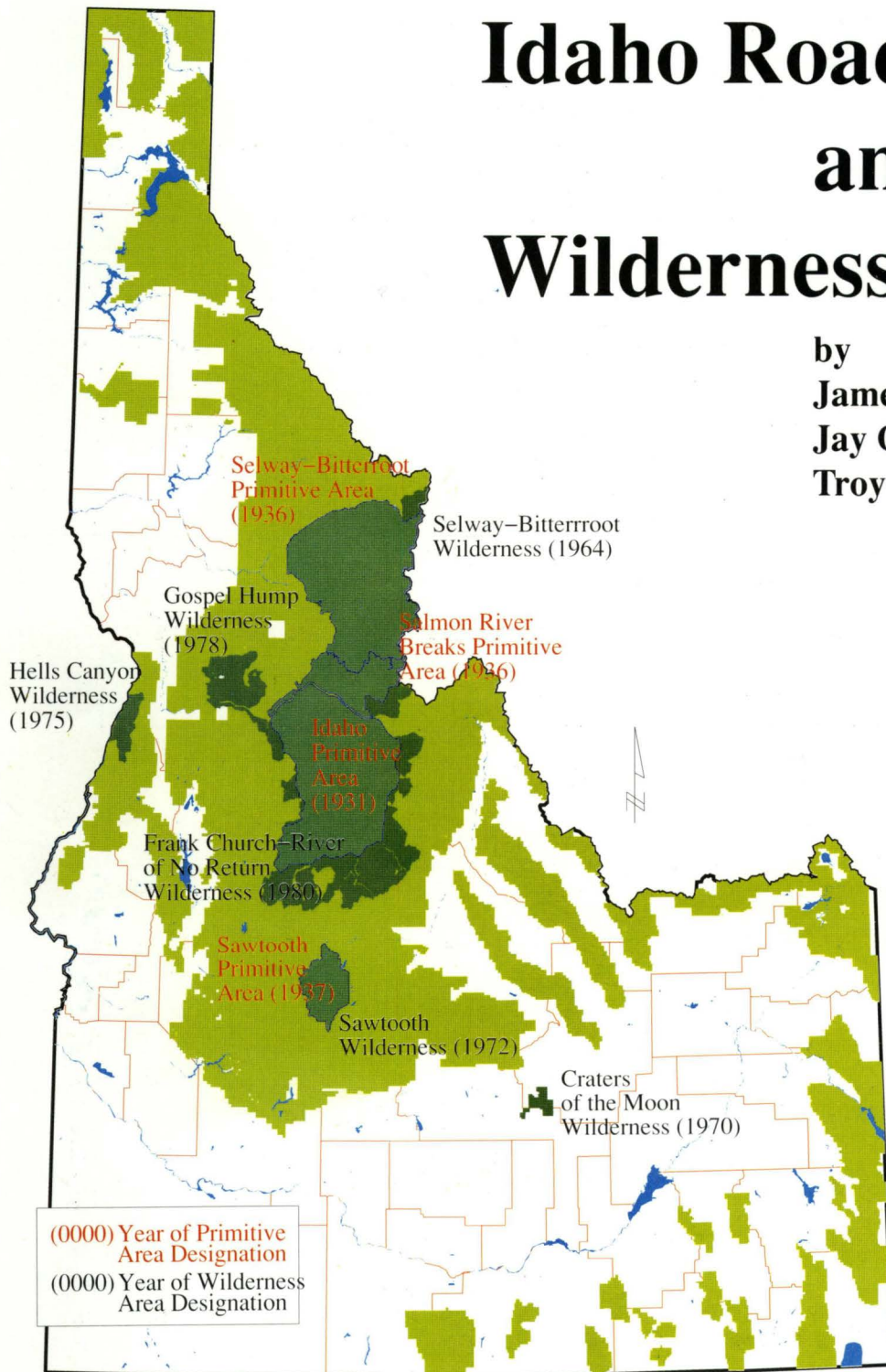












Idaho Roadless Areas and Wilderness Proposals

by
James G. MacCracken,
Jay O'Laughlin, and
Troy Merrill



Legend

-  National Forest
-  Current Wilderness Areas
-  Primitive Areas Prior to the 1964 Wilderness Act
-  Other Lands
-  Lakes
-  County Line
-  State Boundary
-  Wilderness Area Boundary

(0000) Year of Primitive Area Designation
 (0000) Year of Wilderness Area Designation

- The Idaho Forest, Wildlife and Range Policy Analysis Group was established by the Idaho Legislature in 1989 to provide objective analysis of the impacts of natural resource proposals (see Idaho Code § 38-714).
- The Policy Analysis Group is administered through the University of Idaho's College of Forestry, Wildlife and Range Sciences, John C. Hendee, Dean.

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**IDAHO ROADLESS AREAS
AND WILDERNESS PROPOSALS**

**Idaho Forest, Wildlife and Range Policy Analysis Group
Report No. 10**

by

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FOREWORD

The Idaho Forest, Wildlife and Range Policy Analysis Group (PAG) was created by the Idaho legislature in 1989 to provide Idaho decision makers with timely and objective data and analyses of pertinent natural resource issues. A standing nine-member advisory committee (see inside cover) suggests issues and priorities for the PAG. Results of each analysis are reviewed by a technical advisory committee selected separately for each inquiry (see the acknowledgements on page *i*). Findings are made available in a policy analysis publication series. This is the tenth report in the series. The other nine reports are listed in the inside cover.

In addition to the 4 million acres of legally-designated wilderness, there are 11.2 million acres of federal roadless lands in Idaho with wilderness potential. Some of these lands probably should be added to the National Wilderness Preservation System, and some of them should be used for other purposes, including timber harvesting, in this resource-dependent state. The questions are how much additional wilderness should there be, and which lands should be designated? The replies generate heated debates. Wilderness allocation is one of the most difficult resource management issues because viewpoints are based on deeply-held personal values.

We were asked to produce this report as background material for discussions by people who care about the future of Idaho's roadless lands, so that everyone would have the same understanding of the history of previous wilderness proposals and the issues and values that underpin the debate. Our hope is that this report will help citizens and policy makers move toward a decision on what will happen to the roadless areas. The issue is currently on the agenda of Idaho's congressional delegation, and new information breaks almost daily. Thus we selected December 31, 1992, as the cutoff date for this analysis so this report would not cloud discussion of current proposals.



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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

One of the most pressing natural resource management issues in Idaho is deciding the future of the 9.4 million acres of roadless areas in Idaho's national forests. The 1.8 million acres of Bureau of Land Management (BLM) Wilderness Study Areas have yet to come to the forefront, but at least half of them have significant wilderness attributes and their disposition may be decided by the current Congress. These 11.2 million acres of unroaded federal lands are significant because of their vastness (one-fifth of the entire state, see the front cover or **Maps 3** and **9**), their qualities as wilderness, wildlife habitat, and recreation sites, as well as their potential as sources of commodity products for industry.

The last of Idaho's 4 million acres of wilderness was designated in 1980. Several attempts to add more Idaho land to the National Wilderness Preservation System since then have failed, for several reasons. Although livestock grazing, water rights, and recreation opportunities figure prominently in the debate, analysis leads to the conclusion that these issues are less visible when compared to timber harvesting and related wildlife and water quality issues.

People would like to resolve the wilderness allocation issue for a variety of reasons. Some feel very strongly that Idaho has enough land area designated as wilderness, others feel just as strongly that Congress should add all additional areas with significant wilderness characteristics to the Wilderness System to preserve those qualities. Some are counting on roadless areas for timber. Two-thirds of Idaho's timberland base and three-fourths of the timber volume are in the national forests. Through the current ten year planning cycle that will end in the mid-1990s, about twenty-eight percent of the timber to be provided by the national forests was to have come from roadless areas. Others would like to resolve the roadless area issue in favor of protecting public land values of recreation, wildlife habitat, and water quality. One way,

but not the only way, to insure that the quality of these lands is protected is to have Congress designate them as statutory wilderness. Only Congress can designate official wilderness areas.

It appears that most Idahoans recognize that some additional wilderness should be designated. The big questions are how much, where, and what happens to the rest of the roadless areas? The fate of non-wilderness roadless lands is the core of the controversy surrounding potential wilderness legislation for Idaho. We do not provide answers to these highly political questions, but instead document alternative viewpoints as reflected in various past proposals in Idaho, and in other states that have dealt with the same issue.

Idaho has a long and rich history of wilderness proposals, actions, and key events. These are summarized in Table 1, and explained in the body of the report with accompanying maps. These events occurred in three phases. Phase one: during the 1920s and '30s the U.S. Forest Service classified certain lands as primitive areas or wilderness areas, with associated administrative limitations. Phase two: with the enactment of the Wilderness Act of 1964, the National Wilderness Preservation System was established, and Congress authorized itself to designate areas as statutory wilderness. Between 1964 and 1980, six areas in Idaho totalling slightly more than 4 million acres were designated, giving Idaho more wilderness than any of the other lower 48 states at that time (see the map on the inside back cover, or **Maps 1** and **2**). Phase three: beginning in 1980, a strategy of designating wilderness state-by-state, rather than by individual areas, was undertaken by Congress, and now California, Washington, and Alaska have more designated wilderness than Idaho. In Idaho, a variety of proposals and events beginning in 1984 have failed to designate more wilderness areas.

Idahoans, as well as the nation, are divided on how much more land should be preserved as wilderness. Proposals for

Table 1. Idaho Wilderness Events, 1920s to 1992.

Date	Event
U.S. Forest Service Administrative Classifications (to 1964)	
1920s	U.S. Forest Service classifies three primitive areas: Selway, Sawtooth, Middle Fork of the Salmon River.
1931	Middle Fork of the Salmon River established as the Idaho Primitive Area .
1936	Selway-Bitterroot Primitive Area and Salmon River Breaks Primitive Area established.
1937	Idaho Primitive Area enlarged; Sawtooth Primitive Area established.
1939	Selway-Bitterroot Primitive Area reclassified as Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area .
Congressional Designations (1964 to 1980)	
1964	Wilderness Act passed; National Wilderness Preservation System established; Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area designated as one of the first legal wilderness areas in the U.S.
1970	Craters of the Moon Wilderness Area designated from a portion of the Craters of the Moon National Monument.
1971	U.S. Forest Service Roadless Area Review and Evaluation (RARE) process initiated.
1972	Sawtooth Wilderness Area designated from the Sawtooth Primitive Area, and RARE process completed.
1975	Hells Canyon Wilderness Area designated.
1977	Second U.S. Forest Service Roadless Area Review and Evaluation (RARE II) initiated.
1978	Gospel Hump Wilderness Area designated.
1979	RARE II process ends; 9.4 million acres of roadless areas in Idaho national forests.
1980	River of No Return Wilderness Area designated from the Idaho Primitive Area and Salmon River Breaks Primitive Area .
Recent Proposals and Events (1984 to 1992)	
1984	River of No Return Wilderness Area renamed Frank Church-River of No Return Wilderness Area .
1984	Senator McClure's bill for 526,000 acres of wilderness fails to pass.
1987	McClure-Andrus bill for 1.5 million acres of wilderness fails to pass.
1990	Governor Andrus withdraws support from McClure-Andrus bill.
1990	National forest plans completed; recommended wilderness totals 1.3 million acres.
1991	Idaho Legislature initiates wilderness negotiation process.
1991	Bureau of Land Management (BLM) completes studies on 1.8 million acres of roadless areas.
1991	Idaho Conservation League offers informal proposal during Wilderness Mediation for more than 5 million acres of wilderness.
1992	BLM recommends 972,000 acres for wilderness.
1992	Alliance for the Wild Rockies (wilderness advocacy group in Montana) promotes the Northern Rocky Mountains Ecosystem Protection Act, recommending more than 5 million acres of Idaho wilderness; introduced by Rep. Kostmayer (D-PA); bill dies.
1992	Idaho Legislature breaks off wilderness negotiations after failure to develop a proposal.

wilderness designation in Idaho since 1987 include the national forest plan recommendations of 1.3 million acres, the McClure-Andrus proposal of 1.5 million acres, and proposals by environmental and wilderness advocacy groups exceeding 5 million acres. As portrayed on the map on the back cover of this report (and in **Map 8**), analysis of these proposals reveals 732,062 acres in 18 roadless areas common to all of them. These areas of agreement are identified by name and by national forest in Table 5.

A variety of congressional proposals to designate more Idaho wilderness may be expected in the near future. This report provides an historical perspective on why the roadless area issue has persistently defied solution, and what lessons history might provide that would help the situation today. The most prominent stumbling block now seems to be the issue of opening for development roadless areas not designated as wilderness. Grazing and water rights, although important, appear to be less significant issues.

Wilderness allocation is a national as well as regional issue. The U.S. Forest Service has recently committed to an ecosystem approach for managing federal lands, and ecosystem management policies may significantly increase debate at the national level. The ecosystem management approach presents new challenges, and is a prominent reason why the wilderness allocation issue will persist into the future.

Three alternatives for dealing with Idaho's roadless areas seem apparent. First, rely on the federal land management planning process, essentially a do-nothing alternative. Second, attempt to get Congress to pass an Idaho wilderness bill, which Idaho's political leaders are working toward in July 1993 as we write

this report. Third, as a consequence of either doing nothing or failing to get an Idaho bill through Congress, allow the growing national interest in preserving the wilderness characteristics of Idaho's roadless areas to develop a state or regional bill that could pass Congress. Such a situation may or may not take into consideration the full range of Idaho's interests. A regional bill would be unprecedented, but the commitment to ecosystem management of national forests makes this third alternative a realistic possibility.

Which of the three alternatives is best for Idahoans? The federal land management planning processes of the Forest Service and BLM have recommended relatively modest additions of 2.3 million acres to the Wilderness System. The planning processes are designed to manage all lands with public input after analyzing environmental impacts. An Idaho wilderness bill is necessary to designate wilderness, but is difficult to put together and get enacted, as demonstrated by several failed attempts during the last 10 years to get a bill through Congress.

We hope this summary of the history of Idaho's wilderness areas and analysis of current issues regarding roadless areas will be useful in deciding the fate of Idaho's roadless lands, because most interested parties believe it is in the best interests of most Idahoans to do so. However, the wilderness debate in Idaho, and elsewhere, is unlikely to ever be settled once and for all. Legally required planning provisions for public lands, short-term legal compromises, ecosystem management considerations, and the future potential to reclaim developed lands as wilderness insure that the wilderness allocation issue will be revisited many times in the future.

INTRODUCTION

Idaho has 4,081,291 acres of federal lands designated by Congress as part of the National Wilderness Preservation System, or Wilderness System, under the Wilderness Act of 1964. These six Idaho areas became statutory wilderness between 1964 and 1980, and include more wilderness acreage than all but three other states: Alaska (57.1 million acres), California (5.9 million acres), and Washington (4.3 million acres). The U.S. Forest Service and the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) have identified another 11,201,952 acres of roadless areas in Idaho that are potential additions to the Wilderness System. Forest Service roadless lands and BLM Wilderness Study Areas are approximately 20% of the entire state of Idaho.

As Table 2 indicates, most of Idaho's roadless areas are part of the national forests (9.4 million acres) and managed by the U.S. Forest Service. The fate of Idaho's roadless areas is contentious and to date has focused on the national forests. Resource-based industries, the Forest Service, and some of Idaho's political leaders have suggested that somewhere between zero and 1.5 million additional acres of national forest roadless lands be designated wilderness. Wilderness advocacy groups have proposed that more than 5 million acres of national forest roadless lands and about 1.8 million acres of BLM Wilderness Study Areas be added to the Wilderness System.

(NOTE: Throughout the report, the terms wilderness advocacy group, wilderness advocates, environmental groups, or

environmentalists are used interchangeably.)

Of all the western states, only Idaho and Montana have not had a state-wide wilderness bill passed since the Forest Service completed the second Roadless Area Review and Evaluation in 1979, commonly referred to as RARE II (Ishee 1991). In Idaho, numerous proposals were offered during the 1980s by state and national political leaders, resource-based industries, and citizen groups. During 1991-92, the Idaho legislature provided funds and selected a mediation service to facilitate negotiations among the various groups with an interest in the wilderness issue in Idaho. Although no consensus was reached, important issues and areas of agreement were identified, and working relationships among the interest groups were developed. As we write this in July 1993, a wilderness bill that considers half of the state's national forest roadless areas has been introduced by a member of Idaho's congressional delegation. So as not to impact ongoing efforts to move an Idaho wilderness bill through Congress, this report describes and analyzes events and proposals made before December 31, 1992.

The purpose of this report is to describe previous wilderness proposals for Idaho and analyze the various factors prominently featured in the debate over Idaho's roadless areas. We comment on the likely role of these factors in future Idaho wilderness deliberations, and identify some emerging issues. First, we briefly examine the wilderness concept, summarize the historical considerations and designations of wilderness in Idaho, and map recent wilderness proposals in order to identify areas of agreement.

Introduction

Table 2. Idaho Wilderness and Other Federal Lands with Wilderness Potential, 1992 ¹ .				
Agency Area	Wilderness Acreage		Roadless Acreage	
	Existing	Recommended	Total	To Remain ²
U.S. Forest Service				
Kootenai National Forest ³	0	340	27,940	27,600
Panhandle National Forest	0	134,382	801,147	490,200
Clearwater National Forest	259,165	198,200	950,311	631,600
Nez Perce National Forest	935,893	600	503,762	457,000
Bitterroot National Forest ³	464,024	0	0	0
Payette National Forest	819,785	212,005	944,751	470,000
Boise National Forest	65,324	184,973	1,209,537	299,266
Sawtooth National Forest	217,088	270,706	1,114,480	590,521
Salmon National Forest	426,114	0	830,469	338,000
Challis National Forest	849,877	201,000	1,392,135	1,187,353
Targhee National Forest	0	59,200	874,800	730,283
Caribou National Forest	0	0	589,865	0
Wasatch-Cache Nat'l. Forest ⁴	0	30,600	185,386	154,786
Total	4,037,270	1,292,006	9,424,583	5,376,609
Bureau of Land Management		Wilderness Study Areas		
Boise District	0	391,865	777,693	n.a.
Shoshone District	0	109,103	233,982	n.a.
Idaho Falls District	0	66,200	187,988	n.a.
Great Rift WSA ⁵	0	346,800	380,200	n.a.
Burley District	0	0	0	n.a.
Salmon District	0	49,846	158,082	n.a.
Coeur d'Alene District ⁶	802	0	37,748	n.a.
Nine small areas ⁷	0	8,425	21,763	n.a.
Total	802	972,239	1,797,456	
National Park Service				
Craters of the Moon	43,243	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

n.a. = not applicable

¹ Current as of May 1993; confirmed by the U.S. Forest Service and Bureau of Land Management.

² To be managed as roadless, non-wilderness areas (i.e., semi-primitive recreation or no development anticipated during the planning period) according to national forest plans, including amendments.

³ Small portions of these national forests occur in Idaho. These figures represent only the Idaho portion.

⁴ The small portion of the Wasatch-Cache N.F. in Idaho is administered by the Caribou N.F.

⁵ The Great Rift Wilderness Study Area occurs in both the Shoshone and Idaho Falls BLM Districts.

⁶ Existing 802 acres of BLM wilderness within the *Frank Church-River of No Return Wilderness Area*.

⁷ Nine separate Wilderness Study Areas across the state, ranging from 40 to 4,265 acres in size.

THE WILDERNESS IDEA

From the beginning, the founders of our nation emphasized its vast expanse of wilderness as part of the quest for a national identity (Nash 1967). Although only remnants of that wilderness exist today, it is still an attribute of our nation that is recognized worldwide (Stankey 1993).

Two different perceptions and attitudes about the American wilderness have always been prominent. Based on the Judeo-Christian tradition, many people historically felt that wilderness was inhospitable and a threat to be conquered and civilized. But to others, wilderness represented a source of rejuvenation and connection with the past that needed to be preserved (Nash 1967, Mealey 1988, Hendee et al. 1990). This same duality persists today, and wilderness has become a highly charged and polarized issue where emotions often dominate the debate. The growth of the National Wilderness Preservation System from 9 million to 95 million acres during the past 30 years suggests the emergence of a greater appreciation of wilderness in our society.

Early Wilderness Classifications

The preservation of wilderness in the United States has a long history, beginning with the establishment of Yosemite Valley as a California state park in 1864, and soon followed by the creation of Yellowstone National Park in 1872. These early areas were largely *de facto* wildernesses, established and managed primarily for public recreation and enjoyment (Nash 1967, Roth 1988a).

Not until 1924 did the U.S. Forest Service establish the first officially classified wilderness, an area encompassing the headwaters of the Gila River in central New Mexico. Five years later, the Forest Service issued the first regulation concerned with wilderness—the L-20 Regulation, calling for an inventory of undeveloped lands, and listing permitted and prohibited activities as management guidelines. Seventy-two *primitive areas* totaling 13,482,421 acres were managed under

the L-20 guidelines; in 23 areas logging was allowed, and management guidelines for all but 10 areas allowed livestock grazing (Davis 1983, Hendee et al. 1990).

In 1939, the Forest Service implemented the U-regulations, creating three land classifications. Regulation U-1 classified some tracts of 100,000+ acres as *wilderness areas*; roadless tracts of 5,000 to 100,000 acres under Regulation U-2 were *wild areas*. Management guidelines for these areas called for public hearings if a proposed change was challenged, a feature that did not apply to variously-sized roadless tracts covered under Regulation U-3. Management guidelines for protecting wilderness attributes varied under the U-regulations (Davis 1983, Mealey 1988, Hendee et al. 1990).

The U-regulations stated that all previous *primitive areas* were to be evaluated and reclassified. This process began slowly and was interrupted by World War II. Wilderness advocates were unhappy with progress under the U-regulations, as well as the propensity of the Forest Service to trade productive timber lands for high-elevation alpine areas in the reclassification process (Hendee et al. 1990).

Wilderness Act of 1964

Dissatisfaction with the lack of permanent protection for wilderness under the Forest Service administrative system of U-regulations led to proposals for a legislatively established wilderness preservation system in the mid-1950s. Following eight years of debate and more than 50 separate bills, President Lyndon Johnson signed the Wilderness Act on September 3, 1964. The Wilderness Act did five major things.

- (1) Specified a wilderness policy for the nation, established the National Wilderness Preservation System, and developed a process for Congress to consider future wilderness proposals.
- (2) Defined wilderness both qualitatively and legally.
- (3) Placed 9 million acres into the National Wilderness Preservation

System by designating as statutory wilderness all lands previously classified by the Forest Service as wilderness, wild areas, and the Boundary Waters Canoe Area (under Regulation U-3).

- (4) Directed the Secretary of Agriculture to review the remaining primitive areas and roadless areas for wilderness suitability.
- (5) Defined the purposes of wilderness as recreational, scenic, scientific, educational, conservation, and historical use. The act also listed some prohibited activities, and made special provisions for some non-conforming uses that are legally allowed in wilderness.

U.S. Forest Service RARE process.

Following passage of the Wilderness Act, the Forest Service conducted the first Roadless Area Review and Evaluation (generally referred to as RARE I). RARE I examined all remaining primitive areas (as directed by the Wilderness Act), and national forest roadless areas (as directed by the Forest Service Manual), for their suitability as wilderness (Roth 1984, 1988a, Hendee et al. 1990). The RARE I process was controversial. Some members of Congress and the public felt that the Forest Service interpretation of the Wilderness Act was too strict, too pure, and thus left deserving areas out of the review process, contrary to what Congress intended (Mealey 1988). Designation of wildernesses in the eastern United States through the Eastern Wilderness Act of 1975 was at odds with the purity doctrine, as was passage of the Endangered American Wilderness Act of 1978, affecting nine western states and including some areas as designated wilderness that had been left out of the RARE I inventory.

RARE I identified 56 million acres as suitable for wilderness. It was conducted on an area-by-area basis and was designed to set aside areas for future consideration and recommendation to Congress. Dissatisfaction

with RARE I led the Forest Service to undertake RARE II, which was to make wilderness, non-wilderness, and future planning recommendations on a state-by-state basis. In addition, the 5,000+ acres size requirement was less of a factor in the RARE II process. RARE II was completed in 1979 and included more areas and acreage than RARE I, identifying 62 million acres of roadless lands (Roth 1984, 1988a, Hendee et al. 1990, Coggins 1992).

RARE I took place from 1971-1973, shortly after Congress passed the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) of 1969. RARE II was implemented shortly after Congress passed the National Forest Management Act (NFMA) of 1976. NEPA and NFMA influenced the RARE II process in such a way that RARE II was to serve the purpose of providing state-wide Environmental Impact Statements (EIS) to comply with NEPA and thus expedite wilderness decisions in the national forest planning process under NFMA. RARE II was also intended to release from further consideration as wilderness all the roadless areas recommended for non-wilderness in the forest plans. (See the detailed discussion in the **Sufficiency, Release and Certainty Issues** section of this report, beginning on page 28.)

The release aspect of RARE II was related to the overall contribution that national forests would make to the Wilderness System from a nation-wide viewpoint. Thus, disputes over specific areas would be judged in that context. The state-wide EIS concept of RARE II was challenged (*California vs. Bergland* 1980) and ruled to have procedural flaws. The case was appealed, and affirmed in part and overruled in part (*California vs. Block* 1982). The court said a site-specific EIS would be required for any activity in a roadless area. This ruling effectively eliminated any intended nation-wide release policy for non-wilderness roadless lands (Roth 1984, 1988a, Hendee et al. 1990).

State wilderness bills. RARE II and the court decisions concerning the accompanying EIS set

the stage for Congress to designate additional wilderness areas on a state-by-state basis. During the early 1980s, 21 state wilderness bills were passed (Roth 1988a). Through these bills Congress reached compromises on language that declared the EIS of RARE II legally sufficient and released non-wilderness roadless areas from further agency consideration as wilderness until the second generation of forest plans (Roth 1988a, Hendee et al. 1990). Today, among the western states, only Idaho and Montana have not had a state bill based on RARE II passed. In the meantime, each national forest has reinventoried its roadless lands as part of the initial forest plans and made further recommendations for wilderness and non-wilderness designation for specific roadless areas.

As of 1987, 467 wilderness areas totalling 89 million acres had been designated by Congress through 103 wilderness acts (Browning et al. 1988). About half of that acreage was added through state wilderness bills following RARE II. Browning et al. (1988) speculated that incremental additions to the National Wilderness Preservation System would continue, with possibly 30 to 60 million additional acres included. They also suggested that future wilderness allocations would continue to provide specific area management guidelines, thereby averting the need for major exceptions to the general provisions of the Wilderness Act. By March 1993, the Wilderness System included 553 areas in the United States, totalling 95.3 million acres (Society of American Foresters 1993a).

Bureau of Land Management process.

Congress passed the Federal Lands Policy and Management Act (FLPMA) in 1976, which was the organic act for the BLM. Among other things, FLPMA directed the BLM to inventory its primitive areas, natural areas, and other roadless lands for wilderness suitability, make wilderness recommendations, and ultimately manage wildernesses. The inventory and recommendation tasks were completed in 1991. During the review

process, and until Congress determines otherwise, FLPMA (Sec. 603[c]) directed that those lands be managed in a manner that does not impair their wilderness suitability. However, existing mining, grazing, and mineral leasing activities were to be continued subject to regulations preventing degradation of those roadless areas. This has been termed the Interim Management Policy, and it is more restrictive than Forest Service policy for roadless area management.

BLM roadless lands are properly called Wilderness Study Areas, and are analogous to the Forest Service classification of roadless areas. Not to be confused with the generic nature of BLM Wilderness Study Areas are those managed by the Forest Service. These are area-specific and result from congressional designations, such as in the **Sawtooth National Recreation Area**.

BLM Wilderness Study Areas have received relatively little attention, in part because the BLM review was completed only recently. Congress has not yet acted on the BLM wilderness recommendations for Wilderness Study Areas. Because of the Interim Management Policy, BLM areas are not threatened with uses that would preclude future wilderness designation.

In November 1990, the first state-wide wilderness bill involving BLM lands in Arizona was passed as the Arizona Desert Wilderness Act of 1990. In early 1992, Secretary of the Interior Lujan made his wilderness recommendations for BLM lands nation-wide to President Bush, who had two years to act on those recommendations (*Public Lands News* 1992a). A bill for California passed the House in 1992, and has been reintroduced in the House and Senate in 1993.

Draft BLM wilderness bills for the following states were sent to Congress by President Bush: California (June 21, 1991), Utah (June 26, 1992), New Mexico (July 22, 1992), Oregon (July 22, 1992), Wyoming (July 27, 1992), **Idaho (September 3, 1992)**, Nevada (September 3, 1992), Colorado (January 7, 1993) and Montana (January 7,

1993) (Delmar Vail, personal communication). With a new President and administration in 1993, the fate of BLM wilderness recommendations remains unknown, although the tone established as of April 1993 suggested favorable support for additional wilderness.

A major issue concerning potential BLM wilderness is the reservation of water rights (i.e., a legally reserved flow of water) for wilderness purposes. This issue is discussed in detail in a later section of this report (see **Wilderness Water Rights**, page 32). Although water rights were reserved in the Nevada Wilderness Act of 1989, that legislation dealt with Forest Service lands that are essentially headwaters and were not expected to generate many water rights conflicts. Proposed BLM wilderness is more likely to be downstream from appropriated water. Despite potential conflicts and a high degree of controversy, the Arizona Desert Wilderness Act of 1990 reserved water for new BLM wilderness areas (*Public Lands News* 1990b, 1990d).

Wilderness Management Activities

Although wilderness designation mandates that federal agencies preserve an area as wilderness, certain management and commercial activities were specifically addressed in the Wilderness Act. The act did not address logging, but the courts and federal agencies have since interpreted the act to prohibit logging. The act did authorize the Forest Service to take measures to control fire, insects, and diseases, which may allow for logging if the Secretary can demonstrate that such activity is necessary to protect a wilderness area (Coggins 1992).

The Wilderness Act also allows livestock grazing at historic levels in place prior to the designation of a wilderness area. This issue is discussed in more detail later in this report (see **Livestock Grazing in Wilderness**, page 31).

Water projects may be permitted in a wilderness area by authorization of the President if development is in the public interest. Many small reservoirs established

prior to wilderness designation are still maintained and used, and in desert areas water projects for wildlife use are common (Hendee et al. 1990).

As of 1984, new mining claims and leasing are prohibited in wilderness areas. However, mineral exploration in wilderness areas continues. Mineral surveys are still permitted, pre-1984 claims and leases are still active, and newer legislation occasionally allows for pre-existing mining activity to continue (Coggins 1992).

A principal purpose of wilderness is to provide for primitive forms of recreation. Providing for the various types of recreation permitted in wilderness without compromising the integrity of an area is probably the greatest challenge wilderness managers face (Mealey 1988, Hendee et al. 1990, Petersen and Harmon 1993).

Visitation rates across the nation appear to have peaked in the mid- to late-1970s (Hendee et al. 1990). In Idaho, visitation data for the *Sawtooth Wilderness* is the most complete (Figure 1) and indicated increasing visitation rates from 1964 to a peak in the late-1970s, with relatively steady visitation from 1981 to 1991. The *Frank Church-River of No Return Wilderness* had substantial visitation increases in the 1980s.

In general, commercial activities are prohibited in wilderness areas, however, the Wilderness Act did make an exception by allowing outfitter and guide operations (Section 4(d)). The outfitting and guiding industry represents a direct economic benefit of wilderness preservation. Commercially outfitted wilderness trips in Idaho are increasing (Grant Simonds, personal communication). For example, between 1982 and 1988 there was a ten-fold increase in outfitter and guide use on the Caribou and Targhee national forests in southeast Idaho (Rasker et al. 1992). The Idaho Outfitters and Guides Association (IOGA) recognizes that many of the resource attributes desired by their clients are wilderness characteristics and that much of their livelihood is tied to the

IDAHO WILDERNESS VISITATION RATES, 1964-1991

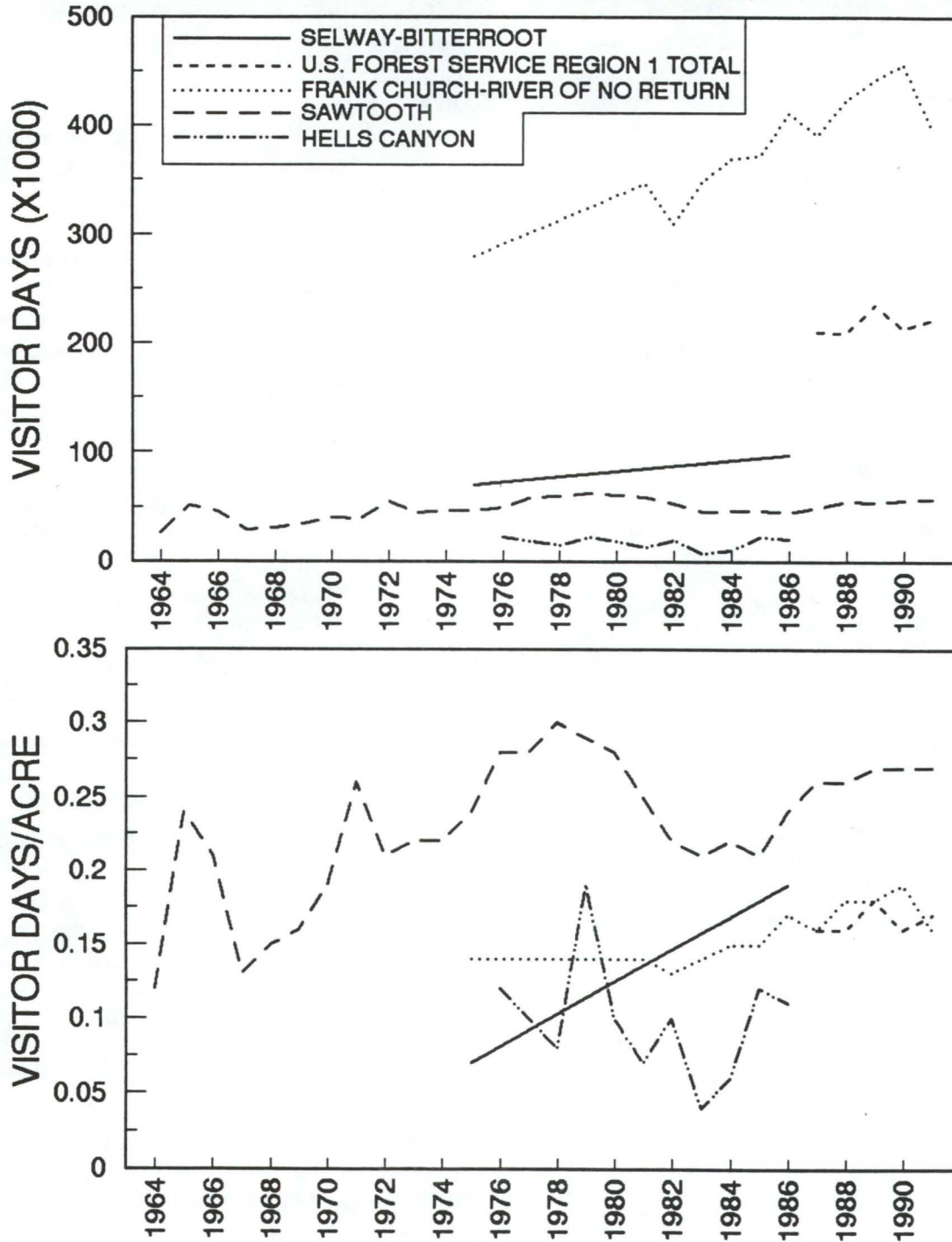


Figure 1. Idaho Wilderness Visitation Rates, 1964-1991.

Wilderness System in Idaho. Since 1975 the IOGA has been involved in wilderness allocation and management decisions, and considerable legal and legislative debate has focused on agency policies for managing outfitters and guides in wilderness areas.

DESIGNATED IDAHO WILDERNESSES

Pre-1964

In the early 1920s, Idaho had vast areas of undeveloped federal lands that were included in the listing associated with the Forest Service L-20 Regulation. Three qualified for classification as primitive areas: the Selway, the Sawtooth, and the Middle Fork of the Salmon River (Tiefenbacher 1986). In 1931, the Chief of the Forest Service classified the Middle Fork of the Salmon area as the **Idaho Primitive Area**, encompassing 1,087,744 acres. Lands north of the Salmon River were classified in 1936 as the **Selway-Bitterroot Primitive Area** and **Salmon River Breaks Primitive Area**, together totaling 1,875,306 acres. In 1937, the **Idaho Primitive Area** was enlarged and the 200,942 acre **Sawtooth Primitive Area** was established (Cunningham 1968, Tiefenbacher 1986). Together these four primitive areas, depicted in **Map 1**, totalled 3,563,992 acres.

Following the adoption of the U-regulations by the Forest Service in 1939, the **Selway-Bitterroot Primitive Area** was reclassified as the **Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area**. The reclassification included boundary adjustments to both the wilderness area and the **Salmon River Breaks Primitive Area**, excluding 400,000 acres previously in primitive area status. An area of controversy was the Magruder Corridor (Cunningham 1968), which contained a fire management access road between Elk City, Idaho, and Hamilton, Montana, that was deleted from the primitive areas and essentially separated the **Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area** from the **Salmon River Breaks Primitive Area** (see **Map 1**).

1964-1980

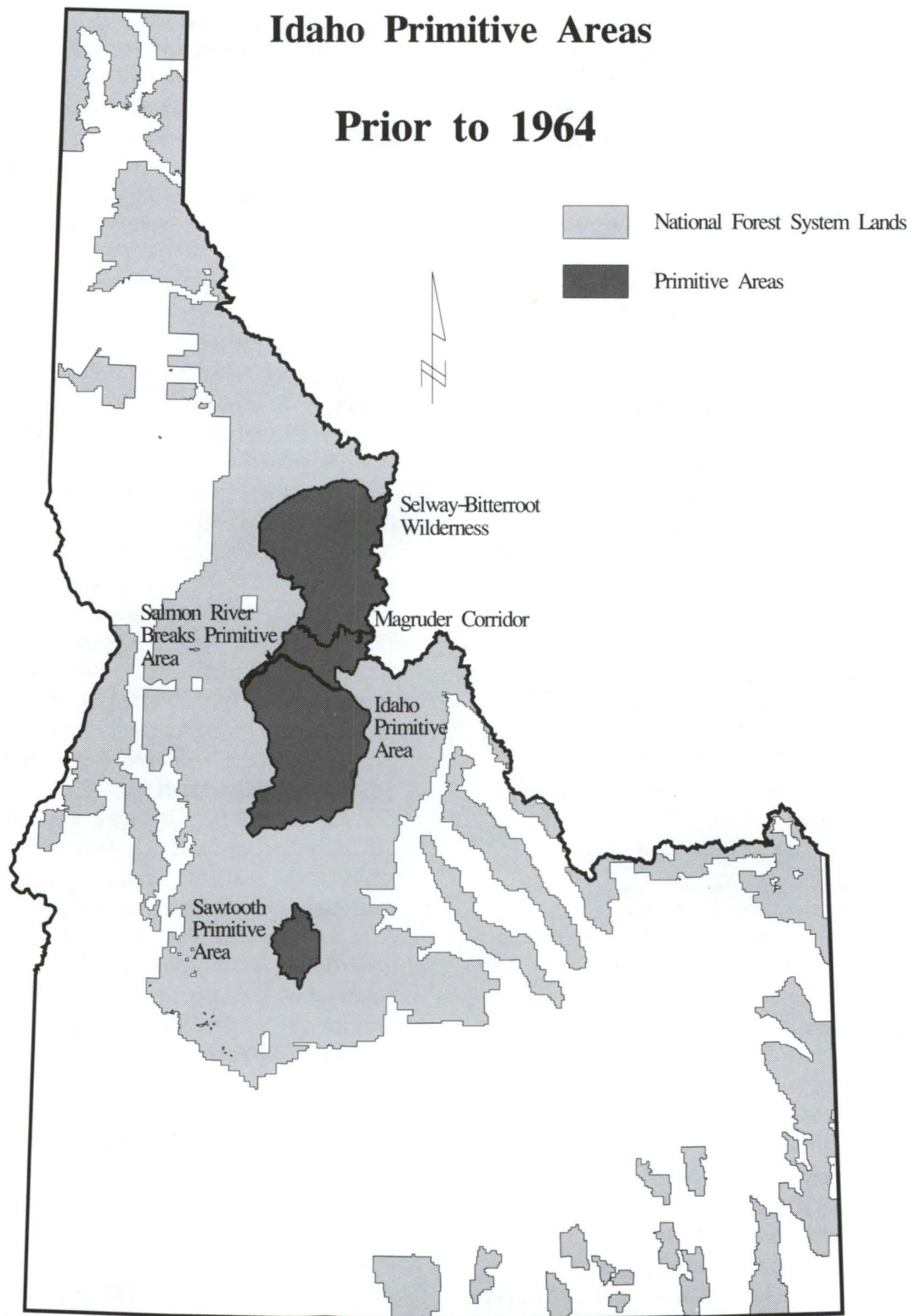
When Congress passed the Wilderness Act in 1964, the **Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area** was automatically added to the Wilderness System. The three other primitive areas (Idaho, Salmon River Breaks, and Sawtooth) were to be reviewed and recommendations made as to their wilderness suitability by 1974. Their disposition is explained in this section.

Currently there are six Idaho wilderness areas in the Wilderness System totalling 4,081,291 acres. These wilderness areas are illustrated in **Map 2**. A brief description of their designation history follows.

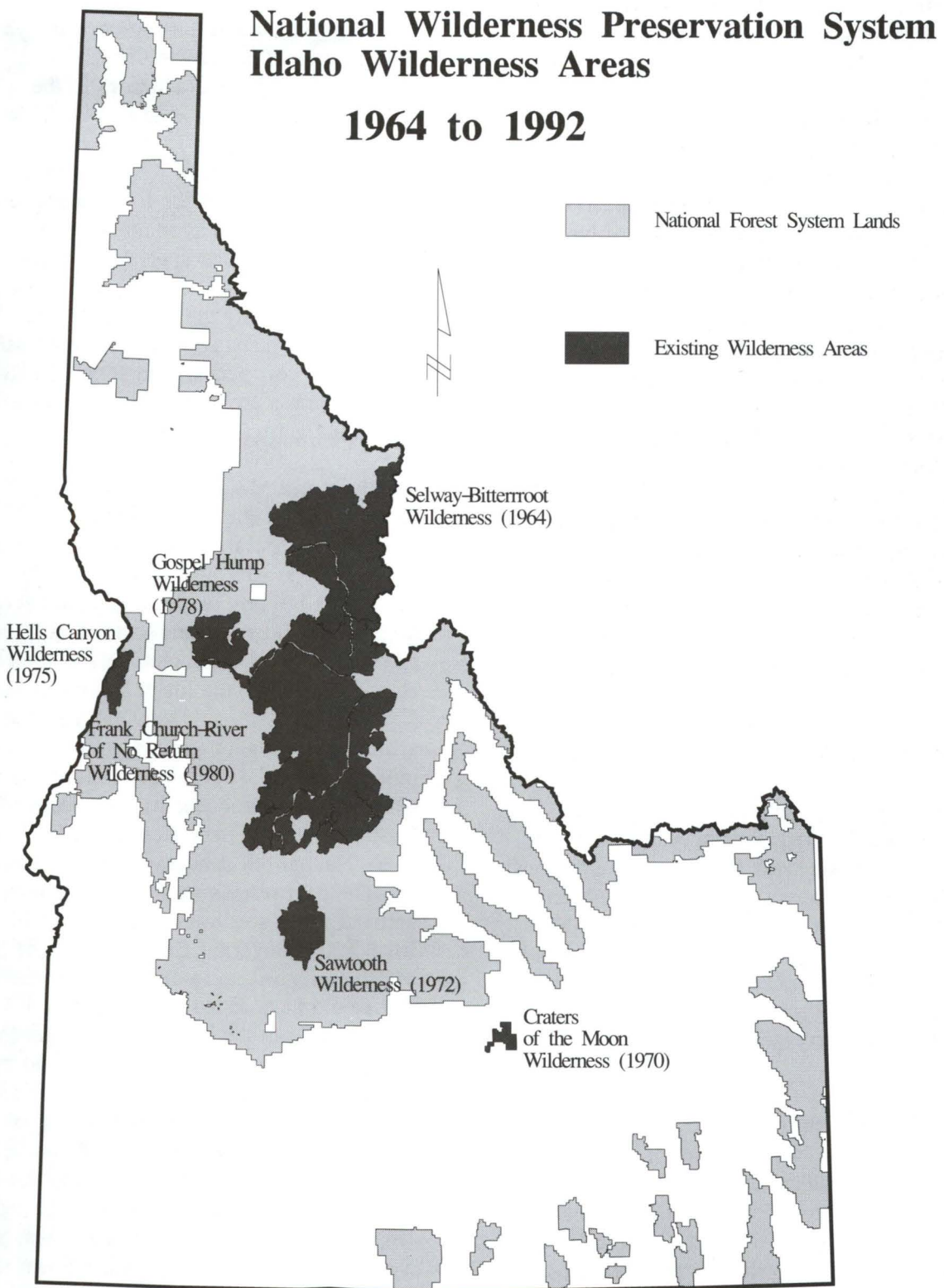
In 1970, a portion of **Craters of the Moon National Monument** (43,243 acres) was designated wilderness. Along with a portion of the Petrified Forest National Park in Arizona, this was the first wilderness area designated within the National Park Service System (MacCracken and O'Laughlin 1992).

In 1972, proposals for a Sawtooth National Park—there had been five other proposals dating back to 1913—led to the creation of the **Sawtooth National Recreation Area** and in that legislation the **Sawtooth Primitive Area** was added to the Wilderness System as the **Sawtooth Wilderness Area** (MacCracken and O'Laughlin 1992). This legislation also officially declared undeveloped national forest lands on the east side of the **Sawtooth National Recreation Area** a Wilderness Study Area and directed the National Park Service to undertake a feasibility study of the area's potential as a national park (National Park Service 1975). In 1977, Secretary of the Interior Cecil Andrus stated that the area was worthy of national park status, but declined to advance that recommendation on the grounds that the proposal for a National Park and National Recreation Area was too large and that sensitive management by the Forest Service could accomplish the same goals as National Park Service management (Sawtooth Advisory Board 1989). Those lands remain undeveloped today, but are still neither wilderness nor national park.

In 1975, Congress simultaneously created



Map 1. Idaho Primitive Areas, Prior to 1964.



Map 2. National Wilderness Preservation System, Idaho Wilderness Areas, 1964-1992.

the **Hells Canyon National Recreation Area** and designated 194,132 acres in Idaho as the **Hells Canyon Wilderness Area** (MacCracken and O'Laughlin 1992). In 1978, the **Gospel Hump Wilderness Area**, covering 206,000 acres, was created as part of the Endangered American Wilderness Act (Tiefenbacher 1986). In 1980, the fates of the **Idaho Primitive Area** and the **Salmon River Breaks Primitive Area** were decided when President Carter signed the Central Idaho Wilderness Act. Both primitive areas were incorporated into the **River of No Return Wilderness Area** with a connecting corridor to the **Gospel Hump Wilderness**. In 1984, the area was renamed the **Frank Church-River of No Return Wilderness (FC-RONR)**. Tiefenbacher (1986) described in detail the events that led to the creation of the **FC-RONR Wilderness**, and reported on a Forest Service survey that found the area contained 2,370,673 acres, approximately 100,000 more acres than originally specified in the legislation. It is the largest wilderness area in the lower 48 states.

1980-1992 WILDERNESS PROPOSALS

Following designation of the **FC-RONR Wilderness** in 1980, a number of state-wide proposals to add areas in Idaho to the National Wilderness Preservation System have been made. These proposals were based on the roadless areas identified during RARE II and the current forest plans and are illustrated in **Map 3**. The Forest Service currently lists roadless area acreage as 9.4 million (Table 1).

National Forest

All or parts of thirteen different national forests occur in Idaho (Table 1). In each forest plan, roadless areas are identified and recommendations are made for specific areas to be wilderness, further planning, and non-wilderness. Among the thirteen national forests, wilderness recommendations ranged from zero to 270,000 acres, and totaled 1,292,006 acres for the state of Idaho (Table

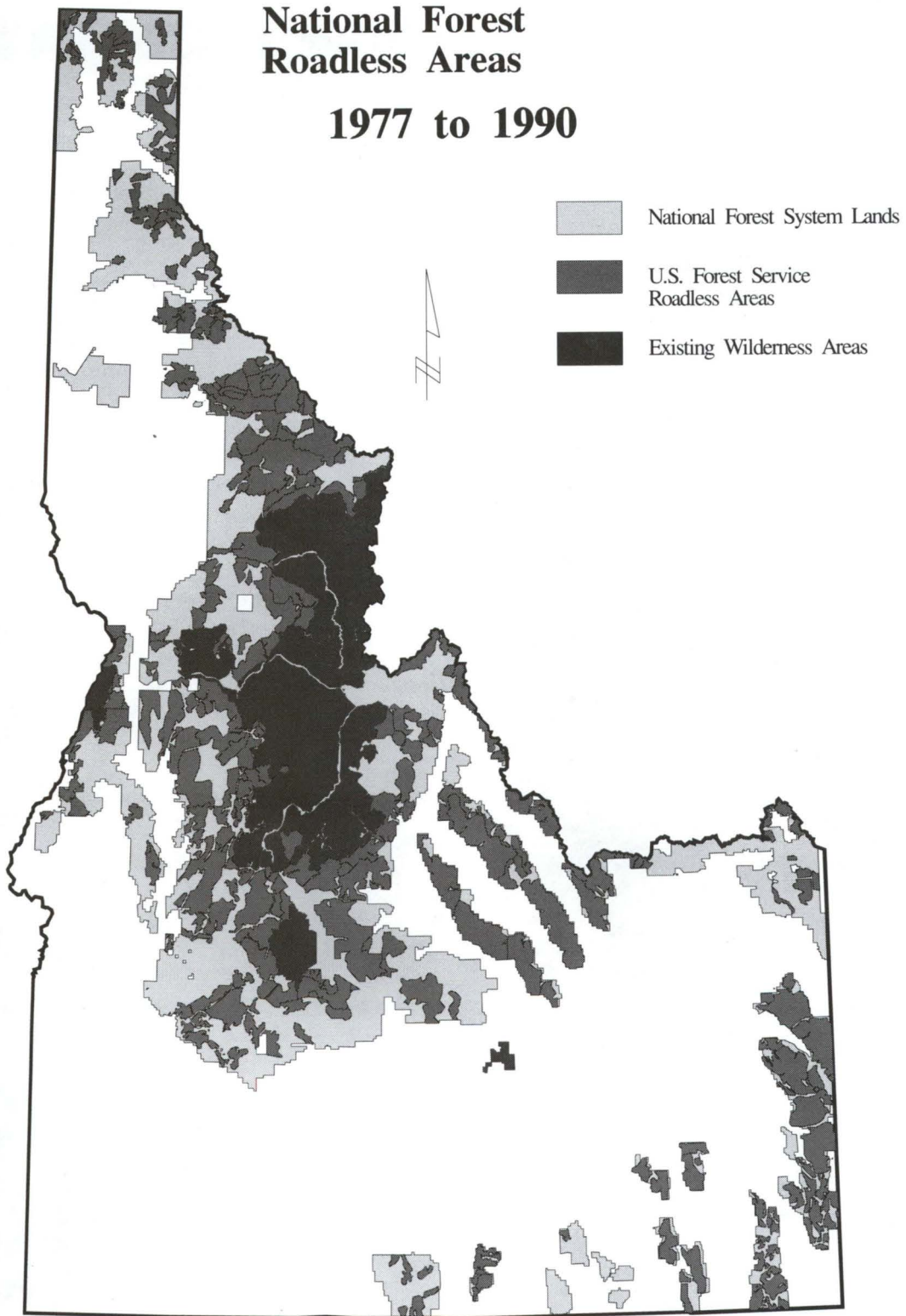
1).

Map 4 illustrates the approximate 1.3 million acres of Forest Service lands recommended as Idaho additions to the Wilderness System, as identified in the forest plans. As indicated in Table 1, another 5,376,609 roadless acres were to remain roadless for the life of the forest plans because of their classification as semiprimitive recreation areas, other special management classifications, or there was no anticipated development during the planning period. The current forest plans are expected to be valid for a 10-15 year period, and some of Idaho's national forests are now beginning to prepare the second generation of forest plans.

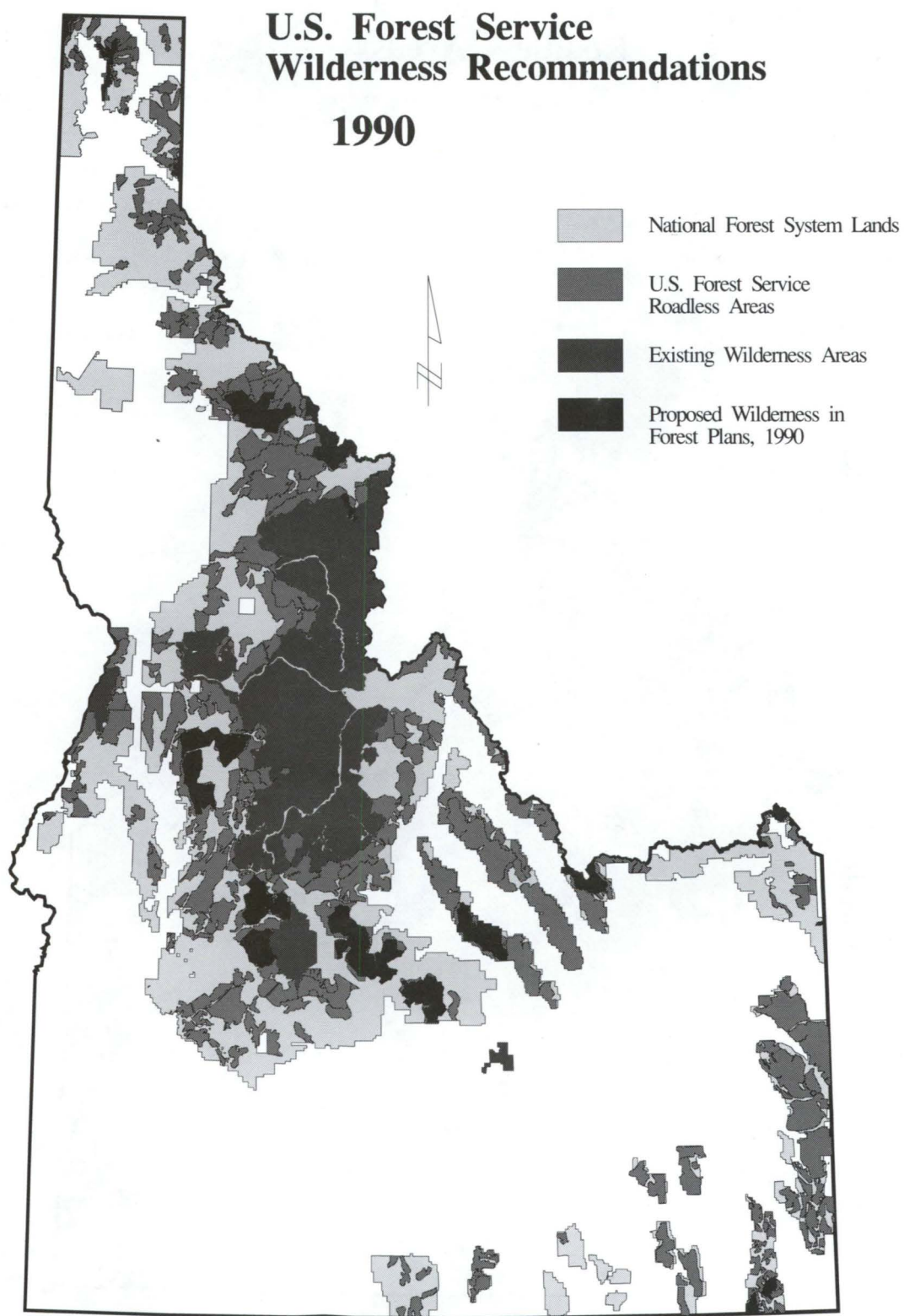
McClure and McClure-Andrus

One of the first state-wide wilderness legislative proposals to surface was developed by Sen. James McClure (R-ID) in 1984. Sen. McClure's bill proposed that 526,000 acres be designated wilderness and that 8.5 million acres be released for potential development. At the same time, the Idaho Wildlands Defense Coalition, consisting of state and national affiliate conservation groups, proposed 4.9 million acres of wilderness. That proposal became a bill introduced by Rep. Peter Kostmayer (D-PA) and Rep. Jim Moody (D-WI). Neither bill saw any further action.

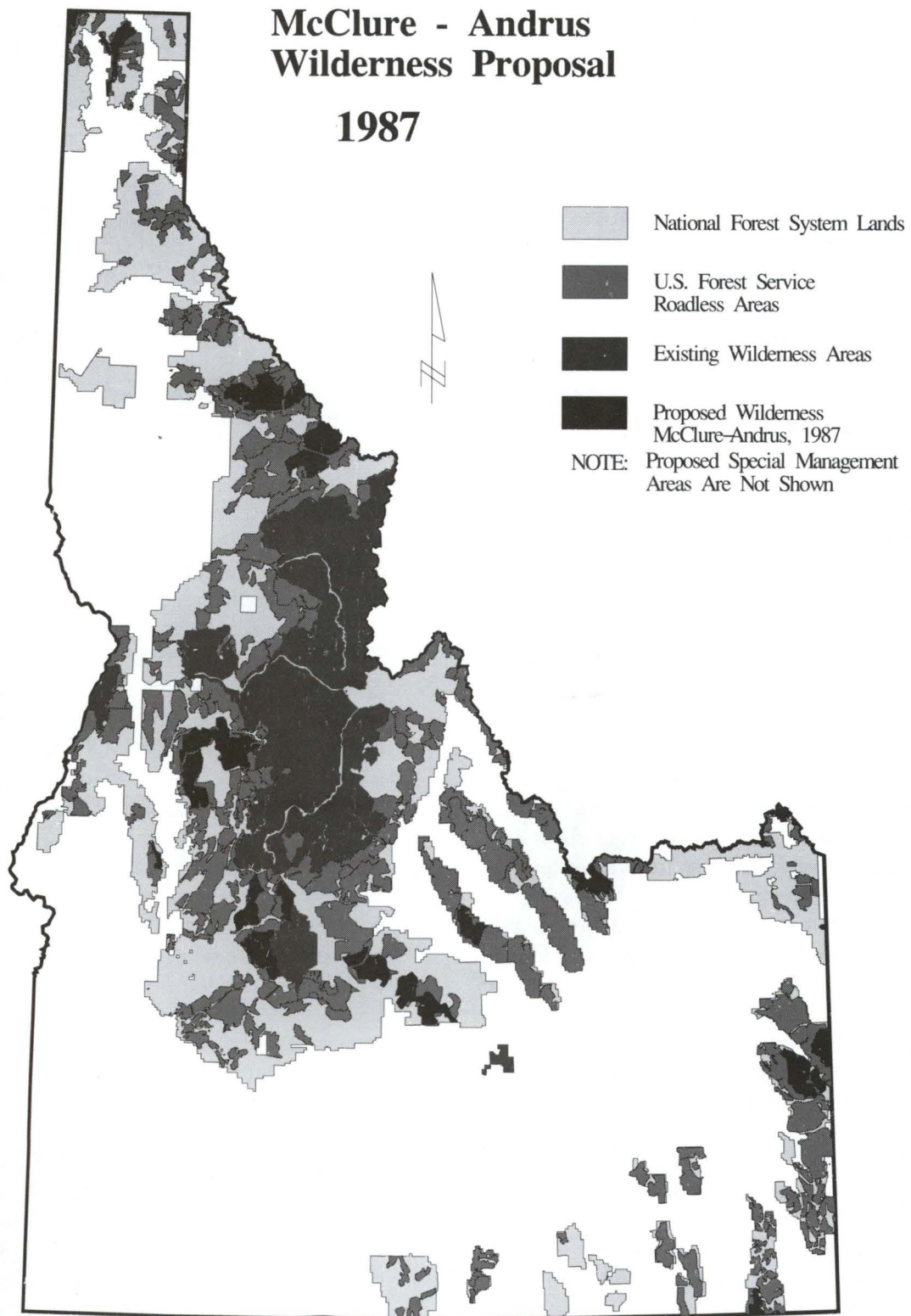
The next serious attempt to deal with national forest roadless areas came in 1987 when Idaho Governor Cecil Andrus and Sen. McClure teamed up to draft a wilderness bill that would have added approximately 1.5 million acres to the Wilderness System (**Map 5**). Forest industry representatives and most pro-wilderness groups opposed this bill, some claiming that they had not been provided opportunities for input during the process. Governor Andrus withdrew his support of the bill in 1990 after Sen. McClure suggested new language concerning forest roads. Sen. Steve Symms (R-ID) proposed an amendment to Sen. McClure's bill that essentially mirrored the Forest Service RARE II and forest plan recommendations. These actions failed to



Map 3. U.S. Forest Service Roadless Areas, 1977-1990.



Map 4. U.S. Forest Service Wilderness Recommendations, 1990.



Map 5. McClure-Andrus Wilderness Proposal, 1987.

attract significant support.

Idaho Conservation League

Following the failure of these attempts, the Idaho legislature approved funding in 1991 for wilderness negotiations among the disagreeing parties, facilitated by professional mediators. This process is described in detail in the next section of this report (see **Idaho Wilderness Negotiations**, this page).

During the negotiations, the Idaho Conservation League developed a wilderness proposal to designate more than 5 million acres, illustrated in **Map 6**. No formal presentation of this proposal had been made by the end of 1992, but its existence was well known. The proposal was further modified and introduced to the public in early 1993 by the Idaho Conservation League.

Alliance for the Wild Rockies

In late 1992, as both House and Senate versions of a Montana wilderness bill were moving through Congress, a multi-state bill involving Idaho was introduced. The Alliance for the Wild Rockies, based in Missoula, Montana, had conceived and promoted the Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act, a regional proposal that would create about 18 million acres of wilderness in five western states (*High Country News* 1992). During House debate on the Montana wilderness bill, Rep. Peter Kostmayer (D-PA) introduced the Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act in opposition to the Montana bill. Both bills died when Congress adjourned in October 1992. The Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act would have designated roughly 5 million acres of roadless lands in Idaho as wilderness (**Map 7**) and is quite similar to the Idaho Conservation League proposal (**Map 6**).

Areas of Agreement

All of the proposals for additions to the Wilderness System, except Sen. McClure's 1984 proposal of 526,000 acres, contain at least as much acreage as the national forest plan recommendations of 1.3 million acres.

However, because each proposal includes some of the same roadless areas as other proposals and some different roadless areas, areas common to all proposals do not simply reflect the Forest Service recommendations. **Map 8** (similar to the back cover of the report) identifies the areas of agreement, totalling approximately 732,062 acres. There are 18 different areas of agreement identified by name and location in Table 5, which is inserted at the very end of the report so it can be used with the color map on the back cover.

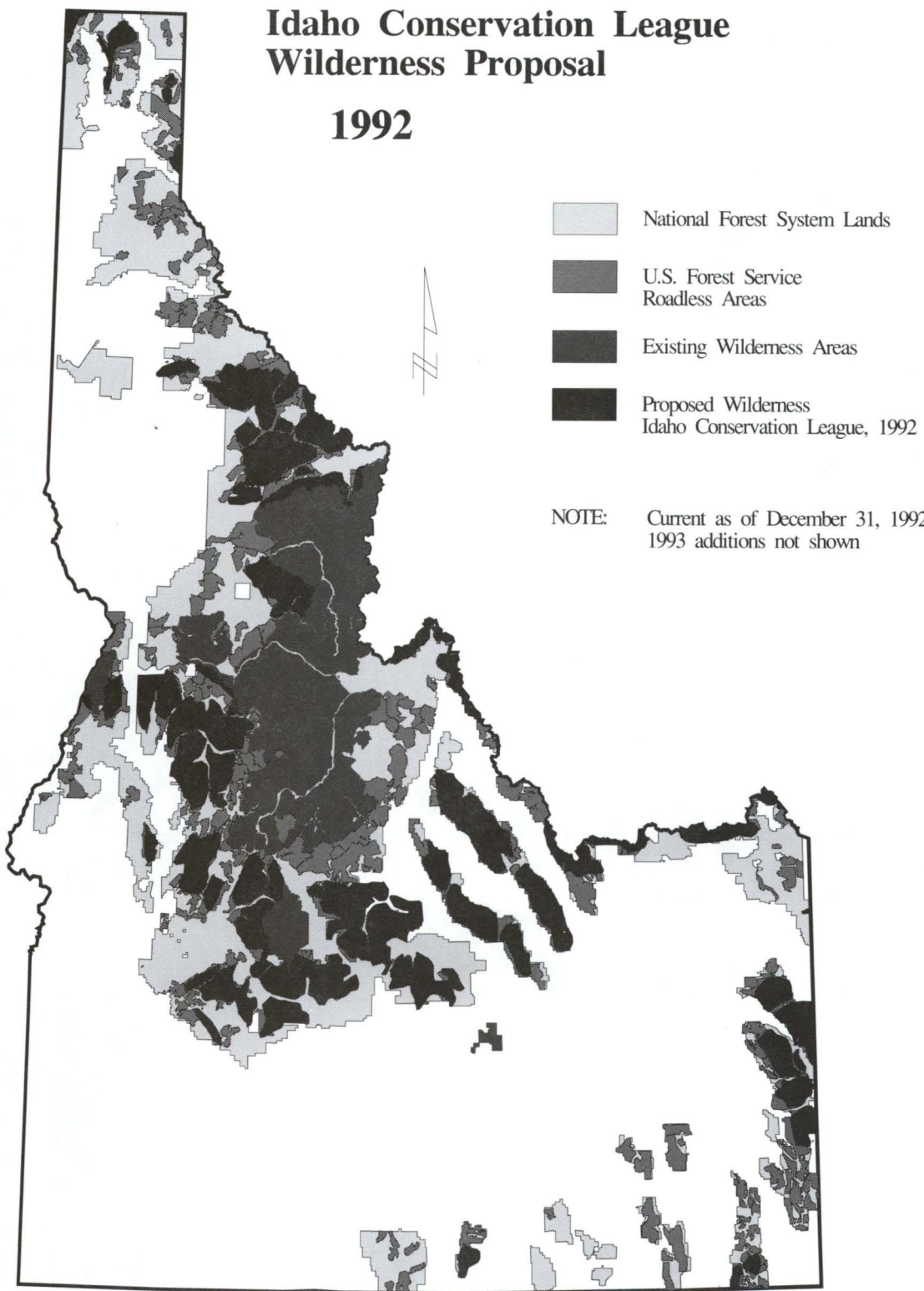
Bureau of Land Management

The BLM review of Wilderness Study Areas was completed in 1991. It included nearly 1.8 million acres in Idaho (Table 1, **Map 9**). Most of these areas are in southern Idaho and are dominated by cold desert, sagebrush rangelands. However, there are some relatively small forested areas in northern Idaho. The BLM has recommended that about 54% of those Wilderness Study Area lands (972,239 acres) become statutory wilderness (Table 1, **Map 10**). As described earlier, a draft bill with very little modification to the BLM recommendations for Idaho is pending before Congress (*Public Lands News* 1993).

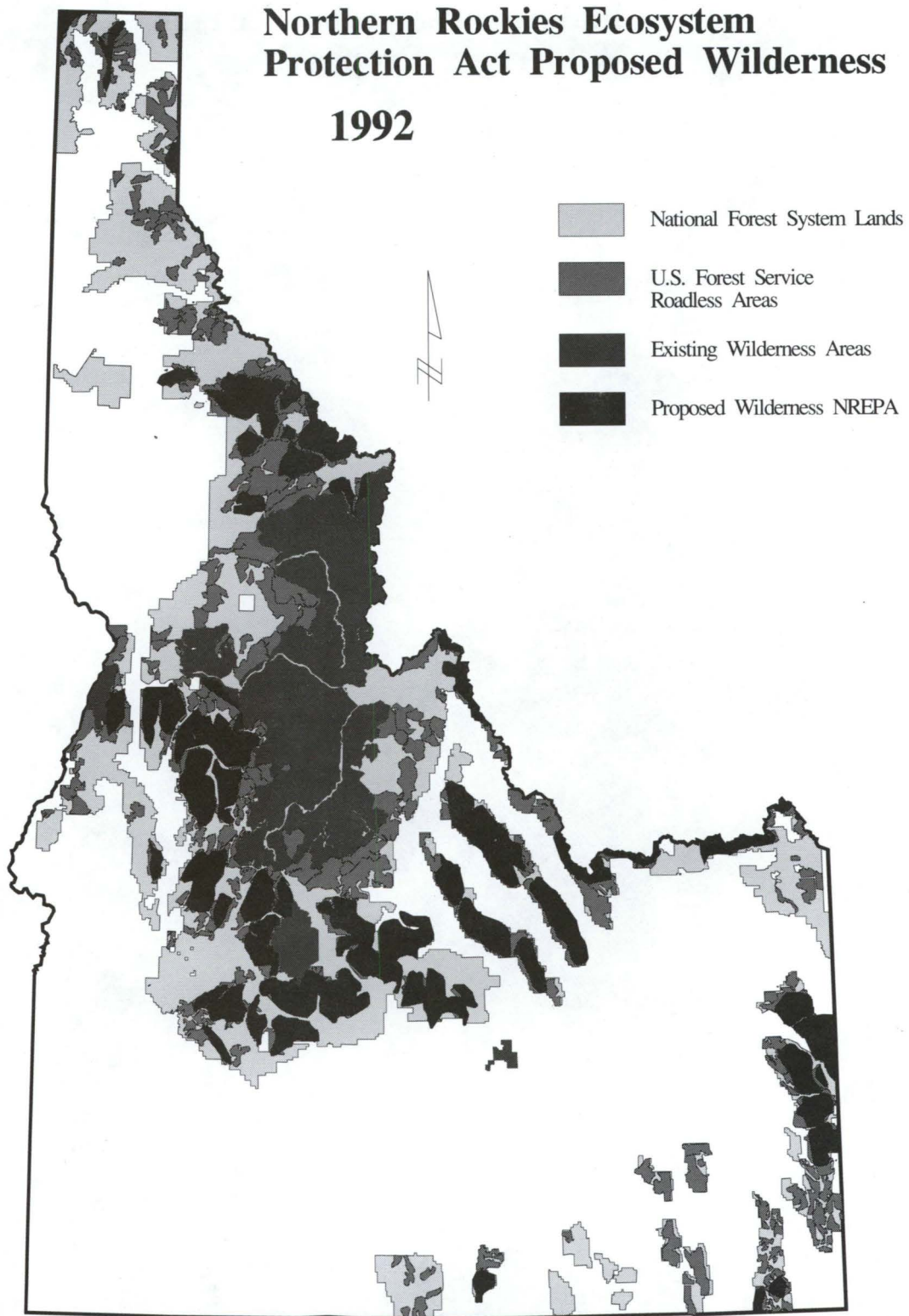
Idaho Wilderness Negotiations

When it became apparent in 1990 that Idaho's congressional delegation could not make any progress on the wilderness issue, the Idaho legislature provided funds to hire a professional mediation service to facilitate a state wilderness negotiation. Mediated natural resource negotiations in Idaho had been successful in resolving wildlife depredation and water quality issues—specifically the 1988 Antidegradation Agreement (see Turner and O'Laughlin 1991). A mediated negotiation was used more recently in developing a state-wide black bear management plan. The participation of all the affected interest groups, including local governments and organized labor, was deemed necessary for the success of the wilderness negotiations.

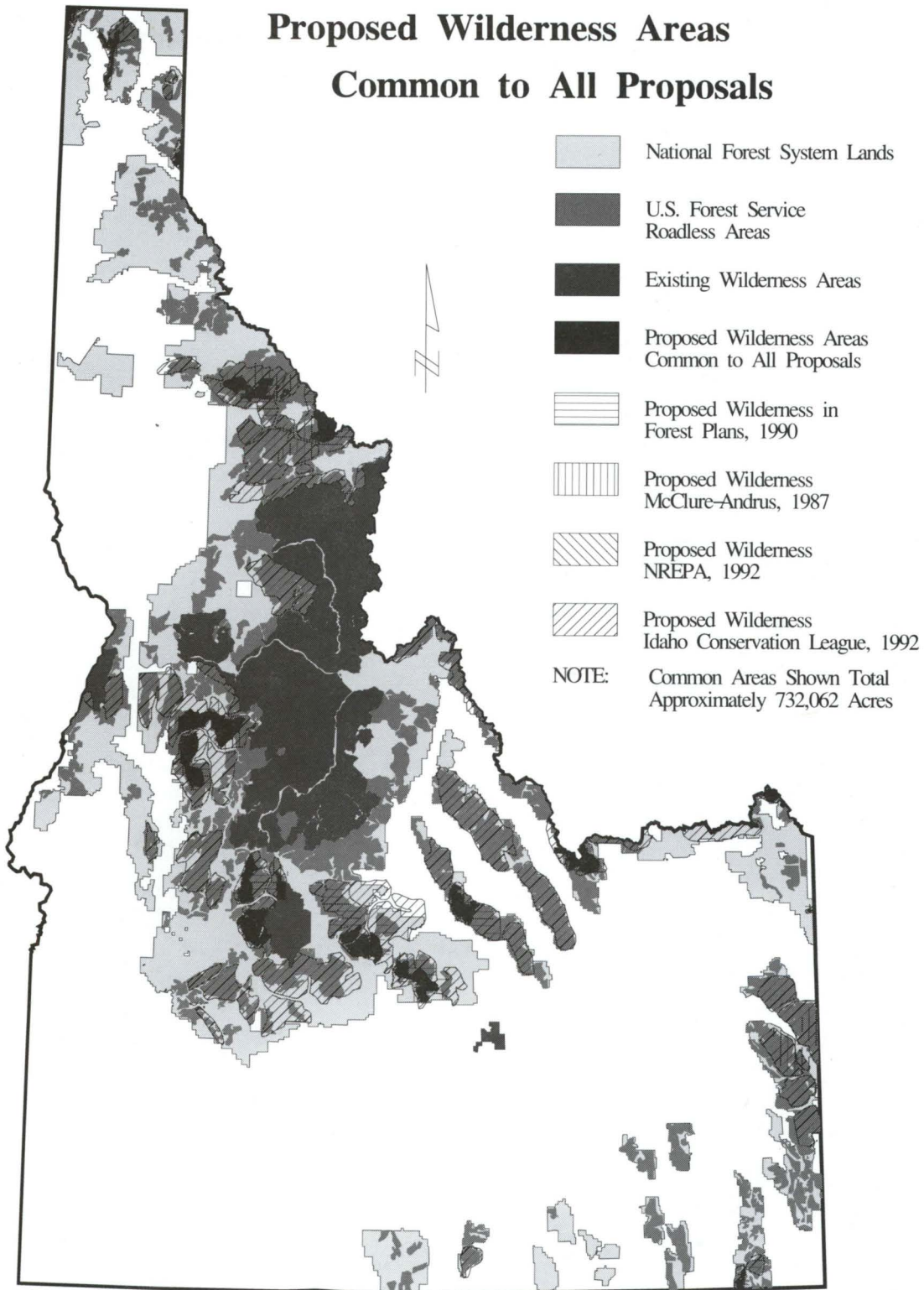
A chronology of the wilderness negotiation



Map 6. Idaho Conservation League Wilderness Proposal, 1992.

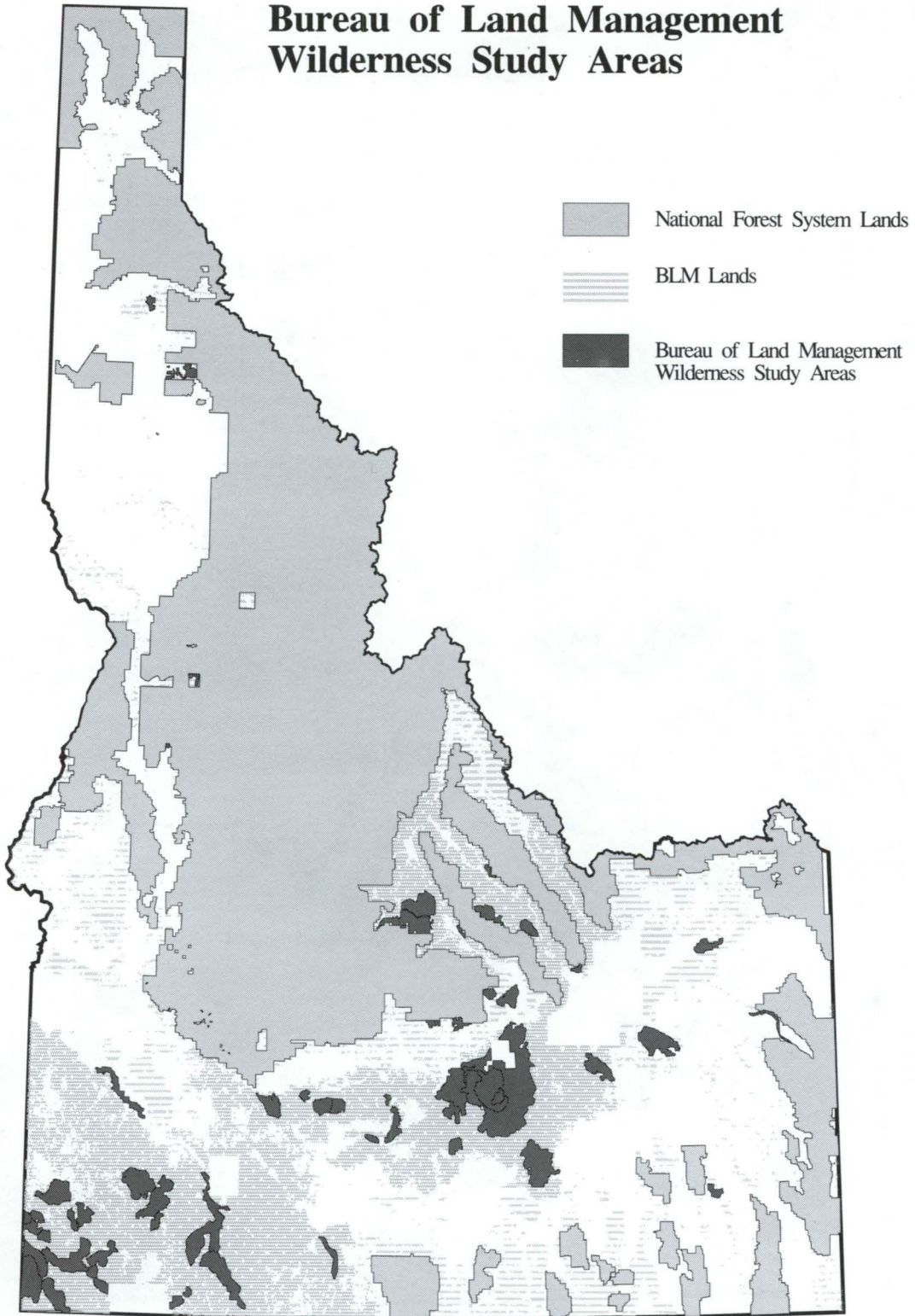


Map 7. Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act Proposed Wilderness, 1992.

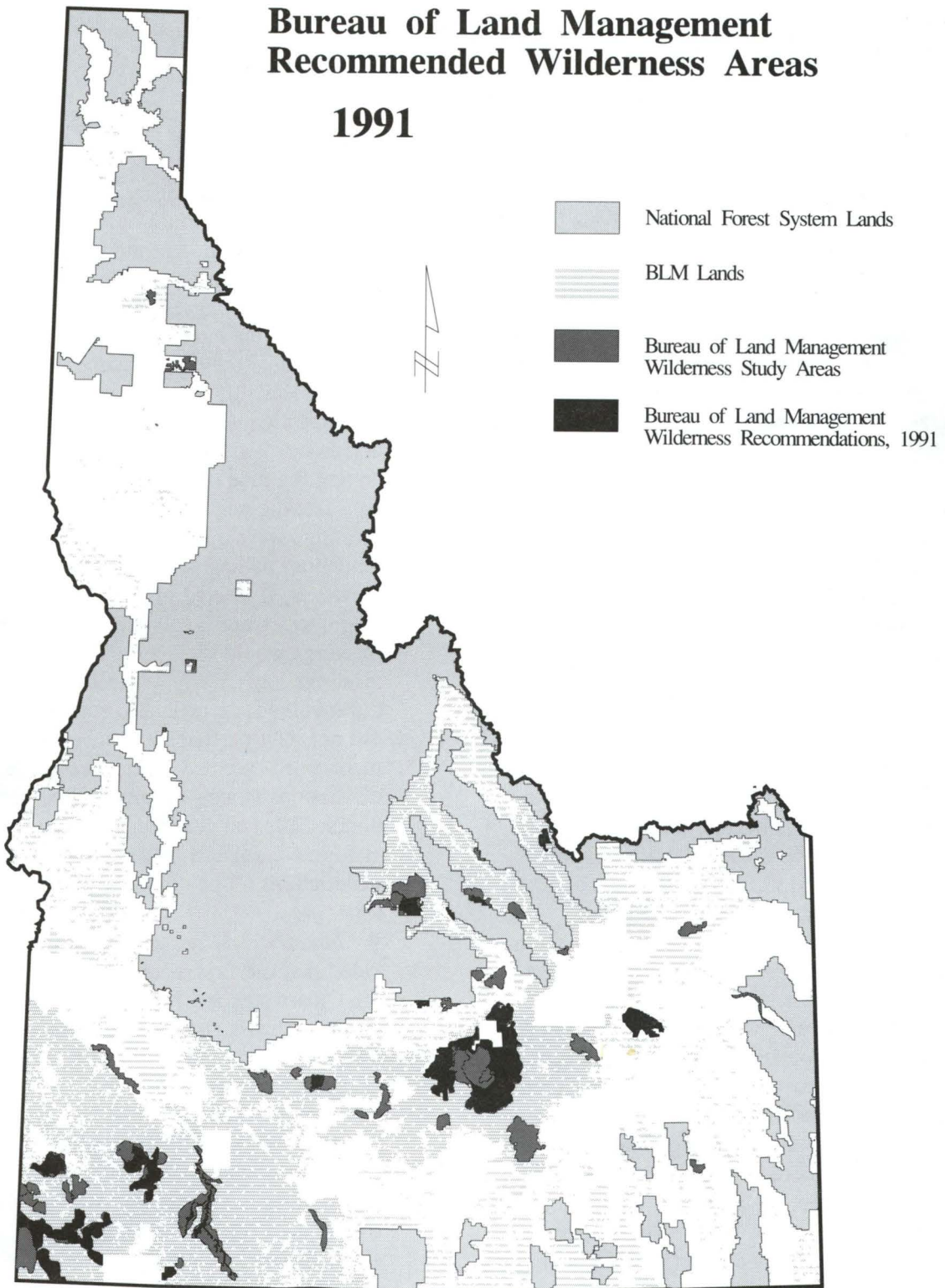


Map 8. Proposed Wilderness Areas Common to All Proposals.

Bureau of Land Management Wilderness Study Areas



Map 9. Bureau of Land Management Wilderness Study Areas.



Map 10. Bureau of Land Management Recommended Wilderness Areas, 1991.

process is presented in this section, followed by a retrospective analysis. The source of this information was reports in three daily newspapers: the *Idaho Statesman*, Boise, Idaho; the *Lewiston Morning Tribune*, Lewiston, Idaho; and the *Spokesman-Review* Panhandle edition, Spokane, Washington. The dozens of articles summarized herein are not individually cited, but are on file in the Policy Analysis Group office in the College of Forestry, Wildlife, and Range Sciences, University of Idaho.

Some may question the accuracy of these journalistic sources. However, this section has been significantly improved by several members of the Technical Advisory Committee (see page *i*), some of whom participated in the negotiations.

Most people agree that thorough documentation of the mediated negotiations would be very valuable. That would require in-depth interviews with all the people involved, which was considered to be beyond the scope of this analysis. Instead, only a broad outline of major events during the negotiations is presented.

Chronology of Events. The following paragraphs summarize events that occurred from March 1990 to April 1992 during the Idaho wilderness negotiations.

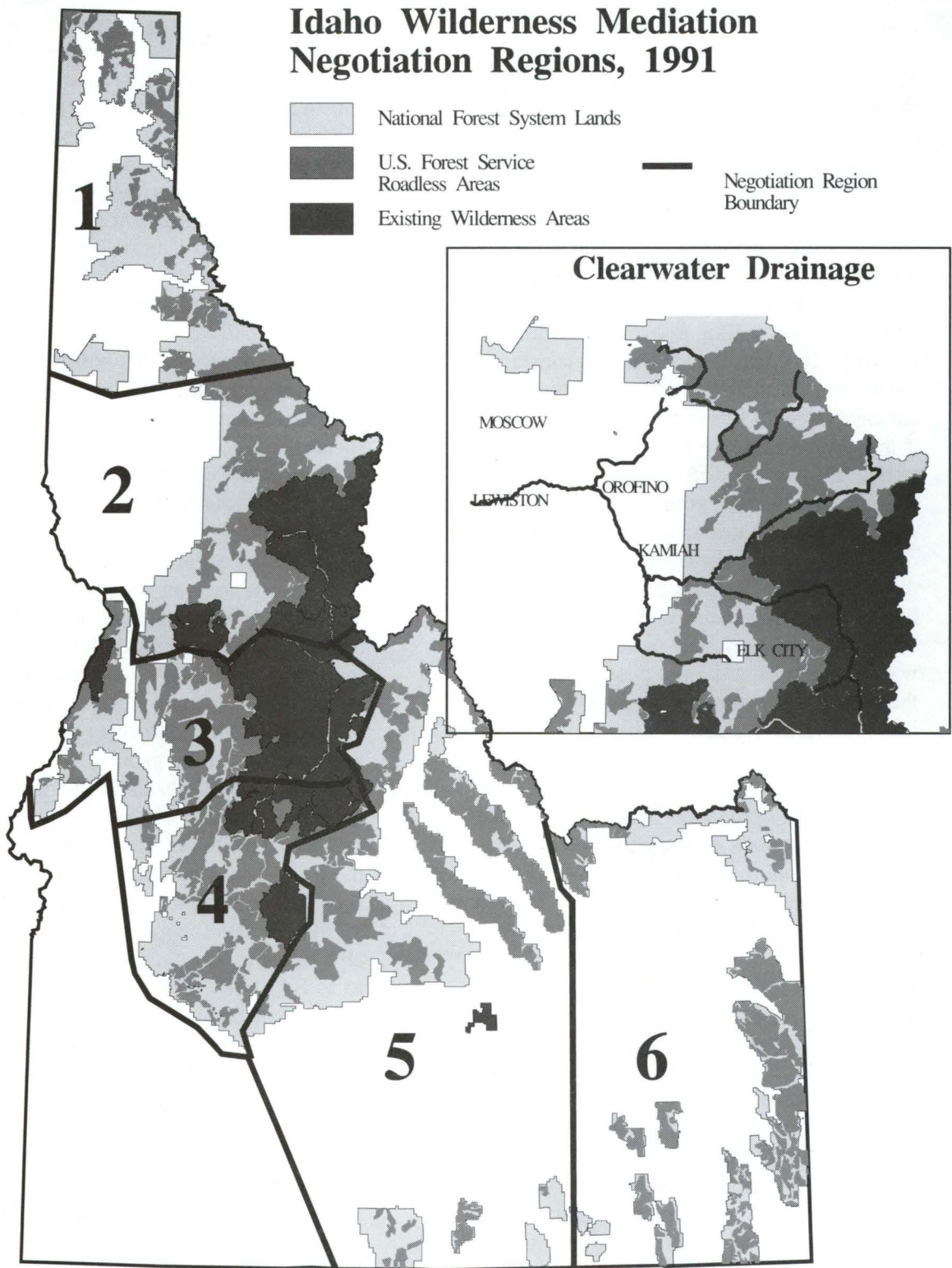
● **March 1990** — The Idaho legislature appropriated \$150,000 for the negotiation effort, and bids were solicited from professional mediators. Nine organizations, most from out-of-state, expressed interest in facilitating the negotiations. Selection of the mediation service was the responsibility of the Legislative Council and the Chairs of the House Resources and Conservation Committee and the Senate Resources and Environment Committee of the Idaho legislature.

There was resistance to the negotiations from the outset by the major wilderness advocacy groups in Idaho, who had not been consulted in advance about the idea and said the efforts were premature. The groups cited as major problems lack of participation by members of Congress, Republican control of

the state legislature, and the upcoming 1992 elections. However, these groups eventually decided to participate for a number of reasons: the Idaho legislature made a special request that they join the process, participants were to assist in selecting the mediator and defining protocols, decisions were to be made by consensus, the possibility existed that a recommendation would be advanced without their participation, and the Idaho congressional delegation was to be kept informed throughout the process. Congress members expressed support for the negotiations, presumably implying that they would submit a bill based on the results of the negotiations.

● **December 1990** — The Mediation Institute of Seattle, Washington, was selected from among the nine organizations that applied to facilitate the negotiations. Organizational meetings were quickly undertaken, with draft guidelines calling for closed-door meetings. However, if elected officials and state employees were involved, closed-door meetings would violate the Idaho open-meetings law. Early organizational meetings did involve state officials, but later meetings did not, and participants chose to meet in the manner that seemed most effective in moving discussions along—usually behind closed doors. The initial strategy was to divide the state into 6 regions (**Map 11**), focusing negotiations on one or two specific regions at a time.

● **January to May 1991** — Participants decided that the first meetings would focus on the Clearwater and Nez Perce National Forests and the Challis and Sawtooth National Forests (respectively, Regions 2 and 5, **Map 11**). Because of its substantial timber resources, the Clearwater National Forest had been troublesome in the past, but it was the one area of the state where environmentalists and industry representatives had relatively cordial relationships. Participants felt that if an agreement could be reached here, it would generate momentum for the rest of the state. If the negotiations failed here, there would be little reason to continue the process.



Map 11. Idaho Wilderness Negotiation Regions, 1991.

The Clearwater negotiations hit an impasse over release language. At this point, participants decided to shift the formal negotiations to south-central Idaho while informal meetings concerning the Clearwater continued. Anti-wilderness sentiments prevailed at the south-central Idaho meeting, stalling any potential compromise.

Following this, no meetings were held for 3 or 4 weeks, leading to suggestions that the process might fail. However, the participants were still willing to continue, and the Idaho legislature was willing to provide additional funding. By May 1991 there was considerable optimism that an agreement on wilderness allocations could be reached on the Clearwater if the terms of release language could be settled. However, differences among wilderness advocacy groups and between wilderness advocates and timber industry representatives resulted in a breakdown of those meetings. Release provisions and livestock grazing issues were identified as major obstacles. A June or July time limit was set for substantial progress to be made or the negotiations would end. Rep. Larry LaRocco (D-ID) stated that he would take on the wilderness issue if the negotiations didn't produce an agreement.

● *June and July 1991* — Claims of substantial progress towards a compromise were made, but then debate over release provisions stalled the talks. Release was identified as the major obstacle to a compromise. Some participants stated that the mediators were not doing enough to keep the negotiations progressing. Wilderness advocacy groups indicated they would quit the negotiations if grazing and off-road vehicle interests didn't abandon their hard-line stance of no more wilderness and advance a realistic proposal. The grazing and off-road vehicle interests modified their positions. At this point all groups agreed on the need to settle the wilderness debate. The focus of the formal negotiations was switched from the south-central Idaho grazing issue back to north Idaho and the Clearwater River drainage.

● *November 1991* — The negotiations over the Clearwater drainage broke down again. Representatives of the wilderness advocacy groups resigned, citing lack of support by their constituents. Timber release language appeared to be unacceptable to some members, particularly some affiliated with national environmental groups. Rep. LaRocco reiterated his promise to deal with the wilderness issue. The wilderness advocacy groups decided to pick new representatives and continue the negotiations over north Idaho.

● *April 1992* — Little progress was made and the talks ceased. At this point, the Idaho legislature formally terminated the process. A few participants claimed that some limited success resulted from the negotiations, and the money (\approx \$300,000) was well spent considering what was at stake.

Retrospective view. These facilitated negotiations were an unusual event in the history of wilderness allocation in the United States. Most of the parties that have a stake in the Idaho roadless area and wilderness allocation issue have publicly agreed that settlement of the controversy would be in the best interests of the people of Idaho. Although some of the participants in the mediated negotiations modified their position, some refused to move beyond a certain point. Thus, the negotiations may have helped to clarify and solidify the positions of some interest groups, as well as help the groups identify their best alternative to a negotiated agreement (referred to as BATNA).

One of the most valuable outcomes of the negotiations was that it helped identify some of the barriers that are important in wilderness considerations in Idaho and elsewhere. The negotiations demonstrated that some interest groups, or factions of a group, are currently unwilling to compromise beyond a certain point and may not agree to any wilderness legislation. For example, timber industry representatives and state environmental groups agreed on release language, but some national environmental groups were opposed to any

form of release, a position that could have derailed any settlement going before Congress as a bill.

The negotiations also served to illustrate the dynamic nature of the issues surrounding wilderness allocation. Initially, the forest products industry supported the negotiations and worked hard to keep them moving. However, their enthusiasm waned in 1992 for two reasons. First, in early 1992 the Secretary of Agriculture announced the intent to modify the Forest Service administrative appeals process, which presumably would have eased what has been a major obstacle for completing planned national forest timber sales. The appeals process was somewhat streamlined by Congress in late 1992, but as of June 1993 new regulations have not been implemented. Second, timber supply uncertainty increased when old-growth set-asides for the conservation of the northern spotted owl in Washington, Oregon, and California came to the forefront. This has led to more bidders and higher prices for timber stumpage in some parts of Idaho. Market forces are thus expressing the demand for timber from Idaho national forests in a more conventional and perhaps more forceful manner than negotiating parties could.

At the beginning of the negotiations, forest products industry interests had much to gain from settling the roadless area issue, but only if legislation contained language guaranteeing access to some non-wilderness roadless areas. Coggins (1992), a law professor, said the *California vs. Block* (1982) court interpreted the Wilderness Act as halting logging or any activity that threatened wilderness values on all 62 million acres of RARE II lands, approximately one-third of the entire national forest system. This legal commentary, if accurate, would give environmental groups in Idaho and Montana a powerful BATNA, and little reason to fight for additional statutory wilderness designation. However, Coggins' commentary is directly contradicted by the fact that roadless areas may be entered through the forest planning process and site-specific NEPA

analyses. There are currently 177 planned timber sales for national forest roadless areas in Idaho that the Forest Service intends to process by 1997.

PAST LESSONS, FUTURE QUESTIONS

The chronology of events dealing with wilderness allocation in Idaho is summarized in Table 1. Six individual areas totalling 4 million acres were designated one at a time from 1964 through 1980. There has been no omnibus state wilderness legislation for Idaho as has been the case in most other western states.

A state-wide proposal was made during the debate over the Idaho Primitive Area that was resolved in 1980, but that proposal did not gain wide support (Tiefenbacher 1986). The push for a state wilderness bill in Idaho did not begin earnestly until 1984. Most of the RARE II roadless areas were being managed as *de facto* wilderness then. It became apparent that a state bill was desirable in order to designate additional wilderness and release non-wilderness roadless lands.

Why hasn't a state-wide wilderness bill been passed in Idaho? By the early 1980s, when state bills implementing RARE II recommendations emerged as the way to designate wilderness, Idaho already had six designated wilderness areas resulting in more wilderness acreage in Idaho than any other state except Alaska. Tiefenbacher (1986) speculated that Idaho's congressional delegation perhaps felt that Idaho had enough wilderness areas, based on the findings of a public opinion poll conducted by Sen. James McClure.

There are a number of complex issues that influence the wilderness allocation process, including sufficiency and release provisions, livestock grazing, off-road vehicle interests, water rights, ecosystem management, and the amount of land area proposed for wilderness. Each is treated in detail in the following sections.

Sufficiency, Release, and Certainty Issues

Sufficiency and release language associated with wilderness allocations are issues of current and historical importance. The certainty issue is relatively new and still in the formative stages. Sufficiency and release language are closely linked. Both of these issues are included in many state wilderness bills and both arose as a means to deal with legal objections raised in *California vs. Block* (1982), as explained in the following sections. The sufficiency issue was solved relatively quickly, but release language evolved in Congress between 1980 and 1984.

Sufficiency. The role of the EIS that accompanied RARE II in determining the disposition of roadless areas was challenged in *California vs. Bergland* (1980) and affirmed in part in *California vs. Block* (1982). The EIS was found to be procedurally flawed. Apparently, there were two options to deal with those flaws. The first was another expensive and time consuming inventory, a prospect that the Forest Service, wilderness advocates, politicians, and industry wanted to avoid (Hendee et al. 1990). The other option was to seek legislative relief through Congress. The second option prevailed. The California Wilderness Act of 1984 was the first to deal with the sufficiency of the RARE II process and subsequent EIS. It stated that the RARE II process was not subject to judicial review as applied to national forest lands in California. In addition, the act also declared that the RARE II inventory was sufficient in the preparation of wilderness recommendations in the subsequent forest plans for California and prohibited the Department of Agriculture (i.e., the Forest Service) from undertaking a future state-wide inventory. This language protected the Forest Service from lawsuits that might arise over controversy surrounding the RARE II process, including the procedural flaws in the EIS. Language similar to that in the California Wilderness Act has been part of numerous state wilderness bills since 1984 (Browning et al. 1988).

More recently, the sufficiency of the EIS that is part of individual forest plans in deciding which roadless areas would be recommended for wilderness and non-wilderness was brought into question in Idaho. The Idaho Conservation League and five other environmental groups filed suit against the Forest Service because of its decision to include only 4 of 47 roadless areas on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest in its recommendations for wilderness in the forest plan (see *Idaho Conservation League vs. Mumma* 1992). The court ruled that the Forest Service process for developing forest plan recommendations was adequate for determining the disposition of roadless lands for planning purposes.

Sufficiency language seems to be more straightforward and less controversial than release language. The sufficiency issue has not surfaced as a major point of controversy in more recent wilderness bills, and appears not to be a major issue in any future wilderness legislation for Idaho.

Release. Although there is considerable debate over which roadless areas should be wilderness and the number of acres that should be in the National Wilderness Preservation System, today's real controversy in wilderness legislation centers on what to do with non-wilderness roadless lands. The solution to the problem desired by some is legislatively releasing non-wilderness roadless lands to other uses. As mentioned previously, release language evolved over a four year period (1980-1984) and has been adopted in a number of state wilderness bills since then (Gorte 1987, Browning et al. 1988). Legislative release of non-wilderness roadless areas is still a feature of current wilderness legislation. Release language addresses both the timing of future wilderness reviews by the Forest Service, and the management of non-wilderness roadless areas during the years between the reviews. Some examples of release language follow.

Hard vs. soft release. — Neither hard nor soft release language imposes limits on Congress to designate wilderness any time it decides to do so.

Permanent or hard release was initially proposed in 1979 by Rep. Tom Foley (D-WA), and would have given Congress until 1985 to designate RARE II roadless areas as wilderness. At that time any remaining non-wilderness roadless areas would be excluded from further study by the Forest Service as wilderness (Gorte 1987, Roth 1988a, Hendee et al. 1990). Other versions of hard release and long-term (25-30 year) release have also been proposed at one time or another (Gorte 1987, Roth 1988a).

Hard release is appropriately named, because it has proven hard, if not impossible, to attain and is likely to remain that way. The concept of hard or long-term release has been opposed by wilderness advocates and environmentalists. Shortly before he was elected Vice-president in 1992, Senator Al Gore (D-TN) voiced his opposition to release language in the Senate version of the Montana wilderness bill, citing the potential for ambiguous language to exclude all Forest Service activities on released lands from judicial review (*Public Lands News* 1992e). Gorte (1987), a policy analyst for the Congressional Research Service, stated that most versions of hard release were in conflict with the Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act of 1960 and the NFMA planning process for national forests. He also said that most of the versions of hard release could have been construed as requiring the Forest Service to develop non-wilderness roadless lands.

Compromise language termed soft release has been widely adopted and is sometimes termed California or Colorado release because it appears in those state wilderness acts. The Oregon Wilderness Act of 1984 contains the definitive language on soft release that has been incorporated into other bills (Leshy 1988). Soft release generally states that non-wilderness roadless areas would no longer be candidates for wilderness study by the Forest

Service until the next cycle of the forest plans, which now occurs every 10-15 years. The implication was that these roadless lands could be, but do not have to be, developed during that period without assessing the impact of a particular project on the wilderness quality of an area. Soft release language does not prevent the Forest Service from managing released lands for their wilderness attributes, but says the agency is not required to do so (Roth 1988a). Soft release language was a feature of a majority of the state wilderness bills passed in the early 1980s (Roth 1988a, Browning et al. 1988, Coggins 1992), and continues to be incorporated into new bills (*Public Lands News* 1990c).

Despite the wide application of soft release, the recent Montana bills generated debate over the issue (*Public Lands News* 1990c, 1991a). Many forest plans are due to be revised in the mid-to-late 1990s. The adoption of soft release language based on forest planning cycles could result in only 2 or 3 years before roadless areas would again be subject to consideration for wilderness in the next planning cycle. Timber industry representatives are therefore seeking specified periods of release of at least 10 years (*Public Lands News* 1991b). The controversy further intensified when Senators from Montana attempted to incorporate long-term release (approximately 30 years) into Montana bills (*Public Lands News* 1990c).

Because soft release language only deals with the wilderness attributes of an area, development of released roadless areas is not assured. Site-specific EISs are still required for development activities in roadless areas. These analyses must address a number of potential impacts on land, water, wildlife, plants, etc. In addition, administrative appeals based on legislation and planning standards and guidelines are still part of the decision process. Because environmental analysis and administrative appeals often result in the delay or withdrawal of planned timber sales in roadless areas, the forest products industry is seeking firmer assurances of access to timber

in roadless areas. The current thrust takes the form of excluding actions in released roadless areas from judicial review (see **Certainty** section, this page).

Special management areas. — A recent development, arising from the release issue, may apply to future Idaho wilderness bills. Because release language cannot guarantee access for development, statutory prescriptive management direction for individual non-wilderness roadless areas has been explored as an alternative. This could result in special legislated management direction for specified non-wilderness areas and possibly for already developed areas. This approach surfaced in a 1992 Colorado bill but applied only to wilderness water rights, which is addressed in a later section. The special management area concept was part of the McClure-Andrus Idaho proposal in 1987, and may serve as a compromise that will help resolve roadless area issues in Idaho.

Some members of Congress may view special management areas as micro-management, as the Forest Service may also be expected to do (Gorte 1988). However, prescriptive management language is a feature of many bills creating National Recreation Areas (e.g., the Smith River National Recreation Area Act of 1990) including one in Idaho (Hells Canyon National Recreation Area Act of 1975). The special management area concept is well established, but has generally been applied to specific areas in legislation dealing with those areas. The National Wilderness Preservation System is recognized as a nation-wide system of special management areas in its own right (Gorte 1988). In the past, this level of management direction has been decided through national forest planning, not through special legislative provisions.

Conclusion on release language. — Release language has been and may always be a major component of any proposed wilderness legislation. Soft release language, to be maintained over a 10 year period of effectiveness, will probably be the most acceptable situation. However, some Congress

members may be expected to continue to push for longer-term release (20-30 years), and the idea of excluding released lands from judicial review is likely to surface in the future.

Some environmentalists are strictly opposed to any form of release language (*Public Lands News* 1991a). This position insures that release will continue to be an area of debate, and possibly a major obstacle in passing future wilderness legislation.

Although likely to continue to be an important feature of wilderness bills, release language may have exhausted its usefulness as a compromise measure to advance wilderness legislation. Not only is release controversial, but from a development standpoint, it has failed to provide access to some roadless areas. The major concern in release language is resource development. The concept of certainty is evolving to replace release language.

Certainty. One of the newest issues to emerge in the wilderness debate has been termed certainty. So far, this term has been applied primarily to the supply of timber coming from public lands. However, all industries require a degree of certainty of expectation of the supply of commodity materials in order to plan and operate efficiently. Some feel that the failure to allocate additional wilderness from Idaho's roadless lands has created uncertainty in the supply of raw materials for some of these industries. This also creates additional uncertainty as to which regulations will subsequently guide their operations.

The certainty issue arises as commodity interests attempt to incorporate provisions in legislation that would guarantee that use of specific areas would occur as defined in national forest plans. These provisions would limit legal challenges to those relating solely to the suitability of an area for wilderness. In other words, certainty language would preclude lawsuits and administrative appeals based on anything but the wilderness attributes of an area. Furthermore, certainty language specifies who can file these suits and appeals,

in other words, who has standing in these matters.

The court ruling in *Idaho Conservation League vs. Mumma* (1992) presumably set the stage for this type of legislative direction. The court said that the forest plan EIS was in compliance with NEPA, at least as far as allocating roadless areas to wilderness and non-wilderness uses. However, that case only considered the NEPA process in the disposition of roadless areas, not how the forest plan EIS dealt with timber sales and other development activities. Certainty language would declare that the forest plan EIS is adequate, and it would exempt challenges based on NEPA and other laws designed to protect the environment such as the Clean Water Act and the Endangered Species Act. As previously noted, this is a relatively new issue and many options are still being explored. The interpretation presented above may or may not persist, and it may evolve into other arguments as the debate continues.

Livestock Grazing in Wilderness

Livestock interests have opposed the designation of additional wilderness in Idaho even though livestock grazing is permitted in wilderness (Roth 1988a, Hendee et al. 1990, McClaran 1990). However, livestock interests modified their traditional position during the Idaho wilderness negotiations.

The Wilderness Act (Sec. 4[d]) specified that livestock grazing could continue at existing levels prior to the act, but subject to regulations deemed necessary by the Secretary of Agriculture. In subsequent wilderness bills Congress has allowed most pre-existing livestock grazing management programs to continue in wilderness, including structures, facilities, and the use of motorized equipment (McClaran 1990). As part of the Colorado Wilderness Act of 1980, House Committee Report 96-617 was used to establish legal guidelines for livestock grazing in Forest Service wilderness areas (Browning et al. 1988, McClaran 1990). The wilderness livestock grazing guidelines are summarized in

Table 3.

One of the most significant aspects of the congressional guidelines for livestock grazing in wilderness areas was the statement that "*wilderness designation cannot be used to reduce grazing animal numbers*" (Table 3). Indeed, animal numbers may be increased in wilderness. However, livestock grazing has declined in wilderness over the last 10-15 years for a variety of reasons, including declines in the sheep industry, declines in forage production due to succession, increases in forage allocation to wildlife, and wilderness managers that are unfamiliar with the livestock grazing provisions in the Wilderness Act and the livestock grazing guidelines.

Congress has consistently supported the interpretation that livestock grazing programs predating the Wilderness Act of 1964 could continue. This policy will likely continue on both Forest Service and BLM lands (McClaran 1990). For example, the Arizona Desert Wilderness Act of 1990 adopted the grazing guidelines from the Colorado Wilderness Act report (summarized in Table 3) and directed the Secretary to review BLM policies to assure compliance with those guidelines.

Opposition to further wilderness designation by livestock interests may result more from a general dislike of government interference in long-standing grazing practices than the effect of wilderness designation on existing allotments. Also, it is realistic to expect that some livestock operations may require modification to conform with the wilderness grazing guidelines, and operators may view such changes as an unnecessary hardship. Livestock interests may also favor maintaining the status quo because changes in land classification and resulting policies are perceived to be unpredictable, resulting in uncertainty (see **Certainty** section, page 30). Livestock grazing on public lands is currently under pressure for reform and some operators may see a link between wilderness designation and pressure for grazing reform. Distrust of federal agencies and the fact that grazing reformists can use a variety of other laws to

Table 3. Congressional Guidelines for Grazing in Wilderness.

- (1) Wilderness designation will not be used as a criterion to reduce grazing animal numbers, and it is possible to increase animal numbers in wilderness.
- (2) A rule of practical necessity and reasonableness will be used to allow operators to maintain existing structures and facilities with motorized equipment and vehicles.
- (3) Use of natural materials when constructing or repairing structures or facilities will not be required unless it does not require unreasonable additional costs.
- (4) Construction or replacement of structures and facilities will be permitted, but new construction should be primarily for resource management and protection rather than to accommodate increased livestock use.
- (5) Use of motorized equipment for emergency situations involving sick animals or emergency placement of feed will be permitted.

Note: These guidelines are in House Report 617, 96th Congress, First Session 1979. As directed in the Colorado Wilderness Act of 1980, these guidelines applied to all national forest wilderness areas and were eventually incorporated into the U.S. Forest Service manual. The guidelines also became the policy of the Bureau of Land Management for Arizona wilderness areas created by the Arizona Desert Wilderness Act of 1990.

Source: McClaran (1990).

impact livestock operations may also result in opposition to wilderness from the standpoint that adding another obstacle to the status quo, no matter how small its impact, is undesirable.

Off-Road Vehicle Use

Off-road vehicle (ORV) users are opposed to designating more wilderness in Idaho. The Wilderness Act expressly forbids mechanized travel in wilderness areas and would have to be amended to allow the use of motorized ORVs in wilderness areas. Mountain bikes and tote carts are likewise prohibited in wilderness areas, but it is the motorized ORV users that are organized and vocal. Because motorized ORV users currently have access to some roadless areas, including some areas proposed for wilderness in the forest plans, there is little reason for these groups to support any additional wilderness. As an alternative to wilderness, these groups are proposing the establishment of "backcountry recreation areas," where motorized recreation is allowed in an otherwise undeveloped setting.

Wilderness Water Rights

A legally reserved water right (i.e., a guaranteed minimum quantity of instream flow) for wilderness is another key issue in wilderness deliberations. Wilderness water rights may be a major feature of potential wilderness allocations by the 103rd Congress, and this issue has the potential to stall any legislation proposed for Idaho. According to *Public Lands News* (1991b), in some cases this issue is beginning to overshadow release language. Because water rights are complex, they require a bit more than a brief explanation.

We conclude, however, that because state water policy in Idaho provides a process for allocating water for instream flow purposes, this should be a moot issue in Idaho and the reader may want to skip to the next major section on **Multi-State Allocation and Ecosystem Management** (page 36).

A legal perspective. Leshy (1988), formerly a law professor at Arizona State University and

in 1993 appointed as Solicitor in the Department of the Interior, felt that the debate over wilderness water rights was generally overblown, largely due to their junior standing (see definition in Table 4) and a limited potential for harm. He also noted that if all roadless federal lands were designated wilderness, with accompanying water rights, the overall effect would still be minimal. This is because the total acres of federal lands that would not qualify as wilderness far exceeds all present and potential wilderness. Non-wilderness lands are already subject to an implied federal water right that is often senior to others. A reserved right for a new wilderness area potentially could change the priority date in the area, possibly resulting in an implied senior right becoming a reserved junior right.

Leshy (1988) mentioned two other conditions that further limited the threat of a wilderness water right. Although an unlikely event, the Wilderness Act (Section 2[c]) gave the President authority to allow water projects in wilderness areas. Even more unlikely, Congress can change its collective mind on wilderness allocation decisions as it can with all other statutes, so wilderness designation is not necessarily permanent.

Recent history. The water rights issue came to the forefront in 1985 when the Sierra Club attempted through litigation to force the Forest Service to claim water rights for Colorado wilderness areas during a stream adjudication (see Table 4). In the judgment of the court, the Wilderness Act reserved water rights in wilderness—effective on the date of designation; i.e., 1964 or later—in conjunction with the implied water rights reserved for national forests based on the *Winters* doctrine (see Table 4). This ruling was overturned in 1990 because the Sierra Club could not demonstrate any threats to wilderness water flows (*Sierra Club vs. Yeutter* 1990). Thus the ruling was premature, leaving the issue unresolved until an actual threat to water flow is demonstrated (Leshy 1988). Even though the 1985 ruling was overturned, wilderness advocates have been pushing for the legislated reservation of water rights in subsequent allocations (Coggins 1992). No wilderness bill had been able to get through the House Interior Committee during the 102nd Congress without water rights language (*Public Lands News* 1992b). However, this may have changed with the convening of the 103rd Congress in 1993 and subsequent new committee assignments.

Table 4. Water Law Terminology

Junior water rights - Water rights are often referred to as junior or senior. This designation, in most western states, depends on the date when a water right was filed and approved by the state. Most western states operate on a "first in time—first in right" principle. Thus the right that has existed the longest is senior to others that came into existence at a later date. This seniority gives these senior water users priority in most instances, meaning that in drought situations, junior rights holders may not get any water.

Stream adjudication - A stream adjudication is a process by which all water rights claims for an area are assembled and reviewed in order to assign a priority and an amount under applicable state laws. In many western states there are conflicting water rights claims that have resulted in the need for large-scale adjudications. Idaho is an example.

Winters doctrine - The *Winters* doctrine is based on *Winters vs. United States* (1908). The doctrine is that all federal lands had an implied water right that came into existence when federal land reservations were established by Congress and given management direction.

A wilderness water right would reserve primarily non-consumptive, instream, preservation-oriented flows necessary to maintain the wilderness attributes of an area. The flow needed to achieve this goal has yet to be determined and will obviously be site-specific. It has been suggested that subjective language in the Wilderness Act that defined wilderness (e.g., *generally, primarily, and substantially* free from man's influence) would accommodate some depletion of virgin flows (Leshy 1988).

Brown (1991) reviewed four studies that estimated water flow needed to maintain three water-related wilderness attributes: fisheries, recreation opportunities, and channel morphology. These studies found that from 30 to 100% of virgin flows were needed, varying with purpose, season, and site-specific physical characteristics. In most cases, complete virgin flows were not necessary to maintain those three attributes, however, other more subjective traits will also define wilderness instream flow needs (Brown 1991).

In headwater areas in the national forests, a wilderness water right would not be expected to generate many substantive conflicts with downstream consumptive users since water would not be consumed or diverted (Leshy 1988). However, on lowland BLM wilderness the potential for conflicts with water users upstream exists. These possible conflicts may be insignificant for four reasons: (1) the wilderness water right priority would be based on the date the area was designated, subject to state adjudication, and junior to existing rights, (2) no diversion or consumption of water would be reserved for wilderness, (3) flow depletion would be possible under evidence demonstrating that the areas wilderness attributes were not threatened, and (4) there may be no significant upstream uses associated with many BLM areas (Leshy 1988).

Threats to water users. There appear to be two situations in which wilderness water rights may pose a threat to water users. First, designating a wilderness right could limit

future upstream diversion, consumption, and groundwater pumping. Second, a proposed transfer of a senior water right involving an upstream diversion might be denied. Even though wilderness rights may be junior to upstream users, junior holders are protected from harmful actions by senior rights holders (Leshy 1988). In the future, water transfers from agricultural to municipal and industrial uses may become very important. In such instances, a dedicated reservation of water for a downstream wilderness may have a significant impact, at least locally.

According to Leshy (1988), opposition to wilderness water rights may stem from a variety of reasons: (1) a hostile reaction to perceived uncertainty associated with a sensitive issue, (2) displeasure with the idea of legal protection for wilderness in general, and (3) lack of information about the situation and a misunderstanding of the complexities of water law; for example, the tenets of the *Winters* doctrine (see Table 4), or that multiple appropriations are possible. We will not attempt to explain the legal complexities here; the other two reasons require no explanation.

Legislative and other alternative approaches.

The Nevada Wilderness Protection Act of 1989 and the Arizona Desert Wilderness Act of 1990 both reserved water rights for the designated wilderness areas. Both bills reserved a "*quantity [of water] necessary to fulfill the purposes of the wilderness*" areas. These two wilderness acts further directed the Secretaries to assert a claim for these rights in an appropriate stream adjudication under state authority.

Despite statements in each act that these statutes would not set a precedent, it seems likely that similar language will be adopted in future legislation. However, a Colorado wilderness bill proposed in 1992 did not specifically reserve water rights, but created management prescriptions for each area where water rights could be adjudicated under state law (*Public Lands News* 1992d). That bill failed to move before Congress adjourned in

1992, and the most recent version does not reserve a water right, but prohibits water developments in the designated national forest areas (*High Country News* 1993).

Brown (1991) suggested that instream flows for wilderness areas could be protected through the permitting process; i.e., permits for actions that would harm a wilderness could be denied. However, Brown added that a dedicated water right would be more secure. There are two general approaches to obtaining legal entitlement to instream flows for wilderness: (1) filing for a new water right, and (2) a transfer of existing rights (Brown 1991). Both approaches are within a state's authority, and subject to variations in procedures from state to state. The Colorado bill proposed in 1992 appears to have embodied the approach that states should ultimately decide wilderness water rights issues. But as previously noted, that bill was not passed prior to the adjournment of the 102nd Congress.

Congress has a number of other options for dealing with wilderness water rights. Colorado and Montana bills introduced in 1991 dealt with Forest Service lands by declaring that the wilderness areas were headwaters, and that the acts had no effect on the appropriation or adjudication of water under applicable state law (*Public Lands News* 1988b, 1991b). However, this option may not be available for BLM areas because they are more likely to be downstream of areas where water rights exist. Nor does this option appear to have much support in dealing with national forest areas. Another option for Congress is to limit water rights to some level below natural or virgin flows on a case-by-case basis (Leshy 1988). Still another option is not to address wilderness water rights at all.

Advantages and disadvantages. Reserving specific amounts of water for wilderness has both advantages and disadvantages. One advantage is that water rights would no longer be simply implied to be the minimum quantity of instream flow necessary to maintain the

wilderness character of an area. A disadvantage is that a congressional reserved right may not provide enough water to maintain the wilderness character of an area. Thus a major problem is deciding how much instream flow to reserve. Little research has been applied to this problem (Brown 1991). The review of methods by Merrill and O'Laughlin (1993) for quantifying instream flows to maintain recreation experiences may provide some ideas here.

Another problem could arise if reservations were made for some wilderness areas and not others. Congressional silence on water rights has been interpreted by the courts as an implied right for federal lands (i.e., the *Winters* doctrine, see Table 4). If Congress reserves water for some areas and not others, this could be interpreted as negating the implied *Winters* right for wilderness areas where water rights were not specifically reserved (Leshy 1988).

Leshy (1988) suggested that if a reserved water right is desirable, Congress should simply reserve all natural flows subject to valid existing rights under state law. This appears to be the course Congress is taking, but that has become even more nebulous by reserving the amounts needed to "fulfill the purposes of wilderness," as the Nevada and Arizona acts have done. Eventually these reservations will need to be quantified by the federal government through the state adjudication process (Leshy 1988).

Many western Senators have stated that the reservation of wilderness water rights sets a dangerous precedent that would ultimately lead to future conflicts. Some Congress members believe water rights are a state-level issue and should not be reserved in federal wilderness legislation (*Public Lands News* 1990a). Passage of the Arizona Desert Wilderness Act of 1990 was assured when both Arizona Senators agreed to water rights language. They both felt that Congress could reserve water for wilderness as long as it was adjudicated by state law (*Public Lands News* 1990b). This may be an appropriate stance for

other states to follow.

Conclusion on water rights. Given the current level of debate and uncertainty over wilderness water rights, two conclusions emerge from the literature. First, many wilderness areas need a certain amount of water to maintain certain wilderness attributes. Thus there are a variety of management-related reasons for the assertion of an instream flow right for wilderness (Leshy 1988, Brown 1991). Second, opponents of a wilderness water right should be required to demonstrate harm, which can then be dealt with on a case-by-case basis (Leshy 1988).

In conclusion, we add the commentary of law professor Coggins (1992), who said Congress is divided on the status of federal implied reserved water rights for wilderness areas. Thus Congress has not yet agreed upon any general solution, and will apparently deal with reserved water rights on a state-by-state basis. Coggins agreed with Leshy (1988) that "in the typical isolated wilderness areas at high elevations, facing no threat of upstream diversions, the issue is mostly academic." This situation certainly fits most national forest roadless areas in Idaho.

The water rights issue is significant because it deals with water, the lifeblood of the West. Idaho's water policy differs from other western states, and if there is a legitimate need for reserving an instream flow for recreational, scenic, scientific, educational, or conservation purposes in Idaho, there is a state-controlled process to protect that quantity of water as an instream flow (see Merrill and O'Laughlin 1993). The reservation of an instream flow for a wilderness, or any other area, is done at the discretion of the Idaho Water Resources Board and the Idaho legislature, and once reserved could be overturned if a new situation arose.

Also of considerable significance is that water rights are currently being adjudicated for the entire Snake River Basin in Idaho. Our interpretation is that actions concerning Idaho's national forest roadless areas need not be held

hostage by the wilderness water rights issue.

Multi-State Allocation and Ecosystem Management

A recent development in wilderness allocation is to approach the issue from an ecosystem management perspective. This is a significant concern because the U.S. Forest Service embraced the concept as its guiding principle for land management in June 1993. Applied to wilderness allocation on a grand scale, this may mean a regional, multi-state wilderness bill. The Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act introduced by Rep. Peter Kostmayer (D-PA) in 1992 was one such measure, but died as the 102nd Congress adjourned (*Public Lands News* 1992d). On a lesser scale, ecosystems may be contained within the boundaries of one state.

Multi-state approach. The regional or multi-state approach to wilderness designation seems unlikely to gain much political momentum in the near future because congressional delegations from the western states seem opposed to such a process. The U.S. Senate has had an informal standing agreement concerning wilderness legislation that if both senators from a state agree to a measure, the rest of the Senate will follow their lead (*Public Lands News* 1992b). Presumably, this understanding also works in reverse. As seen with the successful Nevada bill in 1989 and a more recent unsuccessful Montana bill, disagreement between two Senators from the same state essentially forfeits a committee hearing for an introduced wilderness bill until a consensus is reached (*Public Lands News* 1988a, 1990c). Additionally, a delegation from an affected state, united in opposition to a multi-state bill, would be difficult to overcome.

The recent history of designating wilderness in national forests state-by-state is well established, and with only Idaho and Montana left, currently leaves little room for the multi-state approach for national forest lands. The possibility of a Montana and Idaho

bill moving through Congress in tandem is as close to a multi-state approach as can be expected (*Public Lands News* 1993).

As BLM Wilderness Study Areas move to the forefront in Congress, most insiders are also predicting state-by-state allocations rather than a regional approach (*Public Lands News* 1990a). However, Congress may become tired of rehashing the same arguments and endorse a regional approach.

Many people feel a new approach may be needed because the state-by-state approach is outdated and failed to solve many of the issues associated with wilderness allocation. The new emphasis on managing federal lands under ecological principles, termed ecosystem management, may be a catalyst for a new approach.

Ecosystem approach. The ecosystem approach to wilderness allocation is not new. One of the alternatives in the EIS for RARE I back in the early 1970s was an ecological stratification of wilderness, representing an early attempt at an ecosystem approach that was rejected at the time (Butt 1973).

Both the Forest Service and BLM are now in the process of adopting ecosystem management policies. Conservation and scientific pursuits are two of the statutory purposes of wilderness as stated in the Wilderness Act (Section 4[d]). Both of these would support arguments for ecosystem protection as a legitimate purpose for designating wilderness areas.

Tied to ecosystem protection in the wilderness allocation context is the conservation of biodiversity, including the recovery of threatened and endangered species. Noss (1991b, 1992) has proposed a role for statutory wildernesses as core reserve areas, and that wilderness areas be surrounded by buffer areas allowing various degrees of use. Linkages among the core wilderness reserve areas is also a major consideration in Noss's approach.

Ecosystem management is a relatively new concept and some feel that it is premature to

apply it to some resource management issues, including wilderness allocation. According to a Society of American Foresters (1993a) draft report, the information base and analysis are currently inadequate to identify baselines of naturalness, sensitive areas, missing ecosystems, and candidate areas for additions to the Wilderness System. Funding for assessment research is needed to identify the cost and benefits of wilderness designation opportunities, and is very limited.

A Society of American Foresters Task Force (1993b) does not view the concept of ecosystem management as a rationale for wilderness, but as maintaining ecological and desired forest conditions within which the sustained yield of products to meet human needs are achieved. In contrast, the traditional sustained-yield forest management approach involves manipulating lands and resources to provide a sustained flow of specific products, constrained by adverse environmental impacts. The differences in these two approaches are subtle. The ecosystem management approach is different because it focuses on what is left behind after products are removed, rather than on the products themselves. This may or may not produce dramatically different results from traditional resource management, either in terms of sustainable economies or ecosystems.

On a broader scale, journalist Alston Chase (1986) contends that the National Park Service has been practicing ecosystem management since the late 1960s. Scientists Agee and Johnson (1988) offer even stronger arguments that National Parks have been managed as ecosystems. The principles and procedures of ecosystem management as applied to other public lands are developing rapidly (Turner and Gardner 1991, Scott et al. 1993). The ecosystem approach was recently applied in developing guidelines to conserve the northern spotted owl (Thomas et al. 1990, Murphy and Noon 1992) and is being applied elsewhere (Burditt 1993, Glick and Harting 1993, see also several articles in Tasse 1993).

A confounding factor in using an ecosystem management approach is that an

ecosystem is more of a concept than something that can be defined on the ground and have boundaries drawn around it. Ecosystems occur at various scales, and in hierarchies. The forest floor could be considered an ecosystem as could the forest canopy. A large rotting log on the forest floor could also be considered an ecosystem. It is common to refer to riparian ecosystems, forest ecosystems, alpine ecosystems, and even the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem.

Ecosystem management means managing ecological units, however defined, across landscapes. The result is a wide variety of ecosystems nestled within a landscape and within each other. From an ecosystem management perspective, the function and location of wilderness areas within a landscape are likely to be the emphasis of future wilderness allocation, much as Noss (1991a, 1991b, 1992) described them. The first step is to define the relevant ecological units, and that work is only beginning.

Wilderness Allocation Acreage

Perhaps the most significant conflict in wilderness debates since passage of the Wilderness Act of 1964 centers on the number of acres considered in wilderness allocations. This is a result of negotiating strategy and the human tendency to try to reduce complex issues to simple ones, in this case, numbers of acres. Initial proposals by wilderness advocates and resource-dependent industry interests often differ by millions of acres, as is the recent experience in Idaho.

Congress has consistently used acreage adjustments as compromise measures to advance bills. A classic example was the Texas Wilderness Act of 1984 that split down the middle a forest products industry-backed proposal for 9,000 acres of wilderness and a proposal by environmental groups for 65,000 acres. The result was roughly 34,000 acres of wilderness in 5 parcels (Cabbage et al. 1993.)

Also representative of acreage disputes, but in a different way, the RARE I process identified 56 million acres as suitable for

wilderness, whereas RARE II identified 62 million acres (Coggins 1992).

Wilderness advocacy groups are proposing that about 75% of the 9.4 million acres of roadless areas in the Idaho national forests be added to the Wilderness System. All other proposals recommended somewhere between 5% and 17% of the national forest roadless areas as wilderness. The BLM has proposed that 54% of the 1.8 million acres of Wilderness Study Areas the agency administers in Idaho be designated wilderness.

The size of wilderness proposals has been one of the last issues to be settled by Congress when recent wilderness legislation was considered. Release language and water rights conflicts often overshadow acreage debates once a bill starts moving. As noted previously, the fate of non-wilderness roadless areas is at the center of most wilderness allocation controversies.

Current national forest plans, as amended, anticipated that 57% of the roadless acreage in Idaho would remain so until the next phase of planning (Table 1). These estimates are probably incorrect. More roadless areas are likely to remain roadless because many forest plans are nearing the end of the first 10-15 year planning cycle and no RARE II or forest plan wilderness allocation has been made for Idaho. Lawsuits and appeals based on forest plan standards and guidelines have significantly delayed the ability of the Forest Service to build roads in roadless areas. We suggest that the issues of release, water rights, and certainty, as well as delays in implementing forest plans, combine to make acreage a moot point, at least during the initial stages of deliberations.

How large should the National Wilderness Preservation System be? Four percent of the land area in the United States is in the Wilderness System, which is about 14% of all federal lands. It might be useful to consider the question in the context of identifying additional ecosystems or ecoregions that are not adequately represented now. Conservation biologists are working to define adequate

representation. Eventually, it is possible that further additions to the Wilderness System would be unnecessary from this perspective. Noss (1991a) observed that 5% of the land area of the U.S. is in a protected status, and suggested that it be increased to 50%. Others have suggested that 10% of all land areas (Miller 1982) and each ecoregion (Wright et al. 1993) be in protected status.

Due to the preponderance of public lands in the western United States, 94% of the land in the Wilderness System is in 12 western states, including Alaska. If Alaska is excluded, this figure drops to 84%. These statistics suggest that further wilderness allocations should come from eastern states if ecological representativeness is considered a wilderness allocation criterion.

WHAT'S AT STAKE?

The fate of federal roadless areas could affect the future of Idaho in a big way because these lands represent 20% of the area of the state. Our analysis indicates that timber harvesting, grazing, water rights, recreation in its various forms—particularly outfitted and guided wilderness trips—and many other issues are all important. From the standpoint of economic values, however, timber supplies and opportunities for high-quality wilderness recreation may be the resources most at issue. But more than just economic values are at stake. Social impacts on communities and individual value preferences, especially concerning how public lands should be managed, are also important parts of the debate concerning Idaho's roadless areas.

Economic Values

The economy of the northern Rocky Mountain region is diversifying and moving away from its traditional dependence on resource extraction. Some people use this trend to argue for scaling back commodity-based industries in order to protect the quality of life that promotes growth in other industries.

Others focus on the economic role that extractive resource-based industries continue to play in the region. In Idaho, both types of industries and both perspectives are necessary.

A study of the economy of the Yellowstone region by the Wilderness Society (Rasker et al. 1991) and another of the Idaho economy by Thomas M. Power (1990)—Chairman of the Economics Department at the University of Montana—both suggest that these economies have moved away from domination by extractive resource-based industries (mining, forestry, and farming) and become much more diverse during the past two decades.

Power (1990) said the Idaho economy will always be natural resource-based, but economic activity has shifted from consumptive or extractive uses of natural resources to non-commodity uses. Expanding employment in Idaho, accompanied by income growth, has been due primarily to growth in service industries (business, medical, educational, and social services) and travel industries (lodging, dining, recreation, and entertainment). Although faster growth in other industries results in a smaller share of employment and labor income attributable to extractive resource-based industries, by definition these industries are also part of a diversified economy and the contribution they make and quality of jobs they offer should not be overlooked.

Idaho's forest products industry—logging, forestry services, lumber and wood products, and pulp, paper, and related products—added 3,700 jobs during the last two decades, employing 19,400 in 1991 after peaking at 22,700 in 1979. Compared to other states, Idaho has one of the largest forest products industries in relation to the overall state economy. Using percent of total labor income as a measure of relative dependency, Idaho in 1987-1991 ranked third among the fifty states, behind only Oregon and Maine (Keegan et al. 1992). During the same period, about 6 percent of Idaho's labor income was earned in the forest products industry (Keegan et al.

1992). In 1987, the forest products industry was responsible for 11.9% of Idaho's gross state product, a value-added measure of all economic activity in the state. Only agriculture (21%) and the food processing industry (14.9%) added more value to the Idaho economy (Robison et al. 1991).

The economic contributions from recreation and tourism are more difficult to assemble because of the way federal government statistics are compiled and reported. Keegan et al. (1992) used the non-residential travel industry to represent recreation and tourism in a comparative analysis of basic industries in Idaho. Basic industries are those which contribute to economic growth by attracting economic activity from outside the state. Comparisons of the employment and income contributions of Idaho's basic industries are presented in Figures 2 and 3.

Figure 2 compares employment during 1987-1991. Non-residential travel accounted for almost 18% of all the employment in Idaho's basic industries, second only to agriculture, with the forest products industry ranking fifth behind government in the number of people employed. Figure 3 compares labor income earned during 1987-1991 and by this measure, the relative positions of forest products and travel are reversed. The forest products industry was second to agriculture in labor income in basic industries. Non-residential travel ranked fifth behind government and food products in income earned (Keegan et al. 1992).

Analysis of the descriptive data in Figures 2 and 3 reveals that labor income per worker was higher in the forest products industry than in travel. Each forest products industry employee averaged \$38,000 of annual income, compared to \$12,700 for each non-residential travel worker (Keegan et al. 1992). One job in forest products is the labor income equivalent of three in the travel industry.

Community Impacts

What is the appropriate scale for analyzing

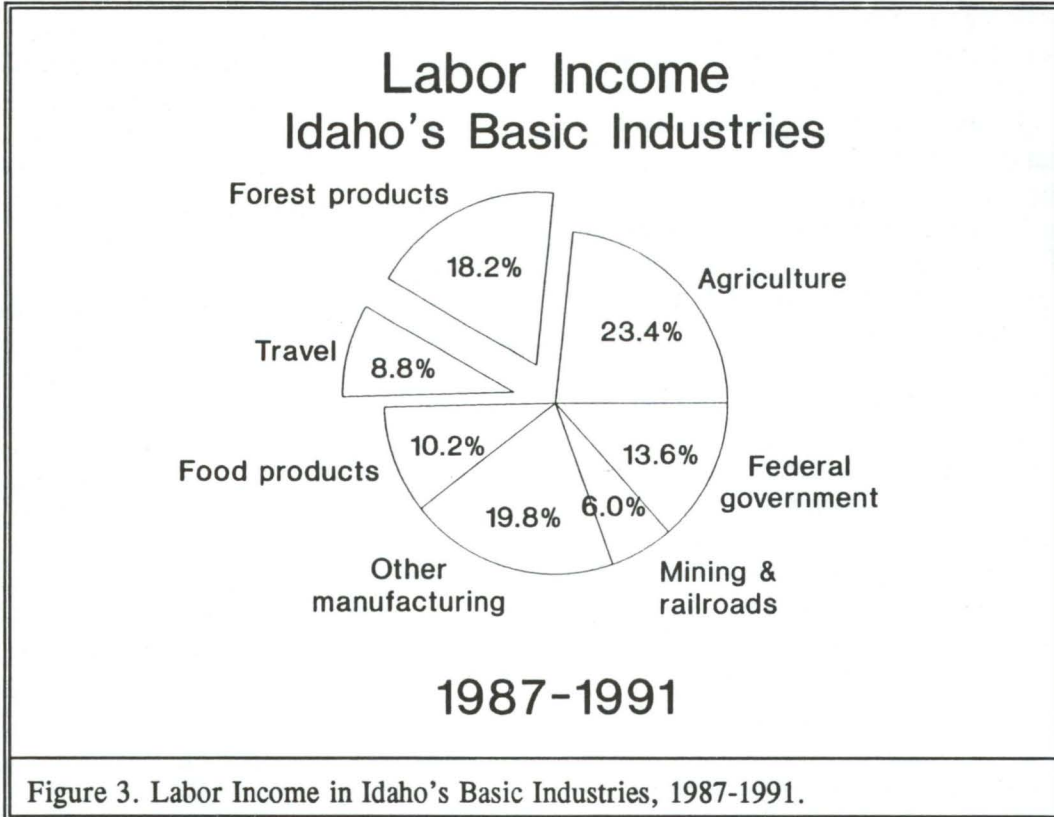
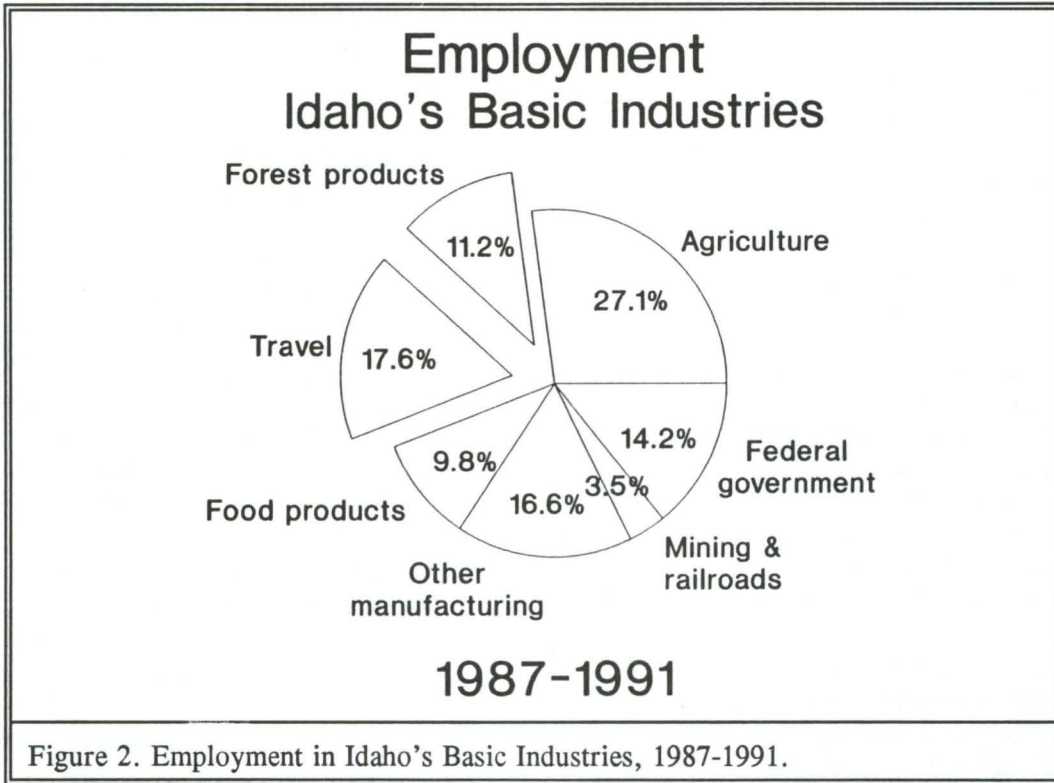
impacts of employment shifts? State-wide estimates of the role of a specific industry, such as those in the preceding section, do not address the localized personal and social upheaval in communities that can result from job losses in an industry.

The community level is also an appropriate scale for analysis. A state, after all, is the sum total of its communities. Many small communities in Idaho are almost completely dependent on extractive industries and always have been that way. A changing local economic base is accompanied by uncertainty and fear. However, some communities in Idaho, like McCall and Riggins, have been able to prosper after making the transition to non-commodity resource-based activity.

Timber dependency. Timber dependency is a local issue affecting many communities in north Idaho, where 44.5% of all economic activity in 1987 was timber-related, compared to 11.9% for the entire state (Robison et al. 1991). Extractive resource-based industries are notoriously unstable, experiencing boom and bust cycles throughout their history as a result of market forces. It seems unreasonable to say that roadless area issues in Idaho have much influence on these market fluctuations, but if timber from the national forests is unavailable, local communities will be affected in many ways.

Federal roadless areas are important to Idaho's future forest products industry because 28 percent of the timber that was to have come from the national forests during the first cycle of the forest plans was to have come from roadless areas. Responding to a request from Governor Cecil Andrus for analysis of how current issues are affecting timber flows from the national forests, the Forest Service had this to say about roadless areas (LaVere et al. 1991):

The controversy surrounding timber harvest in roadless areas is affecting all [national] forests, some significantly. Many forests have reached threshold levels in terms of harvesting timber in roaded areas and are



now having to more heavily depend upon harvesting timber in roadless areas. Due to the high level of controversy surrounding harvesting in roadless areas, much of this volume is at risk. Approximately 230 MMBF [million board feet] per year is expected to come from roadless areas (p.v).

[T]imber harvesting plans in these areas undergo severe scrutiny by the public... resulting in numerous appeals, threats of litigation, and [to meet NEPA] a significant increase in costs.

In summary, many believe that entering these roadless areas is critical to meeting objectives as identified in the Forest Plans. However, many other publics take exception with activities that may make areas unavailable for future considerations as Wilderness (p. 19).

Employment and other effects. Can other timber be substituted for national forest roadless timber? Based on national forest plans, as analyzed by LeVere et al. (1991), 230 million board feet of timber per year is to be provided from roadless areas. This represents roughly 15% of the 1.5 billion board feet of sawtimber processed by Idaho mills in 1990, when they ran at 90% of capacity (Keegan et al. 1992). Some might argue that the loss of jobs from not making this timber available could be absorbed temporarily by increasing the harvest of timber on other lands. This cannot continue for long, because the national forests now contain 75 percent of the timber in the state (Waddell 1992). In 1990, the national forests provided 43% of the timber processed in Idaho mills (Keegan et al. 1992). Taken together, these figures indicate that other timberlands are being cut more heavily than national forests. This disproportionate cutting of private lands likely is not sustainable, a statement supported by Forest Service analysts (LeVere et al. 1991). Overall, though, on a volume basis Idaho's forests are growing almost twice as much timber each year as is being removed to feed Idaho's mills (Waddell 1992).

Studies of the economic impacts of various wilderness proposals may be of some value in

addressing wilderness allocation questions in Idaho. But as the recent spotted owl controversy illustrates, estimates of economic impacts by different analysts would probably vary enough to thoroughly confuse the public. Nonetheless, such analyses might be helpful to policy makers.

Power (1992) analyzed the impact of the proposed Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act (see **Map 7**) on timber employment in Idaho. He concluded that extending wilderness protection to 88% of Idaho's national forest roadless areas, as defined in that bill, would directly cause the loss of 800 forest products industry jobs and another 800 indirectly related jobs. We applied data on the structure of the Montana forest products industry (Keegan et al. 1993) to Idaho and concur with the estimated loss of 800 forest products employees, and add that at least \$18 million in wages would also be lost.

Power (1992) said that the projected loss of 1,600 jobs from additional wilderness protection in Idaho are not net job losses, because these jobs would be "more than offset by ongoing expansion of the economy supported by these protected landscapes" (Power 1992). Following Power's (1990) analysis, one can assume that many of these new jobs would be service jobs, offering wage incomes less than the forest industry jobs lost. Diverse and prosperous rural communities in Idaho will need both types of jobs.

In addition to employment and income impacts from lost timber sales, the federal government returns 25% of the revenues from timber sales and other sources to counties, for the purposes of maintaining county roads and public schools. In 1991, this amounted to \$7.5 million for roads (Cooke and Dailey 1993) and \$3.5 million for schools, for a total of \$11 million. In Boise County, these federal revenue shares provided an average of 38% of road expenditures from 1983 to 1992, ranging from 9% to 55% per year.

The loss of 1,600 jobs is only a small proportion of all the jobs in Idaho, and seems

almost insignificant when expressed as 0.3% of all Idaho employment. Power (1992) said the state of Idaho will not face disastrous economic impacts if these jobs are lost. However, the loss of \$18 million per year in forest industry payrolls plus the 25% revenue shares from federal timber sales will impact many of Idaho's small rural communities.

Value Preferences

Wilderness allocation involves debate over deeply-held values. These value debates interject a degree of emotionalism into the roadless area situation that cannot be readily swayed by science, facts, or rational argument. Wilderness is both a symbol of and a means for achieving preservation-oriented goals in public land and resource management.

In this discussion of values, it needs to be said that some people are opposed to resource management in any form, and wilderness designation suits their purposes well. This is not to say that all who advocate additional wilderness oppose resource management, or that wilderness areas are not managed.

Some of the different resource management values may be reflected in the concept of ecosystem management. Interpretations of the concept are based on different values. Conservation biologists view ecosystem management at large scales, and define a role for wilderness as both core and connective areas for protecting biodiversity. This view provides a new rationale for additional wilderness, and proponents of this view may reject smaller scale concepts of ecosystem management. Resource managers view ecosystem management as a way to temper traditional multiple-use sustained-yield management with ecological principles.

Perhaps maintaining the quality of life in Idaho is a common bond among Idaho groups that hold different values about resource management. Idaho is a predominately rural state with few people and a traditional land ethic that seeks to maintain wildlife and their habitats; salmon, trout, and water quality; and an economy that includes resource-based

industries. That is the way Idaho has been since statehood, 103 years ago. But the allocation of Idaho roadless areas to the Wilderness System is a national issue, too.

WHERE TO GO FROM HERE?

Because of what is at stake, many people suggest that the roadless area situation needs to be resolved. There are many reasons why the issue persists. They were covered earlier in this report and we see no reason to summarize them here. Instead, we discuss the most likely approaches for dealing with Idaho's roadless areas.

There appear to be three alternative approaches to Idaho's roadless area dilemma: (1) rely on federal land management planning to resolve the issues, (2) develop an Idaho wilderness bill and attempt to move it through Congress, and (3) develop a regional or multi-state wilderness bill for consideration by Congress.

Federal Land Management Planning

In the context of this report, this is essentially the do-nothing alternative. It is therefore likely to be the most acceptable course of action for those interests opposed to the designation of any additional wilderness in Idaho.

Because FLPMA directs the BLM to manage Wilderness Study Areas in a manner that will not degrade their wilderness qualities, the do-nothing alternative may actually not be in the best interest of those opposing additional wilderness in Idaho. The BLM has recommended that about half of this acreage be added to the Wilderness System. Implementing those recommendations could result in release of other BLM Wilderness Study Areas to non-wilderness uses, subject to environmental laws and agency planning guidelines.

Do nothing may be a reasonable alternative for the forest products industry, because the Panhandle National Forest Plan has been judged to be adequate in determining

which roadless areas should be wilderness or non-wilderness (see *Idaho Conservation League vs. Mumma* 1992). It is not the wilderness qualities of roadless areas that prevent the Forest Service from completing timber sales, but compliance with environmental laws and standards and guidelines in national forest plans.

The problem for wilderness advocates is the possible development of Forest Service roadless areas they believe should be designated as wilderness. Whether or not the NFMA planning process is consciously chosen as the best alternative, that process will proceed unless Congress changes it. Participants in the next round of national forest planning will have to pay careful attention to roadless areas because they are currently expected to play an important role in providing timber for Idaho's forest products industry. However, the amount of timber on those lands and the constraints imposed by environmental laws and forest plan standards and guidelines in obtaining that timber have not been adequately assessed. But the process for allowing entry into roadless areas for extracting timber has been established as part of the planning process.

There are many reasons why the existing national forest plans are being challenged, including ineffective public participation, distrust of agency resource management practices, and the agency's ability to meet the requirements of NEPA, NFMA, and forest plan standards and guidelines while trying to deliver the allowable sale quantity (ASQ) of timber. Brown et al. (1993) identified a key problem with the forest planning process as its failure to accurately estimate the quantity of available timber. They suggested that the ASQ has become the central focus of forest planning, and that the ASQ should be adjusted as necessary to account for the other values of national forest lands as new information from resource inventories and environmental monitoring becomes available. The point is that an effective national forest plan should accurately reflect how much timber will be

made available during the planning period.

Idaho forest plans raise many unanswered questions about timber availability, and create uncertainty. In response to a request from Governor Andrus, the Forest Service identified ten issues affecting timber availability in Idaho (see LeVere et al. 1991). Prominent among the issues is the Roadless vs. Roadless lands question. Roadless area considerations were also mentioned specifically as a complicating factor in three other issues: (1) Increasing Costs of Preparing Environmental Documents, (2) Water Quality/Fish Habitat Quality, and (3) Non-Interchangeable Components (NIC's), a technical planning issue where roadless areas are included as part of the suitable timber base.

It appears to affected parties that forest plans provide no guarantees regarding the fate of roadless areas. A method to make forest plans legally binding for a specified period would insure both sufficiency and certainty, and may bring more meaningful negotiations to the planning process. This could only be accomplished legislatively by modifying NFMA. However, there are problems associated with this suggestion. National forest planning is done at relatively large scales and rather imprecisely. For example, there is some evidence in Idaho that timber resources identified in the plans may not actually exist on the ground. Also, execution of the plans is dependent on Forest Service budgets, which are currently being reduced for timber sale preparation, and is then constrained by the natural characteristics of specific areas. National forest plans, if made legally binding, could become the domain of either Congress or the President's Office of Management and Budget, neither of which has the complement of resource management professionals the Forest Service does.

Relying on the planning process to solve the problem may be too slow and too costly for some. History suggests that this approach will continue to involve appeals and lawsuits to settle disputes.

Idaho Wilderness Bill

The second alternative approach for deciding the fate of roadless areas is to attempt to pass an Idaho wilderness act. This is the course that Idaho's congressional delegation is pursuing in 1993. The content of this report analyzes the complexities and the issues involved in pursuing this approach. There is no need to reiterate or summarize those many issues in this section, other than to say we hope this report will be helpful to those involved with ongoing deliberations.

Regional or Multi-State Wilderness Bill

The third alternative would be to allocate additional wilderness in Idaho through what may be variously called the regional, multi-state, ecosystem, or ecoregion approach. The perceived loss of control and consideration of issues unique to Idaho associated with this approach will be opposed by many, but this does not have to be the case. Idaho's congressional delegation can probably assure defeat of any regional measure that does not meet with their approval.

To make the most efficient allocation of roadless lands to wilderness and non-wilderness classifications under this approach, local considerations must be included and the best data and science available should be brought to the table, particularly if concepts of biodiversity, landscape ecology, and connectivity of protected land areas have a role in developing a proposal.

If one is willing to assume that Congress might pass state bills for Idaho and Montana in the near future, it is conceivable that shortly thereafter Congress would seriously consider an ecoregion approach involving Idaho, Montana, and other adjacent states in an attempt to provide connectivity among the various separated wilderness areas by adding protected corridors of wilderness between them.

Such a regional or large-scale landscape approach to wilderness allocation will not resolve issues affecting the fate of non-wilderness roadless lands (i.e., release or

certainty) or wilderness water rights. It is possible, however, that relatively small additions to the Wilderness System will conserve biodiversity effectively and efficiently and maintain landscape connectivity.

CONCLUSION

It seems clear that the roadless area situation and wilderness allocation issue in Idaho is unlikely to be resolved or settled once and for all. The Colorado experience provides an example. Although Congress passed a RARE II wilderness bill for Colorado in 1980, remaining Colorado roadless areas are once again the focus of current legislation (*Public Lands News* 1993).

In the past, the public has been led to believe that legislation under consideration at that time would solve the issue. The continuing debate and controversy is frustrating for some. Even if Congress were to pass an Idaho bill dealing with Forest Service lands during the current session, the disposition of BLM Wilderness Study Areas would soon follow, raising many of the same issues once again.

The federal land management planning process will remain important, whether or not any roadless areas in Idaho are added to the Wilderness System as a result of current activities. The Forest Service and BLM are required to revise their land and resource management plans at specified intervals of 10-15 years. With each plan revision, areas that remain roadless will once again be considered for wilderness recommendation by the agencies. Because of these legally mandated planning cycles, the wilderness debate will surface time after time. Furthermore, roadless lands will probably not be developed at such a pace that none will exist for consideration in future planning cycles.

Although many people feel that resolution of the roadless area issue is in the best interests of Idahoans, a final resolution seems to be an unlikely expectation. Nevertheless,

some people feel that the time has come to close the curtain across the wilderness allocation stage and provide a more certain future for resource-dependent industries while establishing sustainable economies and maintaining functional and sustainable ecosystems in Idaho and throughout the West.

In the absence of public consensus, there is no compelling reason why Congress must designate more wilderness in Idaho. However, most participants in the Idaho wilderness negotiations desired a solution to the issue, which could be interpreted as a consensus. They just couldn't decide how to do it.

Environmental laws and land-use planning procedures can be used to safeguard fragile areas and other lands without designating them as wilderness. But there are undoubtedly certain areas with special wilderness characteristics that perhaps should be added to the Wilderness System. We have identified 732,062 acres of national forest lands for which there seems to be little argument against wilderness designation (see **Map 8** or the color map on the back cover of the report, and Table 5 in the Appendix for a list of these 18

areas.)

As long as federal roadless areas exist, the wilderness allocation issue will continue to be important. In the unlikely future event that all federal lands are either developed or designated as wilderness, there still exists the possibility that developed areas could be reclaimed as wilderness, as they have been under the Eastern Wilderness Act of 1975, and this could become an issue at some future date. As agencies implement ecosystem management, in part to conserve biological diversity, there is little doubt that Idaho roadless and wilderness areas will be featured in future land-use debates. These new land management concerns have the potential to expand the Idaho wilderness debate to larger geographical scales. Wilderness is a national issue as well as a state-wide and regional one. As federal agencies expand the perspective of their management programs from timber stands and grazing allotments to landscapes and ecosystems, the national viewpoint will play an even greater role than it does currently. Wilderness allocation therefore is always likely to be an important natural resource issue in Idaho.

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STATUTES CITED

(Note: P.L. = Public Law Number)

Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act of 1960 (P.L. 86-517)

Wilderness Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-577)

National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (P.L. 91-190)

Eastern Wilderness Act of 1975 (P.L. 93-622)

Hells Canyon National Recreation Area Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-199)

Federal Lands Policy and Management Act of 1976 (P.L. 94-579)

National Forest Management Act of 1976 (P.L. 94-588)

Endangered American Wilderness Act of 1978 (P.L. 95-237)

Central Idaho Wilderness Act of 1980 (P.L. 96-312)

Colorado Wilderness Act of 1980 (P.L. 96-560)

California Wilderness Act of 1984 (P.L. 98-425)

Oregon Wilderness Act of 1984 (P.L. 98-328)

Texas Wilderness Act of 1984 (P.L. 98-574)

Nevada Wilderness Protection Act of 1989 (P.L. 101-195)

Arizona Desert Wilderness Act of 1990 (P.L. 101-628)

Smith River National Recreation Area Act of 1990 (P.L. 101-612)

CASE LAW CITED

California vs. Bergland, 483 F. Supp. (E.D. Cal. 1980)

California vs. Block, 690 F.2d 753 (9th Cir. 1982)

Idaho Conservation League vs. Mumma, 956 F.2d 1508 (9th Cir. 1992)

Sierra Club vs. Yeutter, 914 F.2d 1405 (10th Cir. 1990)

Winters vs. United States, 207 U.S. 564 (1908)

APPENDIX: AREAS OF AGREEMENT

This appendix is designed to assist with the interpretation of the color map on the back cover. The map (also in black and white as **Map 8**) displays areas of agreement among the U.S. Forest Service recommendations for 1.3 million acres of wilderness (**Map 4**), the McClure-Andrus proposal (**Map 5**) for approximately 1.5 million acres, and the Idaho Conservation League proposal (**Map 6**) for more than 5 million acres of wilderness.

In this area of agreement analysis we did not include the Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act (NREPA) proposal (**Map 7**) because the figures we had were rudimentary and did not accurately represent the proposal. This decision on our part is in no way intended to suggest that NREPA is not a serious and viable alternative.

Table 5, included in this Appendix, lists by name the roadless areas recommended by each of the three proposals we mapped. As a matter of convenience, the names are those used in the Idaho Conservation League proposal, which are generally accepted names for the areas. Because Table 5 is arranged by each national forest, we also included a display of forest boundaries in **Map 12**. Some of the roadless areas listed in Table 5 cross the boundaries of adjacent national forests. In some cases the area is listed in the forest containing the largest amount of the roadless area. In some other cases, identified as footnotes at the end of Table 5, the roadless acreage was split between two national forests.

The acreage figures listed in Table 5 were obtained using the Geographic Information System mentioned in the **Acknowledgements**

section (see page *i*). The GIS coverage was put together from many sources. Different sources used different map projections which we attempted to standardize. Thus the acreage figures reported here differ from those reported by the U.S. Forest Service in Table 1 and by other organizations, but they are reasonably close to the most commonly reported figures.

Some of the discrepancy in reported acreage results from technical problems related to different map projections on the source maps used to create the GIS coverage. The most significant factor in the lack of consistency between our GIS acreages and those of the Forest Service derives from the fact that, with the exception of the Idaho Conservation League's wilderness proposal, each layer of the GIS had to be constructed from multiple sources. Because the source maps did not always agree, accuracy was lost in adjusting boundaries to what we judged as the most reliable common boundary. The boundaries shown on source maps, again with the exception of the ICL proposal, were very wide lines. Wide boundary lines are hard to accurately interpret from paper to digital form, where a line has no width. We attempted to insure that the boundaries shown in our GIS coverage adequately represent each proposal. We are confident that the GIS database we developed is adequate to generally describe the various proposals. The figures that we use are proportionately accurate. Our GIS database is not detailed enough, nor was it intended to be used, for determining the exact boundary of a specific area.

Appendix: Areas of Agreement

Table 5. National Forest Roadless Areas in Idaho Recommended as Wilderness by Various Proposals, with Areas of Agreement.				
National Forests Roadless Areas	Wilderness Recommendations			Area of Agreement (back cover) (Map 8)
	Idaho Conservation League (Map 6)	National Forest Plans (Map 4)	McClure- Andrus (Map 5)	
Panhandle NF				
Selkirk Crest	52,620	32,677	0	0
Long Canyon	26,497	0	0	0
Subtotal	79,116	32,677	57,631	24,485
Salmo-Priest	32,452	17,497	16,499	12,021
Boulder-Katka	10,598	0	0	0
Boulder-Katka	12,671	0	0	0
Scotchman Peaks	20,900	15,876	11,755	11,359
Grandmother Mountain	41,837	0	0	0
Mallard-Larkins ¹	130,611	74,942	79,056	35,093
Total	328,185	140,992	164,940	82,959
Clearwater NF				
Unnamed area	39,450	0	0	0
Great Burn	137,506	106,033	72,768	44,577
Moose Mountain	18,436	0	0	0
Pot Mountain	37,685	0	0	0
Weitas Creek	164,848	0	64,560	0
Unnamed area	78,153	0	0	0
Elk Summit	61,011	15,582	0	0
White Sand	0	4,979	0	0
Unnamed area	0	4,371	0	0
Weir Creek	11,589	0	0	0
Lochsa Face	52,558	0	0	0
Lewis and Clark	50,282	0	0	0
Mallard-Larkins ¹	130,611	74,942	79,056	35,093
Total	782,130	205,907	216,384	79,670
Nez Perce NF				
Meadow Creek	206,254	0	0	0
Total	206,254	0	0	0

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Table 5. National Forest Roadless Areas in Idaho Recommended as Wilderness by Various Proposals, with Areas of Agreement.				
National Forests Roadless Areas	Wilderness Recommendations			Area of Agreement (back cover) (Map 8)
	Idaho Conservation League (Map 6)	National Forest Plans (Map 4)	McClure- Andrus (Map 5)	
Payette NF				
French Creek/	162,567	0	0	0
Patrick Butte	44,389	0	0	0
Rapid River	55,773	0	0	0
Hells Canyon Addition	10,005	0	0	0
Secesh	250,320	124,264	170,180	108,946
Needles	188,162	103,414	82,344	72,146
Caton Lake	<u>99,890</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>
Total	811,106	227,678	252,524	181,092
Boise NF				
Snowbank Mountain	30,524	0	10,813	0
Peace Rock	162,960	0	0	0
Deadwood River	38,955	0	0	0
Sawtooth Completion	139,100	84,192	114,180	69,462
Trinities	134,894	0	0	0
Trinities	29,822	0	0	0
Danskin/So. Fork Boise R.	29,805	0	0	0
Red Mountain	110,441	89,831	68,133	45,669
Hanson Lakes ²	(see <u>Sawtooth</u>)	<u>16,208</u>	(see <u>Sawtooth</u>)	(see <u>Sawtooth</u>)
Total	676,503	190,231	193,126	115,131
Sawtooth NF				
Smoky Mountains	297,004	0	0	0
Lime Creek	105,828	0	0	0
Cache Peak	40,616	0	0	0
Hanson Lakes ²	48,684	16,208	38,735	16,912
Boulder/White Cloud Mtns. ³	526,182	190,350	81,684	76,072
Pioneer Mountains ⁴	(see <u>Challis</u>)	<u>66,358</u>	(see <u>Challis</u>)	(see <u>Challis</u>)
Total	755,223	272,916	120,419	92,984
Salmon NF				
Wild Allan Mountains	50,905	0	0	0
Anderson Mountain	15,854	0	0	0
West Bigholes	72,751	0	0	0
No. Lemhi Mountains	<u>316,352</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>
Total	455,862	0	0	0

Appendix: Areas of Agreement

Table 5. National Forest Roadless Areas in Idaho Recommended as Wilderness by Various Proposals, with Areas of Agreement.

National Forests Roadless Areas	Wilderness Recommendations			Area of Agreement (back cover) (Map 8)
	Idaho Conservation League (Map 6)	National Forest Plans (Map 4)	McClure- Andrus (Map 5)	
Challis NF				
Borah Peak	143,155	116,500	52,795	49,213
Pahsimeroi	81,491	0	0	0
King Mountain	76,211	0	0	0
Diamond Peak	179,182	0	0	0
Boulder/White Cloud Mtns. ³	(see Sawtooth)	40,020	(see Sawtooth)	(see Sawtooth)
Pioneer Mountains ⁴	<u>207,334</u>	<u>48,000</u>	<u>114,180</u>	<u>62,099</u>
Total	950,464	204,520	207,817	111,312
Targhee NF				
Lionhead	18,048	15,014	13,870	11,599
Italian Peaks	97,244	57,742	58,773	48,871
Centennial Mountains	92,450	0	0	0
Garfield Mountain	40,062	0	0	0
Winegar Hole	3,398	3,588	3,047	1,260
Garns Mountain	87,207	0	0	0
Palisades	<u>131,413</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>48,138</u>	<u>0</u>
Total	469,821	76,344	123,827	61,731
Caribou NF				
Bear Creek	102,490	0	83,972	0
Poker Peak	13,586	0	20,297	0
Caribou Mountain	74,053	0	0	0
Stump Creek	<u>75,022</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>
Total	265,151	0	104,269	0
Wasatch-Cache NF⁵				
Cache Crest	24,994	17,705	0	0
Mt. Naomi	<u>18,701</u>	<u>15,523</u>	<u>20,156</u>	<u>7,183</u>
Total	43,695	33,228	20,156	7,183
Grand Total	5,744,392	1,351,816	1,362,621	732,062

Note: Totals may not add due to rounding.

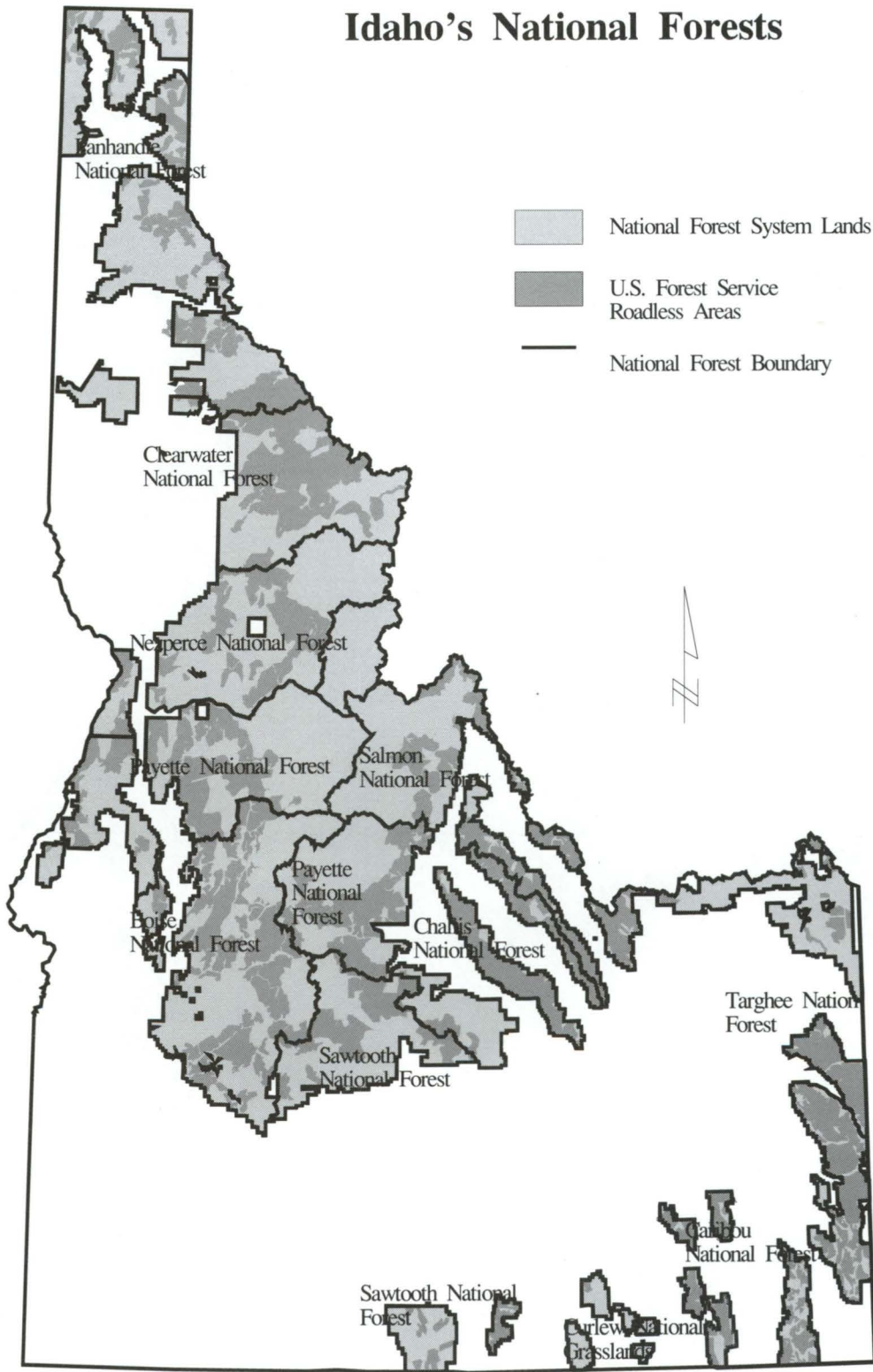
¹ Mallard-Larkins area is split between the Panhandle and Clearwater National Forests.

² Hanson Lakes area is split between the Boise and Sawtooth National Forests.

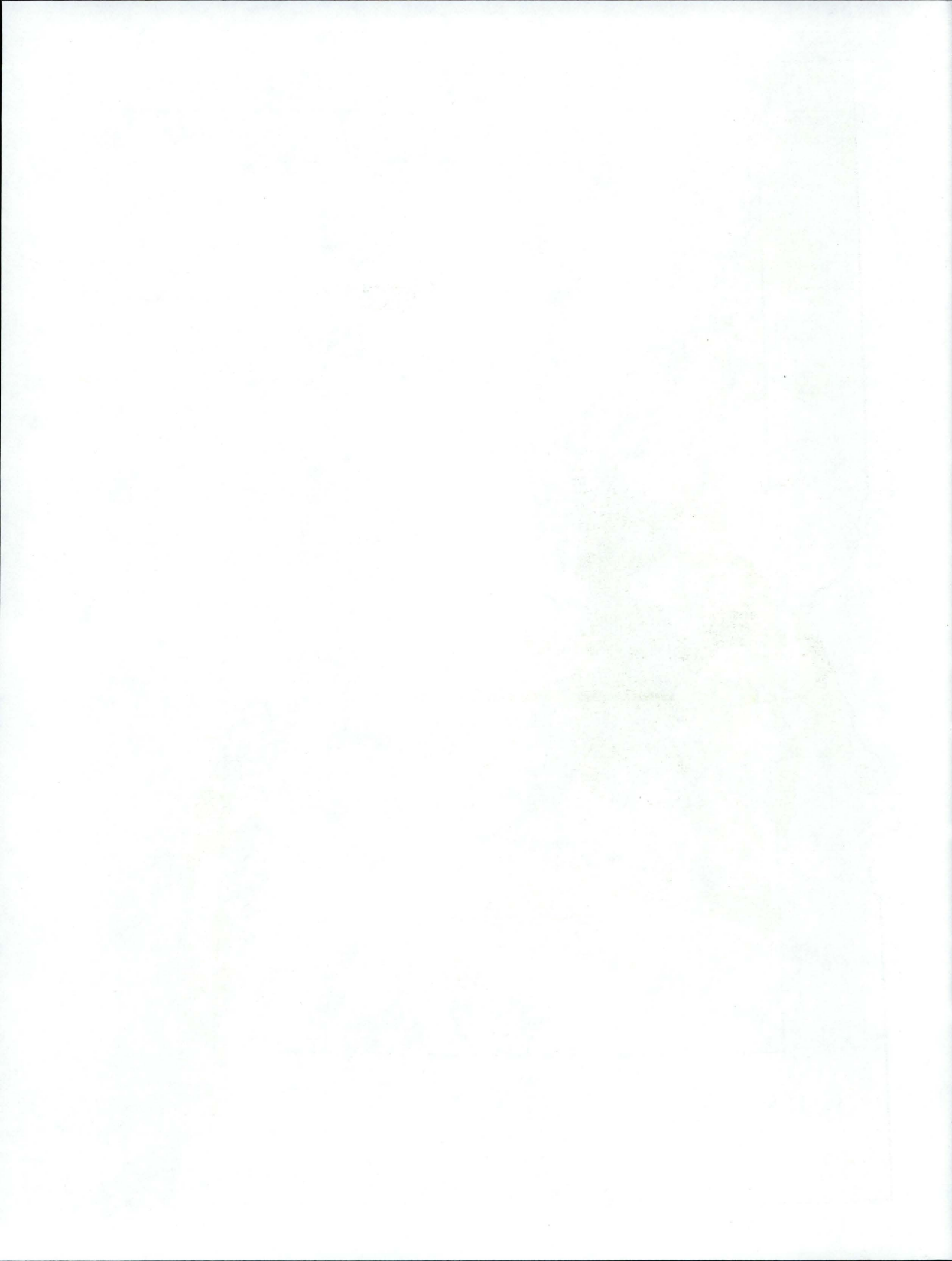
³ Boulder/White Cloud Mountains area is split between the Sawtooth and Challis National Forests.

⁴ Pioneer Mountains area is split between the Sawtooth and Challis National Forests.

⁵ Wasatch-Cache National Forest portion in Idaho is administered by the Caribou National Forest.

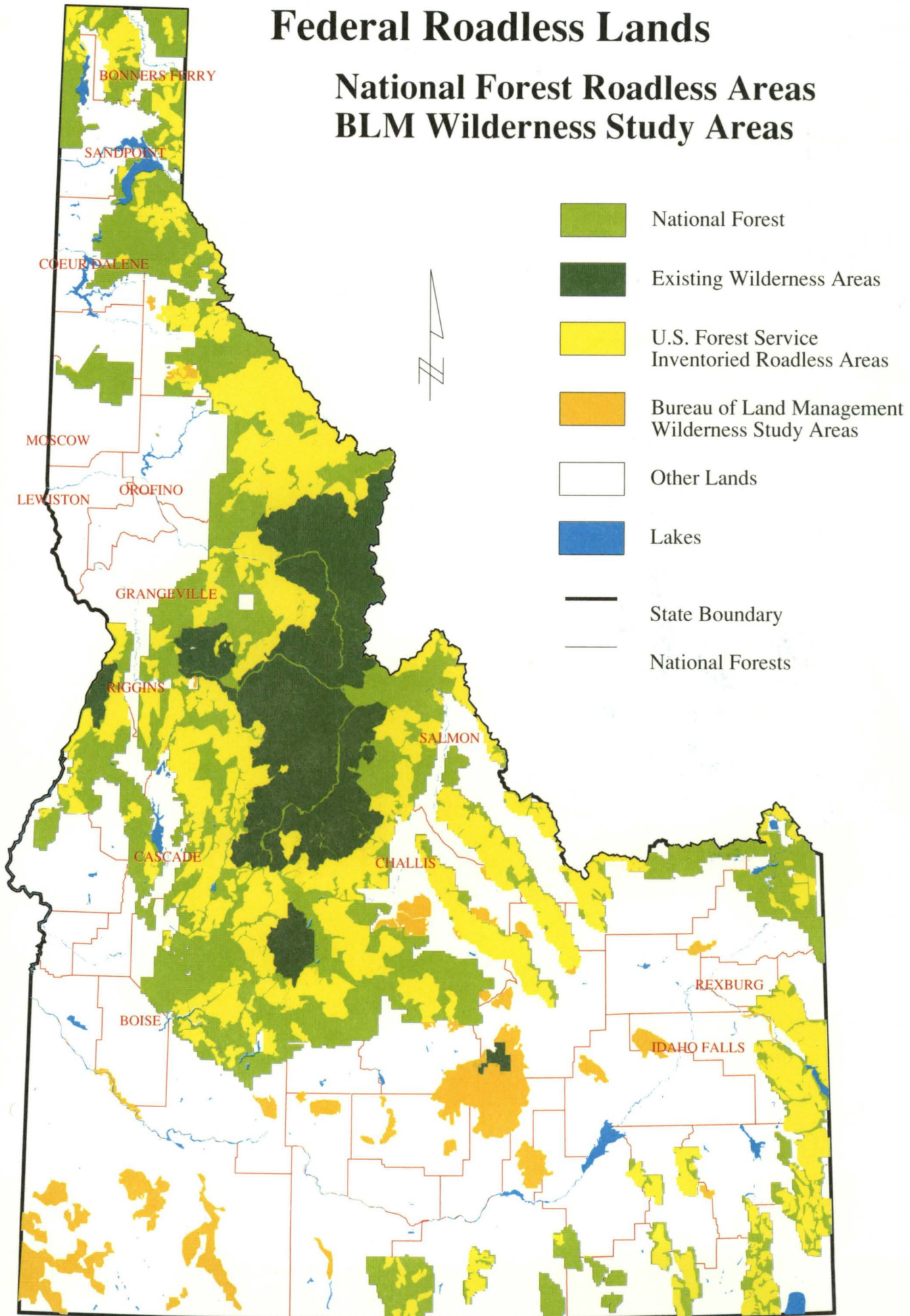


Map 12. National Forests in Idaho.

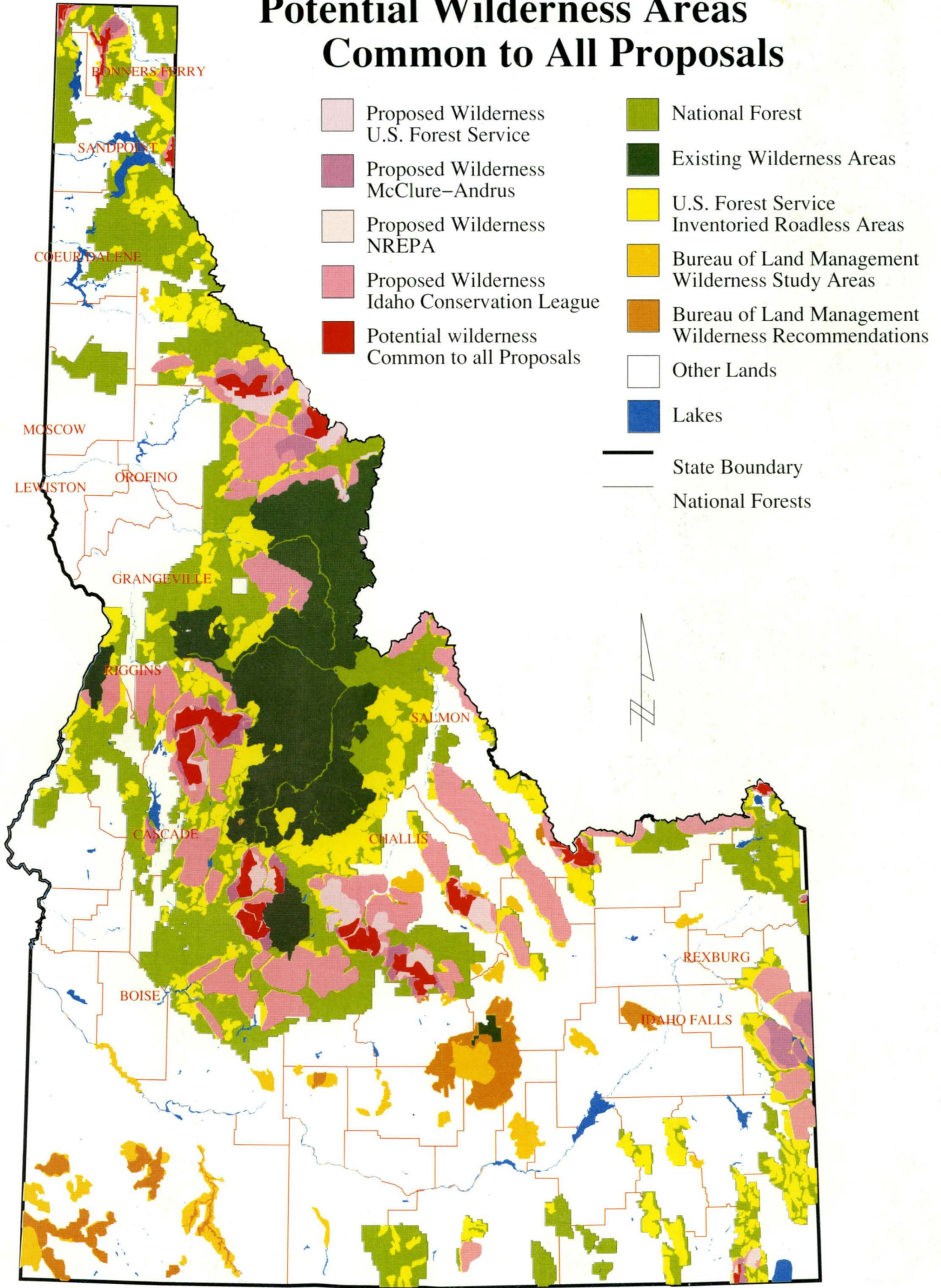


Federal Roadless Lands

National Forest Roadless Areas BLM Wilderness Study Areas



Potential Wilderness Areas Common to All Proposals



COMMON AREAS TOTAL APPROXIMATELY 732,062 ACRES