SNOWMOBILE BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES FOR FOREST SERVICE TRAVEL PLANNING

A COMPREHENSIVE LITERATURE REVIEW AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

DECEMBER 2014

WINTER WILDLANDS ALLIANCE

Winter Wildlands Alliance is a national nonprofit organization promoting and preserving winter wildlands and a quality human-powered snowsports experience on public lands.

Online: winterwildlands.org/what-we-do/policy-advocacy/

TABLE OF CONTENTS

AUTHOR

Adam Switalski

1301 Scott St. Ste C

Missoula, MT 59802

inroadsnw@gmail.com

InRoads Consulting, LLC

One Stop Forest Road Management

FOR MORE INFORMATION CONTACT:

Winter Wildlands Alliance

910 Main St. Ste 235

Boise, ID 83702

info@winterwildlands.org

208.336.4203

WINTER WILDLANDS ALLIANCE

INTRODUCTION

Winter backcountry recreation is a popular and steadily growing activity on Forest Service lands. Undeveloped skiing (including backcountry skiing, cross country skiing, and snowshoeing) is projected to be one of the five fastest growing activities on Forest Service lands in the next 50 years (Figure 1). In one scenario, the number of participants in undeveloped skiing is predicted to double - reaching 16 million participants by 2060 (Cordell 2012). Motorized snow activities are forecasted to grow as well, albeit at a slower rate. Overall, more than 20 million people participate in some form of backcountry winter recreation on National Forest lands each year (Cordell 2012).

Snowmobilers and skiers often seek out the same winter backcountry setting and look for similar experiences such as solitude, fun, and the enjoyment of the natural beauty of the mountains. But as motorized and non-motorized winter recreation grows on Forest Service lands, so does the potential for conflicts between the two user groups and impacts on natural resources. In terms of recreation opportunity, snowmobile use adversely impacts the recreation experience sought by many nonmotorized users, while the reverse is rarely true. Motorized recreation will displace nonmotorized users where use is heavy. This has occurred numerous places. Where displacement does not occur because of the high level of demand for a particular area or a lower density of snowmobile use, conflicts among users still arise, and can be substantial.

Additionally, advancements in technology and changes in use patterns among both user groups have increased the need for proactive management. While in the early years, snowmobiles were relatively slow and were limited to groomed trails, today's snowmobiles can go off-trail and up very steep slopes. "High marking" steep alpine bowls is now a popular riding technique, and modified motorcycles with a tread and ski allow riders to negotiate even heavily wooded areas. Backcountry skiers and snowboarders have also seen their sport evolve through technological changes in gear - making it easier for skiers and snowshoers to climb and descend mountains in the heart of the winter, and accelerating the trend of increased user participation and demand.

These advancements and changes in use patterns have led to increased use conflict and impacts to natural resources. Snowmobiles can create a number of impacts to wildlife which can result in fitness costs, fragmentation, and potential population declines (Gaines et al. 2003). Water quality, vegetation, and soils can also be greatly affected – especially in more sensitive alpine environments. Hundreds of research papers and monitoring reports have quantified these impacts and have been summarized in a number of recent literature reviews (e.g., Stokowski and LaPointe 2000, Gaines et al. 2003, Baker and Bithmann 2005, Davenport and Switalski 2006, Ouren et al. 2007, USDI NPS 2011, WWA 2014).

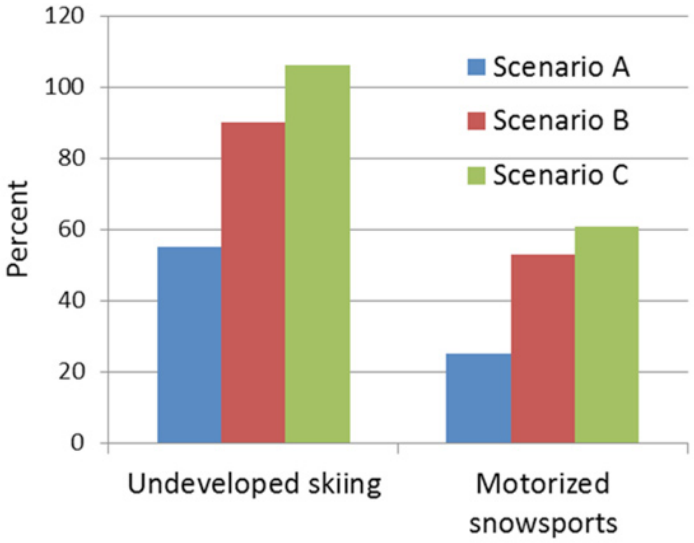

Figure 1: Percent growth in projected number of participants in undeveloped skiing and motorized snowsports on Forest Service lands in three model scenarios, 2008-2060 (adapted from Cordell 2012).

SNOWMOBILE MANAGEMENT

In recent years, the Forest Service has identified "unmanaged recreation" as one of the four threats to the health of National Forests (Bosworth 2003). On most forests, snowmobile recreation opportunities were never formally planned, but resulted from a default policy of allowing motorized use - including in many places where snowmobiling could not actually occur because of limitations in technology - in the absence of a specific reason to close or restrict it. As a result, more than 70 percent or 81 million acres in the western snowbelt forests are open to potential snowmobile use (Rivers and Menlove 2006, Figure 2). While skiers (including cross country, backcountry, and snowshoers) outnumber snowmobiles on National Forest System Lands (USDA FS 2014a), significantly more acreage and trail miles are available for winter motorized recreation than are designated for non-motorized recreation (Rivers and Menlove 2006, Figure 2). Of the thirty percent or 35 million acres closed to snowmobiles two-thirds are in Wilderness areas where all motorized use is legally prohibited, but where human-powered winter recreation opportunities are often difficult or impossible to access. Furthermore, many of the existing trailheads are weighted towards snowmobile recreation. The legacy of this unplanned "allocation" is widespread 'open' allocations for winter motorized use that is often not based on historical use patterns or any specific rationale, and displacement

[1] In this document, snowmobile and motorized use are used interchangeably, however, the Forest Service will also use over-snow vehicle (OSV). Skiing and non-motorized use are also used interchangeably and include backcountry skiing and snowboarding, as well as cross country skiing and snowshoeing. Snowmobile area and play area are also used interchangeably and are referring to an area on a forest which permits unrestricted snowmobile travel.

of non-motorized users has occurred as snowmobiles, aided by technology, expand their reach (e.g., Stokowski and LaPointe 2000, Manning and Valliere 2001, Adams and McCool 201). Revisiting the disparity of this allocation is critical to addressing recreational use conflict (Adams and McCool 2010).

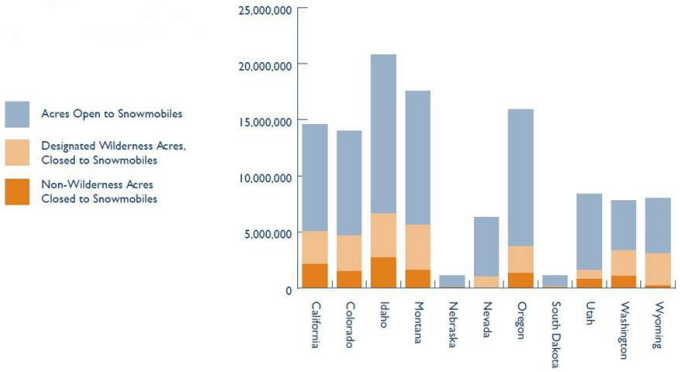

Figure 2: Acres open and closed to snowmobiles on National Forests in the western snowbelt region (reprinted from Rivers and Menlove 2006)

MAIN AUTHORITIES GOVERNING THE MANAGEMENT OF SNOWMOBILES IN THE NATIONAL FOREST SYSTEM

In the early 1970s, management of snowmobiles and other motorized uses on public lands was inconsistent. However, after a series of ecological research findings and an increasing need for conflict management, President Nixon signed Executive Order 11644 on February 8, 1972. This order charged federal land managers with developing and issuing regulations to manage off-road vehicles, including snowmobiles, specifically to minimize damage to natural resources and minimize conflicts between motorized and non-motorized communities. The Executive Order continues to be the legal authority guiding off-road vehicle designations on public lands.

Executive Order 11644:

Section 3. Zones of use. (a) Each respective agency head shall develop and issue regulations and administrative instructions, within six months of the date of this order, to provide for administrative designation ofthe specific areas and trails on public lands on which the use of off-road vehicles may be permitted, and areas in which the use of off-road vehicles may not be permitted, and set a date by which such designation of all public lands shall be completed. Those regulations shall direct that the designation of such areas and trails will be based upon the protection of the resources of the public lands, promotion of the safety of all users of those lands, and minimization of conflicts among the various uses of those lands. The regulations shall further require that the designation of such areas and trails shall be in accordance with the following—

(1) Areas and trails shall be located to minimize damage to soil, watershed, vegetation, or other resources of the public lands.

(2) Areas and trails shall be located to minimize harassment of wildlife or significant disruption of wildlife habitats.

(3) Areas and trails shall be located to minimize conflicts between off-road vehicle use and other existing or proposed recreational uses of the same or neighboring public lands, and to ensure the compatibility of such uses with existing conditions in populated areas, taking into account noise and other factors.

(4) Areas and trails shall not be located in officially designated Wilderness Areas or Primitive Areas. Areas and trails shall be located in areas of the National Park system, Natural Areas, or National Wildlife Refuges and Game Ranges only if the respective agency head determines that off-road vehicle use in such locations will not adversely affect their natural, aesthetic, or scenic values.

In 1977, President Carter signed Executive Order 11989, which amended and strengthened EO 11644 by giving federal public land managers the authority to close a motorized route or area if it "will cause or is causing considerable adverse effects" to natural resources:

Executive Order 11989:

Section 9. Special Protection of the Public Lands. (a) Notwithstanding the provisions of Section 3 of this Order, the respective agency head shall, whenever he

determines that the use of off-road vehicles will cause or is causing considerable adverse effects on the soil, vegetation, wildlife, wildlife habitat or cultural or historic resources of particular areas or trails of the public lands, immediately close such areas or trails to the type of off-road vehicle causing such effects, until such time as he determines that such adverse effects have been eliminated and that measures have been implemented to prevent future recurrence.

(b) Each respective agency head is authorized to adopt the policy that portions of the public lands within his jurisdiction shall be closed to use by off-road vehicles except those areas or trails which are suitable and specifically designated as open to such use pursuant to Section 3 of this Order.

Travel Management Rule (TMR)

Over the last few decades, impacts from unmanaged off-road vehicle use and the growth of non-motorized backcountry recreation on National Forest System lands has led to a renewed effort to comply with the Executive Order direction. In 2005, the Forest Service promulgated the Travel Management Rule (TMR) to govern the management of the summer and winter off-road vehicle systems.[2] Subpart B of the TMR requires the Forest Service to have a designated summertime off-road vehicle system, while subpart C allowed but did not require forests to designate a winter time off-road vehicle system.

In 2013, a Federal court found that subpart C failed to comply with the direction in the Executive Order to designate a system of trails and areas that minimize impacts to natural resources and conflicts. In response, the Forest Service issued a draft amendment to the TMR in 2014 to require the designation of roads, trails, and areas where over-snow vehicle (OSV) use is allowed, restricted, or prohibited. A final winter travel rule is expected during late 2014 or early 2015. In the coming years, Forests that receive enough snow to support winter recreation will be required to have a system of designated routes and areas for winter motorized use, providing opportunity for public involvement as they do so. This document is designed specifically to aid in the process of OSV route and area designation, management and monitoring on Forest Service lands.

Backcountry Skiing, Lolo National Forest, Adam Switalski. 2008.

[2] *79 Fed. Reg 34678, June 18, 2014.*

BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES (BMPS) FOR LAND MANAGERS MINIMIZING IMPACTS FROM SNOWMOBILES

Best management practices provide science-based criteria and standards that land managers follow in making and implementing decisions that affect natural resources and human uses. BMPS are usually developed for a particular land use (e.g., road building and maintenance) and are based on the best available science, legal obligations and pragmatic experience (Switalski and Jones 2012).

While some BMPs currently exist for snowmobiles, they are presented in a piecemeal, resource-specific fashion, or only provide guidelines for trail building and maintenance. For example, the Forest Service has created BMPs for protecting water quality on their lands and gives some guidance on how to minimize impacts related to snowmobile route planning (USDA FS 2012). The Forest Service – as well as other land management agencies –also has guidance to pursue environmental collaboration and conflict resolution in addressing land management challenges generally (OMB CEQ 2012). The practice of collaboration and conflict resolution has been an increasing trend in recent years, and for environmental collaboration to be successful, several key aspects have been identified, including: balanced stakeholder representation, clear goals and objectives, information exchange, and shared decision-making (Schuett et al. 2001). As the Forest Service begins travel planning, it will be essential to have a comprehensive framework to help managers implement their mandate to minimize social and environmental impacts in designating winter motorized routes and areas.

In this document, we lay out the best available science for the impacts of snowmobiles on recreation use conflict and natural resources including water quality, soils, vegetation, and wildlife. Building off of the literature and existing recommendations from researchers and managers, we present a framework for minimization of snowmobile impacts. These Best Management Practices provide guidelines to help Forest Service managers designate appropriate routes and areas, and close inappropriate routes and areas. Additionally, they provide guidance on managing snowmobile use to be consistent with the Executive Orders minimization criteria and the Forest Service Travel Management Rule.

MONITORING, ENFORCEMENT, AND FUNDING

Key to any management action is monitoring the success or failure of a project and adapting the management strategy to reach the project objectives. Accordingly, the BMPs presented here rely heavily on monitoring. Enforcement of management actions is also essential for the success of any management plan (Adams and McCool 2010).

It is also essential that the Forest Service allocate adequate funding and resources to undertake travel planning efforts (Yankoviak 2005, Adams and McCool 2010). Education and outreach programs that reduce conflict between uses and to increase compliance have also been implemented (Lindberg et al. 2009, USDI NPS 2013); however there is limited data on the success of these programs and such efforts may need to supplemented with monitoring and enforcement of existing regulations.

Yellowstone National Park has developed an extensive adaptive management program following the implementation of their winter use plan (USDI NPS 2013). They have identified key resources affected by motorized recreation, indicators for measuring their effects, and the most appropriate monitoring methods (Table 1). Using this framework they are able to revisit management decisions so learn if they are effectively mitigating use conflicts and environmental concerns in the Park.

Table 1: Examples of adaptive management monitoring: affected resource, indicator, and monitoring method identification in Yellowstone National Park (reprinted from USDI NPS 2013)

Affected Resource	Indicator	Preliminary Monitoring Methods
Air Quality at the West Entrance and Old Faithful	Levels of: CO, PM10, and NO2	Fixed site monitoring for CO, PM10, and NO2
Soundscape directly adjacent to park roads	Audibility: decibel levels (dBA) in terms of magnitude and duration (constant sound level or Leq) sound is audible over an 8-hour period	Could include audibility logging, digital recordings, and sound pressure level measurement
Visitor Experience	Satisfaction	Visitor survey (pending OMB approval)
Wildlife on or near roads	Wildlife behavioral responses to OSV	Observational studies

CLIMATE CHANGE

Today's land managers have to plan in the context of a rapidly changing climate. This will include addressing rising temperatures, thinner snow packs, more intense storms, and more rain-on-snow events which can damage trail systems and add additional management challenges (IPCC 2013). A receding snowpack and earlier spring runoff will alter future winter backcountry recreation use patterns.

With fewer or smaller areas available, there will be a concentration of use which may lead to increased crowding, recreational conflict and resource damage. For example, it is becoming more commonplace for snowmobiles to travel on dry roadbeds or snow-free trails to access the receding snowline.

[3]*Winter Wildlands Alliance v. USFS, 2013 WL 1319598 (D.Idaho, March 29, 2013).*

This direct contact with the ground can cause soil compaction, erosion, and water quality issues and lead to a whole new set of management concerns. In another example, grizzly bears may leave their dens earlier as climate changes making previous seasonal management decisions obsolete. The trails themselves will need increased maintenance such as grading and clearing obstacles during snow-free months, upgrading culverts, building larger bridges, and moving routes from areas prone to flooding or rapid melting. To preserve quality recreation opportunities and minimize natural resource damage, land managers should consider the impacts of a changing climate when developing management direction.

WINTER RECREATIONAL USE CONFLICT RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

As more people recreate in the backcountry, winter wildlands are becoming increasingly crowded and conflicts are on the rise. Backcountry skiers and other non-motorized users seek out solitude, quiet, and undisturbed natural areas. Desirable terrain, snow conditions and access are also key components of their recreational experience. Snowmobiles change the quality of this experience and create conflict with other winter recreationists (Adams and McCool 2012). Conflict among motorized and non-motorized use is typically "asymmetrical" where skiers experience conflict, while snowmobilers do not (Knopp and Tyger 1973, Jackson and Wong 1982, Gibbons and Ruddell 1995). Quiet non-motorized recreationists can have the quality of their experience dramatically altered by snowmobiles, while motorized users often don't even notice skiers using the same landscape.

In this section we present recent research on how snowmobile use and associated noise and fumes impact non-motorized use. Motorized use often creates a level of annoyance from non-motorized users that has been documented to lead to displacement (e.g., Stokowski and LaPointe 2000, Manning and Valliere 2001, Adams and McCool 2010). However, a well-planned and enforced system of routes and areas as well as improved management tools and technologies can help reduce or eliminate conflict.

SOUNDSCAPE

Protecting quiet soundscapes has become an increasingly important management issue in winter landscapes. Snowmobile noise is one of the biggest sources of use conflict, as an increasing number of winter recreationists seek out the peace and quiet found in the backcountry to escape the sounds of modern busy life (Abraham et al. 2010). Noise from motorized recreation is a particular problem in winter, when all use is restricted to a relatively small number of plowed trailheads and nonmotorized users cannot readily access Wilderness.

Natural soundscapes have been found to assist "in providing a deep connection to nature that is restorative and even spiritual for some visitors" (Freimund et al. 2009, pg. 4). When users have these expectations, the mechanical noise of snowmobiles can result in a substantial diminution in their recreation experience from the presence of snowmobile noise in otherwise quiet areas. This can negatively impact the experience of the recreationist, create conflict, and ultimately lead to displacement (Gibbons and Ruddell 1995, Manning and Valliere 2001, Vitterso et al. 2004, Adams and McCool 2010).

In "multiple-use" backcountry areas, snowmobile noise can be difficult to escape. While dependent on speed, type of machine, and direction of wind, snowmobile noise can travel up to 10 miles (Hastings et al. 2006, Burson 2008) – a distance farther than most non-motorized recreationists travel in a day. Additionally, considering that most forest roads are not plowed in the winter, the ability of skiers to avoid motorized noises is very restricted. Often trails and areas that are considered "frontcountry" and easily drivable in the summer are much more difficult to access in the winter. Accordingly, the user expectation in these areas is more aligned with a backcountry experience including a quiet soundscape. This disconnect between available recreation settings and desired user experience is something the Forest Service primarily addresses in planning through the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS). However, ROS is a classification tool that describes physical, social and managerial attributes – access, remoteness, size, user density, level of development – in summer, but not winter. Addressing these frontcountry multiple-use areas, which span a variety of ROS settings, is a particularly important source of conflict to address in travel planning.

Many people also travel in the winter backcountry to view wildlife. However, it has been well established that noise has a widespread and profound impact on wildlife (Barber et al. 2010, Farina 2014), which limits opportunities for watching and listening for birds and other wildlife. Most fundamentally, snowmobile noise creates a level of annoyance to many non-motorized users that either reduces the quality of their experience or can even cause displacement (e.g., Stokowski and LaPointe 2000, Manning and Valliere 2001, Adams and McCool 2010).

AIRSHED

Motorized and non-motorized winter backcountry recreationists are often confined to the same plowed parking areas to prepare for their trips. However in these "staging areas" snowmobile emissions can be concentrated and lead to an additional source of conflict and potential health concerns. While technological advances have produced cleaner four-stroke engines (and even zero emission electric snowmobile prototypes), the vast majority of snowmobiles still use highly polluting two-stroke engine technology. Lubricating oil is mixed with the fuel, and 20% to 30% of this mixture is emitted unburned into the air and snowpack (Kado et al. 2001). Also, the combustion process itself is relatively inefficient and results in high emissions of air pollutants (USDI NPS 2000). As a result, two-stroke snowmobiles emit very large amounts of smoke which includes carbon monoxide (CO), unburned hydrocarbons (HC) and other toxins (Zhou et al. 2010). Carbon monoxide is particularly harmful to the human body's ability to absorb oxygen (Janssen and Schettler 2003), and thus is particularly harmful to other users who wish to engage in aerobic exercise.

Concerns over human health related to snowmobile emissions have led to extensive recent research on snowmobile pollution in Yellowstone National Park (e.g., USDI NPS 2000, Bishop et al. 2001, Kado et al. 2001, Janssen and Schettler 2003, Bishop et al. 2006, Bishop et al. 2009, Ray 2010, Zhou 2010), and conclusions from these studies have led to a ban of older technology 2-stroke engines from the Park (USDI NPS 2013). Emissions from snowmobiles emit many carcinogens and can pose dangers to human health (Eriksson et al. 2003, Riemann et al. 2009). Several "known" or "probable" carcinogens are emitted including nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide, ozone, aldehydes, butadiene, benzenes, and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH). Particulate matter, also found in snowmobile smoke, is detrimental in fine and coarse forms as it accumulates in the respiratory system and can lead to decreased lung function, respiratory disease and even death (Janssen and Schettler 2003). While most of the acute toxic effects of snowmobiles are limited to staging areas and parking lots, the smoke and fumes from snowmobiles on trails can dramatically reduce the quality of the experiences of non-motorized users along the trail as well.

VIEWSHED AND OTHER IMPACTS

In addition to the sounds and smells of snowmobiles, simply the presence of snowmobiles on the landscape can degrade the experience of many non-motorized users. In just a few hours, snowmobiles can access almost any basin in the west and disproportionately consume a limited resource, powder snow. Slopes displaying dozens of "high mark" tracks can take away the natural beauty of the landscape for some. The deep tracks of snowmobile can also create a hazard when skiing down a slope, or quickly "track out" a slope, rendering it un-skiable. Safety is also a concern as there is the possibility of collision with a snowmobile, or a risk of a snowmobile triggering an avalanche from above. Alternatively, a snowmobile can diminish the sense of risk or wildness because they effectively reduce the distance from safety (McCool and Adams 2012).

WINTER RECREATIONAL USE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

The most effective way to manage recreational use conflict is a well-planned and enforced system of routes and areas that separate motorized and non-motorized uses as much as possible (e.g., Andereck et al. 2001, Lindberg et al. 2009, Adams and McCool 2010, USDI NPS 2013). Simply reducing snowmobile noise and smells may not be sufficient to reduce conflict or deter displacement, although limiting snowmobile use to best available technology (BAT) machines, as has been done at Yellowstone National Park, can substantially reduce use conflict. Closing or separating the non-compatible uses is the most effective way to reduce conflict. For example, an analysis of conflict reduction strategies in Sweden found that closing access to snowmobiles – a change from seeing hearing, and smelling snowmobiles, led to significant skier welfare gains (Lindberg et al. 2009).

Another strategy employed by the Forest Service is to separate motorized and non-motorized temporally, thereby granting all users some opportunity for use while minimizing conflict. On the Chugach National Forest, for example, one section of the forest is closed to motorized use on alternating years (USDA FS 2007b). On the Humboldt-Toiyabe NF, a high-elevation trailhead is shared use until lower elevation access receives enough snow for OSV use at which point it becomes non-motorized (USDA FS 2007a). In more popular areas, shorter alternating closure periods, such as biweekly, may be more appropriate.

Mitigating snowmobile noise can help address use conflicts as well. Snowmobile noise can travel long distances in the winter, and noise models have been used to identify areas of recreational use conflict, and plan for management actions. For example, noise modeling has been used extensively in Yellowstone National Park to estimate the area affected by noise under a range of management alternatives (Hastings et al. 2006, Hastings et al. 2010, USDI NPS 2013, Figure 3).

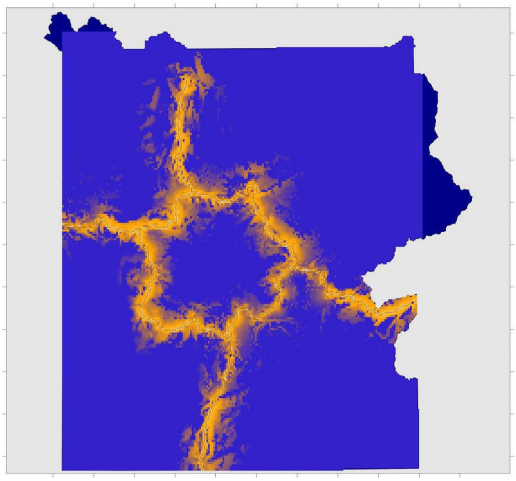

Figure 3: Example of noise simulation modeling used in Yellowstone National Park to identify where disturbance and conflict may be a management issue. Orange is the distance snowmobiles and snow coach noise travels beyond the groomed roads. Model inputs include temperature, relative humidity, snow cover, and natural ambient sound levels. The modeling also accounts for the acoustic effects of topography, vehicle speeds, and vehicle group size (USDI NPS 2013).

Several studies have recommended replacing two-stroke engines with four-stroke engines to significantly reduce emissions and noise (e.g., Miers et al. 2000, Kado et al. 2001, Eriksson et al. 2003). Four-stroke engines are significantly less polluting (Zhau et al. 2010, Figure 4), and have improved fuel efficiency, as well as a reduction in visible exhaust plumes, odor, and noise (Bishop et al. 2006). A study of using best available technology (BAT) machines in Yellowstone has resulted in a 60% reduction in Carbon Monoxide (CO) and a 96% reduction in Hydrocarbon (HC) emissions (Bishop et al. 2006).However, if motorized use of a route or area has been identified as having an unacceptable impact on other user groups, that route or area should be closed (Lindberg et al. 2009, McCool and Adams 2010, and NYSDEC 2011).

Furthermore, in some forests non-motorized opportunities are limited, so creating non-motorized areas may be needed. For example, a snowmobile plan for Adirondack Park (NY) calls for closing routes if the "…opportunities for quiet, non-motorized use of trails are rare or nonexistent;" (NYSDEC 2011, p.244). Finally, in some areas – regardless of conflict, snowmobiling should not be allowed. For example, Adams and McCool (2010) argue that roadless areas should be protected from motorized use because "roadless areas are exceptional for their wild and quiet recreational opportunities, their habitat for threatened and endangered species, and other values. Their character and values derive from their lack of accessibility by motor vehicles" (p. 109).

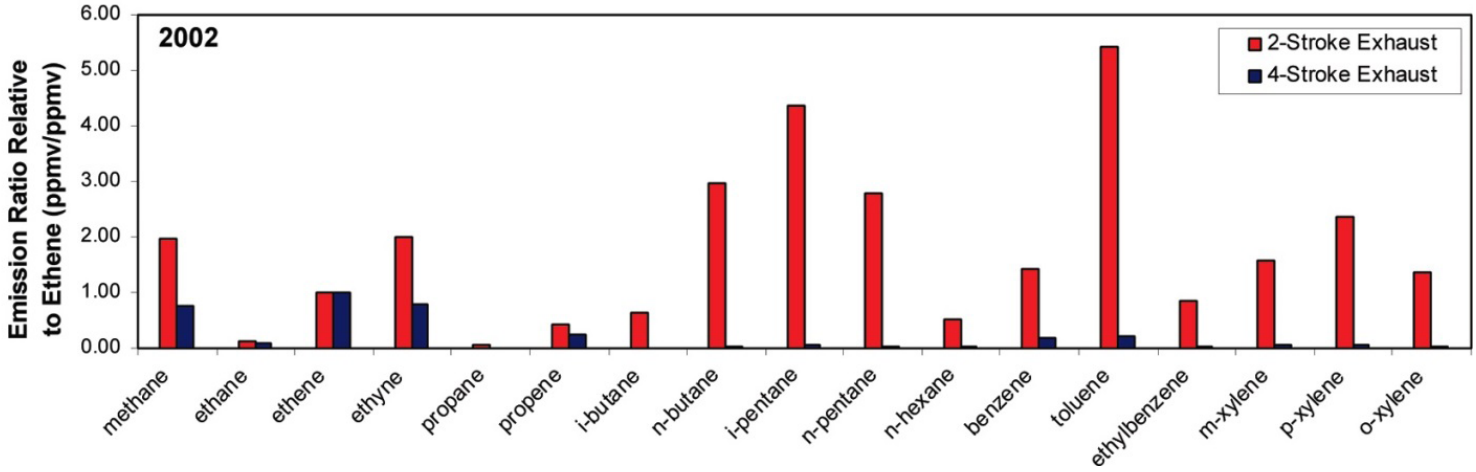

Figure 4: Average nonmethane hydrocarbons exhaust emission ratios relative to ethene (ppmv/ppmv) for two-stroke and four-stroke engines in 2002 (Reprinted with permission from (Zhou, Y., D. Shively, H. Mao, R.S. Russo, B. Pape, R.N. Mower, R. Talbot, and B.C. Sive. 2010. Air toxic emissions from snowmobiles in Yellowstone National Park. Environmental Science and Technology 44(1): 222-228. Copyright 2010 American Chemical Society)

BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES FOR WINTER RECREATIONAL USE CONFLICTS

DESIGNATING MOTORIZED USE

- When necessary elements for successful collaboration exist, establish a working group with motorized and non-motorized users, conservation interests, land managers, and other stakeholders to develop concepts for minimizing recreational conflict.
- Identify routes and areas where there is ongoing conflict among motorized and non-motorized winter recreational use using existing information, surveys, GIS modeling, and community outreach.
- Identify routes and areas of particularly high value or demand for motorized and non-motorized use.
- To the degree possible, allocate separate trails, trailheads, and areas.
- Ensure that non-motorized trails and areas are available:
    - o close to plowed access points, groomed trails, and other access portals.
    - o in contiguous non-motorized blocks.
    - o in areas where there are few non-motorized opportunities.
    - o in both frontcountry and backcountry settings.
    - o in areas with scenic beauty.
    - o in areas sheltered from noise emanating from motorized areas.
    - o across a variety of Recreational Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) categories.
- Ensure that a fair balance of unplowed roads are set aside for nonmotorized use.
- Locate motorized routes and areas:
    - o away from popular or historically used backcountry ski areas, or areas of growing use.
    - o outside proposed Wilderness Areas, Wilderness Study Areas, and Research Natural Areas.
    - o with easily enforceable boundaries using topographic or geographic features. (e.g., a ridge top or highway) - use boundary signage to provide additional clarity, or where unauthorized use is occurring.
    - o where they do not bisect non-motorized areas.
- Consider temporal restrictions in areas of high-use or high-value to both motorized and non-motorized use. This includes both early/late season restrictions, as well as alternating access.
- Where necessary to designate a motorized route through a nonmotorized area, locate and manage such route (such as speed and idling limits) to minimize disturbance to the nonmotorized area.
- In areas of shared use consider requiring Best Available Technology (BAT) to reduce conflict and impacts between uses.

MINIMIZING IMPACTS OF MOTORIZED USE

- Undertake proactive and systematic outreach programs in order to facilitate increased compliance of closures and reduce user conflicts.
- Provide free digital and paper maps that clearly show routes, areas, and watersheds open and closed to snowmobiles.
- Encourage or require the use of Best Available Technology (BAT) snowmobiles to reduce noise and local air quality impacts.
- Implement significant penalties and consequences for violating snowmobile regulations that will dissuade users from such violations.
- Monitor closed routes and areas to ensure that snowmobile intrusion is not occurring.
- Establish an adaptive management framework using monitoring to determine efficacy of current management.
- Revisit plan decisions as necessary to ensure use conflicts are being minimized and motorized impacts are below accepted thresholds. Close snowmobile routes and areas when motorized use is leading to trespass onto non-motorized trails or areas.

Backcountry skiing, Gallatin NF, Adam Switalski. 2009.

WILDLIFE RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

While many animals are well adapted for survival in the winter, deep snow and cold temperatures can limit foraging opportunities and increase metabolic demands. Snowmobiles can add to animals' vulnerability during this critical time by eliciting physiological responses such as increased heart rate and elevated stress level; eliciting behavioral responses including displacement and avoidance; facilitating sources of competition; and/or increasing hunting, trapping, and poaching mortality (for a review see Gaines et al. 2003, Figure 5, Table 2). These impacts can result in fitness costs, fragmented wildlife populations, and potential population declines (Gaines et al. 2003).

In this section, we focus on three species that warrant special attention because their populations are in decline or vulnerable, and they have state and/or federal legal protections: grizzly bears (Ursus arctos), wolverine (Gulo gulo), and lynx (Lynx canadensis). The strongest protection is afforded by the Endangered Species Act which prevents any "take" of a listed species. The term "take" includes any "means to harass, harm, pursue, hunt, shoot, wound, kill, trap, capture, or collect, or to attempt to engage in any such conduct" (7 U.S.C. § 136, 16 U.S.C. § 1531 et seq.) As supported below, these three species are highly susceptible to snowmobile noise and disturbance and will need additional management actions to ensure winter recreation does not compromise their recovery. We also highlight research on the impact of snowmobiles on ungulates which are managed as game species and also need special management considerations.

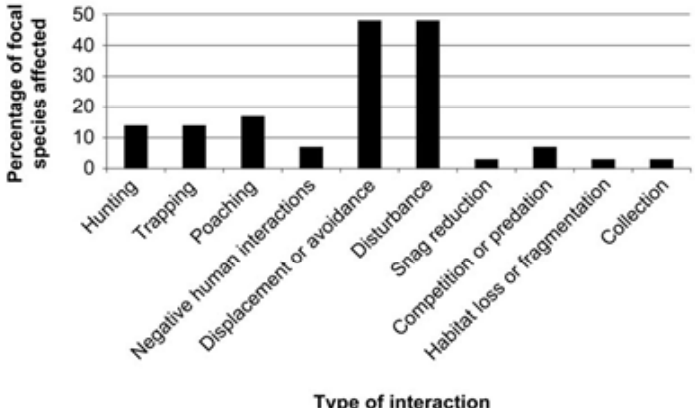

Figure 5. Interactions between the 29 focal wildlife species and snowmobile routes documented from a comprehensive literature review (reprinted from Gaines et al. 2003).

Table 2. Snowmobile route associated factors for wide-ranging carnivores and ungulate focal species (adapted from Gaines et al. 2003).

Focal species	Scientific name	Snowmobile route associated factors
Grizzly bear	*Ursus arctos*	Disturbance at a specific site
Wolverine	*Gulo gulo*	Trapping
		Disturbance at a specific site
Lynx	*Lynx canadensis*	Route for competitors or predators
		Trapping
		Disturbance at a specific site
Gray wolf	*Canis lupus*	Trapping
		Physiological response
American marten	*Martes americana*	Trapping
Fisher	*Martes pennanti*	Trapping
		Displacement or avoidance
Mule deer	*Odocoileus hemionus*	Displacement or avoidance
		Disturbance at a specific site
Elk	*Cervus canadensis*	Displacement or avoidance
		Disturbance at a specific site
		Physiological response
Bighorn sheep	*Ovis canadensis*	Displacement or avoidance
		Disturbance at a specific site
		Physiological response

GRIZZLY BEAR

Grizzly bears (Ursus arctos) are a Threatened Species under the U.S. Endangered Species Act and protected from harm across their range in the continental U.S. Their denning habitat often overlaps with winter recreation areas, and they are susceptible to disturbance - increasing energy expenditures and the potential of den abandonment (Linnell et al. 2000). Direct mortality is also possible if an avalanche is triggered on a slope where the bears are hibernating (Hilderbrand 2000).

Grizzly bears typically den in relatively high elevation areas with more stable snow conditions and steep slopes (Linnell et al. 2000). In general they avoid roads (Mace et al. 1996), and will typically select den sites one to two kilometers from human activity (Linnell et al. 2000). However, snowmobiles can easily access these remote sites, posing the potential for disturbance. No systematic data set exists on how denning bears react to snowmobile disturbance, but a comprehensive review on the topic found that human disturbance within one kilometer of a den site has a significant risk of abandonment, especially early in the denning season (Linnell et al. 2000).

GRIZZLY BEAR MANAGEMENT

Although grizzly bears can be susceptible to disturbance and the risk of den abandonment, careful management of winter recreation can help avoid this conflict. Linnell et al. (2000) recommended that "winter activities should be minimized in suitable or traditional denning areas; if winter activity is unavoidable, it should begin around the time bears naturally enter dens, so that they can choose to avoid disturbed areas; and winter activity should be confined to regular routes as much as possible" (Linnell et al. 2000, pgs. 409-410). Podrunzney et al. (2000) modeled the overlap of potential grizzly bear denning habitat and potential snowmobile use areas on the Gallatin National Forest, MT. This model was used in Forest Service travel planning and allowed managers to plan snowmobile routes and areas to avoid conflict with grizzly bears.

Similar modeling efforts have been conducted in Alaska incorporating both motorized and non-motorized recreation with bear denning habitat (see Goldstein et al. 2010).

As a federally protected Threatened Species, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service considers snowmobile disturbance as a potential "take" thus requiring management actions. In a recent Biological Opinion for snowmobiling on the Flathead National Forest (MT), the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service required the Forest to "quantify and monitor snowmobile use… and ensure adequate protection to known and discovered grizzly bear den sites and post-emergent females with cubs" (USDI FWS 2008, p. 57). In 2014, the Flathead Nationa Forest closed the Skyland / Challenge snowmobile play area due to the emergence of a grizzly bear in the area.

Limiting open motorized route density is a key management action to increase grizzly bear habitat security. For example, USDA FS (2011) recommends limiting open motorized route density to lesthan 1 mile per square mile in much of the Cabinet-Yaak Recovery Area. State-level management plans also address management of snowmobiles in grizzly bear habitat. For example, The Montana Forested State Trust Lands Habitat Conservation Plan calls for minimizing road miles and restricting public access (including snowmobiles) on roads in important grizzly bear habitat areas and seasons (MT DNRC 2011).

WOLVERINE

Wolverine (Gulo gulo) are a rare, long-ranging carnivore that spends most of their lives in high elevation areas (Aubry et al. 2007). While they roam hundreds, sometimes thousands of miles seeking food and mates, in the heart of the winter females dig dens in the snowpack and give birth. Little has been known about this elusive carnivore until recently when it was petitioned for listing under the Endangered Species Act, resulting in a flurry of research studies. Wolverine are a Species of Special Concern in Montana, classified as a Sensitive Species by the Forest Service, and trapping has been banned across their range in the continental U.S.

In general, wolverine are sensitive to human disturbance. In studies in Canada, wolverine have been found to be much more common in protected areas than in multiple-use landscapes (Fisher et al. 2013, Whittington et al. 2014). Snowmobile use commonly overlaps with wolverine denning habitat, and their noise may cause female wolverines to abandon their denning sites, potentially reducing their reproductive success.

An ongoing five-year study is examining the impact of winter recreation on wolverine in multiple mountain ranges in Montana and Idaho (Heinemeyer and Squires 2013). Preliminary results suggest that in areas with winter backcountry use, denning female wolverine move more frequently, are moving at higher rates when in higher intensity recreation areas, and move more during the weekend when there is more use (Heinemeyer and Squires 2013). These impacts are creating a "significant additive energetic effects on wolverine during the critical winter and denning periods" (Heinemeyer and Squires 2013, p. 5).

While the majority of the study sites they have studied are snowmobile use areas, the ongoing study is adding more sites where non-motorized backcountry skiers recreate as well. However, researchers have already noted that limitations on the distance that skiers can travel often allows for core denning habitat to be available beyond the reach of backcountry skiers (Heinemeyer et al. 2014).

WOLVERINE MANAGEMENT

Wolverine have very large home ranges and need large blocks of interconnected habitat. Key management schemes for protecting wolverine include limiting disturbance and retaining and restoring habitat connectivity. Managers can reduce the potential conflict with snowmobiles and wolverine by identifying areas of overlap and managing accordingly. For example, The Wilderness Society developed the SPreAD-GIS model that can model snowmobile sound propagation overlap with wolverine denning habitat (Reed et al. 2009, Figure 6). Two other sound propagation models have also been used by Yellowstone National Park to model over-snow vehicle audibility including the Integrated Noise Model, and the Noise Simulation Model (USDI NPS 2013).

In the face of climate change, wolverines may lose much of their denning habitat as persistent snowfields disappear (Fisher et al. 2013), and connectivity among remaining habitat patches will become increasingly important (Schwartz et al. 2009). The 2014 Management Plan for the Conservation of Wolverines in Idaho calls for identifying wolverine linkage areas at local and regional scales and pro-actively conserving them (IDFG 2014).

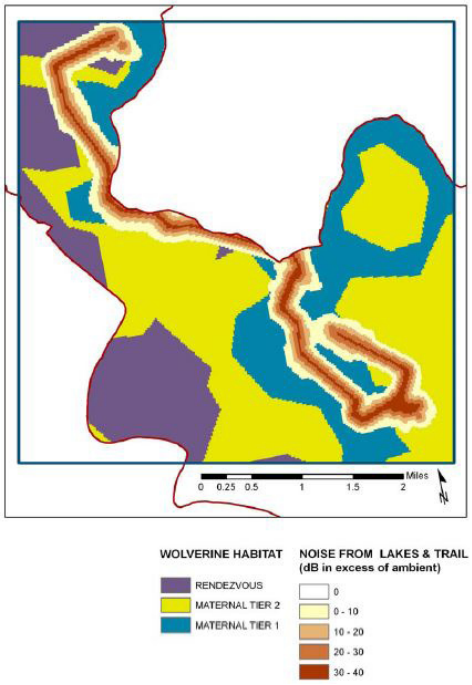

Figure 6: An example of using the SPreAD model to identify the overlap of snowmobile noise emissions and wolverine habitat types (Reed et al. 2009).

CANADA LYNX

Canada lynx (Lynx canadensis) is a Threatened Species under the U.S. Endangered Species Act. They are adapted to deep snow conditions, allowing them to thrive in habitats where potential competitors and predators like coyotes (Canis latrans) cannot easily survive. However, compacted snow trails and play areas help facilitate coyote movement into Canada lynx habitat. While one study in Montana found limited use of snowmobile trails by coyotes (Kolbe et al. 2007), studies in Utah and Wyoming documented coyotes using compacted trails extensively resulting in potential competition and displacement of Canada lynx (Bunnell et al. 2006, Gese et al. 2013, Dowd et al. 2014). The differences in results are probably due to different regional snow characteristics, predator communities, and snowmobile use (Bunnell et al. 2006). While both snowmobiles and skis create trails that coyotes could exploit, snowmobiles can travel an order of magnitude further in a day than non-motorized users.

CANADA LYNX MANAGEMENT

Both researchers and managers have recommended limiting snowmobile routes in lynx habitat. Following their research on coyotes use of snowmobile trails, Dowd et al. (2014) suggests "limiting the expanse of groomed trail system may minimize coyote encroachment into these deep snow environments" (p.39). The Canada Lynx Assessment and Conservation Strategy set planning standards on Forest Service lands that include, "on federal lands in lynx habitat, allow no net increase in groomed or designated over-the-snow routes and snowmobile play areas by Lynx Analysis Unit... and map and monitor the location and intensity of snow compacting activities that coincide with lynx habitat, to facilitate future evaluation of effects on lynx as information becomes available" (USDA FS 2000, p.82).

UNGULATES

Ungulates are hoofed animals including deer (Odocoileus spp.), elk (Cervus canadensis), moose (Alces alces), mountain goat (Oreamnos americanus), and bighorn sheep (Ovis canadensis). All of these animals are highly prized game species. Bighorn sheep are classified as a Sensitive Species by the Forest Service, and two subspecies - Nelson's Peninsular and Sierra Nevada bighorn sheep - are listed as Endangered Species. It has been well established that undisturbed "winter range" is essential for ungulates survival (Canfield et al. 1999).

Studies have found that snowmobiles can exhibit both a physiological and behavioral response on a number of ungulate species (Gaines et al. 2003, Table 2). Recent studies in Yellowstone found elk had increased stress (Creel et al. 2002), and actively responded (Borkowski et al. 2006) when approached by snowmobiles. A recent study on moose in Scandinavia also found disturbance and displacement following snowmobile activity (Neumann et al. 2011). Bighorn sheep and mountain goats are particularly susceptible to the effects of disturbance because they are limited to relatively small areas of suitable habitat with very steep and rocky slopes Canfield et al. (1999)

UNGULATE MANAGEMENT

Limiting disturbance on ungulates, especially in winter range, is a key management strategy. For example, Canfield et al. (1999) in their review of the impact of recreation on Rocky Mountain ungulates suggest keeping motorized routes and trails away from wintering areas, and to create established designated travel routes to make human use as predictable as possible. Further, Harris et al. (2014) recently reviewed the impacts of winter recreation on northern ungulates and highlighted the importance of limiting the duration and spatial footprint of disturbance.

Yellowstone National Park has implemented a number of policies to reduce disturbance from snowmobiles. Some of these practices include: limiting the number of snowmobiles, requiring best available technology, setting speed limits of 35mph, and establishing open and closure dates (USDI NPS 2013). This has also been coupled with monitoring and complementary research projects which can measure the effectiveness of the management plan. For example, Borkowski et al. (2006) stated that snowmobile regulations in Yellowstone including levels and travel routes "were effective at reducing disturbances to bison and elk below a level that would cause measurable fitness effects" (p.1).

Illegal snowmobile highmarking on Aeneas Peak. This area is critical habitat for a number of important wildlife species, and is designated to provide a non-motorized experience. Flathead NF. Keith Hammer. 2014.

BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES FOR WILDLIFE

DESIGNATING MOTORIZED USE

- Identify routes and areas where there is the potential for snowmobile disturbance of key wildlife including grizzly bear, wolverine, lynx, and ungulate winter range using survey data or GIS modeling. Survey information should be catalogued and regularly updated in a GIS database.
- Locate motorized routes and areas:
    - o where disturbance is unlikely to significantly affect viability or recovery of listed or petitioned threatened or endangered species:
        - limit snowmobile routes and areas in grizzly bear suitable denning habitat, wolverine denning habitat, and Canada lynx Critical Habitat.
        - reduce snowmobile route density to below 1 mile/mile2 in occupied habitat.
    - o outside proposed Wilderness Areas, Wilderness Study Areas and Research Natural Areas.
    - o in discrete, specified areas bounded by natural features (topography and vegetative cover) to provide visual and acoustic barriers and to ensure that secure habitat is maintained for wildlife.
    - o outside critical ungulate wintering habitat.
- Set dates for snowmobile season opening and closure, and adjust based upon seasonal wildlife needs including:
    - o critical ungulate wintering habitat/winter concentration areas (e.g., December through March in Rockies).
    - o grizzly bear denning season (mid-November), and emergence time (mid-April).
- Limit or close routes and play areas with known bighorn sheep and mountain goat populations.
- Limit or close areas to off-road and oversnow vehicle use in areas where antler shed hunting is prevalent.
- Limit the number of routes and restrict off-trail use in key wildlife corridors.
- Maintain large un-fragmented, undisturbed, and connected blocks of forestland and alpine habitat where no snowmobile routes are designated.

MINIMIZING IMPACTS OF MOTORIZED USE

- Implement outreach programs to raise public awareness of winter wildlife habitat, wildlife behavior, and ways to minimize user impacts.
- Encourage or require the use of Best Available Technology (BAT) where necessary to limit disturbance on sensitive species.
- Close snowmobile routes and areas if a grizzly bear emerges from their den in the area.
- Monitor closed and areas to ensure they are effectively mitigating impacts to wildlife, and not being used illegally.
- Establish an adaptive management framework using monitoring to determine efficacy of current management. Revisit plan decisions as necessary to ensure wildlife impacts are being minimized and motorized impacts are below accepted thresholds.

WATER QUALITY, SOILS, AND VEGETATION RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

Since the seminal research of Wallace Wanek and his colleagues in the 1970s, it has been well established that snowmobiles can negatively impact water quality, soils, and vegetation. However, while early researchers focused on localized impacts of snowmobiles on groomed trails, today's machines also travel off-trail and into many sensitive habitats such as alpine cirques, meadows, and wetlands. Water quality can also be affected when spring runoff releases pollutants stored in the snowpack. Furthermore, as snowmobiles become increasingly powerful, their increased torque and reach creates a potential for greater impact. For example, steep erosion-prone slopes are now commonly used for "high marking," increasing the risk of soil compaction and damage to slow-growing alpine vegetation.

WATER QUALITY

Protecting and enhancing water supply is a key mandate of the Forest Service, and a number of aquatic species and municipal watersheds depend on National Forests - especially in the West. For example, most National Forest acres west of the Cascade Mountains in Oregon and Washington are municipal watersheds (USDA FS 2000). During the winter, snowmobiles release toxins such as ammonium, nitrate, sulfate, benzene, and toluene which accumulate in the snowpack (Ingersol 1999), and increase acidity (Musselman and Kormacher 2007). In the spring runoff, accumulated pollutants are released as a pulse into the soil, groundwater, and surrounding waterbodies.

A recent study found snowmobiles are polluting a tributary of Lake Tahoe, CA. Examining 168 different semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOC), McDaniel (2013) found eight to 20 times greater loadings on snowmobile trails than background levels. He further reported that highly toxic and persistent polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) had increased two to six times the background level in a nearby stream (McDaniel 2013). Impacts to water quality can be especially pronounced at trailheads and staging areas where snowmobiles congregate (USDA FS 2012). Lakes can also be vulnerable because snow melts directly into the waterbody without any vegetative buffer, and there is a risk of snowmobiles falling through thin ice and spilling toxins directly into the water (USDA FS 2012).

SOILS

Snowmobiles can directly impact soils in a number of ways including soil compaction, erosion, and contamination. When traveling in areas of low or no snow - such as such as wind-swept ridges, snow-free access points, or during periods of thin snowpack - snowmobiles can be particularly damaging.

They can also indirectly impact soils through snow compaction. Weighing several hundred pounds, snowmobiles easily compact the snow which can increase snowpack density, reduce soil temperatures, increase soil freezing, and result in a later melt-out (Gage and Cooper 2009). In areas of low or no snowpack, direct soil compaction can occur from snowmobiles leading to erosion (Gage and Cooper 2009). On steep slopes – especially south facing, or wind-swept slopes - vegetation and snow can be mechanically removed from snowmobile tracks resulting in exposed bare ground (Stagl 1999). Soil compaction impacts nearly all properties and functions of soil including increased bulk density and reduced pore space leading to reduced permeability of water and air (Batey 2009). This results in surface erosion especially on steep slopes (Batey 2009). Soil erosion when located near streams can also lead to localized stream sedimentation and increased turbidity. As climate change reduces the number of snow-free days, erosion from snowmobiles will be an increasing management concern.

Soils can also be contaminated when pollutants enter the soil from a melting snowpack. With inefficient engines, snowmobiles release much of their oil gas mixture into the snow unburned. Several pollutants have been recorded in the snowpack along snowmobile trails including ammonium, nitrate, sulfate, benzene, and toluene (Ingersol 1999). In the spring these pollutants are released into the soil creating local contamination and associated impacts.

VEGETATION

Snowmobiles impact vegetation either through directly crushing and breaking vegetation, or through a number of indirect mechanisms. When traveling off-trail, snowmobiles often run over trees and shrubs causing damage or death – often with minimal snowmobile traffic. Although these impacts may not be environmentally significant when they occur in robust forest environments, they can be very significant when they occur in sensitive forest habit, such as high mountain slopes or meadows.

A recent study on the Gallatin National Forest (MT) found 366 acres of trees damaged by snowmobiles on timber sale units - slowing forest regeneration (WWA 2009, Table 3). Trees such as white-bark pine (Pinus albicaulis), found only at high elevations and declining across its range, may be vulnerable to snowmobile damage. Trampling has also been found to result in a reduction in plant productivity, changes in the plant community, and a reduction in plant diversity (Stangl 1999).

As mentioned above, compaction of the snow reduces the insulating air spaces and conducts cold air to the ground (Gage and Cooper 2009).

These lower temperatures can reduce plant density and composition, reduce productivity and growth, delay seed germination and flowering, as well as affecting decomposition rates, hummus formation and microbial activity (Davenport and Switalski 2006). These impacts ultimately can change community structure and reduce the availability and duration of spring wildlife foods (Stagl 1999).

Table 3: Summary of snowmobile damaged trees on the Gallatin National Forest (MT) reported during regeneration transect surveys of previously logged timber stands (reprinted from WWA 2009).

Area name	Year logged	Year inventoried	Acres	Average # damaged trees per acre	Total number of trees damaged
Little Teepee Creek Drainage	1969	1995	122	140	17,080
Horse Butte Road*	1992	1995	15	514*	7710*
Madison Arm	1991	1995	12	5	60
Unknown	1960s	1983	68	23	1564
Unknown*	1960s	1983	100	652*	65,200*
Cream Creek*	1986	1995	60	725*	43,500*
Total damaged trees:					**135,114**

surveys note the presence of a snowmobile trail in this stand

WATER QUALITY, SOILS, AND VEGETATION MANAGEMENT

The most common strategies for protecting water quality, soils, and vegetation from snowmobile impacts is to ensure that there is adequate snow cover and create a buffer around waterways. For example, the Forest Service has developed National Best Management Practices to protect water resources on Forest Service lands from snowmobile pollution (USDA FS 2012). This document recommends, "Allow over-snow vehicle use cross-country or on trails when snow depths are sufficient to protect the underlying vegetative cover and soil or trail surface; use and enforce closure orders to mitigate effects when adverse effects to soil, water quality, or riparian resources are occurring; use suitable measures to trap and treat pollutants from over-snow vehicle emissions in snowmelt runoff or locate the staging area at a sufficient distance from nearby waterbodies to provide adequate pollutant filtering" (USDA FS 2012, p. 96-97).

Snowmobile soil and vegetation damage, Helena NF, Adam Switlalski. 2009.

WATER QUALITY, SOILS, AND VEGETATION MANAGEMENT

The most common strategies for protecting water quality, soils, and vegetation from snowmobile impacts is to ensure that there is adequate snow cover and create a buffer around waterways. For example, the Forest Service has developed National Best Management Practices to protect water resources on Forest Service lands from snowmobile pollution (USDA FS 2012). This document recommends, "Allow over-snow vehicle use cross-country or on trails when snow depths are sufficient to protect the underlying vegetative cover and soil or trail surface; use and enforce closure orders to mitigate effects when adverse effects to soil, water quality, or riparian resources are occurring; use suitable measures to trap and treat pollutants from over-snow vehicle emissions in snowmelt runoff or locate the staging area at a sufficient distance from nearby waterbodies to provide adequate pollutant filtering" (USDA FS 2012, p. 96-97).

Individual Forests have also recommended restricting snowmobile use to protect water quality. The Uinta-Wasatch-Cache National Forest (UT) does not allow recreational snowmobiling in Salt Lake City's municipal watershed (USDA FS 2003). The Inyo, Sequoia, and Sierra National Forests are proposing a minimum of 18" of snowpack before allowing snowmobiling in their revised Forest Plan to protect forest resources (USDA FS 2014b). Restricting snowmobile use in sensitive habitats such as riparian areas and wetlands can be helpful in mitigating these impacts as well.

BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES FOR WATER QUALITY, SOILS, AND VEGETATION

DESIGNATING MOTORIZED USE

- Set dates for snowmobile season opening and closure, and adjust based upon adequate snow depth.
- Require a minimum snow depth of at least 12 inches, or sufficient depth to protect water quality, soils, and vegetation before allowing snowmobile trails to be groomed. Have a contingency plan and implement emergency closures if snowpack goes below this threshold.
- Require a minimum snow depth of at least 18 inches, or sufficient depth to protect water quality, soils, and vegetation before allowing snowmobiling off-trail. Have a contingency plan and implement emergency closures if snowpack goes below this threshold.
- Avoid locating snowmobile routes or areas in municipal watersheds.
- Restrict snowmobile use on wetlands, riparian areas, and sensitive meadows and buffer snowmobile trailheads and routes 150 feet from these areas.

MINIMIZING IMPACTS OF MOTORIZED USE

- Develop public information, educational programs, and signage about the impacts of snowmobiles on water quality, soils, and vegetation and how to minimize those impacts.
- Ensure adequate maintenance of bridges and culverts on routes to help prevent erosion during the spring run-off.
- If roads are only used for snowmobile use, scarify the roadbed to restore hydrology.
- Encourage or require the use of Best Available Technology (BAT) where necessary to minimize the impacts water quality, soils, and vegetation.
- Close routes and areas when excessive damage to soils and vegetation has occurred, and/or erosion has been documented.
- Monitor closed routes and areas to ensure the measures taken are effectively mitigating impacts to water quality, soils, and vegetation.
- Establish an adaptive management framework using monitoring to determine efficacy of current management. Revisit plan decisions as necessary to ensure impacts to water quality, soils, and vegetation are being minimized and motorized impacts are below accepted thresholds.

CONCLUSION

The growing number of winter backcountry users has increased recreational use conflicts and negative impacts on natural resources. As the Forest Service begins formally addressing winter recreation and determining where motorized use is allowed, restricted, and prohibited, it is essential that managers have the best available science to guide their decisions. In this document we presented the best available science on the impacts of snowmobiles. Based upon this research and the recommendations of researchers and managers, and professional experience, we have developed a list of best management practices. If these BMPs are followed, they will help mitigate recreational use conflicts and minimize impacts to natural resources. Once a system of routes and special use areas are established, enforcement and monitoring will be critical to the success of any management plan.

Acknowledgements:
This report was improved upon by thoughtful reviews from John Adams, Hilary Eisen, Chris Gaughan, Allison Jones, Cailin O'Brien-Feeney, Mark Menlove, Sarah Peters, Robert Rowen and Vera Smith.

LITERATURE CITED

Abraham, A., K. Sommerhalder, and T. Abel. 2010. Landscape and well-being: a scoping study on the health-promoting impact of outdoor environments. International Journal of Public Health 55: 59-69.

Adams, J.C., and S.F. McCool. 2010. Finite recreation opportunities: the Forest Service, the Bureau of Land Management, and off-road vehicle management. Natural Resources Journal 49: 45-116.

Andereck, K.L., C.A. Vogt, K. Larkin, and K. Frey. 2001. Differences between motorized and nonmotorized trail users. Journal of Park and Recreation Administration 10(3): 62-77

Aubry, K.B., K.S. Mckelvey, and J.P. Copeland. 2007. Distribution and broad-scale habitat relations of the wolverine in the contiguous United States. Journal of Wildlife Management 71(7): 2147–2158.

Baker, E., and E. Bithmann. 2005. Snowmobiling in the Adirondack Park: environmental and social impacts. St. Lawrence University, Canton, NY. 47p. http://it.stlawu.edu/~bart/Barthelmess/CB2005_final_papers/pdfs/snowmobiles.pdf

Barber, J. R., K.R. Crooks, and K.M Fristrup. 2010. The costs of chronic noise exposure for terrestrial organisms. Trends Ecology and Evolution 25: 180-189.

Batey, T. 2009. Soil compaction and soil management – a review. Soil Use and Management 25: 335–345.

Bishop, G.A., J.A. Morris, and D.H. Stedman. 2001. Snowmobile contributions to mobile source emissions in Yellowstone National Park. Environmental Science and Technology 35: 2874-2881.

Bishop, G.A., D.A. Burgard, T.R. Dalton, D.H. Stedman, and J.D. Ray. 2006. Winter motor-vehicle emissions in Yellowstone National Park. Environmental Science and Technology 40(8): 2505-2510. http://www.nature.nps.gov/air/Pubs/pdf/yell/200604ESTBishop_etalSnowmobileEmissions.pdf

Bishop, G.A., R. Stadtmuller, D.H. Stedman, and J.D. Ray. 2009. Portable emission measurements of Yellowstone Park snowcoaches and snowmobiles. Journal of the Air and Waste Management Association 59: 936–942. http://www.nature.nps.gov/air/Pubs/pdf/yell/Bishop_YELL_JAWMA59_Aug_936_2009.pdf

Borkowski, J.J., P.J. White, R.A. Garrott, T. Davis, A.R. Hardy, and D.J. Reinhart. 2006. Behavioral responses of bison and elk in Yellowstone to snowmobiles and snow coaches. Ecological Applications 16: 1911–1925.

Bosworth, D. 2003. Four Threats to the Health of the Nation's Forests and Grasslands. US Forest Service, Washington, D.C. http://www.fs.fed.us/projects/four-threats

Bunnell, K. D., J.T. Flinders, and M.L. Wolfe. 2006. Potential impacts of coyotes and snowmobiles on lynx conservation in the intermountain west. Wildlife Society Bulletin 34: 828–838.

Burson, S. 2008. Natural Soundscape Monitoring in Yellowstone National Park December 2007– March 2008. National Park Service, Yellowstone Center for Resources, Mammoth, WY. 106p. http://www.nps.gov/yell/parkmgmt/upload/soundscape_monitoring-2007-2008.pdf

Cordell, H.K. 2012. Outdoor Recreation Trends and Futures: A Technical Document Supporting the Forest Service 2010 RPA Assessment. General Technical Report SRS-150. U.S. Department of Agriculture Forest Service, Southern Research Station. Asheville, NC. 167p. http://www.treesearch.fs.fed.us/pubs/40453

Creel, S., J.E. Fox, A.R. Hardy, J. Sands, B. Garrot, and R.O. Peterson. 2002. Snowmobile activity and glucocorticoid stress responses in wolves and elk. Conservation Biology 16(3): 809-14. http://www.montana.edu/wwwbi/staff/creel/snomoGC.pdf

Davenport, J., and T.A. Switalski. 2006. Environmental impacts of transport related to tourism and leisure activities. In: The Ecology of Transportation: Managing Mobility for the Environment, editors: J. Davenport and J. Davenport. Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers. 333-360. http://www.wildlandscpr.org/files/uploads/PDFs/d_Switalski_2006_Enviro_impacts_of_transport.pdf

Dowd, J.L.B., E.M. Gese, and L.M. Aubry. 2014. Winter space use of coyotes in high-elevation environments: behavioral adaptations to deep-snow landscapes. Journal of Ethology 32: 29-41.

Eriksson, K., D. Tjarner, I. Marqvardsen, and B. Jarvholm. 2003. Exposure to Benzene, Toluene, Xylenes and Total Hydrocarbons among snowmobile drivers in Sweden. Chemosphere 50(10): 1343-7.

Farina, A. 2014. Soundscape Ecology - Principles, Patterns, Methods and Applications. Springer. 315p.

Fisher, J.T., S. Bradbury, B. Anholt, L. Nolan, L. Roy, J.P. Volpe, and M. Wheatley. 2013. Wolverines (Gulo gulo luscus) on the Rocky Mountain slopes : natural heterogeneity and landscape alteration as predictors of distribution. Canadian Journal of Zoology 91: 706–716.

Freimund, W., M. Patterson, K. Bosak, and S. Walker-Saxen. 2009. Winter Experiences of Old Faithful Visitors in Yellowstone National Park. University of Montana, Missoula, MT. 151p. http://www.nps.gov/yell/parkmgmt/upload/8_2009final_winter_experiences.pdf

Gage, E., and D.J. Cooper. 2009. Winter Recreation Impacts to Wetlands: A Technical Review. Prepared for Arapaho-Roosevelt National Forests, White River National Forest, and Black Hills National Forest. Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO. 29p.

Gaines, W.L., P.H. Singleton, and R.C. Ross. 2003. Assessing the Cumulative Effects of Linear Recreation Routes on Wildlife Habitats on the Okanogan and Wenatchee National Forests. Gen. Tech. Rep. PNW-GTR-586. Portland, OR: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Pacific Northwest Research Station. 79p. http://www.fs.fed.us/pnw/pubs/gtr586.pdf

Gese, E., J.L.B. Dowd, and L. Aubry. 2013. The influence of snowmobile trails on coyote movements during winter in high-elevation landscapes. Plos One 8: 1-10.

Gibbons, S., and E.J. Ruddell. 1995. The effect of goal orientation and place dependence on select goal interferences among winter backcountry users. Leisure Sciences 17: 171-183.

Goldstein, M.I., A.J. Poe, L.H. Suring, R. M. Nielson, and T.L. McDonald. 2010. Brown bear den habitat and winter recreation in south-central Alaska. Journal of Wildlife Management 74: 35–42.

Harris G., R.M. Nielson, and T. Rinaldi. 2014. Effects of winter recreation on northern ungulates with focus on moose (Alces alces) and snowmobiles. European Journal of Wildlife Resources 60: 45–58.

Hastings, A.L., G.G. Fleming, and C.S.Y. Lee. 2006. Modeling Sound Due to Over-Snow Vehicles in Yellowstone and Grand Teton National Parks. Report DOT-VNTSC-NPS-06- 06, Volpe Transportation Center, Cambridge, MA. http://www.nps.gov/yell/parkmgmt/upload/finalsound%20_modelingreport.pdf

Heinemeyer, K., and J. Squires. 2013. Wolverine – Winter Recreation Research Project: Investigating the Interactions Between Wolverines and Winter Recreation 2013 Progress Report. Round River Conservation Studies. Salt Lake City, UT. 22p. http://www.roundriver.info/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/Final-Idaho-Wolverine-Winter-Recreation-Project-2013-Progress-Report-16Nov13.pdf

Heinemeyer, K., J. Squires., and M. Hebblewhite. 2014. Wolverine responses to winter recreation. Presentation at the North American Congress for Conservation Biology. July 13 - 16. Missoula, MT.

Hilderbrand, G.V., L.L. Lewis, J. Larrivee, and S.D. Farley. 2000. A denning brown bear, Ursus arctos, sow and two cubs killed in an avalanche on the Kenai Peninsula, Alaska. Canadian Field-Naturalist 114(3): 498.

Idaho Department of Fish and Game (IDFG). 2014. Management Plan for the Conservation of Wolverines in Idaho. Idaho Department of Fish and Game, Boise, ID. 48p.http://fishandgame.idaho.gov/public/wildlife/planWolverine.pdf

Ingersoll, G.P. 1999. Water-Resources Investigations Report Effects of Snowmobile Use on Snowpack Chemistry in Yellowstone National Park, 1998. U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO. 24p.

IPCC. 2013. Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [Stocker, T.F., D. Qin, G.-K. Plattner, M. Tignor, S.K. Allen, J. Boschung, A. Nauels, Y. Xia, V. Bex and P.M. Midgley (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY. 1535p.

Jackson, E.L., and R.A.G. Wong. 1982. Perceived conflict between urban cross-country skiers and snowmobilers in Alberta. Journal of Leisure Research 14(1): 47-62.

Janssem, S., and T. Schettler. 2003. Health Implications of Snowmobile use in Yellowstone National Park. 27p.

Kado, N.Y., P.A. Kuzmicky, and R.A. Okamoto. 2001. Environmental and Occupational Exposure to Toxic Air Pollutants from Winter Snowmobile Use in Yellowstone National Park. Prepared for the Yellowstone Park Foundation and National Park Service. 152p.

Knopp, T.B. and J.D. Tyger. 1973. A study of conflict in recreational land use: snowmobiling vs. ski touring. Journal of Leisure Research 5(3): 6-17.

Kolbe, J.A., J.R. Squires, D.H. Pletscher, and L.F. Ruggiero. 2007. The effect of snowmobile trails on coyote movements within lynx home ranges. Journal of Wildlife Management 71: 1409-1418.

Lindberg, K., P. Fredman, and T. Heldt. 2009. Facilitating integrated recreation management: assessing conflict reduction benefits in a common metric. Forest Science 55(3): 201-209.

Linnell, J.D.C., J.E. Swenson, R. Andersen, B. Brain. 2000. How vulnerable are denning bears to disturbance? Wildlife Society Bulletin 28(2): 400-413.

Mace, R.D., J.S. Waller, T.L. Manley, L.J. Lyon, and H. Zuuring. 1996. Relationships among grizzly bears, roads and habitat in the Swan Mountains, MT. Journal of Applied Ecology 33: 1395-1404.

Manning, R.E., and W.A. Valliere. 2001. Coping in outdoor recreation: Causes and consequences of crowding and conflict among community residents. Journal of Leisure Research 33(4): 410-426.

McDaniel, M.R. 2013. Semivolatile Organic Compounds in Snowmobile Emissions and in the Snowpack and Surface Water in Blackwood Canyon, Lake Tahoe, CA. Dissertation, University of Nevada, Reno.

Miers, S.A., R.D. Chalgren, and C.L. Anderson. 2000. Noise and Emission Reduction Strategies for a Snowmobile. Society of Automotive Engineers. 6p.

Montana Department of Natural Resources (MT DNRC). 2011. Forested State Trust Lands Habitat Conservation Plan (HCP). Final Environmental Impact Statement (EIS), September 17, 2010. 801p.

Musselman, R.C. and J.L. Korfmacher. 2007. Air quality and snow chemistry at a snowmobile staging area in a Rocky Mountain subalpine forest, Snowy Range, Wyoming. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment 133: 321-334.

Neumann, W., G. Ericsson, and H. Dettki. 2011. The impact of human recreational activities: moose as a case study. Alces 47: 17-25.

Office of Management and Budget, Council on Environmental Quality. 2012. Memorandum on Environmental Collaboration and Conflict Resolution. 9p. http://georgewbush-whitehouse.archives.gov/ceq/joint-statement.html

Ouren, D.S., C. Haas, C.P. Melcher, S.C. Stewart, P.D. Ponds, N.R. Sexton, L. Burris, T. Fancher, and Z.H. Bowen. 2007. Environmental Effects of Off-Highway Vehicles on Bureau of Land Management Lands: A Literature Synthesis, Annotated Bibliographies, Extensive Bibliographies, and Internet Resources: U.S. Geological Survey, Open-File Report 2007-1353. 225 p. http://www.fort.usgs.gov/products/publications/22021/22021.pdf

Podruzny, S., S. Cherry, C. Schwartz, and L. Landenburger. 2002. Grizzly bear denning and potential conflict areas in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem. Ursus 13: 19–28.

Ray, J. D. 2010. Winter Air Quality in Yellowstone National Park: 2009-2010, Natural Resource Technical Report. National Park Service, Fort Collins, Colorado. http://www.nature.nps.gov/air/Pubs/pdf/yell/2009-2011_YELL_WinterAQ.pdf

Reed, S.E., J.P. Mann and J.L. Boggs. 2009. SPreAD-GIS: An ArcGIS Toolbox for Modeling the Propagation of Engine Noise in a Wildland Setting. Version 1.2. The Wilderness Society, San Francisco, CA. http://www.acousticecology.org/docs/TWS_SPreAD_usersguide.pdf

Reimann, S., R. Kallenborn, and N. Schmidbauer. 2009. Severe aromatic hydrocarbon pollution in the arctic town of Longyearbyen (Svalbard) caused by snowmobile emissions. Environmental Science and Technology 43: 4791–4795.

Rivers, K.E., and M. Menlove. 2006. Winter Recreation on Western National Forest Lands: A Comprehensive Analysis of Motorized and Non-Motorized Opportunity and Access. Published by Winter Wildlands Alliance, Boise, ID. 41p. http://winterwildlands.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/Winter-Recreation-on-Western-National-Forests-WWA_2006.pdf

Saxen, S.W. 2008. Park Visitors and the Natural Soundscape: Winter Experience Dimensions in Yellowstone National Park. Dissertation, University of Montana Bozeman, USA. 142p.

Schuett et al. 2001. Making It Work: Keys to Successful Collaboration in Natural Resource Management. Environmental Management Vol. 27, No. 4, pp. 587–593.

Schwartz, M.K., J.P. Copeland, N.J. Anderson, J.R. Squires, R.M. Inman, K.S. McKelvey, K.L. Pilgrim, L.P. Waits, and S.A. Cushman. 2009. Wolverine gene flow across a narrow climatic niche. Ecology 90(11): 3222–3232.

Shelby, B., J. Vaske, and M. Donnelly. 1996. Norms, standards, and natural resources. Leisure Sciences 18: 103–123.

Stangl, J.T. 1999. Effects of winter recreation on vegetation. Pages 119-121 in T. Olliff, K. Legg, and B. Kaeding, editors. Effects of Winter Recreation on Wildlife of the Greater Yellowstone Area: a Literature Review and Assessment. Report to the Greater Yellowstone Coordinating Committee. Yellowstone National Park, WY. 315p.

Stokowski, P.A. and C.B. LaPointe. 2000. Environmental and Social Effects of ATVs and ORVs: an Annotated Bibliography and Research Assessment. School of Natural Resources, University of Vermont. 31p. http://www.anr.state.vt.us/anr/atv_nov20_final.pdf

Switalski, A., and A. Jones. 2012. Off-road vehicle best management practices for forestlands: A review of scientific literature and guidance for managers. Journal of Conservation Planning 8: 12-24.

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2000. Canada Lynx Assessment and Conservation Strategy. Forest Service, Missoula, MT. 120p.

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2000. Water and the Forest Service. USDA Forest Service Policy Analysis. Washington, D.C. 26p. http://www.fs.fed.us/publications/policy-analysis/water.pdf

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2003. Revised Forest Plan Wasatch-Cache National Forest. Salt Lake City, UT. 476p.

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2007a. Decision Notice and Finding of No Significant Impact: Alpine Winter Recreation Project. Humboldt-Toiyabe National Forest. Alpine County, CA. 8p.

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2007b. Record of Decision. Kenai Winter Access, Chugach National Forest. 30p.

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2011. Forest Plan Amendments for Motorized Access Management within the Selkirk and Cabinet-Yaak Grizzly Bear Recovery Zones (Kootenai, Lolo, and Idaho Panhandle National Forests) USDA Forest Service Northern Region. Missoula, MT 68p.

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2012. National Best Management Practices for Water Quality Management on National Forest System Lands - Volume 1: National Core BMP Technical Guide FS-990a. 165p. http://www.fs.fed.us/biology/resources/pubs/watershed/FS_National_Core_BMPs_April2012.pdf

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2014a. National Visitor Use Monitoring - Version: 2.1.2.37. Available online at: http://apps.fs.usda.gov/nrm/nvum/results/R01-R02-R03-R04-R05-R06-R08-R09-R10.aspx/Round3

USDA Forest Service (FS). 2014b. Detailed Proposed Action in Support of the Need to Change Items in the Notice of Intent for Forest Plan Revision for the Inyo, Sequoia and Sierra National Forests. R5-MB-276. 63p.

USDI Fish and Wildlife Service (FWS). 2008. Biological Opinion on the Effects of Winter Motorized Recreation Forest Plan Amendment for the Flathead National Forest" ("A24") on Grizzly Bears. U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Montana Ecological Services Field Office. Helena, MT. 71p.

USDI National Park Service (NPS). 2000. Air Quality Concerns Related to Snowmobile Usage in National Parks. Washington, D.C.: Feb. 2000. 22p. http://www.nature.nps.gov/air/Pubs/pdf/yell/Snowmobile_Report.pdf

USDI National Park Service (NPS). 2011. Scientific Assessment of Yellowstone National Park Winter Use March 2011. Yellowstone National Park, Mammoth, WY. 190p. http://www.nps.gov/yell/parkmgmt/upload/yell_sci_assessment_deis_release_2011.pdf

USDI National Park Service (NPS). 2013. Yellowstone National Park Winter Use Plan / Supplemental Environmental Impact Statement February 2013. Yellowstone National Park, WY. 384p. http://parkplanning.nps.gov/document.cfm?parkID=111&projectID=40806&documentID=51874

Vittersø, J, R. Chipeniuk, M. Skår, and O.I. Vistad. 2004. Recreational conflict is affective: case study of cross country skiers and snowmobiles. Leisure Sciences 26: 227-243.

Whittington, J., A. Forshner, R. Steenweg, and M. Hebblewhite. 2014. Multi-scale monitoring of wolverine and lynx using camera traps and snow-track surveys. Presentation at the North American Congress for Conservation Biology. July 13 - 16. Missoula, MT.

Winter Wildlands Alliance (WWA). 2009. Seeing the Forest and the Trees: Assessing Snowmobile Tree Damage in National Forests. A report by Winter Wildlands Alliance, Boise, ID. 3p. http://209.200.74.232/resources/reports/WWA_Treetop_Damage_Report_final.pdf

Winter Wildlands Alliance. 2014. Environmental Impacts from Snowmobile Use. Published by Winter Wildlands Alliance, Boise, ID. 10p. http://winterwildlands.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/Environmental-Impacts-from-Snowmobile-Use.pdf

Yankoviak, B.M. 2005. Off-Road Vehicle Policy on USDA National Forests: Evaluating User Conflicts and Travel Management. MS Thesis: University of Montana, Missoula, MT.

Zhou, Y., D. Shively, H. Mao, R.S. Russo, B. Pape, R.N. Mower, R. Talbot, and B.C. Sive. 2010. Air toxic emissions from snowmobiles in Yellowstone National Park. Environmental Science and Technology 44(1): 222-228.