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Abstracts from the
2014 Leisure Research Symposium

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PREFACE—2014 LEISURE RESEARCH SYMPOSIUM

We are pleased to present the abstracts for the 37th annual Leisure Research Symposium (LRS) held in conjunction with the National Recreation and Parks Association Congress in Charlotte, North Carolina, October 14-16, 2014. This year we received 69 abstracts, which included two panel presentations, for review. Of those, 48 oral paper presentations plus 2 panel sessions and 9 posters were accepted for inclusion in this year’s symposium. The oral presentations and posters are blind peer reviewed in a process where the reviewers do not know if the abstract is to be considered for a poster or an oral presentation. Dr. Laura Payne, from University of Illinois, is coordinating this year’s poster session.

The 2014 LRS commences with the Butler Lecture in the afternoon, on Tuesday October 14th, by addressing the topic of “Leisure Research for Social Impact.” Dr. Troy Glover, Director of the Healthy Communities Research Network, Professor in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies at the University of Waterloo in Canada, and a Fellow in the Academy of Leisure Sciences, will deliver the main keynote speech. Dr. Glover’s abstract is the first abstract in the 2014 LRS Book of Abstracts. Following Dr. Glover’s remarks, there will be an opportunity for questions and discussion.

The LRS oral presentations will begin the next morning, Wednesday, October 15th at 8:00a.m., with a range of themed sessions. After the abstracts were reviewed, we grouped the presentations into themes. This year we received a significant number of submissions related to physical activity and health, sports, youth development, leisure within an international context, leisure and diversity, and outdoor recreation, broadly defined. Overall, the presentations represent an impressive diversity and depth. The moderators have been asked to facilitate discussions on a particular theme at the end of each session, so please stay and engage in some lively debate.

The organization of the LRS always involves a collaborative effort. Our thanks go to the review coordinators and reviewers whose dedication and willingness to serve are much appreciated. We want to extend thanks and appreciation to both NRPA staff liaisons, Danielle Price and Tom Crosley, who have worked diligently once again this year and Dr. Laura Payne for coordinating the poster session. We also extend our thanks to the presenters for sharing their work and the moderators for facilitating the sessions. We are looking forward to seeing you in Charlotte and enjoying the 37th Leisure Research Symposium with you.

Ed Gómez and Jim Sibthorp
2014 Leisure Research Symposium Co-Chairs
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Perhaps more than ever, leisure researchers work within a contested landscape for evaluating the quality and relevance of their research. Pressures pervade on multiple fronts. Peer review, the longstanding standard by which we judge the quality of our work, continues to drive topical and funding decisions, the merit of our manuscript submissions for publication, and employment and promotion within our institutions. The growing weight of impact factors of our journals introduces new tensions and demands around our selection of outlets for our published work. And external rankings of our programs increasingly rely on publication counts of faculty (see Jackson, 2004; Walker & Fenton, 2011). Meanwhile, in an era of austerity, external calls for public accountability and value for money pervade, demanding that those of us who work in publicly funded institutions and who rely on public monies to fund our research increasingly focus our attention on the social relevance of our work, its contribution to practice and society, and its influence on public policy. In short, we can no longer, if we ever did, isolate ourselves from our surrounding contexts or disengage from pressing social matters. We must do rigorous, socially relevant research. So say our diverse constituents, all of whom desire access to knowledge they can use.

Interestingly, our field occupies a precarious position within this landscape. While leisure studies has always worked hard to prove the value of the relatively meagre resources devoted to support it, its preoccupation with advancing “leisure theory” has led some scholars and practitioners to criticize what they see as its growing disengagement from, or apparent irrelevance to, the practitioner community, the very community it was established to serve. Our position in leisure studies, with its long-standing connections to practice, means we have many potential links to stakeholders in the commercial, not-for-profit, and public sectors, yet the expansion of leisure research has possibly led us to evolve to a point where there is seemingly no clear user base for our research. These tensions invite interrogations of the relevance of our work, leading to the nagging question: does leisure research matter?

With this longstanding question in mind, this year’s Butler Lecture revisits and reframes the issue of research relevance, the subject of a spirited panel discussion twenty years ago at the 1994 Leisure Research Symposium. In so doing, it shifts our attention away from the direct products of our work to the process and benefits associated with them. Focusing on use as a proxy for research relevance, I explore the various opportunities we have to enhance the social impact of our research by using it for knowledge mobilization, critical judgement, and social innovation.

**Research Relevance as Use**

When colleagues, practitioners, or members of the public disparage research for being irrelevant, for all intents and purposes, they premise their scrutiny on its utility. Who’s citing our work? How has this research influenced practice or policy? Isn’t it just going to sit on a shelf unused? Use, in other words, becomes a crude marker of relevance. Thinking of relevance as use introduces an important question about our audience and aims: research for what purpose? While leisure research aims to improve quality of life and contribute to economic, cultural, social, technological, environmental, and intellectual well-being, the question of use warrants consideration as we explore what makes the practice of research relevant in this contemporary moment. In my view, we enhance our social impact when we use our research for (a) knowledge mobilization, (b) critical judgment, and (c) social innovation. By actively engaging with
stakeholder communities in these three ways, we work toward demonstrating how the research we do benefits others.

**Research for Knowledge Mobilization:** The “knowledge economy”—a major policy platform in the United States, Canada, and across the world—regards research as the key source of economic and political power and social and individual prosperity. Because the creation of new knowledge exists primarily within higher education, the university plays a significant role in its advancement. The relevance of our work is not self-evident, however; we must explain ourselves to others. The lethargic, unnecessarily linear “trickle down” model of the knowledge supply chain (i.e., from collection to page to classroom to boardroom) warrants disruption. As active agents in the research process, we, as social scientists, improve the flow of knowledge among multiple users by opening ourselves up to “. . . non-linear, dialogical, discursive, and multidirectional approaches [to research] with the general acknowledgement that all knowledge is ‘socially constructed’ unlike the unidirectional ‘producer-consumer’ implications of concepts such as knowledge and technology transfer” (SSHRC, 2009, p. 5). Knowledge mobilization, in other words, represents a growing responsibility and societal expectation of researchers in the social sciences, including those of us in Leisure Studies.

In contrast to our traditional, linear conception of knowledge diffusion, knowledge mobilization can be thought of as “a process, encompassing the co-production and channeling of knowledge that enables the academy to gain purchase and voice in the policy-making and delivery process, and supports the academy’s endeavor to make a difference” (Bannister & Hardill, 2013, p. 168). Less about the transfer of findings into a specific context and more to do with how our research—both its process and outcomes—can be used as a vehicle for public discourse, engagement, and deliberation (Ellwood, Thorpe & Coleman, 2013), knowledge mobilization treats users as co-producers and thoughtful interpreters of knowledge, as well as shrewd sources of ideas and inspiration (Van de Ven, 2006). Accordingly, knowledge mobilization underscores an active model of interaction between researchers and users—before, during, and/or after the research is conducted—to emphasize joint actions in the definition, creation, authentication, and use of research (Bannister & Hardill, 2013). As a relevant field, Leisure Studies engages, in this manner, with those who manage and experience social problems. Successful strategies for mobilization focus on dissemination, educational interventions, collaborations between researchers and users, and facilitation (Barrister & O’Sullivan, 2013). In short, knowledge mobilization transcends our campuses and grounds us in the social realities that drive our research. By moving research knowledge beyond the academy, then, knowledge mobilization increases its social impact.

**Research for Critical Judgment:** Research provides the conceptual, intellectual, and evidential bases for critical judgment. Through such work, we interrogate policies, practices, and privileges, expose misuses of power and injustices, and challenge decision-making and (in)action (Bannister & Hardill, 2013). By challenging the dominant discourse, we identify problems that warrant attention and open up new ways of seeing things. In so doing, we construct realities about ways in which life should be lived by providing idealized visions for end states of society and roles that move society closer to them (Stewart, Parry & Glover, 2008). Through our critical judgments, we use our strengths as researchers to insert ourselves and our values into public dialogues, not necessarily to please audiences, but rather to challenge them to think and potentially act differently.

**Research for Social Innovation:** Our research reframes problems and assists in crafting a fuller range of potential solutions, thereby enabling us to recommend improvements in policy,
practice, and social life and advance hope. In this sense, our work has the potential to contribute to the social innovation process. Social innovation refers to “any initiatives, products, processes, or programs that change basic routines, resources and authority flows, or beliefs of any social system” (Moore & Westley, 2011, p. 2). As much of our research shows, leisure has the potential to serve in this capacity. Our research can spark the process of social innovation, generating new ideas and directions. Moreover, in mobilizing knowledge for improvement, we can help others recognize the need for change and strategic intent, reframing specialized knowledge to make it comprehensible, accessible, and engaging for others, particularly decision makers, and sharing social innovations with relevant audiences and across scales. In sum, knowledge mobilization, critical judgment, and social innovation position researchers as active agents in the ongoing efforts to enhance quality of life and make a difference.

**Toward a Social Impact Agenda for Leisure Studies: Challenges and Opportunities**

Despite internal and external calls to adopt an explicit social impact agenda, our professional reward system struggles to value our efforts to use our research for social impact. Our professional goals as faculty continue to be publication and tenure, and less so public engagement. Though admirable, the diverse research uses described above—knowledge mobilization, critical judgment, and social innovation—fights to fit neatly with the conventional aspirations and rewards of our profession as academics. Our reward system encourages us to advance knowledge, but not necessarily to mobilize it. As a result, impact in the academy means evaluating our work in terms of quantity of citations and publications. Though we give credence to “quality” and “importance” as measures of our research contributions, their evaluation remains purely subjective (Hicks & Crouch, 1990). As a result, we stick to our conventional quantitative exercise of counting publications and citations. Society demands more from us. We demand more from our own research.

Most, if not all, researchers in our field aim to make a difference through their research. Leisure Studies characterizes itself as a field in which we necessarily connect directly with our participants, increasingly engaging them as co-producers in the research process. Moreover, much of the joy we derive from our research stems from our direct interactions with participants and users of our research. For these reasons, Leisure Studies ought to champion a social impact agenda and take steps to embrace the increasing blurring of our trinity of responsibilities as faculty: research, teaching and service.

That social impact is challenging to measure should not be lost on us, however. In practice, impact can be complex and contingent, thereby making it unclear what should be attributed to research or to other inputs. Far from a simple question of cause and effect and more recursive (SSHRC, 2009), the impact of most research only becomes apparent in the distant future. By its very nature and complexity, social impact cannot be known *a priori*. As a result, our articulation of our research impact is often “more postulated than demonstrated” (Bornmann, 2013, p. 219).

These challenges should not dissuade us from advancing a social impact agenda, though. Claims to pursue knowledge for knowledge’s sake are no longer feasible in this climate of austerity and increased public scrutiny, nor are they even desirable for leisure researchers who genuinely want to make a difference. The antiquated distinction between basic and applied research holds little, if any, weight in this day and age. No one—especially in leisure studies—has the luxury to claim his or her research is not aimed at socially relevant outcomes. So, what do we do?

We can begin by asking ourselves: *who* benefits from our research? And *how* does society benefit from it? These questions offer a constructive starting point when planning our research
projects. They present an opportunity to consider how our research questions or design/process can better serve those affected by the topic (Thomas, 2013). Second, we need to be reasonable about our appraisal of our impact over the course of our careers. Small victories—like those associated with changes we see in our research participants after they participate in our projects (see Parry, 2014)—represent starting points for even bigger successes. Knowledge mobilization, critical judgment, and social innovation can be forwarded in various ways over the life course of our careers. In this sense, the criteria by which we judge our work “... is less about the relevance of a specific research project and more about the relevance of researchers themselves during a lifetime’s scholarship” (Ellwood et al., 2013, p. 198). Finally, we need to value our collective contribution to social impact through our leisure scholarship. The pluralism and proliferation of epistemological, methodological, and analytical approaches in our field only serve to strengthen our body of knowledge and its potential for impact. We must embrace this growing diversity of scholarship, for it helps us all accomplish our collective aims to accomplish a sense of social impact. Taken together, these recommendations point to the good work we are doing, but also push us necessarily in a direction to aim for an even bigger impact.

Conclusion
Over the years, our field has necessarily expanded its constituency to include new and exciting foci, partners, and consumers of our research. This growth represents an opportunity for our traditional practitioner community by bridging diverse parties together to address common problems. Because of our ever-expanding and ever-evolving connections to various practices, the growing social impact agenda within the academy represents less of a threat to us than to our colleagues in the core disciplines of social science and the humanities. Even so, leisure research, like any other field, must continue to endeavor to make an impact on its users and thus on practice and social policy. Its capacity to do so should not be in question. Ultimately, we have been in a decades-long reimagining of what we do. The social sciences—in which I include leisure studies—matter because they help society understand, confront, and address complex social challenges. In this sense, Leisure Studies has heeded Shaw’s (2000) call by slowly, but surely shifting its attention to the pressing social problems of our time (e.g., aging populations, growing ethnic and racial diversity in our communities, rising incidences of chronic disease, the mismatch between growing GDP and stagnating happiness, environmental degradation). To move further along in this direction, we must continue to forge connections that help us focus on problems rather than remaining rooted within our individual disciplinary boundaries. In my view, knowledge mobilization, critical judgment, and social innovation necessarily positions our research in a way that enhances its ability to address societal problems and contribute to collective efforts to improve quality of life and overall wellbeing.

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Selected References
EMOTION AND IDENTITY AFFIRMATION IN MIDDLE CLASS CHINESE AND AMERICANS
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Edward Ruddell, University of Utah

The outbound tourism markets of the United States and China share many similarities. Both markets are two of the largest in the world, have access to numerous foreign countries, and mainly consist of older, middle class individuals and families (Keating & Kriz, 2008, Worldbank, 2013). While the number of outbound tourists originating in the United States has remained static over the past 5 years, Chinese outbound tourism is increasing rapidly, fueled by the growth of the new Chinese middle class (Farrell, Gersch, & Stephenson, 2006, Worldbank, 2013). By 2020, it is estimated that China will be producing 100 million outbound tourists (Chinese Tourism Academy, 2013). Though the demographics of American and Chinese tourists are comparable, cultural differences present unique opportunities and challenges for the tourism market.

As a historically western activity (Page, 2007), current tourism practices may not be compatible with middle class Chinese tourists. Socially and psychologically, Chinese tourists may differ markedly from western outbound tourists, such as Americans. Comparing and exploring emotional responses to identity affirming and disaffirming touristic experiences highlights differences between middle class Chinese and American individuals, allowing the tourism industry to better cater to individuals from both nationalities.

Theoretical Background and Framework

Emotions and identity affirmation vary based on the dominant cultural orientation of a society. According to Hofstede (1980), there are two dominant cultural orientations, collectivism and individualism. China, which is routinely categorized as a collective culture, favors the group as the main unit of society, while the individually oriented culture of the United States emphasizes the individual (Triandis, 1995). Collectivism and individualism impact emotions by creating preferences for certain types of affect that support the country’s cultural orientation (Triandis, 1997). Chinese individuals prefer pleasant low activation emotions such as calm and tranquility, as these emotions are supportive and do not disrupt group harmony and cohesion (Mesquita & Frijda, 1992). Pleasant high activation emotions including happiness and pride are preferred by American individuals because these emotions highlight the individual, supporting the individual orientation in the United States (Eid & Diener, 2009).

Culture also impacts identity affirmation, which is the maintenance and support of an identity. The strong collective orientation in China is responsible for the development of interdependent self. Individuals possessing an interdependent self form and define their identities based on the larger groups they belong to (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The individual cultural orientation in the United States generally produces an individual self-orientation. Contrary to the interdependent self of China, the formation and upkeep of identity is achieved through personal agency and action (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The result of these differences in identity is that Chinese individuals depend on their in groups for identity affirmation, while American individuals affirm identity through their distinctive actions.

Role-identity theory and identity control theory posit that emotions are an outcome of identity affirmation and disaffirmation. Both theories hypothesize that individuals hold multiple identities, generally one for each position they hold in society. Each identity comes with a socially created “script,” which an individual must follow to properly “act” out the identity
When a script is correctly followed, identity affirmation occurs, resulting in pleasant emotions from those viewing the “performance” and the “actor.” Failure to follow the script results in identity disaffirmation, causing unpleasant emotions from the observers and for the actor (Stets, 2005). Emotions serve as a societal indicator for the individual acting out an identity; pleasant emotions denote a correct performance and urge the individual to continue, while unpleasant emotions signify an incorrect performance, directing the individual to alter their actions.

Four hypotheses were constructed to study the link between emotions and identity affirmation. Based on Russell’s (1980) circumplex model of emotion, emotions in this study were placed into four quadrants, pleasant low activation (calm, tranquility), pleasant high activation (pride, happiness), unpleasant low activation (misery, depression), and unpleasant high activation (anger, frustration) emotions. Each hypothesis investigates the impact of the condition interacting with nationality on the four emotion quadrants. Specifically, it was predicted that identity affirming and disaffirming experiences would produce stronger pleasant and unpleasant low activation emotions in Chinese participants, and greater pleasant and unpleasant high activation emotions in Americans.

Methods
This study was conducted during the summer and fall of 2013 on the campus of Shanghai Normal University in Shanghai, China, and the University of Utah. The universities are both state schools, with a large, diverse population, and allow students to study a variety of subjects. Both subsamples consisted of students and professors. Of the 129 participants, 63 (48.8%) were Chinese, and 66 (51.2%) American. Eighty-four (65.1%) participants were students, while 45 (34.9%) were professors, with 57 (44.2%) male and 72 (55.8%) female. Emotions were measured using a 16-item questionnaire; each item was placed on a 7-point likert scale, anchored by values of 1 and 7. One represented no emotion felt, and 7 represented a strongly felt emotion. Identity affirmation was manipulated through the use of touristic vignettes. Two vignettes for each nationality, depicting identity affirming and disaffirming touristic experiences were presented to each participant. Internal consistency for the emotion measures was analyzed using Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients. For three of the measures, a single item was dropped. This study utilized a 1x2 within subjects repeated measures design. Four independent repeated measures ANOVA tests were used to test each hypothesis. Each hypothesis included an interaction with the nationality of the participant, with the significance of each interaction being investigated. The main effects of tests lacking significant interactions were retested using paired samples t-tests.

Results
The first hypothesis predicted that the identity affirming touristic experience would produce greater pleasant low activation emotions than the identity disaffirming experience, and the affect would be greater in Chinese participants. No significant interaction was found. An investigation of the main effects found that the identity affirming experience produced greater pleasant low activation emotions than the identity disaffirming experience $t (128) = 8.40, p < .001, r = .60$, partially supporting the first hypothesis. The second hypothesis predicted that the identity affirming touristic experience would produce greater pleasant high activation emotions than the identity disaffirming experience, and the affect would be greater in American participants. There was a significant interaction, with the affect being greater in American participants $F (1, 127) = 15.49, p < .001, \textit{partial } \eta^2 = .11$, supporting the second hypothesis. The third hypothesis predicted that the identity disaffirming touristic experience would produce greater unpleasant
high activation emotions than the identity affirming experience, and the affect would be greater in American participants. There was a significant interaction, with the affect being greater in American participants $F (1, 127) = 23.35, p < .001$, $\text{partial } \eta^2 = .16$, supporting the third hypothesis. The fourth hypothesis predicted that the identity disaffirming touristic experience would produce greater unpleasant low activation emotions than the identity affirming experience, and the affect would be greater in Chinese participants. There was a significant interaction, with the affect being greater in American participants $F (1, 127) = 23.66, p < .001$, $\text{partial } \eta^2 = .16$. The predicted effect was reversed, resulting in this hypothesis not being supported.

**Discussion**

The results of this study support the major theoretical claims of role-identity and identity control theory; mainly that identity affirmation leads to stronger pleasant emotions and identity disaffirmation initiates stronger unpleasant emotions. There were surprising outcomes as well. While the American sample exhibited the expected stronger high activation emotions due to the individual orientation, the Chinese sample did not have greater low activation emotions. This was unexpected due to the dominant collective orientation.

One potential reason for this outcome may be the impact of globalization and modernization on Chinese culture. Many modernization theories predict that as a culture gains affluence and a larger middle class, they tend to orient towards individualism (Inglehart & Baker, 2000; Leung, 2008). This study presents evidence that this process of modernization may be occurring. These results also raise the issue of studying cultures through nationality categorization. Within a culture there are many similarities, but there are also major differences (Stephan & Stephan, 1990). Because of this, categorizing cultures as nationalities may mask important differences in a population, especially when considering individualism and collectivism. As Hofstede (1980) points out, both orientations have great variation. The practical implications of this study speak to potential avenues for successfully marketing and creating touristic experiences for both nationalities. This study indicates that the tourism industry may want to approach Chinese outbound tourists in a similar manner as they do American outbound tourists. Though more research needs to be conducted on middle class Chinese outbound tourists, this study supports a more American, individualized approach to marketing and providing experiences to outbound Chinese Tourists.

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Selected References


The purpose of this panel is to illustrate three methods for collecting data to describe the aquatic experiences of people who use an outdoor pool. Relying upon the Reasoned Action Approach (RAA; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) the studies within this panel each build upon the previous, demonstrating a comprehensive research approach. Recreation and public health professionals can use these findings to identify how users perceive experience and to work collaboratively for the benefit of the entire community. Overall, the findings demonstrate that respondents believe aquatic facilities provide social and mental/emotional well-being as well as physical health.

**Presentation I – Dimensions of Experience: An Analysis of In-Depth Interviews**

This study utilized in-depth interviews of targeted users of an outdoor aquatic facility to gain initial insight into their experiences. Through guided questions, interviewees were asked about their ideal and memorable experiences at the facility, ideas associated with their experiences and desired changes to the facility that may impact experience. Results identified categories around which the experience of users (both good and bad) is based. These results can help to better inform professionals about member needs and the impact that categories of experience can have on physical, mental and social well-being of users at these facilities.

**Presentation II - Dimensions of Perceived Benefits: Analysis of a Salient Belief Elicitation**

An online survey containing open ended items was conducted with visitors to an outdoor pool to identify salient consequences of using the facility. As part of a salient belief elicitation based on the Reasoned Action Approach users were asked what advantages or good things might happen when they used the pool. Participants believed using the pool would provide physical, social and mental or emotional benefits. The salient belief elicitation method can identify, from a user perspective, the dimensions of experience and well-being that participating in leisure activities at an outdoor aquatic facility can address. The results can help design and manage facilities to better achieve these benefits. And, the results can improve promotional materials to attract more users.

**Presentation III – Dimensions of Well-Being: Analysis of a Quantitative Online Survey**

This study utilized an online survey containing only close-ended items with community members living in the area around an outdoor pool to identify the domains of well-being that the community members perceived the facility provided. A section of the survey directed participants to rate the degree to which the facility provided seven domains of health and well-being. Results indicated that the top three domains identified by community members were physical, mental and social well-being. A multivariate analysis revealed that heavy users of the facility (3 or more days a week) differed from light users (0-2 days a week). These results confirm that participants perceive the built environment of the facility as one that impacts well-being. Recreation and public health professionals can utilize these environments to impact participants physically, mentally and socially through the implementation of selected policies promoting a conducive environment for frequent individual participation.
Presentation I – Dimensions of Experience: An Analysis of In-Depth Interviews

Purpose
To gain insight into aspects of experience for current users of an outdoor aquatic facility.

Methods
In-depth interviews were conducted with five targeted users of an outdoor aquatic facility and were analyzed using systematic constant comparison analysis consistent with tenants of the grounded theory approach. Interviewees were selected utilizing purposeful sampling techniques based on their regular use of the aquatic facility to ensure representation of multiple user groups. Interviewees were asked guiding questions to gain in-depth descriptions of their experience at the facility including: ideal and memorable experiences, free association, and desired changes to the facility/experience.

Findings
Results indicated that the experience of users grouped around five basic categories which included: (a) weather and natural environment, (b) physical makeup of the facility, (c) activities engaged in while at the facility, (d) management/administrative issues impacting experience, and (e) community and family. While individuals interpreted these categories in differing ways, aspects of experience were key when determining how the facility was seen as a community resource (see Table 1). Results indicated the importance of affective aspects of the facility such as sense of place, family, community and social interactions.

Discussion
The analyses of these categories can inform recreational and public health professionals about the wide range of member needs in communities utilizing aquatic facilities, and the impact of experiences on physical, mental and social well-being at these unique venues. For example, a professional wishing to contribute to a positive experience for users can focus efforts on emphasizing the natural environment, the availability of special events and relaxation areas, having a wide variety of operational hours, and attracting a diverse community of participants.

Table 1. Findings—Categories of Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Factors Contributing to a Positive Experience</th>
<th>Factors Contributing to a Negative Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weather and Natural Environment</td>
<td>Natural environment of the pool-woods, grass</td>
<td>Lack of shade/sun overexposure Extreme weather conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sunny and refreshing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Makeup of the Facility</td>
<td>Welcoming nature of entrance areas</td>
<td>Cleanliness and comfort of locker rooms and bathing areas Lack of artificial shade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities Engaged in While at the Facility</td>
<td>Wide availability of lap swimming activities</td>
<td>Elimination of some activities due to risk factors Crowds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environment for relaxation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special Events</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management and Administrative Issues</td>
<td>Generous hours of operation</td>
<td>Lack of information from management to participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community and Family</td>
<td>Established culture in existence</td>
<td>Fear of changes to current culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diversity of participants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recreational time with family</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Purpose
To identify the salient advantages of using an outdoor pool perceived by public users

Methods
An online survey containing open-ended items was conducted with 74 adult visitors to an outdoor pool located in a university town. Participants were recruited from email lists of users as well as from current visitors. A section of this survey was a salient belief elicitation based on the RAA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). In an elicitation, participants are asked questions about the behavior to identify their top-of-the-mind perceptions. One of the questions was about perceived benefits: “What do you see as the advantages or good things that might happen if you use the outdoor pool next summer season?” One coder conducted a content analysis of verbatim responses to identify categories of responses. Two different coders then classified responses into these categories. A Kappa coefficient of .856 shows there was a high degree of inter-rater reliability between the two coders.

Results
Table 2 presents a frequency analysis for each category. From this, it is clear that users believe using an outdoor pool can provide physical benefits (will make me fit; will provide me exercise; will allow me to swim), social benefits (will allow me to be with my friends and family; will provide lessons for my children), as well as mental or emotional benefits (will help me relax; will be fun; will get me outdoors).

Discussion
A salient belief elicitation is a theory-based method that can identify dimensions of experience of a behavior from the participant perspective. Elicitation results revealed that using a recreational facility like an outdoor pool can address many dimensions of health and well-being. These results can be used to promote the use of recreational facilities as a means to improve health and to engineer built environments to help deliver benefits. As an example for the social benefit, communications to attract users might emphasize how a pool is a place to connect with others. As a mental or emotional benefit, the physical space might be modified to provide more natural and green space so users can experience the outdoors. In sum, we can use fun to promote health.

Table 2. Salient Advantages of Using the Outdoor Pool Next Summer Season (N=74)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using the outdoor pool next summer session...</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Will make me fit</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will provide me exercise</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will allow me to swim/swim laps</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will allow me to be with my friends and family</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will provide lessons for my children</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will allow me to tan</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will get me outdoors (appreciate the outdoors)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will help me relax</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will be fun</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will help me cool off</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will improve my health</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Percentages sum to more than 100% since participants could list multiple answers.
**Presentation III – Dimensions of Well-Being: Analysis of a Quantitative Online Survey**

**Purpose**

To identify the domains of well-being provided by an outdoor pool as perceived by adults living in the community.

**Methods**

An online survey containing close-ended items was conducted with adults living in the community recruited from email lists of current users of the facility and posted announcements, including at other community pools. The survey directed participants to rate the degree to which the outdoor pool provided seven domains of health and well-being on a seven-point scale from “a little” to “a lot” (Teague, Mackenzie & Rosenthal, 2014). Participants were classified on the extent of their weekly expected use of the facility: 218 heavy users (3-7 days) and 262 light users (0-2 days). A multivariate analysis of variance determined if users differed in their perceptions of the domains of well-being provided by this facility.

**Results**

Table 3 presents the means on each of the domains of well-being. From the overall means, the top three domains provided by the pool were physical, mental and social. The analysis revealed that heavy users differed from light users ($F (7, 472) = 4.178, p<.0001$).

**Discussion**

Information derived from the analysis appears intuitive in respect to physical wellness. It can be expected for participants to perceive the built environment of an outdoor pool as one that could impact well-being. Examining means related to well-being may provide insight into the ability of the built environment to impact participants at points not normally considered by health and recreation professionals. Creating the type of atmosphere that enables users to be impacted mentally and socially is within the auspices of the recreational manager through policies related to areas such as operations, staff, maintenance, customer relations, and influence on design. Examples include things such as policies calling for more quiet times at the pool and other times where music may be played, providing areas designated for users to congregate to foster social connections, and training staff to provide safety cues without disruptions when possible. The analysis suggests that within all dimensions of well-being, frequency of use can influence how an individual perceives an impact. Creating an environment conducive to participant retention and motivation to attend is within the skill set of a manager through regularly examining and adapting user barriers such as available hours of operation and cost.

**Table 3. Means on Well-being by Type of Users**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Heavy Users</th>
<th>Light Users</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical well-being</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>9.150</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental well-being</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>24.002</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual well-being</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>9.979</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social well-being</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>9.413</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual well-being</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>12.069</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational well-being</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>14.397</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental well-being</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>11.380</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Selected References**
The US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention position sexual risk-taking (SRT) in young adulthood as a public health priority (CDC, 2008), with women considered as particularly biologically vulnerable (Broaddus et al., 2010). A recent report, ‘Equality for Girls,’ reflects the potency of sexual double standards as a threat to women’s wellbeing (Girlguiding, 2013). A lifespan perspective is also integral to any inquiry into SRT (Carpenter & DeLamater, 2012) and sensation-seeking (Roberti, 2004; Zuckerman, 2007), with early adulthood (17-45 years) argued to be the zenith for thrill-seeking and risk-taking (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002). Moreover, “sexual expression is a function of anticipated pleasures and perceived risks,” as high sensation-seekers are prone to taking risks for the sake of intense sexual sensations (Zuckerman, 2007, p. 146).

Previous research suggests a link between the geographical expansion of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and leisure travel (Clift & Forrest, 2000). SRT was found to be more common in some tourist experiences than in people’s day-to-day lives (Thomas, 2005). To explain the increased rates of SRT in tourism, researchers cite situational disinhibition, anonymity, and liminality/liminoidity as distorting people’s risk perceptions and normative inhibitions (Apostolopoulos, Sönmez, & Yu, 2002; Berdychevsky, Poria, & Uriely, 2013; Pritchard & Morgan, 2006; Selänniemi, 2003). Moreover, there is some evidence suggesting that sexual double standards become subdued in certain tourist experiences since the anonymity offered by the social atmosphere in tourism grants women opportunities for sexual self-exploitation, which may be related to various types of risks (Berdychevsky, Gibson, & Poria, 2013; Falconer, 2011).

Despite the pressing need for comprehensive inquiry into women’s SRT in tourism (Ragsdale, DiFranchekeco, & Pinkerton, 2006), existing literature has tended to focus on STDs (Bloor et al., 2000; Clift & Forrest, 2000), ignoring various physical, mental, social, and emotional risks. The purpose of the study was to address this gap and to develop a comprehensive measurement scale for investigating SRT in leisure travel. The study focused on two research questions: (1) what are the perceived dimensions of SRT in tourism by young female tourists? and (2) do the perceived dimensions of SRT in tourism differ according to sexual sensation-seeking propensity?

**Method**

An SRT scale was developed inductively, using the findings from in-depth interviews, and pre-tested via cognitive think-aloud interviews, expert reviews, and a pilot study. The scale measures the characteristics perceived as making sexual activity in tourism risky. It includes 24 5-point Likert scale items (1 = SD and 5 = SA; e.g., sexual activity on vacation is risky if it entails: the risk of getting physically hurt; the risk of being too far out of my comfort zone). The sexual sensation-seeking scale (SSSS) was also integrated into the instrument (Kalichman et al., 1994). It includes 11 items (e.g., I like wild “uninhibited” sexual encounters; my sexual partners probably think I am a “risk-taker”) measured on a 4-point Likert scale where 1 = “not at all like me” and 4 = “very much like me.” The data were collected via an online survey. The target population consisted of female students enrolled in a Southeastern US University in spring 2013. Using Excel for systematic random sampling and stratified sampling, every 6th female student was invited to participate, resulting in an effective response rate of 19.92% (N = 853). The predominant age groups in the sample were 18-20 years (40.4%) and 21-23 years (29.2%). Since the construct validity of the SRT dimensions had not been previously established, exploratory factor analysis with oblique rotation was conducted to answer the first research
question. To answer the second research question, exploratory structural equation modelling (ESEM), an approach developed by Asparouhov and Muthén (2009) and Marsh et al. (2009), was utilized. ESEM can be extended to multiple-groups/occasions analysis, where the model is estimated for each group and some parameters can be constrained to invariance. Marsh et al. (2009, 2010, 2011, 2012) operationalized a taxonomy of 13 partially nested models allowing the investigation of the invariance of the factor structure and other measurement parameters. To establish the invariance of certain parameters, each time relevant models are compared looking at the decline in the goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices. Support for a more parsimonious/constrained model requires a change in the CFI of less than .01 and in the RMSEA of less than .015; or the TLI and RMSEA should be as good as or better than for the more complex model.

**Findings**

The findings reveal that SRT in tourism is a multidimensional construct with physical/sexual health (Eigenvalue = 3.74, 18.68%, \( \alpha = .92 \), 6 items), mental/emotional (Eigenvalue = 9.25, 46.25%, \( \alpha = .95 \), 11 items), and socio-cultural (Eigenvalue = 1.07, 5.36%, \( \alpha = .84 \), 6 items) factors extracted from 20 items and accounting for 70.29% of the total variance. The physical/sexual health factor had low correlations with mental/emotional (\( r = .27 \)) and socio-cultural factors (\( r = .22 \)), while the latter two were moderately correlated (\( r = .64 \)). The GOF indices for this model reflect an adequate fit (CFI = .924, TLI = .891, SRMR = .030, RMSEA = .098). Table 1 presents the application of the ESEM taxonomy testing multiple group invariance (MGI) for women reporting lower (\( n = 439 \)) and higher (\( n = 414 \)) levels of SSSS (\( M = 2.00, SD = .60 \)).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>( \chi^2/df )</th>
<th>NF Parm</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Group (TG) model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TG-ESEM</td>
<td>1217.701/133</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>.924</td>
<td>.891</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>EFA with 3 factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple (two) Group Invariance (MGI) across low and high levels of SSSS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI1</td>
<td>1428.404/266</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>.883</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>IN = none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI2</td>
<td>1560.563/317</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>.913</td>
<td>.895</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>IN = FL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI3</td>
<td>2012.447/337</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>.867</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>IN = FL, Uniq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI4</td>
<td>1608.499/323</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>.910</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>IN = FL, FVCV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI5</td>
<td>1608.298/334</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.910</td>
<td>.898</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>IN = FL, INT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI6</td>
<td>2080.492/343</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>.878</td>
<td>.865</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>.210</td>
<td>IN = FL, Uniq, FVCV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI7</td>
<td>2058.100/354</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>.880</td>
<td>.872</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>IN = FL, Uniq, INT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI8</td>
<td>1656.779/340</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.897</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>IN = FL, FVCV, INT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI9</td>
<td>2126.230/360</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.876</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>IN = FL, FVCV, INT, Uniq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI10</td>
<td>1657.227/337</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>.907</td>
<td>.895</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>IN = FL, INT, FMn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI11</td>
<td>2106.855/357</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>.877</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>IN = FL, Uniq, INT, FMn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI12</td>
<td>1706.223/343</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>.904</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>IN = FL, FVCV, INT, FMn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGI13</td>
<td>2175.361/363</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>.873</td>
<td>.867</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>IN = FL, FVCV, INT, Uniq, FMn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: NF Parm=number of free parameters, IN=parameters constrained to invariance, FL=factor loadings, INT=item intercepts, Uniq=item uniquenesses, FMn=factor means, FVCV=factor variance-covariances (Marsh et al., 2009).

To establish configural invariance, MGI1 was compared to TG-ESEM (minor decline: \( \Delta \text{CFI} < .01, \Delta \text{RMSEA} < .015 \)), indicating that the same model fits the data for both groups if no additional invariance constraints are postulated. Weak factorial/measurement invariance was supported by comparing MGI2 to MGI1 (minor decline: \( \Delta \text{CFI} < .01 \); improvement in TLI and RMSEA), suggesting a relatively stable factor structure across the groups. The comparison for establishing strong factorial/measurement invariance was MGI5 vs. MGI2 (minor decline: \( \Delta \text{CFI} < .01 \); improvement in TLI and RMSEA), offering support for the invariance of intercepts, indicating the absence of differential item functioning and suggesting that the latent means can be compared across the groups. The key comparison for gauging strict factorial/measurement
invariance was MGI7 vs. MGI5 (decline: ΔCFI > .01, TLI = .872 vs. .910, ΔRMSEA < .015), rejecting the invariance of uniquenesses, meaning that the manifest means should not be compared and suggesting that measurement error differs across the groups. The latent factor variance-covariance invariance is important for discriminant validity. Comparing MGI4 to MGI2 (minor decline: ΔCFI < .01, TLI = .894 vs. .895, ΔRMSEA < .015), supported the latent factor variance-covariance invariance. Lastly, testing invariance of the factor means across the groups responds to the second research question. The MGI10 and MGI5 were compared (mixed pattern: ΔCFI < .01, TLI = .895 vs. .898, ΔRMSEA < .015; χ²(3, 851) = 48.929, p < .001), prompting the inspection of the latent factor means. The MGI5 solution revealed that the latent means for the higher SSSS group are smaller than for the lower SSSS group for the physical/sexual health (−.54, p = .000) and mental/emotional dimensions (−.38, p = .000), but not for the socio-cultural dimension. Considering support for the invariance of the latent factor variance-covariance matrix and with the lower SSSS group having a SD = 1.00, these differences can be interpreted as effect sizes demonstrating that the mean differences are of substantial size.

Discussion and Conclusions

Based on the findings, the potential for explaining women’s SRT in tourism should adopt a multidimensional approach that considers physical/sexual health, mental/emotional, and socio-cultural impacts on women’s health and wellbeing. The physical/sexual health aspect resonates with the literature focusing on STDs in tourism (Bloor et al., 2000; Clift & Forrest, 2000). Yet in this study, the physical dimension is broadly constructed and includes any unwanted physical outcome or violence. The socio-cultural dimension includes potential damage to a woman’s reputation at home and/or among traveling companions, as well as the risk of offending cultural norms in the destination. Sexual double standards may be more lax in anonymous, liminoid tourism environments (Eiser & Ford, 1995; Maticka-Tyndale et al., 2003). Yet this is not always the case as judgmental traveling companions can preserve social control (Ragsdale et al., 2006; Thomas, 2000). The mental/emotional SRT aspect revolves around a sense of guilt, regret, self-respect, rejection, etc. Connecting women’s sense of self-worth to their sexual behavior is the function of disciplining sexual double standards (Attwood, 2007). The asymmetry of power rarely vanishes, positioning women as more vulnerable to SRT, both physically and emotionally (Impett & Peplau, 2003). Hence, even casual sexual encounters in tourism might have important mental/emotional implications for women (Berdychevsky et al., 2013; Thomas, 2000, 2005).

The findings suggest that perceptions of the physical/sexual health and mental/emotional SRT dimensions are also related to women’s sexual sensation-seeking propensity (Kalichman & Rompa, 1995). The sensation-seeking trait has been found to correlate with SRT attitudes and behaviors across various populations and contexts (Bancroft et al., 2004; Gaither & Sellbom, 2003; Zuckerman, 2007). High sensation-seekers tend to downplay the risks involved in order to achieve their desired levels of stimulation (Zuckerman et al., 1964). Yet such a tendency was not found with respect to the socio-cultural dimension. Therefore, in a cross-sectional comparison between the groups of women with various sexual sensation-seeking propensities, sexual double standards assert themselves as a stable form of social control (Eaton & Rose, 2011; McCabe et al., 2010). To conclude, this study’s importance stems from the need for a deeper understanding of SRT in tourism and the need for a measurement scale that can provide insights into this meaningful social phenomenon and a public health issue.

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Selected References


Sex is a form of leisure when it is freely chosen, pleasurable, and performed for its own sake (Godbey, 2008; Kelly, 1990; Meaney & Rye, 2007). It may also be considered as recreation when it facilitates rejuvenation (Freysinger & Kelly, 2004). Sex and sexual lifestyles have been explored as a form of casual leisure (Stebbins, 2001), serious leisure (Worthington, 2005), and a form of “shared flow” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1980). Yet too often the centrality of sexual matters to leisure is ignored (Berdychevsky et al., 2013; Carr & Poria, 2010), as scholars choose “to avoid conflict and complexity in order to gain irrelevant safety” (Kelly 1990, p. 374).

Life course theory, the age-graded patterns embedded in history and social institutions (Elder et al., 2003), is essential for understanding sexuality (Carpenter & DeLamater, 2012). Although certain sexual experiences might be more prevalent at certain life stages, sexual issues are relevant to all age groups (Hock, 2010) and the sexuality of older adults is gradually becoming more socially acceptable (Bouman et al., 2006; Jung & Schill, 2004). Previous research demonstrated that many older adults remain sexually active (Cooperman et al., 2007; DeLamater & Sill, 2005; Lindau et al., 2007; Walz, 2002), providing them with both health benefits (DeLamater & Sill, 2005; Gott & Hinchliff, 2003; Lindau et al., 2007; Nicolosi et al., 2004) and a sense of happiness (Laumann et al., 2006). However, studies of sexuality in later life are rather scarce (Carpenter et al., 2009; DeLamater & Moorman, 2007; Foster et al., 2012) and the sexuality of the “oldest old” (85+) is practically invisible (Loe, 2012). Moreover, most studies adopted a biomedical perspective, ignoring the importance of the psychological and social influences on sexuality (Carpenter, 2010; DeLamater & Mooreman, 2007; Hillman, 2008).

The ageist neglect of older adults in sexual health research is fuelled by the myth that older people are asexual (Henderson et al., 2004; Lai & Hynie, 2011; Taylor & Gosney, 2011) and by the fact that even older adults often view themselves as too old for sex (Bouman et al., 2006; Nicolosi et al., 2004). Recognizing the diversity of intimacy forms emphasizes the inadequacy of portraying this population as asexual (Connidis, 2006; Loe, 2012). Another complication is that older adults often did not get proper sexual education earlier in their lives (Henderson et al., 2004; Illa et al., 2008). Internet use, which can also be a leisure activity, may play a role in educating older people on sexual issues and affect societal sexual attitudes (Adams et al., 2003; Hillman, 2008). Specifically, online communities that are dedicated to seniors offer a safe sphere for discussing such sensitive issues (Nimrod, 2010). This study explored sex-related discussions in seniors’ online communities with a twofold purpose: (1) to shed light on the discussions' characteristics, and (2) to investigate the role of sex in the leisure of older adults.

**Method**

An online ethnographic approach – netnography – was implemented in this study. It was based on non-participant observations (“lurking”) of technologically-mediated communication in online communities, following the phases of planning, entrée, data collection, interpretation, observing ethical standards, and representation (Kozinets, 2006, 2010). The entrée involved choosing established and active seniors’ online communities that do not require registration. The final sample consisted of 14 English-based communities, with seven from the US, four from the UK, two from Canada, and one from Australia. Given the public nature of the chosen communities, the study was approved as exempted from human subjects review. The study
followed a full year of communication in these communities. The overall database included 686,283 posts from 79,665 authors. To construct a relevant database manageable for qualitative analysis, posts that included keywords related to sex (e.g., sex and its derivatives, intimacy, libido, romance, love, lust, etc.) were filtered, resulting in a database with 6,712 posts. Next, all the posts were read and sorted based on their relevance, resulting in the database of 2,534 posts. These posts were analyzed to identify discussions' characteristics and sex-related themes, proceeding through the steps of constructivist grounded theory: initial open coding, classifying focused coding, and contextualizing, integrative theoretical coding (Charmaz, 2006). The trustworthiness of the analysis was enhanced following the canons of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Findings

Seniors’ Online Sex-Related Discussions as Leisure. Several sub-themes associated with the discussions' characteristics were raised, including their popularity, capacity as a source of information, empowerment and fun, and the liberating effect of anonymity. Some sex-related conversations grew so popular that one post author commented, “Where there is [sic] 2133 viewers reading your subject, more so than other specific conditions, sure shows that more people are still interested in sex than chronic pain or other problems.” These discussions were helpful because “[seniors] openly talk about everything that either can improve [their] sex life or make it at least partly possible.” For some seniors these conversations became dis-inhibiting: “Thanks to this forum I have overcome my embarrassment and started slowly asking some questions that were bothering me.” As for the empowerment: “To gain knowledge even if that knowledge is never put to practical use is not degrading but empowering. As children we were kept ignorant about sex. Let’s not be ignorant as we mature.” Sex-related discussions in seniors’ online communities were also described as fun and enjoyable, linking this activity to the participants’ leisure repertoires: “It is a fun thread” and it “had a long run and many of us got some information, advice, and enjoyment out of it.” Furthermore, the Internet properties facilitating frank discussion were not ignored by the participants: “It is easier to ask questions anonymously in a forum than to ask a Physician who as a rule does not know everything or wants to impose his values.” Another person commented, “The nice thing about the internet one can talk about problems, techniques, toys without the all over blush of embarrassment.”

The Importance of Sex as Leisure in Older Adulthood. Among the sub-themes included here were the importance/naturalness of sex in older adulthood, its link to health and wellbeing, the comforting role of sex in a relationship, and its link to coping capacity with life transitions. Likewise, sex-related concerns emerging with age and sex-related adaptive and innovative strategies were prominent. While some seniors mentioned not needing sex, many post authors emphasized the role of sexual expression in their lives: “Sex is still my greatest interest interspersed with other distractions and by age alone I have one foot in the grave but the other one is not on a slippery slope.” Also: “If you haven't noticed older women are very interested in sex then you haven't been looking in the right places. We may be older but we ain't dead!!” and “we are sexual till we drop.” The importance of sex in older adulthood was reiterated in multiple posts, arguing that sex “is [an] extremely important aspect of life” and “a natural and very enjoyable function.” Sex was also described as related to the sense of wellbeing in older adulthood: “I have always ascribed to the view that a good sex life generally leads to happiness and a feeling of wellbeing.” Older adults sought and shared advice on various sex-related concerns, such as the “optimal” sex frequency in older adulthood and a “use it or lose it” issue, special sexual needs coming with age, importance of foreplay, and sexual experimentation
(including oral sex, anal sex, and sexual aids/toys). The post authors encouraged each other arguing that “Age does not matter unless you let it matter” since “Old dogs do learn new tricks (not that any of us are either old or dogs)” and that a couple “can have a pretty satisfying sexual life without a ‘presence’ of a hard penis.” Adding, “it only seems kinky the first time.” The importance of sex was also discussed in the context of retirement as one of the adjustment strategies. When the question, “How do you go from working 60-70 hours per week to 0-1?” was posted, one of the offered strategies was, “Enjoy sex like you did a long time ago.” Sex in retirement communities was also suggested as an indication of social life: “Amazing place! Oh about that social life: there is a longstanding rumor that the rate of sexually transmitted diseases has become an issue there. It's doubtful but speaks to the friendly atmosphere you might find.”

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Sex as/in leisure has been virtually silenced in leisure studies (Caudwell & Browne, 2011). The findings in this study portray sexual expression (verbal and practical) as a meaningful leisure activity (Godbey, 2008; Meaney & Rye, 2007) related to the sense of happiness and wellbeing in older adulthood (Laumann et al., 2006). The playful and leisurely qualities of sex are evident in the seniors’ discussions of various adaptive/innovative strategies enabling and/or diversifying their sex lives and repertoires. Discussing sexual matters in seniors’ online communities seems to be recreational, educational, and empowering leisure activity. For some seniors, participating in such conversations was an act of resistance to the social norms where “the mere fact that one is speaking about [sex] has the appearance of a deliberate transgression” (Foucault, 1976, p. 6).

The findings reflect that people continue feeling sexy and are able to express their sexuality beyond their sexually reproductive years (Cooperman et al., 2007; Lindau et al., 2007). Older adults enjoy intimacy and achieve both familiar and new forms of sexual pleasure and sensuality (Loe, 2012). Some older adults, often not having access to sexual health education (Henderson et al., 2004; Illa et al., 2008), also partake in sexually risky behaviors associated with sexually transmitted diseases (Cooperman et al., 2007; Gott, 2001; Hillman, 2008). The findings reflect seniors’ reluctance to discuss sex-related issues with their doctors. Additionally, healthcare professionals are not actively trying to foster communication about sexual issues with their older patients (Bouman et al., 2006; Foster et al., 2012; Taylor & Gosney, 2011). The role of sex in retirement communities was also brought up in this study. However, the staff in seniors’ residential facilities and nursing homes often ignores residents’ sexual needs and rights, neglecting to provide physical and emotional space for the expression of sexuality (Bonifazi, 2000; Bouman et al., 2006). Consequently, healthcare professionals should put aside ageist stereotypes and attend to the sexual health needs of their older clientele (Henderson et al., 2004; Taylor & Gosney, 2011), and sexual education programs must include older adults in their target populations (Cooperman et al., 2007; Illa et al., 2008).

The research interest in sexuality in older adulthood will increase due to the growing visibility of this topic in healthcare policy efforts as sex-enhancing drugs gain popularity and baby boomers grow older (Gott, 2001; Walz, 2002). However, responsible research and policy efforts should be careful not to exaggerate sexuality in older adulthood or to perpetuate the link between sexual function and over-masculinized/feminized stereotypes (Taylor & Gosney, 2011) as the youth oriented standard of “positive/successful ageing” raises expectations of sexual activity in later life, which may be rewarding for some people but challenging for others (Connidis, 2006).

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A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF THE MANAGEMENT LITERATURE WITHIN PARKS AND RECREATION

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Introduction and Literature Review

Over the past few years, a paucity of research has been submitted to the management thematic area within the Leisure Research Symposium. For example, in 2012, no abstracts were submitted to the management area. As management and administration is a critical component of the accreditation standards (van der Smissen, Moiseichik, & Hartenburg, 2010), we decided to systematically examine the current status of the management and administration research within the park and recreation literature. We delimited this review to articles published in the *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration* (JPRA), generally considered to be the field’s leading management focused journal. The journal emerged in the early 1980’s from a need for practitioner-oriented research that complemented the establishment of the American Academy for Park and Recreation Administration (Deppe & Bannon, 1983). Specifically the journal had three stated objectives: a) to advance park and recreation administration knowledge, b) to encourage scholarly efforts by both educators and practitioners, and c) to conduct original research and publish papers related to park and recreation administration.

In a focus group and survey we conducted with 20 educators who taught undergraduate and graduate park and recreation management and administration courses along with practitioners with administrative responsibilities, all bemoaned the lack of research focused on parks and recreation. Many described how they read and used research published outside the field. Given that JPRA celebrated its 30th year, we felt this time offered an opportunity to conduct a systematic review of the park and recreation administration literature, to characterize the current status of research in this area, and to identify prevalent gaps for future research.

Systematic integrative literature reviews are important in identifying trends, synthesizing findings, and setting directions for future research agendas (Jackson, 2004). Integrative reviews are viable strategies for analyzing literature focused on inferring generalizations about substantive issues from a set of studies that address these issues (Jackson, 1980). They can be used to provide an objective account and description of the state of a particular body of literature by assessing the quantity of articles published, and identifying predominant themes or gaps in existing research and methodologies used in examining specific phenomenon (Floyd et al., 2008). Although primary research is essential for producing original research in an area, systematic reviews can inform scholars and practitioners about what is known, how knowledge might vary across a specific topic (e.g., management and administration within parks and recreation), and thus, what is not known.

Therefore, this study examined research about management and administration in the *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration* since its inception (1983-2012) to discern thematic patterns in topical areas and to document research methods used. In short, this study addressed what has been studied, how research has been conducted, and considerations about why some topics have been studied and why particular methods were used. Implications are drawn for both research and practice. First, we identified the extent of research on management and administration within JPRA. Next, a content analysis was used to identify research themes and
methods used. Further, findings are discussed with a view toward making recommendations for future research topics, recommending methodological alternatives, and suggesting possibilities for connecting to practitioners and broader management and administration concerns.

Methods
Systematic research reviews usually include three key activities: a) identifying and describing the relevant research, b) critically appraising the literature in a systematic manner, and c) bringing the findings together in a coherent synthesis (Gough et al., 2012). Since JPRA is considered the specialty management and administration journal within the North American park and recreation field, it was selected as the basis for this integrative review. The mission of the journal has been to provide a “forum for management and organizational analysis of the delivery of park, recreation, and leisure services.” All articles from 1983 (the first year of the journal) until 2012 were analyzed with the following criteria. First, an article was categorized as a pure management article or a management implication based article. An article was categorized as pure management if the primary focus of the article was management/administration based. An example was a study that examined different types of performance appraisals related to employee evaluations (Glover, 1987). An article was coded as management implications if the primary focus of the article was not on a management focused topic but contained implications that could be useful for recreation and park administrators. An example was an article focused on why individuals selected campsites at specific lakes (Bumgardner, Waring, Legg, & Goetz, 1988). Second, the methods employed by the authors were categorized. Finally, a list of themes and keywords were generated following a multi-step approach. The first step included using the keywords that had been generated from an earlier focus group with faculty and practitioners who either taught management courses or held park and recreation administrative positions. These words represented key aspects of administrative/management practices. These keywords also were cross checked with some of the management/administration keywords from the NRPA accreditation standards as part of the second step. The third step involved compiling a final list of words used as the basis for thematic analysis. Two of the researchers separately coded articles from the first 15 years of the journal (1983-1997) while the other two coded articles from 1998-2012. The two pairs of researchers then cross checked themes, and differences between codes were discussed. Each article was coded with no more than three themes per article. Programs that Work articles were not included in the analysis.

Results
Overall two thirds (69%) of the papers published in JPRA over the past 30 years could be described as pure management or administration articles. About 31% of the papers had implications for management or administrative practice, but did not address recreation and park management or administration-related topics directly.

Research Themes. Forty keyword categories that had been previously generated were used for the content analysis. The categories were unique to this field and the categories were not mutually exclusive. The top management themes (i.e., those representing 10% or more of the papers published in the past 30 years) were Human Resource Management \((n = 208, 29\%)\), Programming \((n = 140, 19\%)\), Consumer Behavior \((n = 130, 18\%)\), Financial Management \((n = 123, 17\%)\), Planning \((n = 119, 16\%)\), Natural Resources Management \((n = 100, 14\%)\), and Evaluation \((n = 80, 11\%)\). Twenty two articles (3%) examined issues related to technology, and all of these were published in the first 15 years of the journal. Articles focused on diversity related management issues comprised 9% of the articles, and the quantity of these articles increased exponentially over the last 10 years, mirroring findings from Floyd et al. 2008.
Interestingly, given the focus within park and recreation curricula on ethics, only seven articles (less than 1%) examined this topic. Finally, there were several articles ($n = 14, 2\%$) that were not coded because of the difficulty in ascertaining how the content connected to management.

**Methods Used.** As in prior systematic reviews conducted within the leisure field (e.g., Floyd et al., 2008; Henderson, Bialeschki, & Presley, 2004), survey research was the dominant method of data collection ($n = 363$ articles, 50%). Literature reviews, including theoretical discussions and commentaries, were also a primary method of research ($n= 170, 23\%$), although much more prominent during the first 10 years of the journal. Further, 47 articles used a case study methodology. Finally, 48 articles ($n = 7\%$) used secondary data analysis.

**Discussion**

Our study sought to provide an empirical assessment of the research on management and administration by examining the quantity of articles and describing the themes and methods represented in *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*. The greatest concentration of themes centered on Human Resource Management, although to us it was surprising that topics related to programming and consumer behavior were more heavily researched topics than financial management including the importance of revenue generation and budgetary constraints faced by public recreation agencies. It was also interesting to see the number of articles specifically focused on Natural Resource Management issues with studies conducted in national and state public land settings. The analysis of themes also revealed several under-developed areas of research specifically related to accreditation/certification, ethics and technology. Given the growth of and importance of technology in the workplace, this finding could be a worrying trend. This lack of scholarship also represents an opportunity to conduct future research particularly given the increasing use of social media among park and recreation agencies. Furthermore, as NRPA is pushing both new accreditation standards and certification among park and recreation professionals, research examining the efficacy and validity is important but not evidenced in previous research. Special issues focused on some of these topics may help to encourage increased scholarship within these underdeveloped areas. We also were concerned with the number of articles that had no identifiable management research theme, or that had only a tangential relationship to management. We suggest that the guidelines and mission of the journal might be revised to reflect a greater emphasis on park and recreation administration if that is the future scholarship that would be most useful to our field. Finally, we were disappointed in the lack of secondary data and studies that used case study methods. Given the amount of data collected by agencies at the local level (e.g., community input sessions, evaluation data), publicly available data sets with questions related to parks and recreation, and new data sets such as NRPA’s PRORAGIS, opportunities for researchers to answer management and administration research questions using readily available data sets exist. Furthermore, given the focus of the journal on management and administration, we were surprised that case studies were used so infrequently. Although JPRA has provided evidence-based research to support practice over the past 30 years, we believe the editorial board should revisit the purpose of the journal and determine how research on contemporary topics can be encouraged as well as how a broader range of methods might be employed.

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In 2012, the Survey on Public Opinions and Attitudes on Outdoor Recreation in California continues a process in place for over 25 years, to utilize applied research as a critical component of developing the state’s California Outdoor Recreation Plan (CORP) and to meet eligibility requirements of the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act. An understanding of the outdoor recreation demands, patterns, preferences, and behaviors of California residents is considered essential to develop policies, programs, services, access, and projections of future use.

A new area of study for the California 2012 survey was an analysis of quality of life (QOL) relating to parks and communities. QOL is a construct used to assess the overall health of a community or individual (Evans, 1994). QOL is a multi-dimensional construct that does not have one clear definition or model (Andereck et al., 2007; Romney et al., 1994; Schalock, 1996). QOL has been difficult to define, because individual perceptions of QOL are based on varying value systems, cultures, and environmental factors (Romney et al., 1994). Researchers have interchanged QOL with concepts such as happiness, well-being, and personal satisfaction (Dissart & Deller, 2000). In general, QOL means the “good” that is present in a person’s life (Szalai, 1980). The World Health Organization (1997) defines QOL as an: “Individuals' perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns. It is a broad ranging concept affected in a complex way by the persons' physical health, psychological state, level of independence, social relationships and their relationship to salient features of their environment” (World Health Organization, 1997, p. 1). Other researchers have created similar definitions of QOL. As mentioned previously, well-being is used interchangeably with QOL to assess the overall health of a community or individual. Previous well-being studies incorporate subjective and objective measures, which include: health, leisure, and physical environment (Andrews, 1991; Headey, 1993; Wheeler, 1991).

Parks and Recreation Benefits and QOL. Parks and recreation is inextricably linked to QOL. Parks and recreation within a community has the potential to facilitate and contribute to QOL amenities that support individuals and communities in achieving a higher standard of living (Marans, 2003). A limited number of studies look at the connections between outdoor elements of recreation and QOL. However, a large body of evidence exist that links QOL salient factors and direct benefits of parks and recreation (Bedimo, 2000; White & Hendee, 2000). Previous studies show that outdoor recreation benefits include: improved physical health, improved mental health, spiritual development, personal growth, community cohesion, and a healthy economy (Chang et al., 2008; Hammitt, 2000; Kaplan, 1995). Benefits of outdoor recreation are a product of participation in the activity and the surrounding environment (Rosenberger et al., 2009; Williams, 2007). Outdoor recreation settings specifically offer psychologically restorative benefits (Chang, et al., 2008; Hammitt, 2000; Kaplan, 1995). Therefore, restorative environments can offer psychological benefits for people recreating in natural environments, such as parks and greenways. For example, Chang et al. (2008) explored the benefits of viewing natural environments that contained the four components of a restorative environment. Results
of the study showed that outdoor recreation settings (i.e. wilderness) provide restorative benefits (Chang et al., 2008). Kuo and Sullivan (2001) found that time spent in natural settings effortlessly engages individual’s attention, thus reducing aggressive behavior. Furthermore, the individual components of Attention Restoration Theory are recognized in previous studies.

Parks and recreation settings offer the opportunity for participants to be away from everyday routine and to experience nature (Hammitt & Brown, 1984; Hammitt, 2000). Being away from daily routine allows recreation participants to experience nature viewing, peace and quiet, tranquility, and privacy (Hammitt, 2000). Privacy is a basic need for individuals that can be achieved in outdoor recreation settings (Altman, 1975). Subsequently, privacy can offer benefits to outdoor recreation participants such as personal autonomy, emotional release, and self-evaluation (Westin, 1967).

Economic Benefits. Parks and protected areas are increasingly recognized for their link between the surrounding community, QOL, and economic vitality (Lerner & Poole, 1999). Communities with a high QOL are described as places that have accessible recreation opportunities and a multitude of green spaces. It is argued that an increase of QOL is also related to an increase in: jobs, property tax revenues, and businesses (Keith & Fawson, 1995; Lerner & Poole, 1999). Wilderness areas adjacent to communities have also demonstrated increased economic growth and value for communities (Keith & Fawson, 1995; Rudzitis & Johansen, 1991). Economic benefits are just one indicator of the link between outdoor recreation and community health.

While the provision of parks and recreation has demonstrated many benefits to individuals and community, studies comparing individual’s perception of these benefits and how perception of personal benefit influences QOL has not been explored. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore resident’s perception of parks and recreation influence on QOL. Specifically, this study examined resident’s perceptions of 37 items utilized in Andereck and Nyaupane’s QOL scale and examined the influence of parks and recreation had on these factors. In addition, we hypothesized that a person’s response to various dimensions of QOL would differ depending on their perceived personal benefit from parks and recreation in their community.

Methods

This study was conducted from a larger research effort which incorporated adult telephone surveys, adult mail-back surveys, and youth surveys on several topics relative to outdoor recreation in California. The sampling plan was designed to equalize the probability of household selection for anywhere in California and stratified to be closely comparable to the populations in the seven regions as identified in the 2010 U.S. Census data. A representative sample of Californian household telephone interviews was incorporated using a computer-generated random sample of telephone numbers that included both listed and unlisted numbers. Adults 18 years and older were asked to complete the survey. The sample size was stratified to cover seven geographic regions that account for 100% of the population of California. The entire sample size for the telephone survey was 4,437, with the follow-up response for the survey questions in this study resulting in 1,021 participants.

We applied a relatively new measurement method previously utilized to investigate resident’s perceptions of the manner in which tourism affects their QOL (Andereck & Nyaupane 2011) to explore the application of the measure to parks and recreation on residents across California. Specifically, the measurement included measures of personal value (importance) and satisfaction with several aspects of a person’s community (i.e., feeling safe, transportation, beauty, etc.), in addition to, (as in the tourism study), we then incorporated resident’s perceptions of the way
parks and recreation affects these characteristics. Thirty-seven items were used to address emotional and psychological well-being, interpersonal and social relationships, personal development, physical well-being, self-determination, social inclusion, and rights (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011). A parks and recreation quality of life index was computed using a 5 point scale based on respondent’s perceptions of the importance and satisfaction of quality of life items, and how parks and recreation enhanced (greatly decreased to greatly increased) the various community attributes. To measure individual’s perception of the personal benefit of parks and recreation, participants responded to the question “How much do you feel you personally benefit from parks and recreation in your community?” utilizing a scale ranging from “not at all” to “very much so.” The scale was collapsed into “not at all to very little”, “some”, and “quite a bit” to “very much so” categories for further analysis.

Results

Principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation of Parks and Recreation QOL (PRQOL) items resulted in five factors (economic prosperity, infrastructure, community pride, preservation of nature and culture, and safety & tranquility) with items that loaded well and had strong reliability (.81 and higher). To identify the effect of level of personal benefit from parks and recreation on the five dimensions, ANOVA procedures were performed using the level of personal benefit as the independent variable, and the five dimensions as dependent variables. Level of personal benefit of parks and recreation was significantly related to each of the five dimensions of PRQOL. As expected, across all dimensions, those who felt they did not personally benefit from parks and recreation, were less supportive of each of the community quality of life dimension than those who benefitted highly from parks and recreation in the community.

Discussion

The results of this study suggest that parks and recreation within a community are important to QOL. Residents’ generally perceive of quality of life influenced by parks and recreation. Similar to Marans (2003), residents in California felt that parks and recreation contributed positively to economic elements within a community leading to a higher standard of living. PRQOL scores were highest for the infrastructure and community, community pride, and safety and tranquility dimensions. Similar to previous studies, this supports ideas that communities including elements of green space, reducing traffic and congestion, and having peace and quiet can economically benefit (Lerner & Poole, 1999). Our findings also support the fact that individuals who personally feel they benefit directly, have increased perceptions of dimensions of QOL. This information demonstrates the importance of access for all members within a community to parks and recreation opportunities, and when access does occur, greater quality of life is realized.

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Availability of parks and facilities is less in some low income and minority areas compared to non-minority and higher income areas (e.g., Boone, Buckley, Grove, & Sister, 2009; Cohen et al., 2012). Research that has examined specific park characteristics associated with park use for physical activity (PA) has found that courts, playgrounds, open spaces, paths, and natural characteristics promote park use and PA (Lindsey, Wilson, Yang, & Alexa, 2008; McCormack, Rock, Toohey, & Highnell, 2010). Yet, little is known about how specific park characteristics promote park use and PA in minority and low income areas. The importance of filling this gap in the literature is underscored by evidence that racial and income disparities in leisure service provision, PA, and obesity are associated with poorer health (Braveman, Cubbin, Egerter, Williams, & Pamuk, 2010; Edwards, Jilcott, Floyd, & Moore, 2011; Scott, 2013). Greater understanding about which specific characteristics predict park use and physical activity for those in minority and low income areas could lead to targeted design or renovation aimed at promoting park use and physical activity in areas of highest risk for non-use of parks and inactivity. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to: 1) compare park size, park condition, and percent of park tree canopy located in low income versus higher income and minority versus non-minority areas, 2) examine how relationships among park size, park condition, and amount of park tree canopy associated with park use and PA across all areas, and 3) examine how these relationships varied by area race/ethnicity and income composition. Social ecological models, commonly used to frame environmental effects on physical activity, guided the study.

Methods

Study settings were parks (N=20) located in Greensboro, NC. Census tract data were examined to identify areas with desired race/ethnicity and income levels using ArcGIS 9.3.1. Predominant race/ethnic composition of tracts was defined as a concentration of greater than 50% or more of one racial/ethnic group using Summary File 1 Census 2010 data (n=14 minority area parks; n= 6 non-minority area parks). Income characteristics were determined using annual median household income of tracts estimated by the American Community Survey. Given a highly skewed distribution, income was grouped by tertiles and recoded (low income tracts=$13,041 to $28,764, medium income tracts=$29,489-$41,088, and high income tracts=$42,023-$133,304). Because of the low number of parks located in high income tracts, medium and high were combined to create a medium-high income level ($29,489-$133,304) (n=7 low income area parks; n=13 medium-to-high income area parks). To obtain park characteristics trained raters audited each park using the Environmental Assessment of Public Recreation Spaces tool (EAPRS) (Saelens et al., 2006). A scoring system produced EAPRS park scores by multiplying the sum of condition and cleanliness items by a multiplier for elements assumed to influence PA. Park size (acres) and percent tree canopy (acres of tree canopy/park size) were obtained using local government GIS databases. Park-based PA and park use measures were obtained using a mail survey to 893 randomly sampled residences. A 31% response rate was achieved (N=230). Park use was measured by a recoded measure of 1=never – rarely, 2=once a month – couple times a month, and 3=few times a week – everyday. Park-based PA was derived from responses to “What do you usually do when you visit the park closest to your home?” Respondents were categorized as “active participants” or “non-active participants”
using Ainsworth et al.’s (2000) compendium of physical activities. Children in the home (0=children in home or 1=children in home) was a control variable for relationships between park characteristics and park use. General health (1=poor, 2=fair, 3=good, 4=very good, 5=excellent) was a control variable for relationships between park characteristics and park-based PA. Analyses included: descriptive statistics for study variables, independent samples t-tests and Mann-Whitney tests used to compare means of park characteristics, and multilevel logistic regression used to observe effects of park characteristics on park use and park-based PA. Predictor variables included park scores, park size, and percent tree canopy. Dependent variables were park use and park-based PA. An overall model was estimated and separate models were estimated for park size, extent of tree canopy, and park scores across comparison areas.

Results

Park scores ranged from 220 to 386 ($M$=320.15, $SD$=48.84) out of a possible high score of 626. Overall, study parks were found to be of average quality and condition with higher scores indicating a higher number of elements and quality. Park scores ranged from 243 to 377 in low income areas ($M$=310.14, $SD$ =58.31), 220 to 386 in medium-to-high income areas ($M$=325.54, $SD$ =44.58), 220 to 377 in minority areas ($M$=312.36, $SD$ =51.77), and 278 to 386 in non-minority areas ($M$=338.33, $SD$ =48.84). No significant differences among park scores were observed across comparison areas. Overall, park size ranged from 4 to 46 acres ($M$=13.14, $SD$ =11.58). Park ranged from 5 to 46 acres in non-minority areas ($M$=16.0, $SD$=16.27), 4 to 30 acres in minority areas ($M$=11.71, $SD$ =8.80), 4 to 13 acres ($M$=7.57, $SD$ =3.51) in low income areas, 4 to 46 acres in medium-to-high income areas ($M$=15.93, $SD$ =13.25). No significant differences in park sizes were observed for minority and non-minority areas or low and medium-high income areas. Overall, percent tree canopy ranged from 13.33% to 88.57% ($M$=48.48%, $SD$ =20.88). The tree canopy ranged from 20 to 89% in non-minority areas ($M$=59.02%, $SD$ =22.74), 13 to 80% in minority areas ($M$=43.22%, $SD$ =18.49), 13 to 64% in low income areas ($M$=35.74%, $SD$ =16.35), and 20 to 89% in medium-high income areas ($M$=54.85%, $SD$ =54.85). A significant difference between medium-high and low income park areas was observed ($t$=2.15, $df$=19, $p$=.045). For the entire sample of respondents, more frequent use of parks was significantly associated with a higher percentage of tree canopy ($\beta$=.010, $t$=2.47, $p$=.026), higher park scores ($\beta$=.004, $t$=2.84, $p$=.033), and larger park sizes ($\beta$=.627, $t$=2.86, $p$=.019). For the entire sample of respondents, larger park sizes were associated with park-based PA ($\beta$=1.78, $t$=3.14, $p$=.007), but the percentage of canopy and park scores were not associated with park-based PA. Relationships between park size and park use and park-based PA varied by area race/ethnicity and by income. Larger parks were associated with greater park use ($\beta$=.646, $t$=8.78, $p$<.001) and with park-based PA ($\beta$=2.79, $t$=2.28, $p$=.015) among respondents surrounding non-minority area parks. Park size was not associated with park use or park-based PA among respondents surrounding non-minority area parks. Higher percentage of tree canopy ($\beta$=.010, $t$=2.47, $p$=.026) and higher park scores were associated with greater park use ($\beta$=.004, $t$=3.28, $p$=.002) among respondents surrounding low income area parks, but were not associated with park use of respondents surrounding medium-to-high income area parks. Larger parks were associated with greater park use ($\beta$=.801, $t$=3.31, $p$=.040) among respondents surrounding medium-to-high income area parks. No relationship was observed between park size and park use for respondents surrounding low income area parks. Larger parks were also associated with park-based PA among respondents surrounding medium-to-high income area parks ($\beta$=2.77, $t$=3.71, $p$=.003), but park size did not predict park-based PA among respondents surrounding low income area parks.
Discussion

Findings indicated that some of the relationships between park characteristics and park use and park-based PA differed between comparison areas. First, park size predicted park use and park-based PA among respondents in non-minority and medium-to-high income areas. However, park size did not predict park use or park-based PA for those responding from minority and low income areas. Unlike prior research that has found smaller parks closer to African-American neighborhoods than parks closer to White neighborhoods (Boone et al., 2009), we found no difference between park size in minority areas versus non-minority areas. Nor were parks located in low income areas smaller as compared higher income area parks, contrary to Cohen et al. (2012) who found smaller parks were located in high poverty areas as compared to medium and low poverty areas. No association between park size and park use and park-based PA for respondents from minority and low income areas is notable. Smaller parks have been found to generate substantial amounts of energy expenditure as a result of PA (Suau, Floyd, Spengler, Maddock, & Gobster, 2012). Therefore, large parks may not be as important as encouraging residents to use available parks to participate in active forms of recreation. Second, because park scores were associated with park use but size was not for those surrounding low income area parks suggested that park size was not as important as the condition of the park. This finding supports previous research indicating people are more likely to visit consistently well-maintained parks (Bedimo-Rung, Mowen, & Cohen, 2005), that the quality of recreation facilities is poorer in low income areas as compared to higher income areas (Lovasi, Hutson, Guerra, & Neckerman, 2009), and that a correlation exists between parks with more physical disorder and lower levels of PA across these areas (Baker, Schootman, Kelly, & Barnidge, 2008). Because park use can be considered a gateway to park-based PA, condition and quality of parks in low income areas demand particular attention if they are to play a role in attenuating disparities in park use among surrounding residents. Third, less tree canopy was found in parks located in low income areas than in parks in medium-high income areas. Our findings are consistent with previous studies that have found urban trees unevenly distributed by race/ethnicity and income (Heynen, Perkins, & Roy, 2006) and fewer street trees in poor and minority areas (Landry & Chakraborty, 2009). Wooded areas and trees are important because aesthetic preferences for trees and other natural characteristics have been associated with increased park use (McCormack et al., 2010). One study found that parks with wooded areas are more likely to be used for physical activities than parks without wooded areas (Kaczynski, Potwarka, & Saelens, 2008). Studies that have examined neighborhood walkability substantiate the importance of trees as an aesthetic feature positively associated with walking and PA. Therefore, the management and maintenance of trees in parks is increasingly important. This study contributes to research that has examined specific park characteristics as correlates of park use and park-based PA by also examining those relationships across areas comprised of different race/ethnicity and income composition. Limitations of this study included: a low response rate, the use of a self-reported physical activity measure, and the purposeful sampling of study parks. Future research should include residential migration or historical analysis to establish whether low income and minority residents migrate to areas with a particular quantity and quality of parks or whether parks are developed and maintained in response to income and racial composition of surrounding neighborhoods. Future studies should also measure perceptions of safety and incivilities in parks.

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HEALTH PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIORS OF ADULTS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES
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The health-promoting benefits of physical activity (PA) during recreation and leisure time have been well-documented (Warburton et al., 2006) and include lower rates of obesity, arthritis, diabetes, and depression (CDC, 2013; Rimmer & Wang, 2005). The current rates of obesity among adults with developmental disabilities (DD) are nearly twice that of the general American population (Stancliffe et al., 2011), indicating that PA could have significant benefits for this population. Moreover, recreation and leisure activities could also provide this group with opportunities for social support and community inclusion.

Research also indicates that individuals with DD frequently consume fast food and high amounts of fat and sugar (Rimmer & Wang, 2005), and do not meet the recommendations for consumption of fruit and vegetables (Braunschweig et al., 2004; Draheim, Stanish, Williams, & McCubbin, 2007). Furthermore, adults with DD often have limited access to resources needed to achieve optimal levels of PA (Resch et al., 2010) and are more likely to participate in solitary leisure activities compared to those without disabilities (Beriger, Beriger, & Kubinska, 2010).

This study focused on obtaining the perspective of people with DD on what it means to be healthy and their perception of accessibility to healthy leisure alternatives. The theory of planned behavior (Azjen & Driver, 1992) was employed for this study. According to this theory, a person’s attitude toward a behavior, the subjective norms and his or her perceived self control can lead to behavioral changes (Azjen & Driver). However, the degree of such change depends not only on individual’s intention but also on various factors not related to individual’s desire, including access to resources, money, time and other factors (Azjen & Driver). Thus, the objectives of this study were: a) to explore the perceptions of individuals with DD on leading healthy lifestyles; and b) to explore the perception that individuals with DD have about various factors that impact healthy behavior actions.

Methods

The study was conducted during fall of 2013 in Central New York. Clinical staff at two leisure service agencies assisted with recruitment of the participants. A select group of adults with DD who used the agencies’ services took part in individual interviews with the first author. Each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes and was conducted on a day that the participant was scheduled to be at his or her respective agency location for various work and program activities. In total, 18 interviews were conducted. All participants were given a $15 gift card to Wal-Mart for participating in the study. Based on preference of the participants, none of the interviews were audio recorded. Detailed notes were completed by the first author. Among the specific interview questions, the following were asked to the participants: “What does it mean to you to be healthy? Are you healthy? Are your friends and family healthy? Is it hard to find places for recreation activities?” The notes were then typed and analyzed for emergent themes. The typed interview notes were analyzed using grounded theory coding (Charmaz, 2006). The notes were analyzed independently by each author, and then compared to ensure agreement was reached on the emergent themes.

Eleven females and seven males ranging in age from 25 to 60 participated in this study. The clinicians who assisted with participant recruitment indicated that all participants had a medical
diagnosis of mild to moderate mental retardation (MR). Additionally, the clinicians indicated that 16 of the participants were overweight and two who did not have any weight concerns. Most participants either lived in a group home and independent home or apartment. The participants also received 24-hour on-site support with activities of daily living.

Results

Two themes emerged from the data: a) the perceptions of individuals with DD about healthy lifestyle, including their attitudes toward healthy lifestyle, subjective norms and perceived control; b) the perceptions that individuals with DD have about various factors that might either facilitate or prevent healthy behavior changes from occurring.

Perceptions of “healthy.” Many of the participants presented some understanding of what being healthy meant. However, this knowledge of what is “healthy” was often rather limited. For example, a majority of the participants reported that by looking at person one could tell whether he or she is healthy. Many participants felt a person’s appearance was an important indicator of whether someone was healthy or not. As Toni said, “You can tell if people are healthy by looking at them. Healthy people are slim weight or skinny. Their clothes aren’t tight. You see these people exercising.” Teresa also considered health and its absence to be easily noticed. She said, “You can tell if a person is healthy by looking at them. Oxygen tank says that they are not healthy. Hearing aids and braces are not healthy. Smell smoke – not healthy.” While a lot of participants associated health with “good” food including variety of vegetables and fruits and felt that exercise leads to a healthy life, that knowledge did not carry over into their own behaviors. Many of the participants reported a misconception about what kind of foods in their own diet and what kind of activities in their daily life could be considered healthy. For example, Christy named the types of food she considered to be a part of her healthy diet, “Yes, I am healthy. I eat peanut butter and jelly, not a lot of pizza because it is too greasy, sloppy joe’s, spaghetti and it has to have sugar in the sauce because I have digestive issues.” Dinah also showed poor judgment of what food would make her healthy. In her words, “Eating certain kinds of foods is healthy, like apples. I recently ate apple donuts at Beak and Skiff (a local apple orchard).” Many others mentioned French fries, pizza, hamburgers, pancakes, cheese sticks and buttered mushrooms among healthy food they ate linking it to food groups they had been taught. The participants’ judgment of the type or intensity of the PA that they were involved in and considered to be healthy indicated a need for greater education. For example, some of them considered bowling on an iPad to be an exercise. Others reported walking around the house, at the hospital while visiting family, or in the aisles of a store to have sufficient activity to consider themselves healthy. There were also several participants whose perception of their activity was not entirely accurate. For example, Toni said she was healthy because she enjoyed riding her bike, but did not have access to one and hoped to purchase one in the future. Tom reported that he was healthy because he lifted weights in high school, which was in 1997. Emotional and mental health was mentioned as a part of being healthy by only one participant Teresa, and most of the time not in relation to her view of herself. For example, explaining her views of body image she said, “Average or normal people could have something wrong in their mind or not be as intellectual.” She also described healthy people as “moving fast and having a higher intellect” and said that praying to a higher power helpful for her own health. While participants could explain what they understood as “healthy” and could discuss those subjective norms in relation to their own behavior (often incorrectly), a majority of them expressed their attitudes toward being healthy as “fun” but “hard.” Such attitudes toward healthy living as a challenging commitment could partially explain the “disconnect” between knowledge of what is “healthy”
and their behavior. For example, Veronica explained that some people had limited perceived control over their sedentary lifestyles, indicating that it is a hard habit to overcome. As she stated, “It’s hard because you have to force yourself to get up and away from the TV. If you have been unhealthy for so long, it is hard to change.” Tom also reported exercise as hard rather than enjoyable. He said, “It’s hard to be healthy because of exercise. I wish there was technology to let you eat whatever you want and not gain weight.”

Eliciting behavior change. The disconnect between basic knowledge of what it takes to be healthy and the actual behavior of participants can be explained by other factors, not related to intention and desire of the interviewees. Many participants reported a lack of knowledge of available opportunities or lack of access to these opportunities if they were aware of their availability. Social environment was mentioned by the participants as another factor that influenced their ability to be healthy. The interviewees had a perception that there were limited opportunities for active leisure due to lack of knowledge, time constraints or lack of transportation. As Veronica explained she would like to go to the YMCA but she didn’t know “how to get the process started to get a deal on the membership.” Some participants felt that opportunities to be active were available, but their schedule did not allow them to get involved. For example, Robbie said that there was a fitness center next to his house, but he was too busy to go. Tom perceived recreational opportunities for active leisure to be difficult to find and reported that the weight machines he had access to were outdated. Lastly, Toni reported that it was difficult for her to learn about being healthy because she lived in a rural area with no access to public transportation. The social circle was a primary factor mentioned by many as influential in having a healthy leisure lifestyle. A majority of the respondents explained that their families and staff at recreational centers were the people who helped them to be healthy and active. For example, Veronica explained that her grandmother and mother helped her with making healthy choices. She also said, “Fat people could be healthy if they get help, but this will depend on who they live with and if those people want to be healthy too.” Several participants mentioned that if they had someone to walk or exercise with they would find it more appealing. However, in many cases the influences of their family members were rather negative. As Robbie shared, “I want to learn about ways to stay away from bacon because my brother eats a lot of this. My family is always offering (taunting) me with poor foods because this is the way they eat.”

Discussion and Conclusion

The results of this study provide important information about the attitudes toward, knowledge of, and behaviors related to healthy lifestyles among individuals with DD. Participants indicated a basic understanding of health and the behaviors that are associated with it. However, it is clear from the results that in order to better instill the future healthy behaviors among these individuals more education on access to healthy foods and activities are needed. Moreover, social support and companionship could be helpful in breaking the habit of unhealthy leisure routine. Additional training on food preparation, recreation activity access, and educational materials on healthy lifestyle provided by those who care for individuals with DD would encourage more regular reminders about importance of health than the recreational services could offer. Lastly, participants expressed strong desire to have more opportunities to engage in PA that are more fun and interactive whether at home or during agency-supported activities and programs.

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The economic magnitude of the golf industry and people’s eagerness to obtain careers in golf has necessitated the evolution of golf management programs. In order to provide future golf directors with the skills and knowledge needed to operate a golf facility effectively, the Professional Golfers’ Association of America (PGA) created a nationwide apprentice program, Professional Golf Management (PGM), in 1996. The PGA PGM program includes two paths; a self-paced program and a university program. The PGA reported that the university PGM program matriculated about 2,400 students in 2007 (PGA, 2013b), and both a self-paced program and a university program have produced a total of 8,318 graduates (PGA, 2013a).

In the case of the PGA PGM program in higher education, pedagogical research in the field of golf management is very limited. The PGA PGM needs to evaluate and develop its curriculum or knowledge structures to grow as a legitimate field of study. It is important to strive for overall excellence in the program so that its potential can be developed into an outstanding academic discipline and profession (Cuneen, 2004). A professional curriculum design should consider the needs of potential and actual customers as well as those of scholars and students as expressed by business people, faculty, and students (Choi, 2007; DeSensi, Kelly, Blanton, & Beitel, 1990; Von der Embse, Delozier, & Castellano, 1973; Whetten & Cameron, 2011). To establish a sound PGM program which will better serve golf managers and customers, curriculum designers need to investigate which management competencies are considered most important by directors who are working at golf courses. This effort ensures the proper balance of employer demands, student preferences, and societal needs. Such knowledge will assist scholars develop the proper strategies for furthering golf management as an academic discipline, as it will provide the information needed to conduct more in-depth curricular-based studies.

Concepts and recommended competencies in the PGM have been gathered from other fields including management, sport management, accounting, leisure studies, hospitality management, and education. As Kelly, Beitel, DeSensi, and Blanton (1994) advocated, professional curricular models such as the PGM should be developed using an interdisciplinary approach. However, this interdisciplinary approach, by its very nature, creates additional concerns such as developing qualifications for becoming a golf director, building the credibility of the current education program offered by the PGA, and meeting the basic needs of the golf industry. In response to the above concerns, Choi (2007) and Perdue, Ninemeier, and Woods (2002) provided the theoretical and foundational skills important to the golf management field. When comparing their studies with management competencies investigated by management theorists as well as recreation sport management scholars, similar findings were discovered. The competency items identified in their study included the six most cited management competencies: technical skills (e.g., handling a budget, risk management, facilities/equipment management, computer skills, golf/sport foundations, and programming techniques/event management); human skills (e.g., communication and leadership); conceptual skills (e.g., decision-making and problem solving); negotiation skills (e.g., public relations, leadership, and decision-making); political skills (legal issues and leadership); and intuitive skills (governance, decision-making, and leadership). These
studies for the PGM program suggest that PGM graduates need to possess a variety of skills and specializations in order to be a sought-after and successful business person in the golf industry. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to provide an overview of curriculum and other program components of undergraduate PGM programs in the United States. This study is significant because it will assist PGM staff to assess their own programs by comparing their curricula to the findings of the study, and will offer golf-related scholars with a deeper understanding of the knowledge they provide the students who graduate from PGM programs. In addition, these findings present a solid foundation for golf-related researchers to use when investigating further pedagogical and curricular issues.

Methods

The population for this study included all PGA PGM programs appearing on the PGA website under “PGA Education” (PGA, 2013c). The rationale for using this list was that PGA is the premier PGM organization in the United States, and thus, would have the most accurate and complete list of programs. A total of 20 institutions offering PGA PGM were identified from the PGA website. Information was collected from each institution’s website to verify which courses comprised the PGM curriculum.

This study utilized a quantitative content analysis methodology to explore the current status of PGM programs at institutions in the United States. The content analysis involved systematically examining content communications from books, web pages, email messages, or bulletin board postings on the internet (Gratton & Jones, 2004). To prevent redundancy, misconceptions and misinterpretations with words of each category, this study used two trained coders who worked independently of each other and coded the PGM curricula. To develop a codebook for this study, a pilot study was performed. In the codebook for curricula, five curricula were reviewed and divided into three discrete areas: (a) purpose of the program, (b) curriculum, (c) future career. To validate the codebook, two different golf-related professors and two PGA golf professionals reviewed the sheet. After review, several suggestions were made and incorporated into the codebook and used to identify curricula.

In order to ensure each coder interprets the data in the same way, an inter-coder reliability test was performed. Coders need to achieve at least 80% agreement on each variable and kappa figures of at least .75 in each category to confidently report the results of the study. After coding 25% of the population, Cohen’s kappa was used to test for chance agreement (Kvalseth, 1991). Since the two coders reached percentage agreement levels of 87% or above for each variable, it was deemed appropriate to continue with the study. When calculating the results, descriptive statistics such as frequencies and means and chi-square analysis were used. Chi-square analysis is commonly used in content analysis studies, and reveals the statistical significance of relationships between nominal variables (Riffe, Lacy, & Fico, 2005). All of these measures were calculated using PASW Statistics version 18.0.

Results and Discussion

Currently, a total of 20 institutions have the PGA PGM program in 16 of the 50 U.S. states. The PGA PGM program is a 4.5 to 5-year college curriculum requiring courses that consists of self-study courses, seminars, a series of work experiences, and a 16 months internship. North Carolina had the greatest overall number of programs with three, followed by South Carolina and Florida with each two and the rest of the 13 states with one. Each institution’s status was determined based on the Carnegie Foundation classifications (n.d.). Of the 20 PGM programs, 18 programs were housed in public institutions while two programs were in private institutions. In terms of the size of each institution, large four-year institutions ranked highest with 14 programs,
followed by medium four-year institutions with 5 programs and one program in a small four-year institution. Regarding the schools or college in which the PGM is housed, 13 colleges were housed in business, three colleges for Natural Resources and management, two for Health, Education, & Human Development, and one each for professional studies and hotel. Of accreditation status for each college or school, 13 colleges were accredited by eminent business associations (AACSB or ACSP), and two colleges were accredited by COAPRT/NRPA while five colleges were not accredited by any outside agencies. Regarding each program’s major, 13 PGM programs fell under the major of business/management as concentrations. Other majors included parks, tourism and leisure (5 programs) and independent major (2 programs). For total credit hours of PGM concentration toward graduation (M=35.7), Florida State University ranked highest credit hours with 76, followed by Florida Gulf Coast University with 57, Clemson University with 47, and North Carolina State University with 46. Meanwhile, Ferris State University ranked lowest total credit hours to earn with 17, followed by Sam Houston State University with 18, Mississippi State University with 19, and University of Idaho with 21.

To determine what differences existed between PGM curricula housed in Business College and others, Chi-square analysis was performed. Results revealed that a significant difference existed between college status and accreditation ($\chi^2 = 293.65, \text{df}=1, p=.000$). Cross tabulation results showed that PGM programs in Business Colleges were more likely to be accredited by outside agencies, while PGM programs housed in other than Business Colleges were less likely accredited from any outside agencies. In terms of differences based on school size, there were no significant differences found between large four-year colleges and the sizes of the rest colleges. Similarly, no significant differences were found between a number of credit hours offered by business departments and other departments. Lastly, PGM curricula were analyzed to identify which courses are offered the most and least. Since the PGA PGM apprentice components were co-operated by the PGA and institutions, most programs offered PGA self-study courses. Of these subjects, internship was the most provided subject (100%), followed by food/beverage service management (95%), turf grass management (85%), club or golf operation (65%), and qualifying level (golf rules, PGA history, and constitutions) (60%). However, lower than 35% of PGM programs which were not accredited by any outside agency offered classes in management (i.e., microeconomics, macroeconomics, computer skills, finance, communication, and accounting) whereas accredited PGM concentrations focused more on golf related subjects curricula because business courses are included in the majors.

While this study provided an in-depth look at the current status of PGM curricula in the United States, it serves as a foundation for the great amount of future research that should be conducted on the topic in order to advance the golf management field. Suggestions for such future research include greater in-depth studies of specific courses and the role they play in PGM curricula. Unfortunately, the four and one half year PGM program may not only be a burden for students in terms of workload, but it also seems to lack theory and practice in golf management. Therefore, future research should be conducted on the graduation rate and employment rate as well as would include surveys of both students and faculty members to determine their perceptions of current curriculum and what should be added or revised in PGM programs.

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Cancer is the second leading cause of death for older adults in the United States (Miniño, 2013). According to the 2013 National Cancer Institute Statistics, approximately 53% of new cancer cases are among adults aged 65 and older (Howlader et al., 2013). The diagnosis of cancer is not just a momentary negative event, but tends to be a devastating chronic stressor that leads to various life challenges and disruptions in one’s biography in everyday life (e.g., Pinquart, Silbereisen, & Frohlich, 2009). Due to the illness, people tend to be confronted with a sense of vulnerability, uncertainty in life and recurring psychosocial distress, including anxiety, anger, depression and fear (e.g., Park & Ai, 2006). On the other hand, a diagnosis of cancer can trigger people to reevaluate their own lives, redefine their priorities, and set new life goals (e.g., Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004). People living with cancer also constantly attempt to adapt to the changed circumstances of life and discover an alternative life story to help them make sense of their lives and find purpose in life (e.g., Folkman & Greer, 2000). Purpose in life refers to “the perception that one’s previous and present life is useful and that one finds satisfaction in daily activities” (Pinquart, Silbereisen, & Frohlich, p. 253). Having a strong sense of purpose and meaning in life can help older adults cope more effectively with health-related stressors (e.g., Krause, 2007). Moreover, experiencing a high sense of purpose in life can be one of the most powerful resources through which to cope with traumatic events and, eventually, experience personal growth (Frankl, 1984).

A number of leisure studies have reported that involvement in leisure activities can facilitate older adults to set personal life goals and gain recourses for experiencing a sense of purpose in life through providing a sense of continuity in life (e.g., Liddle, Parkinson, & Sibbritt, 2013). In addition, engagement in the meaningful activities provides opportunities to develop coping strategies that are appropriate to the challenges of chronic illness (e.g., Verduin, et al., 2007). Although earlier research identified leisure as one of the major resources and practical tools by which to facilitate a quest for a purpose in life (e.g., Wong, 2000), few studies have empirically investigated the roles of involvement in specific leisure activities on a sense of purpose in life. Moreover, the process of successful aging for older adults with cancer could be better understood by exploring how meaningful leisure engagement could serve as a resource in this process. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine leisure-related factors (leisure satisfaction and engagement in leisure) as predictors of a sense of purpose in life for older adults with cancer.

Method

Sample. The sample for this study was drawn from the 2010 Psychosocial and Lifestyle Questionnaires (PLQ) in the Health and Retirement Survey (HRS) that represents a national sample of adults over the age of 50. The PLQ provided a variety of information regarding the psychosocial and lifestyle factors of older adults (Smith, Fisher, Ryan, Clarke, House, & Weir, 2013). After scanning and clearing the initial HRS 2010 raw data, the final sample of 2571 cases of older adults with cancer were included in the present study. The average age of the sample was 76.97 years old ($SD=9.41$). The sample was predominantly Caucasian (86%) followed by African American (12.4%) and Hispanic (6%). A majority of the sample were female (54.7%) and married (58.3%) at the time of the survey participation.
**Measurements.** Among the various subcomponents of PLQ, this study used the measures of *Purpose in life*, *Lifetime trauma*, and *Leisure participation*, and *Leisure satisfaction*. The *Purpose in life* scale (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), which includes a sum of 7 Likert scale items (Cronbach’s α = .78), was used to measure self-reported purpose in life. The participants rated aspects of each domain on a six-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). Krause, Shaw, and Cairney’s (2004) lifetime trauma scale was used to explore the length of trauma experienced, including natural disaster, serious illness, and bereavement, which includes 7 items and measures the amount of trauma at any point in a participant’s life. A modified version of Jopp and Hertzog’s leisure participation scale (2010) was used to measure the frequency of the leisure activities participation. This study utilized 7 Likert scale items (1 = never/not relevant to 7 = daily) including outdoor, physical, indoor, cultural, home-centred and social, civic, and religious activities. Leisure satisfaction was assessed using one item question from the life satisfaction scale (Campbell, Coverse, & Rodegers, 1976). The scale measures the level of satisfaction on one’s daily life and leisure activities, indicating 1 “not at all satisfied” and 5 “completely satisfied”.

**Data analysis.** Pearson’s correlation coefficients were calculated for underlying associations, prior to including variables in a regression analysis. A multiple regression analysis was used to examine the contribution of research variables (leisure satisfaction, frequency of leisure participation, number of lifetime traumas, and demographic characteristics) on finding purpose in life for older adults with cancer.

**Results**

According to the descriptive statistics, respondents demonstrated that they were satisfied with their leisure ($M = 3.87$, $SD = 0.93$). The respondents also reported that they engaged in civic activities ($M = 1.79$, $SD = 1.08$), home-centered and social activities ($M = 2.35$, $SD = 1.08$) several times a week. They were involved in religious activities ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 1.42$) and hobbies and indoor activities ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.09$) once a week while participating in physical activities ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 1.70$) several times a month. In addition, the respondents reported that they were more likely to have the sense of purpose in their lives ($M = 5.10$, $SD = 0.95$). The examination of correlation coefficients indicated significant statistical relationships among purpose in life, each type of leisure activity, leisure satisfaction, and demographic variables. One of the most significant relationships was between purpose in life and leisure satisfaction ($r = .367$, $p < .01$), which indicates that the respondents who were satisfied with their leisure were more likely to report higher levels of purpose in life. In addition, the amount of lifetime trauma was negatively associated with purpose in life ($r = .050$, $p > .01$). The result indicates that older adults with cancer were more likely to experience lower levels of purpose in life if they had more lengthy periods of trauma. The hierarchical regression analysis revealed that frequent participation in leisure activities and leisure satisfaction were statistically significant predictors of purpose in life ($R^2 = .254$, $p < .001$). Leisure satisfaction was the strongest predictor of purpose in life among research variables ($β = .329$, $p < .001$). Regarding the contribution of the specific types of leisure activities, higher frequency of hobbies and indoor activities ($β = .151$, $p < .001$), physical activity ($β = .096$, $p < .001$), religious activities ($β = .069$, $p < .001$), civic activities ($β = .046$, $p < .01$), and outdoor activities ($β = .042$, $p < .01$) significantly predicted the measure of purpose in life. Among demographic variables, age ($β = .127$, $p < .001$), education level ($β = .077$, $p < .001$), and gender ($β = .055$, $p < .001$) contributed to experiencing sense of purpose in life.
Discussion

The results of the regression analysis support the research hypothesis concerning the contribution of leisure satisfaction and leisure participation to the sense of purpose in life. In this study, leisure satisfaction was one of the strongest leisure-related factors predicting purpose in life. This finding is consistent with Wong (2000) who demonstrated that satisfaction with one’s meaningful leisure not only helps individuals cope with various stressors, but also facilitates experiencing a sense-of-purpose in life through discovering personal value on the activities. Additionally, these findings empirically support research by Liddle, Parkinson and Sibbritt (2013) as well as Verduin, et al. (2007), who reported that engagement in meaningful activities plays a vital role in experiencing a sense-of-purpose in life.

Among the various activities analyzed, hobbies and indoor activities were one of the most significant factors contributing to experiencing a sense-of-purpose in life. As suggested by Fisher & Specht (1999), our respondents also likely engaged in their favorite activities, to build a sense of competence, and achieve small project-related goals, which allowed them to feel personally meaningful and purposeful in their lives. Moreover, consistent with Liddle, Parkinson, & Sibbritt (2013), meaningful engagement in leisure activities enriches the inner life and contributes to building problem solving skills, which could be applied to other areas of life. Future research could be used to explore how leisure as a coping resource contributes to enriching “inner life” and finding purpose in life from a eudemonic perspective.

This study also provides empirical support that involvement in religious activities facilitates older adults to finding purpose in life. Ardelt and Koenig (2007) argued that intrinsically religious older adults tended to maintain their sense of purpose in life that contributed to life satisfaction, unaffected by their serious illness. Allport and Ross (1967) explained the phenomenon that intrinsic religiosity is closely related to aspect of how people live and understand their own life, so that engagement in religious activities may lead to a sense of purpose and meaning in life. Leisure research has not given much attention to involvement in religious activities associated with search for meaning and purpose in life. Exploring the role of religious activities on stress coping could be useful to finding a purpose in life for older adults who are dealing with chronic and life threatening illnesses.

Some methodological issues must be considered when interpreting the results of this study. One of the limitations that may have affected the results is the self-administered nature of the HRS study. Another limitation is that this study did not differentiate for cancer stages, cancer types, or the average length of illness. Additionally, the results of earlier studies on the relationships between the socioeconomic characteristics and sense of purpose in life are inconclusive. Plach, Heidrich, and Waite (2003) reported no significant relationship between age and purpose in life for people with rheumatoid arthritis. However, this present study empirically supports Verduin, de Bock, Vlieiland, Peeters, Verhoef, and Otten’s (2007) findings that higher education levels and younger age are significantly associated with more sense of purpose in life. Further research in exploring these inter-relationships between socioeconomic and illness characteristics with purpose in life would be warranted. Nevertheless, in the current study, leisure satisfaction and engagement in meaningful leisure were confirmed as predictors of sense-of-purpose in life for older adults with cancer.

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The “Black” woman in US society has been misunderstood, misrepresented, and misappropriated (Collins, 2000; hooks, 2000; Smith, 1992). Her experiences are often constrained to the lens of gender or race without consideration for how these two constructs synergistically create a dynamic for Black women that is not fully realized by simply studying women or Blacks (Hull et al., 1982). Opportunities for leisure activity participation are limited by the lack of input Black women have in defining and implementing their leisure activity. In addition, the lack of attention for Black women’s leisure and recreation is cause for great concern in the wake of increasing health and economic disparities for this population (Henderson, 2001). For example, despite an urgent need for conversation and solutions to the growing problem of obesity among Blacks, the majority of Black women (non-Hispanic) are overweight or obese (Ogden et al., 2010). Therefore, data that provides a more parsimonious understanding of Black women's leisure is warranted for redressing these disparities; furthermore, creating more empowering and sustainable leisure experiences for Black women. Thus this study explores the experiences of women involved in a national non-profit organization started by Black women for Black women, Black Girls Run! (BGR!).

BGR! began as an online blog in 2009 and has blossomed to include a membership of 40,000 Black women runners, and over 70 running teams/groups throughout the United States. BGR!’s unprecedented response to Black women’s health concerns and their lack of involvement in running, a predominantly white, and until recently male activity (Running USA, 2013), deserves attention. An understanding of Black women’s experiences as members of an organization designed to meet their unique and diverse needs will help create a greater understanding of Black women’s running experiences and how an organization developed to meet Black women’s leisure needs influences their running experiences. In exploring these experiences, Collins’ (1990) Black feminist thought offers a critical perspective for redressing the shortcomings of previous research on Black women's leisure experiences as it posits (a) an inductive method of theory building that recognizes race, gender, and class as interlocking systems of oppression; (b) there are patterns in Black women’s lived experience that speak to the multiple levels of domination Black women face; and (c) Black women should be viewed as agents of knowledge.

**Method**

In light of the need for Black women to inform their leisure experiences, this study employs the voices of the women in BGR!. In the spring/summer of 2013 a series of face-to-face individual interviews (II) and focus groups (FG) were conducted with a convenience sample of New York City (NYC) and Philadelphia (PHL) BGR! members; representing team ambassadors as well as unengaged, at-risk, and engaged BGR! runners. Those that volunteered to be part of the study were Black females between the ages of 25-54 who were BGR! members between 6 months and 3 years. Each interested participant was subject to a screening phone interview to determine their interview type (i.e. ambassadors [AMB], unengaged [UNG]) or FG category (i.e. engaged [ENG], at-risk [ATR]) which was based on their self-reported various running habits (< 5/miles per week to >10 miles per week) and BGR! involvement. These categories were established to ensure the FGs consisted of BGR! members with similar running and membership
experiences to safeguard participants from feeling intimidated or frustrated with those with different running/BGR! involvement; resulting in two PHL FGs (ATR: 4 participants; ENG: 8 participants) and one NYC FG (ENG: 8 participants). In addition, BGR! ambassadors (2 PHL; 1 NYC) participated in IIs only, due to their unique leadership positions and perspectives within the organization. Unengaged BGR! members (2 PHL; 1 NYC) were provided IIs only due to the difficulty in recruiting the unengaged. All FGs and IIs were conducted by the same researcher who was a Black female unaffiliated with BGR!. Focus groups lasted between 2-2½ hours, while IIs lasted between 1-1½ hours. All interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. Qualitative analysis of the interview transcripts was conducted through the use of constant comparison technique to identify themes related to Black women’s running experiences.

**Findings**

The women in this study, regardless of their running and BGR! involvement, communicated that their running experiences were greatly influenced by two seemingly contradictory themes, *Perceptions of a Runner* and *Black Women Cultural Norms*. The theme, *Perceptions of a Runner*, highlights the lack of visibility of Black female runners due to the perceptions of what a runner looks like. More than half of the women interviewed discussed the impact their perceptions of running/runners had on their involvement in BGR! Many having not been exposed to distance running in their childhood had the image of a runner as “this person who you see the calves are all hard, are very thin, and they are white and male” (Anya-NYC-ENG).

Similarly, Lalique (PHL-ATR) stated, a runner is a “Caucasian woman or man with probably zero body fat.” Many of the women explained that the image of a Black runner was either “You’re a Flo Jo or a Kenyan” (Ida-PHL-ATR) and when “I think Kenyans, it’s usually men” (Nakala-PHL-ATR). The lack of exposure to Black female distance runners was often the reason the women gave for never participating in distance running prior to joining BGR!

Interestingly, all of the women, in some way, expressed how the perception of a runner contrasted greatly with the second theme, *Black Women Cultural Norms*. This theme highlighted the level of cultural acceptance among the Black community regarding being curvaceous and overweight. While almost all of the participants were motivated to join BGR! to become healthier, they all expressed the problematic nature of ascribing to a body image that challenged cultural norms. For example, Jacy (NYC-UNG) noted that it was common for Black women to encounter a negative line of questioning from others, such as “What are you trying to do?... Oh, you trying to be white by running?” when starting a running regimen. Similarly, Taylor (AMB-PHL) noted that she was initially adamantly opposed to weight loss surgery before becoming a runner, because she thought “People are going to think that I’m white...that means I’m a failure.” However, the idea of adopting a white body, that is, a runner’s body, was often still resisted as many participants had strong beliefs in regards to how fit and fitness were determined.

While *Perceptions of a Runner* and *Black Women Cultural Norms* certainly highlight the internal and external conflict these women face as Black female runners, the theme *BGR! Support* focuses on the important role BGR! had in providing a meaningful leisure experience for participants. All of the women spoke to the camaraderie, accountability and knowledge BGR! provides. Often, the participants spoke to the encouraging and supportive nature of BGR! in regards to their journey of becoming a healthier person through running. The journey the participants described was often extraordinarily meaningful because of the way in which they embraced one another. Most importantly, the support BGR! provided often led to the women participating in other activities that were not traditional for Black women participation, which is highlighted in the theme *BGR! as a Gateway*. The women spoke of trying new activities (e.g.
The role BGR! had in exposing and exciting their members to experience other activities is best demonstrated by Parece (NYC-ENG): “I recently did my first triathlon with my BGR group. There are so many more…healthy things that I can do that scared me before. Like swimming…It’s something that if I can’t run…So it opens the door to so many different possibilities of exercise that keep you moving.”

Discussion

The findings indicated that the participants’ experiences were greatly influenced by the intersectionality of their race, gender, and class. As Black women, the perception of a runner (i.e. thin, white, male) hindered them from fully participating in running as a leisure activity on multiple levels. Their perception of a runner was due to a lack of visibility of Black women runners which was often attributed to a lack of exposure to Black female distance runners as children. This finding is consistent with the work of Henderson and Ainsworth (2003) which found that the Black women in their study were not exposed to adults participating in physically active leisure as children. Similarly, Harley et al. (2009) found that Black women were often not encouraged to participate in physical activity. Interestingly, all the participants mentioned in some way cultural norms regarding Black women contrasted greatly with the perception of a runner. This is consistent with Richter et al.’s (2002) finding that “if being physically active was associated with being lean and trim, it might not be the most desirable physical attribute” (p. 93) for Black women. In fact, the women in this study made a conscious effort to resist the perception of a runner by redefining how fit and fitness was defined.

Black women desire similar benefits from running, yet how health is defined and enforced needs to be culturally relevant if it is to be promoted. Therefore, the role BGR! provides in terms of support was invaluable to the participant’s running experiences. Groups such as BGR! demonstrate Black women’s desire to create leisure experiences that not only resist stereotypes, but also serve as platforms for self-expression and expansion. Studies have called on the importance of social support for Black women’s physical activity participation (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2003; Rickter et al., 2002) which BGR! has responded to and thus opened doors for their members to participate in other “nontraditional” physical activities. BGR! serves as a prime example to those looking to develop untraditional sport programs, specifically running, for Black women. Practitioners that understand how Black women perceive running as a sport, and the cultural norms they face may look to provide a similar supportive environment and structure to that of BGR!. Most importantly, running programs geared towards Black women may help to reduce the obesity epidemic facing this marginalized population.

Overall, this study has aided in providing a more comprehensive understanding for the Black Women’s running experience through the use of qualitative methods, intersectionality, and theory (Henderson, 2011). Further research should continue to examine the experiences of runners affiliated with other running groups in BGR! In addition, future research should explore how BGR!, as an intervention, has impacted the running participation and experience of their members longitudinally.

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INTEGRATIVE REVIEW OF SPORT RESEARCH IN SELECTED U.S. RECREATION JOURNALS
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Sport plays a major role in everyday life. Approximately 55% of Australian adults, 45% of American adults, and 34% of Canadian adults play sport, with an even greater percentage taking on the role of sport spectator (Russell, 2005). Participation in youth sport has risen to an all-time high (Cordes & Ibrahim, 2003). Approximately 70% of children ages 6-17 participate in sports, and nearly three out of four teenagers have participated in at least one team sport (Sports and Fitness Industry Association, 2011). While not everyone partakes in sport directly as a participant, or indirectly as a fan, no one is unaffected by its existence.

Research pertaining to sport is evident in the fields of psychology, law, physical education, sociology, management, history, marketing, and economics. Despite the volume of literature in sport research across all disciplines, sport research in the context of recreation and leisure is limited. The opportunity for research in recreational sport is abundant and valuable since participation in sport far surpasses all other types of recreational activities (Edington, Jordan, DeGraff, & Edington, 2002). However, it is necessary to conduct periodic assessments to understand what has been learned of sport in the context of recreation and leisure in order to provide direction for future research (Burton & Jackson, 1989). With the high level of participation in recreational sport and the relatively new focus of research in the context of recreation and leisure, the authors of this paper sought to conduct an empirical assessment to review the progress that has been made and provide guidance for future research in this area.

The purpose of this article is to describe the results of an examination of research conducted with sport as a focal point in three prominent United States-based recreation journals over the past 28 years (1985-2012); Journal of Park and Recreation Administration (JPRA), Journal of Leisure Research (JLR), and Leisure Sciences (LS). Although there are other journals that have published articles on sport in recreation and leisure, this analysis is limited to these journals because they are the primary outlets for social science research on parks, recreation, and leisure studies over the past few decades (Bocarro, Greenwood, & Henderson, 2008). To this date, a systematic review of sport in the recreation and leisure studies literature has not been published.

**Methods**

This analysis was limited to 28 years (1985-2012) allowing for a snapshot as well as the progression of how the topic of sport is employed, regarded, and researched. The inclusion of an article in this integrative review was based on the presence of the term “sport” in the article. This included the abstract, title, and body of the article. The authors then reviewed these results to identify articles where the activity deemed as “sport” was of primary focus. If “sport” was of primary focus, the article was retained for further analysis and included in the integrative review.

This assessment of research on sport in recreation and leisure studies followed several steps that have been identified as important by researchers (Jackson, 2008) as well as procedures used by previous researchers (Bocarro et al., 2008; Floyd, Bocarro, & Thompson, 2008; Sweeney & Barcelona, 2012) to conduct empirical assessments. The first step involved the researchers determining a numerical count of the articles published in each of the journals. This was followed by a content analysis of the research methods used in the studies, followed by an assessment of the demographics of the samples that were studied. Lastly, the authors identified
the research and contextual themes present in the selected articles; this was the major focus of the analysis. The themes were determined by identifying areas that were addressed in each of the articles based on their content. When all of the themes were listed, similar ideas were refined and combined. Following this methodology, ten thematic descriptions emerged over the 28 year period. Each of the selected articles was placed in at least one of ten themes pertaining to the article’s research and content focus. Since the themes were non-exclusive, many of the articles were placed in more than one category (Sweeney & Barcelona, 2012).

**Results**

Of the 1,974 articles published in the three journals used in this study from 1985-2012, there were a total of 69, or 3.5%, with a primary focus on sport. Over the past 15 years, there has been an overall increase in the number of articles pertaining to sport. From 2005 to 2010 the number of articles on sport published in the three journals more than doubled. Overall, the most frequently used methodology was survey research (45%). The second most frequently used method varied among journals, with JPRA articles utilizing experimental designs (29%), JLR articles utilizing mixed methods (21%), and LS articles employing qualitative methods, such as interviews and focus groups (33%). The majority of these studies addressed both male and female participants and included a combination of age ranges; the most common age group used in the studies was youth. The majority of articles focused on the direct participant (67%) (i.e. elite athletes, youth participants, disability sport participants), followed by indirect participants (17%) (i.e. spectators, parents, volunteers), organizations (7%), and the community (6%); remaining articles that did not fit into the previous four categories were placed in a fifth category identified as other (3%).

There were a total of ten research and contextual themes that emerged from the analysis of the literature. These included: (1) organizations/administration; (2) economic aspects; (3) sportsmanship/prosocial behavior; (4) demographic specific; (5) model/scale development; (6) benefits, satisfaction, and commitment; (7) motivations and constraints; (8) sport as events/media/spectatorship; (9) socialization; and (10) historical/descriptive.

**Discussion**

Even though Edington et al. (2002) noted that participation in sport far surpasses all other types of recreation participation, the study of sport within the field of recreation and leisure is relatively new compared to other disciplines that have conducted research on sport. Only 3.5% of the total number of articles in the three journals focused on sport. This does not appear to reflect the growing importance of recreational sport in our society. It is clear from the analysis that although there has been much progress in the research of sport in the context of recreation and leisure, there are still areas of sport that require further exploration.

Even though 75% of U.S. college students participate in recreational sports programs on campuses that offer them (National Intramural-Recreational Sports Association, 2008), there were only four articles identified in this review that focused on college-aged recreational sport; two relating to active participation and the other two relating to college-aged sport spectators. This is surprising as sport has been visible in the education setting for over a century, as early student recreation activities took the form of intramural sport and club sport programs (Lee, 1983).

Not until recently has research addressing the relationship between physical health and recreational sport appeared in the three journals (Cardenas, Henderson, & Wilson, 2009; McCarville, 2007); these articles were focused on adults and senior citizens. With the recent surge in the rates of obesity in the youth population, recreation departments have been in search
for ways to increase physical activity in youth in order to curb the obesity epidemic (Dehghan, Akhtar-Danesh, & Merchant, 2005). Research has addressed the outcomes of youth sport through pedagogical, physiological, psychological, and sociological lens; however, less attention has been paid to the relationship between youth sport and physical health (Yang, Telama, Hirvensalo, Viikari, & Raitakari, 2009). There is a need to better understand the health benefits of youth sport, as well as the most effective methods and contexts for sustained positive physical health and behavioral outcomes in to adulthood.

It was not only surprising that only 12 articles were identified that related to youth and recreational sport, but only four articles focused on the development of sportsmanship and prosocial behaviors in youth. Research indicates that nearly half of all youth sport participants (45%) have been yelled at or insulted; 21% have been pressured to play while injured; 17.5% have been hit, kicked, or slapped; and 8% have been pressured to intentionally harm another player (Engh, 2002). It is important to further understand how recreational sport can develop positive moral values, including sportsmanship, throughout the lifespan as sport does not inherently build character and may actually lead to negative outcomes (Hellison, 1995).

With the majority of the research focused on the relationship between sport and the direct participant or indirect spectator, there were only 11 articles that addressed other important participants and aspects of the recreational sport delivery system. Adults including parents, coaches, and referees are critical to the functioning of youth sports programs (Sherman & Wiersma, 2005). Therefore, there are components of recreational sport, in addition to the direct and indirect participant, that future researchers should address in order to obtain a greater understanding of the complex organizational structure of recreational sport.

Through the identification and description of themes and demographic contexts, findings suggest that recreational sport research has grown dramatically over the past several years. However, compared to the amount of time sport has been a part of society, the recreation and leisure field has only begun to tap into the vast amount of opportunities for research. Specific suggestions include the utilization of more diverse research methods, and focusing sport-related research on topics related to health, sportsmanship, campus recreation, sport delivery systems and organizations, and the historical evolution of recreational sport.

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EFFECTS OF WILDERNESS EXPEDITION EXPERIENCE ON ILL-STRUCTURED PROBLEM-SOLVING SKILLS
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In a society that is becoming more dynamic, complex, and diverse (Robinson, 2001; Romer, 1994), the ability to solve ill-structured problems has become an increasingly critical skill (Labouvie-Vief, 2006; Noykes, Schunn, & Chi 2010). The Western world is encountering a social and economic revolution (Robinson, 2001) that poses bigger and more dynamic problems to every new generation (Schumacher, 1977). The need for physical labor and services is giving way to a need for intellectual labor and services, and thus, there is an increasing need in the Western world for creative, innovative, and flexible thinkers (Robinson, 2001; Romer, 1994). Individuals who are able to achieve these mature thought structures are less likely to be swayed by emotional reactions to decisions, and are more likely to think in a way that is not self-serving or self-protective (Labouvie-Vief, 2006). However, the ability to solve ill-structured problems is not an innate cognitive skill that develops with maturation; rather, the processes used in solving these kinds of problems need to be taught and experienced for individuals to develop this skill.

Ill-structured problems are those problems that have solutions that are context relevant and context dependent. Solving ill-structured problems requires an individual to be able to generate novel solutions from varying sources and be willing to adapt solutions to changing circumstances. Individuals then must weigh these potential solutions through the lens of the context of the problem to come up with a new solution (Jonassen, 1997). As ill-structured problems emerge from real life experiences and require the integration of multiple variables in a given context, the solutions generated for these types of problems will require integration across multiple content domains (Jonassen, 2004). In contrast, well-structured problems have definitive right and wrong answers that change little over time and context (Kitchener & King, 1990). Therefore, exposure to environments that are rich in creative thinking and encourage a tolerance for novelty and cognitive flexibility may help develop the skills needed to solve ill-structured problems.

This cognitive transition from well-structured thinking to ill-structured thinking is a process that is biologically primed, though not necessarily biologically imperative (Labouvie-Vief, 2006). The setting and stimulations in which individuals participate will critically determine their ability to achieve these mature thought structures (Labouvie-Vief, 2006). To achieve the ability to solve ill-structured problems, students need to be exposed to an immediately relevant environment that encourages the practice of solving actual problems (Bransford, 1993; Murgatroyd, 2010), a change in cognitive equilibration (Piaget, 1952), and a supportive and collaborative peer-learning environment (Azmitia, 1992; Fleming & Alexander, 2001; Johnson, 2006). These environments can lead to an increase in creative thinking, cognitive flexibility, and tolerance for novelty, all which support ISP-solving skills.

The purpose of this study was to measure the effects of a wilderness expedition on emerging adults’ ability to solve ill-structured problems when compared to peers in a traditional classroom setting. This study looked at the students’ ability to (1) represent problems, (2) develop and (3) justify solutions, (4) monitor/evaluate problem spaces/solutions, and (5) recognize all the phases of the ill-structured problem-solving process. The wilderness expedition experience serves as a
place for students to engage in the critical practice of solving problems and challenging assumptions and norms in a context where students and instructors are able to use one another as resources to practice problem solving. The practice of solving ill-structured problems and working in ill-structured environments is one of the ways that students can develop the schema needed to work on these problems in the future (Jonassen, 2000). The wilderness expedition relies on a variety of different learning strategies and experiences for students. These experiences require students to solve problems that do not have definitive right and wrong answers. Furthermore, the problems are encountered in a new environment. A wilderness expedition is a setting where students can critically engage in complex problems that are context relevant and in a structure that is supported by an instructor. Additionally, wilderness expedition experiences provide students with the opportunity to engage in real and meaningful challenges.

Methods

This study employed a multivariate repeated measures design. The participants of this study were a convenience sample ($N = 156$) of emerging adults (age 16-32, $M = 21$) who were in enrolled in either a wilderness expedition ($n = 91$) or in a traditional classroom experience ($n = 65$) with leadership-focused curriculums. In order to assess their development, two ill-structured scenarios (Bixler, 2007; Ge, 2001) were developed for students to work through and answer questions about. Responses to these questions were analyzed according to a rubric designed to quantify both quality and complexity of responses. Coding structures for these scenarios were based on previous work in this area and were consistent with problem-solving stages outlined in the literature. Coding was checked by a second rater to ensure reliability of the coding scheme. This study used a multivariate analysis of covariance test to examine the differences in ill-structured problem-solving performance on five variables for each student between the precourse and postcourse scores. The covariates of age, gender, and years in school were used to control for individual factors that are known to be related to ill-structured problem solving skills (e.g., Kitchener & King, 2002; Strough, Cheng, & Swenson, 2002).

Results

The students who were engaged in wilderness expeditions showed significant gains over time in their problem-solving skills as measured by the ill-structured problem-solving instrument (ISP), while the comparison group did not show similar gains. An analysis of main effects showed the interaction of time and testing group was significant $F(5,145) = 22.27, p<.001$, partial $\eta^2 = .434$. Follow-up analysis on the significant main effect was completed using univariate ANCOVAs on each dependent variable. All outcome variables yielded significant results for time*group interaction ($p < .001$). The wilderness expedition groups all increased from pretest to posttest; no significant changes were found in the traditional classroom group. For example, students on a wilderness expedition showed significant growth in Developing Solutions when compared to their peers $F(5,149) = 53.99, p<.001$, partial $\eta^2 = .266$ (See Figure 1). All other dependent variables yielded similar results.

Discussion

Developing the skills to successfully solve ill-structured problems in real-world contexts
is important to emerging adult students. WEs and adventure education experiences have led to a variety of social, intrapersonal, interpersonal (Hattie et al., 1997), and environmental outcomes (Bobilya et al., 2010). Experience-based education has shown to have positive educational outcomes for students (Wurdinger, 2005; Wurdinger & Carlson, 2010). Studies have shown that intentional scaffolding of problems for students can help in their skill development in problem solving (Bixler, 2007; Ge, 2001) and that outdoor programs can have a positive influence on general problem-solving abilities (Viadero, 1997). However, few studies have explored the development of discrete problem-solving skills in a wilderness expedition context. This positive increase in skill may be attributed to the wilderness expedition experience, as a comparison group of similar students receiving curriculum in similar domains did not show such increases. Thus, WEs can positively affect emerging adults’ skills in defining, solving, justifying, and evaluating ill-structured problems and their potential solutions. Improvement in ISP solving skill is typically the result of students’ immersion in immediately relevant environments, a change in cognitive equilibration, and supportive and collaborative learning environments. This active engagement in the learning setting is tied to student’s retention of skills (Sibthorp & Arthur-Banning, 2004; Resnick, 1987). In a wilderness expedition, problems are directly tied to the experience and thus there is an urgency and motivation to solve problems that may not exist in a traditional classroom. As the problem, tools, and solution are all linked together and bound up in the experience, the students problem solving actions become immediately connected to the learning that comes from them thus building stronger associations. Also, working in new environments forces students to look at problems in new ways. This promotes a cognitive disequilibration that allows students to modify cognitive systems so they can permit and anticipate novelty and account for it in problem solving (Morra, Gobbo, Marini, & Sheese, 2008). Students in semester long wilderness expeditions cite communication, conflict resolution, and group dynamics as critical skills learned (Jostad, Paisley, & Gookin, 2012). This practice of asking questions of others, and having them asked of you in a supportive environment has been shown to improve ill-structured problem solving environments (Ge, 2005). As emerging adult students move from this life stage into early adulthood, they will be asked to take on adult roles in a context that is becoming ever more diverse and ill-structured. Those students who have tolerance for and skill in solving ill-structured problems will be better able to assume roles in the creative or ideas economy. This study and the related literature strongly support the notion that, for emerging adult students, spending time in a wilderness expedition could promote the development of this skill set that will better enable them to think creatively and contextually about problems in the world around them. Most studies of outcomes in outdoor and adventure programming use self-report or self-perception measures, which is a notable limitation (cf. Scrutton & Beames, 2013). In contrast, this study asked students to solve an actual problem to assess their displayed abilities rather than self-perceived abilities. We were less concerned with whether or not students thought they would/could use all the problem-solving steps to solve an ill-structured problem, and more concerned with whether or not they would exhibit these skills in an actual problem. Future researchers should consider the critical difference between performance of a skill and self-perception of a skill when designing future studies.

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A critical aspect of healthy aging is to remain actively engaged with life (Warr et al., 2004). Unfortunately, normative age-related declines in functioning leads to increased risk for reduced autonomy (Perrig-Chiello et al., 2006). Such declines result in challenges for older adults to meet other needs associated with self-determination, such as competence (Chang & Yu, 2013). Another challenge for older adults is to remain socially connected and meet the need for relatedness, since compromised functioning results in barriers to participation in social and enjoyable (Charles & Cartensen, 2010). One way to enhance perceptions of self-determination, satisfaction, and happiness as well as decrease social isolation and loneliness is leisure participation (e.g., Simone & Haas, 2013). There is strong empirical evidence that many forms of leisure lead to physical, psychological, cognitive and social health benefits (e.g., Heo et al., 2013). For older adults, one potential resource for engaging in leisure is their local senior center. Although leisure has been identified as a resource for successful aging (e.g., Hutchinson & Nimrod, 2012), few researchers have studied leisure in the lives of older adults who access senior centers. Adults who regularly use senior centers tend to have low incomes, with 88% of those served living in poverty (Pettigrew, 2013). There is a need to give voice to senior center constituents and to evaluate services from multiple perspectives (Rossow-Kimball & Goodwin, 2011). Also, older adults, especially those with low incomes, are recognized as a disempowered group (e.g., Meshram & O’Cass, 2013). A way to help empower and give voice to adults who access senior centers is to conduct focus groups (Janke et al., 2009). This study provides a unique contribution since it helped to understand the lived experience of a sample of older adults using senior centers, especially as their experience relates to leisure.

**Methods**

An exploratory qualitative descriptive study using focus groups and associate thematic analyses was conducted to assess perceptions of older adults’ leisure engagement. Focus group guidelines stipulated by Krueger and Casey (2009) were followed and the Self-Determination Theory (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985) provided theoretical grounding for the study.

**Participants and setting.** After preliminary discussions with Area Agency on Aging personnel, a sign-up sheet was circulated at six senior centers. Thirty-four older adults (ages 64-95, \( M = 78.24, \ SD = 8.24 \)) participated in four focus groups with each containing a median of 8 participants (range 7-10). Similar to demographics of older adults of the region, the sample included Caucasian women (n = 27) and men (n = 7). All participants self-identified as consistent senior center participants (attending \( \geq 2 \) days/week) their status was confirmed by staff. Data saturation was detected after four focus groups. Similar to Troutman-Jordan (2013), participants were interviewed at three senior centers affiliated with the Area Agency on Aging and community Parks and Recreation Department within a 100-mile radius in northeast U.S.

**Data collection.** Following consent, participants completed a demographic survey and two researchers used an interview protocol to conduct focus groups (90-100 minutes). Questions were asked at each session to determine participants’ receptivity and interest in: becoming more involved with research, a system for disseminating health and wellness information, and health and wellness topics. Although all responses were helpful, we found that comments about their
leisure engagement were most informative. Interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed into Transcriber 1.5 where text is linked to the precise time it occurred, and loaded into Excel with delineation by speakers. To assess transcription accuracy, 25% of transcriptions were reviewed while listening to the audio recording. Transcriptions ranged from 26-39 single-spaced text files for a total of 129 pages. Procedural fidelity was: (a) promoted by ensuring that the interviewers were aware of the importance of encouraging respondents to express their views, and (b) checked and verified by other researchers who observed the four focus groups. Member checks were conducted to assess representativeness of themes and categories and validity of findings. Participants and demographically similar adults attended five member check groups. Sessions were audio-recorded, transcribed, and checked for accuracy following procedures used with initial groups. Transcriptions ranged from 10-20 single-spaced text files for a total of 71 pages. While one interviewer facilitated discussion, the other recorded notes on chart paper to provide feedback and help triangulate data analysis. An audit trail of each step of the research process occurred to increase trustworthiness of data and associated analyses.

Data analysis. Constant comparative analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was used to identify data patterns and allow discovery of relationships between ideas. To complete a thematic content analysis open coding initially captured the intent and shades of meaning permeating the text. Next, focused coding was used to identify patterns and relationships among codes and to assess meaning emerging from themes. Using a protocol by Creswell (2007) followed by Heinz et al. (2013), all transcripts were read separately by the two interviewers to promote understanding prior to development of codes and categories. Data from each focus group were coded and categorized individually by the two researchers. To facilitate inter-coder reliability, these researchers together reviewed and agreed on codes. Once they achieved consensus, another researcher reviewed the codes. Once reliability of codes and categories was determined, the researchers generated preliminary themes with supporting data. These themes, with accompanying descriptors and illustrative quotes, were used to develop the interview protocol for member check sessions. Next, the interviewers independently reviewed member check transcripts and met with another researcher to discuss codes and relationships between themes. Based on member check data, original transcripts were reexamined and themes were reorganized with supporting data. The researchers met repeatedly to review relevant data and generate multiple drafts of a schema depicting the major themes and connections between these themes.

Findings

Eighteen themes were identified and clustered into the following five categories: (a) drive to achieve self-determination needs: autonomy, competence and relatedness; (b) challenges associated with the aging process; (c) adaptation strategies used to address these challenges; (d) leisure engagement including learning activities, recreation activities, and engaging in regular social interactions with consistent peers (at the senior center, in their communities or at home); and (e) outcomes associated with meeting self-determination needs.

(a) & (e) Drive to achieve and outcomes of meeting self-determination needs. Participants identified the desire to be autonomous, perceiving that they are competent, and connecting with other people. I need to have somebody to talk and to listen to what I’m saying. I like to listen to what other people are saying. These needs were not only recognized as those that motivated participants to develop coping strategies but they were also described in a celebratory manner as they talked about satisfying these needs. You would be surprised at the different things that I always thought I couldn’t learn, and I have learned...
(b) Challenges associated with aging. The desire to be self-determined was challenged by conditions associated with aging. Some were social including loneliness and isolation and others were difficulties with physical and mental functioning. *I have forgotten so much stuff that it hurts me sometimes.* Increased fear of falling and safety were raised as well as resource limitations (finances, transportation) and health management issues (nutrition, medications). *Yeah, I'm always in fear of falling because I had my knees replaced.*

(c) Adaptations. Participants described techniques to cope with challenges and concerns with aging. They identified the importance of an approach to life that included embracing adaptations, being willing to evolve, and engaging in healthy behaviors. *Try to make the best of it always.* They also referred to specific actions such as using technology, resting, changing residences, and, importantly, accessing transportation that allowed them to adapt to aging concerns and challenges. *I take my hand phone along out when I go out back or for the mail in case I would fall or something.*

(d) Leisure engagement. Adaptations facilitated leisure engagement. Although not as strongly identified as the other themes, participants reported that they enjoyed learning. *I think that's what keeps us mentally alert, is learning new things, and using them.* Participants also identified recreation activities that were meaningful and enjoyable. In addition to typical recreation activities often associated with senior centers, participants’ comments clustered into volunteering and using technology. *I think it’s important for us as seniors to give back to the community.* The most prominent theme that emerging was not necessarily what the older adults were doing or what they learned but, rather, with whom they did those activities. Participants repeatedly, with emotion, expressed the importance and value of regular social interaction with peers. *It’s just the social aspect of bridge as much as anything that’s valuable for me.* The salience of regular social interaction with consistent peers was also reflected in their desires for future offerings by the senior center and for more chances to connect with other people.

Discussion

Participants described their drive for self-determination in spite of challenges associated with aging. Given their drive to meet needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, the Self-Determination Theory can be useful when trying to understand the lived experience of older adults (Chang & Yu, 2013). They reported using strategies to adapt to these challenges and engage in salient leisure pursuits at the senior center, home, and community. Although they expressed value in doing recreation activities and learning about new activities and places, participants were adamant about the value of regular social interactions with consistent peers. Ring et al. (2013) recommended that researchers examine ways to facilitate communication between older adults and their social network to strengthen and maintain their relationships. Since senior centers often provide a context with a peer group that create opportunities to develop social networks and friendships that extend beyond the center (Aday et al., 2006), research is needed to ascertain ways to facilitate these connections. Participants explained how adaptations and leisure engagement contributed to achieving their sense of self-determination that further encouraged them to implement such strategies and participate in meaningful and enjoyable activities. They identified a strong desire to retain their self-determination and reported that opportunities to pursue leisure were valuable toward this end.

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Females have long found it difficult to find entrance to and acceptance in outdoor adventure recreation (e.g., mountaineering, whitewater kayaking) because of socially engrained gender expectations, a lack of exposure, and fear (e.g., Culp, 1998; Warren & Loefler, 2006). Despite the difficulty females have in finding entrance to and acceptance in these pursuits, the literature demonstrates that females’ participation may be beneficial. Females who participate in outdoor recreation are more empowered, and have higher levels of self-esteem, self-worth, assertiveness, self-sufficiency, confidence, and body image (McDermott, 2004; Pohl, Borrie, & Patterson, 2000). In addition, research has suggested that females who break down social gender norms and participate in outdoor recreation may be helping to deconstruct these norms beyond the scope of the outdoors (Pohl, Borrie, & Patterson, 2000). Therefore, it is important that females are not only encouraged to participate in outdoor adventure recreation, but empowered to do so. While research that seeks to understand, specifically, how females experience leisure in the outdoors, and how they successfully negotiate constraints to their participation exists, it is limited in its scope.

Current research on females’ leisure in the outdoors largely focuses on women who are casual or amateur participants (e.g., Little, 2002; Warren & Loefler, 2006). Findings have indicated, for instance, that women have to restructure their ideas of adventure and outdoor recreation in order to negotiate constraints to participation (Little, 2002). What has not been investigated is how women who participate at the highest levels of their sport have successfully negotiated the constraints faced in their outdoor adventure recreation participation. Women who participate professionally in outdoor recreation have done what few women are able or seek to achieve. Understanding how women who have turned their passion for outdoor adventure recreation into not only their leisure, but also their livelihoods, may shed important light on how women may successfully overcome constraints to their participation in the outdoors. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to understand what specific constraints professional female mountain guides have faced and their methods for successfully navigating through them on their way to an elite level of participation and performance in mountaineering.

Three main theories acted as a framework in guiding this study: the social cognitive theory of gender development and differentiation (Bussey & Bandura, 1999), leisure constraints (e.g., Crawford & Godbey, 1987), and poststructural feminism (as applied by Aitchison, 2003). In addition, the research was conducted in the spirit of Parry’s (2003) call for a sixth phase of feminist leisure research. That is, this study seeks to move beyond simply understanding the experiences of women’s leisure in a gendered society, and towards a focus on how these gendered norms can be broken down and challenged. By better understanding how females have successfully reached the professional level of mountain guiding, recreation professionals may better be suited to introduce support the involvement of females in outdoor adventure recreation.

**Methods and Analysis**

This study was completed following Stake’s (2006) multiple case study design. Stake (2006) noted that the strength of case study research is that it allows for an understanding of each case “as it occurs in its contexts and in its particular situation” (p. 2). Three individual cases (three separate professional female mountain guides) were studied. Within each case, the focus was on
the lifetime journey of the athlete; how they first became involved in mountaineering, the steps they took to increasing their skill level and professionalism within the sport, and their current experiences as professional mountain guides. The participants were chosen based on their professional involvement in the sport as indicated by their level of certification. Two mountain guides are fully certified International Federation of Mountain Guides Association guides while the third is a certified ski mountaineering guide through the American Mountain Guides Association. As recommended, multiple forms of data were collected for each participant including a questionnaire, four in-depth interviews, written documentation (e.g., firsthand accounts of experiences as a mountain guide), and artifacts (e.g., publicly available documentation such as interviews) (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake, 2006).

The analysis was completed in two parts. First each individual case was analyzed on its own. To begin, the researcher, using both a priori and inductive coding, reviewed all of the data sources until “all of the incidents [were] readily classified…and sufficient number of ‘regularities’ emerge[d]” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 62). Following this, pattern coding was utilized to group the initial codes into like categories from which emergent themes were identified. To address issues of validity, the researcher then triangulated the findings from the multiple sources of data within each case and the final themes were determined. In addition, member checking was completed with each participant to ensure the accurate interpretation and representation of each case. Following member checking, individual case reports were written to ensure full description and interpretation of each case. Upon completion of the individual case analysis, Stake’s (2006) recommendations for cross-case analysis were implemented. This multi-step process allows for the findings and evidence from each of the cases to be systematically organized and compiled into the final assertions. Following this process, triangulation was again sought across cases and the final case report was compiled.

Results

The constraints detailed by the mountain guides aligned largely with the existing literature and fell into the three major categories associated with the work on leisure constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010). As such, the focus of these findings more heavily emphasizes the negotiation strategies employed by the women. The first and most salient theme was that of resiliency. The participants discussed how important it was to identify strategies for dealing with a myriad of constraints ranging from fear and gender relations, to the confidence issues they faced. For instance, Ashley discussed dealing with the fear she experienced rock climbing by “learning how to breathe deep and envision something positive instead of seeing the falling…seeing the next move happening and breathing well.” When Hillary faced a rash of climbing deaths of friends, she discussed stepping away from guiding and participating in adventure racing for a few years: “I thought I’d reduce my…exposure numbers…I was doing a little bit of guiding…but not doing too much [so] I felt that I had all the intensity, but a lot less risk.” Erica described facing stigma and rejection based on her sex, but by “finding different ways to deal with [it]…it’s never turned me back.” Next, participants expressed repeatedly how their unwavering passion for the mountains helped them find their way when faced with difficulties of varying types. For Erica, it was her “pure sense of adventure, just feeling part of the environment, that sense of well-being you get when you go out there” that helped her overcome difficulties she faced. In addition, each participant discussed the importance of support from family, mentors, and climbing partners in their continued participation in mountaineering. Ashley described the importance of a mentor
who was there after a nearly fatal accident: “she was the first person that I saw afterwards and
the first person I told the whole story to…. [she] help[ed] us process through it…”

One final theme that came out was that of paying it forward. When the participants discussed
their current participation as mountain guides, they emphasized how, because of their
experiences, they try to make the path easier for other women. Hillary, who works as a guides’
trainer, strives to provide effective feedback to her students “because I reckon I could have done
with hearing that. I look back on what I felt was lacking in the feedback in my early days and
make sure to give that feedback.” Erica noted her work with females seeking entrance to guiding:
“I really want to help them… I really want them to use my skill and expertise and ideas and be
better than me.”

**Discussion**

As Yin (2009) cautions, the findings of case study research rely on *analytic* rather than
statistical generalization. As such, the findings from this study are meant as recommendations for
further empirical testing through programmatic or intervention implementation. With this in
mind, the experiences of these mountain guides can be an important learning tool for leisure
professionals as they seek to expand the outdoors to women and girls. First, interventions should
focus on helping to build resiliency skills in females in the outdoors. These skills should include
building confidence and self-awareness, strategies for dealing with risk and associated fears, and
handling interpersonal issues that may arise due to societal gender role beliefs. The need for
these types of skills as evidenced by the participants in this study aligns with current literature
examining the self-doubt, gender socialization, and confidence issues often standing the way of
women’s success in the outdoors (Warren & Loeffler, 2006). In addition, it is important that
females have the opportunity to discover their passion for the outdoors, as they may not naturally
have that exposure (Culp, 1998; Wesely & Gaarder, 2004). As the participants discussed, this
passion is what kept them coming back to the mountains regardless of the type of hurdles they
faced. Thus, interventions should be sure to include an outdoor environment as a fundamental
piece of the experience. Next, because of the importance of having individuals with whom to
participate in the outdoors and the difficulty women often face in that task, regional networks
should be created to help connect women with others interested in participating in the same
outdoor activities (Bialeschki & Henderson, 1993). Additionally, when designing interventions,
leisure professionals should be sure to include elements focused on relationship building and
establishing connections that can extend beyond the period of the intervention. Finally, formal
mentor programs should be set up to partner highly skilled or experienced participants with those
who are just beginning their pursuit. This may allow women to build a broader network to draw
on for advice and support beyond their day-to-day participation in the outdoors. The enthusiasm
with which the mountain guides in this study discussed giving back to women working to break
into the field may be a indication that finding highly experienced outdoor female athletes willing
to act as mentors may be possible. The results of this study provide a starting point for improving
on or creating interventions aimed at increasing women’s participation in outdoor adventure
recreation. Future research should focus on programs that implement these suggestions to
empirically examine the efficacy of their use as intervention strategies.

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Selected References
EAT-DRINK-THINK: MOTIVATIONS & OUTCOMES ASSOCIATED WITH LOCAL FOOD PARTICIPATION

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Rudy Dunlap, Middle Tennessee State University
Justin Harmon, Texas A & M University
Amanda Johnson, University of Manitoba
Melissa Weddell, Appalachian State University
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This panel explores the emerging local foods movement as it pertains to leisure, recreation, and participation. The local foods movement has recently emerged within the prominent leisure and park and recreation scholarly journals (Amsden & McEntee, 2011; Dunlap, 2012; Farmer, 2012; Farmer, Chancellor, Gooding, Shubowitz, and Bryant, 2011; Johnson, 2013) and is likely to flourish as the movement continues to expand with double digit annual growth (USDA, 2012). This panel brings together scholars who explore the local foods movement from both theoretical and applied perspectives, in varied geographic areas, and through multiple activity contexts. The first paper is based on an ethnographic study of how civil leisure and civic agriculture in Austin, TX is working to remedy social and environmental injustices in hope of enacting social change. Specifically, the authors investigated volunteer participation on urban farms using qualitative methods. The researchers found that participation was (a) directed towards community transformation, (b) in support of social and economic organization of the community, and (c) promoted the development of social networks within neighborhoods. Following will be a paper on farmers’ markets as consumption communities. Discussed from a theoretical perspective, the author begins by acknowledging the important social dimensions of farmers’ markets, while highlighting the failure of leisure scholars to recognize the role of farmers’ markets in the enactment and performance of community. Stemming from Cook’s (2006) call for leisure scientists to look past individualistic behaviors, this paper contends that farmers’ markets are an everyday space where community is created and enacted- not simply a space for market exchange. The final paper focuses on the farmers’ market participant profile as found in study of Indiana and North Carolina farmers’ market participants. The authors’ comparison of farmers’ market participants highlights the demographic homogeneity between the two populations- showcasing a privileged, professional class that seems quite common in the venue. The only variations found were in the frequency of participation in personal, sustainable activities such as gardening, food preservation, and composting to name a few. Given the significance of the local foods movement and interplay of those engaging as a leisure pursuit, this panel is poised to draw a sizeable crowd and promote much needed discussion. Each of these papers brings a differing approach or conceptualization to the discussion of local foods. The following are learning outcomes:

1. Propose methods for enhancing local food venues in their communities.
2. Identify empirical topics focused on the intersection of local foods and leisure.
3. Explain the linkages between local food systems and recreation and leisure.

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VOLUNTEER PARTICIPATION IN URBAN AGRICULTURE AS A FORM OF CIVIC LEISURE
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Bradley H. Camp, Middle Tennessee State University
Justin Harmon, Texas A & M University

Consistent with Mair’s (2002) conceptualization of civil leisure, this study explores volunteer participation in civic agriculture as a leisure practice that addresses perceived social and environmental injustices and thereby endeavors to facilitate social change. The present study uses ethnographic methods to investigate the manner in which individuals’ involvement in civic agriculture expressed their desires to transform the industrial agriculture system, social networks within their neighborhoods, and land use patterns in urban environments. We explored these phenomena in the context of individuals’ voluntary participation in Urban Patchwork Neighborhood Farms (UP) in Austin, TX. Drawing on leisure as a context for civic dialogue (Hemingway, 1988), civil leisure (Mair, 2002) describes activities undertaken in leisure that explicitly aim to foster civic dialogue and social change. Civil leisure has been used to explore numerous activities including political protest (Mair), music festivals (Sharpe, 2005), space hijacking (Gilchrist & Ravenscroft, 2011), and food-related activities (Mair, Sumner & Rotteau, 2008). Accordingly, as a form of alternative, ‘civic agriculture’ (Allen, 2004; Lyson, 2004), volunteer participation in UP facilitated a type of activism that sought to transform industrial agriculture as well as foster a community-based discourse on the organization of urban space and social organization vis-à-vis food cultivation. Given the need to capture participants’ perspectives, we employed an ethnographic approach to inquiry that included participant observation, interviewing, and archival research. Data were principally generated from participant observation and semi-structured interviews conducted by the authors. Workdays in the field served as the primary context for observation, and first two authors participated in more than sixty workdays between May 2011 and July 2013. In an effort to capture an emic perspective of volunteer participation, we performed the same activities as any other volunteers (e.g., planting, harvesting). Data took the form of field notes and interview transcripts that were analyzed using a constructivist form of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006). As opposed to simply cultivating produce, our research revealed that UP’s existence and volunteer participation was explicitly directed towards the transformation of the Austin community and the larger society. Annie captured this issue when she explained that participation in UP is driven by “a civic interest in where food comes from and what food means to people in our culture. Any time you step outside of things that are usually bought and sold and make your own things, I think that is a form of activism. And when you try to agitate your neighbors to do the same thing, then it can be intensely activistic[sic] and political” (06/10/13). As such, the cultivation of food was both an end and a means for the cultivation of social networks within neighborhoods. Our findings support the utility of civil leisure for understanding volunteer participation in UP and for exploring civically-oriented leisure activities more generally. Rather than focus on leisure as an experience of personal enjoyment (Mair, 2002), this work demonstrates civil leisure’s potential to elucidate numerous other leisure practices that facilitate civic discourse and social change.

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FARMER’S MARKETS AS CONSUMPTION COMMUNITIES
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Well-established institutions, farmers’ markets have been a constant feature of North American culture since industrialization established urban areas and separated individuals and communities from their food source. Today, farmers’ markets containing anything from fresh produce and meat to flowers and crafts can be found in almost every urban centre. Although the increasing concern over food safety, origin (e.g., local food), and quality are often cited as primary motivations for choosing farmers’ markets over conventional supermarkets (Holloway & Kneafsey, 2000; Macnaghten & Urry, 1998), other important characteristics of farmers’ markets include the experience of getting to know farmers, availability of reliable product information, supporting local farmers, sense of community, and social interaction. Despite general acknowledgement that community markets promote and establish community (e.g., Fletcher, 1997; Szmigin, Maddock, & Carrigan, 2003), leisure scholars have yet to recognize the significance of farmers’ markets as sites that contribute to the enactment and performance of community. The primary purpose of this research is to explore the concept of community as a key attribute of farmers’ markets. In addition, this work builds on Cook’s (2006) call to move leisure studies “beyond individualism” (p. 464) and examines farmers’ markets as specific places of consumption that are sites for the enactment of community. Notions of community and consumption possess an underlying moral and ethical aspect associated with the objectives and goals of leisure provision. These terms are often used in the normative sense, whereby any action, research, or policy connected to community and the “vilification of consumption” (Cook, 2006, p. 456) is assumed to be equivalent to ethics, values, and the public good. The revival of urban and farmers’ markets reflects the growing awareness among consumers of the environmental and social consequences associated with mainstream consumption. Farmers’ markets often attract consumers who consider the environmental and social consequences of their consumption choices and therefore evaluate their purchase choices and locations to take their own consumption philosophies into consideration (Connolly & Shaw, 2006). However, despite this recognition and overt attempts to evade the prevalent free market structure, farmers’ markets often remain ingrained in the capitalist economy. As Hinrichs (2000) noted, farmers’ markets are “firmly rooted in conventional exchange relations, where asparagus and sweet corn can be purchased when available for the going price of the day” (p. 301). Accordingly, despite recognition of the opportunity to consume consciously in a farmers’ market space, consumption of food commodities is the primary activity associated with community markets. A dichotomy between public/active and commercial/passive is prevalent in the leisure literature (Coalter, 1998). According to Cook (2008), however, the economic “perspective on market exchange leaves no space wherein culture, meaning, sentiment and everyday practice can be brought to bear on social life” (p. 1-2; cf. Zelizer, 2005). Farmers’ markets are one space where culture, meaning, and sentiment converge to create and enable community. Accordingly, this research rejects the current dominant discourse within leisure studies and instead seeks to determine how everyday places of consumption, such as farmers’ markets, create and enact community.

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LOCAL FOOD SHOPPING AS RECREATION: PROFILING FARMER’S MARKET VISITORS
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James Farmer, Indiana University
Stephanie West, Appalachian State University
Charles Chancellor, Clemson University

Farmers’ market (FM) visitors have been identified as recreational shoppers (Dunlap, 2012; Farmer et al., 2011; Johnson, 2013) and shopping is frequently identified as one of America’s most popular recreation activities. FM visitors indicated the shopping experience was a much anticipated experience and FMs provide an enjoyable setting for discussions with friends, customers, and vendors, while also supporting the local economy and purchasing healthier food (Conner et al., 2010; Farmer et al. 2011; Johnson, 2013). The purpose of this research was to compare the demographics and environmentally related behaviors of FM visitors from multiple markets within two geographically diverse regions, and to compare visitors with non-visitors. Visitors from FMs in two regions from separate states were asked to complete questionnaires about their behaviors and attitudes related to shopping at FMs. In North Carolina (NC), visitors to three rural FMs in Western NC were asked to share their email addresses. A FM survey would be emailed in exchange for a $2 token. A total of 563 visitors were approached, 51 did not have email addresses, and 70 emails were returned as undeliverable. From the 442 usable email addresses, 274 completed usable surveys available for analysis, for an overall response rate of 62%. In Indiana (IN), 621 visitors from 12 randomly selected FMs were given the option to complete a survey onsite or take it with them and return it by US mail (postage paid). There were 321 visitors who responded for a 51.7% response rate. The demographic composition of IN FM visitors and non-visitors identified no significant differences beyond education and income (p>.05). Overall, both data sets revealed FM visitors were white, approximately 50 years old, and female. NC FM visitors reported 73% earned a four-year degree or higher education, while only 57% of IN FM visitors and 45% earned over $75k when compared to IN 34%, respectively. When examining nine environmentally related behaviors like composting, recycling, and eating a vegetarian/vegan diet, NC FM visitors were more likely to participate in each of them. A MANCOVA was run in order to determine whether the differences could be attributed to geography, education, or income. After controlling for education and income, NC FM visitors were significantly more likely to take part in recycling and food preservation. Additional analyses showed no statistical differences in motive-value statements. Despite no demographic differences, results have professional and research implications. FM visitors are a relatively homogenous group that holds values and hobbies around healthy food and living. Few significant differences existed between visitors from the two regions/states. These findings are valuable for markets trying to capture new demographics or local food activists using farmers’ markets as a tool to combat food insecurity. Moreover, it raises interesting questions about equity in terms of access to local food and whether FM experiences are perceive as recreational, as shopping for local food is primarily a recreational activity undertaken by the privileged (Farmer et al., 2014).

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Selected References


UNDERSTANDING FARMERS’ MARKET PARTICIPATION: A BEHAVIORAL APPROACH
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The role of recreation and its agencies in local food systems has received little attention among peer-reviewed outlets even though municipal recreation departments have long been host to farmers’ markets (FM), community gardens, and now more recently community orchards. An exception is recent recreation and leisure literature, highlighting the relationship between local food systems and recreation and leisure (Johnson, 2013; Farmer, 2012; Farmer, Chancellor, Gooding, Shubowitz, & Bryant, 2011; Amsden & McEntee, 2011). Most recently, Johnson (2013) contends that attending a FM for food acquisition is much more than a consumptive exchange, rather leisure and consumption are inextricably tied in the experience, having the potential to foster community development and support participant values, ideals, and ethics into the consumerism experience. This notion parallels Farmer’s (2012) suggestion that the local food movement and its most committed patrons being engaged in serious leisure (Stebbins, 2008) as they are actively pursuant of a slow-food leisure experience (Dunlap, 2012). Farmer et al. (2011) found recreation as a key element to the FM experience in their qualitative study- underscored by the socialization dimensions of the FM experience. Likely the earliest scholarship in the leisure field that links with local foods was that of Amsden and McEntee (2011) who proposed theoretical framework of Agrileisure and suggested a more complex systems approach for the study of the local foods experience. Building from this growing body of knowledge positing the local food experience as a leisure experience, we sought to apply insights from institutional models of decision making (Ostrom 1998) and complex social-ecological systems (SES) (Ostrom 2009; Ostrom & Cox 2010) that collectively reveal the importance of factors based on contexts. Using the SES framework specifically we sought to determine how instrumental, normative motives, and social norms affect the participation in a FM given a set of relevant contextual attributes. The data presented in this abstract is the result of analysis from those engaging and not engaging in FMs in Indiana. Understanding the variables affecting participation in FMs is critical to ensure equitable access for all potential participants, and helps inform park and recreation municipal agencies seeking to build community resilience through FMs.

Methods
This study surveyed individuals who engaged in one of 12 Indiana FMs that were randomly selected from the 132 markets published in Indiana’s agri-tourism guide or listed on www.localharvest.org, as well as 750 randomly selected individuals who did not partake in shopping at a FM. Market participants were approached and invited to participate using a convenience sampling method (Riddick & Russell, 2007). Non FM participants were contacted using a modified Dillman approach for a mail based data collection system (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). The questionnaires for both groups sought data on food-value motivations and demographic data. The FM participant questionnaire also asked about market behavior and usage, while the non-participant questionnaire asked about barriers to shopping at a farmers’ market. The FM questionnaire garnered a 51.7% response rate (n = 321) and the non-participant questionnaire received a 15.5% response rate (n = 115). We regressed the data to assess the
factors associated with the choice to participate in the FM. The dependent variable used was a binary measure that indicates whether the individual participated or did not participate in the FM. This was used to assess individual factors associated with the choice to attend the market, and then in a logistic regression to estimate the likelihood that individuals would choose to attend a FM.

Results

The model results met statistical parameters (Table 1), returning a significant Chi-square value ($p < .03$) and non-significant value for the Hosmer-Lemeshow test of significance, which is appropriate (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000). The model predicted the outcome of our dependent variable 81.7% of the time and retained five significant items, including: Variable (V) 1- motive to purchase organic food, V2- motive to purchase whole food, V3- having foods originating from within 100 miles, V4- supporting the local economy, and V5- education level were all significant and retained. Education was broken down into the levels of attainment that were significant. Variables 1-4 were measured on a 5-point Likert-scale of strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Table 1. Summary statistics of Binary Logistic Regression and Likelihood of Participating in the Farmers Market.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model statistics (N=349 included in this analysis)</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>9.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2 log likelihood</td>
<td>267.948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagelkerke’s R-square</td>
<td>.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predictive efficiency</td>
<td>81.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hosmer-Lemeshow test significance</td>
<td>.272</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable in Equation (with Sign.)</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V1- Organic</td>
<td>.007**</td>
<td>1.573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V2- Whole foods</td>
<td>.029*</td>
<td>1.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V3- Food from 100 mile radius</td>
<td>.015*</td>
<td>1.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V4- Support local economy</td>
<td>.004**</td>
<td>1.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V5- Education Attainment</td>
<td>.000***</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V5a- Grade school or some high school</td>
<td>.006**</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V5b- High school diploma or GED</td>
<td>.016*</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V5c- Some college/university</td>
<td>.012*</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V5d- Associates degree</td>
<td>.008**</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

If the odds ratio was found to be one, the likelihood of engaging in local foods does not correlate well to the variable in question. If an odds ratio is above or below a one, such as a 1.10 or .90, the likelihood of engaging or not engaging in the purchasing of local food is directly or conversely related to that variable. In the case of this example, there would be a 10% increase or decrease, respectively. Our results indicate that for each point higher on the Likert scale participants score ‘wanting to purchase organic food’, the likelihood of purchasing from the FM increased by 57.3%. The variable with the greatest odds ratio was ‘wanting to support the local economy’, with the likelihood of participating in the FM increasing by 78.8% for each step of the
Likert scale. For each point higher on the scale they scored the importance of ‘purchasing whole foods’ or ‘purchasing food from within 100 miles’, they were 53.7% and 52.9% more likely to participate in the FM, respectively. Additionally, the likelihood of participation in the FM decreased considerably as educational attainment fell below a bachelor’s degree.

**Discussion**

Understanding who is and who is not participating in recreation experiences (FM in this case) and why individuals do or do not participate in them is paramount to fostering inclusive services and working to minimize barriers and constraints. The contributions of our research are threefold. First, the research highlights five motive/demographic variables that seem to promote or limit participation in FMs. Most notably wanting to support the local economy emerged with the largest odds ratio of any variable. Cox, Holloway, Venn, Dowler, Hein, et al. (2008), among others, have suggested the desire to support the local economy as critical to engaging individuals in local foods and FM experiences (Jekanowski, Williams, & Schiek, 2000). Relatedly, individuals seeking food produced from within 100 miles of their locale were much more likely to participate in the FM, in all likelihood so they might know how their food was produced and who was producing it (Conner, 2004) or to procure whole foods (McCullum, 2004). Finally, educational attainment was found to be of critical importance for participating in the FM (Zepeda & Li, 2006), which possibly is tied to the other variables in having the motivation for knowing how their food was produced and the health aspects of foods. Secondly, these results and the analyses used places the participation in FM within the context of a complex SES framework (Ostrom, 2007), adding to the discourse on recreation participation and environmental decision-making within a larger systems framework. SES scholarship has revealed that the effects of sustainability programs and policies often depend critically upon how they interact with the context in which they are implemented (Basurto & Ostrom, 2009). With much scholarship highlighting the variation in those that do and do not participate in FM (Guthman, 2008), our results suggest that a one-size-fits-all approach might not necessarily fit all or at least in the markets we collected data from. Further research should include both participant data and data on the institutional design, policy, and management of the markets to develop a fuller understanding for the interplay of variables affecting engagement. Finally, our results add to the growing body of knowledge that places participation in FMs within the context of a recreation and leisure experience (Johnson, 2013; Farmer, 2012; Farmer et al., 2011; Amsden & McEntee, 2011). For practitioners, this study provides vital data on possibly why people do and do not participate in FMs. This is important to all FM organizations, but specifically for park and recreation professionals seeking to advertise their market and build inclusive programs. Municipal recreation agencies might also find it prudent to partner with a city or county’s public health department (Jones & Bhatia, 2011) to inform and educate citizens on the benefits of FM and how various government food voucher programs can be utilized at markets. For scholars in the leisure sciences field, understanding the underlying motives and barriers to engagement could inform future research on activities associated with FM and other local food system experiences that are looked upon as recreation and leisure. Though well supported by our total observations (n=436), this study is limited by our inability to account for nonresponse bias (Henry, 2009), and focused population in IN only. However, we believe that our results do provide important considerations for understanding the variables affecting participation in FMs.

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Selected References


PSYCHOLOGICALLY DEEP EXPERIENCES IN NATURE: THE DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPREHENSIVE PDE SCALE
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Gordon Walker, University of Alberta

Although the social, physical, spiritual, and cognitive benefits of nature-based experiences have been well researched in the leisure literature (Jones, Hollenhurst, Perna, Selin, 2000; Kaplan, 1989; Heintzman, 2010; Sharpe, 2005) there has been little work to evaluate the many important aspects of nature-based recreation simultaneously. We begin this work by exploring what Mannell (1996) describes as psychologically deep experiences (PDEs) “special, out-of-the-ordinary, or meaningful” experiences that typically involve altered perceptions of time, self, and surroundings (p. 405). This paper focuses on memorable nature experiences and what we call the ‘Big Four’ PDE’s — Turner’s (1982) Communitas, Kaplan and Kaplan’s (1989) Fascination, Csikszentmihalyi’s (1975) Flow, and Spiritual experiences (McDonald & Schreyer, 1991). Briefly explained, Flow is an experience of deep concentration, in which a person becomes absorbed in the moment and loses track of time (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Spiritual experiences are more intense and the person involved typically feels connected to a higher power (Hood, Morris, & Watson, 1993). Fascination involves effortless attention that is triggered by nature spaces (Kaplan, 1995). Finally, Communitas is an intense, magical, and synergistic connection to other people (Turner, 1982) and is characterized by sharing, harmony, and a sense of belonging (McGinnis, Gentry & Tao, 2008). The social, mental, physical, and spiritual elements that the ‘Big Four’ address have been identified in the nature benefits literature as contributing to health and wellness (Kuo, 2010). Researchers have identified an empirical need to compare and contrast PDEs that have previously been studied separately. For example, Jackson, Martin, and Eklund (2008) contend that, although the flow concept is well researched, they recommend development of a scale that measures “a diverse range of constructs [that] could be compared with flow” (p. 583). Based on the previous, a comprehensive PDE scale was developed and used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine its construct validity (Messick, 1989).

Method
A comprehensive PDE scale was developed to measure the ‘Big Four’ based on a literature review of existing scales, in-depth interviews (n = 12), and expert review (n = 5). The scale includes one factor that measures Communitas (McGinnis et al., 2008), one factor that measures Fascination (Hartig, Kaiser, & Bowler, 1997), 6 factors that measure Flow (Jackson & Eklund, 2004), and three factors that measure Spiritual experience (Hood et al., 1993). Flow is usually measured by nine factors. However, because the goals of this study were to compare and contrast the ‘immediate conscious experience’ (ICE) (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997) of PDEs and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) holds that the ICE of Flow includes five factors (a merging of action and awareness, deep concentration, loss of self-consciousness, transformation of time, and unambiguous feedback), only these domains have been included in the comprehensive PDE survey. Additionally, the challenge/skill balance factor is included because it is foundational to Flow research. Domains from the other three PDE scales that are similar to these domains were maintained via the FSS-2 because of this scale’s validity and reliability. After feedback was incorporated, the newly developed comprehensive PDE scale was placed online (n = 431). Respondents were asked to recall a memorable nature based experience within the past year. The resulting survey data was randomly split into two groups to create a test sample (n = 224) and a cross validation sample (n = 207) and was analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to
confirm that the variables were related to their respective factor. A covariance matrix in SPSS and then imported to LISREL VIII for the CFA. The specified CFA PDE model (Figure 1) identifies eleven factors indicated by the capital letters (i.e., Noetic, Affect, Spiritual, Transformation of Time, Loss of Self, Unambiguous Feedback, Action Awareness, Concentration, Challenge Skill Balance, Communitas, and Fascination). Each factor has three measured variables that indicate a hypothesized effect (Lambda X).

**Results**

Of the 431 respondents, most were female (63.7%), with the largest age category 35-49 (32.4%). Although the majority of participants had obtained a college or university degree (58.6%), 28% of respondents had a graduate degree (e.g., a Master’s or PhD). Finally, the largest individual income category was $50,000 to $74,999 (23.2%), with 44.6% of respondents earning less than $49,999.

Descriptive statistics indicate that all of the ‘Big Four’ are important in memorable nature-based experiences. In the case of the CFA PDE model, the Chi Square statistic is 616.18 and is significant, with $\chi^2(440, N = 224), p = 0.00$. Ideally this statistic should not be significant; however, using the 440 degrees of freedom and N creates a ratio of less than two, indicating the model may still fit the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The GFI of 0.86 is a good fit, as values larger than .9 indicate a very good fit (Kelloway, 1998). The standardized Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) estimates the lack of fit compared to the perfect model. In this CFA model, the estimate is 0.04, which also indicates a good fit, as Hu and Bentler (1999) recommend a cut-off point near 0.06. Comparative fit statistics include the NFI, or Normed Fit Index, which in this case is 0.94, indicating that the proposed model is 94% better fit than the null model, or a model that does not fit. Additionally, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is 0.98. It is measured between 0.0 and 1.0 with numbers greater than 0.95 indicating a good estimated model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007)(See Table 1). Finally, the intricacies of the model can be assessed via the Squared Multiple Correlations for X variables. The estimate indicates that the latent variables explain the variance in the observed variables quite well, as $R^2$ ranges from 0.32 to 0.95, with an average of 0.68. The Standardized solution for the test sample is reported in Table 2. The cross validation sample produces very similar fit statistics to the test sample, indicating reliability.

The Loss of Self-Consciousness (LOS) items: ‘Worried what others thinking’, ‘Concerned others evaluation’, and ‘Concerned others thinking’ performed well in the item to factor relationship (i.e., the T values were significant and $R^2$ indicates 0.80 to 0.95), but there are problems with the relationship of the factor to the other factors. In the PHI matrix (i.e., the matrix that reports the correlation among the factors in the model), most of the coefficients for LOS are not significant, indicating that the factor is weakly or not at all related to the other factors. Previous studies have also noted issues with the LOS factor, mainly weak correlations with the other eight Flow factors (Vlachopoulos, Karageorghis, & Terry, 2000).

**Discussion and Conclusion**

Each of the ‘Big Four’ was present in this study indicating the validity of using these concepts in nature-based research. Additionally, this researcher is aware of one other study that compared Flow to other constructs, but the researchers involved did not use Jackson and Eklund’s (2004) well established items nor other foundational work (i.e., McGinnis et al., 2008). This study verifies the construct and criterion validity of Flow, with the exception of LOS, and the reliability of the comprehensive PDE scale. Future work should continue to develop the scale items of Fascination and Communitas as we suspect they are both multidimensional constructs.
Table 1. *Fit Statistics of the Hypothesized Model*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>AGFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
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<tr>
<td>Test sample</td>
<td>616.18</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross validation sample</td>
<td>569.21</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
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Table 2. *Standardized Solution, Test Sample*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PDE</th>
<th>FACTOR NAME</th>
<th>$\Lambda$</th>
<th>VARIABLE NAME</th>
<th>$\delta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>NOETIC</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>New view reality</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>NOETIC</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Ultimate reality revealed</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>NOETIC</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Deeper aspects reality</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>AFFECT</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>Peaceful state</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>AFFECT</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>Wonder</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>AFFECT</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>All was perfection</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.85</td>
<td>Divine</td>
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</tr>
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<td>SPIRITUAL</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Holy</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>SPIRITUAL</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>Sacred</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>TIME</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Time passed differently</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>TIME</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Lost awareness of time</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>TIME</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Time slowed</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>LOSS SELF</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>Concerned others evaluation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>LOSS SELF</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>Worried others thinking</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>LOSS SELF</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>Concerned others thinking</td>
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<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>FEEDBACK</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>How well I was doing</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>FEEDBACK</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>Aware how well doing</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.92</td>
<td>Could tell how well doing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>ACTION</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>I did things spontaneously</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>ACTION</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>Performed automatically</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>ACTION</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>Things happen automatically</td>
<td>0.47</td>
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<td>CONCENTRATION</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>Completely focused</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>CONCENTRATION</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>No effort to keep my mind</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>CONCENTRATION</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>Total concentration</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>C/S BALANCE</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Challenge and skill high</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>C/S BALANCE</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Abilities match challenge</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>C/S BALANCE</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Competent meet high demands</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>COMMUNITAS</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>Sense of sharing</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communitas</td>
<td>COMMUNITAS</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>Sense harmony</td>
<td>0.05</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communitas</td>
<td>COMMUNITAS</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>Sense of belonging</td>
<td>0.37</td>
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<tr>
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<td>FASCINATION</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>Landscape fascinating</td>
<td>0.27</td>
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<td>FASCINATION</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>Effortless attention</td>
<td>0.70</td>
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<td>Fascination</td>
<td>FASCINATION</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Natural setting fascinating</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Selected References


IDENTIFYING THE BENEFITS OF SERVICE LEARNING: A PILOT STUDY
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Dr. Michael Bradley, Eastern Kentucky University
Dr. Ryan Sharp, Eastern Kentucky University

Service learning can be applied to many settings including schools, universities, and community/faith based organizations. Service learning is important as they have demonstrated to benefit students in many ways (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Cognitive benefits include helping students develop better critical thinking/problem solving skills and social-cognitive benefits including fostering civic responsibility, acceptance of diversity, and developing leadership skills” (Strage, 2000, p.5). The ultimate purpose of service learning is to aid the student in becoming a more competent and polished professional by utilizing valuable information learned throughout their academic career. For the purposes of this pilot study, service learning will be defined as a method of “linking the academic with the practical” and an “opportunity to connect service experience to the intellectual content of the classroom” (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000, p. 1). Until recently, there has been minimal research focusing on identifying the outcomes of service learning projects in an undergraduate leisure curriculum. While service learning becomes more common as an embedded curricular component, more researchers are putting forth efforts to increase research and knowledge related to service learning outcomes. Astin et al. (2000) quantitatively measured comparative effects of service learning and community service on the cognitive and affective development of college undergraduates. The researchers collected longitudinal data from 22,236 undergraduates from baccalaureate-granting institutions throughout the United States. A follow up survey was administered by the researchers during the fall of 1998. The study found that service learning participation shows significant positive effects on all outcome measures and that benefits associated with course-based service were strongest for the academic outcomes. The authors discovered that these findings directly replicated a number of recent studies using different samples and methodologies. Gallini and Moely (2003) used a similar survey method to assess the student retention and engagement by asking the students their views regarding their courses at the end of the semester. Students reported that courses that included a service learning component promoted and enhanced interpersonal, community, and academic engagement, were academically challenging, and encouraged their continued study at the university. There is an increasing emphasis on providing students with experiences beyond the classroom (Ferrari & Worrall, 2000), and many institutions are beginning to incorporate service learning directly into the requirements for graduation and within specific course curricula. While many professionals and academic instructors herald the benefits of service learning, valid and reliable data confirming beneficial learning outcomes is lacking. While this dearth of information warrants additional study, such an endeavor will also serve as an assessment tool for specific service learning projects. This study was conducted to begin to understand how service learning in a recreation and park academic department may or may not benefit students personally and professionally.

**Methodology**

In order to measure specific and measurable outcomes related to service learning, the researchers decided to modify a previously tested instrument developed by the University of Georgia Office of Service learning. The survey\(^1\) included 27 items related to service learning outcomes (Likert scales), 4 items related to the specific course, and 7 demographic questions.

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\(^1\) Note: Full service learning survey could be obtained from the lead author – see contact information on last page.
The 27 service learning items within the instrument were used to gain a general understanding of the benefits to service learning projects. Such outcomes were developed through an extensive literature review and faculty development process (Toncar, Reid, Burns, Anderson & Nguyen, 2006; P. H. Matthews, personal communication, January 13, 2014). Three places were also included for students to provide additional commentary related to the course and the service learning project. During the fall 2013 semester, nine courses within the recreation and park administration (RPA) major at Eastern Kentucky University included a service learning component. While all students received a link to the online survey, student participation was not required and was voluntary. Students enrolled in courses without a service learning component were not solicited participation. A total of 250 students were enrolled in these nine courses, of which 124 (N = 124) completed the online survey for a response rate of 49.6%.

Results

This study focused on primarily upper division courses in the RPA department, and thus the average age of the students was 23.9 years with the majority (84.6%) being a 3rd year student or higher. The RPA department has 4 concentrations, with the results showing relative equal representation in the sample (19.5%, 31.7%, 19.5%, 29.3%). The majority of students (63.7%) had taken a class before that focused on service learning. Students reported that a significant portion (47.5%) of time was spent in class preparing for and discussing the service learning projects. Students were asked to rate their level of agreement (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree) for several questions related to service learning. Students felt very strongly about service learning projects enhancing their ability to work as a member of a team (M = 1.78, SD = 0.77), that service learning projects can provide real benefits to people in the community (M = 1.76, SD = 0.83) and more service learning opportunities should be offered to interested students (M = 1.70, SD = 0.87). Students still agreed but to a lesser degree with the statements “service learning projects make me aware of some of my own biases and prejudices” (M = 2.24, SD = 0.97) and “this course was more demanding than most courses of equal credit” (M = 2.21, SD = 1.08). Students were neutral (M = 2.89, SD = 1.37) for the statement “I would have learned more if I spent more time in the classroom instead of doing service work.” An ANOVA was conducted to determine if those students who hold part-time or full-time jobs felt differently about service learning than their peers who reported not working. This comparison was conducted because students reported working an average of 17.07 hours per week (SD = 14.76). The scores for all respondents were in agreement that service learning can be beneficial to their educational experience (means less than 3 on the aforementioned 5 point scale); however, those who worked part time or full time jobs felt the experience was more beneficial than those who did not work. There was a statistically significant difference for the following questions: “this service learning project encouraged me to seek additional opportunities to learn about people of different ages, abilities, cultures, or economic backgrounds” (F(2,120) = 6.36, p = 0.001); “this service project made me more aware of my possible impact on others” (F(2,120) = 9.07, p = 0.001); this service learning project helped me better understand the subject matter of this course” (F(2,120) = 8.67, p = 0.001); “through this course, I developed a greater sense of my personal responsibility for my own learning” (F(2,120) = 5.38, p = 0.01)

Discussion and Implications

The importance of service learning for students is to enrich the students’ academic experience, social experience, and increase retention rates. Within this academic program, there is a consistent emphasis on producing students that are adequately prepared to have a competitive advantage in the job market. The service leaning projects give students the unique
and valuable opportunity to practice skills, gain experience, and work with professionals. Further, service learning, within these courses, bridges the information and skills learned in the classroom and connects it to professional issues, scenarios, and tasks. The results of this study confirm these efforts are not in vain. Many higher education institutions also seek to promote a climate and culture that respects and celebrates diversity. For many students, college is the first place many are exposed to various cultures and people, as well as learn to work with diverse people. Courses that include service learning components have proven to produce positive outcomes related to other cultures and civic responsibilities (Strage, 2000). The majority of students found the experience useful for understanding those with different backgrounds and viewpoints. One student stated that during her project she spoke “to an elderly gentleman who had lived there his entire life with his wife and son. He taught me a lot about the culture of the area and how the economy has dwindled into almost nothing.” This study points to a minor concern related to students time commitments in classes that utilize service learning. Many students work (17 hours per week for this sample) and may find it difficult to juggle work and out of classroom activities. Some of the written comments reflected this concern with one student commenting that service projects are “time consuming and can be over barring for students” and another student stating “service learning is important, but it is essential to give students the information about how much time these classes will take up outside of their regular schedules prior to the semester beginning.” University professors need to consider and plan for students work schedules. Finally, a common goal for universities is retention rates. The ultimate goal of increasing retention and graduation rates is emphasized in many academic programs and institutions, with ongoing efforts to meet such goals. Current research highlights how service learning projects encourage students to continue their academic endeavor and finish their prospective degrees (Gallini & Moely, 2003). Such information may give credence to implementing undergraduate service learning courses during the student’s introductory years. Specific limitations in this pilot study include lack of student diversity and including only one department in the survey process. A general limitation in this pilot study is future research is necessary to establish the reliability of the survey, and to continue to assess the validity of the survey (Toncar et al., 2006). While preliminary results provide evidence that service learning projects are valid components of an undergraduate education, more research is necessary to further guide faculty and administration related to service learning components within the curricula. More research is needed.

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Selected References
RURAL PARENTING AND SEDENTARY ACTIVITIES: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW
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Corliss Outley, Texas A&M University
E. Lisako McKyer, Texas A&M University

Childhood obesity is a growing problem in the United States. Though a great body of research has focused on this area, little is known about the factors that influence this phenomenon in rural settings. Understanding how children spend their leisure time is equally important when trying to tackle the problem of childhood obesity. Outside of school, children get to choose the activities they participate in everyday, whether those activities are active or sedentary. However, parents play a great role in the provision of or the restriction from these activities. Parental involvement is an important factor that dictates health outcomes of children. Indeed, the family system, particularly parents, holds a pivotal role in influencing and teaching their children health beliefs and practices, whether they are advantageous or disadvantageous.

While there is a great body of literature that examines the benefits of active behaviors in the fight against obesity, understanding sedentary behaviors and the role it plays is equally important in providing a clearer picture. Sedentary behavior and parenting factors are just two factors that influence this trend toward obesity. However, even less is known about how the intersection of parenting influences affects child sedentary behaviors in the context of rural communities. This study examines the relationship between parenting factors and child sedentary behaviors within the context of rurality.

Method
This study is a systematic review of the literature and focuses on current parenting practices in rural areas and its contribution to sedentary activity in children. A systematic review uses explicit and analytical methods to identify what can reliably be said on the basis of these studies (Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Co-ordinating Centre, 2009). This review consisted of a database search of the four major health related databases, the determination of inclusionary and exclusionary criteria and screening process. In order to yield the best results, a protocol developed by Foster (2012) was utilized to aid in searching the databases. The methodology protocol included (a) an in-depth database search, (b) the determination of inclusion and exclusion criteria, and (c) a three-tier screening process. Four databases (MEDLine, CINAHL, ERIC and PSYCInfo) were searched using the following search terms: child or adolescent, parenting influence, sedentary behavior or sedentary lifestyle, rurality, rural population, rural health, parenting, parent involvement and youth. The initial search yielded N = 113.

Once articles were gathered, they were screened twice in order to determine the final sample. The first screening process included any articles that had (a) a sole or partial focus on rurality and (b) focused on school-aged children and/or adolescents. Articles were excluded if (a) they were not peer-reviewed and (b) not in English. Duplicates, dissertations and theses were also excluded. After the first screening, 81 articles remained for further review. The second screening round focused on (a) parental factors other than demographics and (b) a sole focus on rurality. From these articles, the reference lists were scanned to include articles that may have been missed. The PRISMA flow chart by Liberati et al. (2009) was used to determine eligible articles to be included in the final analysis. The flowchart depicts the number of articles identified during the systematic review and indicates the number of included and excluded and the reasons for exclusion. A modified Garrard matrix (Delissaint & McKyer, 2011) was used to review each
article. The matrix included information on the study aims, the sample characteristics, methods and key findings. Also recorded were screening criteria for determining inclusion or exclusion of articles.

**Results**

After the screening process, the final sample included five articles determined to fit all inclusionary criteria for this study. Four articles were included from the database search, and one article was pulled from the references. From the final sample of articles the smallest sample size studied was $n = 7$ and the largest $n = 116$. Four out of the five studies were conducted in the United States, and one study was done in Australia. All the studies occurred between the years 2005-2010. Two of the five studies came from health literature, while the other three studies were completed under the scopes of nutrition, epidemiology and pediatric nursing. Only one article indicated any kind of theoretical background, and only one article was quantitative. Two out of the five studies sampled exclusively from mothers, while the remaining three sampled from parents and/or teachers. Two studies focused on families with obese children between 7-12 years old. One study focused on children from kindergarten through 5th grade, and one study did not indicate age or grade level. After critically reviewing each article in depth, four themes of parental factors influencing child physical activity within the rural context were present throughout the literature: (a) environmental barriers, (b) sociocultural influences, (c) parent and child motivation and (d) affordability constraints.

*Environmental barriers* included parental concerns about issues such as distances to parks, schools and community centers and general lack of resources to build and maintain places like fitness clubs or after school programs (Hennessey et al., 2010; Davis et al., 2008; Druon et al., 2008; Hessler, 2009). Parents also raised concerns about vacant homes in their areas, the lack of infrastructure, such as sidewalks and the hot climate. These environmental barriers were serious considerations for parents with young children who were concerned about their child’s safety if and when their child was to play outside (Hennessey et al., 2010; Hessler, 2009).

*Sociocultural factors* were unique to each of the five studies, of which time the mothers’ time constraints and the closing and consolidating of schools were big factors (Druon et al., 2008; Hennesey et al., 2010) Mothers not being able to make time or to have time available to take their child to after school programs or to watch over them at parks was seen as a barrier to children’s activity and an enabling factor for their sedentary activity at home. Also, some parents expressed concern about crime and/or drugs in their neighborhood, but this was not reported across all studies (Hennessey et al., 2010).

*Parent and child motivation* was the most common theme among the articles. Much of the parent motivation came from not wanting their children to be exposed to negative experiences like negative stereotyping from other children, teasing, or being perceived as fat or overweight by their parents if their parents were to suggest exercise or diet changes (Davis et al., 2008; Druon et al., 2008). In this matter, parents wanted to shield their child. Children, however, were motivated differently from their parents. The children in these studies showed a preference toward sedentary behaviors such as watching television or playing video games. Some parents reported their child not wanting to engage in physical activity because they perceived themselves as unfit and did not want to be judged by their peers (Davis et al.; Druon et al.). These children also expected a ‘fast fix’ for their weight problems and would quit after a week of engaging in physical activity and not seeing any significant results (Davis et al.).

*Affordability* was the last theme found throughout the literature. The higher costs of healthy foods, the cost of programs and high gas prices were all barriers for some families. Regardless of
the families’ intentions to eat healthier or to have children in dance or tumbling classes, the costs of consuming these goods and services were out of their budgets (Davis et al., 2008; Druon et al., 2008; Hennessey et al., 2010; Hessler, 2009).

Discussion and Conclusions

This study shows that parenting practices outside of demographic and anthropometric data in rural communities is understudied. It is important to understand how parenting in rural areas is different from their urban counterparts and how it affects children’s leisure time activity. By continuing to examine this, more informed steps can be made to reach this specific population and tailor programs, research and activities that would be most impactful. The results show that parenting in rural communities is largely centered on parents’ perceptions of their child’s overweight status and the barriers they face in motivating and providing their child with more active alternatives. It would be interesting to continue in this vein of study to better understand how rurality plays a role in parent motivations, however, there currently isn’t enough research being completed in this area and findings of five articles across different disciplines cannot be generalized.

This study also revealed that consensus needs to be made on what is the proper definition of rural. In these 5 articles there three very different definitions of ‘rural’ were given. Davis et al. (2008) defined rural as “town or county of <20,000 individuals” (p. 2134); Hessler (2009) gave rurality a definition of “a town populated with 2500 or fewer inhabitants” (p.247), and Hennessey et al. (2010) referred to the rural definition provided by the National Center for Education Statistics and the Department of Education, while the remaining two articles made no attempt in defining rurality. This is problematic because it limits how definitive research in studying parenting effects on leisure and thus obesity can be. More research in studying the intersection of rurality, parenting practices and leisure time sedentary activity needs to be completed in order to gain a better understanding of childhood obesity in these areas. With only 5 articles, there is a conspicuous gap that needs to be addressed. This gap does not mean we are necessarily lacking in our field, but that leisure and research journals are not being indexed in health-related databases. This would also explain the exclusion of key leisure articles on the effects of rurality, such as Edwards and Matarrita-Cascante’s (2011) review. In effect we are limited in the discussion of rurality and its effects because leisure research on rurality does not transcend leisure studies, when in fact it has important contributions and insights to be made in health behaviors and outcomes. Thus as researchers, we should focus more of their efforts into understanding this problem because of the multidimensionality of the issue.

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IMPACTS OF SERVICE LEARNING ON UNDERGRADUATE TEACHING ASSISTANTS
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Across the country, universities are incorporating service learning courses into their curriculum (Desmond, Stahl, & Graham, 2011). From 2002 to 2005, among the 18 million college students in the United States, participation in community service and community service learning jumped from 2.7 million to 3.3 million, according to the Cooperation for National and Community Service (Dolte, Cramer, Dietz, & Grimm, 2006). Campus Compact is a national coalition of more than 1,100 college and universities enrolling almost 6 million students; it is the only national higher education association that is dedicated exclusively to campus-based civic engagement (“Course Compact: History, Mission, Vision,” 2013). Out of 557 member campuses across the United States that responded to the Campus Compact survey, an average of 66 service learning courses were offered per campus and 68% of these campuses rewarded their faculty for service learning and community based research (Campus Compact, 2013). Most colleges and universities reference the civic preparation of younger generations in their mission statements (Flanagan & Levine, 2010). Assessing the impacts of institutionalized engagement effort allows the institutions to demonstrate their role in fulfilling institutional missions and strategic plans with regard to student learning and community outcomes (Campus Compact, 2013). The purpose of this study was to explore the actual and perceived impacts of service learning on undergraduate teaching assistants participating in a resiliency and character based service learning program.

Methods
Ten participants were recruited using purposive sampling based on their role as a teaching assistant (TA) working with the CARE Now (CN) after-school program for the fall 2013 academic semester. To ensure confidentiality, participants were given pseudonyms. Participants’ ages ranged from 21 to 22 years. Participants were all undergraduate students at an urban university in southeastern Virginia who completed at least two semesters of CN as an advocate or completed one semester with outstanding contributions to the program. The TAs were chosen as the participants for the study due to their unique role of leading their peers through a continued service in the CN program. Individual interviews, lasting approximately 15-25 minutes, were conducted with each participant. Interviews were semi-structured and included several questions surrounding personal experiences and feelings relating to the research topic. Following transcription of interviews, the researcher used horizontalization, reduction, and elimination to code all organized data into a textural description. Through consensus coding with the research team, broad groupings of themes were reduced or completely eliminated in an effort to create new, more meaningful, deeper categories of codes to better exemplify the essence of the phenomenon (Hays & Singh, 2012). From these larger themes and patterns, the researcher created an overall codebook in order to identify individualized structural and textural descriptions within the data (Moustakas, 1994).

Results
There were several salient themes across all participants. Seven main themes were especially important to understanding and exemplifying the lived experiences of participants—internal motivation, personal challenges and supports, resiliency, contextual challenges, service as a
transformational experience, growth as an individual, and advocacy. Due to space limitations, only partial results are reported in the current abstract.

Internal motivation for service. Each participant expressed unique motivations for their interest and dedication to service with CN, but every motivation mentioned was internally driven. Two subthemes were made evident as the participants discussed their reasons for deciding to become a TA with CN: (a) positive previous experience as an advocate for CN, and (b) a personal connection to the population being served. In addition, personal connection was a strong motivator for students. Through data collection, some personal connections were recognized, such as racial and ethnic similarities, contextual and environmental similarities, and socio-economic similarities.

Personal challenges and supports. Participants expressed some personal challenges that they faced during their service experience. These included struggles with creating appropriate boundaries for their multiple roles, learning how to motivate their peers, and having to develop a balance between their roles. Creating appropriate boundaries for the multiple roles, each TA discussed the importance of having their advocates, who are also their peers and friends, respect them and be able to differentiate between the various roles they play.

Resiliency as developed through service. Each TA relates his/her experiences to the fundamental principles of the CN program, the resiliency and character traits. The theme of resiliency can further be broken down into several subthemes, directly relating to the resiliency traits (relationships, insight, initiative, creativity, humor, and values orientation). There were also two subthemes relating to character traits: (a) individual responsibility and (b) rule following. It is a reasonable assumption that working with youth who are at-risk can be challenging and that each day of programming will bring new challenges. Resiliency, which is the ability to overcome obstacles and adverse situations (Wolin & Wolin, 1993) was clearly described in Timmy’s statement: “Different students have different needs. You know, some days go really well and some days have some speed bumps. And, we have to get through those speed bumps.”

Contextual challenges faced during service. Contextual challenges are related to the environment and social conditions in which the children being served live and how this context impacts the TA’s. More specifically participants mentioned low-socioeconomic status, lack of support and resources, unstable homes, and bullying as contextual challenges. Low socioeconomic status was defined as poverty, poor community conditions, lack of perceived options, and perceived safety. Through their work with CN, TAs have become aware of neighborhoods that have a high level of poverty. The implementation of hot meals, which are free to the children, provided during the after-school program at each of the sites has impacted many TAs. Bullying was mentioned by several participants as a concern for the children being served. For example, John stated that the children at his site struggle with “Being bullied and picked on because of the clothes that [they] wear. [And] not having the best of everything.” Some of the participants also recognized the value of uniforms in the school district as a way to diminish bullying on some regards.

Service as a transformational experience. For the purposes of this study, transformational experiences can be defined as an individual’s experiences with eye-opening, extreme, and culturally different situations which can result in heightened awareness about the benefits of service learning and increased empathy toward the population in which the individual is serving.

Growth as it relates to service. Through service, because of its transformational abilities, individuals experience growth in multiple facets of their lives. Participants cited examples of personal growth, professional development, and the ability to recognize experiential learning.
Experiential learning, for the participants, includes the ability to take knowledge gained from coursework and apply it to real-life situations. For example, Timmy said: “What we learned in class was about facilitation skills and risk management and different styles of learning and different styles of teaching—we really get to practice those skills and assets that we’ve learned [during the CARE Now afterschool program].”

Promoting change through mentoring and advocacy. This includes participants’ promoting change through role modeling and/or mentoring their students and peers and by advocating for the populations they serve. Many participants expressed that their ability to be a role model has been a very powerful experience. John cited his personal experience as a role model for the children he serves: “I feel like I have definitely been able to be a role model. I think that may be my biggest contribution; [being] someone you can talk to, someone your children can talk to.”

Discussion

Burnett, Long, and Horn (2005) stated that service learning is aimed at increasing the understanding of concepts studying in the classroom by providing students with opportunities for direct exposure to problems and issues, and which will also help strengthen communities (Goff, Bower, & Hill, 2014). One unique aspect this study highlights is a potential pitfall of service learning. It was found that TAs, who helped lead the service learning experience, found challenges outside of the program implementation. TAs, while expressing increased resilience in relationships, found relationships with their peers to be more challenging. This challenge was due to the multiple roles of TAs and perceived lack of internal motivation of their peers. While the researchers cannot say if this information is generalizable, it is still valuable for those implementing service learning projects incorporating student leaders. Epplier, Ironsmith, Dingle, & Erickson (2011) stated that service learning can be associated with positive cognitive and social changes, which include advances in moral reasoning, prosocial reasoning, and decision making (Goff, Bower, & Hill, 2014; Batchelder & Root, 1994; Conrad & Hedin, 1981). Another challenge, not supported by previous literature, is motivation of peers (Goff, Bower, & Hill). TA’s mentioned frustration with peers regarding their lack of perceived internal motivation. While service learning is a transformational process for all who are involved, educators should take note of the potential pitfall of unmotivated students. While these incidents seem to be controlled, researchers wonder how educators can equip students and student leaders with the tools to increase the motivation of others or to increase motivation before the service learning experience.

In relation to contextual challenges, TA’s observed higher levels of abuse, poverty, low socioeconomic status, bullying, and other adverse situation the children they serve confront. Due to high levels of exposure to contextual challenges, this may illuminate current advocacy in the program. Advocacy was mentioned as either current or future. TA’s enjoyed mentoring their younger peers, even though there were challenges relating to their multiple roles. TA’s shared impact statements relating to their future engagement of advocacy. This supports current research; Gray, Ondaatje, and Zakaras (1999) found that students who participate in service learning courses are more likely to continue taking an active role in helping to address societal problems later in life in comparison to non-service learning students.

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Emerging adulthood, the life phase occurring between adolescence and adulthood, is a critical time for the identification of mental health issues, stress-coping strategies and support systems (Kessler, Berglund, Demler, Jin, Merikangas, & Walters, 2005; Nelson, Story, Larson, Nuemark-Sztainer, & Lytle, 2008). This developmental life phase is marked with high amounts of freedom and increasing responsibilities; however, the lack of structure and/or poor person-environment fit may lead to floundering, rumination and brooding that may adversely affect mental health (Burwell & Shirk, 2007; Schulenberg, Sameroff & Cicchetti, 2004). With 68% of emerging adults attending college after high school, the college campus and its collective services become integral in addressing mental health issues (Aud et al., 2012; Hunt & Eisenberg, 2010). Recent statistics illustrate prevailing mental health issues among emerging adults on college campuses. In the fall of 2010, 84% of college-attending emerging adults reported feeling overwhelmed by all that they had to do, 54% reported feeling lonely, 46% felt overwhelming anxiety, and 28% felt so depressed it was hard to function within the last 12 months. However, emerging adults’ uses of formal health services to diagnose and treat issues related to mental health was roughly 10% for anxiety issues and 8% for depression (American College Health Association, 2011). Despite recent research regarding the prevalence and correlates of mental health issues, research on preventing mental health issues beyond the clinical setting have been overlooked (Hunt & Eisenberg, 2010). With the shortage of mental health workers on college campuses, informal provisions of health education fill an important role in managing health issues among emerging adults (Gallagher, 2008; Hunt & Eisenberg, 2010). Consequently, it is time to look beyond formal health settings for alternative and/or complementary health programming.

Leisure programming may be one approach beyond the clinical setting that can address wellness issues and supplement formal health provision. Leisure can buffer stress and/or promote positive development during important lifespan transitions, such as emerging adulthood (Kleiber, 1999). Iwasaki and Mannell (2000) stated that individuals using leisure as a coping strategy expect that through participation they might achieve one or any combination of the following three objectives: temporarily escape stress, enhance mood, and/or increase social support. However, emerging adults may experience constraints to informal leisure participation, including lack of time, competence, and companionship (e.g., Tsai & Coleman, 2009). Thus, providing structured opportunities for emerging adults to develop leisure skills in socially engaging environments may also act as an intervention that fosters stress-coping strategies.

Leisure education on college campuses is one such intervention that may minimize barriers to leisure participation while increasing positive coping strategies among emerging adults. Leisure education classes are one-credit courses for which college-attending emerging adults register and receive grades just as they do in academic courses. The availability of different course types (e.g., outdoor recreation, dance) allows for greater choice in regards to person-context fit while the credit associated with the course provides structure and accountability. Through participation, emerging adults may also recognize the outcomes of leisure education identified by Dattilo (2008) and others, including increased social interaction, self-competence, tactics to negotiate constraints, and self-determination which can lead to additional benefits, including
stress reduction. This study investigated college-attending emerging adults’ use of formalized leisure education courses as a strategy for coping with stressors of daily life.

The leisure education program examined in this study, “Leisure Skills”, is housed in the Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management department at a mid-size land grant university in the southeastern United States. The program’s mission is to serve the educational, recreational, and personal development needs of students through the teaching of leisure and life skill activities. The program offers more than 140 one-credit courses each semester and serves approximately 2,500 undergraduate students. Two forms of data were collected for the purpose of this study—participant focus groups and individual participant interviews. Focus groups were completed with students in eight sections of leisure education courses in the last two weeks of their course semester and included approximately 12-15 students each. The class sections included leisure activities such as rock climbing, yoga, women’s hunting, swing dance, running, Pilates, bowling, and belly dancing. The focus group questions focused on how students thought their participation contributed to their management of their student responsibilities and supported their general well-being in physical, emotional, and social matters. Each focus group was held during class and lasted less than one hour. Individual interviews were also completed with seven emerging adults—three from yoga, two from core training, one from running and one from Pilates. Participants volunteered to complete the interviews in the last two weeks of the course; each interview lasted 30-40 minutes. These semi-structured interviews investigated participants’ experiences in leisure education courses, specifically focusing on instructor pedagogy and consequent participant development. The interviews also helped reduce reliability issues related to social desirability that might occur due to focus groups. The focus groups and interviews were transcribed from voice recordings. Because previous research suggested that leisure coping was occurring in conjunction with leisure education (Evans, Hartman, & Anderson, 2013), three independent researchers analyzed the data using a priori coding related to leisure coping strategies (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000) to understand in what ways it was occurring.

Emerging adults used each of the three types of leisure coping strategies—temporarily escaping stress, enhancing one’s mood, and gaining social support—by participating in leisure education courses. The first coping strategy, participation in leisure education to temporarily escape stress, demonstrated how emerging adults used leisure education as a temporary reprieve from problems and stress associated with academic life. One student purposively enrolled to escape stress saying, ‘it doesn’t matter what your major is. You need 10 or 15 minutes a day to sit down and breathe…Leisure Skills gives you the opportunity. This is my downtime for the week.’ Through participation, they learned new perspectives, such as to “keep an open mind” and to “not worry about future concerns.” Participation in the leisure education courses also allowed participants to move forward in tackling problems at hand, including “motivating them to do other work” and “learning how to focus better on things, especially [things] apart from academics.” The second coping strategy, participating in leisure education to enhance one’s mood, was evident in participants’ comments particularly as it related to managing stress. The participants strategically used leisure education as a form of mood enhancement. One participant said, “Next semester, I have a really heavy load [and I am] still [taking] one Leisure Skills class to build in a break so I can just relax.” Other participants echoed that through the course they had “gotten better at learning how to relax” and found that the course “relaxes me when I’m stressed.” Beyond managing stress, one student discussed how participation led to positive feelings: “I feel better, especially on class days.” The third coping strategy, participation in leisure education to gain social support, was evident in the use of leisure education as a social
environment to cope with stress due to life transitions. The courses were a non-competitive environment that contrasted the demands of daily student life. “[This university] is known to be competitive so to take a class where you know everyone’s not comparing grades is nice.” The participants remarked that the supportive environment made the course fun: “This class isn’t a competition between people—everyone encourages each other” and “we laugh at each other’s stretches.” Participation was particularly helpful to those new to the campus, with participants noting that Leisure Skills “helped me get plugged in as a freshman” and was helpful in gaining new leisure interests since it was “less intimidating than finding an activity on [my] own.” One participant who was new to the area said that by taking shag dance, he “learned how to assimilate into [the local culture] a little better.” Finally, one participant commented that she will be using leisure to facilitate meeting new people in future life transitions. “I’m graduating [soon] and when I go home, I’m looking into Pilates classes there so I will be able to take that away [from my leisure education class] and meet people there.”

Because of prevailing mental health issues, the small amount of individuals pursuing formal treatment, and the lack of formal mental health providers on college campuses, there have been recent calls for interventions beyond the clinical setting that address factors related to mental health issues (Gallagher, 2008; Hunt & Eisenberg, 2010). This study investigated emerging adults’ uses of leisure education courses as a form of coping strategy for daily stressors related to academic life. The findings suggest that the participants demonstrated personal responsibility for their own health and wellness by purposefully enrolling in and attending the classes. Due to their involvement, the participants not only managed stress but also gained new perspectives through reflection, a process that has been associated with positive coping strategies (Burwell & Shirk, 2007). College campuses should consider adding similar leisure education programs in addition to traditional recreational services on campus in order to provide structured opportunities to emerging adults who may experience constraints to informal leisure participation. Instructors of leisure education courses should be aware of common mental health issues among their students and foster positive coping methods, such as reflection, in their courses. They should also be ready to refer emerging adults to formal health services if approached by an individual for help.

Participants also acknowledged that involvement in formal leisure education courses was socially-supportive and engaging. This suggests that these courses help buffer levels of loneliness and social dissatisfaction, particularly among freshmen, those new to the area, and those with poor social adaptation (Bohnert, Aikins, & Edidin, 2007). College health providers should communicate the potential of leisure participation as a coping strategy, particularly to freshmen and transfer students who may be experiencing more stress and limited social connection. Beyond college, the suggestion that leisure will be used in the future to help cope with stressful life transitions (e.g., moving) represents the development of leisure beliefs in terms of the benefits (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000). Recreational professionals working in cities with large influxes of college-graduated emerging adults might contact surrounding college alumni programs in order to connect with individuals concerning recreational opportunities occurring within the city. This study provides evidence for the potential of leisure education as an informal health intervention to identify and manage stress due to life transitions among college-attending emerging adults. Future research should use quantitative methods to measure changes in mental health within and across individuals who are participating in leisure education courses.

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The context for youth development has changed dramatically over the last twenty years. While the origins of Positive Youth Development (PYD) originate from several fields of study to include positive psychology, developmental psychology, and prevention sciences, (Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2009), the strength-based approach to adolescence has intuitively been used by youth workers in the recreation and leisure field (e.g. camps) for some time (Thurber, Scanlin, Scheuler, & Henderson, 2006). Organized camping, with over 11 million youth participating in independent, religious affiliated, government (e.g. municipal day-camps), and not-for-profit programs annually (American Camp Association, 2013), is a significant contributor to the development of youth during non-school hours. With PYD being both a philosophy and an approach, organized camping has embraced the concept and has actively implemented programs that are prone to foster positive outcomes.

The American Camp Association (ACA) has been integral in supporting PYD by identifying and documenting outcomes associated with participation in organized camping. In their seminal outcomes study four domains were comprised of ten constructs of PYD and included positive identity (positive identity, independence), social skills (leadership, making friends, social anxiety, peer relationships), positive values and spiritual growth (positive values/decision making, spirituality), and thinking and physical skills (adventure/exploration, environmental awareness) (Henderson, Bialeschki, Scanlin, Thurber, Whitaker, & Marsh, 2007). The ACA sponsored research is salient in that it provides evidence of what many practitioners already know; organized camping is beneficial to the development of youth (Henderson, Bialeschki, & James, 2007; Marsh, 1999). Moreover, the ACA project provides support for organized camping as a context for change thereby helping justify and provide accountability (e.g. resources) (Sibthorp, Bialeschki, Morgan, & Browne, 2013).

The current study, a program evaluation, used the ACA Youth Outcomes Battery (ACA-YOB) to document benefits of university based youth camp program. The ACA YOB provides camps and other youth programs with measures that focus on seven to eleven common youth outcomes. The valid and reliable scales are age-appropriate, short and concise, easily administered tools that can be individualized to a camp, afterschool program, or other youth programs (American Camp Association, 2011). In 2007, the Recreation & Wellness Department began working with the University’s summer enrichment program for youth (ages 6-11) from Southeastern Virginia. The university ACA accredited summer camp opened in the summer of 2010, and consisted of eight 1-weeks session with various themes; weekly enrollment averaged 40 campers per week. The camp has continued to grow and in 2013 averaged nearly 65 campers per week.

Using the Outcome-Focused Programming (OFP) model [formally known as Benefits-Based Programming] as a foundation for the study, the approach included four action steps: (1) outcome oriented, program goals should be identified and meaningful to the agency, the participants, and other stakeholders, (2) theory-based program components should be intentionally structured to address the stated goals, (3) progress toward desired goals must be assessed, and (4) an organization must publicize its outcomes (Brown, Hill, Shellman, & Gómez,
In 2013, camp staff was trained on the OFP model and it was utilized to program activities that would intentionally meet the seven target areas, (i.e., Friendship, Family Citizenship, Teamwork, Perceived Competence, Independence, Interest in Exploration, and Responsibility) during each of the one-week camps. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to use the ACA-YOB Camper Learner Scale to assess the impact of improving campers’ skills (i.e., seven target areas) through an OFP university summer camp.

Methods
Camp staff designed each day using a daily activity plan form (similar to a lesson plan) to ensure daily objectives were being met. Each day the seven outcomes (e.g., teamwork) were addressed through OFP, using recreational activities. To address all seven outcomes each day, the overarching theme for each day was Friendship Skills, the morning plan addressed Independence, Perceived Competence, and Responsibility, and the afternoon plan targeted Teamwork, Family Citizenship, and Interest in Exploration. The ACA-YOB Camper Learning survey was used as a uni-dimensional measure of generalized camp learning.

Camp counselors administered the 14-item Camper Learner Scale on the last day of camp (Friday) weekly. The Camper Learner Scale uses a retrospective design, eliminating the need for a pretest. The instrument is based on the original seven outcomes (Friendship, Family Citizenship, Teamwork, Perceived Competence, Independence, Interest in Exploration, Responsibility) built into one scale specifically designed for young children. The questions were based on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = I didn’t learn anything about this to 4 = I learned a lot about this in regard to, for example, the question “At camp, did you learn how to be better at making friends?”

As recommended by the ACA YOB instructions, camp counselors and staff in a quiet area, in groups of 4-5 campers, administered the Camper Learner Scale. Campers were given individual copies of the scale and a writing utensil. After an example was given, the scale was orally administered to small groups of 4-5 campers. After the data were collected, they were entered into an Excel spreadsheet provided by the ACA. After the data were entered, a calculated scale score was completed simply by summing the scores for each item on that scale and finding the average.

Results
A total of 101 matched data sets (consent, assent and instrument) were used. Forty-eight (48%) were male. The average age was 8.1. The average number of weeks attended was 2.75. The number of years attended was 1.45, and the level of enjoyment (1-10, 10 being the most enjoyment) was 7.76. The data from eight, one-week day camps were analyzed using the Youth Outcome Battery Excel Sheet. Once entered, the Excel sheet sums the total and produces the percentage of campers who “Learned a Little or A Lot” about the seven outcomes. The camp counselors administered the Camper Learner Scale to all campers for all eight weeks to use for internal evaluations. However, after matching the consent and assent forms with campers’ surveys from week 1 had 12 matched cases, and 33.33% of campers felt they Learned a Little or A Lot about the seven outcomes. Week 2 had 10 matched cases, and 40.00% of campers felt they Learned a Little or A Lot about the seven outcomes. Week 3, the researchers had 15 match cases, and 27.27% of campers felt they Learned a Little or A Lot about the seven outcomes (Friendship, Family Citizenship, Teamwork, Perceived Competence, Independence, Interest in Exploration, and Responsibility). Week 4 had 21 matched cases, and 47.62% of campers felt they Learned a Little or A Lot about the seven outcomes. Week 5 had 13 matched cases, and 30.77% of campers
felt they *Learned a Little* or *A Lot* about the seven outcomes. Week 6 had 9 matched cases, and 44.44% of campers felt they *Learned a Little* or *A Lot* about the seven outcomes. Week 7 had 10 matched cases, and 30.00% of campers felt they *Learned a Little* or *A Lot* about the seven outcomes. Week 8 had 11 matched cases, and 45.45% of campers felt they *Learned a Little* or *A Lot* about the seven outcomes.

**Discussion**

University camp programs have the ability to positively impact youth. This research study provides an example of evidence-based practices that can bridge the gap between academia and practitioners. Although the results demonstrate minimal gains by week, the processes involved in the program evaluations are promising for documenting outcomes. Camps, afterschool program, and other youth serving agencies continue to need to produce outcomes, and show evidence-based practices. The ACA-YOB provides an efficient and effective means to produce results with minimal statistical knowledge. Stakeholders, staff, and others can easily have information such as: evaluation of program goals, documentation of change, demonstration of quality programs that make a difference, and offer recreation programs targeting social concerns (e.g., Environmental Leadership). The university camp has also followed the four steps of OFP. Identifying outcomes, such as being good citizens, has been cited in the literature as an initiative of many college campuses. Most colleges and universities’ mission statement includes some reference to the civic preparation of younger generations (Flanagan & Levine, 2010).

Camp has the ability to promote many societal needs at a very early age. Like many evidence-based youth serving agencies, the university camp also addressed step two of the OFP process by structuring the camp intentionally to promote a specific outcome – responsibility (Brown, Hill, Shellman, & Gómez, 2012). A logical assumption would be that programs with identifiable goals could engineer camps to promote these outcomes in youth. Step three of OFP was followed by using psychometrically tested instruments (e.g., Camper Learner Scale) to assess the identified outcomes. Finally, publicizing the accomplishments is beneficial to the university camp both internally (e.g., look to see which camp weeks were more effective) and externally (e.g., stakeholders see evidence). This approach to programming, in conjunction with the PYD model, could be the key to working with today’s youth during developmental milestones. Positive Youth Development is as much a philosophy of how to work with youth (e.g. all youth have the capacity for positive growth) as it is an approach often implemented to intentional programming. University day camps, such as the one in this study, might be effective at developing youth who will be assets to society.

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Selected References
FAMILY LEISURE: AN INTEGRATIVE REVIEW OF RESEARCH FROM SELECT JOURNALS
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Families, as a long-standing and fundamental institution in human society (DeFrain & Asay, 2007), continue to be a focus of research because of ongoing changes in family structure and function (Cherlin, 2009). Amid the structural and functional changes occurring in families, family togetherness, and family time have become cultural watchwords (Mintz & Kellog, 1980) as scholars, politicians, practitioners, and parents seek family stability. Family leisure is related to some outcomes that may promote family stability; however existing research must be assessed to ensure appropriate methods and analyses are being used, and that meaningful questions are being asked. Doing so will help maintain and strengthen the relevancy of family leisure research. Integrative or systematic reviews of research can be used to assess existing literature, and are an essential part of framing future research (Jackson, 1980). They are used to assess the quantity of articles published and identify predominant trends in research (e.g., Floyd, Bocarro, & Thompson, 2008). Therefore, the purpose of this paper was to systematically review family leisure literature from four prominent and relevant journals over the past 23 years (1990–2012). This paper examined methods and analyses, sample characteristics, and major thematic trends in the literature. The term family was applied broadly to encompass multiple family structures and life stages. The broad application of family represents an inclusive approach to family leisure research that better reflects the dynamic sociocultural status of contemporary families. Based on these analyses, this integrative review concludes with recommendations for future research.

Methods

Sample. Articles were collected according to established guidelines for integrative reviews (Floyd et al., 2008; Jackson, 1980). Four journals were selected for this review: Journal of Leisure Research (JLR), Leisure Sciences (LS), Leisure Studies (LStd), and Family Relations (FR). These four journals are among the principal publication outlets for family leisure research. Moreover, JLR, LS, and LStd are primary leisure research publication outlets and therefore, provided the widest lens for assessing research across the field. Journals addressing intervention or treatment-based research were not included to maintain the focus on leisure as a family process rather than a treatment modality. Articles were selected from a 23-year span (1990–2012) to build on and extend Hawks’ (1991) systematic review of family leisure research from 1930 to 1990. Articles were identified using key word searches and manual review (Edwards & Matarrita-Cascante, 2011). Ultimately, article inclusion was contingent upon examination of title, key words, abstract, and content (Floyd et al., 2008). Articles were included in the review if their primary focus was any of the following: (a) examinations of family leisure processes or outcomes, (b) individual leisure in context of family life or family roles, and (c) effects of family leisure on individuals. Articles with only peripheral or secondary references to family structure, marital status, or family size (e.g., in describing the sample of a study) were not included.

Analyses. Analyses were based on Jackson’s (1980) guidelines for effective integrative reviews, and guidelines for content analyses (Babbie, 2013). First, total number of articles published in each of the four journals was counted by year. Second, the total number of family leisure articles in each journal was counted by year. Third, counts were amassed in five-year increments. Fourth, articles were counted by journal in terms of methodology and data analysis, sample characteristics, and level of analyses. Fifth, key research themes were identified.
To facilitate thematic analysis, articles were listed in spreadsheet software for coding and theme development. Articles were coded according to article title, key words, and content. Preliminary codes then facilitated the development of broader coding categories which were then reviewed and condensed into three non-exclusive thematic categories.

Results

A total of 2,940 articles were published in these four journals from 1990–2012, of which 183, or 6.2%, were related to family leisure. JLR (n = 60) and Leisure Studies (n = 61) had the most family leisure related publications. When the four journals were considered together, family leisure publications increased from 4.1% in 1990–1994 to 7.1% in 2008–2012.

Survey methods were most common (n = 84, 46%). Qualitative methods were present in 41% of studies when including mixed methods studies (n = 75). Phenomenology, ethnography, autoethnography, photo elicitation, video elicitation, hermeneutic inquiry, and case studies were all used. One article reported using an experimental design, and another reported using ex post facto experimental design. Survey research relied primarily on individual level analyses (n = 59, 70%). Some scholars examined family dyads such as committed couples, parents and children, and in very few cases, siblings (n = 23, 27%). A limited number (n = 7, 8.3%) used multiple data points or system level analyses.

White families were featured more than any other group (n = 44, 44%). Black families were the focus of six studies (3.2%) and Hispanic families were also the focus of six studies (3.2%). Research also focused primarily on leisure in two-parent (n = 62, 57%), heterosexual (n = 62, 90%) families with a child or adolescent (n = 65, 50%). Married couples were most common (n = 88, 81%). Same-sex couples were the focus of two studies, and single-parent families were the focus of 10 (9%). Older adults or grandparents were the focus of four studies (3.1%).

Middle class families represented more than half of families present in research (n = 42, 53%). Leisure in low-income and working class families were the primary focus of 12 studies (15%). Women in the capacities of mothers and caregivers were the focus of several articles (n = 41, 22%). Men in their roles of fathers were the focus of 13 (7.1%) of studies.

Three dominant themes emerged in this review: promoting family wellbeing through leisure, the costs and constraints of family leisure, and family leisure in the margins.

Promoting family wellbeing through leisure. This theme encompassed research examining the positive outcomes couples, parents, and children associated with family leisure. Overall, family leisure was related to increased communication, cohesion, family functioning, and family life satisfaction (Agate, Zabriskie, Agate, & Poff, 2009; Zabriskie & McCormick, 2003) in several populations. Likewise, couples’ relationship satisfaction benefited from sharing leisure (Orthner & Mancini, 1990), and supporting each other’s individual leisure (Goodsell & Harris, 2011). Parents used leisure to teach their children values and healthy lifestyle behaviors (Shaw & Dawson, 2001). Leisure and sport were used by fathers and grandparents to bond with their children (Harrington, 2006; Hebblethwaite & Norris, 2011).

The costs and constraints of family leisure. Not all reported outcomes and effects of family leisure were positive, and this theme encompassed constraining effects of family leisure. Women often shouldered responsibilities as caregivers and mothers at the expense of their own leisure (Henderson, 1991). Men increasingly experienced constraints related to ideologies of good fathering (Coakley, 2006). Adolescents also reported families, specifically parents, constrained their leisure (Caldwell & Darling, 1999). Family leisure was also found to reproduce social ideologies of parenting for both mothers and fathers (Trussell, 2012), and parents used leisure to transmit their ideologies of leisure to their children (Shannon, 2006). Similarly, the constraint of
body image issues on women’s leisure was shared between mother and daughter (Shannon & Shaw, 2008). Finally, parental pressure often had a negative effect on children’s participation and enjoyment in youth sports (MacPhail & Kirk, 2006), and on occasion, preventing sport participation was used to reinforce gender role expectations (Walseth, 2006).

**Family leisure in the margins.** This theme included research identifying and examining diverse family structures and characteristics. Single-parent families (Hornberger, Zabriskie, & Freeman, 2010), low-income or impoverished families (Churchill, Clark, Prochaska-Cue, Creswell, & Ontai-Grzebik, 2007), widows (Patterson & Carpenter, 1994), non-resident fathers (Jenkins, 2009), same-sex couples (Bialeschki & Pearce, 1997; Parry & Shinew, 2004), biracial couples (Hibbler & Shinew, 2002), and families with a member with a disability (Mactavish, MacKay, Iwasaki, & Betteridge, 2007) were included in a limited number of studies. Overwhelmingly, these families experienced significant constraints to family leisure. They felt socially isolated even though they held the same expectations of their family leisure as the more frequently studied White, middle class, heterosexual, two-parent family.

**Discussion**

Only a relatively few articles (6%) addressed family leisure despite the social value placed on *family time* and *togetherness*. And while there is no baseline comparison to determine whether this percentage is adequate, there may be a need for increased family leisure research when considering ongoing changes in family formation, structure, and function. More than simply increasing research *quantity*, however, family leisure scholars should endeavor to increase research *relevancy*. Scholars can begin by consistently reporting sample characteristics. In this review, considerable inconsistencies regarding sample descriptions were noted. Families should be described in terms of structure, marital status, size, race or ethnicity, social class, sexual orientation, and life stage to facilitate comparing and synthesizing findings into general research trends. Findings also suggested fairly homogenous samples were present in research. Scholars could consider using purposive sampling techniques to broaden their research scope. For example, single-parent families were underrepresented in research though recent census data suggest that in some populations, more than half of all families are headed by a single parent (U.S. Census, 2011). Similarly, Latino and Asian families were also underrepresented even though they are two of the fastest growing populations in the United States (U.S. Census, 2012). Family leisure research has also overlooked some family relationships such as siblings. Sibling relationships may be the most stable and longest-lasting family relationships an individual experiences, and therefore highly relevant (Feinberg, Sakuma, Hostetler, & McHale, 2013). Researchers may also consider expanding their methods and analyses to include more multilevel examinations of family leisure rather than relying on individual-level data and analyses. Family leisure scholars could also consider ways to address family well-being through leisure. By increasing translational research addressing social problems, scholars can strengthen the relevancy of family leisure research and ensure continued meaningful interdisciplinary contributions. Overall, family leisure is a highly relevant social phenomenon. Family leisure researchers must concern themselves with the “real life conditions” in which families exist (Kelly, 1997, p. 34) to ensure their continued relevancy.

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Selected References


MEANING-MAKING VIA LEISURE FOR PERSONS WITH MENTAL ILLNESS
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A meaning-oriented approach to leisure research has a long history (Henderson, 1990; Kelly & Kelly, 1994; Shaw, 1985). However, meaning-making through leisure is a unique, distinct concept compared to the meaning of leisure per se. The former refers to how or in what ways leisure contributes to making sense of life for people or their gaining meanings of life through leisure pursuits, whereas the later deals with what and how people perceive the meaning of leisure would be. As an example for the latter concept, the dialectics of the meanings of leisure were examined from a gender-based perspective by Freysinger (1995). In contrast, researchers such as Shaw and Henderson (2005) and Iwasaki (2008) described how leisure provides a space for meaning-making from gendered as well as cross-cultural perspectives, respectively (as examples for the former concept).

Recently, research has shown the potential role of leisure in meaning-making functions. For example, Stuckey and Nobel (2010) described the meaning-making process of artistic and creative activities (e.g., music engagement, visual arts therapy, movement-based creative expression, expressive writing) toward healing from negative events. Specifically relevant to the target population of the present study, Davidson et al.’s (2005) intensive, international study with individuals recovering from mental illness emphasized the importance of meaningful leisure activities. The findings identified “participating in naturally occurring social and recreational activities” (p. 198) as “normal activities” (p. 183), which “give meaning and purpose to the person’s life” and “help to counteract symptoms” (p. 189).

To further advance this area of research, giving specific attention to the role of leisure pursuits in meaning-making processes is essential, while considering the diversity of our society. Culturally diverse community-dwelling individuals with psychiatric disabilities represent one significant population group. Specifically, this study attempted to fill a gap in research on leisure and meaning-making by focusing on intensively examining the role of leisure in meaning-making among a sample of those individuals recovering from mental illness.

Methods

A National Institutes of Health (NIH)-funded research project was conducted to examine the role of leisure and active living in recovery, health promotion, and life quality of individuals with mental illness. From a pool of 101 Phase I participants recruited from five mental health agencies in a northeastern U.S. city, 40 individuals were invited to a Phase II case-study. A purposeful sampling was used to recruit ten adults (5 men, 5 women) from each of four ethnic subsets (i.e., African American, Asian American, Latino, and Caucasian). Also, we considered other personal variables (e.g., age, types of mental illness) and responses to standardized measures (e.g., active living, leisure) during Phase I to ensure the diversity of participants. All procedures were completed with 34 individuals (19 females, 15 males; aged between 24 and 78, mean of 49 years; 10 African Americans, 10 Latinos, 10 Caucasians, and 4 Asian Americans) with such diagnoses as bipolar disorder (10), major depression (9), schizophrenia (8), and schizoaffective disorder (5). Three (3) semi-structured individual interviews were conducted once each week for three weeks in a private office on a university campus or at a mental health drop in center. The first interview allowed the individual to tell his or her life story including childhood and family
experiences and to initially explore the meanings of the key concepts. The second interview involved the individual to elaborate these and probe more deeply into the factors that influenced recovery and meaning-making. The third and final interview was used to review and gain further insights into the key issues revealed in previous interviews to capture consistency and nuances of each person’s lived experiences.

A within-case analysis across the three interviews was used to identify themes that emerged within each content area for each case. This was followed by a cross-case analysis using a constant comparison technique (Patton, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Key points were directly extracted from the text (voices of people) as a series of codes, which were grouped into similar concepts to make them more meaningful and workable. Broad groups of these concepts were then formed into categories or major themes. Preliminary findings from transcript analyses were exchanged and discussed by three members of the research team who have expertise in qualitative analysis to reach consensus on the identification of themes. Finally, a member-checking group meeting was held with study participants to enable them to review, provide feedback, and enhance trustworthiness and credibility of the findings (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Results

Several key themes of meaning-making through leisure were identified from the data including: (a) joy/fun/enjoyment, (b) feeling positively focused/collection, (c) connectedness (e.g., socially, spiritually), (d) self-identity/discovery, and (e) hope and empowerment. First, leisure was seen as activities that promote joy, fun, or enjoyment, as exemplified by the following comment: “Everybody needs some type of leisure to fall back on, because it’s what makes us human. It is the ability to enjoy things—life really isn’t worth living if you can’t enjoy it” (#41). Through going on “different trips,” “socializing with friends,” taking a walk, going to church, reading books, and participating in a “mural arts program,” “I get real enjoyment out of it” (#10). Another person spoke of “peace—they (arts and crafts) give you time to regain your peace of mind. They play a role of keeping me in good spirits. You have something fun to do” (#38). Another key theme was a meaning-making role of leisure in enabling one to feel positively focused or collected. Referring to dancing and singing, listening to music, drawing and writing, and bingo and movie night, it was commented that “my leisure time keeps me out of trouble and keeps my mind focused. It makes me happy and it keeps me calm, cool, and collected. It motivates me to keep going. It keeps stabilized and intact with everything” (#19). Another person concurred, “It (leisure) keeps my mind occupied and don’t let it focus on stupid things… Arts, crafts, crocheting, and needlepoint, making stuff makes me very happy… It makes you focus on good things in your life” (#75). Contribution of leisure to promoting a sense of connectedness for meaning-making is another key theme: “The harmony and social connections,” these are “important because I got a connection between my friends here and the things I do in my life” (#10). Leisure provides “a social outlet, having people to talk to” (#14) and “having people that care about me as well as having people to care about” (#41). Spiritual connection was also valued: “I go for walks for my spirituality, express my spirituality. I like to see mother nature: the trees, the pond, the bushes, the birds, the squirrel, and the sky—it’s all connected” (#63). As a “spiritual person,” another person talked about his love of “the outdoor activities—I do love to be outdoors. The natural world is a constant source of joy for me” (#42). In addition, self-discovery through leisure was frequently noted: “sewing, crocheting, knitting, and cooking—my favorite pastimes. For one, I’m learning more about me on a daily basis. Two, I’m actually working on things in my life” (#35). Seeing leisure as a “gratifying” activity, its connection to recovery, identity, and “well-rounded” life was described: “By writing poetry, I
find my identity. I know that I can achieve something. It inspires me. It broadens my mind. By writing these poems, I feel like I contribute to this world and make it a happier world by my poems. I feel I’m a person with compassion and I am starting to feel well-rounded” (#72). A number of people spoke about a meaning-making role of leisure in promoting hope and empowerment—a sense of strength. Referring to reading, walking, being with people, and “fixing up my apartment,” “they make my life meaningful because they contribute to my full potential. They make me feel better about myself and give me the strength to keep on going” (#1). The following quote links leisure to recovery, hope, and empowerment: “A lot of the leisure stuff they do stop me from being depressed – reading, writing, listening to music, playing with my daughters – all these play a major part in my recovery. It’s definitely empowerment to me because you always hope for a better life” (#12). Creative leisure is essential to this process: “Arts and crafts, I like doing collages. Because you put pretty pictures on there and it makes you dream about pretty things that you want to do. I get empowerment and hope” (#38).

Supported by these several key themes, an overarching meaning-making theme seems to be the act of celebrating life. Leisure provides a “space” (#35 & 38) or “outlet” (#14 & 41) to pursue opportunities for celebrating one’s life personally, socially, and spiritually. For example, identifying himself as “a spiritual person,” his joy of “gardening” was seen as an “existential prayer” by commenting that: “It’s my way of celebrating life in its most basic form” (#42). The engagement in leisure enables individuals to achieve a number of milestones for celebrating their talents and accomplishments. Leisure gives “strength” (#1, #10), “peace of mind” (#27, #38), “inspiration” (#32, #72), and “more depth and color” (#14, #72). Through active living and celebrating personal abilities and potentials, one can succeed in “journey to recovery”: “It’s very important for me to be active in a daily basis. I feel more energetic when I’m active specially things that I like to do, like walking, going to the restaurants, attending cultural events, visiting art museums, playing dominos, and being involved with the community… This (leisure) is part of my daily activities, and it helps me in every aspect. It has to be a balance in everything by knowing about myself and my abilities and my potential—that really helps me to continue my journey to recovery” (#86).

Discussion

The findings of this study (i.e., the key themes identified) are in line with the literature on meaning-making through leisure (Hegarty & Plucker, 2012; Hutchinson & Nimrod, 2012; Iwasaki, 2008; Kleiber et al., 2008; Porter et al., 2011). The act of celebrating life, identified as an overarching theme from our study, resonates with the liberating and healing effects of leisure (Mount et al., 2007; Stuckey & Nobel, 2010). Specifically, Deschenes (2011) identified leisure as a “freeing source for the experiencing of the infinite dimension.” This function is coined as the “liberating effects of leisure,” in which leisure is seen as a means of meaning-making that can promote healing and personal development, especially for persons with significant life challenges. As for implications, this area of research can contribute to advancing the field of leisure sciences to a next level, considering an increasing emphasis on “positiveness” in the social sciences (Stebbins, 2013). From a practical perspective, leisure-based intervention (e.g., therapeutic recreation) can benefit greatly from more systematically integrating the purposeful use of leisure in promoting meaning-making and related benefits (Carruthers & Hood, 2007).

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LEISURE TIME PHYSICAL ACTIVITY IN AFRICAN-AMERICAN AND LATINO OLDER ADULTS

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Parks, recreation, and health and human services departments have prioritized increasing leisure time physical activity (LTPA) among older adults as a path to improving quality of life and reducing healthcare expenditures. The Center for Disease Control’s national health guidelines recommends 30 minutes of physical activity most days of the week (Bylina et al., 2006). Also prioritized is reducing the health disparities that exist between Caucasians and minority populations; which includes African-Americans and Latinos. Increased LTPA could improve quality of life and assist with prevention of heart disease, Type II diabetes, obesity, and mortality. However, constraints to leisure must be identified and understood before we can overcome them. The trends and projections of rapid population increase in the older adult population, rapid population increase in the Latino population, and increased health expenditures supports the need for increasing LTPA. Further, understanding how each group of the older adult population views LTPA benefits and barriers is critical to increasing their levels of LTPA. In addition, before targeted and effective programs can be created and marketed, there needs to be an understanding of the barriers and benefits of LTPA among African-American and Latino older adults. If there are ethnic differences in views regarding barriers and benefits of LTPA, knowing them could help guide community decisions on program implementation.

There are various approaches to exploring leisure constraints (or barriers to leisure) in existing research. One theory is hierarchical leisure constraints (Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010), which was adapted from Crawford and Godbey’s 1987 study that identified three types of barriers to leisure: intrapersonal (e.g. depression), interpersonal (e.g. conflicting leisure interest or inability to participate in an activity due to lacking a partner), and structural (e.g. schedule constraints, financial limitations). A second leisure constraints approach was based on Smith’s (1987) study which theorized that leisure constraints consisted of intrinsic, environmental, and interactive barriers. A third leisure constraints approach was based on Wade and Hoover’s (1985) study that dissected leisure constraints into two categories; internal and external. The hierarchical leisure constraints theory was chosen for this research because it provided a common theoretical framework that enabled cross-study comparisons.

Therefore, the purpose of this Hierarchical Leisure Constraints theory study was to determine if there were significant differences in perceptions toward barriers and benefits of LTPA between African-American and Latino older adults in the Durham, North Carolina area. If there were significant differences, what were the implications for recreation professionals and on improving the quality of life for each population segment?

Method

The study took place at various locations in and around the Durham, North Carolina area. The locations included meeting rooms and lobbies in Immaculate Conception Catholic Church, White Rock Baptist Church, Holy Cross Catholic Church, El Centro, W. D. Hill Recreation Center at Lyon Park, Durham Center for Senior Life, and the Mexican Consulate. A convenience sample of n=125 African-American and Latino older adults were asked to participate in the study. The survey was translated into Spanish to engage participants who did not speak English or spoke very little English. Participants were asked to volunteer for the survey during the months of March through October 2012. Only those participants who were 50 and over, and self-
identified as African-American or Latino were chosen. The Mouton, Calmbach, Dhanda, Espino, and Hazuda (2000) survey for assessing barriers and benefits to LTPA, which was modified from the San Diego Health and Exercise Questionnaire (SDHEQ) instrument (Sallis, Hovell, & Hofstetter, 1992), was employed in this quantitative study to examine perceived barriers to and benefits of LTPA in older African-American adults and older Latino adults. The survey consisted of the Barriers to Physical Activity subscale and the Benefits of Physical Activity subscale (Mouton et al., 2000). The survey entailed five demographic questions, 16 questions on perceived barriers, and 10 questions on perceived benefits of LTPA. Once an older adult agreed to participate, they were given a copy of the consent to participate in a research study form, given a writing utensil, and asked to complete the survey. When requested, the survey questions were read aloud for participants to complete the survey. Data analysis for this quantitative study involved two steps. First demographic variables from the questionnaire (age, gender, ethnicity, income) were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Second, similar to the methods used in the Bylina et al. (2006), Green et al. (2006), and Mathews et al. (2010) studies, and because the data were assumed to not reflect a normal distribution, a Chi-square analysis was used to analyze data from the questionnaire. Additionally, the t-test method was used to test the significance of difference between the African-American and Latino older adults' beliefs.

**Results**

Of the n=125 study participants, there were 89 (71%) African-American and 36 (29%) Latinos. Sixty-seven percent (n = 81) of study participants were female and 33% (n = 39) were male. The age category that had the highest amount of older adult participants (89 African-American, 36 Latino, Mage = 70, age range 50-96 years) was the 65-74 age category. The mode age was 68. Preliminary findings from an analysis of surveys (n = 125) indicated differences between African-American and Latino older adults’ perceptions of barriers and benefits of LTPA. African-American older adults were significantly more positive about their health than the Latino older adults χ²(2, N = 118) = 10.84, p = .004. There was a significant difference in how older African-American and older Latino adults perceived barriers to and benefits of LTPA. Regarding LTPA benefit perceptions, only 'improvement of heart and lung fitness' showed a significant difference between older African-Americans and older Latinos (t=1.986, p<0.01). In contrast, 11 out of 15 barrier perceptions showed significant differences between the older African-American and older Latino adults. The 11 barriers were 'feeling self-conscious' (t=5.123, p<0.01), 'lack company' (t=3.362, p<0.01), 'lack enjoyment' (t=2.665, p<0.01), 'discouragement' (t=1.990, p<0.01), 'lack equipment' (t=2.196, p<0.01), 'lack good weather' (t=2.935, p<0.01), 'lacks skills' (t=6.037, p<0.01), 'lack facilities' (t=6.131, p<0.01), 'lack knowledge' (t=5.758, p<0.01), 'fear of injury' (t=2.685, p<0.01), and 'lack of good health' (t=5.591, p<0.01). Further, a majority of the African-American participants were retired, while most of the Latino older adults still worked. Also found was a challenge outside the scope of the survey questions, the language barrier experienced by primarily Spanish speakers. According to a gerontologist who works exclusively with the Latino population, “there is a large problem with many Latino older adults experiencing depression because they feel stuck at home due to their limited language capability.”

**Discussion and Conclusion**

The results build support for the importance of understanding the varying perceptions and barriers to physical activity of these two populations. While African-Americans seemed comfortable and confident about their knowledge, abilities, and access with regard to LTPA, Latino older adults were on the other end of the spectrum, perceiving strong barriers and benefits
in each of the leisure constraints levels. African-American older adults had two strongly held perceptions of the benefits of LTPA; feeling less tension or stress and improving their cardiovascular fitness - leading to program planning and marketing implications for recreation professionals. The number one barrier to LTPA perceived by the African-American participants, meaning the barrier with the most “High” responses, was lack of self-discipline. Latino older adults perceived several strong barriers to LTPA; a lack of knowledge, a lack of facilities or space, a lack of good health, and a lack of energy. They also had several strong perceptions of the benefits of LTPA. Those perceptions included meeting new people, improved self-esteem, being better on their job, improved heart/lung fitness, and feeling less depressed or bored. The survey results assisted in determining where Hispanic older adults were in negotiating the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural leisure constraints process. Knowing that this population perceived strong barriers and benefits in each of the leisure constraint levels means that emphasis on increasing their LTPA should be addressed. In conclusion, the researcher’s findings contradicted research that found older adult’s strongly perceived barriers included feeling self-conscious and lack of knowledge (Dergance et al., 2003, Mathews et al., 2010), lack of companionship (Dergance et al., 2003), lack of facilities (Crombie et al., 2004; Dergance et al., 2003; Henderson & Ainsworth, 2003; Lees et al., 2007), family obligations (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2003; Juarbe et al., 2000), lack of time (Buman et al., 2010; Henderson & Ainsworth, 2003), and fear of injury (Buman et al., 2010). However, the researcher’s findings were in agreement with research that cited health as a strongly perceived benefit (Buman et al., 2010).

The findings provide various implications for professionals in our field. When recreation professionals are targeting African-American older adults, they may want to plan and include in their marketing messages programs that reduce stress and improve heart and lung fitness. Those two items usually complement each other, so this combination should be achievable. Some ideas for consideration in removing perceived barriers for Latino older adults will be promoting activities at places where Latino persons gather, feel safe, and have a recognized and trusted advocate. The recreation professional would also need to partner with the person viewed as the trusted advocate to effectively reach the Latino audience. Several Latino survey participants indicated that they did not have the knowledge or access to facilities to do LTPA. Further, even though the survey was translated into Spanish, it was important to have someone fluent in Spanish available to assist with questions, vouch for the researcher, and confirm that the information collected was only for research purposes. To help address this gap, recreation professionals could create a Spanish language tri-fold that outlines free activities, LTPA recommendations, and have a monthly Spanish language information session to answer LTPA questions and demonstrate different simple ways to reach recommended LTPA levels. It may also be an effective strategy to reach older Latino adults through their school aged family members - creating an inter-generational program. The Latino culture has a strong focus on family, so any approach that involves multiple generations is likely to meet with more success.

In conclusion, while there is a large body of knowledge on LTPA perceptions for the under 50 age group and Caucasian population, there is less research on the 50 and over age group and ethnic groups, that include African-Americans and Latinos. However, information on how to get these populations to increase their LTPA is integral to closing the health disparity gap in the United States between Caucasians and minorities, and improving older adults’ quality of life.

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INTEGRATING EVALUABILITY ASSESSMENT INTO YOUTH SPORT PROGRAM ASSESSMENT
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Introduction
Recreational sport is increasingly being positioned as a viable mechanism for promoting positive youth development (Anderson-Butcher, Riley, Iachini, Wade-Mdivanian, & Davis, 2012). These programs ideally use sport as a context to help participants develop critical assets such as social competence, self-esteem, and interpersonal skills (Fraser-Thomas, Cote, & Deakin, 2005). Despite these potential benefits, research regarding their effectiveness has produced mixed results.

Youth sport participation has been associated with both positive and negative developmental outcomes (Holt & Neely, 2011). For example, in some studies sport participants have demonstrated higher levels of self-esteem, emotional regulation, and social skills than non-participants. Similarly, sport participation has also been associated with a lower likelihood of school dropout, improved grade point averages, and higher rates of college attendance (Eccles et al., 2003). Conversely, youth sport has been linked with higher alcohol abuse, engagement in delinquent behaviors, and the use of performance-enhancing drugs. In addition, inappropriate adult behavior and intense competition at youth sport events has been shown to induce socially and physically detrimental outcomes for participants (Brustad, Babkes, & Smith, 2001). The wide range of results (ranging from negative, to no effect, to positive) has led to a confusing body of literature that is difficult for practitioners to interpret and apply (Ohrberg, 2013).

Methodological Critique
Previous research has typically categorized youth sport programs as homogenous interventions, paying less attention to program characteristics (i.e. developmentally appropriate objectives, well-constructed activities, sufficient resources) necessary to promote development through sport (Coakley, 2011). Although factors such as well-trained staff/coaches, intentional goal-oriented programming, and adequate resources significantly influence the capacity of recreational youth sport programs to achieve developmental outcomes, they are rarely accounted for in summative evaluations. Consequently, outcomes (positive and negative) are often assumed to be the result of program interventions, when in reality a host of underlying and unmeasured structural and functional issues may have influenced results. Furthermore, by focusing disproportionately on outcomes, very little information regarding the conditions and processes necessary to support youth development is available for managers and staff (Coalter, 2010).

To improve the relevancy and applicability of summative evaluations, scholars and practitioners have called for more process-based evaluative approaches to sport-based youth development programs. For example, Coalter (2010) stated, “we want to know if our projects and investments have been effective, but to understand why we do or do not achieve various outcomes we also have to understand how the projects were conceptualized and delivered.” (p. 1). The purpose of this abstract is to introduce the practice of evaluability assessment (EA) as a pre-evaluation framework to help researchers and practitioners improve the efficacy of recreational sport programs.
Evaluability Assessment (EA)

EA was first developed by Wholey (1979) to improve summative and impact evaluative research. The underlying philosophy of EA is based on the rational model of organizational decision making, which is theoretically grounded in Vroom and Yetton’s (1973) normative decision making process. This model assumes that objectives are clearly identified and programs remain static, however the assumptions underlying the rational model do not always hold (Smith, 1990). For example, the complex policy and management setting in which youth sport programs are developed and administered can create confusion regarding program objectives, resource allocation, and the logic connecting activities to stated outcomes (Wholey, 1979). Thus, evaluations of such programs can provide misleading information for both policymakers and practitioners (Wholey, 2012). EA addresses this issue by ensuring the intended outcomes of programs are supported by appropriate organizational structures and program theory, which improves the utility and interpretability of subsequent information (Wholey, Hatry, & Newcomer, 2004).

Several frameworks have informed the use of EA (Leviton, Khan, Rog, Dawkins, & Cotton, 2010). However, most models follow the same general form using three steps. The first step involves establishing program intent by identifying the goals, objectives, and activities through a content analysis of program documentation (i.e. legislative history, regulations, budgets, monitoring reports). Researchers then use this data to develop a logic model which connects resource inputs, intended program activities, and intended outputs with their assumed causal links. The next step examines program reality through a mixed-methodology involving semi-structured interviews and focus groups with key personnel and site visits. This allows researchers to reconcile the stated program intent with the program reality to determine if it is functioning as intended and thus ready for evaluation (Smith, 1990). Finally, researchers discuss the results of this preliminary investigation with key stakeholders and report any discrepancies in program logic. If the program is ready for formal evaluation, the purpose and potential use of resulting information is discussed. If the program is not ready for evaluation, the researchers will offer specific program recommendations (based on information gathered through the EA) before further investments are made in evaluation. In some cases, EA reveals goals that are not supported by the current operations, or implausible given available resources. In other cases, managers and policymakers may find that the program’s actual structure supports the addition of goals that induce particular outcomes. (Wholey et al., 2004)

Previous Applications of EA

EA has been used in a variety of youth-related disciplines to improve the relevancy and impact of summative evaluations. For example, in the public health field, Leviton et al. (2010) incorporated EA into their Systematic Screening and Assessment (SSA) method by identifying the most promising innovations (i.e. programs, practices, or policies) intended to solve public health problems, and subjecting them to evaluability assessment. Levitan et al. (2010) specified that EA can assist the core functions of public health by pre-testing the assumptions of common objectives prevalent in most programs. In addition, scholars in the field of juvenile justice have used EA to identify characteristics of successful correctional programs (Matthews, Hubbard, & Latessa, 2001). For example, Kaufman-Levy and Poulin (2003) utilized EA prior to evaluating a new restorative justice program for property offenders. Although the program had been running for about a year, and was serving many youth, when looking at data on the program’s participants it became apparent that the judge had been sending drug offenders to the program,
not property offenders. As a consequence, even though the program had spent the last year serving youth, it had not been serving its target population or functioning as intended.

**Application of EA to Youth Sport Context**

Research on the association between youth sport and positive development outcomes has indicated that the relationship is contingent upon multiple structural, contextual, and individual factors (Coakley, 2011). Thus, EA can improve the validity of summative evaluation in this field by confirming such factors are present in programs before proceeding to formal outcome evaluations. As research seeks to inform policy and practice, it is imperative that evaluations factor in critical processes to understand linkages between program design, setting, and implementation and youth development outcomes. Although EA initially requires additional time, resources, and training, it ultimately ensures practitioners and researchers make the most of scarce evaluation resources by maximizing the applicability of program assessment. Too often researchers spend significant time and energy attempting to explain mixed or counter-intuitive results that may have been better understood during pre-evaluation stages. For youth sport practitioners, EA provides rapid feedback by clarifying goals and objectives and establishing a substantiated program theory (Wholey, 2012). Additionally, EA develops a collaborative action-oriented evaluation process that combines researcher and practitioner expertise to help managers diagnose and solve important structural issues such as confusion among stakeholders, staff working at cross purposes, and goal mis-prioritization. Furthermore, when programs do evaluate development outcomes following the implementation of EA, results may provide more incisive and actionable information that practitioners can logically trace to specific practices.

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Older adults rarely participate in leisure activities, even though they recognize that leisure activity has been positively related to health benefits (Crombie et al., 2004). Crombie et al. also revealed that several reasons why older adults do not participate the leisure time physical activities: mainly lack of interest, questioning that exercise can prolong life, and concerning that meeting new people. However, leisure activity in later life influences health for positive outcomes, and improves cognitive function and decreases symptoms of depression (Popa, Reynolds, & Small, 2009). In addition, Rowe and Kahn (1997) defined successful aging by three components (avoidance of disease and disease-related disability, high cognitive and physical functional capacity, and active involvement in society). Leisure and sport have a strong relationship to later life satisfaction (Dionigi, 2002). Participating in senior games is a good example of serious leisure engagement among older adults, and it has been widely accepted that older adults have more available time and financial advantages than younger adults; hence, they are more likely to be involved in serious leisure (Heo & Lee, 2010). Serious leisure is an overarching theoretical concept in leisure research, and many researchers frequently use it to explain individual involvement in leisure activities (Heo, Lee, Kim, & Stebbins, 2012). Serious leisure, as defined by Robert Stebbins, is “the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity that is sufficiently substantial and interesting for the participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of its special skills and knowledge” (1992, p. 3). As opposed to serious leisure, he defined casual leisure as an “immediately, intrinsically rewarding, relatively short lived pleasurable activity requiring little or no special training to enjoy it” (Stebbins, 1997, p. 18). Stebbins (1982; 1992; 1997) categorized serious leisure by six characteristics: 1) perseverance; 2) significant effort; 3) availability of leisure career; 4) unique ethos and identity; 5) benefit of leisure activity; and 6) personal and social benefits. A number of studies have investigated different forms of serious leisure from aging populations, including senior golfers (Siegenthaler & O'Dell, 2003), state senior games (Heo et al., 2012; Heo & Lee, 2010; Heo, Stebbins, Kim, & Lee, 2013). Serious leisure, through active participation in community-based leisure activities, may provide benefits, such as self-confidence, skills and self-esteem (Patterson & Pegg, 2009). Furthermore, Gould, Moore, McGuire, and Stebbins (2008) developed the serious leisure inventory measure (SLIM) with 54 items (i.e., perseverance, significant personal effort, pursuit of career, identity, unique ethos) from adherence to the six qualities as conceptualized by Stebbins (2001). Gould et al. (2011) used this SLIM in the United States Chess Federation (USCF) members. Heo et al. (2012) tested a model that depicts the relationships among the characteristics included in SLIM at a State Senior Games (SSG) and found that perseverance, career contingency, career progress, effort, unique ethos, and identity positively affect the personal outcomes (personal enrichment, self-actualization, enjoyment, and self-fulfillment). However, the model was only examined in two state senior games (Indiana, Colorado) so it was difficult to generalize the results to other senior game participants. To further examine the model proposed by Heo et al. (2012), a survey research was conducted among National Senior Games (NSG) participants. NSG, as a mega multi-sports event for seniors, is a good promotional program for senior leisure activity. The NSG has been held bi-annually since 1987 to provide arena for older adults (50 years and older) to participate in physical activities for
better healthy life. To participate in this biannual NSG, participants need to have good record in annual state senior games. After qualifying with good record in state games, older adults can participate in NSG. State and National Senior Games are not one-shot events, and also provide the chance to meet other senior participants from different states. NSG has contributed in motivating older adults to maintain healthy lifestyle through the senior games movement.

**Purpose**

The purpose of the research is to test the validity of the theoretical model of serious leisure and, test the mediating effects of unique ethos and identification in a structural model of predictors (perseverance, career contingency, career progress, and effort) and personal outcomes. The results should help us better understand the relationships among six qualities of serious leisure and how they influence the personal outcomes of seniors who participate in NSG.

**Method**

A total of 314 usable surveys were collected from NSG participants in Cleveland, Ohio, from July 19 to August 1, 2013. Surveys were distributed and completed on site at the NSG. A little over half (57.6%) of the respondents were female, and 42.4% were male. The mean age of respondents was 69.32 years ($SD = 8.73$). A majority of the respondents were Caucasian (83.8%), followed by African American (7.3%), Hispanic, and Asian (3.8%). More than 60% of the respondents had a higher education level with either a bachelor’s degree (31.8%) or Graduate degree (32.5%). Regarding total income in 2012, 55% earned more than $50,000. The average times of participation in state games was 7.47 times and 3.75 times in national games. Approximately 40% of the respondents came from states in the South, followed by respondents from the Midwest (28.7%), the Northeast (16.9%), and the West (13.7%). To examine the relationships among the six characteristics of serious leisure (perseverance, career contingency, career progress, effort, unique ethos, and identification) and their influence on personal outcomes, the structural equation modeling method (AMOS 21 software) was adopted for data analysis. The items used to measure the constructs in the model were adapted from previous studies (Gould et al., 2008; Heo et al., 2012).

**Results**

This study conducted a two-step analysis: a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and a structure equation modeling (SEM) analysis. First, CFA was conducted to assess the measurement components of the selected constructs and factors (Arbuckle, 2006). The final measurement model includes 30 items: perseverance (3), career contingency (3), career progress (3), effort (3), unique ethos (3), identification (3), and personal outcomes: enjoyment (3), self-actualization (3), personal enrichment (3), and self-fulfillment (3). The measurement model has an acceptable fit, and all factor loadings were greater than .50, which were statistically significant at the .01 level. As shown in table 1, correlations among research variables were acceptable, ranging from $.29$ to $.69$, and shows the discriminant validity of the measures (Kline, 2005). The $\chi^2$/df ratio with a value of 2.59, which is less than 3.00, is adequate for a sample size of more than 200 respondents (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Values of model fit (e.g., SRMR $\leq .08$, RMSEA $\leq .08$, $CFI \geq .90$, $TLI \geq .90$) are acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1998) and the structural model of this research ($CFI = .937$, $TLI = .921$, $SRMR = .0457$, $RMSEA = .071$) shows good hypothesized model fit. Higher levels of perseverance (.170), career contingency (.351), and effort (.131) affected higher levels of personal outcomes and higher unique ethos (.399) was associated with higher personal outcomes. Higher unique ethos (.488), perseverance (.175) and career contingency (.181) were associated with higher identification while higher career contingency (.276) and effort (.112) were associated with higher unique ethos. To examine the mediating
effects of unique ethos and identification in the relationships between perseverance, career contingency, career progress, effort (exogenous variables) and personal outcomes (endogenous variables) the direct and indirect effects among exogenous and endogenous variables were analyzed. Career contingency and effort were statistically significantly related directly and indirectly to the personal outcomes. Perseverance, career contingency, and effort had direct effects on personal outcomes, while career progress had no statistically direct or indirect effects. Among four exogenous dimensions, career contingency ($\beta = .28, \text{S.E.} = .068, p < .01$) and effort ($\beta = .11, \text{S.E.} = .083, p < .05$) had mediating effect on unique ethos to the personal outcomes. The direct path from unique ethos to personal outcomes is also significant ($\beta = .40, \text{S.E.} = .034, p < .01$). Therefore, this result shows that unique ethos has full mediating effects on career contingency and effort to the personal outcomes. In this model, $R^2$ values for unique ethos, identification, and personal outcomes were .24, .48, and .74, respectively which were significantly predicted.

### Discussion

The results of this study revealed the relationships among perseverance, career contingency, career progress, effort, unique ethos, identification, and personal outcomes using a sample of National Senior Games (NSG) participants. There are several findings that could be compared to Heo et al.’s (2012) research among SSG participants’ serious leisure. In this research, only perseverance, career contingency, and effort had statistically significant direct effects on personal outcomes, while in Heo et al.’s research, all exogenous factors had direct effects on personal outcomes. A possible explanation for this find may be that there are no higher-rank games beyond NSG, and participants had already reached certain level of points (e.g., skills, knowledge, abilities) so NSG participants may have no further needs about career progress compared to SSG participants. Career contingency is the most important factor to explain personal outcomes via unique ethos. According to Hastings, Kurth, Schloder, and Cyr (1995), there are two main career contingency: objective which refers to structural opportunities (e.g., time, energy) and subjective, which refers to personal history of involvement in a serious leisure career. In this sense, senior participants carry on their career contingency to maintain skills, self-esteem since it held annually (state senior games) and bi-annually (national senior games). Unique ethos influenced personal outcomes directly, while identification had no direct effect on personal outcomes. Since many seniors have to travel to NSG from all over the different states, they may have higher unique ethos that affect their personal outcomes. This study has generated meaningful results despite several limitations (e.g., high percentage of Caucasians, high level of education, high level of income). This was first research on leisure field with NSG and senior game participants can play an important role influencing other older adults in leisure activity as role models since engagement in leisure activity through senior games is one way inactivity can be tackled among the senior population. The study extends the qualities of serious leisure from state to national senior games participants. Since NSG plays an important role in motivating older adults to participate more in leisure activities, knowing more about the characteristics of serious leisure may provide organizers of the NSG the knowledge to develop better activities that will enhance older adults’ participation in serious leisure through the senior games.

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DEFINING HOPE: EXPLORING EMERGENT METHODS TO DEVELOP A FOUNDATION FOR LEISURE THEORY
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In the context of our everyday lives and in the circumstances that form the setting for our emancipatory leisure experiences, what role does hope play? How does the perception, portrayal, or performance of hope impact our leisure experiences? The goal of leisure research is to create a space for communities and individuals to thrive physically, mentally, and emotionally. To this end, individuals’ perceptions of self, to include their hopeful thinking, are essential in understanding not merely individuals’ survival, but the ability to thrive. The question of hope and its connection to leisure, and subsequently the development of leisure theory, has become an even more salient question as scholars discover new ways to address the impact of activity involvement on the psychological and social development of individuals. As scholars consider the importance of hope to leisure studies (e.g., Harper, 1986; Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000) defining hope may provide critical responses for scholars in the development of leisure theory. Additionally, leisure managers and practitioners asked to substantiate benefits beyond the economic value of their services, to those that show enhanced adjustment and development, may also find responses to these questions critical (Kleiber, 1999). Nevertheless, obtaining an in-depth understanding about experiences, using conventional research methodologies, can be difficult and oftentimes incomplete. Inquiries on hope and the socio-cultural and political context of hope, which shapes, centers, and legitimizes our research as leisure scholars, force us to seek new approaches. In this paper, I present three critically engaged methodologies and creative analytic practices (CAP) that will aid in understanding the discourse of hope and leisure theory. These CAP were used to examine the meaning of hope in 12 self-identified young women of African descent, emerging into adulthood, in the context of the United States. After presenting each CAP and the purpose towards the study, I discuss implications and challenges for the field of leisure studies.

The Individual’s Story

Embracing the notion of reflexive methodology, as a story between the Self and Others, this study began with recognizing the multiple axes of the social, biological and cultural selves and how these multiple identities can contribute to systemic and social inequities. Crenshaw’s (1989) theory of intersectionality interrogates how race, class, gender, sexuality, age, able-bodiedness, and nationality, are just a few of the identities simultaneously used as markers of power and therefore facilitate societal advantage and disadvantage. Drawing on intersectionality and the actual organization of these intersecting oppressions, what Collins (2000/2009) describes as the matrix of domination, the three CAP chosen in this study—poetic transcription, photovoice, and ethnodrama—were selected to obtain a more in-depth understanding of hope, as defined by the population of young women co-constructing meaning through their narratives. In addition, these approaches were chosen to demonstrate ways in which leisure studies scholars can become more reflexive (Dupuis, 1999) and move into more engaged and creative qualitative inquiry (Parry & Johnson, 2007) as a way to explain the evolving dimensions of leisure. Finally, these approaches seek to challenge the often utilized approaches to research that marginalize and silence those with varied lived leisure experiences.

Participants and Overview of Procedure

Averill and Sundararajan’s (2005) claim that hope is a creative narrative experience that we tell ourselves and others. Building on Averill and Sundararajan’s claim, 12 young women who
participated in an independent study conducted five years prior to the start of this study, entitled *The HerDentity Project*, were asked to participate as co-constructors. In this pseudo follow-up study, young women ranged in age from 21-25 years old, ethnically self-identified as Black or African American, and were born and raised in the U.S. The young women, referred to as co-constructors, represented 8 different states and 14 different cities over the course of the six month study.

The study was conducted in four phases: in Phase 1 a face to face semi-structured interview was conducted at a location that each co-constructor chose, in Phase 2 the co-constructor was given a digital camera or used a camera of her own to visualize her definition of hope, in Phase 3 each co-constructor and I met a second time for a face to face interview, and finally in Phase 4 each co-constructor had an opportunity to discuss the three CAP, the results and the intended presentation of the final project.

### Creative Analytic Practices Utilized

**Poetic Transcription.** In Phase 1 interviews allowed young women to explore the perception, the performance and the portrayal of hope. Techniques of narrative and performance analysis were used to excavate the multiple selves and the polyvocality of memory. These analyses were central in establishing a central construct of the definition of hope conceived by the 12 young women of this study. Madison (2008) employs the use of the narrated event, the telling and told to clarify and honor the significance of her interlocutor’s story. Through “poetic transcription,” Madison (1993) acknowledges a cultural tradition of placing rhythmic patterns to words, acknowledging that words are alive with sounds and have an embodied nature in the socio-historical contexts. Through the poetic transcription approach Madison (1993) also employs Black feminist epistemologies as a theoretical as well as a methodological approach.

Following in the tradition of Madison (2008) and other critical ethnographers, I recognized interviews in this study were not innocuous events happening in a vacuum of space and time. Identifying these vignettes as substantive events rooted in symbolic meaning, in the study the vignettes were listed as each was heard from each individual interview. Challenging conventional publication style of written dialogue, this transcription technique was important to unlocking multiple truths of hope. Themes of *Restoration, A Pathway to Faith, Freedom and Peace of Mind, Commitment*, and *An Act of Social Justice* emerged from the narratives. Nevertheless, vignettes transcribed poetically encourage readers to interpret and excavate further meaning from the intended sound and cadence of the voice.

**Photovoice.** Considering Weber’s (2008) claim that “images can be used to communicate more holistically, incorporating multiple layers, and evoking stories of questions,” in Phase 2 co-constructors were asked to take pictures over a period of time and in Phase 3 tell stories using pictures that represented hope (p. 45). This participatory action research method entrusting cameras to individuals, “photovoice,” is “rooted in the belief that people ought to participate in creating and defining those very images that shape the public discourse” (Wang, 1999, p. 191). This process entrust the research and interpretation to the individuals engaged in the study.

Photovoice has been used as a way to enhance the voices of young people as well as provide them the opportunity to build visual evidence of their social reality and imaginative worlds that can be hard to discuss (Prosser & Burke, 2008). The photograph is more than about the photo itself; it is about the connotative meaning making that went into taking the photo. As Susan Sontag (1977) suggests “in teaching us a new visual code, photographs alter and enlarge our notions of what is worth looking at and what we have a right to observe” (p. 3). Furthermore, Stewart and Floyd (2004) suggest visual leisure has the ability to “democratize research though
an expanded accessibility of data, an enhanced transparency of argument and an empowerment of lay people in research-based policy and planning” (p. 445). Although this study did not specifically analyze the visual data through visual analysis techniques such a medium, size, color, and space, the photos were used as a tool for eliciting stories and analyzing these stories through a narrative and performance approach to have a more robust understanding of the visual spaces of hope. If an individual did not have a camera one was provided for her for the ease of converting images digitally. Most co-constructors chose to use their own digital cameras that were as diverse from cellular telephones to the advanced SLR camera with an extra-long lens. One co-constructor noted that the picture she wanted to take was an imagined space and could not actually be taken so she chose to describe this imagined space with words.

Ethnodrama. Throughout each of the phases I was extremely reflexive on the process and attempted to challenge my own positionality. Examining the way that I spoke to and for the participants through my own experiences was not only a challenge but became voices that were too loud to silence. In an effort to truly examine what extent my analysis went beyond the dominant discourse, I chose to combine the imagined and reality. In this final CAP I begin to “open up the space where the Self and Other join” (Parry, 2003, p. 62) or what Fine (1994) refers to as “working the hyphen.”

This combination of Self with Others was done by constructing an ethnodrama, a written script drawn from “significant selections of narrative collected through interviews, participant field notes, journal entries, and/or print and media artifacts such as diaries, television broadcasts, newspaper articles and court proceedings” (Saldaña, 2005, p. 2). Incorporating literary dialogue from my experience with a fictional protagonist with the voices of the co-constructors, the final phase of presentation was a unique and creative analytic approach to presenting research, an ethnotheatre. The final presentation of the written script was live performance event of my interpretation of the data and five significant aspects of identity—gender, class, race, femininity, and sexuality—that emerged in confluence with these co-constructors’ narratives of hope.

Implications and Challenges

Although, this study focused on a small population of women who were culturally similar, what the use of these CAP provide are valuable contributions to a dearth of studies on the contextual factors of hope, hopes connection to leisure, and more methodological approaches to develop a holistic leisure theory. By identifying that there are different ways of knowing and different ways of presenting knowledge, this research challenges leisure scholars to engage issues connected to subjectivity, reflexivity and representation of what the leisure experience is and can be. The CAP used in this study effectively illuminated the voices of a population often marginalized in our leisure research and provide greater clarity for managers. Leisure scholars need to continue to establish approaches that illuminate epistemologies and intersectionalities of diverse communities. Finally, this study framed leisure and the approaches in which we use to study leisure in a broader more emancipatory context. As Hutchinson and Samdahl (2000) urge, we must not simply use more robust data to decenter our authority, we must be committed to a social justice in which our research is presented is more emancipatory and democratic.

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EUROPEAN EMERGING ADULTS IN THE CONTEXT OF FREE TIME AND LEISURE
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The purpose of this study was to provide evidence-based understanding of the five features of emerging adulthood within a leisure context in Europe and to explore the role of leisure in the lives of European emerging adults. Using content and cultural discourse analyses, this case study examined interviews with 40 emerging adults about their experiences in free time and leisure.

Literature Review
Emerging adulthood was first introduced to explain the extended transition from adolescence to adulthood, spanning ages 18 years to 29 years old, with flexibility permitted for the upper boundary (Arnett, 2000). Several universal features have been observed in this phase: (a) identity exploration, (b) instability, (c) self-focus, (d) feeling in-between, and (e) possibilities (Arnett, 2004). Douglass (2005) described changes in developmental norms among emerging adults saying, “Young Europeans have added a new stage in the life cycle...during which they aspire to study, travel and socialize before they feel ready to ‘settle down’” (p. 14). The shift in sequence now places family formation after education, travel, and socializing. Arnett (2000) indicated emerging adults often seek activities and experiences because they worry opportunities will cease in adulthood. These now-or-never experiences include exploration through leisure (Ravert, 2009), however, a limited number of studies have been conducted describing any aspect of leisure or free time in connection to the theory of emerging adulthood (Ravert, 2009).

Methods
Respondents were recruited through direct, in-person contact of respondents, gatekeepers within respondents’ communities, personal messaging on web-based social media (i.e., Couchsurfing.org), and through snowball sampling. Respondents were selected if they were European, had never been married nor had children, and were between 18 and 30 years old. The sample was composed of 20 male and 20 female emerging adults (n = 40) with an average age of 23.14 years old (SD = 3.16). The sample included respondents from 15 European countries, diverse educational backgrounds (i.e., no higher education to doctoral graduates), and diverse religious identities (e.g., Christian, Muslim, Jewish, Atheist). Three student researchers conducted interviews in a variety of settings (e.g., homes, parks, hostels) over a three-month period. The validated interview schedule was designed to address each of the five features of emerging adulthood and to allow participants to communicate freely about their experiences.

A codebook was created with a leisure code and a priori codes for each of the five features of emerging adulthood; codes were applied to all interview transcripts. To complete a content analysis, researchers ran cross-coding queries pairing each of the five features with leisure. In order to reconstruct the sample’s shared cultural understanding of leisure, researchers conducted a cultural discourse analysis by reviewing all leisure-by-feature data line-by-line for metaphorical speech and connections between metaphors.

Results
Content analysis. Considering the high frequency of leisure-by-exploring identity references (f = 1,260), the high average references per interview (M = 16.12), and the total number of respondents referencing identity exploration in a leisure context (n = 40), exploration of identity...
stands out as the most prominent feature, however, it is important to note all features are present in the data with a minimum average of five references per interview. The five features are ranked by prominence based on the average frequency for each leisure-by-feature code in this order: (a) exploring identity, (b) self-focus, (c) possibilities, (d) instability, and (e) feeling in between.

**Cultural discourse analysis.** According to members of the sample, as a resource, leisure has perceived value and grants access to opportunities and exploratory experiences. Leisure lacks obligation, allowing individuals to pursue preferred experiences. Freedom in leisure is important for emerging adults because similar freedom was not available in prior life stages or domains. While the primary emphasis on either freedom or resources varies between individuals, the groups’ shared reasoning depicts freedom as an enabling power to manage and distribute leisure resources in order to reach objectives or pursue preferences. The sub-metaphors identified within the five features are as follows: identity—bonding, definition, formation, and discovery; instability—movement and balance; focus on self—recovery and self-sufficiency; feeling in-between—sequence; and possibilities—aspiration and optimization.

A Welsh nursing student described the impact of leisure on her identity, “I think if it wasn’t for my free time and leisure then I probably wouldn’t be the person I am.” Sample members were able to use leisure to make internal commitments and convey those distinctions to others. Through free time experiences, individuals made specific changes to character and personality. Respondents discovered existing internal aspects of identity including preferences, strengths and weaknesses, or as five respondents described it, “know[ing] yourself.” Finally, bonding often occurred by recognizing common interests in leisure, creating new friendships through shared leisure, and strengthening existing relationships through shared free time experiences.

Instability in leisure is marked by movement or change in location, especially in travel. Even respondents with little or no opportunity to travel hope to see the world, as Swedish woman described, “I would like to go to America...England and Spain and just travel around the world...and see new places and just not be stuck here but to see the world.” The second metaphor, leisure as balance, is manifested by the effort to create equilibrium between responsibilities and their free time. Some respondents used leisure to fill in empty time in their schedule, some created lengthy blocks of free time following years of school or work, and others created a sort of harmony by blending both into their daily lives. Some even looked forward to increased instability as did a Luxembourgian university student, “I think after university I will spend a few years traveling and do little jobs to enjoy life.”

Focusing on self is represented by recovery and self-sufficiency. Common language highlighting recovery included “winding down,” “relaxing,” “forgetting,” and “recovery,” usually referencing school or work. A French intern described the role sport plays in her life, “[Sport] takes everything that you had during the whole day, where it was hard, then you just let everything go.” In emerging adulthood, when individuals are faced with new responsibilities and mounting pressure to both make commitments and become increasingly independent, leisure and free time offer a chance to release tension and escape. The understanding of inherent freedom in leisure predicates leisure as self-sufficiency. High levels of freedom give emerging adults the chance to learn how to handle new independence. An Italian woman discussed her progress from adolescence to adulthood, highlighting leisure as a key area of change, “Now I have more free time, and I can manage my life how I want.”

Respondents in this sample perceived a sequential appropriateness to their leisure choices and habits distinct from both adolescence and adulthood. An English school teacher described the perceived difficulties of sharing travel with parenthood, “Young adulthood is the time where
anything you want to do before you settle down with a family, you should do it in that time...do it while you’re still young.” By living in this space between commitments, these emerging adults are able to capitalize on opportunities to explore and live in the moment. Because of the finite nature of leisure, many emerging adults choose to pursue certain activity forms before adult commitments approach.

Leisure as aspiration includes goals, dreams, and hopes. For these emerging adults, leisure exists as a symbol or object of what they have yet to accomplish or possibilities. For a Spanish law student, leisure represented some of his greatest aspirations, “My goal would be to travel and discover the world, discover new things...different things, unique things that can open doors, that can shape me.” Leisure as optimization was expressed as respondents recognized free time includes capitalizing on opportunities, rather than delaying or denying possibilities, and utilizing leisure to create positive experiences out of often less-than-perfect situations.

Exposition. Many members of this sample optimize their free time to not only to adapt to responsibility but also to reflect on current trajectories and reevaluate plans. The inherent freedom in free time makes it an appealing arena for directing high levels of exploration, both through exposure to new experiences and internal reflection. Further, without prompting from researchers, participants brought up age 30 as a time when leisure would decrease concurrently with increased responsibility. These individuals react by maximizing positive leisure time experiences before entering what they expect to be a more restricted stage of life.

Discussion

This study verifies the presence and ranks the prominence of the five features of emerging adulthood in leisure in Europe, explains the perceived meaning and value of leisure for individual emerging adults, and creates a base for understanding the importance of emerging adult leisure by describing and providing evidence of broad, shared themes. Recognizing how leisure helps emerging adults increase self-sufficiency, establish identity, and achieve aspirations may be especially valuable in distinguishing emerging adults who flourish during the period versus those who flounder. As suggested by the accounts of emerging adults in this study, leisure is not only enjoyable but serves to help individual emerging adults explore and commit to an identity, manage their lives, establish balance, and realize aspirations.

Findings support research indicating the universality of the five features of emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2004; Nelson, 2003) and identity exploration as the central feature in emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2004). Future studies should examine the role of leisure in other regions or comparatively between regional or demographic subsets, so a more comprehensive understanding of emerging adult leisure can be developed. Because metaphors were analyzed rather than leisure types, results may be transferable to groups of emerging adults in a variety of settings and socio-economic levels who may engage in many types of leisure.

Leisure providers and educators may be able to tailor free time and leisure opportunities to complement the aspirations and anxieties of this population, ideally assisting them in their personal growth and identity formation and addressing the inherent concerns regarding approaching adult commitments. By creating environments for positive leisure experiences, educators and university faculty in particular may be in prime position to offer leisure opportunities facilitating development and progress toward adulthood.

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DIFFERENT TYPES OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES AND ACCULTURATION AMONG KOREAN IMMIGRANTS
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Introduction
Acculturation is a multifaceted and continuous process that arises from cross-cultural contact and interactions between individuals from a host society and immigrants (Berry, 1997; Gibson, 2001). In the host society, immigrants experience stages of adjustments and changes such as language, socio-economic status, and/or cultural orientations (Farver et al., 2002). This process is often stressful and at times psychologically impairing for immigrants (Hsu et al., 2004; Hwang & Ting, 2008), which may result in low acculturation, and can negatively affect perceptions of health and wellbeing among immigrants (Lai, 2004; Weisman et al., 2005). In leisure studies, various researchers have examined the relationship between acculturation and leisure (Lee et al., 2000; Yu & Berryman, 1996). Parikh et al. (2009) revealed that older Chinese immigrants who are more acculturated to the host society reported more frequent participation in leisure-time physical activities. Stodolska and her colleagues claimed that leisure participation helps acculturation. They found acculturation not only provides opportunities to interact with other ethnic groups, but also develops cultural adaptation skills and techniques (Li & Stodolska, 2006; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004). Furthermore, participating in leisure activities could help domestic residents acculturate to foreign cultures. Toyoda (2012) examined how Japanese tango dancers living in Japan acculturated to Latin American culture by engaging in Argentine tangos. The participants reported everyday life changes in interpersonal distance (i.e. the space individual feels uncomfortable when they feel it is encroached) or the manner in which they greet others (i.e., hugging or kissing), which differed from Japanese norms. Moreover, they mentioned that they felt closer to Latin American culture and behaviors (e.g., becoming more sociable, expressing themselves more openly). Despite such in-depth research on the relationship between leisure and acculturation, gaps remain. For example, although there is much focus on leisure-time physical activities (Choi et al., 2008; Kandula & Lauderdale, 2005), little information exists on the role of varied activities in the relationship. Also, while language preference/proficiency has been considered a major domain of the measures of acculturation (DuBard & Gizlice, 2008; Floyd & Grammann, 1993), more diverse acculturation measurements should be applied to understand the acculturation process in leisure studies. Lastly, further quantitative research is needed in understanding the value of leisure as a facilitator of acculturation (Li & Stodolska, 2006; Kim, 2012). The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between types of leisure activities and acculturation among immigrant using a multi-dimensional scale including behavioral acculturation (e.g., language and social contacts) and cultural value acculturation (e.g., collectivism, self-control, and success) (Lee, 2004).

Method
The participants of this study are Korean immigrants because of two reasons: a) Although Korean immigrants are one of the fastest growing ethnic groups in the United States (Berkman & Ko, 2008), they have been understudied (Park & Rubin, 2012) and b) Korean immigrants reported higher levels of adaptation challenges and negative psychological symptoms compared with other ethnic groups (Mui & Kang, 2006). A total of 434 Korean immigrants were participated that consists of 221 males and 213 females. Of the 434 participants, 52.5% were
students and 52% were married. The mean age was 33. Acculturation, the dependent variable of the study, was measured by using the Korean American Acculturation Scale (KAAS) developed by Lee (2004). It contained of behavioral acculturation (15-items) and cultural value acculturation (18-items) with a high reliability (Cronbach’s alpha was .88). The higher scores of the scales indicated higher acculturation. On the other hand, types of leisure activities were divided into six categories (Iso-Ahola et al., 1994): outdoor activities (e.g., fishing, biking); physical activities (e.g., hockey, dance, tennis); hobbies and indoor activities (e.g., painting, playing an instrument, reading); cultural activities (e.g., attending movies, attending concerts); social activities (e.g., socializing with friends, eating out, travelling, family time); and volunteering. Participants were asked to rate the frequency of each type of leisure activities. Thereafter, the authors applied Pearson correlation coefficients and multiple regression analyses to explore the relationship between different types of leisure activities and acculturation.

**Findings**

Respondents reported that they were the most often involved in social activities ($M = 3.37$, $SD = .67$), followed by cultural activities ($M = 3.21$, $SD = .78$). The levels of frequency were relatively lower, compared to those of social and cultural activities, for hobbies and indoor activities ($M = 2.87$, $SD = .90$), outdoor activities ($M= 2.85$, $SD=.82$), volunteer activities ($M = 2.78$, $SD= 1.01$), and physical activities ($M = 2.73$, $SD=1.01$). In terms of correlation among the variables, behavioral acculturation was negatively correlated with cultural activities ($r = -.17$, $p < .01$), social activities ($r = -.09$, $p< .05$), and volunteer activities ($r = -.14$, $p < .01$). Also, cultural value acculturation was negatively correlated with outdoor activities ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$) and physical activities, ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$). When it comes to the results of multiple regression analyses, hobbies and indoor activities ($β = .15$, $p=< .01$), cultural activities ($β = -.19$, $p=< .01$), and volunteer activities ($β = -.14$, $p =<.01$) were significant predictors of behavioral acculturation, while physical activities ($β = -.20$, $p =<.01$), cultural activities ($β = -.11$, $p =<.05$), social activities ($β = .12$, $p =< .05$), and volunteering activities ($β = -.13$, $p = <.01$) are significant variables of cultural values acculturation. These predictors each accounted for 7% of the variance for behavioral acculturation and cultural values acculturation.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

The results support the notion that participation in leisure activities is positively associated with acculturation (Stack & Iwasaki, 2009; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004). However, the present study also reveals that not all types of leisure activities are positively associated with Korean immigrants’ acculturation. Among domains of acculturation, participation in cultural and volunteer activities negatively affects behavior acculturation (e.g., language usage and social context), while participation in hobbies and indoor activities positively associated. Since behavioral acculturation is focused on language usage and social interaction, it was closely linked with people the respondents participated with in leisure activities. Kim (2012) stated that Korean immigrants have a tendency to interact with people of similar ethnic background. Hence, there is a possibility that cultural activities and volunteer activities are more enjoyed with the people with similar ethnic background. In particular, the most representative activities for cultural activities are going to the movies and concerts. This could be because people with similar cultural backgrounds tend to better share and appreciate ideas and concepts presented in movies or other forms of artistic representations of culture. In addition, in a more recent study of older Korean immigrants, Kim and Kim (2013) noted that helping newly arrived Korean immigrants were one of the representative volunteer activities for older Korean immigrants.
Although engaging in this activity provides positive benefits to the Korean immigrants such as fulfillment and fun, it might hamper both newly arrived and existing Korean immigrants’ acculturation. In contrast, Korean immigrants who participate in hobbies and indoor activities were more likely to score higher in behavioral acculturation. Hobbies and indoor activities are typically regarded as individual or small group activities. Hence, due to the characteristic of the Korean immigrants, the authors assumed that less active social interaction between the intra-groups might have helped the participants not delay their behavioral acculturation. However, further investigations need to be conducted to understand the relationship between types of leisure activities and behavioral acculturation because this research neglected to consider asking the participants with whom they are participating in their leisure activities. On the other hand, engagements in social activities positively impact cultural values acculturation (e.g., collectivism, self-control, and success), while engagements in physical, cultural activities and volunteering have negative influences. Interestingly, social activities showed different associations with behavioral acculturation and cultural value acculturation. The notion from previous research, which generally assumed that the social aspect of leisure activity leads to greater interaction with host country natives and ultimately increases immigrants’ acculturation (Jang & Chiriboga, 2011), might not always be true in behavioral acculturation, considering the counter notion of the tendency of Korean immigrants (Iwasaki & Bartlett, 2006). Moreover, almost 70% of the participants were between ages 18-39 and people who engaged in social activities tend to have an outgoing personality (Kircaldy, 1990). Thus, they might be separated from conventional stereotype (e.g., reserved, modest) regardless of types of activities they participated in. Another unique feature of the current work is that leisure-time physical activity is negatively associated with cultural value acculturation. While previous studies have demonstrated that more acculturated individuals showed increased levels of participation in leisure-time physical activities (Cantero et al., 1999; Dawson et al., 2005), this study indicated that engaging in leisure-time physical activities have a negative influence on cultural value acculturation. One possible explanation is Korean immigrants participated in leisure-time physical activities with others of the same ethnic and cultural characteristics as Li & Stodoloska (2006) found with Chinese graduate students in their study. Plus, Korean immigrants might be more inclined to participate in own culture based leisure-time physical activities. Kim (2012), for instance, found that Korean women immigrants engage in Taekwondo. This pattern of leisure participation might impede cultural value acculturation, while enhancing their traditional ethnic value. In conclusion, different leisure types showed different effect on acculturation in terms of behavior and cultural value. Some of the results contradicted our assumption, in which the social aspect of leisure activity led to greater interaction with host country natives and ultimately increased immigrants’ acculturation. We suspected that the tendency of Korean immigrants to interact with others who have similar cultural values as one of the major reasons of the findings. In other words, not only types of leisure participation, but also who immigrants are engaging with during leisure activities is the critical to immigrant acculturation. The following limitations need to be recognized particularly in interpreting the results: (a) lack of demographic factors for acculturation and leisure participation such as length of stay, age, gender, and educational background; (b) not considering immigrants from other cultural background; (c) not measuring the level of acculturation among Korean immigrants; and (d) vagueness of leisure categorization.

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Many researchers and survey reports have shown that African Americans represent a small portion of outdoor recreationists and visitors to natural recreation areas (Floyd, 1999; Taylor, Grandjean, & Gramann, 2011). Although researchers have documented that frequent contact with the natural environment yields significant health benefits (Faber Taylor & Kuo, 2006; Louv, 2005), African Americans are far less likely than other cultural groups to be the beneficiaries of public natural lands and have had fewer opportunities to learn about the country’s distinctive culture and history. An adequate understanding of African Americans’ under-representation issue will aid natural resource agencies’ efforts to attract more diverse clientele. The purpose of this study is to employ Pierre Bourdieu’s sociological theory and analyze African Americans’ low visitation to Cedar Hill State Park (CHSP) in Cedar Hill, Texas. In the fiscal year of 2012, CHSP was ranked the fourth most popular Texas State Park among 106 (Texas Park and Wildlife Departmet, 2012). However, the majority of CHSP visitors are White Americans despite its close proximity to predominantly Black middle class communities (Esri, 2010). It was expected that Bourdieu’s theoretical framework would provide wide-ranging explanations about the under-representation issue and practical managerial implications that will help agencies better serve African Americans.

**Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice**

Using the concept of habitus, capital, and field, Bourdieu’s theory of practice explains how social inequality is created and reproduced across generations. Habitus describes individuals’ subjective dispositions and modes of conduct that result from the internalization of social and cultural norms, social structures, and material relations (Browitt, 2004). The concepts of capital and field play a crucial role in the formation of habitus. Capital is the resource that individuals use to achieve their goal. Bourdieu (1986) proposed four types of capital: economic, social, cultural, and symbolic. These forms of capital denote financial resources, social networks, possession of cultural products and knowledge, and power and fame, respectively. Field is the structure of the social spaces where habitus is formed, capitals are distributed, and how the values of capitals are determined (Bourdieu, 1984). These concepts offered by Bourdieu provide comprehensive explanations of social inequality and its reproduction.

**Methods**

Three qualitative data generation techniques were used in this study. First, archival research was conducted to understand the field of Texas Park and Wildlife Department (TPWD) and CHSP. To examine African Americans’ life in the cities around CHSP and their historical relationship with the park, we contacted the headquarters of TPWD to locate documents about the history of CHSP. We also visited a public library in the city of Cedar Hill to review Cedar Hill Today, the local newspaper published through July 2009. Second, we visited CHSP three times from October 2012 to January 2013 and each visit lasted approximately four hours. Field notes and photographs were taken to record racial demographic of visitors, park usage patterns, characteristics of park amenities, and interpretive displays in the Penn Farm Agricultural History Center. Finally, in-depth, semi-structured, face to face interviews were conducted with 13 African Americans who live in the cities around CHSP from October 2012 to February 2013. Informants were recruited by purposive snowball sampling (Patton, 2002). Key informants were two city officials of the city of Cedar Hill. Informants’ demographic information, their leisure...
preference, visitation patterns to CHSP, and perceptions about park visitation and outdoor recreation were asked. All three data were triangulated and analyzed using the seven steps of qualitative data analysis method suggested by Marshall and Rossman (2006).

**Results**

Five salient themes were identified: (1) white flight and racial conflict, (2) racism in Texas state parks, (3) lack of information and encouragement, (4) lack of interest/cultural irrelevance, and (5) lack of attraction. These five themes were not mutually exclusive, but they were closely interrelated. In fact, they commonly held racism as an underlying theme and it was a foundational reason of local African Americans’ non-visitaton to CHSP.

**Field of CHSP and TPW**

**White flight and racial conflict.** Informants stated that cities around CHSP experienced dramatic change in the racial composition of residents. Both interview data and Census record showed that cities around CHSP were predominantly White neighborhoods until 1980s, yet they received large number of Black migrants in the 1990s. Today, African American constitutes more than half of residents in the most of nearby cities. The rapid increase of Black population provoked acute tensions between White residents and Black new comers. Sam recalled that the pastor of a local church confessed he did not want “Black folks” coming to his church. *Cedar Hill Today* also reported several cases of racial conflict in the local community. For example, Cedar Hill Concerned Citizens Association filed a complaint against Cedar Hill Independent School District due to the discriminatory educational practice targeting students of people of color. The history of communities near CHSP, which spilled over to the park, was indeed marked by racial conflict and power struggle between White residents and Black new comers.

**Racism in Texas state parks.** Archival data revealed a long history of racial discrimination in the field of Texas state parks. While Texas state parks started to emerge in the 1920s and 1930s, African Americans and Hispanics had “only little or no access” to the parks until the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Texas Parks and Wildlife Department, 2004). Ironically, many African Americans actually helped build many state parks as the members of the Civilian Conservation Corps during the Great Depression (Steely, 1999). In Texas, many of these parks were ones in which Blacks had been historically banned from using. Together with the first theme, this is important background information for understanding the remaining three themes.

**Capital and Habitus: Informants’ Park Visitation and Perception about Outdoor Recreation**

**Lack of information and encouragement.** The majority of informants stated that they never visited CHSP due to the lack of information and encouragement. Stephanie stated that she “never seen a piece of advertisement” about CHSP even though she has been living in the community for 11 years. Stephanie’s remark is symptomatic of a strongly held skepticism about the racial inclusiveness of CHSP. The constant racial conflict in the community seemed to color local African Americans’ impression of CHSP and made them reluctant to visit the park. For example, Jennifer stated that she never heard anything positive about CHSP from her peer groups and two daughters who were in their early 20s. She further articulated that “people talk about it, but they talked about it like, it’s their (Whites’) place that they go.” Many informants conceived CHSP as a social space where racism is prevalent and White Americans usually occupy.

**Lack of interest/cultural irrelevance.** Some informants stated that they have not visited CHSP simply because they were not interested in going to parks for recreational purpose. Moreover, many informants stated that they rarely seen Blacks who enjoy national or state parks, camping, and hiking. Implied here is the idea that African Americans possess the habitus that views nature-based outdoor recreation as an orthodox or unusual activity. When they were asked about
the cause of the Black leisure habitus, some informants explained how century-old racism has shaped such a distinctive disposition. Steven used water recreation as an example and articulated that many African Americans were not able to afford boats due to the slave system and limited economic capital. Although their economic status has improved, Steven believed that today’s Blacks still do not engage in water recreation because they have had limited “exposure” to the activity. Similarly, Susan stated that historically Blacks had “no access” to outdoor recreation due to racism so it is nonsense to expect them to “appreciate” the activity that their parents and ancestors were not able to appreciate. Using social reproduction perspective, these informants stressed that enduring racism is at the foundation for explaining the under-representation issue since it has historically extorted economic and cultural capital from Blacks and made them unable to develop habitus for engaging in outdoor recreation.

Lack of attraction. The analysis also identified that lack of relevant cultural attractions might be another reason that many local African Americans do not visit the park. CHSP used to be a farmland owned by Penn family. Although historical documents showed that the family owned several slaves and those slaves significantly helped the development of Penn Farm and Penn family’s economic growth, the story of Penn family’s slaves are excluded from park history—it as if the family never owned slaves. When this was explained to informants, they all strongly hoped that the park provides the history of African Americans. Anne stated that she “would have been [to CHSP] a long time ago” if the park offers information about Penn family’s slaves. Given the informants’ strong interest in Black history and the large Black population around the CHSP, the park seemed to miss an important attraction for African American visitors.

Discussion

This study shows that racism remains a crucial factor for explaining African Americans’ non-visitation to CHSP and the under-representation issue. Regrettably, some researchers have noted that the focus of studies on minorities’ leisure has shifted away from race and racism (Floyd, 2007; Phillipp, 2000). We found that constant racial conflict within the community has shaped negative perceptions toward CHSP among local African Americans. Consistent with Carter’s (2008) notion of racialized space and Austin’s (1997-1998) idea of “white-identified leisure spaces” (p. 695), CHSP was constructed as a White space where African Americans’ visitation or presence is considered to be unusual or even undesirable. Moreover, similar to the notion of racial boundary maintenance (Barth, 1969; Stodolska, Marcinkowski, Yi-Kook, 2007), local Blacks understood CHSP as a White space and avoided to break the existing racial boundary between Blacks and Whites. Bourdieu’s theory illustrates that past and present discrimination prevented African Americans’ acquisition of economic, social, and cultural capital for outdoor recreation and made them almost impossible to develop the leisure habitus that appreciates and enjoys outdoor recreation. Thus, Black’s under-representation in the great outdoors has been normalized in the majority of American history. To increase Black visitation to CHSP, TPWD must work hard to change its image as White space and actively promote it as a racism-free context where all ethnic and racial groups are welcome. The history of Black slaves also needs to be incorporated into the telling of the CHSP story.

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Asian Americans’ outdoor recreation patterns have been the subject of a few leisure studies. Existing research and national data show that Asian Americans’ participation in outdoor recreation and their park visitation rates are almost identical to or even greater than the rates for the overall U.S. population (Taylor, Grandjean, & Gramann, 2011). Researchers have also documented that Asians and White Americans are similar in terms of their outdoor recreation participation rates, perceived time constraints to park visitation, and lack of perceived discrimination in recreational settings (Tierney, Dahl, & Chavez, 1998; Weber & Sultana, 2013). These are worth highlighting because other racial/ethnic minorities, such as Hispanics and African Americans, are significantly under-represented in the experiencing of the great outdoors, and generally face more constraints on their outdoor recreation than do Whites (Johnson, Bowker, Green, & Cordell, 2007). Moreover, the Asian population (Asian alone or mixed races) grew faster than any other racial group in the United States between 2000 and 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012a). The Asian population grew by 46% during this period, four times faster than the total U.S. population. The U.S. Census Bureau (2012b) also projected that the Asian population will more than double in the next half century, from 15.9 million in 2012 to 34.4 million in 2060. Given this sharp increase, a greater theoretical understanding and further investigations of Asian Americans’ outdoor recreation patterns are crucial for recreational agencies and practitioners to serve this racial group. The purpose of this study is to offer possible theoretical explanations regarding Asian Americans’ outdoor recreation patterns and thus facilitate further research and discussion on this topic. The concepts of Asia and Asian Americans and their utility in scientific research have increasingly been questioned due to their ambiguous conceptual boundary (Bowring, 1987; Zhou, 2004). It is therefore problematic or even impossible to propose universal explanations applicable to all Asian groups. Thus, this study discuss four theoretical explanations that leisure researchers can selectively utilize in order to understand the outdoor participation patterns of specific Asian groups.

Asian Americans’ Participation in Outdoor Recreation

The existing literature in the field of leisure studies, sociology, and social psychology suggests that assimilation theory, socioeconomic factors, ethnicity hypothesis, and opportunity theory might be effective in explaining the outdoor recreation patterns of Asian Americans. First, assimilation theory has been used by numerous researchers from various disciplines to explain immigrant behavior. Gordon’s (1964) seven-stage assimilation model has been the most widely accepted assimilation theory. He explained that immigrants to the U.S. experience seven steps of assimilation process, each stage is distinguished by the extent to which immigrants adopt the culture and values of the “core group” which in this case refers to the “white Protestant element at any social class level” (p. 74). Leisure scholars began to use assimilation theory in the early 1990s; the level of assimilation was mainly used as an explanatory variable for the leisure behavior of Hispanics and Asian Americans (Scott et al., 2006). Aligning with this line of inquiry, assimilation theory can be used to explain the frequent outdoor recreation participation of Asian Americans, especially in terms of how they have adopted American society. Since the overwhelming majority of U.S. outdoor recreationists are Whites and visiting national parks or engaging in nature-based outdoor recreation is believed to be a major component of America’s leisure culture, the frequent outdoor recreation participation of Asian Americans could be
understood as a reflection of their high level of assimilation to White Americans’ leisure culture. In fact, Zhou (2003) claimed that Asian Americans were the most assimilated non-European ethnic group in the U.S. She noted that the majority of second generation Asians have lost fluency in their parents’ native language, and 75% of second generation Asians speak only English in their home. Moreover, Asian Americans intermarry extensively with White and other racial minorities. The intermarriage of Asian Americans with other races constituted 28% of all U.S. newlyweds in 2010, the highest exogamy rate among other racial/ethnic groups (Wang, 2012). These statistics support the notion that the assimilation perspective is a useful theoretical framework for understanding Asian Americans’ outdoor recreation pattern.

However, assimilation theory has several limitations. First, the theory itself tends to oversimplify the complexity of intergroup contacts and the assimilation process by treating both the immigrants and the host group as culturally monolithic entities. Second, the theory suggests that White Americans’ cultural values and lifestyle are a norm that immigrants must cultivate and eventually adopt. The theory is strongly biased toward what McDonald (2009) cogently identified as the “normalization” of Whiteness (p. 12). Finally, the theory implies that Asian Americans have not been fully integrated into mainstream American society so it could perpetuate the racial stereotype that Asian Americans are forever foreigners in or strangers to American society, regardless of their long history in the country. These limitations need to be addressed with greater prudence in future studies.

Second, similar to Washburn’s (1979) marginality hypothesis, Asian Americans’ outdoor recreation participation could be explained by socioeconomic factors such as income and education level. Asian Americans are often viewed as a model minority who have achieved remarkable financial and educational success (Chou & Feagin, 2008). In 2011, the median household income of the Asian population alone marked $67,885, the highest among any other racial groups in the U.S (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). 50% of Asian Americans aged 25 or older had earned a Bachelor’s degree and it was the highest proportion of college graduates of any race or ethnic group. Since visiting outdoor recreation areas such as national and state parks requires various expenditures, it is reasonable to expect that their above-average income level would help Asian Americans to frequently participate in outdoor recreation activities. Moreover, it is possible that Asian Americans acquire their knowledge and skill in outdoor recreation via recreation classes taken at university.

However, leisure researchers should be more cognizant of the problems with the socioeconomic perspective. Although Asian Americans are perceived as a model minority, it is in fact a racial stereotype originally created by White journalists in the 1960s in order to alleviate and downgrade the importance of anti-racism and civil rights protests conducted by African Americans and Hispanics (Chou & Feagin, 2008; Zhou, 2004). By ascribing Japanese and Chinese Americans’ upward mobility to their hard work and discipline, these journalists implied that the best way to achieve the American dream was by not complaining, and instead by focusing on complying with the existing social norm and order. A closer examination of these Asian groups’ socioeconomic levels debunks the myth of the model minority. The median income of Asian Indians in 2011 was $92,418, whereas that of Bangladeshi Americans was $45,185 (U.S. Census Bureau News, 2013). Similarly, the educational achievement of certain Asian American groups was found to be well below the national average. From 2006 to 2010, 27.9% of all Americans 25 and older held Bachelor’s degrees or higher, yet the corresponding figures for Cambodian Americans, Laotian Americans, and Vietnamese Americans were 14.5%, 12.1%, and 26.3%, respectively (Ogunwole, Drewery, & Rios-Vargas, May 2012). Thus,
researchers should take into account this wide spectrum of income and educational levels in order to avoid hasty generalizations about Asian Americans.

Third, based on Washburn’s (1979) ethnicity hypothesis, the outdoor recreation practices of Asian Americans could be explained by their “subcultural style, or ethnicity” (p. 177). A limitation of the ethnicity hypothesis is that it neither provides a clear definition of ethnicity, nor specifies which aspects of the ethnic culture affect leisure participation (Floyd, 1998). To address this issue, this research argues that Taoism is a specific cultural determinant that facilitates outdoor recreation of Asian Americans. Taoism (also known as Daoism) is a major Chinese philosophy/religion initiated by Lao Tzu’s writing and his followers (Day, 1962). One major tenet of Taoism particularly relevant to the present discussion is its strong emphasis on the harmonious relationship between humankind and nature. Taoism views the natural environment as the optimal context wherein individuals can achieve moral perfection, maturation, and wellbeing (Guo, 2006). It asserts that human beings can achieve physical health and spiritual freedom by exposing themselves to the natural environment, undertaking such activities as walking in the trees, hearing the sounds of birds, and smelling the flowers (Wang & Stringer, 2000). Taoism is believed to be a major constructor of the views of nature held by people from China and other southeastern Asian countries. It is expected that Taoism’s views on nature are shared by many Asian groups in the U.S., and thus promote these individuals’ collective interest in visiting the great outdoors.

However, it should be acknowledged that some western Asian countries, such as India and Pakistan, have received historically little influence from Taoism. Thus, Taoism’s effectiveness in explaining the outdoor recreation patterns of these Asian nationalities is quite questionable. Furthermore, researchers have documented that some Chinese and Taiwanese students in the U.S. do not adhere to the Taoistic view of nature and believe instead that people can subjugate and control nature (Sodowsky, Maguire, Johnson, Ngumba, & Kohles, 1994). As such, Taoism’s utility in outdoor recreation studies is undetermined.

Finally, Asian Americans’ frequent visits to federal public recreational sites can be explained by opportunity theory. The theory stresses the accessibility of social resources and posits that individuals’ physical proximity to outdoor recreation resources is a critical determinant in their outdoor recreation participation (Lindsay & Ogle, 1972). The effectiveness of this approach has been affirmed by Weber and Sultana (2013). They gauged accessibility based on travel times, and investigated how it impacted visitation to national park units. They found that Asian Americans were more likely to constitute a larger percentage of visitors to those park units located closer to Asian communities, and suggested that Asian American visitation patterns to national park units were consistent with the gist of opportunity theory.

Conclusion

In sum, this study offers four theoretical explanations: (a) assimilation theory, (b) socioeconomic factors, (c) Taoism, and (d) opportunity theory as potentially useful tools for understanding the outdoor recreation practices of Asian Americans. Leisure researchers should be mindful of the significant intra-group variations that exist within the Asian American population when they conduct research in this area. Researchers are also encouraged to conduct further investigations on the current topic and go beyond the four theories mentioned here.

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MOTIVATION AND SERIOUSNESS OF COMMITTED CLIMBERS: A LOGISTIC REGRESSION MODEL
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Introduction
The present study examined the motivation and seriousness of specialized climbers. Since Hobson Bryan proposed his theory of specialization in 1977, numerous studies have utilized this notion to examine recreationists’ developmental processes by measuring both inner processes, such as levels of commitment, skills and knowledge, and explicit behaviors, such as the frequency of recreation participation and the ownership of equipment (Kuentzel and Herberlein, 2006; Oh, Sourse & Ditton, 2011; Scott & Lee, 2010). Diverse measures enrich our understanding of recreationists’ specialized experiences and career trajectories. Among the measures of recreationists’ inner mechanism, motivation of specialized behaviors is one of the primary research interests (Hvenegaard, 2002; Galloway 2012; Smith, Burr & Reiter, 2010). Galloway (2012) shows different motivation orientations among river users in New Zealand. For example, people who engage in fishing tend to appreciate the value of nature and its cathartic function more than paddlers and multisport participants. On the other hand, Smith et al (2010) compared the differences in motivation within off-highway vehicle owners, but with different levels of commitment. The results indicated that the level of commitment is associated with levels of motivation, such as the mean difference in personal achievement between low and high committed groups. Although a scale such as Recreation Experience Preferences (REP) is commonly used to examine leisure motivations, Lee (2013) argues for the need to examine higher order causalities of leisure behavior, proposed by Iso-Ahola (1980). Therefore, in this study, types of motivation were represented as intrinsic, identified, introjected, or extrinsic, with attention to amotivation, which indicates different levels of autonomy perceived by people (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Further, the conceptual overlapping of recreation specialization and serious leisure had been discussed (Scott, 2012; Tsaur & Liang, 2008). Both concepts contain similar ideas, which include leisure as career, leisure as a life centrality, and the development of skills, knowledge and experience. However, the term serious leisure can lead to the argument that such a notion only applies to exceptional recreationists who are committed to an activity. The serious-casual dichotomy also oversimplifies the levels of commitment in a leisure activity. Shen and Yarnel (2010) advocate the use of serious-casual continuum, which better reflects career development in a serious leisure. In addition, the recent development of serious leisure instruments allowed researchers to quantify the serious leisure experiences and rewards.

Method
Climbers were surveyed from both indoor and outdoor settings in Midwest region in summer, 2012 (Lee, 2013). For the dichotomous dependent variable, climbers who were capable of sport or other types of lead climbing and climbed at least 50 days in past 12 months were coded as a committed group (DV = 1), otherwise, coded as 0. The Behavioral Regulation of Exercise Questionnaire version 2 was used to measure motivations and the aggregated scores of multiple types of motivations were computed (BREQ2, Markland & Tobin, 2004). Serious leisure was measured with the Serious Leisure Inventory and Measure (Gould et al., 2011). Six items--effort, perseverance, career progress, career contingency, unique ethos and leisure identity--were included to indicate seriousness (Gould et al., 2008). A sequential logistic regression was used to address the dichotomous outcome. The sequence of entering variables into the model was
motivations, serious leisure indicators, climbing ability and years, and gender and age. Likelihood ratio tests were conducted to examine model improvements. SPSS syntax LOGISTIC REGRESSION and NOMREG were used to analyze the data.

Results

Four hundred forty-four climbers (136 females and 308 males) were included in the data analysis. Climbers’ experiences vary in terms of years of climbing (0-36 years) and skill levels (5.3-5.14b). 280 climbers met the criteria and classified as committed climbers. A test of the full model with all fifteen predictors against a constant model was statistically significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 221.174$, $df = 15$, $p < .001$). The full model (Table 1) showed that identified motivation ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = 2.019$), perseverance ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = 0.678$), leisure identity ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = 1.638$), climbing ability ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = 2.418$) and gender ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = 0.478$) were significant predictors. The committed group were more likely to perceive climbing as important (i.e., identified motivation) and have higher climbing ability than their counterparts; however, committed climbers are less likely to feel perseverance to rock climbing. The percentage of correct classification was improved by 18.4% when comparing the full model with the null model. 89.3% of the committed group members and 68.3% of the less committed group members were correctly classified.

Discussion

The finding that identified motivation is a significant predictor of leisure commitment is consistent with past studies. Thøgersen-Ntouman & Ntoumanis (2006) find that identified motivation contributed to positive self-evaluation of exercise and a lower likelihood of relapse. Edmunds et al (2006) also show identified motivation was positively associated with exercise intensity. Further, the finding suggested that committed climbers were less likely to feel persevered than their counterparts. It is possibly that committed climbers internalize the culture of climbing and adapt themselves to challenges such as training and injury. It is not uncommon to find that outdoor recreationists demonstrate such resilience (McCarville, 2007; Stebbins, 2005); however, it becomes an obligation that people are willing to take and thus become less coerced (Stebbins, 2007). The result of identity supports previous studies, which show that “personal commitment entails the development of self-identity” (Scott & Shafer, 2001, p. 329). Recreationists develop and express their identities in terms of the activity in diverse venues, such as the demonstration of skills, story-telling, and use of specific equipment (Kane & Zink, 2004; Shipway & Jones, 2008).

In present study, intrinsic motivation did not significantly predict recreation specialization. The result is consistent with Edmunds et al (2006), who show that intrinsic motivation is not associated with both general and strenuous exercise behaviors. It implies that leisure commitment requires people to embrace the importance of activities, but not necessarily to find pleasure experiences during exercise. Lee (2013) found that identified motivation was stronger than intrinsic motivation to predict serious leisure experiences and rewards.

Females are less likely than male to become committed climbers in this study. One possible explanation is that in climbing contexts, females’ senses of autonomy and control over the space may not be fulfilled due to the continuous presence of power struggles between genders. Failure to achieve such mastery experience also hindered the opportunity of self-expression and development (Dilley & Scranton, 2010; Kiewa, 2001). In addition, the uneven group sizes should be noted. The sample size of female climbers was less than one third of the entire group, which means that this group may not accurately reflect the representative female climbers.

Four out of six serious leisure indicators in the model did not significantly predict recreation specialization. While the present study used observable measures (i.e., days of climbing and the
presence of leading climbing) to define recreation specialization, future studies may investigate the associations between serious leisure indicators and cognitive and attitudinal dimensions of recreation specialization, such as Tsaur and Liang’s study regarding recreation specialization in birding (2008). In addition, this study added knowledge to motivations of committed leisure behaviors and examined the predictability of seriousness in recreation specialization. The significant predictor identified motivation implies the salience of internalization (Ryan & Deci, 2002). The next step is to understand how internalization can be achieved. For example, an autonomous support experience is a means to promote internalization (Edmunds et al., 2006). In terms of climbing, such experience can be helping the clients embrace the idea of physical conditioning and design an individualized training schedule, specifically to the improvement on power endurance. Examining the effect of autonomous-supporting activities on specialization help explain how recreationists become committed to a specific activity.

Table 1. Parameter Estimates of Full Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>β</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
<th>95% C.I.</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Lower</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td>0.009</td>
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<td>0.923</td>
<td>1.065</td>
<td>0.293</td>
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<td>Identified Motivation</td>
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<td>0.286</td>
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<td>0.014</td>
<td>2.019</td>
<td>1.153</td>
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<td>Introjected Motivation</td>
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<td>0.166</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td>1.047</td>
<td>0.756</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.279</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0.421</td>
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<td>Amotivation</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.55</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6.644</td>
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<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.678</td>
<td>0.504</td>
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<tr>
<td>Effort</td>
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<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>1.058</td>
<td>0.817</td>
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<tr>
<td>Career Progress</td>
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<td>Career Contingency</td>
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<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.836</td>
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<td>Unique Ethos</td>
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<td>0.093</td>
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<td>&lt;.001</td>
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<td>Climbing Ability</td>
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<td>0.133</td>
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<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>2.418</td>
<td>1.863</td>
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<td>0.045</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>0.993</td>
<td>0.931</td>
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<td>6.218</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>0.268</td>
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<td>0.014</td>
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<td>13.908</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

-2LL = 360.68

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Selected References


INVESTIGATING PEOPLE’S AFFINITY FOR SOLITUDE IN THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT
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David Scott, Texas A&M University

Some individuals who revel in solitude are more likely to seek opportunities to be alone. However, people’s solitude experiences differ according to how they emotionally, socially, culturally, and physically engage themselves in being alone (Burger, 1995). While several studies have investigated the cognitive and social aspects of solitude (e.g., Leary, Herbst, & McCrary, 2003; Lee, 2013), few studies have examined how certain physical environment might influence people’s affinity for solitude. We have meager understanding of how people’s preference for being alone in natural environments is linked to their views of solitude more generally. Accordingly, this study sought to explore the linkage between people’s affinity for solitude and their preference for solitude in natural environments. More specifically, we sought to examine whether preferences for solitude in natural environments was an antecedent or an outcome of people’s general affinity for solitude.

For those who consistently demonstrate a higher level of inclination to be alone, affinity for solitude refers to people’s interest in being alone or a general preference for being alone over being with others. People’s demonstrated affinity for solitude is akin to enduring involvement which refers to degree of interest, arousal, or motivation as it relates to some object (Sherif & Cantril, 1947; Sherif, Kelly, Rogers, Sarup, & Titler, 1973; Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965). That is, when an individual places importance on solitude, he or she is driven to be alone. Burger (1995) provided insightful discussions about people’s preference for solitude through his empirical studies. He noted some people choose solitude because it is beneficial for their psychological well-being; for others social anxiety may be a primary reason why they choose to be alone. His study showed that those people with a higher preference for solitude spend more time alone and enjoy this time more than those with a low preference for solitude. A limitation of Burger’s work is he did not provide explicit explanations on the complex causes and effects of people’s preference for solitude.

Long and his colleagues identified different solitude experiences and the most affected environments concerning solitude experiences (Long, 2000; Long, Seburn, Averill, & More, 2003; More & Long, 2003). Studies discovered seven types of positive solitude experiences (e.g., anonymity, problem solving, and spirituality) and two types of negative solitude experiences (e.g., loneliness); the majority of people who achieved positive experiences of solitude reported they were at home or within intimate indoor environment. However, when a positive solitude experience was associated with spirituality, many people reported the natural environment as a place where they sought solitude. Findings reported by Long and his colleagues are important because they link positive solitude experiences with the natural environment. Long and others, however, do not provide clues about whether people’s preference for solitude in natural environments is an outcome of their affinity for solitude or whether their interest in solitude drives them to seek out natural environments.

A review of wilderness literature has reinforced the contention that people are motivated to seek solitude when visiting natural areas (Borrie, & Roggenbuck, 2001; Hollenhorst, Frank, & Watson, 1994; Lee, 1977; Twight, Smith, & Wissinger, 1981). Researchers have observed that when people feel close to nature, they tend to pursue and experience solitude (Kaplan, 1977, 1984; Killeen, 1998). The natural environment might create an atmosphere that allows people to
Physically or emotionally detach themselves from daily social obligations. Positive experiences incurred in nature may spill over to everyday life and contribute to the development of a general affinity for solitude. At the same time, immersing oneself in natural environments facilitates the experience of solitude (Hammitt, 1982; Hammitt & Brown, 1984; Hollenhorst et al., 1994). That is, people’s desire to be in nature and their preference for natural environment may spring from a strong affinity for solitude. Unfortunately, wilderness literature has been weighted towards correlational studies so there is insufficient data about causal directionality of the two.

Although literature is clear that people’s interest in natural environments is linked to their affinity for solitude, what is not known is whether solitude experienced in natural environments is an outcome of people’s affinity for solitude or shapes people’s affinity for solitude. In order to systematically investigate how people’s preferences for the natural environment are related to their affinity for solitude, we test two competing hypotheses. On the one hand, we suggest that preference for solitude in natural environment leads people to develop an affinity for solitude. This hypothesis suggests that positive experiences of solitude in nature may lead people to develop an appreciation of solitude in general. On the other hand, we suggest that a general affinity for solitude motivates people to enjoy natural environments because these places afford opportunities for being alone. In order to simplify our investigation, we deemphasized other variables thought to be related to solitude preferences (e.g., extroversion). The findings from this study clarify how affinity for solitude is linked to people’s preferences for natural environments as a place for being alone. If we are able to determine more precisely how affinity for solitude and preferences for solitude in the natural environment are casually related, we would be able to better understand the processes that govern people’s daily solitude experience.

**Method**

Data were collected from college students attending Texas A&M University, North Carolina State University, and East Carolina University in 2012. A total of 395 college students, 162 male and 233 female students completed the online survey in exchange for class credit. To measure people’s affinity for solitude, a total of 4 items, borrowed and appropriated from Burger’s Preference for Solitude Scale (Burger, 1995), was used (e.g., “I often have a strong desire to get away by myself”). In order to measure people’s preference solitude in natural environments (e.g., “I like being alone in a completely natural environment”), we adapted 5 items from Long’s study (2000) which explored different solitude experiences in natural environments. All items were measured using a Likert scale, ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree.”

In order to provide an understanding of the relationships between study variables, we examined the correlations between measured variables and latent factors. The reliability and validity of the measurement model was tested employing Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). This study took advantage of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to test the two competing hypotheses by examining the statistically significant standardized estimates of path coefficients among latent factors. We also detected the goodness-of-fit indices (e.g., Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2$, RMSEA, CFI, and NFI) to determine if the hypothesized measurement model fits to the data. The results allow us to identify the sequential relationship between the latent factors whether the preference for solitude in the natural environment is an antecedent of people’s affinity for solitude or vice versa. Data was analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 16.0) and SPSS Amos 18.

**Results**

According to the results, the measurement model of the affinity for solitude and preference for solitude in the natural environment was highly reliable and valid. The measured variables
were significantly correlated with one another; *Pearson correlations* between .119 and .744. Also, there was a significant positive correlation between latent factors of affinity for solitude and the preference for solitude in the natural environment, $r_{(395)} = .292, p < .01$. Results of the measurement model test showed that the measure of preference for solitude in the natural environment did account for additional variance in people’s affinity for solitude, $\beta = .269, SE = .062, t\text{-value} = 5.891, p < .001$. This second structural model, which suggests that preference for solitude in nature leads to general affinity for solitude, presented a good fit with the data: $\chi^2 = 41.7 \ (df = 23, p < .001), CFI = .991, NFI = .980,$ and $\text{RMSEA} = .045$. However, we found that the affinity for solitude measure was not a significant predictor of preference for solitude in the natural environment. All of this suggests that preference for solitude in the natural environment contributes to the formation of affinity for solitude; while affinity for solitude does not necessarily influence people’s seeking solitude in natural environments.

**Discussion**

This current study examined whether preference for solitude in the natural environment is an antecedent or an outcome of a general affinity for solitude. According to the results, preference for solitude in the natural environment was a significant predictor of people’s affinity for solitude, while affinity for solitude did not influence people’s preference for solitude in the natural environment. Findings indicated that nature is a facilitator for the solitude experience which, in turn, contributes to the development of a general affinity for solitude. This finding suggests that experiences in the natural environment play an important role in contributing to people’s interest and desire to be alone and enjoy their time alone. In other words, nature experiences potentially provide people calmness and skills to develop inner capacity to deal with solitude in everyday life.

Our findings suggest that people who have an affinity for solitude do not necessarily seek out nature. Scholars have noted that it is intuitive that people who have a higher level of affinity for solitude to seek out natural environment (e.g., Dawson, Newman, & Watson, 1997). In many contemporary societies, however, accessing natural environments can be problematic. For example, in a big city, there are many possible constraints on people’s accessing natural areas, such as distance and time limitations (Walker & Virden, 2005). Also, individualized life-style and use of advanced technology may allow people easily to be alone without seeking specific environments. It could be that people’s affinity for solitude is manifest on special occasions (e.g., weekends and vacations), and not on a daily basis. More, Long, and Averill (2003) showed that a majority of the people they studied reported their solitude experiences at home or other intimate surroundings. Future study should further investigate how people go about achieving their need for affinity in their everyday life.

Some limitations should be discussed. Our study only infers causality between the preference for solitude in the natural environment and affinity for solitude. To extend our study results, more empirical studies should be addressed employing other methods (e.g., experimental study design). This will clarify the causal relationship between the two. Second, this study does not explain how experiencing solitude in the natural environment intensifies affinity for solitude. Future study should explore what happens to people in the outdoors that lead them to develop an affinity for solitude.

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Selected References


THE RELATION OF MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATION TO SOCIAL IMPACT IN SPORT
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Mary Sara Wells, University of Utah
John P. Barile, University of Hawaii at Manoa

Developing social relationships that lead to a sense of community (SOC) or social capital may be important due to the potential to improve a person’s overall quality of life by influencing multiple positive outcomes. Indeed, evidence suggests that possessing SOC is linked with a range of positive associations. For example, individuals who feel a strong SOC are more likely to engage in healthy activities (Peterson & Reid, 2003), experience decreased feelings of alienation (Pretty, Andrews, & Collett, 1994), decreased negative moods (Roussi, Rapti, & Kiosseoglou, 2006), increased self-confidence and emotional connections (Goodwin, et al., 2009), improved coping skills (Greenfield & Marks, 2010), and increased feelings of empowerment (Peterson & Reid, 2003). Likewise, possessing social capital potentially enhances personal benefits (Woolcock, 2010) and has been linked to an overall improvement in health-related quality of life (Kim & Kawachi, 2007). Thus, developing SOC and social capital may improve one’s overall quality of life by directly or indirectly influencing other positive results.

Despite the numerous positive outcomes associated with SOC and social capital, multiple studies suggest that individuals in the United States are increasingly less likely to develop the community connections that lead to these outcomes (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Brashears, 2006; Putnam, 2000), including connections developed through recreational and sport activities (Ellis & Sharma, 2013; Putnam, 2000; Schwadel & Stout, 2012). Further, this decline appears to be in spite of the fact that recreational sport remains a popular physical activity choice for adults as well as children (Ham, Kruger, & Tudor-Locke, 2009). Given the importance of these social outcomes, the popularity of recreational sport, and the apparent decline in SOC and social capital, it is important to investigate how recreational sport activities can be used to develop these potential outcomes.

Sense of community, (SOC) may be defined “as a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members’ needs will be met through their commitment to be together” (McMillan and Chavis, 1986, p. 9). Similarly, social capital may be defined as the value of social networks and bringing people together (Putnam, 2000).

Despite the fact that SOC and social capital may develop within recreational sport settings, it is also possible that simply being involved in recreational activities does not automatically lead to positive social outcomes (Chalip, 2006). The missing link in the existing research, therefore, is an understanding of the specific means by which SOC may be developed in a recreational sport setting (Chalip, 2006; Warner & Dixon, 2011). An improved understanding of these mechanisms will benefit recreational sport administrators in designing programs that are more likely to enhance SOC and social capital. One possible area that may help explain social outcomes is goal orientations.

Multiple studies have demonstrated the importance of goal orientations (through achievement-goal theory; AGT) in predicting positive social outcomes (Roberts, 2012). Broadly, AGT posits that individuals perceive success through either self-referenced criteria (task) or other-referenced criteria (ego). For example, an individual who is motivated to beat his or her personal best record would be task-oriented while an individual who was motivated to beat an
opponent would be ego-oriented. The adoption of the particular disposition then triggers a particular schema of behavioral patterns and outcomes (Ames, 1992).

Previous research suggests links between motivational dispositions to both positive and negative outcomes in sport settings including positive social results. In an extensive review of the literature, Roberts (2012) summarizes research demonstrating significant correlations between achievement goals and relevant social variables. Thus, it would appear that individuals who are more task-oriented would also be more likely to experience these positive social outcomes. Despite the logical link, however, no study has specifically examined the link between achievement goals and SOC or social capital. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to test the relation between motivational dispositions and SOC and social capital.

Method

Data were collected from 155 participants within 41 teams in an adult recreational flag football league in the Intermountain region of the United States. Following permission from the league administrator, the primary researcher collected questionnaire data from participants at the game site over the course of six game days. The questionnaire included 8-items from the Brief Sense of Community Scale (BSOC; Peterson, Speer, & McMillan, 2008), 10-items from the Social Impact of Sport Scale (Lee, Cornwell, & Babiak, 2012), and 11-items from the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ; Duda, 1989). Internal consistency in this study for all scales was as follows: BSOC (α=.90); Social Impact of Sport Scale (α =.82); TEOSQ ego orientation (α =.78); TEOSQ task orientation (α =.84). In addition, the questionnaire collected data on income and the number of years spent on the team.

Results

All analyses were carried out using Mplus v7.1 statistical software (Muthen & Muthen, 2013). A full-information, robust maximum-likelihood estimator (mlr) was applied to obtain parameter estimates and standard errors robust to non-normality. Multilevel estimation techniques that include both individual and team-level predictors were used. Multilevel modeling was used because participants were clustered within teams. Furthermore, it was believed that individual level effects would differ from those found at the team level. Missing data on all endogenous variables were addressed using full-information maximum likelihood under the assumption that missingness is at random conditional on the covariates (for more information on the appropriateness of the method, please see: Schafer & Graham, 2002). Notable intraclass correlations were found for both the independent variables (ego orientation = .12; task orientation = .17; social orientation = .07) and the dependent variables (sense of community = .09; social capital = .08). Team level associations were tested using aggregates for each of the individual level predictors (i.e., the average score for members of each team). A multilevel path analysis was then conducted in order to determine whether orientation style was associated with sense of community or social capital at either the individual or team level. All team level scores were grand mean centered. Results of the multilevel model can be found in Table 1. Income, years on team, ego orientation and task orientation as predictors of SOC and social capital.

Discussion

Results of this study suggest that 1) individual ego and task orientation are strongly associated with SOC, 2) individual task orientation is strongly associated with social capital, and 3) team-level ego orientation is strongly associated with SOC. Interestingly, ego orientation was negatively associated with SOC on the individual level but positively associated with ego at the team level. These differential findings suggest that for individuals within a team, higher ego orientation may negatively impact their SOC (i.e., teammates with higher ego orientation report
lower SOC), although collectively, a team that has a high ego orientation, after taking into account individual differences, likely has a stronger sense of community, possibly due to its shared vision. That is, if collectively the team has a high ego-orientation, individuals may connect over their shared motivation to win, and thus develop positive social relations and community around that shared goal. This finding highlights the need for researcher to analyze team data using a multilevel approach that enables them to decompose variance between individuals and teams.

The implications of these findings offer several possibilities for administrators who wish to increase SOC and social capital among program participants. First, at the individual level a high task orientation predicts higher SOC and higher social capital, while a higher ego orientation predicts lower social capital. This result is consistent with previous research suggesting that task orientation is more likely to be associated with positive social outcomes (Roberts, 2012). Thus, administrators may wish to create motivational climates that are likely to encourage the adoption of task orientations. Indeed, the design of climates that encourage task-orientations also appear to be related to positive social outcomes (Roberts, 2012). Administrators may wish to use the TARGET approach to designing environments that promote task-orientations (Epstein, 1989). The TARGET approach suggests that administrators can influence tasks, authority structures, grouping, evaluation and timing to influence the adoption of particular goal structures (Duda & Balaguer, 1997). In addition, future research should examine the relation of motivational climates as well as orientations to sense of community and social capital.

The results of this study also raise important issues for future research in this area. Specifically, as noted, the use of a multilevel approach revealed seemingly contradictory outcomes on the team level. A traditional individual level approach to the data would have missed this key finding. Future research should continue to explore results at both levels as well as focus on the motivational climate and the interaction with motivational dispositions.

| Table 1. Multilevel Associations between Motivational Orientation, SOC and Social Capital |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
|                                 | Sense of Community               | Social Capital                  |
|                                 | b                  | SE     | p    | β    | b                  | SE     | p    | β    |
| Individual level                |                     |        |      |     |                     |        |      |     |
| Income                         | 0.58               | 0.61   | 0.34 | 0.14 | 0.49               | 0.59   | 0.40 | 0.11 |
| Years on Team                  | 0.11               | 0.27   | 0.69 | 0.06 | -0.07              | 0.27   | 0.79 | -0.04|
| Ego Orientation                | -0.27              | 0.11   | 0.01 | -0.23| -0.14              | 0.14   | 0.29 | -0.11|
| Task Orientation               | 0.49               | 0.18   | 0.01 | 0.26 | 0.90               | 0.25   | <0.01| 0.43 |
| Team level                     |                     |        |      |     |                     |        |      |     |
| Income                         | 0.25               | 0.82   | 0.76 | 0.13 | 0.15               | 0.83   | 0.85 | 0.07 |
| Years on Team                  | -0.10              | 0.30   | 0.73 | -0.17| -0.04              | 0.34   | 0.92 | -0.05|
| Ego Orientation                | 0.56               | 0.22   | 0.01 | 0.86 | 0.36               | 0.24   | 0.13 | 0.49 |
| Task Orientation               | -0.03              | 0.27   | 0.93 | -0.03| -0.51              | 0.35   | 0.15 | -0.58|

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Cell phones are fundamental to college life and culture. The Pew Research Center found that 96% of undergraduate students own a cell phone (2011). Because these devices are nearly always on-hand and offer an increasing array of functions, they are frequently in use. Our own data, from two large surveys, suggests the average college student spends nearly 5 hours per day on their cell phone (Lepp, Barkley et al., 2013 & 2014). In addition, over 80% reported using the cell phone primarily for leisure. Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore the activities, motivations and experiences associated with college students’ leisure time cell phone use.

Despite the ubiquity of cell phones, only a few studies have explored the relationship between cell phone use and leisure (Foley, Holzman & Wearing, 2007; Wang, Parks & Fesenmaier, 2012; White, 2007). Most recently, Lepp (2014) found that high frequency cell phone users depend more on the device for facilitating and experiencing leisure than low frequency users and are less agreeable to turning the cell phone off to experience leisure. In the broader social science literature, there has been a growing interest in understanding the relationship between cell phone use and human behavior. This literature was recently summarized in the Journal of Leisure Research (Lepp, 2014) and suggests many potential connections between cell phone use and leisure. Adding to this, our group identified a negative relationship between cell phone use and physical fitness in college students (Lepp, Barkley et al., 2013). A follow up suggested that cell phone use, despite the device’s inherent mobility, is associated with sedentary behavior and this may partially explain the negative relationship with fitness (Barkley & Lepp, 2013). Lastly, we recently published the results of a large survey of undergraduate students which found that high frequency cell phone users tended to have a lower college grade point average, higher anxiety, and lower satisfaction with life (i.e., happiness) relative to their peers who used the cell phone less often (Lepp, Barkley & Karpinski, 2014). All of this suggests that frequency of cell phone use may be related to leisure behavior and leisure outcomes (psychological and physiological benefits and disbenefits). To investigate further, we posed two questions. Q1: Do the activities, motivations and experiences associated with college students’ typical daily leisure vary with frequency of cell phone use. Q2: Do the activities, motivations and experiences associated with college students’ leisure time cell phone use vary with frequency of cell phone use?

Method

Data collection occurred in two phases. Phase one measured cell phone use in a random sample (N = 305) of students from a large public university. Cell phone use was assessed with the following item, published previously by the authors (2013, 2014): “As accurately as possible, please estimate the total amount of time you spend using your mobile phone each day. Please consider all uses except listening to music. For example, consider calling, texting, Facebook, email, sending photos, gaming, surfing the Internet, watching videos, and all other uses driven by ‘apps’ and software.” The survey also invited respondents to participate in phase two, described as a paid follow up. In all, 292 (95.4%) respondents indicated a desire to participate in the follow up. Of those, 105 were randomly selected and recruited. Fifty six agreed; however, seven did not attend their scheduled appointments. Thus, 49 students (n = 27 females) participated in phase two. The purpose was to interview participants about their leisure behavior, motivations and experiences including leisure time spent using the cell phone. Interviews were structured around
a series of open-ended questions asked of all participants. For this study, six interview questions were of interest: (a) In your daily life, what are the leisure activities in which you most often participate? (b) What are your primary motivations for participating in these activities? (c) How do these daily leisure activities make you feel? (d) Please explain all the ways in which you use your cell phone for leisure. (e) Please think more deeply about the leisure activities you just mentioned, those which depend to some degree on your cell phone. What are your primary motivations for participating in these activities? (f) How do these cell phone dependent leisure activities make you feel? Interview questions a through c related to Q1 and interview questions d through f related to Q2. All participants were provided multiple opportunities to explain and elaborate upon their responses and the interviewer probed participants with follow-up questions until a sufficient depth of understanding was reached. Interview data produced lists of activities, motivations and affective experiences associated with participants’ daily leisure independent of cell phone use as well as for daily leisure which depends upon cell phone use. Activities and motivations were typically expressed with single words or brief phrases. These data were analyzed by categorizing similar responses into single themes which cut across multiple interviews. Experiences were more complex and participants often provided longer explanations. These data were analyzed with an additional step. First, analysis coded each sentence with a descriptive word or phrase. Second, the analysis categorized similar codes into single themes which cut across multiple interviews (Charmaz, 2002). After all the data had been categorized, participants were split into even tertiles based on their total daily cell phone use. Low frequency users averaged 101 min/day (-1) (n = 16, SD = 50), moderate users averaged 293 min/day (-1) (n = 17, SD = 78), and high frequency users averaged 818 min/day -1 (n = 16, SD = 181). To best illustrate emerging trends, frequencies of interview themes were compared between high and low cell phone users. SPSS crosstabs and chi-square were used for this purpose.

**Results and Discussion**

Students’ daily leisure activities were categorized into five themes: physical (e.g. sports, planned exercise, hiking, biking, walking); screen (e.g., TV, computer, Facebook, video games); social (e.g. hanging out with friends, partying); mental (e.g. music, art, cooking, reading); and idle (in the words of the students “sit around,” “lay around”). Participants who mentioned sitting around and lying around as a top leisure activity were asked this follow up question: “what do you do when you sit/lay around?” Responses were: nap, nothing, watch TV, Facebook and talk with friends. Thus, some of these items could have been re-categorized as “screen” or “social” but the researchers choose to create a separate category to highlight the fact that a small number of students initially thought of their typical daily leisure as sitting or “lying around.” Chi-square analysis shows a significant difference between the two groups (X2 = 13.734, p = .008). Low users reported more physical leisure activities while high users reported more screen-based and social activities as well as more sitting and “lying around.” Motivations for the daily leisure activities students listed were categorized into four themes: physical fitness (e.g., to stay in shape, to get in shape, to stay healthy), to feel good (e.g. to feel good, to feel happy, to have fun, to feel accomplished, to feel satisfied), to be social (e.g. to be with friends, to strengthen friendships, to maintain friendships) and to relax (e.g. to relieve stress, to relax). Chi-square analysis shows no significant differences between the two groups in their motivations for daily leisure (X2 = .556, p = .968). Students were also asked to describe the experiences that these common daily leisure activities produced. Experiences were categorized into three themes: positive affect (e.g., happy, great, good, energetic, healthy, positive, excited, free, accomplished), negative affect (e.g., mad, irritated, sluggish), and relaxation (e.g., relaxed, rested). There were
no significant differences between the groups in their reported experiences ($X^2 = 3.544, p = .170$). Both low and high frequency cell phone users described their experience of typical daily leisure in positive terms.

Next, the ways in which college students used their cell phone for leisure were categorized into seven self-explanatory themes: visiting online social networking sites (SNS), using other apps (non-SNS related), texting, surfing the internet, games, calling, and email. Chi-square analysis indicated that high frequency cell phone users reported participating in significantly more of these activities than low frequency users ($X^2 = 20.383, p = .002$). Participants were also asked about their motivations for these cell phone dependent leisure activities. Motivations were categorized into eight themes: social (e.g. to stay connected with friends and family), boredom relief, planning (e.g. planning and coordinating leisure activities), habit (e.g. it is always on hand, it is convenient, it is a habit), obligation (obligation to family and friends to use cell phone), procrastination (e.g. to delay homework), to relax, and to feel good. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant difference between the two groups ($X^2 = 7.946, p = .337$). Social motivations were equally common among low and high frequency cell phone users; however, other motivations appeared to be trending towards a difference. Most noticeably, “boredom relief” as a motivation for leisure time cell phone use was mentioned ten times by high frequency cell phone users but only three times by low users. Lastly, the experiences that participants associated with these cell phone dependent leisure activities were analyzed and eight themes emerged: positive affect (e.g. happy, good, entertained, amused, excited), negative affect (e.g. stressed, anxious, annoyed, bored, mad, addicted, regretful, dissatisfied), connected (e.g. connected to friends and family), organized, indifferent (e.g. “no-strong feelings” as one student said), relaxation, safe, and relieved (in the words of the student “relieved because I’d feel lost without it”). Chi-square shows significant differences between low and high frequency users ($X^2 = 15.475, p = .030$). Specifically, the most common experiences mentioned by low frequency users were categorized as positive affect and as feeling connected; to the contrary, the most common experiences mentioned by high frequency users were categorized as negative affect. The following quote is representative of the negative affect associated with leisure time cell phone use among high cell phone user in this study, “The social network sometimes just makes me feel a little bit tied to my phone. It makes me feel like I have another obligation in my life that I have to stick to … It creates a bit of anxiety and it’s kind of annoying sometimes.” For high users, this was in dramatic contrast to their experience of leisure in general which was overwhelmingly positive.

This study identified several differences between low and high cell phone users’ leisure. Most interestingly, high frequency users described their leisure time cell phone use in negative terms. This raises the question: “why do they continue high frequency use when it is associated with negative affect?” It may be that without reflection, high users are either unaware of this relationship, or are aware but have not thought about changing their behavior (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997). It is also worth noting that boredom relief was a common motivation for high frequency users’ leisure time cell phone use. Leisure time boredom may result from a limited leisure repertoire and a lack of awareness that leisure can provide intrinsic rewards (Weissinger & Caldwell, 1992). Considering these results, along with research connecting cell phone use with increased anxiety and decreased happiness (Lepp, Barkley & Karpinski, 2014), high frequency users should do more than occasionally unplug – they should reflect critically on their leisure time cell phone use and identify intrinsically rewarding alternatives.

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Select References
The Cuyahoga River, in northeast Ohio, gained infamy in 1969 when a portion of the river flowing through Cleveland burned. The image of a burning river caught the nation’s attention and became a catalyzing event in the environmental movement. Since then, the story of the Cuyahoga is the story of the Phoenix. The river has literally risen from the ashes of its past to become the centerpiece of northeast Ohio’s outdoor recreation industry. Today, 22 miles of the river flow through Cuyahoga Valley National Park (CVNP), which preserves 33,000 acres of river valley between Akron and Cleveland. The park is among the nation’s most popular receiving over 2.5 million visits per year (NPS, 2010) and offers a variety of opportunities for outdoor recreation. However, canoeing and recreational kayaking (paddling) are not managed for within the park despite a growing interest in these activities. According to the Outdoor Industry Association (OIA), paddling is one of the fastest growing recreational activities in the US. Likewise, there has been a great increase in paddling along the Cuyahoga. For example, Kent State University (KSU) opened a livery in 2010 along a stretch of the Cuyahoga near campus. Since opening, the livery has averaged over 2,500 participants per season. In response to the growing demand for paddling along the Cuyahoga, as well as stakeholder input, CVNP is now exploring options for developing paddling opportunities along the stretch of river flowing through the park. Indeed, the park’s newly approved Trail Management Plan includes, for the first time, river access for paddlers (NPS, 2013). The purpose of this study was to investigate local paddlers’ motivations for Cuyahoga River use and their perceptions of management ideas.

Much of the research on paddlers’ motivations and site preferences have focused on identifying motivations and preferred site attributes (Ewert, 2013; Galloway, 2010&2012; Lee, Graefe & Li, 2007; Tarrant, Cordell & Kibler, 1997). Commonly identified motivations include: social reasons, experiencing nature, challenge/achievement, relaxation/escape, equipment use, physical fitness, identity development and maintenance, and novelty/curiosity/exploration. Site attributes important to paddlers include: facilities (parking, restrooms, outfitters, etc.), natural environment, density of paddlers, convenience, safety, and appropriate levels of challenge. This same research has also found that paddlers’ motivations and site preferences vary with level of specialization. That is to say, more specialized paddlers tend to have different motivations and site preferences than less specialized paddlers (Lee, Graefe & Li, 2007; Galloway, 2010 & 2012). Specialization is typically thought of as a multidimensional concept including experience, skill level, centrality of activity to lifestyle, enduring involvement, and equipment investment (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000). As such, it appears level of specialization is an important construct for river recreation managers to understand as their mission is generally to provide recreational opportunities suitable for a range of paddlers including low, moderate, and high specialists. Knowledge of paddler’s motivations and site preferences is useful information for managers. But research should also consider paddlers’ perceptions of actual management ideas or proposed policies; however, such research is limited. An exception is Kline et al. (2012) who investigated paddler’s perceptions of funding options for river trails. They found only moderate support for user generated funding. Furthermore, support varied by level of specialization with the most specialized showing the least support for user funding, perhaps because they would bear the greatest cost due to higher participation rates. Considering the growing interest in paddling nationwide, the need for more
research on the subject, and the immediate need to better understand paddling along the Cuyahoga, this research asks the following questions: 1) what are paddlers’ motivations for paddling the Cuyahoga? 2) what are paddlers’ perceptions of particular management ideas for the Cuyahoga? 3) do motivations and/or perceptions of management ideas vary by paddlers’ level of specialization? Findings should provide theoretical and practical information beneficial to river recreation management in the US.

**Methods**

An online survey was used to measure paddler’s demographics, paddling history, level of specialization, motivations, and perceptions of river management ideas. Invitations to complete the survey were sent by email to local paddlers who had either used the services of KSU’s livery during the 2013 season or were members of a local paddling association. In all, 1013 invitations were sent. Invitations were followed up with two reminders. After four weeks, 221 paddlers completed the entire survey for a response rate of 22%. Specialization was measured with three separate variables adapted from Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) and Lee, Graefe and Li (2007): self-reported skill level (novice, intermediate, advanced, expert), enduring involvement (13 items, $\alpha = .930, n = 211$), and number of days spent paddling during the past year. Following the method of Lee, Graefe and Li (2007), these three variables were then standardized into Z-scores and summed to form a single measure of specialization. Motivations were assessed using 20 items taken from existing studies (Galloway, 2010&2012; Lee, Graefe & Li, 2007). Participants indicated the importance of each potential motivation using a 5 point Likert-type scale (5 = extremely important). Fifteen management ideas were developed after informal discussions with managers at CVNP. Participants indicated the appropriateness of each concept using a 4 point scale (1 = extremely appropriate). Lastly, canoe/kayak ownership was measured with a simple yes/no question. Analysis was as follows. A principal components factor analysis was used to reduce the 20 motivation and 15 management items into distinct scales. Scale reliability was assessed with Chronbach’s alpha. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each scale to determine which motivations were the strongest and which management ideas had the most support. Level of specialization was used to divide participants into three groups of equal size (low, moderate, and high level of specialization). ANOVA with a Bonferroni posthoc analysis was used to determine if the motivation or management scales varied by level of specialization.

**Results and Discussion**

Age ranged from 20 to 78 with a mean of 47.2 (SD = 13.6). Males comprised 72% (n = 159) of respondents. Canoe/kayak ownership varied according to level of specialization: 97% of high, 74% of moderate, and 21% of low specialists owned their own equipment ($X^2 = 42.35, p = .000$). The majority of respondents (81%) would like to paddle the Cuyahoga more often. Respondents judged the experience of paddling the Cuyahoga as positive. Overall experience was ranked on a scale of 1 to 10 (10 being the best) and 74.5% of respondents scored the experience a 7 or better.

Factor analysis was applied to the 20 items measuring motivations for paddling. Adopting the criterion of an eigenvalue equal to or greater than one produced a four factor solution which explained 58% of the variance. Fishing as a motivation for paddling did not fit into any group, furthermore, respondents stated this item was not an important motivation ($M = 2.12, SD = 1.28$) so it was dropped from further analysis. The items in each factor were summed and then divided by the number of items in the factor to produce a single measure which can be interpreted by the original 5 point scale (5 = extremely important). In order of importance (and with the individual items, scale mean and alpha in parentheses), the factors were: 1) intrinsic motivations related to paddling (to enjoy paddling, to enjoy the river, to experience peace, to feel at one with nature, to
escape daily routine: $M=4.33$, $\alpha = .85$), 2) learning about and experiencing nature (to learn about environment, to experience new things, to view the scenery, to visit local parks, to view wildlife: $M=4.05$, $\alpha = .80$), 3) socializing with others in the outdoors (to be with like-minded people, to be with family, to do some hiking, to camp: $M=3.27$, $\alpha = .63$), 4) motivations related to challenge and adventure (to improve paddling skills, to test abilities, to chance danger, to keep physically fit, to use my equipment: $M=3.22$, $\alpha = .78$). Thus, four underlying factors were identified, each with a mean greater than 3. This suggests that each was perceived as important.

Factor analysis was then applied to the 15 items measuring the perceived appropriateness of various management ideas. Adopting the criterion of an eigenvalue equal to or greater than one produced a four factor solution which explained 65% of the variance. The items in each factor were summed and then divided by the number of items in the factor to produce a single measure which can be interpreted by the original 4 point scale (1 = extremely appropriate). In order of appropriateness (and with the individual items, scale mean and alpha in parentheses), the factors were: river management and services (establish livery, manage river hazards, informational signage, access and portages, emergency services, information on river conditions and water quality: $M=1.61$, $\alpha = .80$), develop parking and restrooms (only those two items: $M=1.69$, $\alpha = .89$), provide complementary activities (connections to hiking trails, campsites, fishing: $M=1.72$, $\alpha = .78$), rationing use (limit number of people, issue permits: $M=2.92$, $\alpha = .69$). Of the four underlying factors identified, only rationing use was perceived as inappropriate.

Finally, an ANOVA was used to test whether level of specialization influenced motivations or perceptions of management ideas. For each of the four motivation factors, results showed that moderately and highly specialized individuals were significantly more motivated than less specialized individuals ($F \geq 4.16$, $p \geq .017$). Although differences existed between groups, all groups felt intrinsic motivations, learning about and experiencing nature, and socializing with others in the outdoors were important ($M \geq 3.1$). However, individuals with a low level of specialization did not feel motivations related to challenge and adventure were important ($M = 2.78$); however, moderate and high specialists did ($M \geq 3.3$). Concerning management ideas, results show no significant differences between groups for perceptions of river management and services, parking and restrooms, and developing complementary activities ($F \leq .571$, $p \geq .566$). These management ideas were considered equally appropriate, regardless of specialization. In contrast, all groups perceived the idea of rationing use as inappropriate, yet high specialists had much stronger opinions against it than moderate and low specialists ($F = 21.21$, $p = .000$).

As paddling grows in popularity nationwide and along the Cuyahoga in particular, these findings have practical and theoretical importance. Results support existing literature by demonstrating the significant relationship between specialization and motivation. Results extend current understanding by demonstrating that it is possible to identify management ideas which all paddlers, regardless of specialization, find equally appropriate. Ideas intended to improve access, service and safety were widely viewed as appropriate. On the other hand, rationing use was viewed as inappropriate with high specialists having significantly stronger feelings. Practically speaking, knowledge of motivations is helpful for developing opportunities that meet paddlers’ needs. Regarding management, paddlers’ are in favor of increased access, however, should access be rationed then steps (education) should be taken to mitigate a potential negative effect.

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Researchers have identified leisure as an important source of empowerment for women in activities such as motorcycle riding (Roster, 2007), martial arts (Velija et al., 2007), pole dancing (Holland, 2010), and sport in general (Krane et al., 2004). Raisborough and Bhatti (2007) define empowerment as: “women’s ‘power’ to create new opportunities and identities which are not automatically or uncritically prescribed by traditional gender norms” (p. 463). Elements of empowerment include independence, freedom, challenge of gender norms, self-esteem, self-determination, acquisition and mastery of skills, and social benefits (Brace-Govan, 2004; Green, 1998; Narushima, 2004; Shaw, 2001; Wheaton & Tomlinson, 1998; Yarnal et al., 2006). Moreover, dominant ideologies, especially those associated with traditional views of femininity and masculinity, are reproduced through cultural practices, such as leisure (Shaw, 1994). Shaw argued that “if leisure experiences represent situations of choice and self-determination, they also provide opportunities for individuals to exercise personal power, and such power can be used as a form of resistance to imposed gender-related constraints or restrictions” (p. 15). Leisure involvement can give women confidence to challenge gendered stereotypes and can result in an increased sense of self and autonomy (Havitz et al., 2013), and empowerment for women by facilitating confidence, enhanced social capital, and increased assertiveness (Martin et al., 2006; McGinnis et al., 2003). Missing from the literature, however, are studies that allow us to better understand how and under what circumstances experiences of physically active leisure facilitate empowerment for women. The purpose of this study was to explore experiences of empowerment among women who play tackle football.

Methods

Fifteen participants were recruited from players on a women’s tackle football team in the Western Women’s Canadian Football League (WWCFL). The WWCFL utilizes the same rules and field dimensions (often the same stadiums) as the men’s Canadian Football League and players from within this league often play on the Canadian Women’s National Football team. Participants were invited to participate through an email sent to the entire team. To increase participation, one researcher attended a practice to explain the study and answer questions. The sample included a diverse range of women in terms of age, marital status, level of education, sexual orientation, and degree of previous experience with sports. All participants were White except for one who self-identified as First Nations. Participants completed semi-structured, individual interviews, which were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. Participants were asked to describe their experiences playing football generally and were specifically asked to describe their experiences as women playing a sport often considered masculine or male-dominated. Furthermore, participants were asked to comment on their experiences playing a sport with a high physical contact. Data were analyzed using the constant comparison method (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Participants were recruited and interviewed until no new codes emerged suggesting data saturation. We analyzed data using initial, focused, and selective coding (Charmaz, 2006). To ensure trustworthiness, we utilized note-taking, debriefing, memo writing, reflexive journaling, and member checks (Creswell, 2009).
Findings

Three over-arching themes emerged from the data, including: a sense of strength related to the physicality of the sport, experiencing empowerment through being able to play football despite potential challenges, and off-the-field empowerment resulting from being part of the team.

“It was love at first hit”. Most participants described a sense of empowerment that was exemplified by memories of the first time they “took a hit” while playing football. For example, Lydia explained, “in my first game…a big girl…took me out…And I’m laying on the field and I’m like, ‘what am I doing?’ And then I stopped and I’m like, ‘wait, I’m ok…I can take a hit’…it made me feel strong.” Participants appreciated the physicality of the game and the ability to demonstrate and recognize their physical abilities. Kelly described the pride she felt in her body saying, “My body is something that I keep between the defense and the quarterback so I am using my body for somebody else’s body safe…laying a hit…it’s just a rush…It’s just pure pride in what you are able to do and then the fact that you have figured out how to make your body do these things.” Participants appreciated the physical challenge inherent in the game and often described feeling strong and more confident in their bodies as they recognized and experienced what they were able to do with their bodies. Several participants specified that their experiences with hitting and getting hit in football were particularly meaningful because they were relatively new (most players had started playing tackle football as adults) and because they are outside the norm for women’s sports. Rachel related, “we had one particular blocking drill…There were just 2 of us [defensive players] and 6 [receivers]…but I could knock them all over. I’ve never felt stronger… I’d never really had an opportunity to put myself against people…even in hockey women aren’t supposed to body check.”

“Because I can”. When asked why they play tackle football, several participants responded with the phrase “because I can.” This expression had a multi-faceted meaning. For some, this phrase highlighted the fact that the opportunity existed to play tackle football and to play a sport at a competitive level. Susan commented, “the team let me live this lifelong dream…For me, society spent all those years saying ‘you cannot do that’ and I’m like ‘well screw you, I can do it.’” For some participants “because I can” was related to their physical ability to play a contact team sport at a later age. Four participants were in their 30s and three were in their 40s. In fact, Samantha had previously played team handball competitively and been told at 28 that she was too old to try out for the national team. She emphasized her pride in making the Canadian National Women’s Football Team at 31. Finally, several participants expressed excitement at the progress of women’s sports evidenced by the existence of a competitive women’s tackle football team and they found it meaningful to be involved in the early stages if this progress. When asked about the experience of playing a sport that is often seen as masculine, Kelly responded, “It’s a lot of fun to feel like you’re breaking boundaries…like we’re making a change. It’s interesting to tell other people about it because there is a lot of disbelief like ‘You play football?...You play like with real hitting and you’re not in the lingerie league?’…you’re representing things that we see as traditionally masculine.” In particular, participants valued the sense of ownership and input they had in creating the team and adapting it to be accommodating for women. Jacquelyn, one of the founding members of the team illustrated this point saying, “One of our girls gave birth…and when she came back to play her kid was only four months old and it was just so empowering to see this…mom just breast feeds quietly for ten to fifteen minutes, ok, pads back on, away we go. I’ve never seen that ever! And that’s so empowering...your duty as a mom.

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2 To ensure confidentiality, all names have been replaced by pseudonyms.
doesn’t interfere with the team…It’s women’s football and it’s made for women by women and…it accommodates everything about women…the woman as a whole person.”

“You come for the sport, but you stay for the team”. Playing football provided an outlet for participants to experience success and build confidence in a safe social atmosphere. Several used the words “family” or “sisters” to describe teammates and attributed meaning to their sense of belonging to the team and to feeling valued by teammates. All participants described the team as being diverse and accepting of all players. Several participants described off-the-field impacts of playing and highlighted the team atmosphere as essential to these benefits. For example, when Natalie joined the team she was doing some “soul searching” and “trying to come to terms with [her] sexuality.” The players on the team accepted her without question and provided support when she came out to her family. She commented, “Football has given me purpose…and more confidence in who I am as a person.” Although some participants described “drama” or disagreements as part of the group dynamic, they specified that these things were overcome as they worked toward a common goal. For many, the experience of developing social and physical skills within the supportive team environment led to a sense of accomplishment and increased confidence. According to Brianne, “I would not be the person I am right now if I did not have football…I was shy and kind of socially awkward…the confidence that I got from football just helped me with so much…I didn’t have to look girly and do girl things, I could just play football and be myself.” When asked why the team might provide such a supportive atmosphere, participants provided two explanations. First as “the ultimate team sport,” the players felt that trust was an important part of playing football to reduce risk of injury and they felt that the trust they developed extended off the field as well. Second, participants felt that as female football players they already understood being different and therefore were accepting of players who were different in other ways (e.g., age, race, sexual orientation). Brooke commented, “you’re already on the fringe as a women’s football player…if you are the kind of person who can’t accept something that’s not super mainstream, you’re probably not playing to begin with!”

**Discussion**

The findings highlight empowerment through participation in non-traditional sport for women. The female tackle football players described a sense of empowerment as they utilized and created opportunities outside of traditional gender norms (Raisborough & Bhatti, 2007), which led to increased confidence, sense of self, and social skills. Similar to what Yarnal and colleagues (2006, 2011), non-traditional leisure activities, such as tackle football, constitute a fertile arena wherein women experience empowerment not available in their daily lives. Furthermore, participants often described their experiences of empowerment as an embodied experience. This supports recent research suggesting physically active leisure activities can provide an ideal setting for women to experience empowerment through their bodies and their bodies’ interaction with the environment (Velija et al., 2012; Yarnal et al., 2006). The findings highlight the importance of the social environment in embodied experiences of leisure (Yarnal et al., 2011) and suggest team sports can provide an ideal setting for facilitating such experiences. Finally, findings highlight the potential for women to feel empowered in their resistance against societal norms, related to gender and age, through physically active leisure. Future research should explore the potential for empowerment through physically active leisure in diverse settings.

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Yarnal, C., Son, J., & Liechty, T. (2011). “She was buried in her purple dress and her red hat and all of our members wore full ‘Red Hat Regalia to celebrate her life’”: Dress, embodiment and older women's leisure: Reconfiguring the ageing process. *Journal of Aging Studies, 25*(1), 52-61.
Deficits in physical activity (PA) and science, math, technology and engineering (STEM) education are pressing youth issues. In the US, youth obesity levels have reached epidemic proportions (Flegal et al., 2010) and STEM achievement levels are consistently low in relation to other developed nations (e.g., Tabernik & Williams, 2010). However, the multifaceted causes of PA and STEM deficits hinder many discipline-specific initiatives designed to alleviate these problems (e.g., Brownell et al., 2009; Hattie & Anderman, 2013). Integrated transdisciplinary programs are essential to effectively address these issues. Integrating science with other disciplines and providing meaningful applications can enhance engagement in STEM topics (Katehi, Pearson, & Feder, 2009; Sanders, 2009). However, schools often isolate STEM education from complimentary disciplines. Similarly, PA opportunities are typically reserved for recess or physical education classes rather than being integrated throughout the curriculum. In addition to physical health, PA supports STEM learning by enhancing problem solving ability and concentration (e.g. Shephard, 1997). Multiple studies also suggest a positive relationship between outdoor ‘green’ PA and physical and mental well-being (Ryan et al., 2010) and physical benefits with regard to obesity and inactivity (Bird, 2007). These findings suggest that PA and STEM education issues could be addressed simultaneously through programs that integrate outdoor adventure-based PA and STEM education to enhance student engagement in both areas.

The current study investigated how an outdoor adventure program could be applied to address the transdisciplinary youth issues of PA engagement and STEM education. Psychological engagement (flow) and self-determination theory (SDT) constructs (e.g. intrinsic motivation, learning climate) provide meaningful frameworks to guide and evaluate integrated outdoor adventure-based programs (e.g., Sibthorp, Paisley, Gookin, & Furman, 2008). Adventure activities promote optimally engaging states such as flow that enhance learning (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999) and provide increased opportunities to experience autonomy, competence, and interpersonal connections. These factors in turn enhance achievement learning, development, and optimal experiences (e.g. Shernoff, Csikszentmihalyi, Shneider & Shernoff, 2003). Adventure activities also have been shown to increase participants’ connection to, and appreciation of, the natural world (Brymer & Gray, 2010). In light of these findings, the current investigators expected that the outdoor adventure-based STEM education course developed for this study would be associated with enhanced student engagement, flow and SDT in PA and STEM topics as well as a heightened appreciation of nature.

Method
This mixed methods study employed both self-report questionnaires and focus groups. Quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire instruments has been reported previously. The current paper centers on qualitative results from focus groups and open-ended questionnaire sections completed by 22 high school students (x̅ = 15.7 years, 41% females, 59% males) who participated in a five-day integrated outdoor adventure STEM education program centered on snow science and climate change as an alternative spring break experience. Questionnaires were administered over four consecutive days pre- and post-program in students’ normal school setting, and during the program. Open-ended sections asked students to report any positive or
negative experiences that day. Four focus groups were conducted with all students on the final day of the program to assess their experiences (30 – 60 minutes, n = 4 – 6). Questions included: “What did you think about your classes here compared with your normal science and math classes?” “Can you recall one or more experiences this week when you were fully focused on/engaged in an activity? “How did your physical activity here compare with your normal physical activities?” “How did you feel about the instructional styles?” “Have you noticed any changes as a result of this course?” The investigators followed an inductive-deductive qualitative interview and coding method (Houge Mackenzie, Hodge, & Boyes, 2011). Interviews were transcribed and reviewed for emergent themes (inductive), and themes related to flow, SDT and nature constructs (deductive). Key themes in each transcript were assigned a code number and title in a master codebook. Iterative coding was conducted by three investigators, as well as an external investigator with content knowledge and several years of outdoor education experience who was not involved in the research project. The external investigator independently verified coding on transcripts to establish trustworthiness (Creswell, 1998).

Results
Analyses revealed evidence of anticipated themes (flow/optimal engagement, self-determination constructs, and nature appreciation) and unexpected, emergent themes about new experiences, applied education, and sense of balance between physical and mental activities. Key themes and representative quotes are identified here.

Flow: Students reported being absorbed and focused, especially during outdoor activities such as snowboarding. These quotes highlight that sense of flow: “But this is – it’s almost unreal how the time flies by and just how you just go. And you don’t stop, you don’t think, you don’t anything but breathing, just go down the hill. It’s pretty – that’s what I lived for, just the snowboarding, oh, gosh.” “I think my – the most focused I was, was probably on the first snow pit on the mountain, because [the instructor] went into this whole thing about how avalanches start and this stuff, I think it was very cool”; and “And then definitely skiing, you just like get into it and like that’s all you’re focused on.”

Autonomy: Students indicated they had more choice of activities and content in the adventure education program than in ‘normal’ school settings, saying, “Oh, yeah, definitely, because like usually teachers will set up a labs and there’s only one certain way to do it, where like out here, it was – it had a lot of different choices and stuff,” and, “Yeah, Like, we’re doing something that we enjoy. And we actually like signed up for what we wanted to do, instead of just being forced into it in class.” Conversely, students reported less autonomy in their daily schedules, which were fairly prescribed.

Competence: Students gained competence in both the snow and science activities. Although students most often mentioned competence in snow activities, they also described having meaningful opportunities to learn about science. For example, “I feel like these five days I've learned more than I would in a month at the high school...in any class”, and, “When we’re out here, it gives us an opportunity to see what our abilities are and not just be graded.”

Relatedness: Students described a sense of relatedness to each other and the instructors. “Doing the snow pits you really depended on everybody to perform their role and to do well. So, I think like we are more dependent upon each other, which is cool, because it helps strengthen relationships and stuff,” and, “They also treat us like we’re older. Like, they gave us – they don’t hand us papers and tell us what to do...They expect us to know what we’re doing. And that we have the information that we need...They treat us like we’re older than others do.” This latter quote also underscores a learning climate that is autonomy-supportive and competency-building.

Appreciation and Enjoyment of Nature: Students described an appreciation for nature and enjoyment while learning in an outdoor setting. One student said, “Like today, on some of the –
the ski runs like higher up on the mountain, like, you just stop for a second, and the view just like takes your breath away... at that moment, you're like really happy... not the feeling that you feel in school...That's just like what this whole week has kind of been about. Like during the snowshoeing...all the way up, you are seeing all the trees and stuff. And then you're learning what they are, and how they work and stuff. That's really cool.” Another said, “I think when we were holding our, like, gloves out to catch snowflakes and seeing the different types of snowflakes, that was awesome, because...I never paid attention to different types of snowflakes. I just knew they were clamps of snow falling on my glove. But now that I know the different types, it's pretty sweet to just like look at it for a second and clarify what they are.” There were several related and additional themes. Due to space limitations, there is only room for brief mention of these themes.  “Real World”, New and Applied Learning Experiences: “Going out in new adventures with the powder that deep - I've never ever had that experience before. So, it was definitely really awesome for me to get in there, and actually take all of my skills, and put them to the test.” “What's helpful about this is that you're willing, but also you have the opportunity to fail. And like, not fail...you have the opportunity to apply yourself in certain ways and not apply yourself in others.” Sense of Balance: Students reported a balance between focus and relaxation, being serious and playful, and between physical and mental. “Like, after a typical school day I feel so worn out mentally, but it's kind of nice to like workout physically. And so, like my brain wasn't doing all the work, it was my body and my brain working together. So, that made it a lot more enjoyable. And the beauty of course, it helped a lot.” This quote also highlights an appreciation and enjoyment of nature.

Discussion
This study illustrates the effectiveness of connecting outdoor adventure programs with current social issues (e.g. health and education needs). It also suggests that the effectiveness of these programs may be due, at least in part, to participants (a) feeling optimally engaged (flow); (b) fulfilling basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness and other SDT constructs (e.g., intrinsic motivation, value, enjoyment); (c) increasing physical activity; (d) having new and applied learning experiences; and (e) enhancing an appreciation of the natural world. These findings are supported by research demonstrating that outdoor adventure activities may enhance optimal engagement and support student autonomy (e.g. Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999; Sibthorp et al., 2008). One interesting finding from the current study was that students described a sense of balance beyond challenge and skill as identified in flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi). This sense of balance included balances between seriousness and playfulness and the physical and the mental, findings that point to fruitful areas for future research in adventure STEM education. Understanding the optimal balance between physical and mental challenges and skills that promote significant improvements in STEM learning and health outcomes would be particularly salient. The study findings expand current knowledge by providing an outdoor adventure-based model for integrating PA and STEM education and by proposing mechanisms by which this model may enhance student learning and motivation.

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Selected References


Adequate representation for athletes with physical disabilities in elite athletics is lacking (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001), and there are far fewer adaptive sporting opportunities for individuals with physical disabilities compared to their able-bodied counterparts for several reasons (French & Hainsworth, 2001). Constraint negotiation as a theme has been addressed within leisure literature; however, specific to athletes with physical disabilities there is a lack of understanding of the motivations that this population has to reach and maintain an elite level of participation (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993). Learning how successful adaptive athletes have maintained motivation to become established athletes offers insights on how others may be motivated or assisted to do the same. The need for sense of autonomy, competence, and relatedness drive the motivations of individuals (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These needs impact motivation and psychological well being in a variety of contexts, including work, school, sports, and parenting. When these needs are not met, motivation decreases.

The field of coaching science has expanded steadily throughout the past three decades, but most of the research has focused on coaching able-bodied athletes. While differences exist between coaching Paralympic athletes and able-bodied athletes, there are many similarities (DePauw & Gavron, 2005). Disability has moved past the conceptualization of impairment and is commonly perceived as being socially constructed (Higgins, 1992), encouraging a greater participation in adaptive sport (Howe, 2008). Disability is often viewed with negative perceptions and this may be a causal attribute affecting an individual’s lack of motivation to take part in opportunities such as team games and individual activities (Higgins, 1992). For those with disabilities, those taking part in competitive sports are more self-motivated and have received significant support (Banack, Sobiston, & Bloom, 2011), as well as having an early introduction to sport from parents and significant others (Groff, Lundberg, & Zabriskie 2009). These themes have stemmed from previous research, yet to date, no research has examined adaptive athletes’ motivation on areas other than their coaching experiences to gain a greater depth of knowledge with more qualitative methods.

The purpose of this study is to fill a gap within the literature by further exploring not only the outcomes of participating in elite adaptive sports, but specifically what motivates participants to do so. Through establishing the motivations behind individuals with disabilities participating in elite sports, this study can provide understandings that may lead to increased participation. Specifically, the aim of the present study is to identify motivations for people with disabilities to participate in elite adaptive sports through the framing of Self Determination Theory (SDT).

**Methods**

Because motivation is a complex and difficult to articulate concept, semi-structured, open ended interviews (Patton, 2002) were the primary data collection tool used in the investigation to obtain a rich description of elite athletes’ motivations for participating in adaptive sport. All research was performed with the approval of the Institutional Review Board.

Interviews were conducted with 23 adaptive sport athletes who considered themselves at the elite level. In total, there were 6 females and 17 males with ages ranging from 19 to 58 and an average age of 24.3. Demographic information on race and ethnicity was not requested. The investigation examined motivation from a lifespan perspective, beginning with adaptive recreational sport in childhood to current elite level adaptive sport pursuits. Participants were
recruited via email and flyer solicitations at a large public university in the Midwest as well as through email solicitations from an adaptive sport organization in the Northeast. Initial participants provided additional participants through snowball sampling.

A semi-structured interview guide (Patton, 2002) was developed to obtain rich description of participants’ motivations to participate in adaptive sport with a focus on the principles of SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Semi-structured interview guides allow for interviewers to explore specific questions with participants in whatever order they come up and expand on interesting lines of discussion without the constraints of a more standardized interview protocol (Patton, 2002). The focus of interview questions addressed participants’ senses of autonomy, relatedness, and competence in relation to their lifetime adaptive sport experiences and how those senses affected their motivations. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim prior to data analysis. All participants were given pseudonyms, and any schools, organizations, and identifying information were changed.

Interviews were analyzed using a combination of open and axial coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) informed by SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Open coding involved reviewing the data as a whole as well as responses of each participant, comparing responses by similar question or concept, labeling concepts, and organizing concepts into general categories. Axial coding focused on elucidating connections between concepts and developing thematic categories that best described participants’ motivations in relation to adaptive sport at the elite level. Five researchers coded the interview transcripts individually then collaborated for consensus building and theme development for increased reliability of the final themes.

To improve the credibility, dependability, and trustworthiness of the analysis, a variety of procedures suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) were followed. First, member checking of individual participants’ interview transcripts was carried out to ensure participants felt that their voices were accurately represented through their interviews. Second, researchers initially coded all data and independently developed themes prior to comparing emerging themes and coding collaboratively to increase the reliability of the final themes. Third, negative case analysis was conducted to locate any exceptions to themes as they developed. When negative cases were discovered, themes were refined until all data were accounted for and explained. Finally, data were triangulated by comparing individual responses against responses of others, particularly in relation to similarities such as gender and type of disability.

Results

The first theme to emerge was that participants were *early starters in recreational activities*. Most interview participants were involved in multiple recreational activities throughout their childhood. Participants subsequently became more serious and competitive in a specific activity during adolescence and throughout their mid to late twenties. Second, *constraint negotiation* was an issue for those participating in sports opportunities. While expressed as largely positive, participation in sport was not without its’ boundaries and necessarily negotiation of potential and impeding constraints. Next, *effective support systems* in place beyond that of coaching was something that all participants discussed. Having supportive peers, friends, teammates, teachers, and family members was a common positive attribute to one’s participation in their athletic endeavors. An unexpected theme of *empowerment and advocacy* for others with disabilities emerged. Awareness of one’s participation in adaptive sports enabled a level of empowerment and allowed a platform to advocate for and educate others about disability and sport. Further, having *physical and mental motivations* was apparent as some motivations for continuing participation at the elite level were for physical health and mental enjoyment. Some athletes saw
their health as a priority and did not consider that their disability hindered their potential to succeed. Another theme included, *individual versus team sport participation* related to whether participants were involved in activities considered either team or individual sports. Supportive teammates and camaraderie was mutual among both individual and team sports participants. Lastly, being strongly *focused on goals* appeared in almost every interview as one of the most prominent themes as participants always had this sense of focus. It was evident during conversations with all participants when asked about long-term and short-term goals; they had valuable answers that had been well thought out.

**Discussions**

There is a scarcity of research to explain why individuals with physical disabilities participate in sports at the elite level. This analysis makes clear ideas that constitute motivation to participate in elite adaptive athletics. These findings were related to coach and family support, team experiences, goal setting, drive to be active, and empowerment, and advocacy. As the research provides a foundation for why elite adaptive sports athletes participate, educators, coaches, and parents can encourage and support more individuals with disabilities to engage in adaptive athletics. Analysis of the interviews provides a greater level of understanding and insight to determine that people with disabilities participate in elite sports activities for several uniquely similar reasons. The experience of participating in elite adaptive sports affords the athlete a more supportive environment. Teammates helped to push participants to perform at higher and more competitive levels, which enabled them to achieve personal goals. Many athletes shared stories of how athletic participation gave them a personal responsibility to succeed and contribute to the field of adaptive sports.

Encouragement to participate in sports activities was provided by the institution, coaches, and family/friend networks. The athletes’ disability was not a recognized constraint by these support systems. The encouragement received from various support systems gave athletes a strong determination to accomplish their goals. The cycle of creating and accomplishing goals supported the athlete’s continued persistence to participate in adaptive sports and recreation. Over time these athletes established even more challenging goals. The athletes felt that accomplishing these goals contributed to their heightened determination to participate and compete at the elite level. Perceived competence and autonomy were also significant antecedents to participation in adaptive sports as the athletes felt they could make a difference in others lives because they were established elite athletes.

The presence of a knowledgeable coach and supportive teammates also fostered athletic competence and autonomy. The coach’s guidance supplemented with team support allowed the athletes to maximize their performance in and commitment to their desired sport. Negotiating challenges and constraints is a skill that necessitates resources that have the potential to increase motivation in sports and consequently elite sports participation. Elite athletes were able to contribute back to their community and raise awareness about adaptive sports, which may impact the motivation of other potential elite athletes. Overall more research is needed on the motivations of adaptive athletes in order to further explore this sociological phenomenon.

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INFLUENCE OF RECREATION IN THE LIVES OF LOW-INCOME COMMITTED COUPLES
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Karla A. Henderson, North Carolina State University

Recent economic conditions have increased the number of low-income adults living in the United States. Many adults remain unemployed or underemployed, or are unemployable. Nearly one-third of working families struggle financially to provide for their basic needs (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2009). Resulting financial stress can affect emotional and relational health, particularly for low-income couples (Black & Lobo, 2008; Orthner, Jones-Sanpei, & Williamson, 2004). Financial pressures magnify the everyday challenges couples face in maintaining healthy relationships.

Recreation participation can provide benefits to couples including stress relief and cohesion. Couple pursuits, including those activities that require partners to interact with one another as they participate, can strengthen marital bonds, improve marital satisfaction, and foster communication (Crawford, Houts, Huston, & George, 2002; Huston, 2009; Orthner, 1976; Orthner & Mancini, 1991). Lack of monetary resources may affect the frequency and types of activities for couples.

Even with few temporal or financial resources, low-income couples and families find and make opportunities to engage in meaningful ways with one another (Roy, Tubbs, & Burton, 2004; Scott & McCarville, 2008). Everyday activities, such as mealtimes, preparing for bed, or running errands can be enjoyable, play-like events for couples (Huston, 2000; Marks, Huston, Johnson, & MacDermid, 2001). Enjoyable daily responsibilities and experiences may be seen as recreational to low-income couples.

Background

Early research (Orthner, 1976) identified leisure interaction patterns associated with marital satisfaction. Orthner found that joint activities (i.e., those requiring focused engagement by both partners) had the strongest positive association. Subsequent research supported these findings (c.f., Hill, 1988, Holman & Jacquart, 1988).

These early studies became the basis for another line research: the Core and Balance Model of Family Leisure (Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001, 2003). This model has been useful for examining recreation activities and their association with bonding and adaptability among family members. More recent studies have used this model while focusing on couple relationships (c.f., Agate, J., Zabriskie, Agate, S., & Poff, 2009; Johnson, Zabriskie, and Hill, 2006).

These lines of research have provided an understanding of the role of recreation in strengthening relationships. However, most recreation-related literature concentrates on attitudes and behaviors of middle-class white populations. Studies conducted by family researchers often target couples and those with low incomes, but infrequently investigate the role of recreation in their relationships. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore the influence of recreation in the lives of low-income committed couples. The meanings couples attached to those experiences were also examined as well as factors that facilitate and hinder participation. The resulting Continuum of Orientations to Recreation for Couples (CORC) was proposed.

Methods

A purposive sample of 25 couples who identified themselves as married or in married-like relationships was selected for this study. Participants were recruited through local food pantries that screened for low-income status. Data were collected from both partners together through
semi-structured interviews lasting about an hour, which were conducted in the couples’ homes, at the food pantries, or in a public venue. Couples were given a $50 gift card to a regional grocery store chain as an incentive for participating. An interpretive approach to data collection and analysis was employed using coding, memo writing, and theorizing. Interviews were transcribed verbatim and MaxQDA software was used to assist with the coding process.

**Results**

Theorizing of the data led to two substantive theories. First, low-income couples engaged in a range of recreation activities individually, together, and with others, with financial status as one factor that influenced their recreation involvement. Second, low-income couples valued shared couple recreation for its relational benefits and its residual contributions to daily life. This theorizing led to the development of a Continuum of Orientations to Recreation for Couples (CORC) to conceptualize the recreation behaviors of couples. Three relational orientations on the continuum were independent, others, and shared couple recreation (Table 1). These orientations indicated where partners focused their attention during participation. Within orientations, several categories were identified.

**Table 1. Continuum of Orientations to Recreation for Couples (CORC)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Orientation</th>
<th>Others Orientation</th>
<th>Shared Couple Orientation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Individual Pursuits</td>
<td>1. Group experience</td>
<td>1. Support for partner’s recreation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Few engagements in couple recreation</td>
<td>2. Family recreation</td>
<td>2. Utilitarian couple experiences</td>
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In the independent orientation, a partner’s attention was on the particular activity. Individual activities were pursuits that one partner engaged in alone (e.g., writing or taking a run). Some partners participated independently from each other for expressed reasons such as a lack of ability, interest, or willingness. These couples undertook only occasional recreation activities together. Couples with young children often cited family activities as substitutes for couple-only activities. Diversionary activities such as television watching provided opportunities for couples to relax together, but their focus was generally on the screen rather than the partner.

Recreation had an others orientation when the individual’s primary focus was on people other than one’s partner. Activities were categorized as group experiences when the couple engaged in service to others. Family recreation with immediate or extended family members was a common form of recreation, particularly for couples with children in the home.

Pursuits in which partners focused their attention on each other were classified as shared couple orientation. At times, partners provided support for their partners’ recreation through spectating or engaging in conversation about the interest rather than by participating together. Utilitarian couple experiences such as yard work or preparing meals were valued by couples for the satisfaction and enjoyment of accomplishing work together. Impromptu shared couple recreation included activities that couples engaged in spontaneously together. These contrasted with planned shared couple recreation, which required more effort to arrange and accomplish.

Low-income couples engaged in activities across the spectrum of orientations and categories. Those couples that desired shared recreation created opportunities by using the financial, community, and support resources available to them. After participation, couples generally felt
strengthened in their relationship. One wife mused, “I remember why I fell in love with him,” as she recalled a recent date with her husband. Benefits derived from their recreation such as cohesion and improved relational skills also had application to their everyday lives together.

Most couples participated in recreation activities in multiple orientations and categories in the CORC model. For example, a couple might cooperatively prepare their evening meal while debriefing their respective work days, play a board game with their children after supper, and watch television together once the children were in bed. Couples who appeared to be in healthy relationships often negotiated the challenges of limited financial resources in creative ways such as packing a picnic rather than eating at a restaurant, or viewing the sights in the city by riding the public bus as a shared outing. “You have to be smart with your money,” one woman explained. Frequently, couples with young children in the home cited family recreation as their outlet for couple recreation. Couples who had extended family in the area often identified relatives as key sources of child care during couple-only recreation outings.

Couples conveyed personal and relational satisfaction after engaging in recreation whether done independently, with others, or together. One man felt “mellow[ed] out” after he shot some hoops at the end of his workday, which allowed him to be more relaxed and engaged with his partner when she returned home from work. Parents of young children shared the sense of fulfillment they derived by enriching their children’s lives through family recreation experiences.

Benefits from meaningful recreation participation often carried over into the everyday lives of couples. Techniques used during recreation were often helpful for resolving conflicts that arose in daily life. For example, one couple who played rock, paper, or scissors to decide which movie to watch used that same simple game to determine who would perform undesirable household chores. Stepping away from the pressures of life to enjoy time together reminded couples that their current challenges were often temporary, while their relationships were long-term. Recalling enjoyable shared experiences served to refresh relationships as well.

**Discussion**

Findings from this study provided insight into behaviors and benefits of recreation for low-income committed couples. Because interviews were guided by semi-structured questions, couples provided details, examples, and rich data related to their recreation activities, and the values they placed on those activities. This study informed leisure research by expanding couple recreation theories, particularly as they applied to this understudied population (c.f. Shaw, 2008). Couples recognized the relational value of shared recreation, as did those in Orthner’s (1976) early study. Findings from our study suggested that Orthner’s original leisure interaction pattern categories (i.e., individual, parallel, and joint) did not fully explain the range of couple recreation behaviors. Similarly, our study expanded the understanding of couple recreation based on Zabriskie and McCormick’s (2001, 2003) Core and Balance Model of Family Leisure Activities. Because of limited financial resources, many low-income couples engaged in recreation most frequently in or around the home. Couples experienced balance-like benefits while engaged in spontaneous home-based activities. Where couples’ attention was focused during activities appeared more important than the activity itself, its location, or how well planned its pursuit.

This study provided insight into the lives of low-income individuals and the value they placed on recreation. Further research would expand leisure theory, inform practice, and broaden an understanding of the value of recreation in the lives of committed low-income couples.

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RAPE CULTURE: MAPPING COLLEGE CAMPUS NARRATIVES AND LEISURE RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS
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Recent attention has been placed on the responsibilities on college campuses and Universities to emphasize the prevention of sexual violence and to begin “offering a framework to keep university officials from causing further harm to students already traumatized by a sexual assault” (Gray-Rosendale, August 2013). According to the National Institute of Justice’s (NIJ) webpage (2010), “‘sexual violence’ refers to a specific constellation of crimes including sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape” that includes any form of penetration, threats of physical force, and/or use of actual force that is attempted or completed upon a nonconsensual victim/survivor (not dependent on the condition of said victim) committed by a stranger, acquaintance, friend, family member, or intimate partner. In short, the legal criteria for rape is somewhat specific but there exists an information barrier between these legal definitions and those individuals whom experience sexual assault as a survivor and those who inflict the experience as a perpetrator. College women in particular, “are at greater risk for rape and other forms of sexual assault than women in the general population or in a comparable age group.” Further, NIJ estimated that in situations of attempted or completed rape, between one-fifth and one-quarter of women on college campuses are victims of sexual assault which only adds to this landscape of what some call a “rape culture” (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000, iii). This paper presentation will introduce a conceptual discussion in three areas on how and why leisure researchers should contribute to rape and sexual violence research and inform student life, student programming, and campus recreation policies in meaningful ways to affect change on college campuses.

Conceptual Area #1: Rape Culture and the College Lifestyle

Based on a survey of 2,338 undergraduates, one in four women reported being raped on college campuses while three of ten college men have reported that they would rape someone if they could get away with it (McMahon, 2010). These numbers are only a small sampling of the type of statistics that are being gathered on social attitudes that support rape and an emerging rape culture on college campuses. Boswell and Spade (1996) have suggested that sexual assault is supported not only by “a generic culture surrounding and promoting rape,” but also by the characteristics of the “specific settings” in which men and women interact (p. 133). Perhaps as many as three-quarters of sexual assaults on college campuses involved alcohol consumption on the part of the survivor, the perpetrator, or both parties. Neither implies that institutions have willfully condoned rape and other types of sexual violence or alcohol consumption, by anyone, is an excuse for rape, but it does imply that the existence of sexual violence on college campuses has deeper roots than the allegedly “reckless” behaviors of survivors.

Relevance to leisure research. The heavy consumption of alcohol and illegal drugs in leisure settings on college campuses strengthens the likelihood of rape and other forms of sexual violence due to the close proximity of victims to perpetrators, the high frequency of social gatherings, and the significant availability of intoxicants. Past studies on consumption among college students have shown 85% drinking alcohol at least once a week and 40% used an illegal drug among respondents. As Iso-Ahola & Crowley (1991) alluded to, “researches have generally overlooked leisure-related factors as correlates and causes of substance abuse” (p.
From a survey of 740 college students, Shinew & Parry (2005) found that “the majority of students had their first drink or drug experience with friends,” and that, “college students frequently get together with their friends and spend a significant amount of time socializing” (p. 379). Although there are scant studies on the drinking behaviors of college students within leisure research there are no studies within leisure research on the potential connection of alcohol and illegal drug use in instigating the propensity of rape and other forms of sexual violence in creating a rape culture on college campuses.

**Conceptual Area #2: Gendered Spaces and Hegemonic Masculinity**

Feminist theorists and others have long argued that what we are dealing with both on and off college campuses is a larger systemic rape culture, based, at least in part, on society’s implicit definitions of gender and sexuality norms – i.e., how a “good” girl/woman is supposed to behave while away from home for the first time and how a “real” man performs hegemonic masculinity in the same spaces (Armstrong, Hamilton, & Sweeney, 2006). That these gendered expectations are frequently in conflict is rarely acknowledged and in fact may even be exacerbated by institutional practices such as residence hall floor assignments, student extra-curricular programming, and differentiated campus alcohol regulation. While such practices may intend to be gender neutral and equitable, they can instead, often unintentionally, contribute to sexually dangerous settings and behaviors. Orientation programming and incident teams that have included education of various kinds (workshops, trainings, pamphlets), support for sexual assault awareness related special events, the distribution of pepper spray and “rape whistles”, the support, development and staffing of crisis hotlines, and the coordination with and involvement in the training of police and safety-related administrators are still vitally needed at the campus level. However, rates of sexual assault and rape have not declined over the past five decades (Adams-Curtis & Forbes 2004) as the rates they should have. Emphasizing “safety” alone, we argue, can have the reverse effect of placing the blame on “reckless” or otherwise “unsafe” victims (not seen as survivors) whose leisure and social choices (rather than those of the male perpetrators) are deemed, however implicitly, to have contributed to her victimization.

**Relevance to leisure research.** These gendered views become infused in popular culture, from news and entertainment media to social policies. Although masculinity is unclear in definition in society, it is clearly “not-female”. It is the consumptive site of leisure that males, in particular, learn masculine identities through popular and mediated forms of culture. Leisure and recreational activities are a crucial developmental context for young people to develop into adults in western societies as it solidifies personal, racial, and sexual identities. Johnson, Kivel, & Richmond (2008) associated the nature of this development and this reality into the term of hegemonic masculinity. Although Kivel & Johnson (2009) implored that sports (spectator and participant) engagement and media consumption serve as social construct and “to produce and reproduce ideologies based on gender such sites also used by young men to negotiate their identities,” we as leisure researchers, still have yet to locate this discussion on a college campus and how it might be a factor in rape and other forms of sexual assault (p. 131).

**Conceptual Area #3: Realities of Perpetrators and Deviancy**

Thus an important emphasis in research needs to be placed on the perspectives of perpetrators when one considers how efforts at gender neutrality may in fact create gender inequality in other situations such as campus safety. Such a misaligned focus on survivors prevents us from viewing college sexual assault as primarily a consequence of perpetrators’ (and not the survivors’) gender attitudes or past sexual history (Lisak & Miller, 2002). A denial of rape culture exists as a consequence of widespread beliefs (among faculty, administrators, and
students) in a variety of “rape myths,” rooted in hegemonic notions about the nature of men, women, sexuality, and consent, evidenced in this shifting of responsibility from predators to victims (Herman, 1989). Rapists are not a homogenous group as Groth (1979) presented a typology of rapist based on power (seeking control), anger (hostility towards women), and sadism (sexual gratification from delivering pain). Terry (2005) framed her typology using expanded categories of compensatory (sexually motivated), sadistic (sexually motivated), power/control (non-sexually motivated), and opportunistc (non-sexually motivated).

Relevance to leisure research. Rojek (1999) argued that, “one of the challenges facing leisure studies is to incorporate deviant leisure as a central category of theory and research” (p. 93). Mowatt (2012) argued for violence and the impact of violent acts to be brought to forefront in leisure studies. Although Shinew & Parry (2005) situated drinking alcohol and illegal drug use on college campuses within the deviancy-based theoretical framework of differential association, we may need to extend this framework to other activities that occur both pre- and post-consumption of those intoxicants and substance. Kivel & Johnson (2009) noted that, “we need to examine the connection between violence, the consumption of mass media and the construction of masculinity” (p. 114). However, it has been chiefly Williams (2005; 2006; 2009) that has argued for deviant leisure research, especially linked to sexual assault. Williams (2006) studied how …

Recreation … functioned to persuade the victim to participate in planned sexual activities … [later used as] a means to keep the victim from telling authorities … finally… to help the offender maintain a normal image to others. (p. 92)

Conclusion

We see merit in all three conceptual areas, as it allows researchers to focus on the specific context and interactions of college students that create the dangerous leisure spaces and scenarios that occur. Theoretical explanations to consider within this discussion are: (a) Abuse-Perpetration Inventory (assesses interpersonal violence), (b) Sexual Experiences Survey (measuring sexual aggression), (c) Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (construct on beliefs), (d) Bystander Attitude Scale (assess likelihood to intervene), and (e) CrimeStat Application (spatial statistical analysis). The principal aims of this paper presentation are: (a) to publically discuss the need to advance scholarship on such a sensitive and relevant subject matter as rape within the context of leisure, (b) to solicit cross-field support for a national study on leisure spaces on college campuses, and (c) to inform the current first stage of a campus-level research study.

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Selected References


BIGOTS AT THE DOG PARK: THE EXPERIENCE OF TRANSGENDER ADULTS’ WITH PUBLIC RECREATION
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Laurel P. Richmond, California State University, Long Beach

As leisure studies has developed as a discipline and leisure scholars have broadened their research to include a diversity of genders, racial, ethnic, and class backgrounds, and activity interests, we have seen growth of the field related to inclusion of all people. Given the practical implications of our research, it becomes even more important for our research to encompass all peoples. This study furthers the work done by gender scholars (e.g. Browne & Bakshi, 2011, Grossman, O’Connell, & D’Augelli, 2010, and Lewis & Johnson, 2011) and sought to learn more about the experiences of transgender adults and their use of public recreation space.

Gender, Sex, and the Queering of Leisure
Leisure and the opportunity to recreate and use public space are important for human development and social interaction. Leisure spaces such as parks maintain and reinforce cultural symbols and acts of appropriateness that codify these spaces. Expectations related to signals of male and female behavior and presentation are reinforced by the responses of others, as behavior is taught and maintained by normalizing power systems. One’s identification with gender is developed and maintained by participation in leisure and recreation activities and the responses we receive from others reinforces our position within a certain gender (Wearing, 1998). Yet, these spaces may not be safe for someone who does not fit within accepted norms of gender expression. The need to negotiate space and behavior in order to feel a sense of inclusion and to develop one’s gender identity can be met through leisure experiences (Lewis & Johnson, 2011). However, there is little research on transgender adults and their experiences with public recreation settings. To this end, we were interested to learn about the experiences that transgender adults had when using public recreation facilities.

Methods and Data Collection
This study, grounded in feminist methodology and queer theory, consisted of semi-structured interviews with adults who self-identified as transgender. Participants were recruited through snowball sampling and responded to an advertisement placed on a social media website. Interviews of five participants lasted between one to two hours, took place in a public location, and were audio recorded and transcribed by the first author.

All of the participants identified as Caucasians and had at least a bachelor’s degree. They were aged 25-56 years and had all transitioned and were living full time presenting as their preferred gender. The transcripts were reviewed by both authors and were coded using open coding techniques and logical sequencing strategies (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). The data analysis resulted in three major themes: negotiating risk, negotiating changes, and self-expression through leisure.

Results
Overall, participants stated that parks seemed safe to them, but participants also discussed risks ranging from mild consequences, such as being referred to by the wrong pronoun, to more serious risks of violence including being beaten or killed. In particular, bathrooms and changing rooms were considered to be somewhat dangerous places where transgender individuals might be arrested or assaulted for being in the “wrong” bathroom. Joan stated that “as a transgender person, the thing we most worry about is the bathroom...creating gender neutral bathrooms would be a way to get around this.” Men’s rooms often only have urinals and open stalls, and
Earl said that “I need a place to sit down and I need a closing door to protect my safety. Often I have to have someone guard me that I trust. Or I just hold it.”

Participants negotiated these risks with several strategies, including being vigilant in assessing risk, attempting to avoid the most risky situations, and increasing their efforts to pass as the gender which they presented. Participants watched others for their reactions. AC said, “Typically with one glance you can tell if that person is either completely oblivious, is trying to figure it out, or has figured it out and definitely doesn’t like it.” They also watched for potential allies, trying to spot those who were lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender. Earl said “It’s always nice when I see someone who looks somewhat like me. And that can be lesbians. It can be gay men. That can be happy trans folks. That’s like asking for the world.” However, Ethan stated that he tried to opt out of that kind of vigilance since he felt that there weren’t any safe places anyway.

In strongly policed places such as bathrooms and changing rooms, being recognized as transgender introduced the most risk and was most frequently discussed as places that participants tried to avoid. Changing rooms in particular were spaces that made passing extremely difficult. As a result, participants stated that they no longer swam or used the gym, even if they enjoyed those activities prior to transitioning. AC said, “I would never use a public swimming pool. Maybe post-op I would consider it. But the stigma that’s there, especially in this area. I would never use a public swimming pool.” Earl’s experience caused him great anxiety, “I went one time in a men’s locker room. I thought I was going to have a nervous breakdown. I was so anxious...it was like, ‘This is not worth it.’”

When participants could not avoid such places, they increased their efforts to pass, as when Erica stated, “If I am in the restroom, I try not to speak to anybody. A lot of times people don’t pick up on it as long as I don’t speak.” All of the participants had transitioned two or more years ago, and emphasized that it was easier for them now that they were further along in their transition and passed more easily. Ethan said, “I think that a person’s experience in parks and other spaces is highly dependent on their passing privilege. I pass 100% of the time, every time...I think if I didn’t, you would be having a completely different interview with me.”

Transitioning changed many aspects of participants’ lives, including how participants used parks and resulted in the theme of negotiating changes. Ethan used the local dog park when symptoms related to the hormones he was taking made walking difficult. Earl wished that parks could be more helpful in his transition. He wished for a transgender-only program that would help him learn athletic skills not part of his upbringing as a girl, ideally in a “safe space where there weren’t non-trans men watching and rating me and laughing.”

Transitioning also meant changes in privilege. Discussing her loss of male privilege, AC stated that she had to be concerned about her safety as a woman in ways she had not as a man. Unlike previously, she is now careful about where she walks in the dark, “and that was something I took for granted. I went from almost like predator to prey.” Ethan is dating the same person now that he did before transitioning. They had identified as a heterosexual couple but now identify as gay men. Ethan no longer feels comfortable expressing affection publicly with his partner. “Whenever he and I go to the park and bring our dog, we very much stay separate...You never know who’s going to be at the dog park. You don’t know if they’re bigots or not.”

While participants did discuss risks that they faced, their focus was on the benefits. For most participants, this centered on being their most authentic selves, often expressed through leisure, the third main theme. Earl said that since transition, “I enjoy being in my body more. ... I feel more motivated to be out in the world.” Joan was part of a support group that held a picnic in a
state park once a year. At first, the group was anxious about how they would be received, but they have now had years of good experiences at the park.

**Discussion**

The obstacles that participants faced in parks were not unique to parks, nor were they the main focus of transgender park users. All of the participants in this study stated that they perceived parks to be safe places. However, the obstacles they encountered affected how transgender individuals used parks and how they felt about it. All of the participants stated that they would not swim at public pools. Participants reported that they worried about using bathrooms, and some participants made efforts not to use them.

The first theme, negotiating risk, was primarily manifest through fears. Participants discussed a fear of physical violence and verbal vitriol. Being forced to listen to someone disparage their gender expression was perhaps more painful that the potential for physical violence. Participants had to assess the risks before proceeding. Assessing people and spaces for safety, passing as a way to increase safety, choosing less-risky leisure like not swimming, not playing pickup basketball where you might be asked to play on the "skins" team, online gaming, choosing a sport like roller derby which has specifically transgender-friendly policies were all ways that the participants negotiated and managed the risks inherent in using public park space.

In addition, we identified a contradiction between what the participants said about their action and their actions in relation to their use of public park space. This contradiction is especially interesting as it indicates that although participants say they feel safe and accepted, they frequently modify their behavior in order to be safe and not draw attention to themselves or their differences from cisgender people.

**Implications and Conclusions**

The obstacles that participants faced in parks were not unique to parks, nor were they the main focus of transgender park users. All of the participants in this study stated that they perceived parks to be safe places, even as their actions belied this statement. However, the obstacles they encountered affected how transgender individuals used parks and how they felt about it. Participants reported that they worried about using bathrooms, and some participants made efforts not to use them. Having access to this information allows park professionals to be more thoughtful and deliberate in the planning and execution of parks and programs. Based on the data in this study, some of the physical changes that would be helpful include adding doors to stalls in men’s restrooms, providing family restrooms, private changing rooms, and showers. In addition, agencies should consider adding diversity training that will help professionals better understand the transgender population. Further research on this topic allows for the continued investigation into the contradiction of space as safe but still needing to negotiate risk and behavior to maintain the space as safe. As leisure scholars, we must work to make public park and recreation space safe and accessible for all people, regardless of gender.

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Oklahoma State Parks provide unique opportunities for those visitors seeking to enjoy the natural park environment and recreational experiences for residents of (and visitors to) Oklahoma (Caneday, 2002; Caneday & Jordan, 2003). Nationwide, State Parks exist in natural areas that have tourist appeal and attract millions of recreationists every year. State Park visitors are driven by the satisfaction obtained for participating in outdoor recreation activities regardless of their personal motivations. In this scenario, Oklahoma State Parks provide a valuable recreation resource for their visitors (residents and out-of-state) which become the potential market that brings tourism dollars to the state, create new jobs, and contribute to the improvement of the Oklahoma economy. The spending of visitors to Oklahoma State Parks generates economic impact in the communities neighboring the parks due to its multiplier effects, direct and indirect, which accelerate the local economy. The initial expenditure of money by a park visitor in a host community is a direct effect. The expended money utilized by businesses in a local economy to pay employees, to buy goods for resale, to pay for operating expenses, to expand the business, and other financial transactions are indirect multiplier effects. Visitor’s profile and visit characteristics are considered important variables in explaining recreation activity patterns in several studies (Hughes & Morrison-Saunders, 2003; Togridou, Hovardas, & Pantis, 2006; Roovers et al., 2002) at different recreation settings. Visitor expenditure has also been found to be influenced by the type of trip taken and the purpose of trip when visiting parks or forests. White and Stynes (2008) reported that trip type (i.e. nonlocal day trips, nonlocal overnight trips, local day trips, and local overnight trips) has a greater role in influencing the level of recreation visitor expenditures than recreation activity in a National Forest recreation visitor spending study. This study aims to contribute to the identification of visitors’ profile and their visit characteristics to Oklahoma State Parks and assist decision makers to develop recreational experiences and a marketing strategy that can help boost revenue at Oklahoma State Parks upon identification of visitors’ profile and visit characteristics.

Methods

Primary data collection was conducted by an online survey that was developed by a research team at Oklahoma State University. Oklahoma State Park visitors were contacted by an email invitation to participate in the survey. The data collection was conducted from March 15th to April 15th, 2013 from a sample of 355 Oklahoma State Parks visitors within the last twelve months. All participants in the sample were voluntary respondents. The survey included a section with four standard demographic questions to identify the profile of the respondents (i.e. gender, age, annual household income, and level of education) and five other questions related to the characteristics of the visit (i.e. the size of the group of visitors, the frequency of visiting the park within the last 12 months, the length of stay, previous trips to the parks, and average expenditure per visit). Visitors also completed a section indicating the main purpose of their trips when visiting Oklahoma State Parks. The data were analyzed using frequencies and multiple regression analysis. The data were tested for statistical assumptions of multiple regression analysis and expenditure (as the dependent variable) was transformed to natural logarithm to account for the skewness in its distribution. The data were analyzed using Stata statistical software (Stata/IC v.12, StataCorp LP).
Results

From the total of the 355 respondents, 202 (57.18%) of them were females and 152 (42.82%) males. The mean age of the respondents was 49.80 years old, with 63.1% being older than 45 years old (Fig. 1). The majority of the respondents, nearly 90%, reported having a high educational level (Fig. 2). Household income was not evenly distributed across the respondents, with 39.15% of them having an annual income less than $75,000, 48.17% of them having an income from $75,000 to $150,000, and 12.8% had an income greater than $150,000 per year. (Fig. 3). In regards to visit characteristics, the majority of the visitors (nearly 60%) arrive at Oklahoma State Parks in relatively small groups (less than 4) (Fig. 4). Respondents are repeat visitors; over 60% of them have visited the parks at least twice within the last 12 months (Fig. 5). Only 1.69% of the respondents were visiting for the first time. The majority of the respondents (74.64%) stay at Oklahoma State Parks at least for two nights (Fig. 6). Visitors’ expenditure per visit to Oklahoma State Park ranges from about $20 to about $1000 (mean=$178.1 per person per visit). Concerning the purpose of their trip to an Oklahoma State Park, the top three purposes reported by respondents were recreation (36%), vacation (21%) and “get away” (21%). The top five preferred recreational activities at Oklahoma State Parks are fishing (28.93%), hiking (20.75%), camping (17.61%), boating (10.70%), and walking/biking trails (5.70%) as reported by the respondents.

Figures 1-6. Visitors’ Profile and Visits Characteristics at Oklahoma State Parks
Multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the influence of the independent variables on visitors’ expenditure patterns. Demographic characteristics of visitors and visit characteristics were used as predictors of expenditure. Age ($p < 0.05$) and income ($p < 0.001$) were significant predictors of the expenditure of respondents. As for the visit characteristics, only the number of trips to the parks over the last twelve months ($p < 0.05$) was found to be a significant predictor of expenditure when controlling for the other variables expected to impact expenditure. Despite a high frequency of visitation to state parks (over 98% of the respondents are repeat visitors), the unstandardized coefficient of the number of trips variable indicated a negative relationship with the expenditure, which may be an indicator that people who frequently visit the parks are not being offered additional amenities or recreational facilities and activities that may increase their average expenditure per visit. Therefore, authorities and park managers are suggested to provide additional features in the parks to add to the value of visits, increase visitor expenditure pattern and generate revenue to Oklahoma State Parks.

**Discussion**

Oklahoma State Parks contribute to the local economies surrounding the various properties by attracting visitors to support tourism industries, to create jobs, to stimulate local business, and to generate tax revenues to support state and local government and the services they provide. According to the findings, over 98% of the respondents are repeat visitors to the parks which is an indicator of high frequency of visitation and attractiveness to visitors of Oklahoma State Parks. Nonetheless, the vast majority of Oklahoma State Parks visitors are day visitors who use only a portion of these developed amenities and generate less revenue for the local park. As reported by the National Association of State Park Directors (NASPD) approximately 8.8 million visits were made to the Oklahoma State Parks in 2011, among those visitations, 7.5 million visitations (85.23%) were day visitors and 1.3 million visitations (14.77%) were overnight visitors (Chien et al., 2013). Hence, the majority of visitors to Oklahoma State Parks are day visitors, who do not spend the night at the parks. However, the revenue associated with lodging, cabin rentals, and camping is generated by the 20% comprised of overnight guests (Chien et al.). The findings of this study aim to assist decision makers to identify the visitor’s profile and the visit characteristics to Oklahoma State Parks to develop infrastructure, facilities and services that improve recreational choices that can be shared by both Oklahoma residents and tourists and can also generate revenue to Oklahoma State Parks. The right mix of business including lodging, restaurants, attractions, shops and the provision of unique recreational experiences contribute to reach the goal of getting tourists to visit, stay, spend money, and return on repeat visitation (Wilson et al., 2001; Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004). The purpose is to attract visitors to come, to stay overnight and to keep visiting to maximize individual spending. Evidently, overnight visits and lodging taxes can help to increase visitor expenditure and boost the community’s economic activity. In addition, parks and recreation agencies need to be aware of and proactive to the increasing demographic changes in America with a very diverse population (e.g., age, gender, racial and ethnic background, income level, life stage, etc.) to being able to provide for the needs and preferences for outdoor recreation. The demographic changes in society require park and recreation agencies to rethink for whom and how they offer their programming, amenities and facilities.

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A PILOT INVESTIGATION OF NOISE LEVELS DURING SPORTING EVENTS
Erik Rabinowitz, Appalachian State University

It is difficult to not notice the unusual acoustics in indoor arenas and gyms. These facilities are often acoustically ineffective. These poor conditions could place the professionals that work in these environments in dangerously high Noise Induced Hearing Loss (NIHL) situations and could potentially cause problems during crucial lifesaving situations. Working inside these conditions every day, such as a facility manager could have long-term negative physiological and psychological effects. Even short term exposure by referees, coaches, ticket takes, security guards, announcers, participants and spectators could have detrimental effects. Additionally, whistles are known to raise the noise level experienced by the blower by 5-7 dB(A) higher than those even a short 1m away. The potential risk of NIHL for professionals that often use whistles can be, therefore, even higher. At present, little consideration into prevention strategies in noise exposure in recreation exists. Staff procedures, policies, noise reduction products and even the design of these facilities from a noise reduction perspective have not occurred. Therefore the purpose of this investigation was to examine noise levels at NCAA Division I basketball events.

Noise is one of the most common causes of hearing loss and occupational illnesses in the United States and is considered to be a pernicious occupational and environmental hazard (Rabinowitz, 2010). As many as 30 million Americans are exposed to potentially harmful sound levels in their workplaces (CDC, 2010). Noise exposure is a problem that has been generally underestimated. Sound/noise is measured in decibels (dbs) and OSHA allows 8 hours of exposure to 90 dbs, but only 2 hours of exposure to 100 dbs sound levels, while NIOSH would recommend limiting the 8 hour exposure to less than 85 dbs. Long or even repetitive exposure to sounds 85 dbs or higher can result in hearing loss (NIDCD, 2008). At 100 dbs NIOSH recommends less than 15 minutes of exposure per day. All of these dangerous conditions can lead to Noise Induced Hearing Loss (NIHL). These dangerous levels can cause physiological damage to the inner components of the ear, such as hair cells that convert sound energy into electrical signals that the brain interprets. Once hair cells are damaged they cannot be repaired.

Common measures to examine noise exposure are intensity (perceived as loudness) and frequency (perceived as pitch). Bohne & Harding, (1999) explain that intensity in decibels (dB) and the sound pressure level (SPL) of noise determine the rapidity with which the ear is damaged and the extent of the initial anatomic lesion. These measures also determine whether the associated hearing loss will be a temporary threshold shift (TTS) or a permanent threshold (Bohne & Harding, 1999). The duration of the exposure has a reciprocal relationship to intensity. The higher the intensity, the shorter the exposure can be and still cause permanent damage. Conversely, lower-intensity noise may be safe, even when the ear is exposed for long durations (Bohne & Harding, 1999). As a result, someone exposed to 85dBA (often produced by gas-engine lawn mowers) for eight hours may be equally at risk for noise exposure as someone using a chainsaw producing 110dBA for only a few minutes (Fligor, 2012). Even common sounds of such as loud conversations, vacuum cleaners and busy street noise at around 75dBL, after long exposure, are likely to cause hearing loss (NIDCD). Exposure to moderate-intensity noise for several minutes or hours initially results in TTS only. If thresholds are measured after the individual has been away from the noise for 18-24 hours, his/her thresholds will return to pre-exposure levels. Rest or quiet periods between excessive exposures afford some protection for the ear. While some research has found that longer quiet periods may allow for recovery of some injured sensory cells and the amount of damage will be proportionally less. However,
repeated exposure to moderate-intensity noise gradually results in a permanent deterioration of auditory threshold (Bohne & Harding, 1999). Auditory rest/recovery periods data on recreation professionals has not been collected to date, and as such would be important information to know to help create a hearing conservation program.

Additionally, repeated exposure to lower levels of noise may also cause hearing damage over the longer term (Behar, et al., 2004). Prior research reports that impulse noise seemed to produce permanent threshold shifts (PTS) at 4000 and 6000 Hz after shorter duration of exposure than continuous steady state noise. Impulse noise seems to produce permanent threshold shifts at certain frequencies after clearly shorter duration of exposure than continuous noise (Singh, Bhardwaj, & Deepak, 2010). As such noise surveys of recreation professional and their working environments have only occurred in a few locations and have focused on short data collection time, such as, for only an hour at each location. Full sound surveys are needed to get a true noise survey of exposure.

In addition to the physical damage caused by exposure to excessive noise, continued exposure has been associates with elevated levels of stress, high anxiety, increased annoyance, depression and fatigue. Stress, in turn has been observed as a contributing to a number of psychosomatic conditions, including asthma, digestive tract disorders, heart diseases, migraines, and chest and back pain (Grebennikov, 2006). The consequences of NIHL are very large and involve many aspects of the individual’s life such as personal aspects (e.g. anxiety, irritability, self-esteem), social aspects (e.g. isolation and difficulty of communication) and economic (e.g. loss of productivity, expenses for workers’ compensation, hearing aids), exposed to tinnitus (persistent ringing in the ears) (Maffei, Iannace, & Masullo, 2011), data on recreational professional as a special group are presently missing.

Methods

Prior to the sporting event with arenas empty using a traditional balloon pop method (at 60 dbs.) all facilities were measured for reverberation (echo). Data was also collected to establish the facility baseline, such as the HVAC noise dbs output. During the event using the CDC and OSHA sound survey collection methods, the investigators circled and interweaved taking measurements every five feet throughout the Arena during the sporting event. Using a Reed SD-4023 Sound Level Meter and Data Logger data was recorded digitally and backed up every 5 feet by hand on arena map and later transferred to a spread sheet. Additionally, auditory noise level decibels were collected using an Extech Economical Noise Dosimeter model RS-232 with lapel microphone. The meter records digitally instantaneous or accumulated % dose, game time dose, dB level, exposure time, and peak events for efficient noise-exposure monitoring. Demographics data about the architectural design, types of materials, age of build, noise reduction interventions, size of gym, number of whistles blown, and speaker systems in use and levels set at during the event was gathered.

Results

Eight Division I basketball games were collected and presented in Table 1. The overall average during the events was 92.46 dbs, which is over the acceptable level of OSHA at 85 dbs by 7.46 dbs. The average high peak level hit 112.06 dbs. These decibel levels were recorded the loudest during the following conditions, when data was collected courtside verses nose bleed sections (over 20 dbs louder courtside), when home team scored, when introductions of the home team occurred (at 3 of the locations the highest peaks were during introduction produced through PA systems) (Two location Arenas 2 & 4 PA setting raised dbs to the highest levels recorded), when seating was close to band, and when seated in student sections. The average reverberation
times were 8.73s (minimum at 7.8s, maximum at 9.8s) and confirmed using Sabine formula. All these gyms had very poor reverberation issues.

Correlation analyses were run and significant values were found; however, with such a small N the results should be view very cautiously. The seating capacity \( r = .85, p < .01 \) and attendance \( r = .82, p < .05 \) correlated with the average dbs levels (i.e., the larger the seating capacity and larger the attendance the louder the volume). In addition, seating capacity and attendance also correlated \( r = .94, p < .05 \) as expected.

**Discussion**

When combined the data gathered during this study paints a relatively disturbing picture of the acoustics of men’s basketball sporting events and the noise level exposure to the staff, coaches, players, referrers and spectators. The mean values are above the danger levels as expressed by OSHA. These dbs are enough to be of concern with regards to long term hearing deficit or loss. Professional who work long-term in these environments should take precautions to protect their hearing, for example using hearing plugs, noise breaks and reduce long-term exposure by examining their facilities for potentially noise damaging areas. With the use of a decibel reader easily found on phones today areas of the arena can be examined during peak events such as men’s basketball games and quieter spots just 3 feet away could be found and staff could be strategically placed. Additionally, facilities can be designed to reduce noise levels.

**Table 1. Report of Decibel Data Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arena</th>
<th>Dosimeter Average dbs levels</th>
<th>Peak dbs levels</th>
<th>Seating capacity</th>
<th>Attendance</th>
<th>Reverberation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arena 1 Dean</td>
<td>101.10</td>
<td>117.20</td>
<td>21750</td>
<td>21750</td>
<td>9.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arena 2 Halton</td>
<td>95.30</td>
<td>121.50</td>
<td>9000</td>
<td>4265</td>
<td>8.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arena 3 Vet</td>
<td>99.30</td>
<td>101.30</td>
<td>14665</td>
<td>8560</td>
<td>9.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arena 4 Cameron</td>
<td>92.30</td>
<td>121.30</td>
<td>9500</td>
<td>9500</td>
<td>7.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arena 5 Holmes</td>
<td>82.30</td>
<td>105.60</td>
<td>8325</td>
<td>2510</td>
<td>7.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arena 6 PNC</td>
<td>99.40</td>
<td>111.90</td>
<td>19722</td>
<td>17845</td>
<td>9.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arena 7 Belk</td>
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<td>105.40</td>
<td>5223</td>
<td>2800</td>
<td>8.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>84.80</td>
<td>112.30</td>
<td>3200</td>
<td>1524</td>
<td>8.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>92.46</td>
<td>112.06</td>
<td>11423.13</td>
<td>8594.25</td>
<td>8.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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RELAXATION AND WATCHING TELEVISED SPORTS AMONG OLDER ADULTS
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Jinmoo Heo, Texas A&M University

The aging of the baby boomer generation has created challenges in many areas of contemporary society. This generation will account for a significant portion of retirees not only in the U.S. but also worldwide. As the baby boomers have started to reach retirement age, the issue of promoting the well-being of this generation has become more important. Many baby boomers in Korea were not able to prepare for life after retirement due to the necessity of supporting both parents and children, and thus suffer from economic uncertainty and stress (Han, 2011). Statistics Korea (2009) reported that the level of stress from the daily life of baby boomers was higher than for other younger generations and research has demonstrated that this group has challenges and needs that are unique to their generation. According to Sasidharan et al. (2006), participating in leisure activities provides social support and reduces stress among older adults as well as providing opportunities to enhance self-confidence, self-esteem, and development of the self (Son et al., 2007). Therefore, exploring the positive impacts of leisure activities among baby boomers may provide insights on how to promote their well-being.

Many researchers in leisure studies have regarded intense or structured activities as an ideal form of leisure (e.g., Bryce & Haworth, 2002), and thus, have given limited attention to other features of leisure experiences such as unstructured or casual leisure activities. Hutchinson and Kleiber (2005) argued that participating in high intensity activities or serious leisure may not always lead to well-being. They claimed that just like intense activities, engaging in ordinary activities is conducive to promoting a healthy lifestyle and may play a part in well-being in the context of a stressful life. Stebbins (1997) also suggested that such casual leisure activities (i.e., relatively short-lived and pleasurable experiences) are an important source of positive emotions. Some examples of casual leisure are watching television, reading a newspaper, taking a nap, or strolling in the park. Gauthier and Smeeding (2003) further noted that older adults are likely to spend time in casual and relaxed forms of leisure activities such as watching TV and listening to the radio.

For the last several decades, research has shown that watching TV is one of the favorite leisure activities of older adults (Comstock et al., 1978; Davis et al., 1976; Meyersohn, 1961). Earlier studies from Schramm (1969) and Comstock (1978) confirmed that aging has a positive relationship with increased television viewing. Among various programs on TV, televised sports have gained enormous popularity over the last several decades (Prisuta, 1979). Individuals watch televised sports for various reasons such as enjoyment, group affiliation, learning, and relaxation. Perhaps the uses and gratifications theory can help explain the behavior of televised sports viewing among older adults. The premise of this theory is that individuals search for media which help achieve their needs, and the use of the media will lead to experiencing gratification. (Weaver, Lariscy et al., 2011). Therefore, the application of the uses and gratification theory may allow investigators to hypothesize that older adults who watch televised sports would be involved in various functions (i.e., entertainment, surveillance, correlation, cultural transmission) in order to fulfill their needs to experience relaxation.

Taken together, relaxation appears to be one of the salient benefits in older adults’ casual leisure pursuits. Given that watching televised sports – as a form of casual leisure - accounts for a significant portion of older adults’ daily lives, examining factors that are associated with relaxation will contribute to expanding the body of knowledge with regard to promoting the
well-being of older adults. Therefore, the present study revisits televised sports viewing in the literature from the perspective of the relationships between relaxation and various functions of televised sports among older adults.

**Method**

Participants of this study were baby boomers who reside in Korea. The participants were recruited from various community centers in Seoul and suburban areas using convenience sampling. The study sample was composed of 103 males and 202 females and most participants were married (96.7%). With regard to education level, 52.8% of the participants had a college degree and 35.1% of the participants graduated from high school. With respect to occupation, 59.7% of the participants reported that they work and 35.1% were classified as housewives.

In the instrumentation, sports media functions were assessed by 15 questions from Kim’s (2006) study. The items inquired about individuals’ motives for watching televised sports. They were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale. The measurement consisted of four factors: entertainment, surveillance, correlation, and cultural transmission. Sample items included “Watching televised sports is interesting and is pleasant,” and “I can share cultures between generations and also between social groups by using televised sports.” Three items, adapted from Oliver’s (1981) study, were used to measure relaxation. They were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale and included questions such as “Televised sports help individuals to escape from complex reality” and “Televised sports help individuals to relax.”

**Results**

The zero-order correlation coefficient matrix (see Table 1) illustrates a number of significant statistical relationships among the study variables. One of the most significant relationships was between the relaxation and entertainment functions (r =.708). Relaxation was also positively and significantly related to the surveillance function (r =.375), correlation function (r =.393), and cultural transmission function (r =.350). A multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the proportion of observed variance in relaxation explained by independent variables (See Table 2). The results indicated that the entertainment function (t =13.83, p<.001) and the correlation function (t = 2.12, p<.05) were statistically significant predictors (R² =.51, p<.001). This indicates that 51 percent of the variance in predicting relaxation was uniquely explained by the entertainment function and the correlation function.

**Discussion**

The uses and gratification theory posits that individuals have free will to make choices as to what to watch on TV. It explains a society’s use of media, and assumes that people use media for various reasons. Media is a source of surveillance, correlation, entertainment, and cultural transmission. Individuals often use media for multiple functions at different times, and there are benefits associated with the use of media. The tenets of this theory also note that individuals’ needs and desires are satisfied by media, and relaxation is one of the benefits that people seek through the use of media.

The results of the regression analysis confirmed that entertainment was the strongest predictor of relaxation. This finding provided further evidence that the social and interactive nature of televised sports viewing encourages individuals to become excited (Duncan & Brummet, 1989). Moreover, the results showed that the correlation function was a statistically significant factor in predicting relaxation. Media often plays a significant role in providing linkages for individuals of a community and coverage of sports events such as summer or winter Olympic Games or World Cup soccer games can provide a collective experience for individuals and such exposures are likely to increase social integration. Our findings support Dorr’s (1986) point that an important
role in watching TV is relational, especially in televised sports. We found that older adults are likely to experience relaxation by watching televised sports, and the entertainment and correlation functions are more likely to produce such experiences than are the other functions.

It is important to address the role of using media as a form of leisure activity among older adults. Watching TV often plays an important role in the lives of aging populations. In general, older adults have more discretionary time than younger generations, and older adults often experience feelings of loss or emotional vacancy (Van Der Goot, Beentjes, & Van Selm, 2012). Such negative feelings can be remedied to some extent when individuals are engaged in leisure activities. Our findings are consistent with previous research which emphasized that watching TV provides an escape from boredom as well as feelings of enjoyment and relaxation (Goodwin et al., 2005; Kubey, 1986; Van Der Goot et al., 2012).

This study lends empirical support for the relevance of the benefits of casual leisure among older adults. According to Stebbins (1997), casual leisure allows people to experience recreation or regeneration by emphasizing the effects of relaxation and entertainment. Maintaining interpersonal relationships is another benefit of engaging in casual leisure (Stebbins, 2001). Watching televised sports can be understood as a form of casual leisure for older adults, and it helps them experience relaxation and maintain social interactions.

Our study adds to the growing collection of research that suggests a positive relationship between casual leisure activities and relaxation among older adults. This study makes a theoretical contribution to leisure studies literature by demonstrating the role of casual leisure on older adults’ daily lives. Additional studies should focus on the role of other types of media use (e.g. using the Internet) on providing relaxation for older adults.

Table 1. Zero-order Correlation Coefficients of Dependent and Independent Variables

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<td>2. Entertainment function</td>
<td>.708**</td>
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<td>3. Surveillance function</td>
<td>.375**</td>
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<td>4. Correlation function</td>
<td>.393**</td>
<td>.419**</td>
<td>.619**</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Cultural transmission function</td>
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<td>.458**</td>
<td>.600**</td>
<td>.429**</td>
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**p < .01

Table 2. Multiple Regression Analysis

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<tr>
<td>(constant)</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Entertainment function</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.659</td>
<td>13.833***</td>
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<td>Surveillance function</td>
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<td>.079</td>
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<tr>
<td>Correlation function</td>
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<td>.111</td>
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<td>Cultural transmission function</td>
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<td>-.007</td>
<td>-.141</td>
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<tr>
<td>( R^2 )</td>
<td>.513</td>
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<td>( F )</td>
<td>78.855</td>
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*p < .05, ***p < .001

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Selected References
TIME PERSPECTIVE ASSOCIATED WITH RECREATIONAL SPECIALIZATION AMONG RUNNERS
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It is estimated that between 30 and 40 million adults in the United States consider themselves regular runners (USA Running, 2014) with one in every one hundred adults entering races longer than a 5K each year. Since running requires minimal equipment and facilities, this recreational activity is available across all spectrums of society and is practiced around the world. As a recreation industry, shoe sales alone totaled 2.46 billion in 2011 (US News & World Report, 2012). However, investigation of running as a recreational pursuit has been largely undeveloped. The factors that differentiate committed, long term runners with those who only dabble in running have not been investigated through a theoretical lens but have instead been investigated as issues of exercise compliance and performance enhancement. A central goal of leisure research is to understand why people do what they do in their free time—and how to maximize the personal and societal benefit of these choices. Understanding how people approach an activity, such as running, helps us address this broad disciplinary goal.

Time perspective, as measured with the Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI), has been conceptualized as an individual differences variable that functions similar to personality. Once elicited, a time perspective becomes a bias or dispositional style that is characteristic and predictive of how an individual will respond across a host of daily life choices. The five time perspectives include: Past-negative, Past-positive, Present-fatalistic, Present-hedonistic, and Future orientations.

Social psychological research has linked time perspective to many attitudes and behaviors including health behaviors, time spent with family and friends, and career decisions (Boyd & Zimbardo, 1997; Zimbardo, 2002; Zimbardo, Keough, & Boyd, 1997). Individual time perspective has only been linked to recreation behaviors in the last ten years. Previous leisure research has linked the type of activity a person selects and the benefits they seek from recreation to their time perspective (Shores & Scott, 2007). As part of a larger mixed methods study investigating the relationship of time perspective and leisure time physical activity, a series of interviews were undertaken with adults who were identified as dominant in each of the five time perspectives. Through this analysis (in press) it was observed that participants’ time perspective was related to their physical activity behavior, as well as their knowledge and emotional commitment to that leisure time physical activity.

These attributes of participation—behavior, knowledge and affective commitment—are captured in the concept of recreational specialization. Recreation specialization was first described by Hobson Bryan (1977) and continues to receive attention as a tool to segment recreational users into meaningful subgroups to better understand management preferences, motivations, perceptions, and social norms of participants (Salz, Loomis, & Finn, 2001). Research on recreational specialization has been applied to a number of activities (McFarlane, 2004; Scott, Ditton, Stoll, & Eubanks, 2005) and environmental attitudes (Thapa, Graefe, & Meyer, 2005; Salz & Loomis, 2005). Less research has investigated factors that predispose a person to special or “progress” along the specialization continuum.

Purpose

The purpose of this paper was to empirically test whether an individual’s underlying disposition toward time (their time perspective) is related to their level of recreational specialization. No studies to date have linked time perspective and recreation specialization.
Based on extensive work in the time perspective literature linking a future orientation to goal setting and commitment, it was hypothesized that a future time perspective would be significantly related to recreation specialization. In other words, the author expected that individuals with a disposition toward the future would demonstrate a disposition to specialize instead of remaining a casual participant.

**Data Collection**

An online questionnaire was devised by the author and was administered by Survey Sampling International (SSI). SSI offers researchers a large, nationally reflective data pool that has agreed to be responsive to online research. For the current study, the author used SSI’s Internet panel of nearly 2.3 million households. From this pool of potential subjects, self-identified runners were targeted for study inclusion. To be included in the study, participants had to have previously reported running for leisure and answer all the items in the questionnaire. All participants who successfully completed the questionnaire were entered into a drawing from SSI to receive a prize of nominal value (<$15). Once the targeted sample of 1,400 respondents was achieved, data were compiled and the online questionnaire site was deactivated.

**Instrumentation**

The instruments used in the study included the following scales: (1) the Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (Boyd & Zimbardo, 1997), (2) measures of recreational specialization, and (3) socio-demographic questions. The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI) has shown reliability and validity across over two decades of research. The ZTPI is a 56-item questionnaire with five-point Likert-type response sets that are used use to identify five time biases: Past-negative, Past-positive, Present-hedonistic, Present-fatalistic and Future time perspectives. The ZTPI is scored so that each respondent receives a score for each time perspective represented in the instrument. After individual items are recoded, higher mean scores on each dimension reflect a stronger disposition for that time perspective.

Following the arguments of Scott and Shafer (2001), recreation specialization was operationalized in terms of runners’ behavior, their skill and knowledge, and commitment to the activity. In this case, previous items that dealt with recreational fishing (Oh, Sorice, & Ditton, 2011) were adapted to capture runners’ recreation specialization. Three variables were included to measure the total number of days spent running in the last month, the total number of years involved in running and the number of races the respondent had run in their lifetime. Skill and knowledge were assessed using a runner classification system, as well as by asking respondents to indicate how many specialty gear purchases they had made in the last 12 months and how many publications (magazines, blogs) they accessed about running each year. Commitment was determined with three items. The first item asked respondents to self classify their interest in running. The second and third items asked respondents to reflect on the importance of running to them in comparison to other activities and as a source of satisfaction in their overall life. All responses were numerical and used an interval response format.

**Analysis**

The individual was the unit of analysis for the study. A blocked ordinary least squares regression was undertaken to understand if time perspective explained respondents’ recreation specialization. Socio-demographic variables were entered as a block, followed by the five time perspective variables.

**Results**

Similar to existing data on time perspective among all U.S. adults, the greatest proportion of adult runners favored a future time perspective (n=562, 40.1%), present hedonistic time
perspective (n=356, 25.4%), and past-positive time perspective (n=324, 23.1%) respectively. Very few (n=28, 2.0%) adults received the highest mean score for the past-negative time perspective.

The initial regression model including gender, age, and household income was significantly related to recreation specialization (p<.05). Age and income were positively related to behavior (years of running and number of races run) as well as skill and knowledge (specialty gear purchases in the last year).

When time perspectives were entered into the regression equation, there was a significant improvement in model fit (R² change = .214, p<.01). Three of five time perspectives were significantly related to level of specialization across multiple dimensions. The past positive time perspective was positively related to number of days and years of running. However, higher responses on the past-positive time perspective were negatively related to the number of races run as well as negatively related to skill and knowledge on all three variables. In contrast, the future time perspective was significantly related to progression in running as it relates to behavior and skill and knowledge. Commitment variables indicate interest and centrality of running to the runner—these were not related to the future time perspective. Finally, present hedonistic time perspective was significantly related to recreation specialization in running across all three domains. Higher scores in present-hedonistic categories were related to significantly higher responses for all nine recreation specialization variables.

**Discussion**

Findings provide two rich areas for discussion and future research. First, results broaden our understanding of time perspective and how this psychological variable may underpin our attitudes and leisure behavior. Results suggest that the attitudes we have about time are important in determining how we commit ourselves (or choose not to commit ourselves) to ongoing recreation careers. To the author’s knowledge, this study is the first linking the concept of time perception to a recreational pursuit. Second, findings add to the continued discussion on the nature of specialization and the supposition that a recreation specialization career may be as likely to plateau (Keuntzel & McDonald, 1992) or decline (Stebbins, 1992) as it is to progress. Current results suggest that the decision to pursue continued specialization in running is in part an outgrowth of attitudes and values at the core of our person. Historically, recreation specialization has assumed that progression from casual to more serious participation is inevitable. This progression has been questioned by some researchers (Scott & Godbey, 1994; Scott & Lee, 2010). Current results suggest that while participation may be maintained, skill and knowledge development are not sought among those with a past-positive time bias. In contrast, while a future time perspective may lend itself to skill and knowledge development, personal identification with the sport may lag. Only those who live in the moment with a present hedonistic time perspective appear to embrace all facets of their recreational pursuit and pursuit behavior, skills, and commitment in equal parts.
Selected References
THE USE OF NATURAL ENVIRONMENTS FOR RECREATION AMONG IMMIGRANTS
Monika Stodolska, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Karin Peters, Wageningen University
Anna Horolts, University of Gdańsk

With the increasing rates of immigration to the Western countries (PEW Research Center, 2013), immigrants’ leisure behaviors have attracted continued attention from researchers (Juniu, 2000; Stodolska & Santos, 2006; Tirone & Goodberry, 2011). The fact that minorities, and immigrants in particular, do not visit natural environments as frequently as the mainstream population is a significant concern in countries with large immigrant populations (Johnson, 2013; Tsai, Cushman, Gidlow, & Toohey, 2013). It has been a concern for the managers of national parks and recreation areas in the U.S., Canada, Europe and Australia, as it may result in lower rates of visitation and lower commitment to environmental protection among future generations (Shultis & More, 2011). Much has been written about why established ethnics, such as African Americans, engage in outdoor recreation less than the mainstream, with the effects of marginality and ethnicity (Washburne, 1978), and the history of past discrimination (Erickson, Johnson, & Kivel, 2009) being the main explanations. Little is known, however, about the factors that condition the immigrants’ use of natural environments for recreation or the extent to which the use of natural environments for leisure contributes to their adaptation to the host country. This study is intended to answer these two research questions. To allow for a broader examination of the phenomena from a multitude of ethnic and national perspectives, six ethnic groups in four countries have been investigated – Latinos and Chinese immigrants in the U.S., Ukrainian and Vietnamese immigrants in Poland, Turkish immigrants in Germany, and Moroccan immigrants in the Netherlands.

Methods
This study adopted an interpretive symbolic interaction approach. The data were collected in 2012 and 2013 using individual in-depth interviews with 13 Latino (Mexican, Argentinean, and Uruguayan) and 13 Chinese immigrants in the U.S., 15 Ukrainian and 11 Vietnamese immigrants in Poland, 9 Turkish immigrants in Germany, and 9 Moroccan immigrants in the Netherlands. The participants were between 18 and 76 years of age and represented a variety of occupations (e.g., housewives, construction workers, graphic designers, professors). The sample included 32 men and 38 women. They resided in a range of locations in their home countries, including small villages, medium size towns, and large metropolitan centers. Interviewees in the U.S. resided in a medium size town in the Midwest, the ones in Poland and in Germany, in large metropolitan centers, and the ones in the Netherlands in medium size towns. The interviews were conducted in Spanish, English, Polish, Russian, German, and Dutch. The same interview script was used in all interviews. The interviewees were asked a series of open-ended questions about their use of natural environments for leisure both in home and host countries, factors that affected their recreation in natural environments, their benefits of using natural environments and interracial/ethnic interactions in natural environments. Except for one, all interviews have been tape recorded, transcribed, and back-translated to English. The interviews lasted between 45 min. and 1.5 hours and were conducted by the main researchers on the project and two research assistants. The transcripts were analyzed using a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).
Findings
Changes in Recreation Participation in Natural Environments after Immigration

Recreation in natural environments among the interviewed immigrants had undergone significant changes after immigration. The amount of time spent in nature decreased, recreation became separated from other aspects of life and concentrated in urban parks, while few immigrants visited more distant natural areas. These changes were related to a number of factors:

Work focus. Most interviewees were focused on work, on providing better opportunities for themselves and for their children and enjoyed little time away from work. Guo from China commented, “Immigrants come and work here for the future. We have to pay more effort than the local people to succeed. I came to the U.S. as a blank sheet of paper; we have to re-establish our social network, our business.”

Lifestyle changes. For some Latino, Moroccan, and Ukrainian interviewees, recreation in natural environments was integrated with work prior to emigration. After immigration they all resided in urban areas, where work and leisure became distinct spheres of lives. Susana from Mexico commented, “Over there women would be the ones grazing cattle, so the natural environment was part of work. Now the only free day that we have we take kids to the park.”

Access to natural environments. For some Latinos and Moroccans, the move from rural to urban areas meant that they had less access to natural environments. As Rasil commented, “In Morocco we had a lot of land, here, it is quite different. I have no garden.” A number of Ukrainian immigrants lost access to a hobby vegetable garden or a country house after moving to Poland. The opinions of Chinese immigrants were markedly different. The majority of them originated from large urban centers and had little access to greenery prior to emigration.

Access to transportation. Utilization of natural environments for recreation was closely related to the availability of automobiles. Almost all of the Latinos commented they walked less after immigration (including to and within parks), as the U.S. cities were not walkable and they got used to traveling everywhere by car. To the contrary, none of the Ukrainian or Vietnamese immigrants had a car which severely restricted their visitation to distant natural environments.

Knowledge of opportunities. Limited knowledge of opportunities restricted access to natural environments for some of the Latinos and Ukrainians. Lorena from Mexico said, “The truth is that I don’t really know how to go out, but there are very nice places I’ve been told. But I don’t know how to go out.” Similarly, most of the Ukrainian women were quite ethnically enclosed and lacked information on how to access natural environments outside of Warsaw.

Cultural differences. The absence of preference for more distant (e.g., national parks) nature travel and prioritizing family gatherings (often held in urban parks) was mentioned by some of the Latino immigrants. The Ukrainian interviewees also saw themselves as less outdoor-oriented than Poles. As Aleksej commented, “They [Poles] go out more, on weekends they immediately try to go outside [of city], closer to nature, and have rest. We have the opposite: on the weekend everyone stays at home, with the loved ones, we visit friends more.”

Different type of natural environments was quoted as a reason for changes in outdoor recreation by almost all immigrants. Lyhn from Vietnam said, “There are no parks in Vietnam like in Poland; there are either odd trees that just grow in cities or there is jungle – but you won’t go to a jungle just like that, because it is not safe.” Mohammed from Morocco said, “There is a big difference between the nature in the Netherlands and Morocco. In the Netherlands it is more structured, planned, space designed by architects. In Morocco, it is a lot rougher, more natural.”

Changes related to aging and life stage. Changes to immigrants’ recreation in natural environments were also caused by aging (and related to that deterioration of health) and by...
progression through the stages of life (graduating from school and taking on a job, marriage, having children, retirement). As Elias from Argentina said, “When I was in my home country I was a kid. I didn’t have the responsibilities that I have now.”

_The Role of Natural Environments in Immigrants’ Adaptation_

**Familiarizing immigrants with the culture of the host country.** Visits to natural environments improved immigrants’ awareness of the place, helped them learn about local attitudes to nature, and about customs and traditions. Oleg from Ukraine commented, “There are a lot of parks in Poland and everything is clean and tidy. The attitude to nature is better than in Ukraine.” His comments were echoed by most Latino and Chinese interviewees in the U.S. Turkish immigrants in Germany, however, recounted being dissuaded by how native Germans behaved in urban parks. Tekin, for instance, described that during the summer months urban parks in Germany were visited by “half-naked and sunbathing women,” which made visits to such places incompatible with his beliefs and made him and many other Turks spend their leisure time in more private settings.

**Building family traditions.** Most of the interviewees reported that they visited natural environments with their family members and/or friends from the same country. Latinos and Moroccans used natural environments as convenient places for cookouts and family celebrations such as birthdays and graduations. Ukrainian women commented that parks were good places for dating, while Moroccans and Latinos often accompanied their children to sporting events.

**Increasing feelings of attachment.** Visits to natural environments such as urban parks helped to build place attachment, made people feel “comfortable” and “at ease,” and were associated with what was perceived as good about the host country – cleanliness and order. As Lu from China said, “I like the environment here. There are not so many people and I have my own personal space. It is quiet. There are many green trees, hills, and river and lake. I feel comfortable about that.” Apart from urban parks, private gardens contributed to the Turkish immigrants’ growing sense of belonging in Germany.

**Facilitating interracial integration.** The natural environments were not particularly conducive to establishing contacts with strangers, but were convenient settings where people interacted with others they already knew. Ukrainian women went to parks on dates, while Chinese women talked about visiting parks with other children’s parents and fellow employees.

**Discussion/Conclusions**

The findings have shown that visitation to natural environments among immigrants has undergone significant changes after immigration. We classified factors responsible for these changes into: 1) Immigration-related (e.g., work focus, changes in lifestyles); 2) Natural environments-related (e.g., different types of nature, lack of knowledge, access problems); 3) Culture-related; 4) Aging and life-cycle-related. Since the latent demand for visiting natural environment seems to exist among immigrants and since recreation in natural environments provides a number of benefits, it should be promoted by lowering constraints on access, promoting knowledge of opportunities and benefits of visitation (e.g., building family traditions, getting to know the country, improving health).

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Selected References


IDENTIFYING CRITICAL LEISURE ISSUES IN CHINA: A MIXED METHODS STUDY
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Xiang Wei, Beijing International Studies University
Erwei Dong, University of South Alabama
Monica Z. Li, Beijing International Studies University

A recent systematic review (Ito, Walker, & Liang, 2014) concluded that over 90% of contemporary leisure research focused on slightly more than 10% of the world’s population (e.g., America, Australia, Canada, Europe). Having noted this, however, research on leisure in East Asia, including China, has expanded rapidly in the last two decades (Lee & Zhang, 2010; Li, 2009; Ping, Qiu-fen, & Sun; Liu, 2010; Lu, 2011). This increase in interest in leisure among Chinese scholars is due in part to major North American leisure textbooks’ being translated into Mandarin Chinese, Chinese graduate students’ entering U.S. and Canadian universities, and leisure research centers being established in several Chinese universities. While still in its early stages, scholarship on leisure in China has also been fostered by the rapidly expanding Chinese economy, increased standard of living among the local population, and the influence of globalization and Westernization, which in turn led to an increased demand for leisure and travel among the Chinese people. In this context, a group of U.S., Canadian, and Chinese scholars organized a workshop to identify critical research issues to guide the future study of leisure in China. The specific objectives were to: (a) examine which of the 20 issues identified in the Western literature are most relevant to the study of leisure in China and (b) identify additional topics that were not provided on the original list but are important to the study of leisure in China. This paper reports on the results of this workshop.

Method

Data were collected using a sequential explanatory mixed methods approach (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003); specifically in our case a survey of experts followed by a group discussion of the survey responses. The survey was distributed and collected during a one-day workshop organized in October, 2013 by the Beijing International Studies University (BISU) in collaboration with the University of Illinois, U.S., and the University of Alberta, Canada. The workshop was attended by leisure researchers from across China, representing 17 universities and research institutes. Overall, 28 experts attended the workshop and discussion, with 24 completing the survey. Three of the surveys were excluded as they were completed by students. The 4-hour long discussion that followed was led by three of the American, Canadian, and Chinese authors. The discussion was held in both English and Mandarin Chinese, and participants’ responses were simultaneously translated by two bilingual faculty members.

The survey, which was available in both English and Mandarin Chinese, consisted of two questions. The first question asked participants: “Out of the 20 issues provided in the table, choose five that you believe are the most relevant in the context of Chinese leisure. Rank order them from 1 to 5, with 1 being the most relevant/pressing. In the column next to the topic, please provide a brief explanation of the relevance of this topic in the context of China.” The 20 issues that were listed were adopted from Leisure Matters: The State and Future of Leisure Studies – an edited book currently in preparation for publication in 2015. This book updates and expands on similar earlier books (e.g., Jackson & Burton’s, 1999, Leisure Studies for the Twenty-First Century). The topics have been identified in consultation with a number of experts in the leisure
field and include: time use; needs and motivations; constraints and constraints negotiation; leisure and intensity of participation / serious leisure; deviant leisure; gender and leisure; sexual orientation and leisure; youth and leisure; family leisure; leisure and aging; people with disabilities; race, ethnicity, migrations, and indigenous people; community and social capital; technological change; health and leisure-time physical activity; leisure and happiness / life satisfaction; place attachment; public policy and planning; marketing and sponsorship; and management and leadership. The second open-ended question asked participants to add any other topics or issues that were not included that they felt were important to the study of leisure in the context of China. Both the questions and the response categories were provided in English and Mandarin Chinese. Contemporaneous notes were taken during the workshop by three researchers involved in the project and a research assistant. In addition, the discussion was recorded and subsequently transcribed.

Findings
In the first section of the findings we present the results of the survey on the five most important leisure issues selected by the Chinese experts. We use open ended responses to the survey question and discussion comments to explain the experts’ responses. In the following section, we discuss additional critical research topics that the experts identified in their answers to the second question.

Five Most Critical Leisure Issues

Time use. The rapid economic development of China contributed to lack of time, overwork, and stress among the population. As one participant stated, “With the rapid development of economic society, how to use time may be the most important problem that Chinese people face.” “[We don’t have] enough time”. Another person said, “we are a busy society pushing for economic growth.” “Leisure time use has great influence on people’s health, families’ happiness, neighborhood or community harmony and ecological environments.” Some of the interviewees also discussed the potential of leisure time to increase people’s productivity and, thus, further contribute to economic growth. “Economic growth is the most important issue for China now. [Appropriate use of time] will help us figure out how to push growth.”

Leisure and happiness / life satisfaction. Growing expenditure on leisure and improved quality of life increased the perceived importance of happiness and life satisfaction. As one respondent stated, “In the recent future China will put increased attention on life quality. Leisure study must fill the blank.” Another said, “Leisure means enjoying life which concerns health and happiness.”

Public policy and planning. Due to the nature of China’s centrally planned economy, free time and leisure-related public investments in China are governed by national policy. For instance, the five-day work week and two week-long holidays have been instituted by the government and affect much of the leisure life in China. As one person said, “The action of government can indicate directions and these directions carry out the system and planning for all levels of government.” Thus, the solution to leisure crisis has also been sought in government-level regulations, making leisure-related public policy and planning one of the most important topics of research.

Family leisure. Family was considered “the basis of happiness” and the “future of leisure in China.” The respondents who rated this item highly said that family played a very important role in Chinese people’s leisure and is “relevant to family harmony, member’s health, children’s growing up, the elder’s health and long life.” Some threats to family leisure were identified, such as technological change, which can lead to fewer interactions among family members.
Needs/motivations. Research on leisure needs and motivations in the rapidly changing Chinese society was also emphasized. The respondents advocated for more research on needs and motivations among people of different ages, in different life stages, as well as among rural and urban residents.

Additional Issues that Need to be Investigated in the Context of Chinese Leisure

Leisure space and resources. Rapid urbanization in China led to a decreased amount of public open space and greenery available in cities as well as to worsening air pollution and other environmental problems. These were seen as particularly detrimental to health and quality of life among older adults and children. The respondents discussed how government can provide more public parks and community leisure spaces in cities and tourist destinations. Development of comprehensive plans for utilization of the available public space was seen as a priority.

Leisure education. Because of the focus on economic growth combined with the priority placed on work and education, many Chinese are unable to fully appreciate the value of leisure and they do not know how to spend their leisure time. As one person noted, “There is a need for people to be taught how to enjoy leisure, older people don’t know the value of leisure. Leisure is seen by them as a waste of time. We need to raise awareness and change attitudes.” Another added, “Leisure education needs to bring up awareness of the importance of leisure, help people prioritize leisure time use.” Training of “leisure consultants” who could advise people on “how to choose the most appropriate leisure activities according to their situation (e.g., occupation, health, gender, preferences)” was suggested as a possible solution.

Leisure and traditional culture. Because leisure in contemporary China has been heavily influenced by the processes of globalization and by Western culture, learning how to incorporate traditional Chinese elements and forms into leisure was seen as critical to maintaining traditions and unique qualities of leisure. As one person described it, “In the past leisure [in China] was organized by rich people. Now people take ideas from Western society but don’t know how to apply them, adjust to our culture.” Another added, “Because China has a large culture and history, we should make good use of our cultural resources.”

Discussion and Conclusion

The study helped to identify eight areas that the Chinese leisure scholars believe to be critical to pursue in the next decade. This list is representative of the unique nature of Chinese culture and society (rapidly developing economy that leads to pressures on free time; strong family orientation; desire to preserve and amplify elements of Chinese culture in leisure; the need for leisure education to help people appreciate the value of leisure) as well as practical aspects when it comes to the provision of leisure services in this country (centrally planned economy; lack of open spaces due to urbanization and the effects of the environmental crisis). The results of the study are intended to be distributed to Chinese and North American scholars in hope of informing future research on how leisure can enhance quality of life, social integrity, social stability, and social harmony in China.

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According to Bamber and Hankin (2011) “shifts [towards internationalization] are said to be occurring in higher education pedagogy, where efforts are being made to expand the social, cultural, and human capital of universities and their local communities through experiential learning and active partnership” (p. 190). Internationalization refers to “any systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education [more] responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy, and labor markets” (Van der Wende, 1997, p. 53). Purposive or educative recreation programs such as study abroad have become a standard tool for achieving the goal of internationalization, however, their efficacy and effectiveness are still under scrutiny (Altbach & Knight, 2007; NAFSA, 2011).

In response to this skepticism, scholars have endeavored to empirically demonstrate whether international programs, like study abroad, do in fact provide unique and impactful opportunities for learning about the world (Foronda & Belknap, 2012; Ritz, 2011). Some researchers have recently turned to John Mezirow’s transformative learning theory in an attempt to understand and explain the educative potential of study abroad (Hutchison & Rea, 2011; Ogden, 2010; Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011). Transformative learning theory suggests perspective transformation, seeing the world in a different way, occurs as a person faces a disorienting dilemma and passes through a set of ten phases that solidify the change (Mezirow, 1978). Researchers found perspective transformation, and elements of the transformative learning process, can and do occur in study abroad settings (Hutchison & Rea, 2011; Ogden, 2010; Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011). Wanting in transformative learning literature is quantitative support for these claims (Cheney, 2010; Taylor, 2007).

Similarly lacking in transformative learning and study abroad literature are programmatic and theoretical connections between transformative learning processes and study abroad activities and outcomes. Creating these links between program activities and outcomes, what Harachi, Abbott, Catalano, Haggerty, and Fleming (1999) call “opening the black box,” is of chief concern to study abroad program facilitators (p. 711). Establishing these links and providing evidence of these outcomes in the context of study abroad could potentially provide justification for sizeable investments in internationalization in higher education and inform internal study abroad programming efforts. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study was to quantitatively verify Mezirow’s transformative learning theory as a model to explain the scholastic value of study abroad. The secondary purpose was to explore the relationship between transformative learning activities and study abroad outcomes.

Methods

The sample consisted of university business students (N=107) who had studied abroad sometime in the last five years. A quasi-experimental survey design was employed with cohort and like-study comparison groups. The web based questionnaire utilized a retrospective pretest method. Retrospective pretest measures function to allow a “respondent to reflect back to a previous time (usually pre-program) and indicate his or her current perception of the level of an
attribute he or she possessed at that previous time” (Sibthorp, Paisley, Gookin, & Ward, 2007, p. 297).

The research questionnaire included: (a) the 14-item Learning Activities Survey (King, 2009) to measure transformative learning phases and outcomes (Mezirow, 1978); (b) the 4-item travel efficacy scale (GEx, 2011) established by the Global Explorers organization to measure students’ beliefs in their ability to plan and prepare to travel confidently outside of their community; (c) the 5-item Cultural Awareness Survey (OAB, 2013) to measure intercultural competence (Deardorff, 2006); and (d) a 6-item, pilot tested intention scale to measure intentions to engage further in international education and employment. Demographic information such as ethnicity, gender, age, educational attainment, and declared major was also included in addition to control variables such as prior travel experience, prior language experience, and motivations.

Transformative learning data was cleaned and authenticated using the process outlined by King (2009). Descriptive statistics were calculated and compared to those highlighted in studies of transformative learning in the traditional classroom (Brock, 2010; King, 2000; Yeboah, 2012). Paired sample t-tests were used to measure differences in pre and post travel scores for all study abroad outcome variables. Independent sample t-tests and block entry, logistic regressions were used to examine significance in relationships between transformative learning variables and study abroad outcomes. All tests were run on a 95% confidence interval, \( p < .05 \).

**Results**

Students were predominately white (87.9%), single (72.9%), and female (63.6%). The majority of students ranged in age from 20 to 24 years (70.1%) and approximately 69.3% reported they were pursuing business related degrees. Of those who responded, 30.8% had studied abroad in the reporting year (2013), 22.4% in 2012, 29.0% in 2011, and 17.8% in 2010 and prior. Approximately 58% of short-term study abroad participants \( (n=107) \) reported a perspective transformation according to the guidelines outlined by King (2009).

Measures of specific study abroad program outcomes showed significant change for participants. Post travel efficacy was statistically different from pre travel efficacy \( (t = 10.787, p < 0.001) \), post intercultural competence was statistically different from pre intercultural competence \( (t = 8.154, p < 0.001) \), and post intentions were statistically different from pre intentions \( (t = 5.290, p < 0.001) \). Results indicated change in travel efficacy \( (t = -0.115, p = 0.909) \) and change in intentions \( (t = -1.362, p = -0.176) \) were not statistically related to reports of perspective transformation. Changes in intercultural competence \( (t = -3.110, p = 0.002) \), however, did have a statistically significant relationship with reported perspective transformation in the regression models \( (B = .320, p = .008) \).

Quantitative support for Mezirow’s transformative learning theory was obtained through the study. A significant correlation was found between the sum of phases and reported perspective transformation \( (t = -8.026, p < 0.001) \). The sum of the phases was the only statistically significant contributor to perspective transformation in the regression model \( (t = 7.902, p < 0.001) \). Additional Pearson Chi-Square testing identified statistical significance in relationships between individual transformative learning phases and perspective transformation.

**Discussion**

A variety of known qualitative studies reported perspective transformation was occurring in study abroad settings (Bamber & Hankin, 2011; Ritz, 2011; Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011). This study quantitatively verified these findings, showing 58.0% of students reported perspective transformation. In a comparable quantitative study, Brock, Florescu, and Teran (2012) reported 48.8% of business students in the traditional classroom setting experienced perspective
transformation. This difference in reported perspective transformation suggests study abroad may be more likely to promote perspective transformation for this population. Skeptics queried whether or not short term study abroad could provide lasting transformations (Foronda & Belknap, 2012). The present study responds in the affirmative to this concern and illustrates similar effects can occur in a 2-6 week study abroad program that occur in a semester-long, traditional class (Brock, 2010; King, 2000; Yeboah, 2012). A future study should consider comparing short and long term study abroad programs on these same variables.

As in prior studies (Brock, 2010; Brock et al., 2012), this study empirically supported the finding that the sum of the phases experienced influenced the likelihood of experiencing a perspective transformation. In other words, if one experienced more of the transformative learning phases, he or she was more likely to have a change in perspective. Findings closely matched Brock’s (2010) study, and indicated the occurrence of a disorienting dilemma was the most reported phase experienced by participants. Hutchison and Rea (2011) elucidate this finding, saying “one of the key ways to facilitate transformative learning is to place people in a cultural setting very different from the one they are used to…using a “pedagogy of discomfort” (p. 557).

Findings indicated increases between pre and post-travel scores were observed on all outcome variables. These findings provided additional evidence in support of the efficacy of study abroad programming, especially as it relates to targeted outcomes.

Dirkx, Spohr, Tepper, and Tons (2010) found those who had prior travel experience were less likely to experience perspective transformation and related outcomes during their study abroad. The present study provided additional empirical evidence to support this claim. Foronda and Belknap’s (2012) study describes other blocks to study abroad outcomes. They posit egocentrism or an emotional disconnect can inhibit one from experiencing outcome changes. Interestingly, findings from this study supported those claims and found those with a more holistic or recreation based motivation were more likely to experience changes in intercultural competence and other variables than those with career or academic motivations.

These findings lead us to believe transformative learning can act as both an outcome and a model for change in study abroad settings. The transformative learning model may be a meaningful guide to study abroad programs attempting to influence student values and international perspectives. Ultimately these findings justify financial and temporal investment in study abroad programming and provide some practical ideas for improving internal study abroad efforts. Efforts to more intentionally steer study abroad towards perspective transformation could match program activities to the phases of transformative learning. These activities could include “journaling, group debriefing, peer dialogue, silent reflection, and online blogging (Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011) or “case studies, role play, learning contracts, group projects, concept mapping, consciousness rising, and participation in social action” (Foronda & Belknap, 2012, p. 159).

Future studies could explore the types of activities that influence the phases of transformation and how these activities can be enacted more fully. Further research might also explore differences based on pedagogical or departmental values (humanities vs. business) or administration (programmed perspective transformation activities v. non-programmed activities). Lastly, this study was limited by a small and homogenous sample. Future studies should explore a larger and more diverse population and test these affects across universities and programs.

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Selected References
NATURAL VS. URBAN ENVIRONMENTS: ADHD SYMPTOMS AND PERCEIVED RESTORATIVENESS
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Background

Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is one of the most commonly diagnosed behavioral disorders, affecting 3-9% of children (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2010a) and an estimated 4.2% of working adults (Kessler et al., 2005) in the United States. Although ADHD is traditionally associated with childhood, symptoms can persist into young adulthood and cause profound academic difficulties with subsequent professional implications for the estimated 2-8% of U.S. college students affected by ADHD (Weyandt & DuPaul, 2006). These individuals represent a substantial, yet under-studied, population coping with the cognitive and behavioral symptoms associated with ADHD (e.g., challenges in focus, memory, and sustained attention) during a crucial time in one’s development.

To help address the impacts of ADHD, a growing body of research explores the connection between nature exposure and cognitive functioning as an alternative to traditional, largely pharmaceutical, treatment of the disorder. Finding a possible alternative to stimulant medication (i.e., the most common drug regimen prescribed to treat ADHD; CDC, 2010b) is especially pertinent to this age group; not only do these controlled narcotics come with serious side effects and potential for abuse (Drug Enforcement Administration, 1995), but there has been well documented evidence of rampant illegal redistribution of these substances on college campuses (Aikins, 2011). Although diverting stimulant medication seems to be a fairly recent problem within the past few decades, a potential solution is rooted in environmental psychology theory from over a century ago. James (1892) made the distinction between two types of attention used in cognition (i.e., involuntary vs. voluntary). An individual paying involuntary attention to something requires no effort; this is brought on by inherently exciting or interesting stimuli (Kaplan & Berman, 2010). In contrast, voluntary (now called directed) attention, as the name suggests, is that which only occurs after exerting effort and consciously focusing on stimuli. One experiences voluntary attention “whenever we resist the attractions of more potent stimuli and keep our mind occupied with some object that is naturally unimpressive” (James, 1892, p. 224).

Stemming from James’ original work, Kaplan’s Attention Restoration Theory (ART) has become the cornerstone of this field, which explores the connection between spending time in nature and cognitive performance. According to ART, although directed attention is subject to fatigue after sustained use (e.g., pilots after a long flight), natural settings provide the ideal circumstances to capture voluntary attention (e.g., listening to birds chirp in the woods) rather than requiring one to employ directed attention (e.g., navigating traffic in a busy urban area). Because these natural settings are inherently stimulating and therefore restorative, they are key to the recovery of cognitive mechanisms that enable sustained (i.e., directed) attention (S. Kaplan, 1995). Although this theory has been tested in non-ADHD populations with supportive results (e.g., Berman, Jonides, & Kaplan, 2008), only a few studies involving very small sample sizes (i.e., 12-17) have examined individuals with ADHD (e.g., Faber Taylor & Kuo, 2009), and no major studies to date have involved college students with ADHD specifically. Therefore, the objective of this study was to examine changes in self-reported prevalence of ADHD symptoms after being exposed to natural versus urban settings and differences in the perceived...
restorativeness (i.e., the ability to allow one to recover from stress) of each environment in university students diagnosed with ADHD.

Methods

The intervention consisted of a set of field trials in which 40 university students who have been professionally diagnosed with ADHD were randomly assigned to take a 20-minute walk in either a natural (n=20) or urbanized (n=20) setting. The participants were recruited through a university announcement listserv and were offered a $20 gift card to the university bookstore as an incentive. A set of self-administered questionnaires was given before and after each walk to assess self-reported prevalence of symptoms and perceived restorativeness of the condition environment following the walk. The questionnaires also assessed participants’ specific diagnosis and family history of ADHD, medication use, and demographic information.

Self-reported prevalence of ADHD symptoms was measured based on the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Health Disorders (DSM-IV; American Psychiatric Association, 2000) criteria for diagnosing ADHD. As an example, one item reads “I am feeling physically restless (e.g., difficulty remaining seated through entire survey and concentration test).” Participants responded to six items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=Not at all to 5=Completely) and answered this question both pre- and post-walk.

To gauge the perceived restorativeness of each condition environment post-walk, participants were asked to evaluate 26 items from Hartig’s Perceived Restorativeness Scale (PRS; Hartig et al., 1997) based on the environment in which they walked. An example of a PRS survey item is “Being here is an escape experience.” Respondents indicated their agreement on a 5-point Likert Scale (1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree), with six items phrased in the opposite direction reverse-coded for analyses.

A mean score for prevalence of ADHD symptoms was created, and a difference score was calculated by subtracting each participant’s pre-walk score from their post-walk score to assess if any observed changes differed between groups. Using this difference score, between-group comparisons were examined using univariate analysis of co-variance (ANCOVA), controlling for perceived safety and familiarity of the environment. After reverse-coding the necessary items, a mean PRS score was also created for each participant, and similar univariate ANCOVAs were conducted to examine between-group differences in the perceived restorativeness of each environment following the walk, again controlling for perceived safety and familiarity.

Results

The college student participants were 60% female, 95% white, and on average 21 years old with a fairly even distribution across freshmen through graduate students. The age of ADHD diagnosis ranged from 6 to 25, with a mean age of 12.7 years. Seventy-three percent of the participants currently take medicine to treat ADHD, and 55% reported having an immediate family member also diagnosed with ADHD.

When examining changes in self-reported symptoms, symptoms for neither the urban nor the nature group significantly changed from the pre- to post-walk survey. Specifically, the mean presence of symptoms in the nature group dropped from $M=2.19$ ($SD=0.84$) to $M=1.90$ ($SD=0.97$), but this change was not statistically significant ($t=-1.26; p = .222$). Likewise, for the urban group, mean reported symptoms dropped from $M=2.33$ ($SD=0.93$) to $M=1.98$ ($SD=0.78$), but it again was not a statistically significant decrease ($t=-1.83; p = .083$). The comparison of the difference scores for each group also indicated that the change in reported symptoms pre- to post-walk for the nature group was not significantly different than that of the urban group ($F=0.20; p=.863$).
When examining differences in the perceived restorativeness of each environment, participants in the nature walk group \((M=3.85, \ SD=0.52)\) rated the nature environment as significantly more restorative than the participants in the urban walk group rated the urban environment \((M=2.78, \ SD=0.75; \ F=20.22, \ p=.000)\).

**Discussion**

Although we did not see a significant decrease in reported ADHD symptoms for either the nature or urban groups, we did find that the nature walk group perceived their environment to be significantly more restorative than the urban walk group. These findings correspond with previous studies testing Kaplan’s Attention Restoration Theory and show the restorative benefits of nature exposure (e.g., Faber Taylor & Kuo, 2009; Berman et al., 2008; Berto, 2005). This suggests that natural environments are, at the very least, perceived to be more restorative than urban environments by a previously unstudied population (i.e., college students diagnosed with ADHD).

In contrast to our expectations, we did not see a significant decrease in self-reported symptoms in this study. This may be due to a lack of statistical power given the small sample size of only 20 individuals in each condition environment. Furthermore, the use of self-reported ADHD symptoms may be problematic, as previous studies utilizing self-report measures have called for further future research into the validity of self-reported prevalence of ADHD in university students (e.g., DuPaul et al., 2001). Indeed, although not part of this current analysis, the broader study also included cognitive performance measures (i.e., Stroop color-word task, which assess both correct associations and reaction time of color-text associations) to examine changes in directed attention ability and found that the group walking in a natural setting showed a greater improvement in reaction time compared to the urban group. This suggests that although the participants may not perceive the changes in their ADHD symptoms, those walking in nature are demonstrating improved directed attention after the walk, corresponding with their greater perceived restorativeness of the nature environment compared to the urban environment. As this study examined the impact of just one 20 minute walk, future studies could further investigate the influence of various “doses” of nature exposure, such as longer periods of time or frequency of exposure, which may have a greater impact on symptom prevalence.

Findings from this study provide further evidence of the benefits of nature exposure and its restorative impact on directed attention. Particularly for those affected by ADHD, additional understanding of potential alternative mechanisms to cope with symptoms could translate into enhanced academic and professional performance.

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Childhood participation in sport and recreation activities has long been promoted as essential for developing active healthy children and for learning and establishing societal group norms (Kelly, 1983), and comprehending the importance of participation in sport and recreation activities for developing active healthy children and youth remains a significant goal for recreation professionals (Pate et al, 2006). Equally important are the approaches applied by practitioners over the past several decades with the goal of building healthy children through positive development, inclusion, and encouragement (Coakley, 2011). While these approaches have been effective in enhancing healthy development among children, they also have the potential for negative experiences in early childhood as a result of participating in sport and outdoor recreation activities. When participation lacks the identification of strengths, significant negative self-perceptions can result (Adler, 1927/71). Hansen, Larson, and Dworkin (2003) found that the only time youth reported a higher rate of negative experiences, peer interaction, and inappropriate behavior by adults was when they participated in sports activities. These negative memories can impact trust, reduce confidence, and have the potential for creating lasting impacts which haunt participants through adulthood (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956).

Purpose
The purpose of this exploratory study was to investigate the impact of recollections of recreation experiences from early childhood on adult lifestyle, as defined by Adler, and to develop recommendations for leisure professionals to improve recreation experiences and subsequent recollections for youth. This research was particularly interested in comparing early outdoor recreation activities (e.g., camping and spending time in nature) with more organized sport activities (e.g., baseball, football, lacrosse, hockey, etc.).

Adlerian Framework of Investigation
This research investigation is grounded in Adlerian Psychology (Adler, 1964). Specifically, Adler believed that understanding the client’s “mental guidelines” offered insight into how individuals interact with others in order to measure their own self-worth. Adler also believed that everyone strives toward subjectivity determined by place of significance as a function of early childhood recollections (Ansbacher, 2006). Little is known at this time about how these early influences impact and guide peoples choices and decisions (beyond anecdotal perceptions) throughout their lives. The Individual Psychology of Alfred Adler mentions several influences on individuals’ lifestyles: Early Recollections, Place in the family, and Parent style. Additional influences include how a child was encouraged/discouraged by significant adults. Early memories provide important links and clues as to one’s thoughts, feelings, and present and future actions. One’s view of oneself, others, and the world in general are all influenced by the early, selectively remembered, recollections (Evan & Armstrong, 2011). Sport and leisure activities as remembered from the earliest years influence one’s choices, attitude, thoughts and therefore behavior as demonstrated in a study of early recollections and Adlerian play therapy.

The Foundation and Application of Adlerian Theory
The basic principles of Adlerian Psychology, according to Alfred Adler (1931) posit that the personality is not made up of separate parts, but rather how persons as a whole orient themselves
to the outer world. This emphasis on the importance of being connected to the outside world reflects a fundamental aspect of Adler’s theory of Individual Psychology (Ferguson, 1984). The unity of personality that provides the feelings of wholeness is referred to as “lifestyle.” Considered a mode of living, lifestyle may change with time and circumstances, and reflects a person’s long-term orientation over his/her life span. This encapsulated a person’s sense of self as well as their primary life goal.

Adler believed that each person’s ultimate goal was belonging to the human community. This sense of belonging included embracing a sense of a place as well as feeling that one has contributed to the human society as a whole (Clark, 2002). The idea of “lifestyle” emerged as both a definition of one’s personality and as a long-term orientation of what one’s sense of existence entailed (Kottman, 2003). Collectively, this definition of self included: (a) reflecting on one’s intraspective sense of self, (b) introspection of others, and (c) the holistic view of the world in which one lives (Adler, 1927). Above all things Adler posited that humans are social and can only be fully comprehended within the social context (Ferguson, 1984).

Adler’s work in early childhood recollections has been important for identifying a person’s lifestyle because they capture specific childhood events (Dreikurs, 1950) that an adult can recall and identify how they have impacted their lives. When a child participates in recreation and/or sport (R/S) activities he/she can draw positive conclusions about his/her place in the world, or conversely, if a child fails or experiences rejection from others, he/she may generalize these experiences to his/her place in the larger world. Adler believed that paramount to healthy development is the need for a child’s feeling of belonging which enhances the development of self-confidence, self-worth, adequacy, competence and usefulness which are all necessary components of interactive communication with others which includes developing trust, decency and cooperation (Adler, 1964).

Methods

The methods used for this study were non experimental. The survey used was pilot tested and evaluated by a team of experts to ensure validity. A convenience sample of 385 students from Recreation, Parks and Leisure Services, Sport Management and Introduction to Computing and Applications classes made up study participants from a state university located in Minnesota. Qualitative data of outdoor recreation and sports activities were collected, organized thematically, and analyzed to examine linkages between early memories and eventual lifestyle choices reflecting the following response questions: most encouraging/ positive R/S memories, most discouraging/ positive R/S memories; recommendations: for improving how children “experience” R/S programs, how participation influences self-reflection (I am, others are, the world is, therefore I…), and how prior R/S experiences have influenced how respondents look at life as well as deal with current challenges.

Results

The study examined how participation in outdoor recreation and sport activities in childhood influenced the decisions we make as adults. There were consistent themes that emerged from the analysis, and while most participants reported positive impacts from their participation, those that reported negative impacts were also evident. While many negative recollections dealt with peer interaction and pressure to win at all cost, it is equally important to highlight the influence adults have in leadership positions to provide a significant ameliorating effect. Eighty-five percent of respondents indicated that participation in outdoor recreation and sport enhanced their confidence and built their inner strengths and indicated other adults and team members were both supportive and encouraging. They expressed the view that the world while difficult at times,
offered promising opportunities for success and future challenges. However, fifteen percent of sport participants indicated feeling isolated both as children and as adults. The following quotes demonstrate these isolated feelings: 1) “Not being included, 2) Thinking that life is difficult, 3) Perceiving that others believe I do not matter, and, 4) The world can be an unpredictable scary place.” One respondent stated, “Not being picked by my peers to play left me feeling like I was a loser, that I do not matter, and life is horrible.” Another respondent stated; “Not being included left me believing that I was/am a loser, life is impossible, and the future looks grim.” Conversely, when respondents were asked to reflect on their outdoor recreation experiences, they often highlighted the important role that family played during these activities such as the following respondents who stated, “I used to play outside all the time at home with neighbors and friends or go to their house. Parents would let us play unsupervised which benefitted our ability to think and be creative on our own.” Equally interesting was the fact that respondents indicated that both parents and grandparents were essential to the quality of their outdoor experiences. One respondent stated, “I discovered that I am a child at heart and love to camp and my parents and grandparents led me to these discoveries.”

Thoughts of outdoor recreation experiences were summed up by these early memories: 1) “Others are becoming less [interested] in their inner child, 2) The world is full of opportunities for trying new things and doing things you like, 3) Life is too short and as a kid, did not give up on the things we used to do, and, 4) Therefore, I will always be that kid that loved waking up in the mornings, hearing the birds and being close to nature.” These results shifted significantly when compared to the sport experiences where the family was identified as less important. Respondents emphasized that developing life-long friendships with team mates and feeling part of a team was their strongest memories. One respondent stated, “Playing in state football games and winning solidified my youth. Gaining new friends [through sports] and still having them in my life years later.” The impact of “how” adults influence outdoor recreation and sport activities warrants continued attention from practitioners.

Discussion

The results of the study show that adults in positions of influence with children and youth have, according to participant recollections, a clear effect on youth self-perceptions and, subsequently, on style of life as defined by Adler. These adults would do well to use the principles of cooperation and encouragement in teaching, coaching, parenting, and mentoring. Perceptions of isolation as a result of being excluded from participation in sport seem to result in a poor self-image, a significant indicator of feelings of little worth later in life, as well as little self-worth at the respondents’ current stage in their life. There was no mention of ever feeling isolated when respondents reflected on their outdoor experiences. This may be the result of how families typically engage in outdoor recreation activities together. The results provide a set of recommendations for promoting a movement that builds a healthier society through improved professional practice. Coaches, parents, and mentors should consider utilizing encouragement and supportive words and gestures, strategies to include everyone in activities to reduce feelings of isolation, instruction to children in encouragement and inclusion, and an approach that emphasizes fun over “win-at-all-cost.” The incorporation of such strategies has the potential to positively impact lifestyle for participants now and through adulthood.

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There is a growing body of literature dedicated to understanding the staggeringly lower frequency of participation in physical activity for Black women. Mainly qualitative work points to constraints that pull from their inherent “intersection” as both Black and female; two groups who have, as a whole, been shown to be less physically active than their White and male counterparts (Ogden et al, 2010). Lack of exposure to physical activity as a child, a deficit of physically active Black female role models, idealization of a larger body type, and hair maintenance have been among the constraints that contribute specifically to lower levels of physical activity and higher levels of obesity (Harley et al, 2009). In an attempt to combat these constraints, research has sought to understand their correlates to physical activity to gain a better understanding of how to promote greater physical activity levels and lower levels of obesity and disease (e.g. Ainsworth et al, 2003). The purpose of this study is to understand the role of identity in Black Girls Run! (BGR!), a national running organization for Black women, in facilitating constraint negotiation and promoting participation in the historically White sport of running for this marginalized population.

Crawford et al.’s (1991) hierarchical model of constraints contends that intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints interfere with preferences to participation, while structural constraints interfere with ability to actually participate. Intrapersonal constraints can include those constraints created by social norms and structures, a concept that Jackson and Henderson (1995) coin antecedent constraints. Both race and gender carry with them social expectations antecedent to their identities that both prescribe and proscribe certain kinds of physically active leisure (Bruening et al, 2005). In order to understand the mechanisms through which these constraints are both understood and overcome, recent research has utilized a number of theories from the sociology literature, including social identity theory (SIT) (Jun & Kyle, 2011). SIT suggests that an individual’s behaviors are informed by identification with multiple social groups, both those that are inherent to certain a priori categories, such as race and gender, as well as self-selected social groups (Tajfel, 1978). As individual’s inhabit multiple social identities at any one given time, the saliency of any particular identity is partially situational, and partially the product of the overall importance of that identity within an individual’s life (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). These multiple identities can conflict with each other, requiring identity negotiation (Kahn, 1964), or complement each other, and can facilitate the creation of resources that can be applied to other identities and domains (Marks, 1977).

Building from this theory, Jun and Kyle (2011) tested a structural model of leisure identity, identity conflict and facilitation, constraints, negotiation, and participation, finding that the saliency of an individual’s leisure identity informed the constraint negotiation process and that identity facilitation was positively associated with negotiation. Particularly salient identities such as race and gender are important influences in the formation of other identities, as individuals tend to seek out identification with groups that are congruent or complementary to their existing identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In the case of Black women, the theory of intersectionality suggests that these two identities cannot be separated and together inform other preferences, attitudes, and behaviors (Crenshaw, 1991). The social norms associated with the identity of
Black women make it difficult for this group to construct identification with physical activity in general and even more acutely with recreational running, a sport whose overwhelming majority remains white (Running USA, 2013).

The goal of BGR! is to create a unique connection to running for Black women through the organization. Most importantly, BGR! attempts to create a positive identity for the Black female runner where one has not historically been prescribed and barriers to participation attached to their race and gender identities still exist. Together with their identity as runners, this created identity facilitates the constraint negotiation process and promotes participation. Consistent with and building from Jun and Kyle’s (2011) model, this study hypothesizes that running identity will positively predict negotiation efficacy (H1). Identity as a member of BGR!, acting as an identity facilitator, will also positively predict negotiation efficacy (H2), which will in turn positively predict participation (H3). Constraints, meanwhile, will negatively predict participation (H4). However, BGR! is creating an identity that, for many, did not previously exist; therefore, identity within BGR! is going to be a significantly stronger, positive indicator in the negotiation of constraints and subsequent participation for individuals who did not identify themselves as runners before (H5) (i.e. for those for whom a running identity was not salient prior to joining). This study aims to show the importance of identity not only within the activity itself, but also within this organization in facilitating the negotiation of constraints for this group.

Methods
A survey research design was used to gather data from a sample of members of BGR!. An online survey instrument was distributed in an email from the organization via an anonymous link, sent to a total of 63,013 members. A total of 20,211 members opened the email, and 3,925 valid responses were received.

In terms of measures, identity can be broken into three layered components: core of identity (i.e. self-definition, importance, and affect of the identity), which in turn informs the content of identity (i.e. beliefs, goals, traits and skills within the identity), and behaviors of identity, which can be both an outcome and facilitator of identification (Ashforth et al., 2008). Despite this somewhat simple model, identity has been operationalized using a number of different theoretical constructs to convey identity within a group or organization, based partially upon varying content and behaviors associated with different groups. The construct of psychological involvement has been a useful for measuring one’s sense of identity particularly with a leisure activity (Jun & Kyle, 2011) or a voluntary organization (Lock et al, 2011) (i.e. activities and groups into which individuals self-select for their own betterment and/or enjoyment). Beaton et al. (2011) defines the three facets of involvement using the following: (a) pleasure - the hedonic value associated with the activity, (b) centrality - the central role an activity plays in one’s life, and (c) self-expression - the level of symbolism that the activity represents. These three dimensions thus encompass the three components of the core of identity (i.e. affect, importance, and self-definition) (Ashforth et al, 2008). Members’ psychological involvement both toward running and the organization was captured as a measure of their level of their core identity within each. Two items from each of the three facets were measured on 7-pt Likert scale from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

Rather than measuring negotiation strategies, this study used negotiation efficacy, a theoretical construct based upon the concept of self-efficacy, defined belief in one’s ability to overcome constraints (Louck’s-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007). Negotiation efficacy for running was measured using three items from Ridinger et al. (2012). A 7-point Likert scale was also used. A total of six constraints (i.e. confidence, skill, health, time, preference, and hair
management) were measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Participation was measured using a composite of how many miles a week members ran and how many running events they participated in within the last 12 months. The model was tested using partial least squares-structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). For this study, PLS-SEM was chosen for its ability to measure both formative constructs such as perceived constraints and the reflective constructs of psychological involvement and negotiation efficacy.

**Results**

Structural model analysis found that average variance explained for the latent constructs was above the recommended .50, and was higher than that correlation with all other measurements, suggesting that the measurement model has adequate discriminant validity. Composite reliability was also satisfactory, above the recommended .70 threshold. The loadings and cross loadings of each construct also indicated that the items comprised of each construct displayed adequate convergent validity. Testing of the overall model found that 7.2% of the variance in participation was explained. H1 and H2 were both supported, as negotiation efficacy was significantly predicted both by running identity ($\beta=.610, t=42.48, p<.001$) and BGR! identity ($\beta=.143, t=9.33, p<.001$). Consistent with H3, negotiation efficacy also has a significant positive relationship with participation ($\beta=.270, t=16.09, p<.001$). No other paths were significant, and therefore H4 was not supported. A total of 1,529 members indicated that they considered themselves runners before joining BGR!, and 2,396 indicated that they did not. The two groups did not significantly vary in their demographic indicators, including education, family structure, age, and income. Model comparisons of these two groups supported H5. The model explained 6.2% of the variance for those members who were runners before joining, and 11.2% for those who were not. Similarly, pairwise t-tests used to compare the path coefficients of the two models found that the differences in variance were driven by a significantly higher positive association between both BGR! identity and negotiation efficacy ($t=2.34, p<.01$), as well as a significantly higher positive association between negotiation efficacy and participation ($t=2.81, p<.01$) for members who did not consider themselves runners before joining BGR!. No other significant differences were found.

**Discussion**

For the overall sample, a running identity facilitates the constraint negotiation process, supporting Jun and Kyle’s (2011) previous findings that leisure identity positively predicts participation through constraint negotiation and that identity facilitation can enhance the negotiation process. Despite the fact that running has historically been an activity not associated with the Black female identity, this organization acts as an identity facilitator for this population; thus, positively predicting the negotiation of constraints, consistent with the perspective that one’s identity within a group can create the psychological resources that can be applied to other identities (Marks, 1977). This study also tests the moderation of a previous running identity, in order to understand the extent to which an identity in BGR! facilitates an identity that did not exist. This facilitation is more salient for members who responded that they did not identify themselves as runners before joining the organization. Practically, this study adds to the literature that seeks an answer to the systemic obesity and other health issues that plague the Black female population due, in large part, to lower levels of physical activity (Ogden et al., 2010). This organization, created by Black women for Black women, has been successful in creating an outlet for participation in running for a group for whom this activity was not an option before, as evidenced by the number of women who did not run before joining the organization, but now do. As this organization continues to grow, examining the mechanisms through which this identity is
created, and how it interacts with members’ other identities, will allow for a greater understanding of the theoretical implications of identity development and the practical implications for intervention success.

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THE EFFECT OF LEISURE ON CHINESE HAPPINESS WITH DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES: EVIDENCE FROM A NATIONWIDE SURVEY

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Monika Stodolska, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

With the rapid growth of the economy in the past 30 years, the standard of living among the Chinese people has been steadily improving (Zhou, Li, Xue, & Lei, 2012). Besides the growing quality of life, the amount of leisure time and the spending on leisure among the Chinese has also increased (Yin, 2005; Zhai & Xiao, 2004). As a result of the significant changes in the Chinese economy, mainland Chinese not only have more time to participate in leisure activities but also the financial resources to do so (Liang & Walker, 2011). This has led to increased attention paid to issues of happiness among the local population. As the previous literature has shown, research on factors that affect happiness is increasingly popular in the fields of economics, sociology, and leisure studies. Moreover, some studies have been conducted on how leisure affects life satisfaction and well-being among the Chinese (Vong, 2005; Spiers & Walker, 2009). These studies, however, have focused on overseas Chinese or Chinese residing in Hong Kong, Macao or Taiwan or were based on very small samples, thus lacking generalizability. This goal of this exploratory research is to examine how leisure time, leisure activities and demographic factors affect Chinese people’s happiness. It takes advantage of a large scale, country-wide survey (Survey of the Chinese Economic Life - SCEL) that explored leisure behaviors of Chinese citizens.

Methods

The SCEL survey covered all 31 provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities of Mainland China, which was conducted from May, 2011 to Feb, 2012. After eliminating improperly completed surveys, 73,622 complete questionnaires were obtained with a valid response rate of 86.6%. In order to minimize omissions, improperly completed surveys and to overcome problem of limited literacy, trained postal employees recorded the responses to the survey. A questionnaire had two sections. The first section included 14 questions, three of which referred to leisure time, leisure activities and happiness. The second section included demographic questions. The two questions that pertained to leisure that were used in the study included: “How much leisure time (except for sleeping, schooling and eating) on average per day did you have in 2011?” In the second question, respondents were asked to choose their three most often participated in leisure activities out of the list of nine pastimes. To measure the level of happiness, the respondents were asked “How satisfied are you with your life as a whole?” A 5-point Likert scale from “Very happy” to “Very unhappy” was used. Leisure activities were grouped into five categories in order to analyze the data (“passive/media-based”, “other home-based”, “exercising”, “social”, and “shopping”). Data analysis consisted of three stages: 1. After excluding invalid respondents, means and standard deviations for the leisure time and happiness were computed. 2. To examine the reliability, standardized Cronbach coefficient alphas for leisure time and happiness were calculated. 3. Ordered logit regressions were used to examine effects of leisure on happiness.

Findings

The Effect of Leisure Time and Leisure Activities on Happiness among the Chinese

Leisure time. More leisure time brought more happiness (p<0.01 0.049). In addition, the odds-ratios (1.05) for leisure time indicated that one unit increase in leisure time would lead to a 1.05 increase in the log odds of being at a higher level of happiness, ceteris paribus.
Leisure activities. Passive media-based activities were found to increase happiness (p<0.01, 0.052), while the effects of exercising, social activities or shopping were not statistically significant.

The Effects of Demographic Variables on Happiness among the Chinese

Income. Happiness tended to increase with income (p<0.01, 0.215). In general, however, the probability of a person being “very happy” was low, regardless of income.

Gender. Women tended to be happier than men (p<0.01; -0.135). Further analysis indicated that the predicted probability of a woman being “very happy” was less than 5% and “being very unhappy” was 13.7%.

Age. An individual’s age was found to have no statistically significant effect on happiness.

Education. People with higher education felt less happy than those with lower education.

Rural / urban residence. Urban respondents were found to be happier than those residing in rural areas (p<0.01; 0.089).

Discussion/Conclusions
The study showed that passive leisure activities (watching TV and surfing the Internet) had a significant positive effect on happiness among the Chinese residents while active and social activities and shopping seemed to have no effect on happiness. These results seem to be quite surprising as some of the existing research shows that participation in passive activities has either no effect or has a negative effect on happiness, while participation in active pastimes has a positive effect (Van Praag et al. 2003; Ateca-Amestoy et al. ,2004). This finding may be partly explained by cultural differences, as under the influence of Confucianism, Chinese people tend to be work-oriented (Li, 2009) and have a preference for pursuing tranquil and peaceful leisure life (Wang & Stringer, 2000). Moreover, traditionally, physical activity has been contrasted with mental or intellectual capacities (Walker & Deng, 2004; Wang & Stringer, 2000) and people participating in physically active leisure were looked down upon in social circles. As a result, it is seems reasonable that quiet and relaxing activities such as watching TV and surfing the Internet were found to increase Chinese people’s happiness. In addition, Chinese might feel no enjoyment or happiness from participation in active leisure since they have low levels of self-efficacy when it comes to physical activity participation. Lastly, it is possible that these variables are endogenous determined with happiness which are not accounted for in the regression model. People with higher education in China might have been more aware of the constraints of the current political social life (e.g. freedom and democracy) and then more complain their own situation except for income status which decreased their happiness level. Urban respondents appeared to be happier than those residing in rural areas. This result supports the current research that shows that significant inequalities in the standards of living exist between rural and urban China (He and Pan, 2011). For Mainland Chinese, ensuring adequate leisure time and enhancing the leisure literacy of the general public and of professionals in practice seems worthwhile. And it is also urgent for Chinese government to properly design policies and energetically relieve income inequality for Chinese happiness.
Table 1. *The Statistical Report of Leisure Behavior*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Leisure Time</td>
<td>0.049*** (11.00)</td>
<td>1.050* (11.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive</td>
<td>0.052*** (2.87)</td>
<td>1.053* (2.87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise</td>
<td>-0.044 (0.53)</td>
<td>0.956* (0.53)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>0.051 (0.76)</td>
<td>1.053* (0.76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>0.028 (0.84)</td>
<td>1.028* (0.84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>0.215*** (23.15)</td>
<td>1.239* (23.15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>-0.113*** (4.42)</td>
<td>0.892* (4.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>-0.065** (2.40)</td>
<td>0.936* (2.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>-0.076*** (2.31)</td>
<td>0.926* (2.31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>0.089*** (5.50)</td>
<td>1.093* (5.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.016 (1.35)</td>
<td>0.983* (1.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>-0.135*** (9.76)</td>
<td>0.872* (9.76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial dummy</td>
<td>controlled</td>
<td>controlled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$ (prob &gt; $\chi^2$)</td>
<td>2451.61 (0.000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R2</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Obs.</td>
<td>7322</td>
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ADOLESCENT LEISURE EFFICACY AND MOTIVATION: A CROSS-NATIONAL COMPARISON

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Adolescent leisure has received increased attention from researchers and policy makers in many countries throughout the world. Globally, leisure is viewed as an important developmental context in which the lives of youth can be significantly improved (Verma & Larson, 2003). Cross national research has examined the role of leisure as a context of risk (e.g., Patterson, Pegg, & Dobson-Paterson, 2000) and reported on leisure-based prevention interventions to reduce risky behaviors such as substance use and unprotected sexual activity (Caldwell, Weichold, & Smith, 2006) in nations such as Germany, South Africa, and Australia.

Theories of self-determination and motivation are central to leisure scientists’ understanding of leisure behavior. Leisure motivation affects the quality of leisure experience and associated developmental outcomes (Reddon, Pope, Friel, & Sinha, 1996). Intrinsic motivation, an inherent tendency to engage in activities due to deep interest and personal satisfaction, is associated with enjoyment and healthy youth development (Ryan & Deci, 2000). On the other hand, amotivation (non-intentionally motivated behavior) and extrinsic motivation (behavior motivated to meet external demands) are often linked to boredom and risky behavior among adolescents (Patterson et al., 2000). In order to promote intrinsic motivation and thwart amotivation, it is important to understand how intrinsic motivation develops and is maintained. Some research has shown that self-efficacy, the belief in one’s ability to reach one’s goals, is a key factor in promoting intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2012).

As programs to prevent risky behaviors and promote healthy behaviors are being transported rapidly across borders, a primary concern is the cultural equivalence of constructs and how they are related. Walker, Deng & Dieser (2005) and Mannell (2005) suggested that intrinsic motivation may operate differently depending on cultural context, although research in this area is generally lacking. To address this research gap, this exploratory study examined the effect of leisure efficacy on leisure motivations among adolescents in US and South Africa (SA). We first assessed whether the factor structure of the constructs was equivalent across contexts, and then we asked whether the relations among constructs were equivalent. Evidence of equivalence may suggest that programs or interventions that focus on understanding and promoting intrinsic leisure motivation may be shared across the two cultural contexts. Lack of equivalence may suggest areas where cultural adaptations of programs are needed.

Methods

Data for this study comes from two leisure-focused interventions. The first was a substance use prevention program implemented in a middle school in a rural area in northeastern US. The second intervention expanded and culturally adapted the first intervention and was launched in an urban area in SA. This second intervention focused both on substance use and sexual risk. Both interventions collected data through surveys from control and treatment groups. To filter the unwanted effect of intervention treatment, only students in the control groups were selected for this study. Specifically, the US sample consists of 310 students in the 8th grade, and the SA
sample is comprised of 1286 students in the same grade. In this study leisure motivation was measured by the shortened Free Time Motivation Scale for Adolescents (FTMS-A; Baldwin & Caldwell, 2003), which consists of 14 items and covers amotivation, external, introjected, identified, and intrinsic motivations. The FTMS-A was derived from self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Consistent with previous studies (Younker, Caldwell, Coffman, & Smith, 2008), Exploratory Factor Analysis yielded three factors: Amotivation, Extrinsic (external and introjected), and Intrinsic (identified and intrinsic). Therefore, the three-factor motivation structure was used in the model testing. Leisure efficacy was measured by a 4-item scale used in both studies to measure students’ ability to make their leisure more fun (e.g., I am confident I can overcome things that get in the way of doing what I want to do in my free time).

Multiple Group Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to test whether the relationship between leisure efficacy and motivations (i.e., path coefficients in the model) varied between US and SA students. Prior to that, Multiple Group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to test the measurement invariance (i.e., invariance in factor structure and loadings; MacCallum, Rosnowski, Mar, & Reith, 1994). A total of 4% of cases had missing values. Multiple Imputation based on Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm was performed in LISREL 9.10 to impute the missing values. The test of measurement invariance involved two steps. First, a configural invariance model was estimated in which the factor structure was fixed as the same across the two groups while other model parameters were freely estimated for each group. Model fit indices indicated how well the same factor structure fit the two groups. Second, a factor loading invariance model was estimated where factor loadings were constrained to be equal across the two groups. The difference in the goodness of fit between the two models was then used to assess factor loading invariance (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

After ensuring measurement invariance, differences in path coefficients (i.e., relationships between leisure efficacy and motivations) were examined between the two groups using LISREL 9.10. First, a baseline model was estimated in which all three path coefficients were freely estimated for the two groups. Then a constrained model was estimated in which all three path coefficients were constrained to be equal across the two groups. The Chi-square difference between the two models was used to assess the overall path coefficients invariance. In situations where the Chi-square difference for the overall test is significant, the equality constraint is put on each individual path coefficient to find out the one(s) that vary across groups.

Results

The configural invariance model achieved a reasonable fit ($\chi^2(258) = 974.056, p < .01$; CFI = .961; RMSEA = .0590; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999), supporting that the two groups shared the same factorial structure. After all factor loadings were constrained to be equal between the two groups (i.e., factor loading invariance model), the model fit remained similar ($\chi^2(272) = 1059.544, p < .01$; CFI = .957; RMSEA = .0603). Although the change in Chi-square was statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(14) = 85.488, p < .01$), constraining a total of 14 factor loadings only
resulted in trivial change in both CFI and RMESA (i.e., $\Delta$CFI = -0.004; $\Delta$RMSEA = 0.0013). In this case, the factor loadings in the two groups can reasonably be considered to be invariant (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

The baseline model had a reasonable fit ($\chi^2$ (272) = 1059.544, $p < .01$; CFI = .957; RMSEA = .0603). When the three path coefficients were constrained to be equal across the two groups, a significant change in Chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2$(3) = 55.935; $p < .01$) was observed. In addition, the constraints resulted in an increase of .016 in RMSEA and decrease of .003 in CFI. This indicated that there was an overall difference in path coefficients between the two groups. Results showed that each individual equality constraints caused a significant change in Chi-square ($Efficacy – Amotivation: \Delta\chi^2$(1) = 38.115, $p < .01$; Efficacy – Extrinsic: $\Delta\chi^2$(1) = 4.688, $p < .05$; Efficacy – Intrinsic: $\Delta\chi^2$(1) = 10.307, $p < .01$), indicating the effect of leisure efficacy on each type of leisure motivation was different among US and SA students. For US students, leisure efficacy had a significant negative effect on amotivation ($b = -0.565$, $p < .01$), which was contrasted with a non-significant negative effect ($b = -0.076$, $p > .05$) among SA students. Leisure efficacy had a significant positive effect on extrinsic motivation ($b = .201$, $p < .05$) among SA students, but a non-significant positive effect among US students ($b = .004$, $p < .10$). For both US and SA students, leisure efficacy had a significant positive effect on intrinsic motivation. However, the effect was stronger among SA students ($b = .780$, $p < .01$) than among the US students ($b = .609$, $p < .01$) (Figure 1).

**Discussion**

Although we found evidence that the same items may be used to measure leisure motivation and efficacy in both samples, the relation between leisure efficacy and leisure motivations differed between US and SA students for amotivation, extrinsic, and intrinsic motivation. As expected, in the US, a higher level of efficacy resulted in a lower level of amotivation; this relation did not exist with the SA sample. Surprisingly, in the SA sample, a higher level of efficacy was associated with a higher level of extrinsic motivation; there was no relation between the two in the US sample. As predicted by self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) in both US and SA samples, higher levels of efficacy resulted in higher levels of intrinsic motivation. However, this effect was slightly stronger in SA sample than in US sample.

Because the current study represents secondary analysis we are unable to fully explore reasons why these differences exist. Both samples came from relatively low income areas, although the SA sample was in a much lower socio-economic area. Recreation and leisure resources were limited in both areas. Other reasons for these differences may include the fact that the US sample was largely rural and the SA sample was urban. Or the differences may be a result of the different cultural contexts in which the samples were derived. Specifically, US adolescents typically grow up in more individualistic culture, while SA has a more collectivistic culture (Hofstede, 2001). It is likely that the totality of the context, including resources, opportunities, and cultural values and mores, are in play here.

It is clear to us that as researchers across the globe come together to solve problems, one cannot take for granted that what works in one country will work in another. Our results suggest that as programs are shared across borders, it is necessary to engage in a deliberate effort to understand how the theoretical foundations of such programs may operate differently across cultural contexts.

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