Park Service

A Bureau of National Parks was proposed as early as 1911, by the Secretary of the Interior. Each of the national parks were created from single legislative acts differing more or less in language from the act creating each of the other parks. Consequently, each park was administered individually, and

totally unrelated to the other parks. For more that forty years National Parks operated without any central administrative office or bureau (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1916).

In June, 1915, the Secretary of the Interior appointed Mark Daniels as general superintendent and landscape engineer for the national parks. However, he resigned six months later, and was replaced by R.B. Marshall from the United States Geological Survey. Finally, on August 25, 1916 Congress "created in the Department of the Interior a service to be called the National Park Service, which shall be under the charge of a director, who shall be appointed by the Secretary [of the Interior]" (National Park Service Act, 1916). However, necessary funding for the establishment of the National Park Service was not granted until April 17, 1917 (Dept. of the Interior, Annual Report National Park Service, 1917; Ise, 1961).

In April 1917, the Secretary of the Interior, Franklin Lane appointed Stephen T. Mather as the new bureau's director, and Horace Albright as assistant director. Under the provisions of the 1916 act the director "shall under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, have the supervision, management, and control of the several national parks and national monuments which are now under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Interior..." (National Park Service Act, 1916).

A first priority for the new administration was to gain complete control and management of the national parks. National parks were established and created from individual acts of Congress. As a result not every national park came under

the jurisdiction of the Department of the Interior. For example, the Department of Agriculture and the War Department were also responsible for the management of national parks and monuments (Mather, 1916; Wellman, 1992).

Reportedly Mather was "a man of prodigious and explosive energy, a tireless worker, a born promoter" (Ise, 1961 p.192). He also was keenly aware "that the public was surprisingly ignorant of the extent, variety, magnificence, and economic value of their national parks," and that the success of the National Park Service ultimately depended upon public support (Mather, 1916, p. 4).

Mather and Albright also "inaugurated an earnest campaign of public education under the management of Robert Sterling Yard" (Mather, 1916, p. 4). Information brochures were rewritten, reorganized and distributed by the new Park Service. In addition, an intense marketing plan was developed and implemented by these two men. Mather (1916) successfully campaigned for and secured the financial cooperation of seventeen different western railroads for the publication of Yard's book National Park Portfolios. Undoubtedly, this financial funding could never have happened had it not been for the fact that railroad lines had long been established to national parks while under military protection (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports Superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park, 1898).

Automobile travel was on a rapid increase in the United States, and Mather knew that the infrastructure in the national parks was outdated. Campgrounds had to be redesigned to accommodate automobile traffic. The new director was very insightful about the future of the automobile and the national

parks. "This tremendous increase in automobile travel leads to one conclusion only, and that is that in the early future travel in private machines will overtake the increasing railroad travel and constitute the greater portion of all park travel" (Mather, 1916 p. 5).

To build new roads in the national parks would take an excessive amount of money. The Park Service offset these costs by charging "automobile fees for park purposes." However, "vigorous protests have been made against this direct tax on the motorist, but it must be maintained until larger appropriations are made for the construction and maintenance of roads suitable for motor traffic" (Mather, 1916, p. 6).

#### Park Rangers Take the Place of Soldiers

The national parks were costly to operate as the War Department soon learned. As early as 1914, the War Department began withdrawing military troops from the national parks in California and replaced with rangers (Cong. House Doc. 1502, 1915). However, the single most factor that lead to the eventual withdrawal of the military from the national parks was U.S. involvement in World War I. On the first of October 1916, the War Department finally withdrew the military troops which for more than thirty years had been guarding Yellowstone.

The size of the park ranger force varied from park to park. For example, in Yellowstone National Park there was one chief park ranger, three assistant chief park rangers and 25 park rangers, and "during the tourist season a

temporary force of from 25 to 30 park rangers [were] employed" (Dept. of the Interior, Annual Report Director of the National Parks, 1919, p.158). In Yosemite, during this same time the park ranger force was a maximum of 25. For Sequoia and General Grant National Parks the park ranger force was limited to 11 park rangers at Sequoia and three assigned to the latter. In all National Parks, park rangers were uniformed during the summer tourist season (Dept. of the Interior, Annual Report Director of the National Park Service, 1919).

Between the 1920s and 1930s national parks experienced growth. Up until the late 1920s national parks did not exist in the Eastern United States. In 1930, the United States acquired 159,000 acres of unique mountain country located in the States of North Carolina and Tennessee. This was the beginning of Great Smokey Mountains National Park, and "the first of the great national parks within easy motoring distance of the people of the East" (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1930 p. 36).

The stock market crash of 1929 followed by the economic depression in the 1930s greatly impacted the National Park Service. "The depression has brought a serious drop in patronage of some of these facilities, particularly the hotels and transportation" (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1932). However, despite this national economic depression, the Park Service and the national parks still continued to grow and prosper. Much of this growth was a direct result of the Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) program approved by Congress on March 31, 1933. Under this work program the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was created and supervised by the National Park Service. The purpose

of the CCC was for the relief of distress motivated by high unemployment, and to "build up the health and morale of a large portion of the young manhood of the Nation, fitting them better to be leaders of the future" (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1933, p. 156).

During the period of 1935 to 1936 the National Park Service also cooperated with the Works Progress Administration (WPA) by assuming the responsibility for the technical supervision of the work programs in the WPA work camps. This program provided an extension of services rendered to the states, counties and municipalities by the National Park Service in the conservation of natural resources and the coordinated and planned development of recreational areas for public use. Although the National Park Service directed the supervision of this program, responsibility for the actual operation was vested in the Works Progress Administration (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1936).

### The Advent of State Parks

Two factors lead to the development of state parks in the United States. Beginning in 1933, the Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) program also made it possible for the National Park Service to direct and supervise the development and construction of state parks in any State enrolled in the ECW program. In order for States to receive Federal assistance several requirements had to first be fulfilled. One of the requirements was that the state had to own the land on which any parks were located. Additionally, it was necessary that each park site be approved by the Army as a location for Civilian Conservation



Corps. Camps. Another requirement imposed by the Federal Government was that state governments working with the National Park Service in park development had to employ an individual with a title of Procurement Officer (Oklahoma State Game and Fish Commission Biennium Report, 1934-36).

A second factor that made state park development conceivable was the creation of the State Park Act by Congress on July 23, 1936. This Act authorized and directed the National Park Service to conduct a comprehensive study of public parks, parkways and recreational area programs of the United States. Additionally, the Secretary of the Interior was authorized to aid States and any other political subdivision in the planning and development of park areas (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1936).

Essentially, the National Park Service would plan, develop and supervise the construction of state parks at the expense of the Federal Government. All of the work was carefully planned by experienced landscape architects, park engineers and foresters, and historical technicians were employed to insure the careful preservation and interpretation of the historic values. When the construction of a park facility was completed the entire management and operations became the responsibility of the sponsoring agency (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1934).

### Oklahoma State Park Development

Early state parks in Oklahoma were actually game preserves owned by the state, and administered by the State Game and Fish Warden. In 1917, the

legislature passed a bill authorizing the State Treasurer to transfer \$94,197.10 from the "game protection fund" to the "State Capital building fund" for the purchase and development of four game preserves located in "different portions of the State." These game preserves were to be "maintained as a place not only to propagate and preserve game animals and birds, but also to serve as a place of refuge for the same." The bill made "hunting or killing of any game" in state game preserves a misdemeanor with a maximum fine of \$500.00, or confinement in the county jail, not to exceed six months (Game Fund Transfer, 1917).

In 1918, the State of Oklahoma acquired a "splendid park and game preserve of 12,000 acres in McCurtain County" (Oklahoma State Game and Fish Commission, Biennium Report, 1928, p. 8). However, before the state could purchase any of this virgin timberland, a special Act of Congress was needed because the land was property legally owned by the Choctaw and Chickasaw Nations.

Another piece of real estate owned by the state for use as a preserve was in Latimer County. This 1550-acre preserve was located three miles north of Wilburton, Oklahoma. By 1927, a newly created State Game and Fish Department administered by the Game and Fish Commission had purchased several thousand acres around the Latimer County preserve with intentions of constructing a series of fishing lakes on the Fourche Maline creek. Once constructed these impoundments were to serve "as public fishing grounds and to be open as a public recreation center and beautiful State Park" (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission, Biennium Report, 1926, p. 30).

In 1926, the Department acquired 160 acres in Cherokee County, near the town of Tahlequah for use as a public park. Even though this tract of land was smaller in size than those in McCurtain and Latimer Counties it was an ideal location "for a State Park and small game preserve" (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission, Biennium Report, 1926, p. 30). Another desirable reason for this location was that the Illinois River flowed through it, which at that time was considered one of the finest fishing streams in the state.

During the late 1920s and early 1930s the Game and Fish Department was very motivated to acquire other large tracts of land because prime real estate at nominal prices were quickly being bought by private individuals for private hunting areas. Another motivating factor for the development of a State Park System in Oklahoma was economic competition with surrounding states. "Oklahoma does not offer all of the advantages of a summer resort, yet the development of such parks and camp sites in attractive fishing and hunting localities will be a direct and economical method of developing the attractions of the state" (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission, Biennium Report, 1928, p. 22). The Game and Fish Department's philosophy concerning the operation and function of state parks was to serve two types of users. The first type of users were those individuals that desired campgrounds close to hunting and fishing areas, while tourists in automobiles would prefer campgrounds close to the highway (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission, Biennium Report, 1928).

Oklahoma, like so many other states during the 1930s, felt the effects of the worst economic depression in United States history. In order for Oklahoma

to receive Federal moneys from the President's Emergency Conservation Work program, certain obligations had to be fulfilled. One of the requirements was that any land used for the purposes of constructing a park must first be owned by the state (Game and Fish Commission, Biennial Report, 1935).

April 13, 1933, Senate Bill 382 authorized the State Board of Public Affairs "to acquire by purchase or condemnation approximately 16,300 acres of land..., at an aggregate cost of not to exceed \$90,000, for the purpose of having constructed a State lake." The Bill further mandated that the supervision, control, policing and maintenance of the lake was the responsibility of the State Game and Fish Commission (State Game and Fish Commission, 1933).

Another requirement for securing Federal funds was that states working with the National Park Service in park development were mandated to hire a Procurement Officer, and pay this person using state money. On March 1, 1935, the Oklahoma State Park Commission was created as an ancillary of the State Game and Fish Commission, and appropriated \$25,000 for its administration. Three commissioners were immediately appointed by Oklahoma Governor Marland. The commissioners included John G. Catlett of Tulsa, G.K. Sutherland of Hominy and Matt Koehler of Lawton. The Commission appointed A.L. Reeves of McAlester as executive secretary and directed him to perform the duties of Procurement Officer.

By September of 1935, the State Park board had acquired seven large tracts of land for the purpose of developing state parks. All seven of these park areas were donated by various city governments throughout the state. The State

Park Commission officially designated all seven areas as state parks and wasted little time in starting the work and development in these areas. See Table 1 for a complete list of the various state parks in 1935. These original eight state parks in Oklahoma were strategically located throughout the state so that 60% of the population of the state was within 75 miles of a state park (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission, Biennial Report, 1934; Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, First Annual Report Division of State Parks, 1938).

TABLE 1.  
ORIGINAL STATE PARKS IN 1935

STATE PARK	Acreage	LOCATION	COUNTY
Quartz Mountain	3,000	Near the town of Lugert	Greer/Kiowa
Boiling Springs	900	Near the town of Woodward	Woodward
Roman Nose	720	North of Watonga	Blaine
Osage Hills	720	Near Pawhuska, and Bartlesville	Osage
Robbers Cave	8,340	North of Wilburton	Latimer
Beaver's Bend	1,250	North of Broken Bow	McCurtain
Spavinaw Hills	1,570	South shore Spavinaw Lake	Mayes/Delaware
Lake Murray	19,000	Near Ardmore	Carter/Love
TOTAL	35,500		

Another factor that made it possible for state parks in Oklahoma to become a reality was the help given by the federal government. Recall that in the 1930s the entire country was suffering from the worst economic depression in history. Oklahoma, like many other states, took advantage of the Emergency

Conservation Work Program that was established on March 31, 1933. Oklahoma was one of the first states to enroll in this new government program (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1934). Each state park was constructed with the help of the Civilian Conservation Corp. (CCC) under the direct supervision of the National Park Service.

In April 1937, State Senators Rorschard, Nichols, Chamberlin, Mauk and Wright introduced a Bill to create the Oklahoma Planning and Conservation Board. On April 15, 1937, the Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board was created by Senate Bill 107 of the Sixteenth Legislature. Under the provisions of this Act several previous Boards were consolidated and transferred to the new Board. These included the Conservation Commission, Oklahoma Forest Commission and the Oklahoma State Planning Board (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Sess. Law Ch. 24, 1937).

Four new Divisions were established under this new Board for the purposes of managing the State's natural, agricultural, industrial and human resources. The new Divisions were the Division of Forestry, Division of State Planning, Division of Water Resources and the Division of State Parks. The Division of State Parks was responsible for "carrying out the provisions of this act related to State Park activities," (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Sess. Law Ch. 24, 1937).

The Division of State Parks employed a "Director of State Parks," who was required to have at least one year of administrative and practical experience in park management. A.L. Reeves, the first Director of State Parks earned

\$3,600.00 per year. In contrast, the Director of Forestry for the State of Oklahoma at the same time earned \$1,800 a year, and was required to have a degree from an approved school of forestry along with four years practical experience (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Sess. Law Ch. 24, 1937).

The State Planning and Resources Board had administrative control over all state parks and any other lands owned by the State of Oklahoma for the purposes of recreation. The Board was also given the "power to make improvements on all lands under the jurisdiction of the Board to build all necessary buildings, roads, campsites, parking areas, picnic areas, swimming pools, etc...., and shall be charged with the duty of maintaining such property" (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Sess. Law Ch. 24, 1937). Also, the board was authorized to make rules and regulations concerning state parks, and any rule or regulation had "the force and effect of law." Violations were deemed to be misdemeanors and punishable by a fine not to exceed \$100.00 or no more than thirty days imprisonment in the county jail, or punishment could be both a fine and imprisonment (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Sess. Law Ch. 24, 1937).

Enforcement of state park rules and regulations was the responsibility of "the Board, or any employee" who work for the Division of State Parks. The Division of State Parks under the provisions of this Bill had a lot of power. This broad power is defined under section 22 that states:

The Board, or any employee of said Board, may make complaint and cause proceedings to be commenced against any

person for violations of the game laws regarding State Parks, or rules or regulations made by the Board, or for the violation of any of the game laws of the State, without the sanction of the Prosecuting or County Attorney of the County in which such proceedings are brought, .... Any member of said Board, may also appear in behalf of the people of the State in any court of competent jurisdiction in any prosecution for the violations of any of the game laws of the State when such violation is committed in or on any State Park, recreational grounds, or State Monument, and may prosecute the same in the same manner and with the same authority as the Prosecuting or County Attorney of the County in which such proceedings are pending. Each member of the Board, or any employee of said Board, is hereby invested with all the powers and authorities of Sheriffs in making arrests and in prosecution of all offenses against the park laws or rules and regulations promulgated by the Board (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Sess. Law Ch. 24, 1937).

If the Prosecuting Attorney was unable to be present, or otherwise neglected or refused to prosecute such violations the arresting employee or Board member could "also call any licensed attorney of the State to assist" them in prosecuting (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Sess. Law Ch. 24, 1937).



This 1937 Act included a specific prohibition concerning dogs. Section 23 made it illegal for anyone to enter a state park, state monument or other recreational area with a dog unless the dog was on a leash. This section further provided that any dog found running loose or chasing any wild game in the park may be destroyed.

The Legislature wanted complete protection for Oklahoma State Parks. Section 24 made it illegal for anyone to injure, destroy, mutilate or deface any property in any state park. This included all things or objects found in a state park, natural or man made. Most of the offenses that occurred in state parks were considered misdemeanors and carried a maximum fine of \$100.00 or imprisonment of 30 days or both (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Sess. Law Ch. 24, 1937). That was a lot of money in 1937, however, in 1998 that amount would be over \$1,150 (Friedman, 1999).

All state parks in Oklahoma were considered State Game Refuges. Therefore, any stocking of fish on any lake in a state park was the responsibility of the Game and Fish Commission.

Finally, this Act empowered the Board to work and cooperate with all branches and levels of government in the development of Oklahoma State Parks. Clearly, several agencies had major influences in the physical as well as philosophical development of state parks in Oklahoma.

Around 1936, the management philosophy concerning the operation and function of state parks in Oklahoma centered on serving the public's needs. This anthropocentric philosophy according to Hendee, Stankey and Lucus (1990)

emphasizes recreation and comfort in wildland settings. According to the Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, First Annual Report for the Division of State Parks, (1938) the general uses of state parks were: "a meeting place with ideal conditions for all people; a recreational place; an educational place; a health center; a weekend resort for all so they might have a change of scenery, climate, environment and association; and a sanctuary for wildlife so that we may be helpful in the production, restoration, rehabilitation and propagation of all species of wildlife indigenous to Oklahoma" ( p. 1).

A.L. Reeves, the first director of state parks in Oklahoma wanted "a state park system in Oklahoma that will render the maximum amount of recreational benefit so that half the people of this State won't have to chase off to southern Colorado and other nearby states to spend their vacation money at the same time having a state park system that will not break the State financially to maintain and operate" (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board Proceedings First Annual Conference, 1938, p. 30).

In 1943, the Division of Forestry and the Division of State Parks were consolidated into one Division under the provisions of Senate Bill 130. Under the administration of the Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, the new Division of Forestry and State Park was created to manage the state parks.

The function of the Division of State Parks was further defined in 1947, by the Oklahoma Legislature. The approval of Senate Bill 46 and Senate Bill 47 on May 2 authorized several things: (1) It created the Division of Recreation and State Parks under the Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board; (2) Required

the Division Director to be a graduate of an accredited college or university; and (3) Granted additional powers of the Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board for the purpose of operating, maintaining, extending and improving State Parks in Oklahoma (Oklahoma Planning & Resources Board, Sess. Laws 74, Ch. 12, (1947).

Another major change for state parks occurred during the Summer of 1965. On July 1, the Oklahoma Legislature abolished the Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, and in its place created the "Oklahoma Industrial Development and Park Commission" (Oklahoma Resources Development Act, 1965). Under the Oklahoma Resources Development Act the transfer of all authority; duties, functions and contractual obligations began. The Legislature even provided a new purpose, which was "to promote the development and use of the natural and human resources of the State so as to provide for a balanced, dynamic and expanding economy" (Oklahoma Resources Development Act, 1965).

Commission members were appointed by the Governor pending the approval of the State Senate. The Commission consisted of eight members, with one of those members being the Lieutenant Governor. This Act provided a rather odd way of dealing with a Commissioner's length of appointment. Length of time for serving on the Commission was determined by the sequential order of each District. A member from District One was appointed for a term of one year; while a member from District Two was appointed for a term of two years; and a member from District Three was appointed for a term of three years. This pattern

of appointment length continued for all seven Districts. At the expiration of the term of each member and of each succeeding member the Governor would appoint a new member who served a term of six years on the Commission (Oklahoma Resource Development Act, 1965).

The Commission was to function as the administrative policy-determining agency for the Oklahoma Industrial Development and Park Department. The Commission appointed a Director who was paid \$22,000 a year for the administration of the Department. The Director was responsible for organizing the Department, and to carryout the objectives of the Commission (Oklahoma Resource Development Act, 1965).

Within the Oklahoma Industrial Development and Park Department were five divisions: (a) Industrial, Business and Economic Development; (b) Lodges; (c) Parks, Recreation and Waterways; (d) Publicity, Advertising and Information; and (e) Research and Planning. The Division of Parks, Recreation and Waterways were charged with the operation and management of Oklahoma State Parks. Under the provisions of the Oklahoma Resources Development Act (1965), the Division was to plan "supervise, acquire, construct, enlarge, erect, improve, equip and furnish public recreation facilities in State Parks." However, this act did not provide any direct protection for state parks. Instead the Division was authorized to "establish rules and regulations for the use of public recreation facilities" within State Parks.

In 1972, the management of Oklahoma State Parks changed one more time. On July 1, the Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Commission and the

Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department (OTRD) became the successors of the Oklahoma Industrial Development and Park Department under the authority of the Oklahoma Tourism Act of 1972.

The management of State Parks in Oklahoma underwent further modification in 1988. An amendment to paragraph one in Section 1811 substituted "furnish, conserve and preserve public recreation facilities and resources" for "and furnish public recreation facilities." The second paragraph further amended this section by establishing a "pilot entrance fee program" in any or all of the State Parks. This program, however, was deleted in a 1992 amendment (Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Act 1972, as amended 1992).

Currently, the Division of State Parks manages the operations of state parks in Oklahoma under the provisions of the Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Act of 1972. The State Park system is a hierarchical organization with lines of authority flowing from a central office in Oklahoma City through regional offices to individual park units (OTRD Park Ranger's Manual, 1989).

There is a heavy emphasis on customer service and revenue generation despite any threat or loss to the resource base. This revenue generation emphasis is perhaps somewhat greater than in any national park or other state park systems, although the goals of conservation and preservation of natural and historical resources certainly exist.

Section 1811 of Title 74, O.S., Amended 1997, directs the Division of State Parks to:

Plan, supervise, acquire, construct, enlarge, erect, improve, equip, furnish, conserve and preserve public recreation facilities and resources in state parks, except lodges, but including cabins in parks where there is no state lodge, camping sites, scenic trails, picnic sites, golf courses, boating and bathing facilities and other similar facilities in state parks reasonably necessary and useful in promoting the public use of state parks under the jurisdiction and control of the Commission. (Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Act 1972, amended 1997).

One issue that may arise from this Act concerns the language used. Specifically, the order in which the words "conserve and preserve" appeared in the previous quote may present conflicting or ambiguous purposes. The nine words that precede those two words describe a utilitarian perception. However, the Division of State Parks has a mission statement that provides "Oklahomans and visitors with state parks that enhance and protect the environment, promote the quality of life in Oklahoma, encourage tourism and actively seek to maintain a balance between resource protection and recreational use of Oklahoma State Park lands." Their vision for the future includes "continue development of marketable opportunities of the parks along with exploitation of unique park features and enhanced recreational programs (OTRD Home Page, 1999).

In general, the range of recreational opportunities at Oklahoma State Parks and Resorts include such diverse recreational pursuits as camping, off-road vehicle use, fishing and water-skiing. Six state resort park areas are

marketed with some theme attached in an attempt to attract customers and generate revenue (Oklahoma Parks & Resort Guide, 1998).

Historical Perspectives of the  
Park Ranger Profession:  
National Park Service Ranger

The following discussion attempts to provide a historical review of the park ranger profession beginning with the National Park Service followed with a history of state park rangers in Oklahoma.

For a variety of reasons it is difficult to say with any real degree of certainty exactly when national park rangers came into existence. Instead however, the following discussion is limited to the appropriate Congressional acts that lead to a current job description.

The first deployment of military troops in 1886, for the protection of Yellowstone National Park was brought about by the act of March 3, 1883. Unfortunately, the language of this act only authorized the military "to prevent trespassers or intruders from entering the park for the purposes of destroying the game or objects of curiosity." Troops could do little else than remove violators from the park (Military Protection Act of March 3, 1881).

Even though the military was responsible for the protection, preservation and administration of the park, it did not negate the fact that illegal hunting was still a problem compounded by this lack of enforcement authority. As a remedy, Congress on May 7, 1894, approved the National Park Protective Act which

prohibited hunting in Yellowstone National Park (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports Superintendent at the Yellowstone National Park, 1898). All hunting and killing of wildlife, except in extreme cases for the protection of human life, were illegal. Under this act it was now possible for the Department of the Interior to hire "scouts" who were to assist the military in protecting the park (Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports Superintendent of Yellowstone National Park, 1898).

When the parks in California were created in 1890, the precedence of military protection and administration had already been established in Yellowstone. This made it possible for these new reservations to receive immediate military protection and administration (Annual Report, Secretary of the Interior, 1892; Hampton, 1971).

The Forest Reservation Act was approved in 1891 as a rider to a general land law bill. This act authorized the President of the United States to "set apart and reserve" any public land regardless of the amount of timber as "public reservations." (Forest Reservation Act, 1891). As a consequence, beginning in 1891, Yellowstone Park Timber Land Reserve was created around Yellowstone National Park. This not only increased the size of Yellowstone, it also allowed for the military to offer protection since the Department of the Interior already had responsibility for public forests (Annual Report, Secretary of the Interior, 1898; Dept. Of the Interior Miscellaneous Reports, 1904 Pt. 1).

The inauguration of a forest system began with the approval of Forest Management Act in 1897. This act provided increased appropriations, therefore "enabling the Department to inaugurate a forest system by placing a graded force



of officers in control of the [forest] reserves." It also may have been the impetus for the national park ranger. Reserves were managed by a "forest supervisor," who under his personal direction supervised "a number of forest rangers, whose primary duty [was] to patrol the reserves, to prevent forest fires and trespasses from all sources" (Secretary of the Interior Annual Report, 1898, p. 92).

By 1900, Yellowstone, Yosemite, Sequoia, General Grant and Mount Rainier National Parks had forest reserve land attached to each park. This arrangement, for example, meant that in Yellowstone National Park the military was responsible for the administration and protection within the park boundaries, while forest rangers were responsible for protection outside the park, but within the forest reserve. One rationale for this arrangement was that "the State game laws are applicable to the forest reserves, and for this reason it is impracticable to prevent the killing of game in the reserves in the same manner and to the same extent as it is prohibited in the park" (p. 87). Another discerning reason for this arrangement was "the importance of protecting this country, which has an international reputation on account of its scenic beauties, and to throw additional safeguards about (sic) the big game, whose natural home is the National Park, and to protect more effectually the timber embraced in the forest reserves adjoining the park" (Annual Report, Secretary of the Interior, 1900, p. 87).

In Yosemite and General Grant National Parks, however, the administration and protection had a different agenda concerning their duties. As stated earlier the national parks in California were established by two separate acts. The area now called Yosemite was originally "set apart as reserved forest

lands," administered under the Secretary of the Interior. Such words as "public park" or "pleasure ground" do not appear anywhere in this act. Another interesting thing was this forest reserve completely surrounded Yosemite Valley which was still under the ownership and control of the State of California by virtue of the Act of June 13, 1864 (Forest Reservations California, 1890).

This created a peculiar situation in that a State Park operating under State authority was surrounded by a forest reserve that for all intents and purposes operated under the presumed title of National Park. This sentiment was expressed by the Acting Superintendent of Yosemite in 1904.

The Yosemite National Park has so long been called by this name and by such high authority that I will not undertake to question its title thereto, but I would invite attention to the fact that the act creating it was entitled "An act to set apart certain tracts of land in the State of California as forest reservations." It declares certain townships "set apart as reserved forest lands," and does not contain the word "park." The Yosemite National Park has not the quality and number of roads and trails; the efficiency of police or guardianship; the accommodations for travelers; the general air of cultivation and finish; nor the freedom of going in and out without paying, that one would expect of a great national park. The roads and trails are few and dusty; the troops, until the latter part of the season, are too inexperienced to serve efficiently as guilds and guardians; the hotels are small and primitive; each of the principal

entrances to the park is closed and opened by a toll gate guarded by a toll collector, suggesting the sally port of a medieval castle with its drawbridge, portcullis and a man at arms. (Dept. of the Interior Miscellaneous Reports, 1904 p. 386).

In this situation there were military personnel and forest rangers working together in the same forest reserve, but under separate authority, and a "park guardian" in the State Park. This situation created conflict for the employees. The Acting Park Superintendent in 1904, reported that shortly after taking command of the reservation he had a face to face visit from the forest supervisor for the Sierra Forest Reserve. The forest supervisor "conferred with [the park superintendent] respecting the common interest of the park and his reserve, and the ways and means of securing cooperation between his rangers and my troops and rangers" (Dept. Of the Interior Miscellaneous Reports, 1904, p.385).

This situation was compounded further by the deteriorating conditions, unsettled boundaries and a lack of adequate enforcement protection in the State Park (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1892; Cong. House Miscellaneous Reports Secretary of the Interior, 1898). Officers, soldiers and rangers were frequently in doubt as to whether they were in or out of the State Park boundary. In an annual report to the Secretary of the Interior, the Acting Park Superintendent stated," as guardians of the Government lands in the park, they are in the position of being required to do something without knowing exactly what it is. Under such circumstances vigorous and efficient action is not to be

expected, and has not always been realized" (Dept. of the Interior Miscellaneous Reports, 1904, p.389).

The establishment of Mount Rainier National Park was authorized by Congress on March 2, 1899, and like the other National Parks was managed under an umbrella of conflict and uncertainty. Perhaps it was the way in which this national park came about that was most significant in this perceived conflict and uncertainty. In the State of Washington "a portion of certain lands" within the Pacific Forest Reserve were set aside as "a public park, to be known as the Mount Rainier National Park" (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1899).

Because Mount Rainier National Park was established from an already existing forest reserve it continued to be managed by a Forest Supervisor and two Forest Rangers. Military protection was not necessary for this park because of the heavy snow packs, throughout most of the year. "The season of pleasure travel to the park is practically confined to the months of July and August and the first two weeks of September" (Dept. of the Interior Miscellaneous Reports, 1904, p. 439).

The forest rangers employed at Mount Rainier had to deal with the similar types of law enforcement problems that occurred at the other parks and reservations. However, these two forest rangers were at a disadvantage compared to rangers at Yellowstone or Yosemite. One drawback was the lack of military presence in the park. Another shortcoming of the job was the lack of law enforcement authority. The Acting Park Superintendent in 1904, made the following remarks concerning the scope of authority for the forest rangers.

The forest rangers do not understand what action they should take in case they should meet hunters who refuse to either deliver up their guns or leave the park. They have not, as I understand it, power to arrest, or indeed any way to enforce their authority, except to write to the supervisor in charge, who would then have to refer the matter to your office for instruction. Such procedure would involve a delay which would defeat its object, and in view of the possibility of violence, I am not disposed to advise the forcible abstraction of a loaded gun. (Dept. of the Interior Miscellaneous Reports, 1904, p. 440).

Confrontations of this nature did not happen often, but they did occur.

In 1905, the control of all reserve forestlands were transferred from the Department of Interior to the Department of Agriculture under the administration of the Forest Service (Annual Report, Secretary of Agriculture, 1905). It is certainly undeniable that the Transfer Act of 1905, was a bright moment in the history of the Department of Agriculture. However, this act was also a major turning point for National Parks, and a possible source of perceived organizational detachment by the civilian employees in each National Park. According to Workmen (1994) park rangers in some National Parks still continued to consider themselves as forest rangers instead of using the term park ranger for identification.

Even after the departmental separation of the parks and the forest reserves, rangers in the parks still considered themselves forest

rangers. Acting Secretary of the Interior Thomas Ryan sought to overcome this habit in an October 2, 1905, letter to [Walter] Fry: "It is observed that in your official communications with the Department you designate yourself as a Forest Ranger. Such designation is erroneous, your official title being Park Ranger, and official papers should be signed that way." Even so, the park rangers still thought of themselves as forest rangers for some time thereafter. (Workman, 1994, p. 8).

The next critical stage of development for national park rangers occurred in 1911 when President Taft, in a special message to Congress, expressed the following proposal:

I earnestly recommend the establishment of a bureau of national parks. Such legislation is essential to the proper management of those wondrous manifestations of nature, so startling and so beautiful that everyone recognizes the obligations of the Government to preserve them for the edification and recreation of the people. (Annual Report, Secretary of the Interior, 1913, p. 87).

Each national park was a separate and distinct unit, with separate administrative purposes. General supervision occurred when park matters were referred to the officials in the office of the Secretary of the Interior. Many of the problems in early park management were similar throughout the national parks. Until 1913, the duties of the military guardians and park rangers were fairly straightforward. What was not so straightforward was their scope of authority concerning

violations of park rules and regulations (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1913).

As early as 1913, Congress began to consider the legislation that would eventually establish a national park service three years later. Also during this time the duties of the military soldier and the park ranger expanded and now included managing the dilemma created by the advent of the automobile. As a rule, automobiles were permitted on a limited basis in the national parks, and only "under license and strict regulations governing travel" in the park (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1913, p. 87).

Until this time, travel inside national parks was limited to vehicles drawn by a team of horses and single mounts. For park rangers and military troops, the automobile presented legal uncertainty. The acts of March 3, 1883, and June 6, 1900, authorized the use of military troops for two distinct reasons: to prevent "trespassers and intruders from entering" the park, and "to remove such persons from the park if found therein." (P. 11). Contrary to the clear limitations of this authorization military troops were used for checking automobiles, collecting tolls and guiding tourists (House Doc. 1502, 1915).

### Era of Change

Beginning in 1914, the Secretary of War seriously advocated "relieving the War Department of the duty of providing troops for protection and improvement" of the national parks. The two most important factors that lead to the complete removal of the military from the national parks were the excessive costs

associated with maintaining hundreds of troops for the protection of the national parks and the fact that the United States was about to enter into World War I (House Doc. 1502, 1915).

It was during this time that the defining qualities of a national park ranger were first discussed seriously. Several defining qualities were already established under the military administration. Troops often received "complimentary expressions of praise" from park visitors who viewed soldiers as being courteous, intelligent and efficient. The Department of the Interior recognized that individuals desiring to become park rangers had to possess a "special ability" for the type of law enforcement work that was required in the national parks (House Doc. 1502, 1915, p. 6).

The National Park Service was created by an act of Congress, approved on August 25, 1916. In October, Fort Yellowstone was abandoned by the War Department, and the soldiers that for 32 years had been guarding the Parks were withdrawn. In their place, "a corps of civilian rangers composed of especially selected noncommissioned officers and privates, discharged from the Army upon request of this department, was organized, and these men are now policing the park." (p. 11). Under the leadership of Stephen Mather, the first director for the National Park Service, the duties of the park ranger were further established and defined (Mather, 1916). It was recommended from the very beginning that park rangers be employed in the National Park Service instead of being employed for each park. The Park Service wanted to be able to readily transfer employees



from one park to another so a ranger's training and experience could be used more effectively (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1916).

Early park rangers were responsible for a wide variety of job duties, some of which were actually specialized. For example, in Yosemite National Park during the 1916 season the ranger force consisted of 26 park ranger positions. These positions included a chief and an assistant chief park ranger, a special park ranger responsible for the maintenance of roads and trails and a special park ranger in charge of timber cutting. There were also park rangers who worked in a general category responsible for issuing automobile permits; traffic control and confiscating firearms illegally brought into the park. In addition to the full time ranger force, seasonal park rangers were employed during the busy summer season (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report, 1916).

The Park Service recognized not only the need for park law enforcement, but the importance of it as well. As long as there were people using National Parks for the fulfillment of their recreational needs, then law enforcement would always be a necessary function of the ranger. The Park Service also recognized that the "ranger force in reality makes the success or failure in administrating the parks" (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report 1916, p.761). As a result, a special firm but friendly approach toward law enforcement was evolving among the ranks.

The policy followed in this park with regard to the police work of the ranger force has been to educate the public rather than restrict. It has been the effort to imbue rangers with the idea of making as few

arrests as possible instead of as many as possible, and of this office to impose as few penalties as possible. It has been the policy to explain to offenders the reason for the regulations and the advisability and necessity for compliance on the part of the visitor. (Dept. of the Interior, Director of the National Parks Annual Report 1917, p. 147).

However, on occasion park visitors were arrested. For example, in 1917 nineteen people were arrested in Yosemite National Park on various violations of the park regulations. Legal sanctions for these violations ranged from fines to being ejected from the park. In other national parks law enforcement functions were sometimes the type often associated with urban cities. In Yellowstone National Park, for example, several coaches were held up and robbed on July 29, 1914. The suspect was apprehended and tried in December, 1915, found guilty and received a five-year sentence (Dept. of the Interior Annual Report 1916).

Early park rangers were highly respected, not only by the park visitors but more importantly by the employing agency. In an annual report, the park superintendent for Yosemite National Park in 1919 commented "that in spite of the tremendous increase in traffic and the accompanying increased tendency toward an increasing number of violations, order was satisfactorily maintained speaks well for the force and indicates what was lacking in numbers was made up in alertness and conscientiousness" (Dept. of the Interior, Director of the National Parks Annual Report 1919, p. 189).

Horace Albright, during his tenure as Park Superintendent of Yellowstone National Park was particularly proud of the park rangers. His views were that park rangers could protect the park better than could the military. He believed that the "park rangers have the interest of the park at heart; they love its wild life, its forest, its lakes and streams, and they are ready to protect these features regardless of the conditions under which this must be done" (Dept. of the Interior, Director of the National Parks Annual Report 1919 p. 158).

The end of the Second World War in 1945 brought together a new set of problems for the National Park Service. Park visitation in the National Parks in post war America saw exponential growth. Unfortunately, the Park Service was not ready for the increase in usage. Prior to the War the National Parks were in excellent condition as a result of the Emergency Conservation Work programs and the CCC, however, during the War years national park facilities had deteriorated and were understaffed with park personnel. Park rangers were in short supply and the passage of several labor laws made the situation intensify (Ise, 1961).

This shortage of ranger personnel resulted in an increase in criminal activity. Such activity as vandalism was a problem during the War, but was even worse after the War. In Yellowstone visitors routinely broke off formations and threw beer bottles and cans in many of the hot springs. Some park visitors even attempted to plug up the geysers with logs. At the Petrified Forest visitors carried off petrified trees (Ise, 1961).

During the 1950s and the 1960s the National Parks overcame many of the problems of the previous decade. Most young park rangers that were hired had college degrees and a deep regard for nature and wildlife. Many of these new rangers had the opportunity to work with many of the early Park Service ranger force. According to Shanks (1991) the National Park Service had by the late 1960s become a family, with rangers an elite organization.

The decades to follow resulted in many changes for the national park ranger. Beginning in 1970, the Park Service in Washington DC consolidated all rangers into two categories. One classification was the ranger professional; the other was a technician ranger classification and required at least a high school education. The ranger technician classification made it possible for local citizens that may not have a college education to compete for jobs. During this time, however these positions were being filled by over-qualified individuals with high aspirations. Unfortunately, these same people were competing with ranger technicians for these higher positions (Shanks, 1991).

Also during 1970, the National Park Service was forced to take a hard look at their park law enforcement policy. "A stepped-up program of law enforcement was initiated in fiscal 1969 to meet problems arising from the visitation of areas in the National Park System by criminals, vagrant hippie types, narcotic venders and users" (Congress, House, Supplemental Appropriation Bill, 1971, p. 122). This stepped-up program toward law enforcement was escalated on July 4, 1970, when approximately 500 young people began a confrontation with the Yosemite National Park rangers — The result of which was the first riot in the 98-

year history of the National Parks. During the Congressional Hearing that followed this incident, the Park Service testified that in some parks law and order were becoming more difficult to manage. This attitude toward law enforcement was further hardened when a park ranger was fatally shot by a deer poacher at Point Reyes National Seashore on August 5, 1973 (Shanks, 1976).

Clearly, the role of the modern day park ranger has changed drastically in the last 123 years when the Cavalry was first sent to Yellowstone National Park for its protection and preservation. Law enforcement functions, whether sanctioned by Congress or a product of creative enforcement strategies produced at the park level, have been a part of the National Parks since its inception.

#### Oklahoma State Park Rangers

Park rangers are the law enforcement personnel for the Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department. Law enforcement authority for Oklahoma State Park Rangers is authorized by state statutes. Section 1811.2 of Title 74 authorizes:

Park rangers, when commissioned shall have all the powers of peace officer except the serving or execution of civil process, and shall have in all parts of the state the same powers with respect to criminal matters and enforcement of the laws relating thereto as sheriffs, highway patrolmen and police officers in their respective jurisdictions and shall possess all immunities and

matters of defense now available or hereafter made available to sheriffs, highway patrolmen, and police officers in any suit brought against them in consequence of acts done in the course of their employment, provided, however, they shall comply with the provisions of Section 3311 of Title 70 of the Oklahoma Statutes. (Title 74 § 1811.2, 1991).

The jurisdiction of the park ranger is further defined in Title 74 § 1811.3 in that "park rangers shall have jurisdiction over all parts and aspects of the parks, including the state lodges located therein, whether state operated or leased to private operators..." (Title 74 § 1811.3).

As mentioned earlier, the genesis of state parks in Oklahoma started in 1926 with the purchase of several tracts of land by the Oklahoma State Game and Fish Commission for the purposes of developing state parks. Historically, early park rangers in Oklahoma were in all likelihood employees of the Game and Fish Commission. Initially, in 1927, the Game and Fish Commission adopted a plan for the creation of "ten ranger districts, with two rangers serving each district" (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission, Biennium Report, 1926, p. 28). During this same time "rapid strides in the development of parks and recreational areas" were taking place (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission Biennial Report, 1928, p. 22). At the McCurtain County Game Preserve a superintendent was employed full-time. The superintendent, in addition to living on state owned property was responsible for "general supervision and patrolling its boundaries," while the Game Preserve in Latimer County did not have a

similar staff (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission Biennial Report, 1932, p. 27).

Enforcing park rules and regulations was the responsibility of the Game and Fish Commission. A "State Game Ranger" was assigned to Lake Murray on a full time basis, and was paid \$120.00 a month (Oklahoma Game and Fish Commission Biennial Report, 1934 p. 64). This person had "the duty and responsibility of policing and maintaining [the] property" (Oklahoma Session Laws, 1933 p.114).

The State Game and Fish Commission managed state parks for two years. Then in 1937, Senate Bill 107 authorized the creation of the Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board. This Act authorized the establishment of several Divisions under the Planning and Resources Board. One of these was the Division of State Parks for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the Act related to the management of state parks (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board Sess. Laws, 1937).

The first state parks in Oklahoma, with the exception of Lake Murray, were without any type of ranger personnel. Lake Murray was unique in that State Game Rangers had enforcement jurisdiction as authorized in Senate Bill 382 of the Fourteenth Legislature (1933).

The ranger assigned to Lake Murray was responsible for a multitude of job related tasks. In July of 1937, O'Reilly N. Sandoz was hired for the position of Wildlife Technician at Lake Murray. The duties and responsibilities for this position were divided into two major functions. According to the First Annual

Report of the Division of State Parks, (1938) a Wildlife Technician's duties were "first, that of game ranger...and secondly that of wildlife technician."

Typically, part of every day for the Wildlife Technician was spent in patrolling and enforcement of laws related to the park. Violations commonly included illegal cutting of wood, illegal hunting and violation of state fishing laws. During the first season one arrest was made and the violator was fined (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, First Annual Report State Parks, 1938).

Fire control was another major duty for the Wildlife Technician at Lake Murray. In 1937 during the months of August and September a total of 17 fires occurred on the park totaling 136 acres burned. Only seven of these fires were reported, and extinguished by park personnel (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, First Annual Report State Parks, 1938).

Reportedly, all of these fires were "caused by campers, fishermen and picnickers, who are typically of the people who used so ill advisedly the park area. The rubbish which the fishing season caused, and the destruction wrought by its patrons, are major obliteration problems and are more far reaching in their effect on the lake than is superficially apparent at the present" (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, First Annual Report State Parks, 1938, p. 50).

The second major function of the Wildlife Technician position was to perform "work incidental to wildlife studies." (P.50). The nature of this work was "extremely varied" and often included problems associated with soil erosion, stabilization of ground cover and restoration of wildlife composition. With the



help of the National Park Service, the Technician at Lake Murray also conducted research on food habits of the animals in the park and surrounding area (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, First Annual Report State Parks, 1938).

Protecting the resources of the other seven state parks was accomplished by erecting a fence completely around the park. The boundary of Robbers Cave, for example, was completely enclosed by a seven-foot high all-steel fence. The total length of this fence was 24.2 miles, and cost \$12,401 to construct. Even Lake Murray was enclosed with 28 miles of fence at a cost of \$19,197 (Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, First Annual Report State Parks, 1938).

In 1943, the Division of State Parks and the Division of Forestry were consolidated into one agency with the approval of Senate Bill 130 on March 20, 1943. A new division was formed under the new name of Division of Forestry and State Parks. The new Division lasted only four years.

During the summer of 1946, the Division of Forestry and State Parks participated in a conservation workshop. The report that was generated from the workshop offers some insight into park operations. Most of the State Parks in Oklahoma were managed by Park Custodians. These individuals usually lived on site in park provided housing. They performed a wide variety of job tasks relevant to the activities of a state park. Park Custodians were responsible for protecting the park "from fire, from theft, [and] from misuse." (Stauffer, 1946, p.3).

Park maintenance was another important aspect of the Park Custodians' duties. This meant being knowledgeable about the operations of electrical power generating and water treatment plants. Maintenance also included solid waste disposal, campground and restroom maintenance. The Park Custodians were also responsible for maintaining the boundary fence around each park. Grazing livestock on park property was a big (Stauffer, 1946).

The Planning and Resources Board in 1963 was authorized under the provisions of Senate Bill 174 "to appoint the necessary officers to be designated as park rangers for the purpose of protecting buildings, equipment, and other properties of the State of Oklahoma, located within the boundaries of state parks or recreation areas under the management and supervision of such board." Park Rangers under the provisions of this Act had "all the powers vested by law in peace officers, except the serving or execution of civil process... and, if required, make arrest and take into custody persons guilty of improper conduct or trespassing" (Campus Police—Park Rangers, 1963).

Following in 1974, Senate Bill 506 amended certain provisions relating to law enforcement functions for park rangers. Park rangers were required to attend a basic police academy as provided by Section 3311 of Title 70, Oklahoma Statutes. In 1988, further changes were made concerning park rangers. Senate Bill 631 requires park rangers to serve a 12-month probation.

## Operating Policies and Procedures for Oklahoma State Park Ranger

In addition to state statutes are the operating policies and procedures for park rangers. These procedures are designed "to guide the performance of Park Rangers and those personnel who relate to this position" (p. 6). For the Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department the purpose of park rangers is "to serve the visitors of our State's recreational facilities" (OTRD, Park Ranger Manual, 1984, p. 20).

The primary role of the park ranger in this state is "protection of visitors, property and natural resources on recreational facilities in the State of Oklahoma." (OTRD, Ranger Manual, 1984, p. 20).

## Theories of Park Resource Management

Many theories on outdoor recreation resource management exist in the literature (Hronek and Spengler, 1997; Stankey, Cole, Lucas, Peterson & Frissell, 1985; Wagar, 1964), and is clearly beyond the scope of this dissertation research. Theories such as Recreation Carrying Capacity developed by Wagar (1964), Limits of Acceptable Change (Stankey et al., 1985) and Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (Clark and Stankey, 1979) are the foundation for recreation management. The central issue in these paradigms is to manage the interactive experiences that an individual user receives from an outdoor recreation setting (Jubenville, Twight and Becker, 1987).

Clark and Stankey (1979) express recreation opportunities on a continuum that considers three basic components: the type of activities, the setting of those activities and the emotional experience gained by individual users. These models are conceptually sound in theory, however, they fail to recognize the reality of law enforcement (Jubenville et al., 1987).

Jubenville et al. (1987) find the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum to be one theory that can be operational with law enforcement. For example, the level of law enforcement can be aligned with position points on the recreational opportunity spectrum. Movement toward the modern end of this range may mean intensifying or modifying park law enforcement activities, while movement toward the primitive end of the spectrum does not necessarily mean using less or ignoring law enforcement operations either. Criminal activity does occur in many wilderness and primitive settings (Peach, 1987). How does law enforcement function in these settings and still maintain the balance between a visitor's recreational experience and resource protection?

From the literature it is apparent that law enforcement in park settings has been, and continues to be a necessary tool for those managing outdoor recreation resources (Cong. House Ex Doc. 147, 1873; Dept. of the Interior, 1914; see also Hays, 1994; Sharpe et al., 1994; Workman, 1994). Law enforcement in these settings has three basic functions: (1) To protect the environment from the people; (2) To protect the people from the environment; and (3) To protect the people from other people (Hronek and Spengler, 1997).

Protecting the environment from people is not a new phenomenon. Park managers have always struggled to protect the natural features that are focal points for many parks throughout the United States (House Ex Doc. 147, 1873). Keeping people from destroying the natural features of a park either intentionally or unintentionally employs the use of various management strategies. Educating the public through information is one approach often used by managers. From a law enforcement perspective protecting the park from people includes the enforcement of park rules (Hronek and Spengler, 1994).

People need to be protected from the dangers in the park environment. Every year thousands of park visitors become victims of adverse environmental conditions of the park. Examples of these conditions often include campers and day-use visitors who get caught in an unexpected mountain snow storm during the summer months, or the park visitor that physically gets between a female bear and her cub. The results are often very tragic for the park visitor. Again, public awareness is attempted by those responsible for operating public parks (Shanks, 1991).

Protecting people from other people is perhaps the most difficult feature of park law enforcement. One difficulty for the park ranger is that most employing park agencies expect park rangers to use a "low key" approach concerning law enforcement situations. The park ranger who is armed and vested with police powers may send wrong or mixed signals to the park visitor resulting in conflict (Dwyer and Murrell, 1986). In Yosemite National Park, for instance, park rangers routinely use undercover operations as a means of enforcing drug laws (Peach,

1987). At a popular state park in Oklahoma, three individuals were shot, one fatally, on a Sunday afternoon in front of dozens of campers and picnickers. According to The Daily Oklahoman newspaper "the incident sparked criticism from campers who accused park rangers of losing control of order at the park, ... [creating] safety concerns among families who visit the area" (Minty, 1992).

Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity, Career Satisfaction,  
Organizational Involvement and  
Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE)

This section presents a discussion on the relationships between role conflict and role ambiguity. Other factors such as organizational involvement and career satisfaction are addressed. Finally, measures of organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) are explained.

Park rangers represent legal authority in a unique work setting, and as a result they must manage a complex network of role relationships. Dwyer and Murrell (1986) have identified a "need for better understanding of the park law enforcement job" (P. 53). Several authors (Dwyer and Price 1986; Hays, 1997; Sharpe et al., 1994) concerned with the functional role of the park ranger argue that park rangers are often unclear as to their function.

Associations between role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational commitment and career satisfaction have been explored in a wide variety of professions (Brayfield and Rothe, 1951; Hamner and Tosi, 1974; Martelli and Martelli, 1989; Romzek, 1989). For example, Hamner and Tosi (1974) examined

role conflict and role ambiguity to job involvement among high-level managers.

Role conflict had a positive correlation to the amount of perceived threat and anxiety, and role ambiguity was negatively correlated with job satisfaction. A

study of police officers in a middle sized metropolitan city found negative

relationships between stress and job satisfaction (Martelli et al., 1989). Research

has also shown that these variables affect a wide range of attitudes and

behaviors. Using a sample of field salespeople Boles, Johnson and Hair (1997)

found a relationship between role conflict and behaviors such as emotional

exhaustion. Similar research using face to face salespeople (Babakus, Cravens,

Johnson and Moncrief, 1999) "suggests that emotional exhaustion has a

significant negative impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment."

Katz and Kahn (1978) define role conflict "as the simultaneous occurrence of two or more role expectation such that compliance with one would make

compliance with the other more difficult"(p. 204). Role conflicts also emerge

when an individual receives a work assignment without having the necessary

resources to complete the task (Miller, Johnson, Hart and Peterson, 1999).

Certain role expectations may involve the importance of the intervention, and the

number of individuals involved whose expectations may be affected, while in

extreme situations compliance with one absolutely excludes any compliance with the other.

There are implications that role conflict leads to a reduction in

performance and creates stress. Often, depending on the duration or the

intensity of stress, individuals will modify their behavior by using coping

mechanisms to eliminate or reduce the effects of their stress (Carson and Carson 1997). Individuals use a wide variety of coping mechanisms. One coping strategy often used is role negotiation, which provides opportunities for an employee to eliminate incongruous role expectations, attain mutual understanding concerning the accomplishment of incompatible requests by obtaining the necessary resources and authority (Miller et al., 1999).

Role ambiguity is experienced when employees are uncertain about the amount of authority they can exercise, are not clear on the expectations of the supervisor, are not sure of the goals and objectives of their position, or are not clear as to how their job performance will be evaluated (Miller et al., 1999; Rizzo et al., 1970). Role ambiguity becomes detrimental as workers experience an increase in stress followed by decreased organizational commitment (Miller et al., 1999). Like role conflict, related degrees of uncertainty exist with ambiguous role behavior (Boles et al. 1997). When park agencies charge their ranger staff with law enforcement duties, and then place restrictions on their law enforcement authority certain tasks may become ambiguous and perhaps difficult to attain.

Park rangers are often confronted with situations requiring them to fulfill multiple role expectations that may conflict with personal value systems, or they have doubt as to when and how certain roles should be fulfilled. One might consider the park ranger who has a responsibility for all law enforcement functions in an outdoor recreation setting, but is admonished by a supervisor for not taking a "low key" law enforcement approach when violations occur (Dwyer and Price 1983). Further impact can occur relative to the amount of formalization



given to the employee, the types of supervisory behaviors and ease of communication between superiors and subordinates (Abramis, 1994).

Research has generally shown that experiences with role conflict and role ambiguity or both are associated with job-related tension and anxiety, career dissatisfaction and diminished attitudes toward those in positions of authority. Miles (1975) found that the experience of role conflict and role ambiguity caused lower levels of job satisfaction and unfavorable attitudes toward role senders. Such negative attitudes include a lack of trust, a lack of respect and a general dislike for other members involved in a hierarchical organization system (Rizzo et al., 1970).

In many respects the role of the traditional police officer is not far removed from that of the park ranger with the same authority. Perceived levels of professionalism have been linked with role conflict and role ambiguity among police officers. Regoli and Poole (1980) argue that role conflict and role ambiguity were affected by three dimensions of professionalism: belief in self-regulation, a sense of calling to the profession and a belief in autonomy. Police officers in rural settings had a sense of belonging to a particular community and less role conflict and role ambiguity. However, just the opposite was true for police officers in an urban setting. Additionally, some police officers in rural settings have a greater involvement in their jobs because they have a sense of belonging to their community, while most urban police officers are assigned patrol areas outside their communities. Rural police have a greater sense of autonomy than urban police officers. Regoli and Poole (1980) also suggest "that

the identification of organizational processes unique to agency type could be useful in specifying the nature and consequences of the police role" (p. 251).

Another form of role conflict is "role-overload" (Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, and Cummings, 1993; Rizzo et al., 1970). Role-overload is experienced when an employee is expected to perform a wide variety of tasks, however, completion of the tasks is not possible because of limited time or lack of manpower. In a study among Virginia state park rangers, Snizek, Shoemaker and Bryant (1985) reported that role-overload was significantly related to job satisfaction. For the park ranger role-overload may be further impacted as a result of coping with emotional labor. In recent years emotional labor has emerged among those working in the service sector. This coping mechanism is "asked of people when they have to manage their emotions so as to present a particular face to the customer on behalf of the organization" (Statt, 1994, p. 95).

Relationships between job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been widely discussed in the organizational literature (Borycki, Thorn and LeMaster, 1998; Koslowsky, 1990; Laband and Lentz, 1998; Martin and Bennett, 1996; Poulin, 1995; Roberson, 1990; Romzek 1989). Career or job satisfaction does not seem to have one universally accepted definition (Martin and Bennett, 1996; Romzek, 1989). Martin and Bennett (1996) view job satisfaction from both a global theory as well as a facet-specific theory. Global theory reflects overall job or career satisfaction, while the facet-specific concept relates to specific aspects of the job. For example, satisfaction with workload, benefits and salary

are considered facet-specific. In general, career satisfaction reflects how satisfied employees are with their current job or career (Romzek 1989).

Individuals can experience career dissatisfaction for a variety of reasons. According to Carson and Carson (1997) employees often experience dissatisfaction in their careers when individuals begin to perceive that career cost have exceeded career rewards. Individuals that experience career dissatisfaction must manage distress behavior like anxiety, anger and depression.

Employee commitment is the psychological attachment of an employee concerning their workplace (Becker, Billings, Eveleth & Gilbert 1996). It is a sense of belonging and the fulfillment of the need for meaningful work (Romzek, 1989). Organizational commitment, however, is the degree to which employees are prepared to take "internal and external actions on behalf of their organization" (Borycki et al., 1998, p. 9). Employees can be committed to their jobs, without necessarily being committed to their organization (Koslowsky, 1990). Park rangers, for example, may be committed to ecological stewardship, while the employing park agency may be committed to the generation of revenue even at the loss of outdoor recreation resource.

Romzek (1989) found that employees with high organizational involvement levels have strong psychological attachments with their organization. Given the unique aspects of a park ranger's job, coupled with the natural work setting, park rangers should have high levels of employee commitment.

In addition, the study examined whether the consequence of employee commitment on non-work satisfaction was positive or negative. The results indicated that organizational involvement has a positive effect on non-work satisfaction. Romzek (1989) also suggests that employees high in organizational involvement can sustain high levels of psychological attachment with their family, and social organizations.

Job satisfaction has been linked to self-esteem, organizational commitment and age of an employee (Borycki et al., 1998). Recently, a growing body of literature has pointed to the potential application measuring the effects of "organization-based self-esteem" (OBSE), on career satisfaction (Pierce et al., 1989, p.624; see also Carson, Carson, Lanford, and Roe, 1997; Pierce, et al., 1993; Tang & Gilbert, 1994). OBSE reflects a person's "self-perceived competence within an organization" (Pierce et al. 1989, p 625). Self-esteem involves the self-evaluation of an individual and the degree to which that person believes they are "capable, significant, successful and worthy" (p. 10). Individuals with high self-esteem have high levels of confidence because they perceive themselves as having greater ability than others. Individuals with low self-esteem, however, have a tendency to perceive themselves as having low ability levels (Newstrom, Gardner & Pierce 1999). OBSE can be defined as "the self-perceived value that individuals have of themselves as organization members working within the organization." Individuals with high OBSE typically see themselves as being important, meaningful and worthwhile (Newstrom, Gardner & Pierce, 1999 p. 9). Consequently, organization-based self-esteem

reflects the self-perceived value that an employee has of themselves as organization members acting within an organizational context.

The literature suggests that role conflict, role ambiguity, and diminished levels of organization-based self-esteem inhibit the effective operation of traditional law enforcement agencies. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect park law enforcement personnel, that is park rangers, to experience differential variations in the effects of organization-based self-esteem on career consequences and quality. This study was concerned with organization-based self-esteem.

### Summary

The review of literature has traced the development of the park ranger profession and the issues related to the use of law enforcement for the park rangers. The review documented the history of national parks in the United States and specific growth of Oklahoma State Parks. It should be apparent from this review that role conflict and role ambiguity are historic problems that continue to be problematic for park rangers in 1999. Clearly, park rangers are caught in the middle of this long-standing issue concerning the use of law enforcement as a means of managing park users. Park rangers have become icons connected to outdoor recreation settings, yet park rangers still struggle for an identity.

## Chapter III

### Methods and Procedures

This survey was conducted to determine the relationship between role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organization-based self-esteem among state park rangers and managers. This information may identify both the positive and negative relationships among these factors in the park ranger profession.

#### Data Collection

A survey approach was used for the gathering of pertinent data. The response group consisted of park rangers and park managers employed by the Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department, Division of State Parks (OTRD). Collectively, the participants for this study were commissioned law enforcement officers as authorized by Title 74, O.S. sec. 1811.2, and Title 70, O.S. sec. 3311. OTRD is responsible for overall monitoring and management of the various state parks, lodges and recreation areas in Oklahoma. When in uniform, park rangers and park managers are usually the first employees to make contact with park visitors

Title 70 § 3311 of the Oklahoma Statutes requires continuing education of park rangers and park managers having law enforcement responsibility for OTRD. As

a result, law enforcement personnel employed by OTRD gather annually for in-service training, making this an ideal opportunity for data collection.

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was requested by the researcher, and granted by the IRB at Oklahoma State University (Appendix A). Permission to use agency personnel ( $n = 83$ ) was sought and granted by OTRD (Appendix B). The data were collected on February 22, 1999, at Lake Texoma Resort Park in Marshall County, Oklahoma.

### Research Instrument

A 36-item paper and pencil questionnaire was used to collect the necessary information, and is cataloged in Appendix C. Each question or variable used for the survey was taken from previous research efforts of others.

The actual survey instrument was presented as a small pamphlet with a light blue cover entitled "Inventory of Perspectives on Occupational Role." This six-page instrument begins with instructions on how to respond to the items in the questionnaire and a statement of assent for participants. The participants were asked to "consider line of work/career field as having the same meaning as occupation, profession, or vocation."

The thirty-six items were divided into six areas of exploration. Each section began with statements related to the various aspects of their work place. The first section asked individuals to address items 1 through 14 "in light of their home park." These 14 items developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, (1970) were used to measure subjects' perceptions of role conflict and role ambiguity.

Odd numbered items measured role conflict while even numbered items measured role ambiguity. Rizzo and his colleagues used a 7-point scale with degrees ranging from "very false" to "very true" (p. 156). In this study, however, a measurement scale that extended from strongly disagree to strongly agree was used for consistency throughout the questionnaire. Rizzo et al., (1970) reported reliability coefficients of .816 and .820 for role conflict. For role ambiguity the reported reliability coefficients were .780 and .808 on these seven point Likert scales (Rizzo et al., 1970).

Reliability coefficients such as Cronbach alphas are a measure of the instrument's precision, or the precision of a set of items within an instrument. As such, the Cronbach alpha is a measure of internal consistency. The absolute reliability coefficients range from zero to one, therefore the larger the coefficient, the more reliable the measurements are.

Items 15, 16 and 17 were taken from the Family Involvement Scale developed by Romzek, (1989). These scales measured the importance of family involvement for individuals. A Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) was used. A reverse score was calculated for item 15. Further, Romzek, (1989) reported a Cronbach alpha of .71.

Items 18 to 23 measured organizational involvement and career satisfaction. These six scales were drawn from earlier research by Romzek, and "represents a continuum of psychological attachment to an organization that ranges from positive affect, or organizational commitment, to negative affect, or organizational alienation" (Romzek, 1989 p. 653). The response formats for



items 18, 19 and 20 used a five-point scale anchored with strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The organizational involvement scale reported a Cronbach alpha of .77. Items 21, 22 and 23 measured career satisfaction and used the same five point scale, but were affixed with strongly dissatisfied (1) to strongly satisfied (5). Using the Spearman-Brown, a split-half reliability coefficient for this scale was a .70 (Romzek, 1989).

The next items 24, 25 and 26 were developed by the researcher. These three items measured the extent to which park rangers perceive the same degree of importance of their profession as the same as with their perceptions of Oklahoma Highway Patrol and Oklahoma Department of Wildlife Conservation law enforcement officers. A five-point scale that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) was used.

The remaining 10 items were developed by Pierce et al., (1993) and measured organization-based self-esteem. The response scales for OBSE items were anchored with strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The OBSE scale for Pierce et al., (1993) reported a coefficient alpha of .90.

The final section of this questionnaire requested demographic information concerning the participants' age, sex, marital status and career field advancement.

As stated in the introduction, the following hypotheses were tested using a probability ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) of the Pearson product moment correlation between variables.

Hypothesis 1: OBSE is not significantly correlated with role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.

Hypothesis 2: Role conflict is not significantly correlated with role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.

Hypothesis 3: Role ambiguity is not significantly correlated with career commitment, family involvement and organizational involvement.

Hypothesis 4: Career satisfaction is not significantly correlated with family involvement and organizational involvement.

Hypothesis 5: Organizational involvement is not significantly correlated with family involvement.

### Methods of Data Analyses

Individual response totals on the items that compose each scale were summed and divided by the number of items in the scale. For analytic purposes scale values ranged from 1 to 5. A value of one represents the low or negative end of the dimension, and a value of 5 represents the high or positive end. For example, high scores on the role conflict and role ambiguity measurement scales represents an absence of role conflict and an absence of role ambiguity.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), (Microsoft, 1995) for the mainframe computer at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, Oklahoma was used for all statistical analysis. A Pearson product moment

correlation coefficient was calculated using SPSS to determine if there were any significant relationships between OBSE, role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement ( $\alpha=.05$ ). The alpha level of the statistical analysis was the decision point as to whether to reject or fail to reject the null hypotheses; that is, any relationships that existed were not due chance.

The demographic section of the questionnaire included age, gender, level of education, professional training, current position and type of law enforcement authority (i.e. basic or reserve officer). These data from the demographic section in the questionnaire are reported as frequencies and are presented as figures.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this survey was to determine if relationships between role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, organizational involvement and organization-based self-esteem existed among park rangers. To accomplish this task a 36-item questionnaire (Appendix C) was developed from the research of Pierce et al. (1989), Rizzo et al. (1970) and Romzek (1989).

Permission to use park personnel employed by the Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department (OTRD) was granted and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, Oklahoma. The response group (N=83) consisted of park rangers and park managers working for OTRD, Division of State Parks. The collection of sample data occurred on February 22, 1999 at Lake Texoma Resort Park near Kingston, Oklahoma.

#### Demographic Profile

Although the demographic section was the last part of the questionnaire, it is presented first to give a portrait of the park rangers and park managers who responded to the survey. A majority (77.1%) indicated that they were married while less than one fifth of the respondents (19.3%) said they were single or

divorced. The mean age of the group was 40.25 years, and ranged from the youngest at 25 to the oldest at 60 (standard deviation SD = 13.89). Response group gender was skewed in that 75 were males (90.4%) and two were females (2.4%), and only six (7.4%) refused to identify their gender. Visual observation, however, indicated four females were present at the survey administration. This skewing of the sample by gender had been identified as a study delimitation.

Respondents were asked to indicate the number of years they have been employed with OTRD, and the number of years in their current job position. In terms of experience with OTRD, length of time for employment ranged from one year to twenty-nine years. The average length of employment was 10.37 years for the response group. Tenure of position range from 1 to 29 years, and the average length of time in their current position was six and a half years.

Figure One shows the number of responses for each employment classification. Park rangers were the majority of respondents (59.0%) for this study. While the remainder of this sample group were either park managers (27.7%) or they did not respond to this item on the questionnaire.

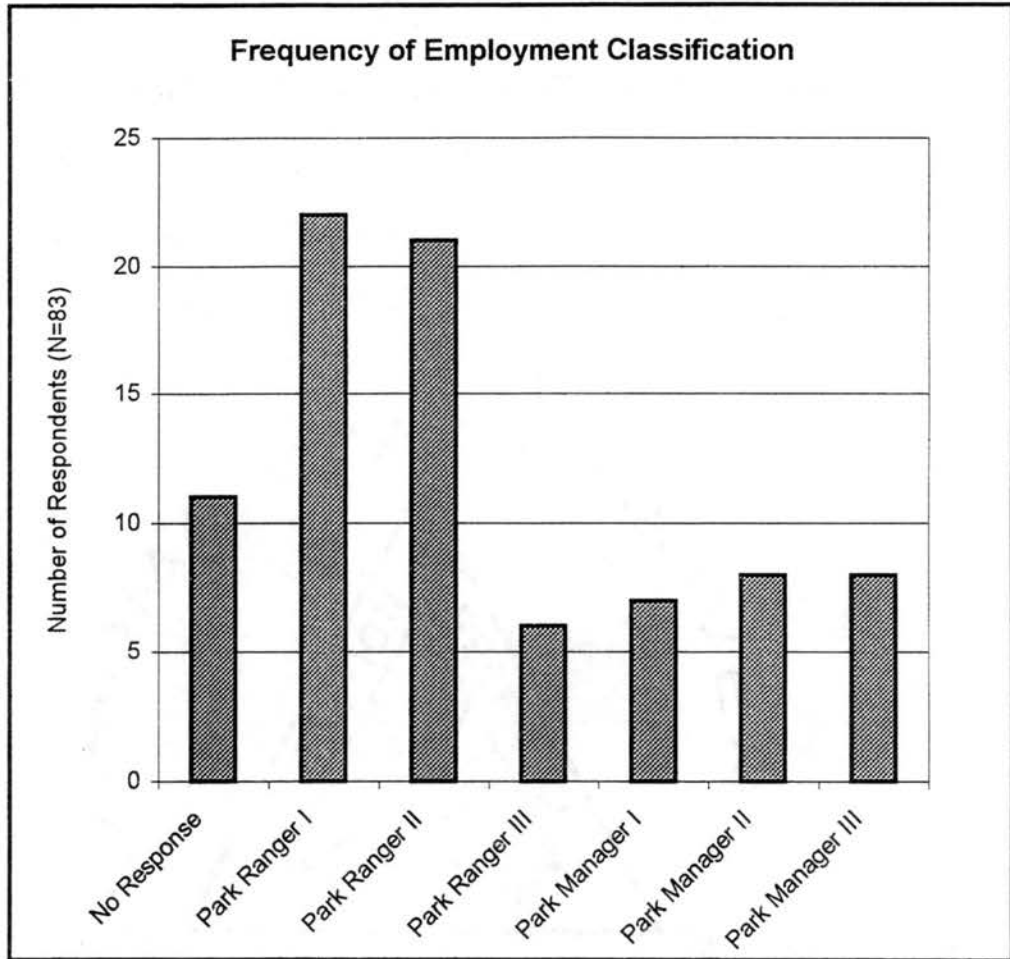


FIGURE 1

The level of formal education among the response group was varied. Seven individuals (8.4%) indicated that they held some type of graduate degree, and 25 respondents (30.1%) indicated they had a four-year degree, while 27 individuals (32.5%) reported some college education. Only two respondents (2.4%) indicated having earned an associates degree and five (6.0%) reported that vocational technical school was the highest level of education they had attained. Those reporting high school as the highest level attained was 11 (13.3%).

In order for park rangers and managers to fulfill the role of a law enforcement officer (i.e. police power) in Oklahoma State Parks they must receive law enforcement training and certification as provided by O.S. Title 70 § 3311 Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET). Table II shows the various professional training and CLEET certifications for the response group.

TABLE II  
PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION FOR LAW  
ENFORCEMENT PERSONNEL

Certifications	(N =83)	
Reserve officer (CLEET)	17	20.5%
Basic police (CLEET)	62	74.7%
Breathalyzer operator	17	20.5%
Advanced traffic investigation	12	14.5%
Instructor certification	16	19.3%

Beyond basic law enforcement training, 45 of the park rangers held other specialized certifications. All park rangers receiving basic law enforcement training and park managers with reserve officer status receive basic traffic accident investigation as part of their CLEET certification. However, in several of the larger and higher use state parks, the frequency and complexity of traffic accidents warrants some park rangers (14.5%) to have advanced traffic investigation for training and certification. Similarly, several state parks have

enough alcohol-related accidents and incidents in the park for some park rangers to be certified breathalyzer operators. Almost 20% of the respondents indicated that they held an instructors certification. Such certifications include self defense, first aid and firearms qualifications.

One assumption of this study was that not all of the participants had received basic or reserve officer training prior to the administration of this survey. Of the total responses (N=83), 79 indicated that they retain either basic law enforcement or reserve officer training. Four respondents did not indicate their law enforcement certification status. This could reflect non-response or no attainment of that training certification. Not all park managers have reserve officer training. Some managers, for example, may have been promoted from the park ranger classification, which eventually requires basic law enforcement training. Additionally, prior to a promotion in job classification, a park ranger with basic law enforcement training may also receive other special training and certification. Training such as advanced traffic investigation and breathalyzer operator certifications are considered special training, and are not necessarily primary functions associated with the park manager classifications.

A demographic item requested by OTRD asked the park rangers and park managers to indicate the population of the closest city or town near their park. The population of proximate commonalties was included as a service to OTRD. Population centers were not considered an issue by the researcher in role conflict, role ambiguity or OBSE. Participants had four categories of population from which to choose. Thirty-six (43.4%) respondents indicated that the



population of the closest city or town near their park was less than 5,000. Eighteen individuals (21.7%) reported that the population of the closest city or town near their park was between 5,500 and 10,000. Only eight individuals (9.6%) reported a population between 11,000 and 20,000 as the city or town closest to their park, and 15 respondents (18.1%) indicated that the population of the nearest city relative to their park was over 20,000. Six individuals (7.2%) chose not to respond to this item.

A final open-ended statement asked park rangers and park managers to write further comments concerning their organization or job function.

Surprisingly, no one responded to this question.

### Hypotheses Testing

Correlation coefficients were derived by testing the significance of the relationship between various measures of role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational involvement, career satisfaction and organization-based self-esteem. The correlations were calculated using SPSS. The following table summarizes each of the significant and non-significant correlations for the various combinations of the variables. Significance was determined at an  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

TABLE III  
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Respondents (N=83)	Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Career Satisfaction	Organizational Involvement	Family Involvement
OBSE	-.093 (p = .403)	.266* (p = .002)	.464* (p<.001)	-.307* (p = .005)	.062 (p = .578)
Role Conflict	--	.332* (p = .002)	-.188 (p = .089)	.257* (p = .019)	-.065 (p = .557)
Role Ambiguity		--	.054 (p = .626)	-.117 (p = .290)	.143 (p = .196)
Career Satisfaction			--	-.394* (p<.001)	.094 (p = .396)
Organizational Involvement				--	-.085 (p = .443)

\*Significant at the 0.05 level.

The following null hypotheses were developed and tested.

**Ho: 1 OBSE is not significantly correlated with role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement, and organizational involvement.**

To test Hypothesis 1, Pearson product moment correlations were calculated on each of the named variables. Organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) was not significantly correlated with role conflict (p=.403) and family involvement (p=.578). A significant positive correlation was obtained in that OBSE correlated with role ambiguity (p=.002) and career satisfaction (p < .001). However, a significant negative correlation was observed between OBSE (p=.005) and organizational involvement. Since three relationships were shown to be significant this null hypothesis was rejected. OBSE was significantly

positively correlated with role ambiguity and career satisfaction, and negatively correlated with organizational involvement in testing this sample.

**Ho: 2 Role conflict is not significantly correlated with role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.**

To test Hypothesis 2, Pearson product moment correlations were calculated on each of the named variables. There was no significant correlation between role conflict, career satisfaction ( $p=.089$ ) and family involvement ( $p=.557$ ). However, significantly positive correlation was observed between role conflict, role ambiguity ( $p=.002$ ) and organizational involvement ( $p=.019$ ) in this sample. As a result of these two significant positive relationships this hypothesis was also rejected.

**Ho: 3 Role ambiguity is not significantly correlated with career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.**

To test Hypothesis 3, Pearson product moment correlations were calculated on each of the named variables. Role ambiguity was not significantly correlated with career satisfaction ( $p=.626$ ), organizational involvement ( $p=.290$ ) or family involvement ( $p=.196$ ). For this hypothesis, no significant relationships were identified in this sample. As a result the hypothesis was not rejected.

**Ho: 4 Career satisfaction is not significantly correlated with family involvement and organizational involvement.**

To test Hypothesis 4, Pearson product moment correlations were calculated on the each variable. A significant negative correlation was observed

between career satisfaction and organizational involvement ( $p < .001$ ). A non-significant correlation existed between career satisfaction and family involvement ( $p = .396$ ). Because there was a significant correlation between career satisfaction and organizational involvement, this hypothesis was rejected.

**Ho: 5 Organizational involvement is not significantly correlated with family involvement.**

To test Hypothesis 5, a Pearson product moment correlation was calculated on the organizational involvement and the family involvement variables. There was no significance between organizational involvement and family involvement ( $p = .443$ ), therefore, this last hypothesis was not rejected.

Table IV summarizes the significant relationships that exist between several of the variables among park rangers and park managers in this sample.

TABLE IV  
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF DATA

Respondents (N=83)	Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Career Satisfaction	Organizational Involvement	Family Involvement
OBSE	Failed to Reject	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected	Failed to Reject
Role Conflict	--	Rejected	Failed to Reject	Rejected	Failed to Reject
Role Ambiguity		--	Failed to Reject	Failed to Reject	Failed to Reject
Career Satisfaction			--	Rejected	Failed to Reject
Organizational Involvement				--	Failed to Reject

\*Significant at the 0.05 level

### Direction and Intensity of Measures on Instruments

As discussed in the previous chapter each measurement scale in the instrument has both a negative as well as a positive end. Conceptually, higher scores for each measurement scale on role conflict and role ambiguity represent a situation of resolution for the respondents. For example, with role conflict and role ambiguity, a high score indicates resolution of role conflict and ambiguity. Similarly, the OBSE measure included self-evaluation on trust, importance, value, efficiency and cooperation (Pierce et al., 1998). Therefore, high-end responses on those measures reflect a positive or strong sense of self.

Organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) was positively correlated with resolution of role ambiguity and career satisfaction. As the rangers and managers increase their organization-based self-esteem, their resolution of role ambiguity also increases. The measures of OBSE developed by Pierce et al. (1989) reported self-evaluation on trust, cooperation, efficiency and value. The positive correlation between OBSE and career satisfaction indicated that as an employee's OBSE increased so did their personal satisfaction with career choice and opportunities. However, as park rangers' and park managers' involvement in the organization increased their level of career satisfaction decreased.

Role conflict and role ambiguity were positively correlated. This means that as the measures of resolution for role ambiguity increased so did the measures for resolution of role conflict. Parallel to this, resolution of role conflict was positively correlated with organizational involvement. For park rangers and managers this means that as they resolved role conflict, their organizational

involvement increased. By contrast, organizational involvement had a significant negative relationship with organization-based self-esteem among the respondents. For the employees in this study, as their organizational involvement increased, their organization-based self-esteem decreased.

#### Self-evaluated Perceptions on Allied Professions

The response group was given three self-evaluating perception statements on the importance of their profession in comparison to an allied profession. These statements were not part of the standardized test that measured each of the previously named variables.

The first statement was "I perceive my role as a park ranger, as being just as important as an Oklahoma Highway Patrol trooper." Thirty-one respondents (31) said they agreed and 42 said they strongly agreed with that statement. As the following Figure shows only a small number of individuals had any disagreement with the statement.

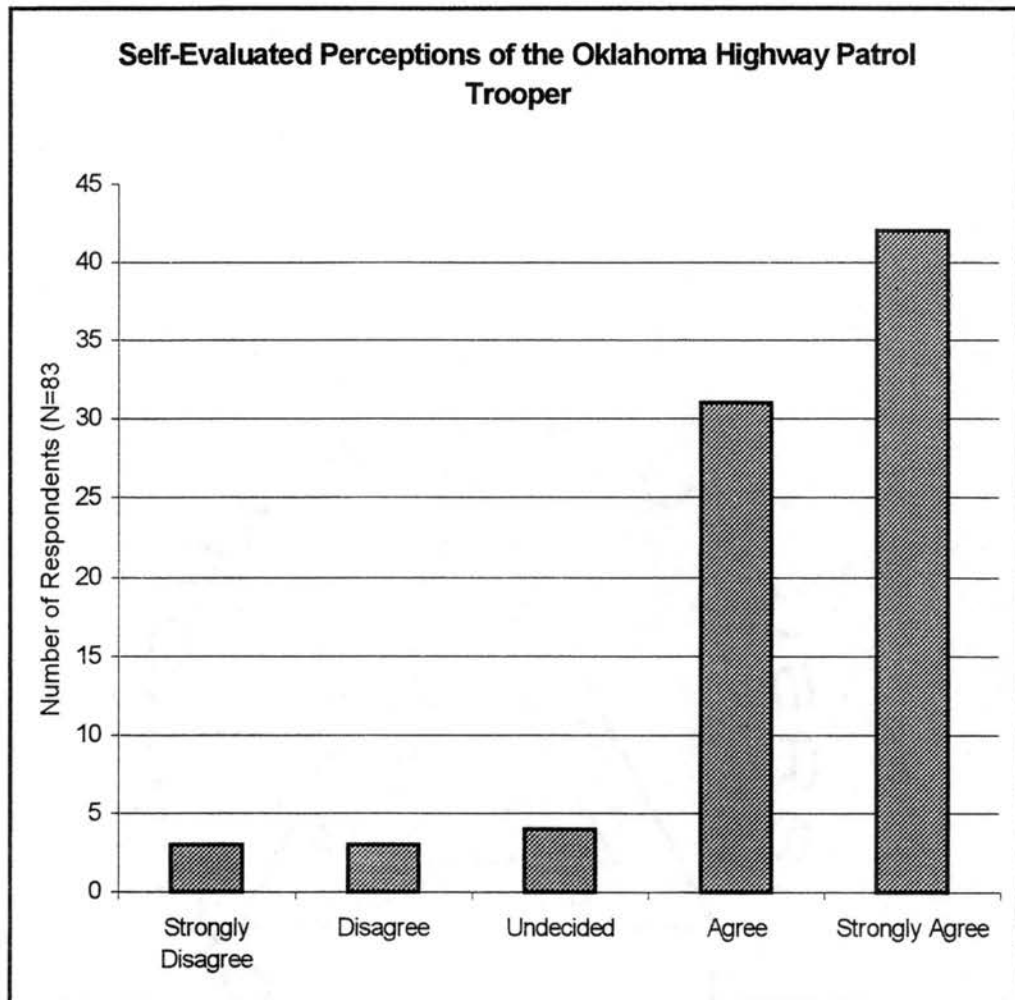


FIGURE 2

The next statement was "I perceive my role as a park ranger, as being a steward of the environment." The number of individuals that agreed was 49 (59.0%), while the number that strongly agreed with the statement was 23 (27.7%). Four (4.8%) individuals were undecided, six (7.2%) disagreed and only one (1.2%) strongly disagreeing.

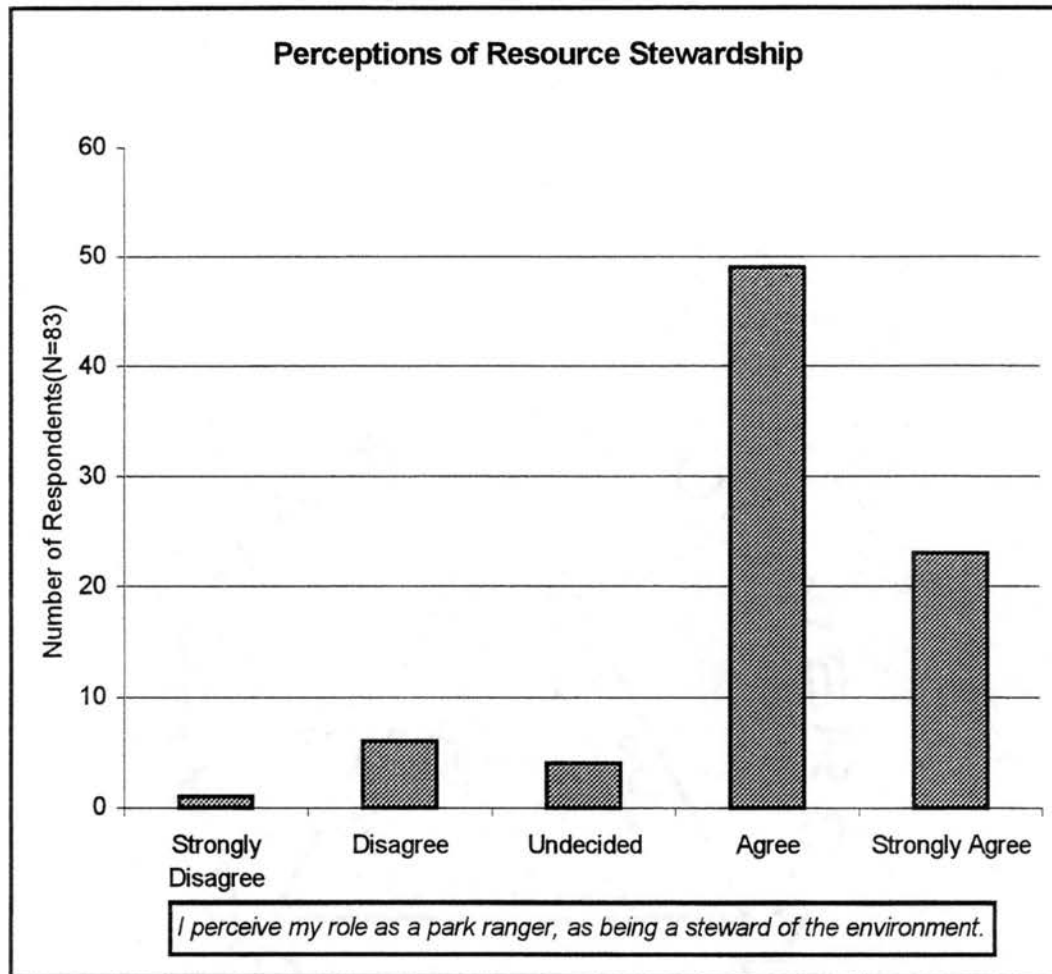


FIGURE 3

The last statement was "I perceive my role as being just as important as that of a game ranger." Most individuals (50.5%) strongly agreed with this statement. Additionally, 43.3% (36) that agreed their role was just as important as the role of a game ranger. Four individuals (4.8%) disagreed and only one person (1.2%) strongly disagreed. No one was undecided.



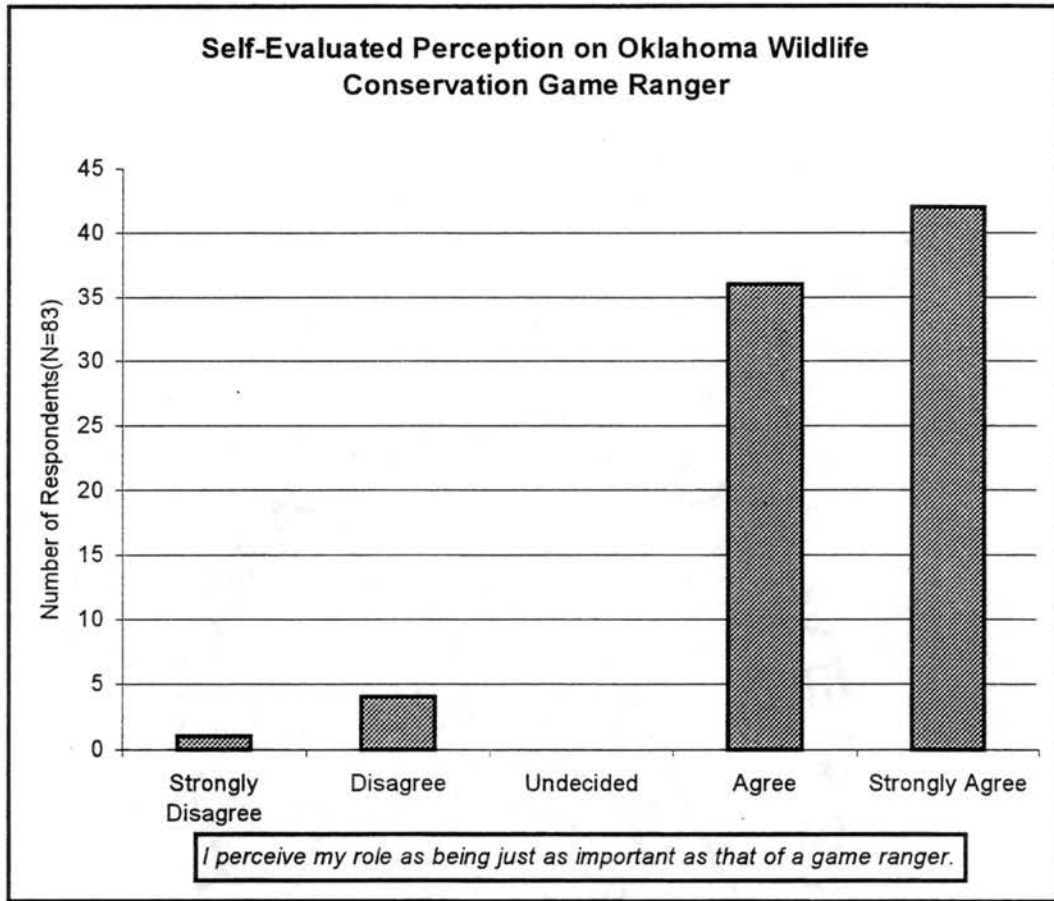


FIGURE 4

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Traditional history has built a perception in the minds of many park rangers, park managers and agency administrators that may be contradictory. The park ranger profession is over one hundred years old, and little has changed for the park ranger over that time. The correspondence and statements cited in the review of the literature could have been written at any point during the century and represented the conditions in which the park rangers have worked. Lack of clarity in job titles or job duties, and especially law enforcement function continues. Lack of clarity in policy remains common for handling the special nuances of decision-making in a park setting.

The purpose of this study was to determine if any relationships existed between role conflict, role ambiguity organizational involvement, career satisfaction and organization-based self-esteem among Oklahoma State park rangers and park managers. To ascertain whether these relationships existed among the sample participants, a questionnaire was designed to gather information on the relationships of various combinations of the variables. The research instrument also gathered demographic information. This included age,

gender, marital status, level of education, professional training and job classification.

### Findings

A descriptive statistical test was computed to conclude if significant correlations existed between role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational involvement, career satisfaction and OBSE.

Several null hypotheses concerning various combinations of these variables were developed and tested. These variables were analyzed by computing a Pearson product moment correlation on the collected data. The outcome of the statistical analyses produced the ensuing results from the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 stated: OBSE is not significantly correlated with role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.

There were no significant correlations found between organization-based self-esteem, role conflict ( $p = .403$ ) and family involvement ( $p = .578$ ). However, a positive significant correlation was found to exist with role ambiguity ( $p = .002$ ) and career satisfaction ( $p < .001$ ). A significant negative correlation also occurred between OBSE ( $p = .005$ ) and organizational involvement. As a result of three relationships being significant, this null hypothesis was rejected. For park rangers and park managers in this sample, OBSE was found to be significantly

correlated with role ambiguity, career satisfaction and organizational involvement for this sample group.

Hypothesis 2 stated: Role conflict is not significantly correlated with role ambiguity, career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.

There were no significant correlations found between role conflict, career satisfaction ( $p=.089$ ) and family involvement ( $p=.557$ ). A significant positive correlation, however was found to exist between role conflict, role ambiguity ( $p=.002$ ) and organizational involvement ( $p=.019$ ) for this sample. Based on the results of these significant positive correlations this hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 3 stated: Role ambiguity is not significantly correlated with career satisfaction, family involvement and organizational involvement.

There were no significant correlations found for role ambiguity, career satisfaction ( $p=.626$ ), organizational involvement ( $p=.290$ ) and family involvement ( $p=.196$ ). Because there were no significant relationships found for these variables, the hypothesis was not rejected in this sample.

Hypothesis 4 stated: Career satisfaction is not significantly correlated with family involvement and organizational involvement.

A significant negative correlation was found to exist between career satisfaction and organizational involvement ( $p<.001$ ). A non-significant correlation, however, was found to exist between career satisfaction and family involvement ( $p=.396$ ) in this sample. Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 5 stated: Organizational involvement is not significantly correlated with family involvement.

There was no significant correlation found between organizational involvement and family involvement ( $p=.443$ ) in this sample group. This last hypothesis was not rejected.

Another area investigated concerning this group of park rangers was their self-evaluated perception concerning another agency's employee that has law enforcement jurisdiction within Oklahoma State parks. The Oklahoma Department of Wildlife Conservation game rangers and Oklahoma Highway Patrol troopers have enforcement jurisdiction in any Oklahoma State Park. For this group, the majority perceived their role as a park ranger as being just as important as that of an Oklahoma Highway Patrol trooper. By comparison, the majority of park rangers and park managers perceived their role as being just as important as the role of a game ranger. Most of the park rangers and park managers in this sample group considered their profession as being a steward of the environment.

Finally, the majority of this group work in park settings that are located in rural areas, where populations of the closest city or town range from 5,000 to 10,000 citizens.

### Conclusions and Discussion

The following conclusions were drawn when the outcomes, limitations, delimitations and assumptions for this study were taken into account. Each

conclusion is discussed in light of the literature, the data analysis and the research environment.

Conclusion 1. For park rangers and park managers employed by Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department (OTRD), organization-based self-esteem (OBSE), resolution of role ambiguity and career satisfaction were positively related. This means that as levels of organization-based self-esteem increased for the park rangers and managers so did their resolution of role ambiguity. Similarly, as the levels of organization-based self-esteem increased for the response group so did their levels of career satisfaction. By contrast, as park rangers and park managers increased their dependency upon the employing agency as measured by the organizational involvement scale, their organization-based self-esteem declined. This negative correlation indicates that the park employees in the sample who remained ethically committed to the global integrity of the park environment were likely at odds with their agency.

Conclusion 2. The significant positive relationship between resolution of role conflict and resolution of role ambiguity is straight forward, as the sample group resolved any perceived role conflict, they also resolved any perceived role ambiguity. Additionally, as the participants' level of resolved role conflict increased so did their levels of organizational involvement.

However, based on several findings of this study there was strong evidence to conclude that a majority of park rangers and park managers employed with OTRD struggle with incompatibilities or incongruencies with

the requirements of their roles as park rangers and park managers. As the following Figures 5, 6 and 7 clearly show the majority of rangers and managers have unresolved role conflicts.

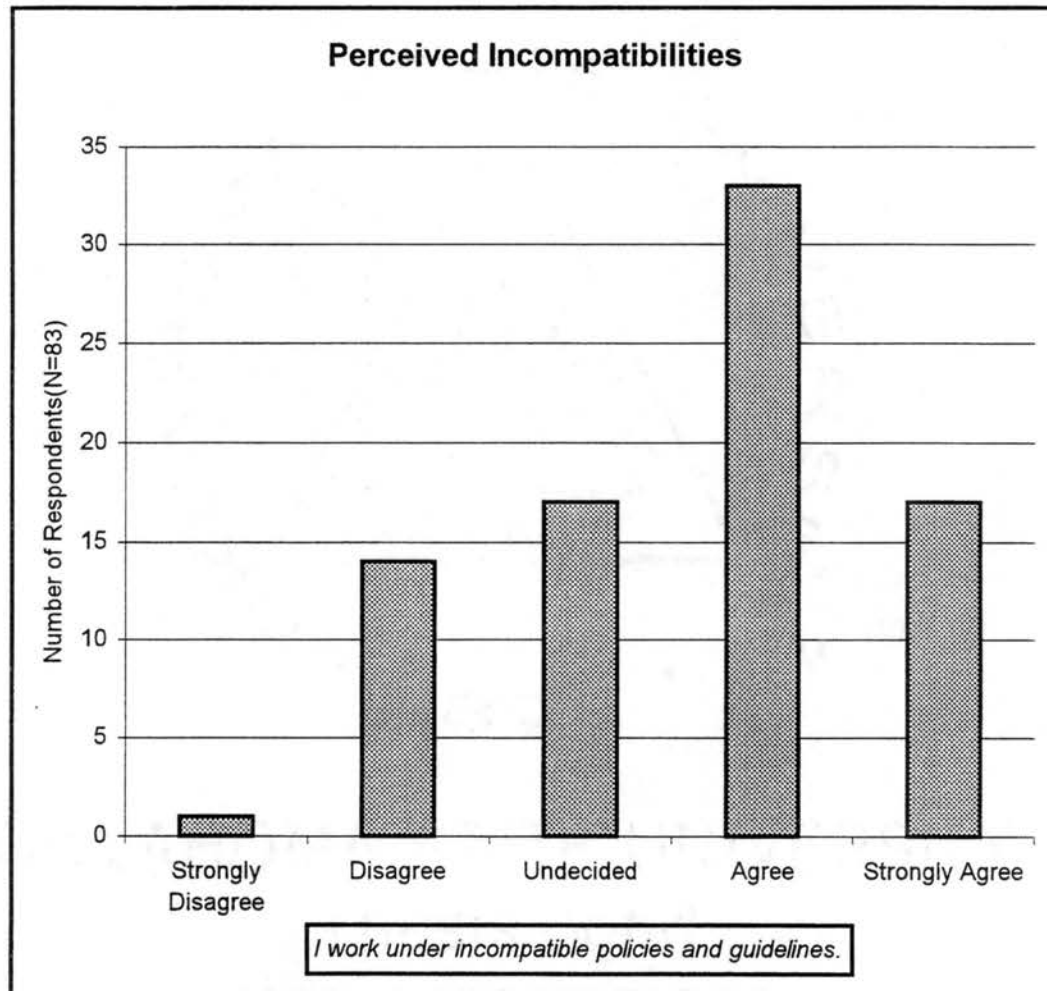


FIGURE 5

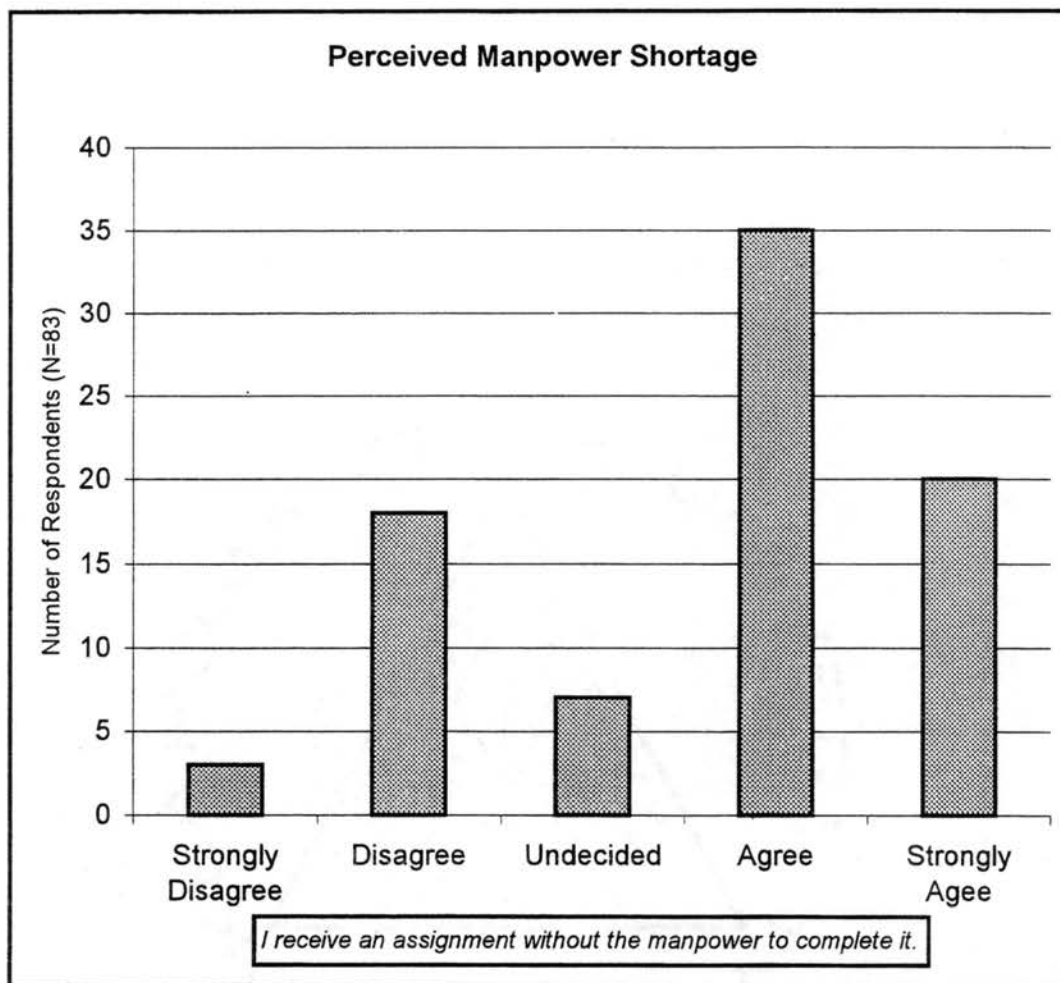


FIGURE 6



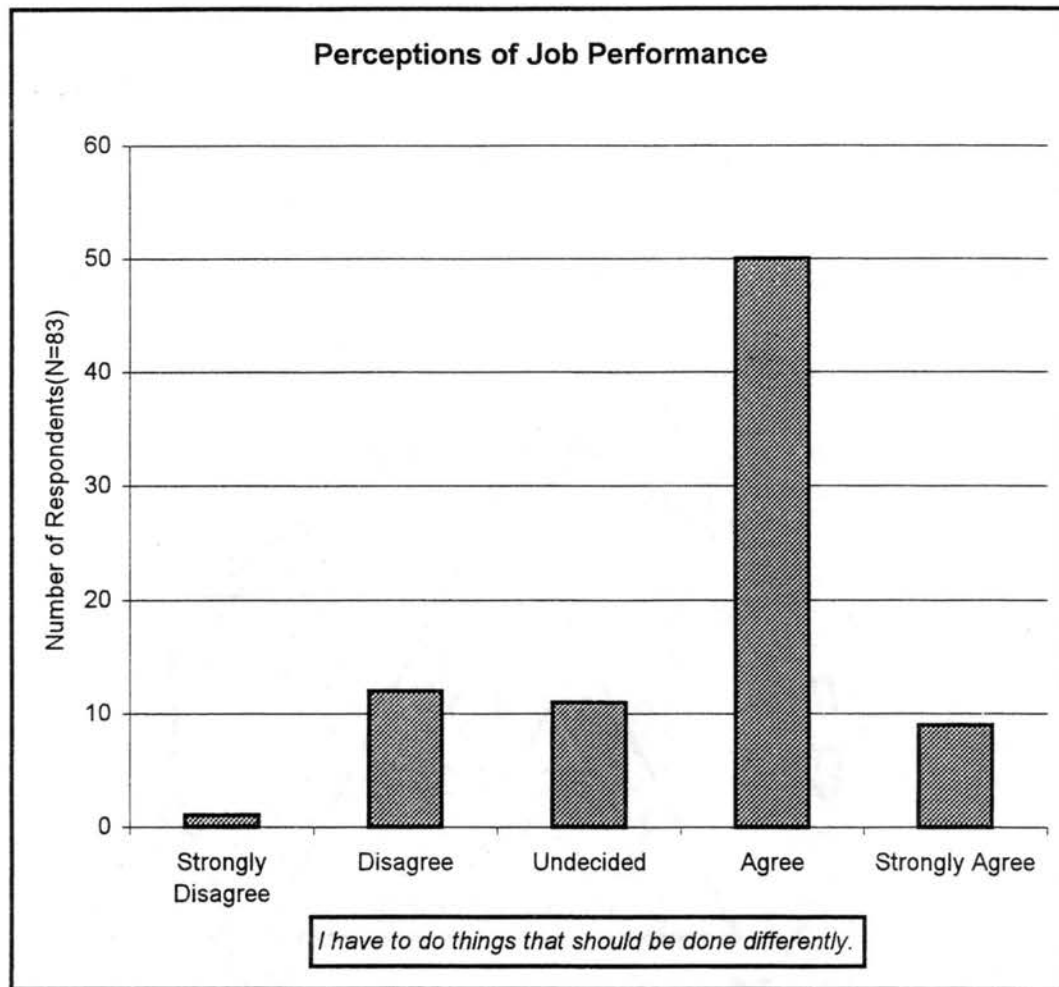


FIGURE 7

Conclusion 3. Career satisfaction and organizational involvement had a significant negative relationship. As the park rangers and park managers in this group increased their direct personal involvement in the employing organization, their levels of career satisfaction decreased. Further support for this conclusion is presented in Figure 8. The majority of the response group perceived their employing agency as not caring one way or another whether employees were committed to the organization. Almost 60% of

the park rangers and managers were in agreement with the measurement scale in Figure 8.

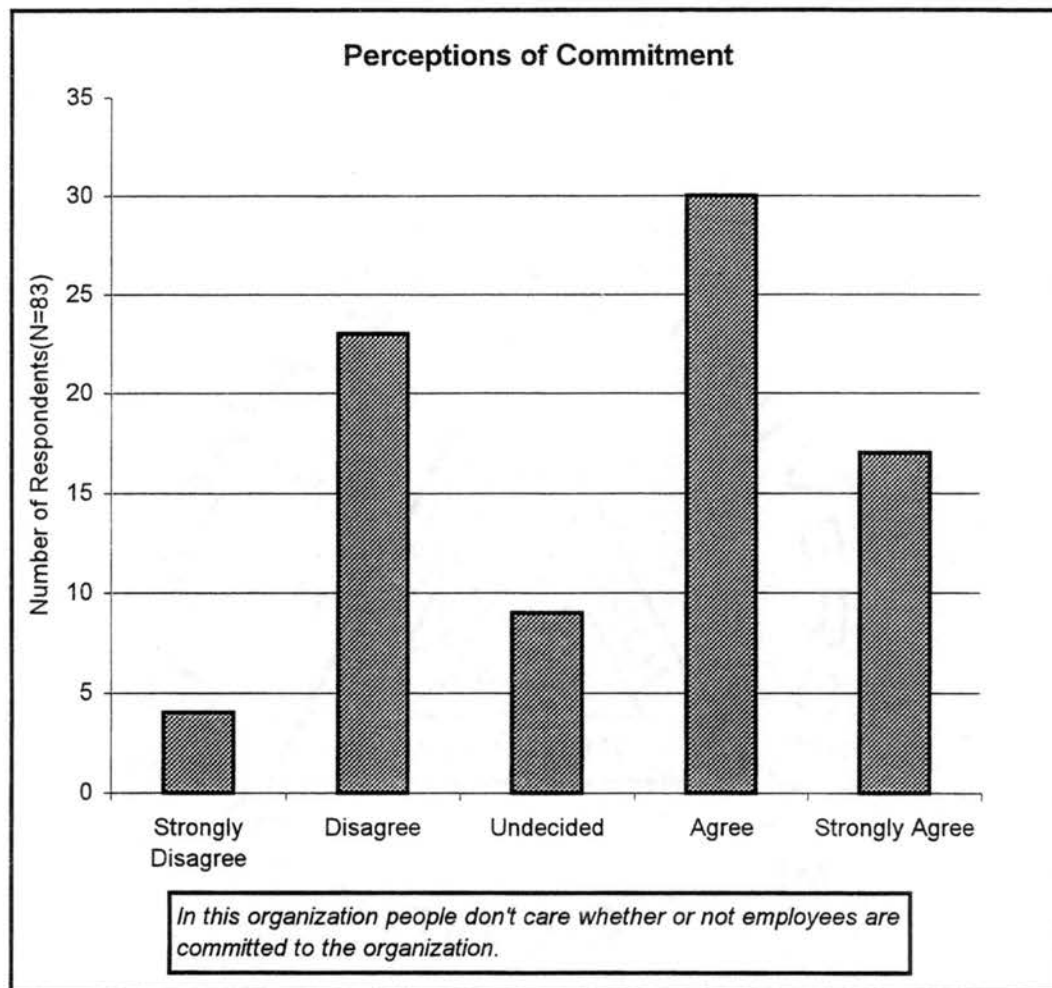


FIGURE 8

Regardless of the employee classification series currently in use by Oklahoma Department of Tourism and Recreation (OTRD), the response group had varying degrees of dissatisfaction concerning career advancement opportunities within this agency. As Figure 9 shows, the majority of personnel (54.2%) in this sample group were dissatisfied with their opportunities for career advancement.

However, the majority of the survey group (60.3%) was satisfied with their career progress since the start of their employment with OTRD, Figure 10. This leads to a conclusion that although park rangers and managers are satisfied with their career progress, there was still a perceived dissatisfaction with their chances for future career advancement in this agency.

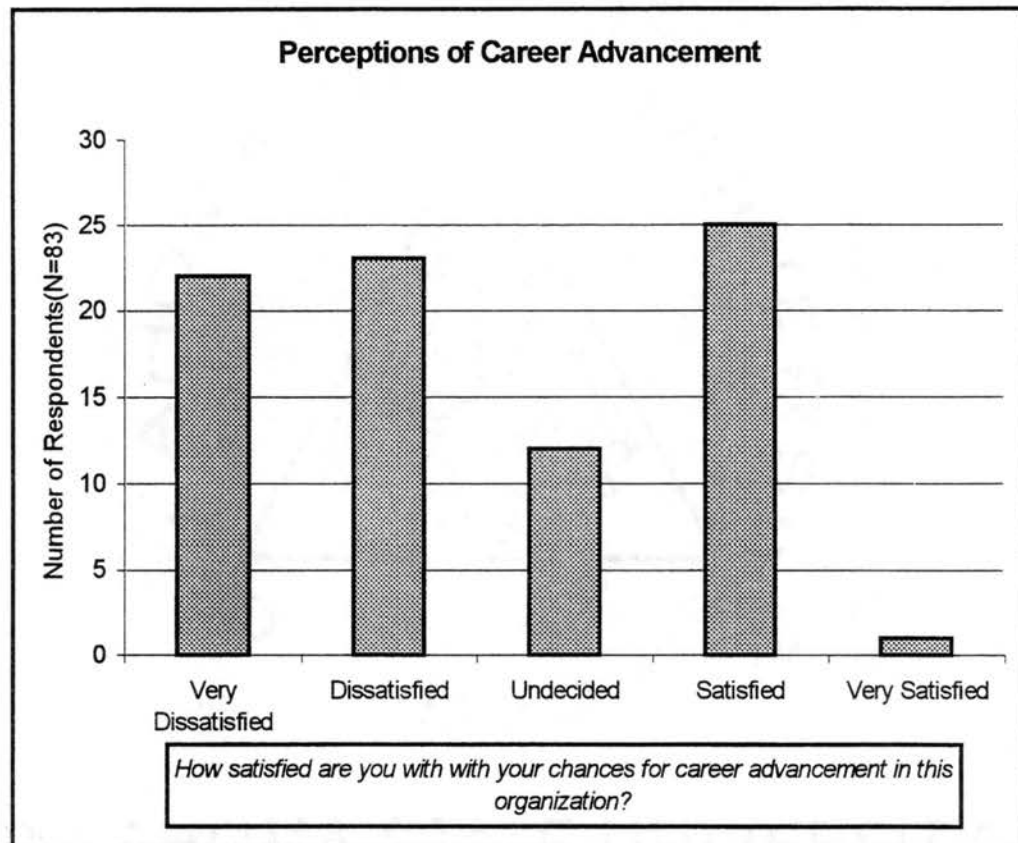


FIGURE 9

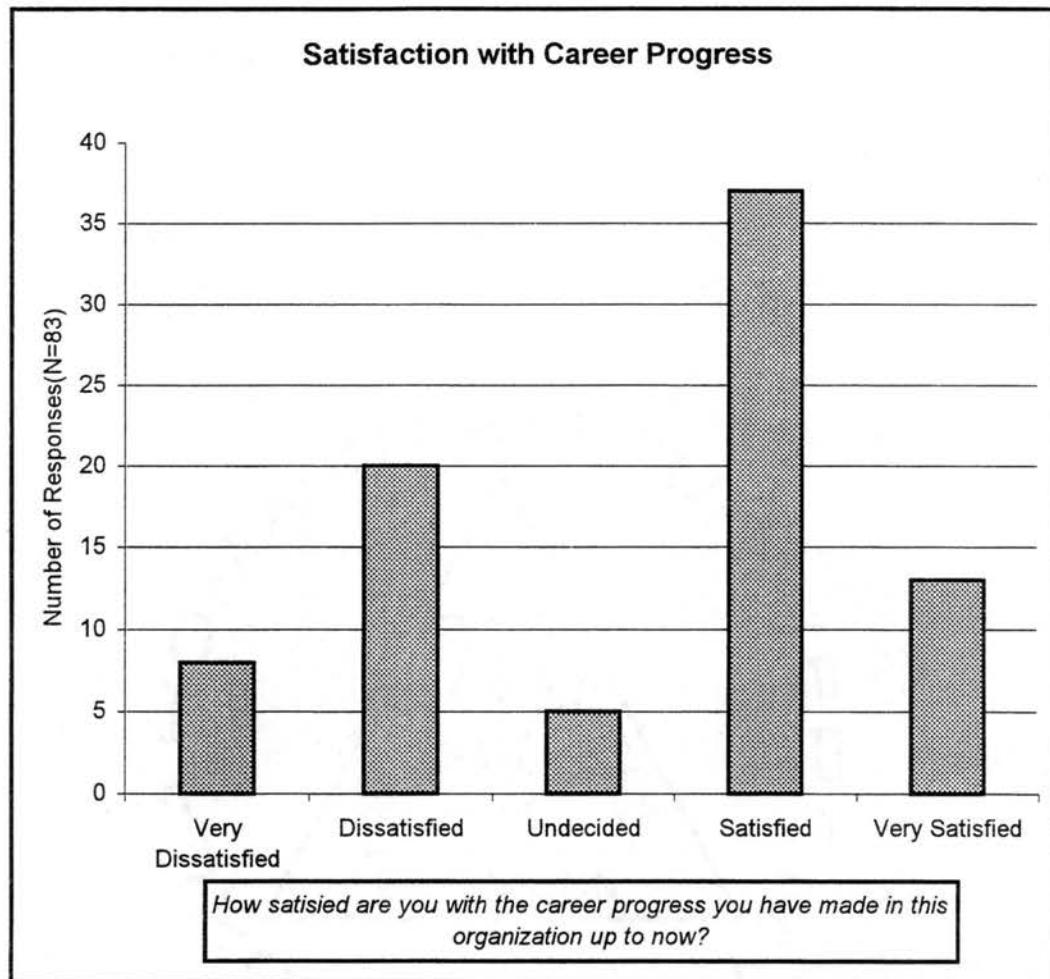


FIGURE 10

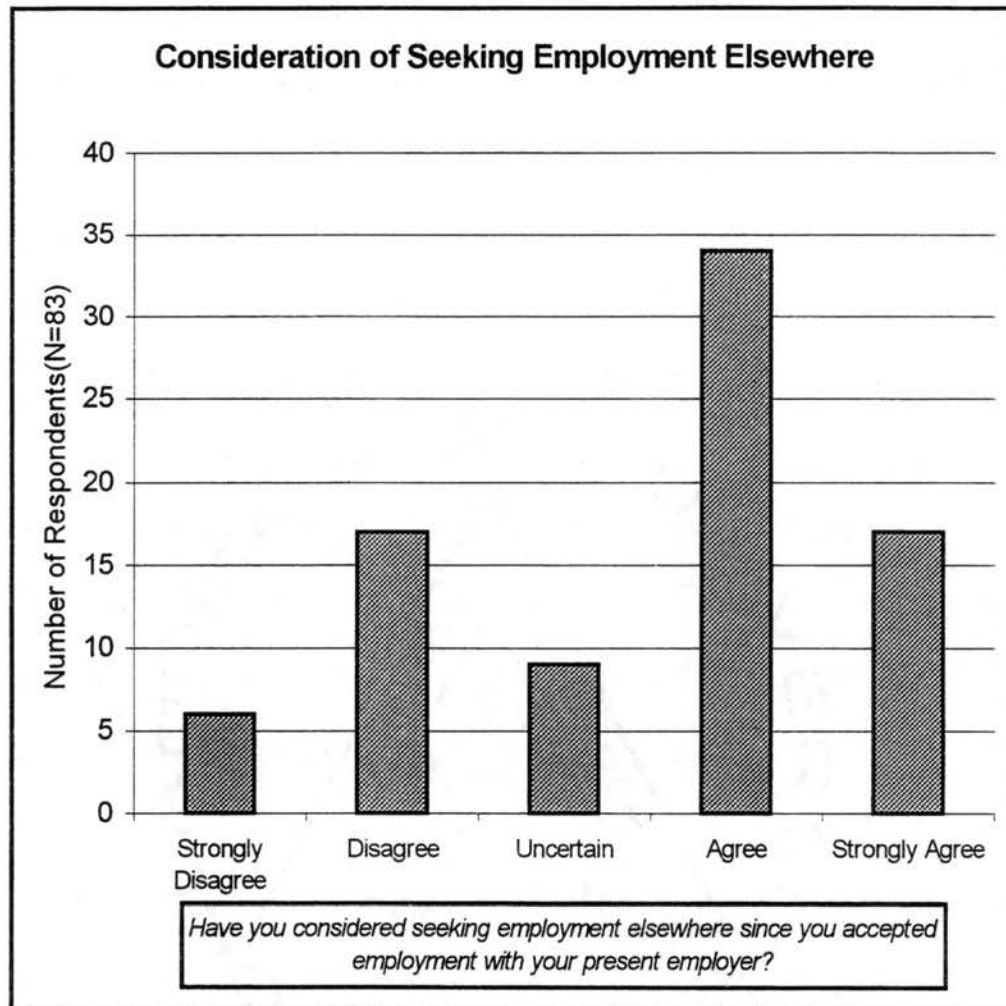


FIGURE 11

Conclusion 4. The measures of OBSE included such statements as "I am trusted around here," "I am taken seriously around here," "I can make a difference around here" and "I am valuable around here." As indicated previously, those measurement scales for OBSE had both a positive and negative dimension. Positive scores reflected a strong sense of self or positive self-esteem, while low end scores indicated the opposite. The reported mean for OBSE was 3.9060, and a standard deviation of .6536 ( $SD = .6536$ ).

A majority of the park employees in the sample group had high organization-based self-esteem. This leads the researcher to conclude that the park rangers and managers in this sample perceived themselves as being important, meaningful, effectual, trustworthy and having a sense of self-worth within OTRD.

However, almost one-fourth of the participants (24.1%) in this sample had a mid-range score, which can be interpreted as a lower sense of self. For the park rangers and park managers in this group, positive experiences lead to high self-esteem and negative experiences lead to low self-esteem. These organization-related experiences may impact an individual's level of organization-based self-esteem, which in turn may affect that individual's organization-related behaviors and attitudes. This may also help to explain why some park managers and park rangers have, what some perceive as a "bad attitude," concerning organization citizenship. Park rangers are the ambassadors to the state parks in Oklahoma.

A reliability coefficient was calculated on the OBSE scale for this group of participants. The OBSE scale in this study had a reported Cronbach alpha of .9059.

Conclusion 5. Another conclusion concerns the actual test instrument. The various measures on OBSE, role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction and organizational involvement performed as expected by the researcher.

However, the family involvement measures did not generate the necessary information in which to measure that variable on this group of employees.

Conclusion 6. Ecological stewardship is a term that describes a vocational specialist charged with the care, protection and preservation of natural and historical resources (Snizek et al., 1985). Intuitively, park rangers should be familiar with this term. In this group of OTRD park rangers and park managers the majority perceived their role as being stewards of the environment. Similarly, the majority of individuals in this group perceived their roles as being just as important as the roles of an Oklahoma Highway Patrol Trooper and Oklahoma Department of Wildlife Game Ranger.

However, one finding of special interest for the researcher was a small number of respondents that either strongly disagreed, disagreed or were undecided concerning the importance of their roles as compared to the roles of the highway patrol troopers or wildlife game ranger. Said differently those individuals had a perception that OHP officers and ODWC game rangers roles were somewhat more important than their own. The researcher's special interest in this minority voice is in regard to the effect of a minority voice upon larger groups. The strong opinions of a small vocal minority may effect the entire organization. Such effects may be positive or negative depending on the voice.

Conclusion 7. The reluctance of rangers and managers to respond to the to the open-ended question concerning their organization or job function suggests suspicion and perhaps some mistrust concerning their organization.

### Recommendations

The following recommendations were generated based upon the findings, conclusions, limitations and delimitations for this study.

Recommendation 1. Relationships were obtained between several of the variables. There is no denying that park rangers have many roles to fulfill in the profession, therefore further studies on role conflict, role ambiguity, career satisfaction, organizational involvement and organization-based self-esteem using other park rangers from other agencies is recommended.

Recommendation 2. Role conflict and role ambiguity have been resolved for some of the park rangers and park managers through seminars, workshops and ranger in-service training. This study revealed that the issue to be addressed is the decrease or reduction in organization-based self-esteem as organizational involvement increases. Based upon the researchers familiarity with OTRD, it appears that agency administrators and managers have established a "sameness" across parks in design and purpose. By contrast, law enforcement and interaction with the public vary from park to park creating role conflict, role ambiguity and diminished levels of OBSE among park rangers. As a result rangers who become increasingly involved



in the oversight organization lose credibility and contact with their respective park property.

Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department might consider further research, seminars and in-service training in order to attain higher organization-based self-esteem. Department leadership must help park rangers and park managers to feel good about their role as a park ranger through agency exchange programs. Oklahoma is fortunate in that several allied natural resource management agencies have property in the state. The National Park Service, US Forest Service, US Fish and Wildlife Service and the US Army Corps of Engineers have park rangers and enforcement personnel. An exchange of ideas, issues and possible solutions with National Park Service park rangers, US Fish and Wildlife law enforcement officers and US Army Corps of Engineer park rangers can give a better understanding of the profession.

Recommendation 3. The park rangers and park managers in this study indicated a perceived incompatibility with OTRD policies and guidelines. They also indicated they receive assignments without the manpower to complete them, and that to accomplish those assignments they have to do things that should be done differently. Park rangers and park managers are sending a clear message that should not be ignored by OTRD and state government.

Recommendation 4. The historical reports and documents cited in the review of literature on Oklahoma State Parks suggests that perhaps some ideology may have been redefined over the last 70 years since the first tracts of land

were acquired for the purposes of developing state parks in Oklahoma. In 1937, Senate Bill 107 authorized among other things protection for Oklahoma State Parks. Most rangers and managers perceived themselves as being environmental stewards. However, fines for violations have not supported this stewardship role. Violation of park rules and regulations in 1937 had maximum fines of \$100.00 or 30 days in jail or both. A \$100.00 fine in 1937 is equivalent to \$1,150 in 1998. In 1999, fines for violations of park regulations are still \$100.00 and 30 days in jail or both. Perhaps the State Legislature and OTRD might consider increasing fines for violations of state park rules and regulations. Devaluation of the environment and the park experience presents role conflict and role ambiguity to park rangers and park managers.

Recommendation 5. In 1916, R.B. Marshall the first superintendent of the National Park Service had this to say concerning park rangers. "The ranger force in reality makes the success or failure in administering the parks" (Department of the Interior Annual Report, 1916, p. 762). Park rangers are Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department's most important marketing asset. Park rangers are not just an icon for the national parks, but for all parks everywhere throughout the United States. OTRD should consider ways to elevate public awareness of this unique profession in Oklahoma State Parks and Resorts through articles in Oklahoma Today Magazine or other media sources.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abrahamson, B. (1993). The logic of organizations. Newbury Park: Sage Publication.
- Abramis, D.J. (1994). Work role ambiguity, job satisfaction, and job performance: Meta-analyses and review. Psychological Reports, 75, 1411- 33.
- Babakus, E., Cravens, D.W., Johnston, M. & Moncrief, W.C. (1999). The role of emotional exhaustion in sales force attitude and behavior relationships. Academy of Marketing Science Journal, 27, (1), 58-70.
- Baumgartner, T.A. & Strong, C.H. (1994). Conducting and Reading Research in Health and Human Performance. Madison, WI: Brown & Benchmark Publishers.
- Becker, T.E., Billings, R.S., Eveleth, D.M. & Gilbert, N.L. (1996). Foci and bases of employee commitment: Implications for job performance. Academy of Management Journal, 39, (2), 464 - 482.
- Bent, A.E. (1974). The politics of law enforcement: Conflict and power in urban communities. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Bennett, B. (1979). Motivational hang-ups of the police mystique. In G. Henderson (Eds.), Police human relations. (pp. 136-46) Springfield, Ill: Charles C. Thomas Publisher.
- Black, H.C., Nolan, J.R., Nolan-Haley, J.M., Connolly, M.J., Hicks, S.C. and Alibrandi, M.N. (1990). Black's Law Dictionary (6th ed.) St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Co.
- Blum, R. (1981). The problems of being a police officer. In G. Henderson (Eds.), Police human relations. (Pp. 119-35) Springfield, Ill: Charles C. Thomas Publisher.
- Bowman, E.G. (1971, January). The cop image. Parks and Recreation Publication, 6, 35-36.

- Boles, J.S., Johnston, M.W. & Hair Jr., J.F. (1997). Role stress, work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion: Inter-relationships and effects on some work-related consequences. The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 17, (1) 17-28.
- Borycki, C., Thorn, R.G., & LeMaster, J. (1998). Job satisfaction and organization commitment: A comparison of United States and Mexico employees. International Journal of Commerce & Management, 8: 7-25.
- Brayfield, A.H. and Rothe, H.F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. Journal of Applied Psychology. 35, 307-311.
- Brockman, F.C. & Merriam, L. C. (1979). Recreational Use of Wild Lands. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Campus Police—Park Rangers Oklahoma Sess. Laws Ch. 175 (1963).
- Carson, K.D., Carson, P.P., Roe, C.W., Birkenmeier, B.J. & Phillips, J.C. (1999). Four commitment profiles and their relationships to empowerment, service recovery and work attitudes. Public Personnel Management, 28, (1) 1-13.
- Carson, K.D., Carson-Phillips, P., Lanford, H. & Roe, C.W. (1997). The effects of organization-self-esteem on workplace outcomes: An examination of emergency medical technicians. Public Personnel Management, 26, 139-55.
- Charles, M.T. (1982). The Yellowstone ranger: The social control and socialization of federal law enforcement officers. Human Organization, 41, 216-226.
- Clark, R.N. & Stankey, G.H. (1979). Recreation opportunity spectrum: A framework for planning, management and research. USDA-Forest Service General Technical Report PNW-98.
- Crank, J.P., Payn, B., & Jackson, S. (1993). The relationship between police belief systems and attitudes toward police practices. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 20, 199-221.
- Culkin, D.F. & Kirsch, S.L. (1986). Managing Human Resources in Recreation Parks, and Leisure Services. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Dwyer, W.O. & Murrell, D.S. (1986, February). Future trends in park law enforcement. Parks and Recreation Publication, 21, 52-55.
- Dwyer, W.O. & Murrell, D.S. (1990, April). The ins and outs of park law enforcement. Parks and Recreation Publication, 25, 50-53.

- Dwyer, W.O. & Price, J.P. (1983, March). Recreation area law enforcement as a performing art: Some implications for park administrators. Parks and Recreation Resource.
- Fishkin, G.L. (1988). Police burnout: Signs, symptoms and solutions. Gardena, CA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Legal and Professional Publications, Inc.
- Forest Reservations in the State of California Act, 26 Ch. 1263 (1890).
- Forest Reservation Act 1891, 27 Ch. 561 (1981)
- Friedman, S.M. (1999, May). The inflation calculator. [On-line]. Available: [www.westegg.com/inflation/](http://www.westegg.com/inflation/)
- Fry, L.W. and Greenfeld, S. (1980). An examination of attitudinal differences between policewomen and policemen. Journal of Applied Psychology. 65, 123-26.
- Game Fund Transferred Game Reserves, Oklahoma Sess. Law Ch 162 (1917).
- Gardner, D.G. & Pierce, J.L. (1998). Self-esteem and self-efficacy within the organizational context: An empirical examination. Group & Organization Management 23, (1), 48-70.
- Gibson, Ronnie K. (1988, November). National park cops. Police.
- Hamner, C.W. and Tosi, H.L. (1974). Relationships of role conflict and role ambiguity to job involvement measures. Journal of Applied Psychology 59, 497-99.
- Hampton, E.D. (1971). How the Cavalry Saved Our National Parks. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Hays, R.D. (1994, November). Behind the badge. Parks and Recreation Publication, 29, 31-33.
- Hendee, J.C., Stankey, G.H. and Lucus, R.C. (1990). Wilderness Management. North American Press Fulcrum Publishing, Golden Colorado.
- Hot Springs Reservation Act, 4 Ch. 70 sec. 3 (1832).
- Hronek, B.B. & Spengler, J.O. (1997). Legal Liability in Recreation and Sports. Champaign, Ill: Sagmore Publishing.
- Hummel, D. (1987). Stealing the national parks. Bellevue Washington: The Free Enterprise Press.

- Ise, J. (1961). Our national park policy: A critical history. Baltimore: John Hopkins Press.
- Johnson, T.W. and Stinson, J.E. (1975). Role ambiguity, role conflict and satisfaction: Moderating effects of individual differences. Journal of applied psychology, 60, 329-33.
- Jubenville, A., Twight, B.W., and Becker, R.H. (1987). Outdoor Recreation Management: Theory and Application. State College, PA. Venture Publishing, Inc.
- Katz, D. & Kahn, R.L. (1978). The Social Psychology of Organizations 2nd Ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kenney, John. (1989, September/October). Interior Sub Rosa: Political appointees use the parks as pawns, National Parks, 63, 12-14.
- Kenney, John (1991, July/August). Beyond park boundaries. National Parks, 65, 20-25.
- Koslowsky, M. (1990). Staff/line distinctions in job and organizational commitment. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63, 167-73.
- Kurke, M.I. (1995). Organizational management and human reliability. In Kurke M.I. and Scrivner, E.M. (Eds.), Police psychology into the 21st century. (pp. 391-445). Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Laband, D.N. & Lentz, B.F. (1998). The effects of sexual harassment on job satisfaction, earnings and turnover among female lawyers. Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 51, 594 - 607.
- Leerhsen, C. & Gorden, J. (1991, June 10). Wheels of misfortune: It's new agers vs. Forest rangers in Arizona. Newsweek pp. 26.
- Maclean, J., Peterson, J., & Martin, D.W. (1985). Recreation and leisure: The changing scene. New York: Macmillian Publishing Co.
- Mackinac Island National Park Act, 18, Ch. 191 (1875).
- Martin, C.L. & Bennett, N. (1996). The role of justice judgments in explaining the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Group & Organization Management, 21, (1), 84 -104.

- Martelli, T.A., Waters, L.K. & Martelli, J.(1989). The police stress survey: Reliability and relation to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Psychological reports. 64,267-73.
- Mather, S.T. (1916). Progress in the development of the national parks. U.S. Department of Interior. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Michaels, C.E. & Spector, P.E. (1982). Causes of employee turnover: A test of the Moobly, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino model. Journal of Applied Psychology. 67, 53-59.
- Miles, J.C. (1995). Guardians of the parks: A history of the national parks and conservation association. Washington DC: Taylor & Francis Publishing.
- Miller, V.D., Johnson, J.R., Hart, Z. & Peterson, D.L. (1999). A test of antecedents and outcomes of employee role negotiation ability. Journal of Applied Communication Research. 27, 24 - 41.
- Military Protection Act , U.S. 21 Stats., 451 (1881, March 3).
- Minty, C. (1992, July 22). Little River State Park Improved. The Daily Oklahoman. Community 4 pp. 1.
- Muir, John (1901). Our National Parks. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Munro, J.L. (1974). Administrative behavior and police organization. Cincinnati, Ohio: The W.H. Anderson Company.
- National Park Protective Act to Protect Birds and Punish Crimes in the Park, 28 Stats., 75 (1894).
- National Park Service Organic Act, 39 Ch. 408 (1916).
- National Parks Administration Act, 46 Ch. 324 (1930).
- National Park & Recreation Studies Act 49 Ch. 735 (1936).
- Newstrom, J., Gardner, D. & Pierce, J. (1999). A neglected supervisory role: Building self-esteem at work. Supervision. 60:2 9-12.
- Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Division of State Planning. (1938). Proceedings of the First Annual Oklahoma Planning Conference. Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.
- Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board (1938). First Annual Report of the Division of State Parks.

Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board, Division of State Planning. (1949). Progress in Industrial Development Publicity and Information Water Resources Recreation and State Parks Forestry. Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

Oklahoma State Game & Fish Commission Oklahoma Sess. Laws Ch. 61 (1933).

Oklahoma Game & Fish, Oklahoma Sess. Laws Ch 24 art. 10 (1937).

Oklahoma Planning & Resources Board, Oklahoma Sess. Laws Ch. 24 art. 17 (1937).

Oklahoma Planning & Resources Board, Oklahoma Sess. Laws Title 74, Ch. 12 & 12a, (1947).

Oklahoma Resources Development Act, Oklahoma Sess. Laws 74 O.S. Ch. 398 Supp. (1965).

Oklahoma State Game and Fish Commission. (1926, July - 1938, June) Biennium Report.

Oklahoma Tourism & Recreation Dept., State Parks (1989). Park ranger's manual and addendum procedures. P10-5-300.

Oklahoma Statutes Title 70 § 3311 et seq. (1996). Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training.

Oklahoma Statutes Title 74 § 1811 et seq. Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Act of 1972 (1995).

Oklahoma Tourism & Recreation Department Home Page (1999, March 3) [Online]. Available: [www.otrd.state.ok.us/](http://www.otrd.state.ok.us/)

Oklahoma Parks & Resorts (1998). State Parks & Resorts Guide. OTRD Division of Marketing.

O'Leary-Kelly, A.M. & Griffin, R.W. (1995). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In N. Brewer and C. Wilson (eds.) Psychology and Policing. (pp. 367-93). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Peach, L. (1987, November/December). Patrolling the park beat. National Parks Magazine, 61, 25-29.



- Pierce, J.L., Gardner, D.G., Cummings, L.L. & Dunham, R.B. (1989). Organization-based self-esteem: Construct definition, measurement and validation. Academy of Management Journal. 32, 622-48.
- Pierce, J.L., Gardner, D.G., Dunham, R.B. and Cummings, L.L. (1993). Moderation by organization-based self-esteem of role condition-employee response relationship. Academy of Management Journal. 2, 271-88.
- Poulin, J.E. (1995). Job satisfaction of social work supervisors and administrators. Administration in Social Work, 19, 35 - 49.
- Regoli, R.M. and Poole, E.D. (1980). Police professionalism and role conflict: A comparison of rural and urban departments. Human Relations 33, 241-54.
- Rettie, Dwight F. (1995). Our National Park System: Caring for America's Greatest Natural and Historic Treasures. Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Rizzo, J.R., House, R.J. & Lirtzman, S.I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly. 15, 150-63.
- Roberson, L. (1990). Prediction of job satisfaction from characteristics of personal work goals. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 11, 29-41.
- Romzek, B.S. (1989). Personal consequences of employee commitment. Academy of Management Journal. 32, 649-61.
- Rosenbaum, D.P., Yeh, S., & Wilkinson, D.L. (1994). Impact of community policing on police personnel: A quasi-experimental test. Crime and Delinquency. 40, 331-353.
- Runte, Alfred (1987). National Parks: The American Experience. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Sequoia Public Park Reservation Act, 26 Ch. 926 (1890).
- Scogin, F., Schumacher, Gardner, J., & Chaplin, W. (1995). Predictive validity of psychological testing in law enforcement settings. Professional psychology: research and Practice. 26, 68-71.
- Shanks, Bernard (1976, August). Guns in the parks. The Progressive.
- Shanks, Bernard (1991, Jan./Feb.). The endangered ranger. National Parks.

- Sharpe, G.W., Odegaard, C.H., & Sharpe, W. (1994). A comprehensive introduction to park management. 2nd ed. Champaign: Sagamore Publishing.
- Snizek, W.E. & Bullard-Hayes, J. (1983). Perceptions of bureaucracy and changing job satisfaction: A longitudinal analysis. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance. 32, 275-87.
- Snizek, W.E., Shoemaker, D.J., & Bryant, C.D. (1985). Occupational role perspectives among state and federal park and forest rangers. In C.D. Bryant, D.J. Shoemaker, J.K. Skipper, Jr., and W.E. Snizek (Eds.), The rural work force: Non-agricultural occupations in America (pp. 63-84). Massachusetts: Bergin & Garvey Publishers Inc.
- Stankey, G.H., Cole, D.N., Lucus, R.C., Peterson, M.E. & Frissell, S.S. (1985). The limits of acceptable change (LAC) for wilderness planning. GTR INT-176. Ogden, UT: USDA. Forest Service, Intermountain Forest and Range Experiment Station.
- Statt, D.A. (1994). Psychology and the world of work. New York: New York University Press.
- Stauffer, D. (1946). Oklahoma State Parks Division of Forestry and State Parks. Oklahoma A. and M. College, Conservation Workshop Summer 1946.
- Sterling, J.W. (1972). Changes in role concepts of police officers. Professional Standards Division International Association of Chiefs of Police.
- Swearingen, T.C. & Johnson, D.R. (1995). Visitors' responses to uniformed park employees. Journal of Park and Recreation Administration. 13, 73-85.
- Tang, T.L. & Gilbert, P.R. (1994). Organization-based self-esteem among mental health workers: A replication and extension. Public Personnel Management. 23, 127-34.
- Ting, Y. (1997). Determinants of job satisfaction of federal government employees. Public Personnel Management. 26, 313- 31.
- U.S. Congress. House. Report of the Secretary of the Interior. 42nd Cong., 3rd sess., 1872. Washington: GPO. 1872.
- U.S. Congress. House. Report of the Secretary of the Interior. 43rd Cong., 1st sess., Ex. Doc. 1, Part 5. 1873. Washington: GPO. 1873.

- U.S. Congress. House. Yellowstone Park. Letter from the Secretary of the Interior. A draught of a bill amendatory of and supplementary to the act entitled "an act to set apart a certain tract of land, lying near the headwaters of the Yellowstone River, as a public park." Ex. Doc 147. 43rd Cong., 1st sess., 21 Feb. 1874. Washington GPO. (1874).
- U.S. Congress. House. Report of the Secretary of the Interior. 52nd Cong., 2nd sess., 1892. Washington: GPO. 1892.
- U.S. Congress. House. Miscellaneous Reports of the Secretary of the Interior. Report of the Superintendent of the Hot Springs Reservation. 55th Cong., 3rd sess., 1898. Washington: GPO. (1898).
- U.S. Congress. House. Miscellaneous Reports of the Secretary of the Interior. Report of the Acting Superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park. 55th Cong., 3rd sess., 1898. Washington: GPO. (1898).
- U.S. Congress. House. Report of the Acting Superintendent of Yosemite National Park. 59th Cong., 1st sess., House Doc. 5. Vol. 18. Washington: GPO. 1905.
- U.S. Congress. House Doc. No. 1502. Letter form the Secretary of the Treasury, Transmitting copy of a communication of the Secretary of the Interior submitting a supplemental estimate of appropriation for administration and protection of the Yellowstone National Park, caring for buffalo, etc., for fiscal year ending June 30, 1916. 63rd Cong., 3rd sess., 30 January 1915.
- U.S. Congress. House. Hearings Before Subcommittees of the Committee on Appropriations, National Parks. 91<sup>st</sup> Cong., 2<sup>nd</sup> sess., 1971.
- U.S. Constitution. art. IV, § 3, cl. 2.
- U.S. Department Agriculture. Annual Report of the Secretary of Agriculture. 1905. GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Interior, National Parks. 1896. GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Interior, National Parks. 1898 - 1900. GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Reports of the Department of the Interior, Miscellaneous Reports. Part I, 1904. Washington: GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Interior, National Parks. 1904 - 1905. GPO.

- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Interior. Annual Report of the Acting Superintendent of Yosemite National Park. 1906. GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Report of the Secretary of the Interior. Annual Report of the Acting Superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park. 1907. GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Reports of the Secretary of the Interior, Administrative Reports for 1913. Vol. I, (1914). Washington: GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Interior, National Parks. 1916. GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Report of the Superintendent of the National Parks. 1916. GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Report of the Director of the National Park Service. 1917. Washington, GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Report of the Director of the National Park Service. 1919. Washington, GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Interior, National Parks. 1928 - 1933. GPO.
- U.S. Department of the Interior National Park Service, Southwest Region. (1992). The Oklahoma State Park System A National Park perspective.
- Wagar, J.A. (1964). The carrying capacity of wild lands for recreation. Forest Science Monograph. 7: 24-25.
- Wagar, J.A. (1974). The carrying capacity reconsidered. Journal of Forestry. 723: 274-278.
- Wellman, J.D. (1992). Wildland recreation policy: An introduction. Malabar Fl: Krieger Publishing Co.
- Wolverton, M. & Wolverton, M.L. (1999). The impact of role conflict and ambiguity on academic deans. The Journal of Higher Education 40, 80 - 106.
- Workman, R. Bryce, (1994). National Park Service Uniforms: In Search of an Identify 1872 - 1920. Vol. 2. National Park Service History Collection, Office of Library, Archives and Graphic Research. Harpers Ferry, WV.

Workman, R. Bryce, (1995). National Park Service Uniforms: Ironing Out the Wrinkles 1920 - 1932. Vol. 3. National Park Service History Collection, Office of Library, Archives and Graphic Research. Harpers Ferry, WV.

Yellowstone National Park Act, 17 Ch. 24 (1872).

Yosemite Valley and Mariposa Big Tree Grove Grant to the State of California, 13 Ch. 184 (1864).

Yosemite National Park Exclusion Act, 33 Ch. 547 (1905).

Appendix A

Institutional Review Board Approval

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

DATE: 02-09-99

IRB #: ED-99-078

**Proposal Title: ROLE CONFLICT, ROLE AMBIGUITY, ORGANIZATIONAL INVOLVEMENT AND ORGANIZATION-BASED SELF-ESTEEM AMONG PARK RANGER PROFESSION****Principal Investigator(s):** Lowell Caneday, Brandon Neal**Reviewed and Processed as:** Exempt**Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s):** Approved

Signature:



Date: February 18, 1999

\_\_\_\_\_  
Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance

cc: Brandon Neal

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modification to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.

**Appendix B**

**Approval from Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department**





College of Education  
Office of Student Academic Services  
106 Willard Hall  
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078-4035  
405-744-6350

October 25, 1998

Edward H. Cook, Executive Director  
Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department  
15 N. Robinson  
The Colcord Building  
Oklahoma City, OK 73102-5403

Dear Mr. Cook:

Brandon Neal is a doctoral student in the Environmental Science program at Oklahoma State University. Brandon is entering the dissertation phase of his program and has developed an interesting research proposal. He has proposed an investigation of role conflict, role ambiguity and organization-based-self-esteem among professional park rangers. As a former park ranger with experience in Oklahoma and California, Brandon is experienced in the effects of these factors among park rangers.

As Brandon's dissertation director, I have discussed several options with Brandon regarding potential samples on which to test his research premise. We believe that the most appropriate sample for this study would be rangers and property managers employed by the Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department.

Enclosed is a copy of the proposal presented by Brandon. This proposal presents the theory, the hypotheses, the statistical analysis, the anticipated instruments, and the potential benefits for this research. We have proposed a "mail back" survey, but would ideally prefer a face-to-face opportunity to complete the research instrument. If you approve contact with these employees from the Department, we will arrange the details on administration of the research instrument with the appropriate division head. We acknowledge that this study of OTRD employees will have potential value to the department and will provide a copy of the dissertation to you.

Once we have reached agreement on contact with the individual members of the selected sample, we will submit the proposal and research process to the Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board. Their primary concern is protection of the rights of human subjects.

If possible, Brandon and I would like a response by November 16 so that we can proceed with the next steps in the research process. If we can provide additional information for your deliberation, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

Lowell Caneday, Ph.D.  
Professor and Associate Dean

Brandon Neal  
Doctoral student



Appendix C  
Questionnaire

**Directions:**

This questionnaire begins with statements about your line of work or career field in which you are currently employed. You may consider line of work/career field as having the same meaning as occupation, profession, or vocation. Please choose one response from each of the following statements. **Your answers are not personally identifiable, and there is no penalty for not participating.** Allow yourself about 20 minutes to complete.

Please give your completed survey to the Oklahoma State University representative as you leave the room. Thank you for your time. The survey results will be used in a doctoral dissertation.

Please address the following items in light of your daily work setting.

1. I have enough time to complete my work.

5 strongly disagree  17 disagree  5 undecided  43 agree  11 strongly agree

2. I feel certain about how to do my job.

2 strongly disagree  4 disagree  8 undecided  52 agree  16 strongly agree

3. I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with.

5 strongly disagree  29 disagree  8 undecided  30 agree  10 strongly agree

4. Clear, planned goals are objectives for my job.

5 strongly disagree  26 disagree  12 undecided  32 agree  6 strongly agree

5. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.

1 strongly disagree  14 disagree  17 undecided  33 agree  17 strongly agree

6. I know what my responsibilities are.

0 strongly disagree  4 disagree  8 undecided  52 agree  18 strongly agree

7. I receive assignments that are within my training and capabilities.

2 strongly disagree  16 disagree  7 undecided  51 agree  6 strongly agree

8. I am uncertain as to how my job is linked to the larger organization.

4 strongly disagree  30 disagree  21 undecided  20 agree  7 strongly agree

9. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.

3 strongly disagree  18 disagree  7 undecided  35 agree  20 strongly agree

10. Explanation is clear of what has to be done.

1 strongly disagree  32 disagree  7 undecided  37 agree  6 strongly agree

11. I have to do things that should be done differently.

1 strongly disagree  12 disagree  11 undecided  50 agree  9 strongly agree

12. I have to work under vague directives or orders.

2 strongly disagree  24 disagree  8 undecided  37 agree  12 strongly agree

13. I receive incompatible request from two or more people.

3 strongly disagree  34 disagree  7 undecided  31 agree  8 strongly agree

14. I do not know if my work will be acceptable to my boss.

5 strongly disagree  40 disagree  9 undecided  23 agree  6 strongly agree

**Please address the following items with consideration of your personal life.**

15. While my family is important to me, there are many other aspects of my life that are just as important.  
(REVERSE SCORING)

10 strongly disagree  32 disagree  3 undecided  32 agree  6 strongly agree

16. While personal friendships are important part of life, family relationships are more important to me.

1 strongly disagree  1 disagree  0 undecided  49 agree  32 strongly agree

17. Taking all things together, I would describe my marriage as very happy.

4 strongly disagree  4 disagree  4 undecided  48 agree  17 strongly agree

**Please respond to the following items based upon your employment and experience.**

18. Have you considered seeking employment elsewhere since you accepted employment with your present employer?

6 strongly disagree  17 disagree  9 undecided  34 agree  17 strongly agree

19. If I could begin working over again in the same occupation as I'm in now, I would choose this agency as a place to work.

11 strongly disagree  18 disagree  19 undecided  30 agree  4 strongly agree

20. In this organization people don't care whether or not employees are committed to the organization.

4 strongly disagree  23 disagree  9 undecided  30 agree  17 strongly agree

21. How satisfied are you with the career progress you have made in this organization up to now.

8 very dissatisfied  20 dissatisfied  5 undecided  37 satisfied  13 very satisfied

22. How satisfied are you with your chances for career advancement in this organization in the future?

22 very dissatisfied  23 dissatisfied  12 undecided  25 satisfied  1 very satisfied

23. How satisfied are you with your supervisor?

7 very dissatisfied  14 dissatisfied  13 undecided  32 satisfied  16 very satisfied

24. I perceive my role as a park ranger, as being just as important as an Oklahoma Highway Patrol trooper.

3 strongly disagree  3 disagree  4 undecided  31 agree  42 strongly agree

25. I perceive my role as a park ranger, as being a steward of the environment

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

26. I perceive my role as being just as important as that of a game ranger.

Strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

For the following statements please respond in light of your "home" park.

27. I count around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

28. I am taken seriously around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

29. I am important around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

30. I am trusted around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

31. There is faith in me around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

32. I can make a difference around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

33. I am valuable around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

34. I am helpful around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

35. I am efficient around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

36. I am cooperative around here.

strongly disagree  disagree  undecided  agree  strongly agree

## Demographic Information

Finally, please provide some background information about yourself. Please answer the following.

What is your current age \_\_\_\_\_

Sex: 75 male 2 female

What is your present marital status?

16 \_\_\_\_\_ Single (widowed, divorced or separated).

64 \_\_\_\_\_ Married or living as a couple

Please indicate the highest level of your education.

graduate degree	7
college degree	25
some college	27
associates	2
vo-tech	5
high school / GED	11

Please indicate your professional training certifications:

CLEET reserve officer	17
CLEET basic police	62
Breathalyzer operator	17
Advance traffic investigation	12
Instructor certification	16

How many years have you been employed with this agency? \_\_\_\_\_

How many years have you been employed in your present position? \_\_\_\_\_

What is your current position?

Park Ranger I	22
Park Ranger II	21
Park Ranger III	6
Park Manager I	7
Park Manager II	8
Park Manager III	8

Of the following, which one best describes the population of the closest city or town near your park?

36	Less than 5000
18	5500 to 10,000
8	11,000 to 20,000
15	over 20,000

I am interested in any comments you have regarding this organization and your job function. Please feel free to make those comments in the remaining space.

VITA ✓

Brandon J. Neal

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity and Organization-Based Self-Esteem  
Among Park Ranger Professionals

Major Field: Environmental Science

Minor Field: Outdoor Recreation Resource Management

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Toledo, Ohio, November 26, 1952, son of  
Mr. And Mrs. Brandon J. Neal

Education: Graduated from Patrick Henry High School, San Diego, California  
in June, 1971; received Bachelor of Science degree in Recreation and  
Park Administration from California State University Sacramento; received  
Master of Science degree from California State University Sacramento in  
May 1994; completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy  
degree at Oklahoma State University Stillwater, Oklahoma in July, 1999.

Professional Experience: Park Ranger (Law Enforcement), Oklahoma Tourism  
and Recreation Department, 1980 to 1986; Park Manager II, Oklahoma  
Tourism and Recreation Department, 1986 to 1989; Park Supervisor II,  
Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department, 1989 to 1991; Park Aide,  
California State Park System, 1991 to 1994; Graduate Teaching/  
Research Assistant, Oklahoma State University, 1994 to 1996; Library  
Graduate Assistant, Oklahoma State University, August 1996 to October,  
1996; Graduate Research Assistant, Oklahoma State University, 1996 to  
1999.