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Abstracts from the
2011 Leisure Research Symposium

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PREFACE—2011 LEISURE RESEARCH SYMPOSIUM

We are pleased to present the abstracts for the 34th annual Leisure Research Symposium held in conjunction with the National Recreation and Parks Association Congress in Atlanta, Georgia, November 1-4, 2011. This year we received 89 abstracts which included one panel presentation for review. Of those, 60 oral paper presentations plus a panel session and 14 posters (13 will be presented) 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. Brian Hill, Brigham Young University, is coordinating the poster session which is a joint session with NTRS. This year we have one panel session, a new submission category introduced in 2009.

The 2011 LRS starts with the Butler Lecture first thing in the morning on Wednesday November 2nd addressing the topic of “New Technologies and the Changing Face of Leisure.” Dr. Galit Nimrod of the Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel will deliver the main keynote speech. Her presentation will be followed by two discussants – Dr. Neil Lundberg of Brigham Young University and Nic Holt of the University of Georgia.

The LRS oral presentations will start right after the Butler Lecture on November 2nd with a range of themed sessions. This year we continued using some of the new submission categories developed for the 2009 symposium. At the end of the review process we grouped the papers by theme and a focus on health and physical activity seems to predominate this year with sessions on physical activity in general and among youth, mental health, and leisure and well-being. The recent focus on physical activity continues from last year with more papers submitted for consideration under this category than any other. Sessions on serious leisure, care giving, and a panel on youth development at camp join the regular LRS topics such as outdoor recreation, methods, tourism, culture, and leisure behavior. We hope there are sessions of interest to everybody. The moderators have been asked to facilitate discussion on a particular theme at the end of each session, so please stay and engage in what we hope will be some lively debates.

As ever we could not have organize the LRS by ourselves. Our thanks go to the review coordinators and reviewers whose dedication and willingness to serve are much appreciated. As ever, we thank our NRPA staff liaison, Danielle Price who has worked extremely hard once again this year and Brian Hill for coordinating the poster session. We also extend our thanks to the presenters for sharing their work and the moderators for helping us to engage in scholarly debate. We are looking forward to seeing you all in Atlanta and sharing the 34th Leisure Research Symposium with you.

Kathleen Andereck and Monika Stodolska
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FEAR OF CRIME AND OUTDOOR RECREATION AMONG MEXICAN-AMERICAN ADOLESCENTS
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Introduction
Existing research suggests that fear of crime may constrain recreation participation among adolescents and adults. In particular, participation in outdoor physical activity may be negatively affected which, in turn, may contribute to high obesity levels among minority youth. For instance, Gordon-Laresen, McMurray, and Popkin (2000) found an association between high levels of crime and the decreased likelihood of being frequently involved in vigorous physical activities among middle and high school students. Molnar, Gortmaker, Bull, and Buka (2004) argued that crime may constrain physical activity among adolescents because of the lack of safety while playing sports or games in the neighborhood and because of adolescents’ exposure to crime when traveling to or from recreational activities. Our study was designed to contribute to this literature by examining how fear of crime affects participation in outdoor recreation among Latino adolescents. Outdoor recreation in three environments was evaluated: school yards/school grounds; parks; and neighborhood streets, sidewalks, alleys, and front/backyards. The specific objectives of this study were to: 1) examine the effects of crime on outdoor recreation among Latino adolescents; 2) determine which recreation activities and locations were most likely to be affected by crime; 3) investigate the restrictions imposed by parents on outdoor recreation of adolescents due to crime concerns and; 4) identify negotiation strategies adopted by adolescents to increase safety while participating in outdoor recreation. Theory of environmental stress (Sanders-Phillips, 2000), theory of behavior settings (Schoggen, 1989), and human territorial functioning theory (Taylor, 1988) were used to explain the findings of the study.

Methods
Data for the study were collected between May and November, 2010 in two middle schools and two high schools in Little Village (Chicago, Illinois). The study consisted of two phases. First, Latino adolescents ages 11-14 (grades 6-8) and 15-18 (grades 9-12) completed surveys aimed at addressing the research questions. Respondents were asked if they would like to participate in the second data collection phase (interviews). From the list of interested students, 25 adolescents were selected based on their gender and age, and were offered a $30 gift card to Target. Only data from the interviews are included in this paper. The interviews lasted between 20 and 35 minutes and were conducted in English by the three authors of this study. Of the 13 middle school students (7 male and 6 female), 4 were from 6th grade, 5 from 7th grade, and 4 from 8th grade. Twelve high school students (7 male and 5 female) included 3 freshmen, 1 sophomore, 2 juniors, and 6 seniors. All students (except one who was born in Mexico) were second generation immigrants from Mexico. The interviewees were asked about the crime levels in their neighborhood, how crime affected their recreation participation, constraints on leisure due to their fear of crime, restrictions on leisure imposed by their parents, and what adolescents did to increase safety while participating in leisure. Theory of environmental stress (Sanders-Phillips, 2000), theory of behavior settings (Schoggen, 1989), and human territorial functioning theory (Taylor, 1988) were used to explain the findings of the study.
the first interview had been completed and lasted throughout the duration of the study. Following each interview, two sets of notes were created. The first one included contextual information regarding the interview. The second included a summary of the main themes that had surfaced during the conversation and the researchers’ preliminary interpretation of the information. The transcripts were analyzed using a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

**Findings**

*The Effects of Crime on Outdoor Recreation among the Latino Adolescents.* The majority of the adolescents said that crime was a serious problem in their community and recalled many instances of being exposed to or having witnessed crime. The adolescents had been shot at, beaten, and had their property stolen. They had witnessed people being assaulted and killed, gang shootings, fights, carjackings, drug use and gang activity in the area. Their family members and friends had also been victims of violent crime. For instance, 15 year old Moises recalled a shooting that happened outside his school: “When I was playing soccer all of a sudden they started shooting here in this spot where we play soccer. We didn’t see a car that was driving by… I actually know these two gang members, they were just standing there smoking and they suddenly popped out their guns and just started shooting everywhere and gladly I’m behind this brick concrete where I’m just staying down. One of my friends got shot in the leg and those other two gang members were dead by the end of the day.”

Fear of crime prevented adolescents from visiting parks, pools, and clubs if they were in locations that required crossing gang boundaries. Fear restricted their participation in activities that took place after dark (e.g., sport practice, after school activities), and it diminished their fun while participating in leisure (adolescents felt they had to be vigilant at all time). For instance, Miriam (9th grade) said, “I can’t go outside because I’m scared and I can’t go outside to play in the snow. And I can’t go to the park.” Although younger (10-12 year old) adolescents were more likely to be recruited to gangs, fear of crime seemed to constrain outdoor recreation among older adolescents more, as they were more aware of the extent of the crime problem in the community and were more likely to be victims of serious crime. Fear of sexual assault was particularly pronounced among high school girls.

*Leisure Activities and Locations that Were Most Likely to be Affected by Crime.* When evaluating safety of activities, adolescents considered where and when they took place, whether they were supervised, the ease with which they could be relocated, the equipment that was used, and the people with whom they participated. Among younger adolescents, games that could be played close to home and easily moved to safer location were considered safer than the ones that were more difficult to relocate. For instance, Veronica from 8th grade commented, “The tag one [is safe] because you can always move it to somewhere else. Softball is kind of hard because we can only play in that space, we can’t play in a yard.” Older adolescents believed that indoor, supervised (e.g., by coaches, teachers), and/or daytime activities were safer than the ones that were played in the evening, outside, and were unsupervised. School grounds were considered the safest locations “’Cause you would be able to talk to a teacher. The teachers or the coaches can tell if it’s safe or not” (Pamela, 12th grade). Areas around the house were also considered safe “Because I have our phone just in case we are attacked, I can run into my house and get the phone and call someone to tell” (Diego, 7th grade). Streets, alleys and parks, especially at night, were considered the least safe. All adolescents were reluctant to participate in activities that required crossing gang boundaries.

*Restrictions Imposed by Parents on Adolescents’ Outdoor Recreation.* Parents were concerned about their children’s safety and put many restrictions on their outdoor recreation.
They strictly monitored their children’s activities, imposed curfews, dropped them off and picked them up from games, did not allow their children to venture into the neighborhood unaccompanied by siblings or other family members, put restrictions on locations where adolescents could spend their free time, frequently phoned to check on their safety, and reminded them to stay out of trouble. Parents of Michelle (6th grade) put a reminder card on the refrigerator of what she was to do in case of danger: “They suggested all the rules and said not being outside, not being on the street, be safe and scream if people try to grab you.” Most adolescents believed that girls’ out-of-home activities were more strictly supervised as parents were concerned about teen pregnancy, sexual assaults, and girls not being able to defend themselves if attacked. Sylvia (12th grade) commented, “They are afraid I’m gonna get on drugs or that I will go in a bad direction. They’re also afraid I will end up pregnant ‘cuz my mom got pregnant when she was 16 and she don’t want that for me.”

**Negotiation Strategies Employed by Adolescents.** Adolescents devised many strategies to stay away from crime and increase their safety when participating in leisure. They stayed in groups, participated in out-of-home activities only during the day, were aware of their surroundings, kept their phones nearby, avoided eye contact with gang members, watched their dress and haircuts, tried not to draw attention to themselves with flashy clothes or jewelry, knew the gang boundaries in the community and made sure to stay within their “hood.” Elena (7th grade) noted, “Usually, if I see a big group of gangsters I would stand next to my house or go inside a fence so they don’t bother me. Or like there’s a big group of people who are having a cookout I would stand next to them, so they wouldn’t bother me either.” Some of the adolescents also devised strategies in case they were attacked by gang members: “We just separate, split up, if he chases one of them the other one runs inside the house and calls for help” (Diego, 7th grade).

**Conclusions**

The study’s findings provide insight into the scholarship on leisure constraints on outdoor recreation and crime among adolescents—a factor that has been infrequently examined by leisure researchers (Chavez, Tynon, & Knap, 2004; Stodolska, Acevedo, & Shinew, 2009). As predicted by the theory of environmental stress (Sanders-Phillips, 2000), the findings showed that chronic exposure to crime decreases adolescents’ motivation to adopt and sustain health-promoting behaviors such as physical activity in the outdoors. Our findings have clear implications for community policy makers and leisure practitioners whose goal is to increase physical activity levels and reduce obesity among minority adolescents. For instance, certain types of behavior settings (Schoggen, 1989), such as the ones that are supervised and associated with positive community organizations (e.g., schools or neighborhood clubs) may promote higher levels of LTPA among urban minority youth. Practitioners also need to be aware that in response to crime, adolescents may adopt certain territorial behaviors (Taylor, 1988) that can affect their willingness to participate in LTPA in parts of the neighborhood. Lastly, increasing police presence in outdoor recreation environments (e.g., parks, school grounds) especially in the evening hours may contribute to increasing physical activity levels among Latino adolescents.

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References


PATTERNS OF SOCIAL ACTIVITY PARTICIPATION AMONG OLDER ADULTS
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Social engagement is known to be linked to better physical and mental health (e.g., low levels of depression, happiness, affection), which is associated with life satisfaction and well-being among older adults (Hong, Hasche, & Bowland, 2009; Pinquart & Sörensen, 2000). Researchers have investigated changes in a variety of leisure activities among different age groups (Iso-Ahola, Jackson, & Dunn, 1994; Strain, Grabusic, Searle, & Dunn, 2002), providing insightful knowledge of individuals’ propensity to participate in activities according to different socio-demographics characteristics and age-related changes. However, less is known regarding how patterns of social engagement among older adults change over time. The literature indicates that adults in later life often experience negative life events (e.g., declined health or loss of companions), and that successful aging may depend on how well they adapt to these age-related changes (Baltes & Baltes, 1990). Baltes and Baltes (1990) proposed that older adults continuously choose and adjust to changes as they age through the process of selection, optimization and compensation (SOC). Baltes and Carstensen (1999) also pointed out that adults are inclined to discard unimportant relationships and motivated to engage more in emotionally meaningful social relationships as they age. The purpose of this study was to explore the different patterns of social participation among older adults and their perceived level of satisfaction with the quantity of their social activities over time. Specifically, changes in the nature of adults’ social interaction and chosen social groups were examined. This study examined through the use of longitudinal data.

Methods
The Second Longitudinal Studies of Aging (LSOA II) is a nationally representative dataset of American adults aged 70 years and older. The purpose of the LSOA II was to investigate changes in health, functional status, and activity participation. The LSOA II was conducted in three waves from 1994 to 2000: Wave 1 occurred between 1994 and 1996, Wave 2 from 1997-1998, and Wave 3 from 1999-2000. A total of 9,447 participants were in the dataset at Wave 1. Participants who did not complete the three waves of the study due to health problems or participant death were excluded from the analyses due to missing data, leaving a final sample size for this study of 4,755 individuals. The participants had a mean age of 81. Most of the respondents were female (63%), White (89.1%), married (53%), and had graduated high school (63%). Over 40% reported their health as very good or excellent.

The LSOA II measured seven social activities in each of three waves: 1) getting together with friends and neighbors, 2) talking on the phone with friends or neighbors, 3) getting together with relatives, 4) talking on the phone with relatives, 5) going to church or temple services, 6) going to movies or sporting events, and 7) going out to eat at restaurants. Adults were asked whether they participated in social activities during past two weeks (yes=1, no =0). They were also asked whether their present social activities were “about enough,” “too much,” or “they would like to do more”, with ‘about enough’ indicating satisfaction. Activities of daily living (ADLs; e.g., bathing, dressing) and instrumental activities of daily living (IADLs; preparing meals) were assessed to measure a level of functioning in daily tasks. The Nagi scale (NAGI) was used to measure functional limitations (e.g., difficulty walking for a quarter-mile). ADLs, IADLs, and functional limitations ranged from (0) none to (6) or (7) physical difficulties. Age
was measured as a continuous variable. Sex and marital status (Living with spouse vs. living alone) were entered as dummy variables. Self-rated health ranged from (1) poor to (5) excellent.

The data was analyzed using SPSS 18.0. In order to calculate changes of social activity participation, the number of activities in Wave 3 was subtracted from the number of activities of Wave 1. Based on the results, the older adults were classified into three groups: Expanders had added at least one social activity to their repertoire, Continuers did not show any changes in their overall number of social activities, and Ceasers stopped participation in at least one of their social activities without replacing it with another. Chi-square tests were conducted to examine differences in the three groups and to identify their perceived level of satisfaction.

In addition, older adults were sorted based on their patterns in four social activities in Wave 3: 1) getting together with friends and neighbors, 2) talking on the phone with friends or neighbors, 3) getting together with relatives, and 4) talking on the phone with relatives. Four groups were identified: those only participating in talking on phone with others (N=402), those who only got together with others (N=222), those who ceased all four activities (N= 51), and those who participated in all four social activities (N=3751). Next, older adults were analyzed based on with whom they socialized. Four groups were found: those participating in activities with only friends and neighbors (N=213), with only relatives (N=408), with no one (N=129), and with both (N=3743). Two discriminant function analyses were conducted to predict differences between the two groups who chose only one type of social activity (only getting together and only talking on phone) and the other two groups (relationships with only friends and neighbors and only relatives) based on their age, gender, health, and physical difficulties.

**Results**

Older adults were classified into three groups: Expanders (27.3%), Continuers (29.4%), and Ceasers (43.3%). Results of the Chi-square tests revealed that adults who ceased social participation appeared to have less income, reported their health as fair or poor (32.6%), and reported more physical difficulties than the Expanders and Continuers. Table 1 shows the rates of social activity participation across the three waves. Due to the space limitations, the percentage of participation in three out of seven social activities in the Expander and Ceaser groups are presented. Continuers showed stable participation rates throughout the three waves. Expanders added social activities requiring much more energy and expense, such as getting together with others and going to movies. Ceasers rates of participation in those activities decreased dramatically, but decreases were more gradual in their participation in activities requiring less energy and costs such as talking on phone. Approximately 70% of all respondents reported their level of social activity participation was “about enough” in Wave 3.

In order to investigate group differences based on changes in their patterns during the six year period, two more group discriminant analyses were conducted. The difference between social engagement by only talking on the phone with others vs. only getting together with others in Wave 3 was significant (Wilks’ Lambda = 0.89, Χ² =69.67, p<0.001). The canonical correlation was 0.33. The univariate F-tests showed that significant predictors were gender (F=36.71, p<0.001), marital status (F=7.20, p<0.01), and IADLs (F=15.84, p<0.001). Older adults only participating in talking on phone were more likely to be female, live alone, and report difficulties with IADLs. In the tested model, 64.4% of the cases were classified correctly.

The second discriminant analysis examined the differences between social engagement with only friends and neighbors vs. with only relatives in Wave 3. The two groups were also significantly different (Wilks’ Lambda = 0.94, Χ² = 39.17, p<0.001). The canonical correlation was 0.25. The univariate F-tests showed that significant predictors were ADLs (F=19.10,
p<0.001), IADLs (F=20.73, p<0.001), NAGI (F=11.43, p<0.01), health status (F=14.32, p<0.001), and marital status (F=6.67, p<0.05). These findings indicated that older adults who had social relationships with only friends and neighbors reported fewer physical difficulties, were living alone, and reported better health than older adults who socialized with only relatives. The tested model classified 62% the cases correctly.

Discussion

The different patterns in adults’ social activities were identified: Expanding, Continuing, and Ceasing. Moreover, 70% of adults in all three groups reported that they were satisfied with their social participation. These results suggest that while the number of social activities may be important, older adults may choose social activities and control the number of their activities due to their needs and age-related changes. In this vein, the SOC theory (Baltes & Baltes, 1990) may provide a useful framework for explaining the patterns of older adults’ social activity participation. Moreover, socio-emotional theory (Carstensen, 1991) may explain the different social contacts among older adults. According to socio-emotional theory, older adults spend more time and energy building meaningful, deeper relationships, and reduce the size of their social network (Lang & Carstensen, 1994). However, in the dataset, the amount of time older adults spent on specific social activities and their number of social groups was not available.

It is worth noting that differences in social participation were found based on socio-demographic variables, health status, and physical difficulties in the types of activities and social members. First, women were more likely to be involved in talking on the phone with others than men, consistent with findings from a study by Janke, Davey, and Kleiber (2006). Moreover, only talking on the phone with others may have helped older adults living alone to stay in contact with others and feel less loneliness or receive emotional support (Pinquart & Sörensen, 2000). Physical difficulties, health status, and marital status were influential predictors in this study for differencing between the social members in adults’ social activities (only with friends vs. only with family). Older adults living alone appeared to rely on relationships with friends more than married couples, perhaps maintaining these friendships due to a lack of close family members. This may have implications for leisure services as previous literature has noted that those living alone may have constraints to engage in social activities due to lack of companions (Lang, 2001; Searle & Jackson, 1985). Conversely, older adults reporting more physical difficulties that are involved in social activities with only family may reflect family obligations for care needs (Pinquart & Sörensen, 2000).

Further research is needed in this area. This study focused on the patterns of social activities using longitudinal data. However, the frequency and total time spent in these activities and the size of adults’ social networks were not available in this study. Changes in other activities such as physical, leisure or intellectual activities may expand upon this view as other activities, which were not presented in this study, may be viewed as important and meaningful.

Table 1. Percentages for older adults’ participation of three social activities out of seven social activities at three Waves (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Social Activity</th>
<th>Wave 1</th>
<th>Wave 2</th>
<th>Wave 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expanders</td>
<td>Get together with friends and neighbors</td>
<td>59.1%</td>
<td>74.6%</td>
<td>85.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Go to movies, sports events, etc</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>35.4%</td>
<td>49.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Go out to eat at restaurant</td>
<td>55.7%</td>
<td>70.7%</td>
<td>78.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceasers</td>
<td>Get together with friends and neighbors</td>
<td>86.5%</td>
<td>67.8%</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Go to movies, sports events, etc</td>
<td>41.1%</td>
<td>28.2%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Go out to eat at restaurant</td>
<td>76.9%</td>
<td>64.6%</td>
<td>50.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


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A BALANCING ACT: TENURE TRACK MOTHERS AND THEIR LEISURE

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Introduction
The role of leisure in women’s lives has been examined from a variety of perspectives. Often leisure is examined through a comparison between women who do not work outside the home and those who work part- or full-time. Research has found that women, particularly those with children, experience a number of constraints to leisure including gender stereotypes, lack of time and money, and a lack of a sense of entitlement to leisure (Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, & Freysinger, 1996). In addition, an ethic of care, pervasive in the literature on women’s leisure, also prevents many women from focusing on their own leisure in favor of taking care of the leisure and other needs of those around them (Brown, Brown, Miller & Hansen, 2001). Miller and Brown (2005) identified both this ethic of care as well as the necessity to juggle time as two of the biggest impediments to mothers’ leisure. They found that even if women were able to tear themselves away to engage in leisure, they acknowledged that their “jobs” related to childcare and housework would still be waiting for them. In fact, Currie (2004) identified that many women report that being a “good” mom means always being “on call.” Related, Bialeschki and Michener (1994) found that new mothers saw leisure as a focus on self and nonobligatory; therefore it needed to take a backseat to family and work obligations. Although new mothers felt that leisure was necessary to maintain balance, they also reported satisfaction related to interrupting one’s own leisure in order to meet others’ needs. The examination of the balance of work and leisure is a cornerstone of the study of leisure – understanding gender differences can illuminate this relationship. While researchers have examined mothers who work in different capacities, research has not examined how women in specific professions balance work, family, and leisure. Intuitively it would seem that some careers are more conducive to achieving balance. This study examined mothers who are in tenure track faculty positions. While research has examined motherhood in the academy, none has included the variable of leisure. Motherhood and academia have long had an uneasy relationship. Stories of “May babies,” competing tenure and biological clocks, and the uniquely unstructured nature of the academic workday (Drago & Williams, 2000; Raddon, 2000; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004; Williams, 2000) lend themselves to a closer examination of how mothers in tenure track positions weigh competing demands in order to balance work, family, and leisure. While research has found that women enjoy academic flexibility and freedom, the same women note that both academic and family life can be “greedy” and ambiguous. In fact, Raddon questioned whether the “good mother” and the “successful academic” can co-exist. Yet the research never looks at these characteristics of family life and tenure track life within the context of how leisure fits into the picture. Loosely guided by constraints theory, the purpose of this study was to examine how female faculty members in tenure track positions balance work, leisure, and family taking into consideration constraints experienced and negotiation techniques used to facilitate or hinder this balance.

Methods
A phenomenological methodology was utilized to gain a better understanding of the participants’ “shared experiences” (Creswell, 2007) with respect to being a mother in a tenure track faculty position. Participants were recruited at a mid-sized research-intensive university in the southeast. A total of 11 women were interviewed representing diverse academic departments. Three of the
women were untenured while the remainder were tenured. All had either one or two children, all under the age of seven. Face-to-face interviews lasting from 1-1 ½ hours were conducted, taped and transcribed verbatim. Qualitative analysis of the interview transcripts was conducted through the use of constant comparison technique to identify themes related to constraints and negotiation with respect to balancing work, family, and leisure.

Results
The women clearly communicated that the nature of their jobs presented both challenges to as well as opportunities for successfully balancing work, family, and leisure. With respect to challenges or constraints to maintaining this balance, two seemingly contradictory themes emerged: Lack of boundaries and The ticking tenure clock. Lack of boundaries focused on the never-ending nature of the job, particularly with often vague tenure and promotion requirements. As stated by Mindy, “I can flex my schedule fairly easily…so I think that is definitely a plus [and] the fact that it is mostly self-directed and research is self-directed. [But,] you know for me that’s a drawback too. It is easy not to prioritize my work.” Similarly, Suzette stated that the flexibility of the job is sometimes deceiving, particularly when significant others do not understand the nature of the job, “sometimes it’s like ‘well, can’t you just stay home?’ or ‘can’t you just do this?’ And I’m like ‘just because I’m not teaching doesn’t mean I’m not working.’ It’s less tangible, I don’t have to finish writing this paper today, or I don’t have to get this done today but I kind of penciled it in to do today [so I should].” Maggie elaborated on the fact that an academic faculty position was unlike a 9 to 5 job in that it is hard to carve out leisure time and have work-family balance because, “you can’t just go home and your job is done…so the indefinite kind of nature of the job also contributes to the ease of which I can carve out leisure time but also contributes to the difficulty as well.” Due to the nature of their jobs Maggie and Cate described the compulsion to be constantly available to their work through the computer. Cate stated the most difficult part of having leisure while being in a tenured position is “being willing to put it aside. You know, willing to not check my email when I get home for the night…so there’s that compulsion.” The ticking tenure clock also added a unique challenge to accessing leisure as free time or even state of mind becomes time that could be spent working, time that often becomes limited with children. Unlike other careers where advancement is not necessarily “timed,” the tenure process is traditionally a five-year window. With regard to balancing having a family with leisure and the job, Lindsay noted that a tenure track academic career is not one that can be put on hiatus while raising a family, “With this career, it’s not like I can put this thing down for 5 years and pick it back up. If you want to be a tenured professor then you can’t put it down.” Candace echoed this statement, “a tenure type position is not one that really allows you to say I’m going to take 2 years off.”

Although the unique nature of a tenure track faculty position proved constraining at times, the women were able to point to aspects of their positions that helped them negotiate these constraints. As one might expect, the primary theme echoed a constraint that the women reported and that was, again, Lack of boundaries. This theme encompassed two subthemes: Time or seasonal flexibility and Work location. Although the women identified constraints typically associated with motherhood and leisure regardless of career choice, most felt that the lack of boundaries that characterized their jobs at times allowed them to spend more time with their children and participate in more family leisure compared to other professions, particularly during the summer. Greta felt “with the kind of job I have I can structure it so that if I want to spend more time with [my children] I can. So this summer I’ve been picking them up very early from school, and we’ve been playing a lot more.” Similarly, Lynn stated that the reduced teaching
work load in the summer allowed her to, “…definitely have more [leisure time]…because I don’t have to teach.” Sandy believed it was actually “a lot easier as a faculty member to have a family” due to the flexible nature of the job. Cate described how she appreciated the flexibility her job provided compared to a 9 to 5 job, “if I worked 9 to 5 I probably would be so sick of myself, because I wouldn’t feel like I had the flexibility…this is the best thing about our job.” Not only did the women appreciate the flexibility of their hours but also the ability to do their job from a multitude of locations, as described by Morgan when asked about how her job allowed her to balance work, family and leisure, “I can do my job anytime, anywhere basically…So I don’t have to be at the office, so that’s just great.”

Discussion
The purpose of this study was to examine how female faculty members in tenure track positions balance work, family, and leisure, taking into consideration constraints experienced and negotiation strategies available to attempt to facilitate this balance. A “good mother” is often described as one who is ever-present and available to her children, a term that is often used is “intensive mothering” (Hochschild, 1989). A “successful academic” is described as one who devotes time and energy to the university, networks both in and out of work hours, has a mentor, builds reputation through research, is career oriented, publishes in the “right” publications, and has a linear career path (Raddon, 2002). Interestingly, the women in this study identified characteristics of their specific career choice that at times allowed them to identify as a “good” mother irrespective of demands placed on being a “successful academic.” Yet while all of the women recognized leisure as instrumental to their “sanity” and their ability to be a good mother and successful academic, most admitted that their own leisure had taken a backseat to both their family obligations and their children’s leisure as well as their jobs. “Good leisure” did not appear in their vocabulary. Certainly many of the women pointed to the lack of flexibility with respect to the tenure clock as hindering this balance. While universities typically allow a new parent to stop the tenure clock for a year, the lack of any true maternity policy beyond FMLA at the study university, and at least for some of the women, the lack of an understanding department chair or dean with regard to stopping this clock, hindered them creating balance in their lives. The constraints that the women experienced ran the gamut of structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal. From university dictated tenure clocks (structural) to uncompromising promotion and tenure committees (interpersonal) to guilt associated with not spending enough time with family or on work (intrapersonal), the women easily identified difficulties inherent in their career choice and maintaining balance with family and personal leisure. The never-ending nature of their positions certainly caused difficulty with getting into a leisure state of mind. On the flip side, their positions also allowed them to negotiate these constraints and provide them with a degree of balance which aligns with Swanson and Johnston’s (2003) work that found that women in academia are less concerned with complete availability and more with attentiveness, responsiveness and involvement with the child. In addition, Swanson and Johnston found that the flexibility of the academic schedule often prevented mothers from maintaining separate spheres between work and family. Certainly, the job of a tenured faculty member is one that is unique in how it interacts with other realms of a woman’s life. Continued research into the challenges that working women who have children face in balancing work, family, and leisure is needed to gain a more complete understanding of women’s leisure.

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References


LOCAL TOUR GUIDES AS CULTURE BROKERS

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Introduction

Tour guides provide an example of culture brokers who play a significant role in mediating two different cultural groups (Brown, 1992; Cole, 2008; Jennings & Weiler, 2006). Local tour guides, the guides who originally come from the tourism destination, are especially important as culture brokers because they mediate the relationship between tourists and local residents at tourism destinations and interpret socio-cultural situations. Their cultural knowledge and background are crucial assets because many tourists are motivated to travel for “a better understanding of the culture of the place visited” (McDowell, 2001, p. 3) with a desire to broaden their cultural horizons and experience cultural enrichment (Quiroga, 1990). Moreover, the support of local individuals in tourism is essential for successful tourism operation as well as for sustainable tourism development (Jurowski et al., 1997). However, tour guides have been considered a “largely homogeneous group” in most studies while, in fact, there are various types of tour guides (e.g., local guides, out-of-area guides, driver guides, and tour leaders) whose roles may differ (Cole, 2008, p. 119). Also, tour guides as culture brokers have not been empirically studied in spite of their importance as mediators in tourists’ experiences (Chambers, 1997). Despite the lack of current literature about the relationship between this culture-brokering role and local background of tour guides, cultural interpretation is assumed to be the competitive edge of tour guides who were born and grew up near a tourism destination. In other words, the local background of tour guides itself can be the primary asset for tour guides as culture brokers.

The purpose of this study is to assess the importance of the role of local tour guides as culture brokers by examining the following research questions from the two perspectives, those of tourists and tour guides: (1) How do tourists and tour guides perceive the difference between local and non-local tour guides? (2) What does the culture-brokering role of local tour guides mean to tourists and tour guides?

Setting

Jeju Island in Korea is an appropriate destination in which to study the role of local tour guides as culture brokers. Its natural scenery with mountains, beaches and temperate climate make it a popular tourism destination for domestic travelers as well as international tourists. The tourism industry is a major income source for residents on Jeju Island. While having a little more than a half million population, Jeju Island has attracted an increasing number of tourists each year: 7.5 million tourists visited the Island in 2010, an increase of 16.2% compared to 2009 (Jeju Special Self-Governing Provincial Tourism Association, 2011).

Jeju Island has its own unique history and culture due to its geographical distance from the mainland. Jeju culture, including language, lifestyle, and food, differs from other regions in Korea. There are unique mediators, called taxi tour guides (TTGs), who provide personal driving tour services on Jeju Island. They provide an alternative mode of transportation and play a role as middlemen between local residents and tourists. Although many individual tourists use rental cars for traveling on Jeju Island or travel by bus with package tours, it is not easy to meaningfully access residents’ lives and the history of the Island when tourists have a desire to learn and interact with local people and their culture. Tourists appreciate taxi tours because of the cultural learning that they can experience from their personal tour guides.
Methods

Given the exploratory nature of this study, qualitative data were collected in multiple phases. I attempted to understand the meaning and the context by taking an interpretive, constructivist approach instead of testing hypotheses or a current theory. Open-ended, in-depth, semi-structured interviews and participant observation were conducted through two separate trips to Jeju Island, Korea, in June 2010. The population for this study is (1) TTGs working on Jeju Island and (2) domestic tourists who traveled around Jeju Island with TTGs between January 2010 and June 2010. Purposive sampling, which is the best fit with phenomenology (Creswell, 1998), was used to draw 30 individuals (15 TTGs and 15 tourists) from the populations.

To analyze the transcripts and extensive field notes from participant observation and interviews, six steps of interpretive phenomenological analysis suggest by Smith, Flowers, and Larkin (2009) were utilized. Based on repeated reading and an initial noting, emergent themes were developed and the patterns and interpretations at different levels were added across each transcript. For more thorough understanding of the themes and patterns found, relevant quotes were categorized under each of them. At this level, the qualitative data analysis software, NVivo© 8.0 (QSR International, 2008), was utilized. To better understand the data from participants’ perspectives, the data were analyzed in Korean which is the first language of the first author, who conducted the fieldwork, while illustrative quotes were translated into English. To ensure validity, a peer Korean researcher reviewed the overall study including the data analysis process and translation.

Results

Perceptions of local and non-local tour guides. The findings show that most tourists believed the background of their tour guide exerts an influence on their travel experiences. They preferred local tour guides compared to tour guide from the mainland due to the following reasons: attachment and pride, more knowledge based on real experiences, sincerity and commitment, and secureness. On the other hand, TTGs’ responses differed substantially; some agreed that their local background does matter because of their vivid and accurate local knowledge and information, but others argued that these can be acquired through personal effort and living experiences over a long enough period of time. Some TTGs didn’t even have opinions on this matter.

Within TTGs’ responses, a different priority of their roles was found to affect their perception on the importance of TTGs’ local background. Some TTGs believed that most of the required qualities could be learned with a certain amount of time and effort because what they mainly focus on for their tour operation was basic attitudes (e.g., trust, positive mindset, and consistent effort) and qualification as a service provider (e.g., understanding customers’ needs, differentiated service, and first impression management). However, other TTGs argued that attachment to Jeju Island should be the basis for these general qualities or service-oriented qualities. They strongly believed that their identity as Jeju people, who provide trustful interpretation, is a distinctive and crucial factor with which non-local TTGs cannot compete.

Culture-brokering roles of local tour guides. According to the results, tourists appreciated tour guides’ explanations or interpretations based on their in-depth knowledge (e.g., history, folk stories, geography, nature, and culture) and considered this as the culture-brokering role. Even though the culture-brokering offered by tour guides was not the main purpose of the trips (Fay, 1992; Weiler & Ham, 2001), tourists showed strong satisfaction with TTGs’ explanations or interpretations and appreciated them the most “after the tours” (Geva & Goldman, 1991; Zhang
& Chow, 2004). They viewed this as the biggest advantage of taxi tours compared to non-guided trips.

From TTGs’ perspectives, cultural-brokering was not the main reason they started providing taxi tours, either. But, interestingly, TTGs considered their strengths, compared to non-guided trips or package trips, as “providing further explanation,” “a sincere heart,” and “real information about Jeju” which are compatible with culture-brokering roles. Moreover, as much as they are passionate about transferring their local knowledge to tourists (Cole, 2008), they also considered it important for them, as middlemen, to absorb information and opinions from tourists. However, there was a difference between TTGs who serve mainly domestic customers and TTGs for international customers. While the former perceived themselves as culture brokers, the latter focused on providing general services just as a driver guide while considering culture-brokering roles (e.g., detailed interpretation of culture) as ‘too much’ due to the language barrier. They even mentioned the time constraint required to improve their language skills to provide ‘extra’ services.

**Discussion**

The results of this study show that most tourists value the background of their tour guides who can play a role as culture brokers. Tourists’ preference for local TTGs was extremely high as evidenced by their claims that their travel wouldn’t have been satisfying if they had traveled with non-local guides. Tourists also became highly satisfied once they experienced tours in which TTGs’ culture-brokering roles were exhibited. In contrast, TTGs did not fully agree on the importance of their local background and culture-brokering roles as the key factor in tourists’ satisfaction although they were vaguely aware of its importance.

Tourists want local tour guides as culture brokers. Although TTGs need the same expertise and qualities required for service providers or general tour guides, they become truly important as culture brokers when they can utilize the qualities stemming from their local background. Their background not only makes TTGs’ expertise “real,” or, in other words, “correct” and “sincere” but also leads tourists’ to trust TTGs. For example, even well-trained TTGs, but who lack strong bonding to the community, would not be able to deeply impress tourists despite the great deal of knowledge that they might have.

TTGs play an important role in Jeju tourism as a bridge between tourists and the local community. The individually customized service, including interpretation, from local tour guides distinguishes them from the other means of trips. Instead of simply considering themselves as a mode of transportation for senior tourists, their local background should be acknowledged as one of their core strengths through the delivery of cultural knowledge. TTGs need to be aware that their culture-brokering will enhance tourists’ cultural understanding as well as create a positive image of Jeju Island. In the long-term perspective, TTGs as culture brokers will benefit both tourists and the local community, and become key players to build sustainability in Jeju tourism.

This study is meaningful since it contributes to the gap in the current literature in terms of the following. First, it targets the roles of local tour guides instead of a general approach to tour guides. Second, multiple perspectives (i.e., tourists, taxi tour guides, and a researcher as a participant observer) combine to better understand the taxi tour phenomenon. Third, a qualitative approach was taken to investigate the topic while quantitative research has been most common in tourism research, especially in the study of tour guides in Korea.

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Recently, parks, recreation, and leisure scholars have called for heightened attention toward “incorporating social capital and social networks theories into the field in general” (Baur & Tynon, 2010, p. 195). In fact, Baur and Tynon suggest “researchers should be including social capital and social networks theories in their work” as a community’s well-being appears to be connected to the availability of public leisure spaces and social ties (p.197). The purpose of this paper is to explore public parks’ potential as a social anchor in community development. Social anchors in communities are built upon social interaction and can take the form of social, economic, physical, political or legal institutions. Anchors act as a support for the development and maintenance of social capital and social networks. Social anchors may range from schools, sports, corporations, or natural structures (Goodsell, 1997), to cultural events and festivals (Wood & Thomas, 2005) which are “social occasions with potential social value” (Chalip, 2006, p.123). For an institution to be considered a social anchor (Clopton & Finch, 2011), it must (1) allow for social capital development in the form of bonding and bridging and (2) provide a point of personal identification for members of the community across diverse boundaries through some form of collective identity for community members. Moreover, the conceptual framework of social anchoring answers the call by Baur and Tynon (2010) for a more profound inclusion of social capital and social networks into a parks and leisure setting.

Social capital networks are often conceptualized using a two-dimensional visualization of nodes interconnected by lines between them. Social Anchor Theory posits the anchors as a base for the entire network, thereby creating a three-dimensional image (Clopton & Finch, 2011). While the nodes are interconnected to each other, they are also grounded to various social anchors which provide stability and a foundation for the entire community network. The current discussion will operate within this new theoretical framework to examine the potential impact of public parks as social anchors within a context of community development.

Often times, the social anchoring of a community is found within a community’s “consumption of leisure,” (Borgman, 1992, p. 41) where, in pursuing individual interests void of concern for the broad context, community members engage in developing a shared meaning through experiences with fellow community members (Arai & Pedlar, 2003). Social anchors also address the crisis of community identity, noted by Borgman as one of the main crises of the twenty-first century. While little has been done regarding parks, overall social capital, and community development, one potential social anchor within a community that has been explored is the community garden. Numerous benefits have been attributed to community gardening, starting with a sense of pride and accomplishment that have also led to feelings of self-worth and self-confidence (Waliczek, Mattson, & Zajicek, 1996). While community gardeners have reported higher feelings of security within these open spaces (Walicek et al.), these gardens have also been found to provide disenfranchised individuals with opportunities to join a group effort, become an active community member, take on leadership roles, and work toward collective goals (Langhout et al., 1999). Ultimately, community gardens possess great anchoring potential as they have shown to be places where people can gather, network, and identify together as residents of a neighborhood (Shinew, Glover, & Parry, 2004). Moreover, Kingsley and
Townsend (2006) found that community gardens do contribute to both bonding and bridging social capital and overall community identity, in addition to social support and social cohesion.

Viewing parks as facilitators of social networks can also be examined through the social construction of the built environment, a process through which Milligan (1998) presented her notion of place attachment. Here, place attachment influences identity, both individual and group, and provides an emotional link to a physical site through social interaction. Place attachment is often seen in physical sites such as sport facilities and has been positioned as the basis for Oldenberg’s (1989) third place, any site of informal public life and sociability beyond home and work and of Putnam’s (2000) civic groups and associations.

Another example of potential anchoring within a community context is physical sites of interaction, such as community centers or sports facilities. The connection of individual community members to these physical institutions accesses the affective intuition of individuals. This perspective may be examined through the social construction of the built environment, a process previously mentioned as place attachment (Milligan, 1998). Here, Milligan argued place attachment significantly influences identity, both individual and group, and provides an emotional link to a physical site through social interaction. Milligan’s place attachment is predicated upon the original concept of locational socialization (Lofland, 1985), which posits that the relationship between organizational space and the identities and interactions of its patrons is significant. Place attachment is also a construct consisting of two components. The first component is interactional past, which is comprised of an individual’s past experiences of the site and the degree of meaningfulness of these experiences. The second, interactional potential, is connected to future experiences – imagined or anticipated – to be possible in the site (Milligan, 1998). Both interactional past and interactional potential of place attachment is often seen in physical sites such as sport facilities and has been positioned as the basis for Oldenberg’s (1989) third place, any site of informal public life and sociability beyond home and work and of Putnam’s (2000) seminal work on social capital and civic groups/associations. Notably, within a park setting, place attachment has been significantly related to the frequency of recreation visits (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004) and is often formed by the physical and social environments of the recreation setting (Kyle & Chick, 2007).

Social Anchor Theory

The first tenet of Social Anchor Theory (Clopton & Finch, 2011) is derived from the two forms of social capital: bonding, where networks and relationship are dense and homogeneous, and bridging, where networks and relationships are, conversely, looser and much more diverse (Putnam, 2000). Bonding social capital is generated through activities amongst individuals of similar backgrounds and experiences. From these arise the tight relationships that are necessary to survive difficult problems, such as losing a job, needing to borrow money, or mourning the death of a loved one. Bridging social capital, on the other hand, is what Putnam refers to as “social lubricant,” which in essence greases the wheels of a functioning community. While bonding is built upon thick trust (Newton, 1997), bridging social capital is built upon a thin trust comprised of weak ties that “constitute a powerful and enduring basis for social integration in modern, large-scale society” (Newton, p. 580). Bridging social capital results in making acquaintances with individuals outside – and in particular, above – our social circles. Albeit a mostly superficial connection, these networks are connections nonetheless to the overall community and assist in lowering the transaction costs of today’s communities (Putnam).

The second tenet of SAT is drawn from Social Identity Theory, where these community institutions provide an overall collective identity for community members. According to Social
Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1978), individuals engage in personal identity creation using the formation of ingroups and outgroups. Often based upon personal characteristics (i.e. race, sex, occupation) these groups can also be formed along social institutions (i.e. fans of a sports team, students at a university, member of a neighborhood association). Once the groups are established, individuals confirm notions of ingroup bias (Hogg & Adams, 1990), specific social esteem (Foels & Tomcho, 2005), and even regional identity (Griffin, 2004). Sensing membership in any constructed social, group, or collective identity can have a profound impact upon social perception, affect, cognition, behavior, and more (Dovidio, Gaertner, & Saguy, 2007). Thus, it is important for social anchors to exist as a context in which individuals can identify, embrace, and exist as an overall community identity, a concept referred to as a Common Ingroup Identity (Gaertner et al., 1999). According to the Common Ingroup Identity Model, individuals within a given community context create and maintain numerous subordinate identities that serve as ingroups for them. However, there exists one large, overarching superordinate identity which draws in all subordinate identities together. The power of the common ingroup identity – or superordinate identity – increases positive intergroup attitudes, intergroup forgiveness, and improves intergroup relations (Dovidio, Gaertner, Saguy, & Halabi, 2007). While community identity has not been empirically-espoused within the parks literature, previous research has connected parks to place identity, a similarly-framed notion which incorporates “those dimensions of self that define the individual’s personal identity in relation to the physical environment” (Proshansky, 1978, p. 155). Place identity is, in other words, the cognitive component of one’s attachment to a place (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001). Place identity has been connected with visitor’s support of public parks (Kyle, Absher, & Graefe, 2003) and with positive perceptions of social and environmental conditions of parks settings (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004).

Most salient to the Social Anchor Theory, though, is that ultimately social anchors provide a context of social interaction on which to sustain social networks. In essence, social networks are not free floating; they are bounded by space and time. The networks that give rise to social capital depend heavily on face-to-face interaction over time . . . . (and) a place where the physical boundaries are well defined, where the people share common institutions, and where there are few social cleavages (Bridger & Alter, 2006, p.8).

Social anchors are these “common institutions” of Bridger & Alter (2006), which provide the “face-to-face interaction” and define the “physical boundaries” which have been, heretofore, implicit in the understanding of social networks. Social anchors are also able to serve as the necessary physical presence that is mandatory for community social capital by providing the constant platform for social interaction, another “consistent” feature of community and community development (Bridger & Alter).

Though overall literature is sparse regarding a thorough empirical examination of parks’ potential as social anchors, extant literature does seem to indicate that the relationship may be one greater than potential. Future research should include valid, and specific, measures of social capital and incorporate a measure of community identity specific the community context of the parks setting. Such a connection is salient to the optimization and overall sustainability of parks and recreation settings today. Ultimately, though, leveraging the “parks” experience into a social good – like the foundation of social anchors in a community – centers around quality, effective, and strategic social interaction.

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References


A number of authors have observed the abundance of playfulness in everyday life (Wickberg, 1998), noting that it can be found in virtually every context or environment. Various terms such as “comics”, “jokers”, “clowns”, “jesters”, or “fools” (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999), these individuals have been the topic of recent scientific studies in efforts to understand their motivation and explain their prevalence. Some authors have suggested that playful adults experience stress differently (Staempfli, 2007) and use playful behaviors as a coping mechanism to deflect stressful situations (Hutchinson, Yarnal, Son & Kerstetter, 2008; Yarnal, 2006), although these presumptions have yet to be tested empirically. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between playfulness, perceived stress, and coping styles in young adults who are attending college.

**Playfulness, Coping, and Personality**

Efforts have been made to detail more exactly what playfulness consists of, how it is typically manifested, and what it may mean or bring to the individual. Studies have shown that (Barnett, 1990, 1991a & b; Lieberman, 1977) children who were labeled high in the playful quality were different than their less playful peers in a number of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral ways. Extensions of the playfulness characteristic to adolescents have been laden with problems (Lieberman, 1977; Staempfli, 2007), although empirical efforts to investigate this construct in emerging adults have proven more successful (Barnett, 2007).

A variety of literature has linked personality with peripheral manifestations of playfulness such as daydreaming, emotionality, sense of humor, and the ability to entertain oneself (see Mannell, 1984; Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Zhiyan & Singer, 2004). More specifically, Barnett (2011) found playfulness in young adults to be a function of the Big Five factors of personality, particularly neuroticism, extroversion, and openness to experience. Similarly, coping styles are directly influenced by personality. Various coping styles have been found to be predicted by such personality traits as optimism, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism, including problem-focused, emotion-focused, and engagement coping (Carver & Conner-Smith, 2010; Conner-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007; Lee-Baggley, Preece & DeLongis, 2005). Extraversion (the chief component of playfulness) predicts coping strategies such as seeking social support, reframing, and problem-solving while neuroticism also predicts social support, as well as less positive strategies, such as withdrawal (Conner-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007; Lee-Baggley et al., 2005) and wishful thinking (McCrae & Costa, 1986).

**Focus of the Study**

The central focus of the present study was to explore the relationship, as hypothesized by several authors, that playful people employ healthier coping styles to help moderate stressful situations. Distinctions between demographic characteristics, such as race/ethnicity, year in school, age, marital status, or employment were not an additional focus of the study since previous research demonstrated no differences on any of these variables.

**Method**

**Participants**

Participants in the study were 899 undergraduate students from two large midwestern universities. Of the sample of student participants, 58.7% (n=528) were male; the mean age of
the sample was 20.07 years ($SD=1061$). Seventy percent (n=630) of the sample self-identified themselves as Caucasian, 11.3% (n=101) reported being African-American, and 1% or less said they of a different race or ethnicity. One-third of the sample (34.1%) were juniors (n=304), 19.9% were seniors (n=177), 28.6% were sophomores (n=255), and 17.3% were freshmen (n=154). Students were volunteers from both lower and upper-division classes and were offered extra credit for their participation. Initial analyses indicated no differences between the classes or universities on any of the measures in this study (all $p>.05$), thus, participants were combined across classes and schools in subsequent analyses.

**Measures**

Playfulness was measured using the Playfulness Scale for Young Adults (Barnett, 2007), an instrument consisting of 15 adjective descriptors to which the respondent is asked to rate him or herself on each utilizing a 10-point Likert-type scale ranging from “very little” to “a lot”. Previous testing on the instrument with this population confirmed its reliability and validity (Barnett, 2007). Initial testing also indicated the reliability and validity of the scale when ratings were completed by others, as well as by oneself.

Participants were asked to complete the Perceived Stress Scale (Cohan, Karmarck, & Mermelstein, 1983) which consisted of 14 items with response choices of “never”, “almost never”, “sometimes”, “fairly often”, “very often” – the sum of which provides an indication of the extent to which the individual views him or herself to be under a measured level of stress. In addition, respondents were also asked to complete the brief COPE Scale (Carver, 1997) which provides individual assessments of the extent to which individuals utilize each of 14 coping styles in response to stress. There are two items per coping style, all with moderate to high internal consistency (range: $a = .50-.90$); the scale uses 3-point Likert responses of “0” = “I haven’t been doing this at all” to “3” = “I’ve been doing this a lot.” Both of these scales have demonstrated high reliability and validity with members of the college student population.

**Procedures**

Members of nine university classes were invited to participate in the study to obtain extra credit. For those that agreed, a file containing a cover letter and the instruments was posted on the course website and students were given a password by which they could access the file. The instruments could be completed by either downloading and printing the file and submitting a hard copy to a secure and confidential location, or by completing the materials online and depositing them in an online drop box. The cover letter informed participants of their rights and assured them of the confidentiality of their responses.

**Results**

Data were analyzed by first creating a playfulness group factor (High vs. Medium vs. Low) based on the upper, middle, and lower thirds on the playfulness scores, after deleting the scores on each side of the dividing scores such that there was a clear division between the groups. One-way analysis of variance procedures were then employed to investigate differences in perceived stress as a function of playfulness group and gender. Findings revealed a significant main effect for both Playfulness Groups ($p<.000$) and Gender ($p<.001$), and a nearly significant interaction ($p<.076$). Post hoc tests revealed that the Low playfulness group ($M=2.00$) was higher in perceived stress, and that there was no difference between the Medium ($M=1.88$) and High ($M=1.82$) playfulness groups. Females ($M=1.97$) perceived they were under more stress than males ($M=1.85$).
Differences in coping styles as a function of Playfulness and Gender were determined by subjecting the means of the 14 coping styles to a Playfulness Group x Gender multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Results revealed a significant multivariate F-ratio ($F(2, 1698)=4.54, p<.000$), and significant univariate F-tests for the coping styles of Active Coping ($F(2, 862)=14.73, p<.000$), Positive Reframing ($F(2, 862)=24.16, p<.000$), Acceptance ($F(2, 862)=9.37, p<.000$), Humor ($F(2, 862)=10.25, p<.000$), Religion ($F(2, 862)=9.78, p<.000$), Emotional Support ($F(2, 862)=5.37, p<.005$), Instrumental Support ($F(2, 862)=4.54, p<.011$), Self-Distraction ($F(2, 862)=5.11, p<.006$), and Self-Blame ($F(2, 862)=8.25, p<.000$). Post-hoc tests conducted on the significant univariate depression main effects indicated that the Low playfulness group was significantly lower than the other groups on Active Coping, Positive Reframing, and Acceptance; the High playfulness group was significantly greater on Humor, Emotional and Instrumental Support, Self-Destruction, and Self-Blame; and the Medium playfulness group was lower than the other two groups on Religion, and lower than the high playfulness group on Positive Reframing. Females were found to be significantly greater than males on Emotional ($F(1, 862)=75.93, p<.000$) and Instrumental ($F(1, 862)=48.84, p<.000$) Support, Self-Distraction ($F(1, 862)=4.73, p<.030$), and Venting ($F(1, 862)=12.11, p<.001$), while males were significantly higher on Humor ($F(1, 862)=25.97, p<.000$) and Substance Use ($F(1, 862)=7.71, p<.006$).

Discussion

The results contribute to the literature by demonstrating that individuals who are at least moderately playful perceive there to be fewer stressors in their lives compared to those who possess much lower levels of playfulness. In addition, this study determined that playfulness relates to the coping styles that individuals adopt when they do perceive there to be stressors in their lives. Our analyses revealed that consistent patterns among the results were found for eight of the nine significant styles of coping. For six (Positive Reframing, Humor, Self-Blame, Self-Distraction, Emotional Support, Instrumental Support) of these eight coping styles, the findings indicated that the participants with a High level of playfulness were more effective at coping with stressors in their lives. Of the remaining two styles of coping (Active Coping, Acceptance), participants only had to achieve a Moderate level of playfulness to cope with their perceived life stressors. The remaining coping style — Religion — yielded curious findings, in that no differences were found between the Low and High playfulness groups, who were significantly better at coping with perceived life stressors than individuals in the Medium playfulness group. These results could be due to the lack of a distinction between religion and spirituality (cf. Templeton & Eccles, 2006) in the coping scale items for this factor, as well as the dualistic function of religion as both an approach or avoidance mechanism. Another alternative may be the wide variability among college students ranging from strict observance across a plethora of religions to an agnostic or atheistic orientation or belief system. In sum, these findings support the speculative arguments (Hutchinson et al., 2008; Yarnal, 2006) that playfulness is a valuable aspect of personality in that it serves the utilitarian function of allaying and relieving perceived stressors in an individual’s life.

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THE LINK BETWEEN GIRLFRIEND GETAWAYS AND WOMEN’S WELL-BEING
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Girlfriend getaways are a growing trend in the tourism industry (Balneg, 2010). This type of travel refers to women taking trips with female friends to unwind and to reconnect with self and their female friends (Kasanicky, 2009). Popular girlfriend getaway guides claim that such female bonding activities have health benefits, help to manage stress, and may contribute to longer lives (Bailey, 2009; Bond, 2008). Surprisingly, these claims have not yet drawn the attention of tourism researchers. The potential therapeutic effect of bonding with friends stems from its intimate, egalitarian, and voluntary nature that facilitates mutual trust and self-disclosure (Fehr, 1996). Research on friendship in leisure contexts indicates that it has potential health outcomes (Glover & Parry, 2008; Kleiber, Hutchinson & Williams, 2002). Green (1998) found that women’s leisure-based friendships, particularly in the form of “women’s talk,” can be a source of empowerment. Further, participation in women’s leisure-based social groups has been found to be related to health and well-being, providing a source of social support (Hutchison, et al., 2008), sense of belonging (Yarnal, 2006), and enhancement of the self (Son, Kerstetter, Yarnal & Baker, 2007). While the academic literature on friendship provides a foundation for exploring the role of girlfriend getaways in women’s lives, the uniqueness of tourism environments should not be ignored. Tourist experiences are frequently understood in terms of liminoid time-spaces characterized by transition, anonymity, absence of status distinctions and equality, in other words a sense of communitas (Lett, 1983; Turner, 1974). In addition, the touristic state of mind described as being “out of space” and “out of time” (Pritchard & Morgan, 2006; Selänniemi, 2003) may affect female getaway experiences. Another potential concept relevant to understanding girlfriend getaways is existential authenticity - a state of being that enables people to express their real identities instead of forcing themselves into accepted social roles (Berger, 1973). Indeed, Wang (1999) claims that the role of tourist matches the ideals of existential authenticity because of its liminoid nature. He further classifies existential authenticity into intra-personal and inter-personal aspects. The potential link between girlfriend getaways and existential authenticity becomes evident when considering the all-female context of this tourist experience where women do not have to conform to socially constructed standards of femininity (Butler, 1990). Therefore, girlfriend getaways may be a source of experiential outcomes underpinned by bonding with friends, an all-female context, and the attributes of the tourist environment. Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore girlfriend getaways with a focus on the importance of such travel in women’s lives and the potential health outcomes.

Method
A qualitative paradigm was adopted for this study. The data collection involved nine focus groups and 15 individual in-depth semi-structured interviews, lasting between 40 minutes and two hours. Participants were recruited via snowball and theoretical sampling using newsletters, flyers, and e-mails. Focus groups and interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. The sample includes 79 participants with diverse socio-demographic background ranging in age from 21-83 years (mean=55), marital status (20 singles, 33 married/partnered, 11 divorced, 13 widowed, and 2 unspecified), and education (51 participants are college educated). The data were analyzed via constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006), using open, axial and selective coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), and elements of situational analysis (Clarke, 2005).
Findings

The data reveal a diversity of girlfriend getaways varying in terms of purpose, duration, spatial proximity to home, and travelling companions. Overwhelmingly, the participants emphasized the importance of girlfriend getaways in their lives. Some women even claimed that these experiences have a therapeutic effect in general and may also be a coping resource with a negative life event in particular. For example, one participant said, “[girlfriend getaway] was planned as a healing time and it’s like a person taking another by the hand and say “Sorry your husband died […] there’s life beyond all this and there’re good things you can do.”

The link between girlfriend getaways and women’s well-being appears to be complex and multifaceted. However, the multiple threads evident in this link can be classified into four closely related and overlapping domains: escapism, different gender dynamics, authenticity, and empowerment. The domain of escapism refers to various escapes from routine, as well as the everyday professional and familial responsibilities for the sake of gaining “time for yourself” and/or “time away from significant other.” The women elaborated that it “doesn’t mean that you don’t care about your husband or children […] but you have that window [girlfriend getaway] where you can actually do something that you really want to do.” Escapes with girlfriends were highlighted by some women as strategies for maintaining their level of sanity, relaxing mentally and/or physically, recharging, and experiencing a sense of freedom. The notion of freedom was also woven through the second domain of different gender dynamics from everyday life. Participants explained that the context of the all-female sisterhood of girlfriend getaways eliminates sexual tension and the power differentials embedded in gender roles, which makes “you feel as if you can your let hair down.” Specifically, “with men, you cater to them more and you hold back” and “you have a different conversation with your female friends […] than you do when there is [sic] men around,” because “it’s like there’s a sense of being able to be your complete self, and just say what you need to say, and feel what you feel, and express it, without any hesitation.” The domain of gender dynamics is also closely related to the domain of intra-personal and inter-personal existential authenticity, as girlfriend getaways’ participants were able to experience an authentic “woman to woman time” that was of crucial importance to them. They explained that “it’s a matter of confiding in someone, no holds barred, no judgment. It’s a renewal, it’s a freeing experience […], it’s a sisterhood.” Further, the women emphasized the egalitarian nature of the girlfriend getaways, where “you can be yourself,” “be what you wanna be,” or “be someone different,” because “it is kind of fun to play around, like to get outside of a comfort zone” ignoring the social statuses acquired in everyday life. Some participants even described girlfriend getaways as a playground for identity where “you can be silly,” “you can be girly,” “you can be giggly” and you can behave like a child while doing grown up things. The fourth domain is a result of the other three in that a feeling of empowerment is derived from girlfriend getaways. For example, participants explained, “you feel more empowered in groups of women […] we’re together, we’re women and we can do anything.” Moreover, the tourist experience enhanced this feeling “because you’re away from your comfort zone, away from home that’s safe, and you experience something together and you’re like, oh yeah we can do this, we can do anything.” Furthermore, the rewarding feeling of empowerment was woven into sentiments such as reaching goals, broadening the self, “enriching your life,” feeling in charge on girlfriend getaways, and becoming mature travellers. The uniqueness of the social context on girlfriend getaways was depicted as empowering and rewarding because it is a bonding experience, which simultaneously fosters a spirit of individuality, autonomy and freedom.
Discussion and Implications

The potential outcomes for women’s wellbeing derived from girlfriend getaways can be summarized in terms of four closely interrelated and overlapping domains (Figure 1).

![Diagram showing the domains of the nexus between girlfriend getaways and women’s well-being]

Figure 1: Domains of the nexus between girlfriend getaways and women’s well-being

The findings situate the social phenomenon of girlfriend getaways in the context of the under researched nexus between well-being and travel (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). The liminoid nature (Turner, 1974) of girlfriend getaways, characterized by playfulness, freedom from gender roles, communitas and existential authenticity, is reflected in the experiential outcomes. While women usually feel obliged to conform to socially constructed standards of femininity derived from repetitive performative acts (de Beauvoir, 1953; Butler, 1990), this is not the case on girlfriend getaways. Women can take a break and play with their identities and/or reveal its existentially authentic facets suppressed by everyday life (Wang, 1999; Yarnal, 2006), which, in turn, maybe a source of empowerment. Empowerment was also a prominent theme in the study of female solo travelers (Jordan & Gibson, 2005). Furthermore, in line with Lett’s (1983) claim that tourist experiences are a source of catharsis, girlfriend getaways have the potential for various therapeutic outcomes for women, providing both expression and release of tension and bonding in an all-female tourist context (Son et al., 2007). Finally, as little is known about experiences of travelling groups of women, the potential for practical insights for the tourism industry cannot be underestimated. These findings might facilitate the management of girlfriend getaways according to the preferences of women clientele providing them with environments that foster fun, bonding and sharing. Moreover, since much of the current tourism advertising materials appeals more to men than women (Pritchard, 2001), the findings might assist in designing effective marketing strategies that emphasize women’s preferences for different types of girlfriend getaways.

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The relationship between the recreation activities a family participates in together and a child’s ability to relate to his or her peers is understudied, yet has the potential to add valuable insight to leisure research. Recreational activities can help children learn appropriate social rules such as taking turns and how to cooperate. They also provide families with opportunities to bond with each other and strengthen relationships.

Family recreation has been theoretically shown to contribute positively to family functioning (Shaw, 2001). The Core and Balance Model of family leisure functioning proposes there are two interrelated categories of family recreation, core and balance. Core leisure activities are categorized as being low-cost, accessible, everyday activities that the family participates in on a regular basis. Balance leisure activities are those which are less common and more novel for the family. When utilized, these categories lead to family cohesion and adaptability and increased family functioning (Zabriskie & McCormick, 2003).

The time a family spends together in recreational activities can also improve valuable social skills such as social competence and communication (Lindsey & Mize, 2000; Mactavish & Schleien, 2004; Smith, Freeman & Zabriskie, 2009). These skills are important in the development of a child’s ability to be accepted by and feel related to peers (Hubbard & Coie, 1994; Stiles & Raney, 2004). This concept of relatedness is one of three basic psychological needs outlined under the umbrella of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These psychological needs -autonomy, competence, and relatedness- are social factors which must be met adequately in order for a person to be motivated and to function at the optimum level (Cox & Williams, 2008; Martin & Dowson, 2009). The SDT states when these three needs are unmet, people experience diminished motivation and well-being (Ryan & Deci). This study focuses specifically on the need for relatedness, a feeling of mutual respect and emotional connectedness to others (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004), because it is the least-studied construct within SDT, compared with autonomy and competence (Cox & Williams, 2008; Guiffrida, Gouveia, Wall, & Seward, 2008). Children who exhibit high levels of relatedness with peers experience many positive academic, social, and emotional outcomes, such as better school adjustment (Gest, Welsh & Domitrovich, 2005) and higher classroom engagement (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Relatedness also contributes to decreased social loneliness and depressed mood (Boivin, Hymel, & Bukowski, 1995). Klima and Repetti (2008) also studied the benefits of relatedness in children and found children who are able to relate well with their peers have higher self-worth. Previous research makes it clear that relatedness is a valuable construct to study because of its positive contributions to individuals’ overall well-being.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is five-fold: (a) To determine if there is a relationship between overall family recreation involvement and the relatedness to peers that a child from that family displays, (b) to determine if there is a relationship between overall family recreation involvement
and the family relatedness that family displays, (c) to determine if there is a relationship between overall family recreation satisfaction and the family relatedness that family displays, (d) to determine if there is a positive relationship between core family recreation involvement and the relatedness to peers that a child from that family displays, and (e) to determine whether core family recreation involvement has a stronger relationship with family relatedness than balance family recreation involvement.

Methods

The population for this study was elementary school children between the ages of six years and 12 years of age (n1=405) and their parents (n2=405). The parents were included because they should be able to provide information about the patterns of the children’s families that the children themselves would not be able to provide adequately.

The Family Leisure Activity Profile (FLAP) (Zabriskie, 2001) was used to measure each family’s recreation patterns and attitudes. The FLAP uses 16 items to measure involvement and satisfaction in both core (eight items) and balance (eight items) family recreation activities. In addition to the involvement scores, the instrument also calculates leisure satisfaction scores. The respondents rate their level of satisfaction on a Likert scale, which gives a satisfaction score between one (“very dissatisfied”) and five (“very satisfied”).

The relatedness variable was measured using the Activity-Feeling States Scales (AFS) (Reeve & Sickenius, 1994). The AFS is a 13-item scale which is broken down into four subscales: (a) self-determination, (b) competence, (c) relatedness, and (d) tension. Each of these subscales has three or four items associated with it: (a) Self-Determination- Offered choices what to do, Free, I want to do this, My participation is voluntary; (b) Competence- Capable, Competent, Achieving; (c) Relatedness- Part of a team, Involved with friends, Brotherly/sisterly; (d) Tension- Stressed, Pressured, Uptight. The authors of this scale designed it in such a way so as to make it possible to apply to any variety of activities. The specified activities for this study will be “Participating in family recreation,” for the parents and “Playing with your friends outside your school classroom” for the children. This activity was chosen in order to highlight the degree of relatedness that occurs when children are interacting with their peers in a relaxed, non-structured environment.

The parent sample for this study was drawn through an online survey company, which had access to a large national database. The parent filled out the FLAP as well as the relatedness scale, the Activity-Feelings States Scale (AFS). After the parents completed the AFS they assisted their children in answering the questions on the AFS as well. There were two sets of identical questions, one for the parents’ responses (to be answered in the family context: “When my family members are participating in family recreation we feel…”) and one for the children’s responses (to be answered in a peer social setting context: “When I am playing with friends outside of my school classroom I feel…”).

Results

Pearson correlations between the dependent and independent variables were examined for multicollinearity. Multiple regression analyses were performed on the independent variables in order to determine their relative and collective contributions to the dependent variables. The demographic variables listed in the previous paragraph were included in the regression analysis as independent variables. Eight blocked multiple regression analyses were performed in order to test the variance that several individual independent variables have on the respective dependent variable.
An examination of the correlation coefficients showed significant correlations among several of the variables. These results helped guide the selection of variables for further analysis. There was a statistically significant relationship between involvement in both Core and Balance family recreation activities and family self-determination, family competence, and family relatedness. The child scores on the AFS showed statistically significant relationships between Core involvement and relatedness, and between Balance involvement and self-determination, competence, relatedness, and tension.

The first multiple regression block included all demographic variables and the second block included those independent variables which were important to the study’s purposes (i.e. Core Involvement, Balance Involvement, Core Satisfaction, and Balance Satisfaction). Results from these procedures show that the significant predictors of the dependent variables are as follows: (a) Family relatedness- balance involvement (p = .0014) and core satisfaction (p < .0001); (b) Child relatedness- core satisfaction (p = .0006); (c) Family self-determination- balance involvement (p < .0001) and core satisfaction (p < .0001); (d) Child self-determination- core satisfaction (p < .0001) and child gender (p = .0077); (e) Family competence- balance involvement (p < .0001) and core satisfaction (p < .0001); (f) Child competence- core satisfaction (p < .0001); (g) Family tension- balance involvement (p = .0009); (h) Child tension- balance involvement (p = .0080).

Discussion

While family recreation involvement did have a significant relationship with child relatedness, the regression analysis showed the strongest contributor to child relatedness was satisfaction with core family recreation activities. The relationship between core satisfaction and child relatedness with peers may be due in part to the stability that results from these core family recreation activities (Olson, 2000). Children who feel secure and stable as a result of their routines and activities at home are more likely to transfer that stability to outside interactions and relationships. When families achieve satisfaction with core family recreation activities, the children of those families can benefit socially from the resulting familial stability. The results of this study show that one of those social benefits may be relatedness with peers.

Another notable finding that emerged from these research questions is core family recreation involvement was not a stronger contributor than balance family recreation involvement to family relatedness, as was expected. Previous research has found that it is involvement in core activities, not balance, which contributes the most to familial stability and cohesion (Olson, 2000).

The natures of both core family recreation activities and balance family recreation activities help explain the main findings of this study. Core activities contribute to a child’s feelings of stability at home, which in turn gives him or her the confidence and ability to better relate to peers. Balance activities can be experienced across the family lifespan, and therefore can provide continued opportunities for families to stay connected and strengthen their relatedness with one another.

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ANALYTICALLY ESTIMATING CROWD ATTENDANCE AT A PARADE

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An old adage states that everybody loves a parade, but how many is everybody? Attendance figures for parades are a valuable statistical resource required for purposes of planning, staffing, budgeting, sponsorship, logistics, and public relations as well as considered a significant quantifier of accomplishment. Attendance at events is sometimes controversial; by orders from Congress the National Park Service has not released crowd estimates for events at the Washington Mall since disagreement over numbers at the Million Man March in 1995. Park and recreation departments responsible for permitting and sponsoring parades require an accurate method for approximating turnout in order to minimize community financial expenditures. Tallying the size of large crowds is a difficult undertaking. It is best, but rarely, done from an aerial viewpoint using a grid system (Doig, 2009), not easy to accomplish at a parade that might be miles in length. Instead, officials tend to provide what the National Park Service’s George Berklacy has called SWAG - scientific wild-ass guesses (Katz, 1991). Paulos (1988) asserts that people are innumerate, lack ability to rationally understand large numbers, have tendencies to personalize, and mislead by their experiences. The purpose of this study was to create and field test methods that might be established for calculating parade attendance.

Research was undertaken in the fall of 2010 in conjunction with the city of Phoenix Parks and Recreation Department at two of the city’s largest parades, the Veteran’s Day Parade and holiday Electric Light Parade. City staff was concerned about media reported attendance figures of 200,000 spectators, primarily because of Homeland Security requirements to provide extensive public safety and public works manpower, almost all being charged at holiday/overtime rates.

From literature review emerged the discovery that a research gap existed; there was a lack of any field tested methods to specifically estimate parade attendance. Academic literature focused instead on attendance at large, open events in general (Brothers and Brantley, 1993; Crompton & McKay, 1994; Getz, 1991, 2005; Raybould et. al., 2000; Tyrell & Johnson, 2002, Tyrell & Ismail, 2005). Non-academic literature provided antidotal information on estimating parade attendance. For example, the 1983 Rose Bowl Parade attendance was guesstimated at 1 to 1.5 million by a public information officer who flew over the event and visually compared memories of what 104,000 people attending a football game in the Rose Bowl looked like to that of the people lining the street (Feldman, 1987). Peter Apanel, the organizer of the Doo-Dah parade, a spoof of the Rose Bowl Parade, used crowd photography to conclude that only 360,000 attended the Rose Bowl Parade the same year, but later used an estimate based on maximum people per available viewing area to argue the reported attendance of 700,000 for 2009 was not physically possible (Clendenin, 2009). Estimates of maximum attendance at parades based on square footage viewing area have been presented by others since the early 1980’s (Biaett, 2007; Clifford, 1997; Getz, 2005; Godfrey, 2001; Katz, 1991), but with inconsistent space per person figures ranging from a low of 2 to a high of 10 square feet per person. All literature on estimating parade attendance was conceptual with no indication of fieldwork or research.

Method

An important idea that emerged from literature and shaped this study was the importance of knowing the size of the actual parade viewing area and understanding the maximum number of people it could accommodate. For purposes of triangulation, any method used to estimate the
actual attendance of a parade should not exceed this maximum density number. It was also
assumed for purposes of this study that the crowd turnover factor, participants who leave the
event and are replaced with new participants, would be insignificant as that is not considered
standard crowd behavior at a parade.

The route for Phoenix parades followed a zigzag path on major streets. The northern .75
miles was primarily residential, the middle .75 miles was upscale business, and the southern 1.0
mile ran through an area of older strip malls, car dealerships, two high schools, a regional city
park, and the VA hospital. Overall, off-street viewing areas on the route were irregular, but
displayed consistency in subsections. This off-street area was measured with square feet of
possible viewing space computed. Additionally, the parades used a traffic lane on both sides of
the street for spectators. The square footage for these lanes was computed and then added to the
off-street area resulting in a figure for the total square footage of possible viewing area.

Because literature was inconsistent on the amount of space spectators physically take up
experiments with university students were conducted. One-hundred square foot areas were filled
with students to deduce the minimum space required per standing person. Further, a grouping of
lawn chairs was created to deduce the minimum space a sitting spectator would occupy. This
provided a clear understanding of the space requirements for standing and sitting attendees.

Now knowing the space a spectator occupied, it was decided to attempt to estimate the crowd
using a density count method. During both parades spectators were hand counted in randomly
selected 330 linear feet (1/16 of a mile) sections along the route by researchers. Another
researcher walked just in front of the parade’s lead units and estimated for every section how
many spectators lined the route using a 2 foot width, with depth simply the number of people
deep in parts of the sections, to establish an attendance count. The hand counted data was then
compared with the density estimated count data to test for significant similarity.

Results

The determination of the maximum number of people that could physically be accommodated
at the parade site was time intensive due to the irregularity of off-street viewing space; a figure
of 295,680 square feet was calculated. This was added to 264,000 square feet of traffic lane
viewing space resulting in a total viewing space of 559,680 square feet.

Student experiments to establish the minimum space required for a spectator in a crowd first
arrived at 1.66 square feet per person. It was ascertained, however, because everybody was
squished, touching, and extremely uncomfortable this density could be maintained for only a
matter of minutes. At 4.00 square feet per person there was minimal touching, volunteers felt
comfortable, and density was maintainable. For spectators sitting in lawn chairs a minimal space
of 8.50 square feet per person was required. Dividing, it was physically possible for either
337,157 squished standing spectators, 139,920 comfortable standing spectators, or 65,845 lawn
chair sitting spectators to be along the route. Note that none of the estimates allowed for walking
space and ice chests or other items spectators usually bring to a parade.

Hand-count researchers collected attendance totals for 62 sections of 160 total sections on the
route. The on-route researcher estimated density figures for all 160 sections. The density
estimates ranged from 1/8th deep (one person for 16 linear feet) to 9 deep (nine people for each 2
linear feet). These density figures were extrapolated into a number count for each section.
When the 62 hand counted section totals were compared to their counterpart density section
totals, 60 were within 5% or less of being equal. These results were deemed significant and
converted to counts for all parade sections. Estimated attendance for the Veteran’s Day Parade
was 13,500 to 14,000 and for the holiday Electric Light Parade 38,500 to 39,000 spectators.
Discussion

The attendance counts at parades are important for a variety of operational and evaluation reasons. A review of literature revealed that although multiple methods have been examined and are available to determine crowd size at large open events a research gap existed on documented methods to estimate parade attendance. In non-academic literature the concept of estimating parade attendance based on the square footage of available viewing space and the density of spectators had been suggested, but no fieldwork had been conducted to test the idea or to accurately approximate the space needed for spectators.

This study experimented with methods that could be used to analytically estimate the number of spectators at a parade. The first step was to calculate the square footage of the viewing area along a parade route. This was a relatively easy, but time consuming exercise. Once completed for a parade route, however, the results could be used again and again. Next the space requirements for spectators were tested with an approximation of 1.66 square feet per person deemed the minimum, but not sustainable for an extended period of time in a crowd situation. A more comfortable space of 4.00 square feet per person was determined to be sustainable while 8.50 square feet per person was the minimum needed for a spectator sitting in a standard lawn chair. Although these numbers made it possible to estimate a maximum attendance in three different situations the reality is that spectators at a parade usually consist of a mixture of these situations plus often bleacher seating; these totals should therefore be used only for understanding the maximum attendance to prevent overestimation in a final analysis.

The experiment of comparing hand counted sections of spectators with those numbers generated by estimating density figures proved to be a successful method of estimating parade attendance, ultimately controlled by the square footage of viewing area and maximum possible number of attendees. It is recommended that this method be tested at parades of various sizes to determine how much time and research staff is required and if it is feasible when crowds are extremely large like those of the Rose Bowl or Macy’s Thanksgiving Day Parades. Using aerial observation to estimate density levels in subsections of a parade route should be explored with further research and compared to estimations from researchers at street level.

There were a number of contextual findings with social psychological underpinnings that also emerged in this study. It was discovered that more spectators gathered at the beginning of a parade than at the end, that spectators were gathered in hourglass formations with larger numbers at easy access points and smaller numbers, sometimes a zero count, in between, and that even in the most crowded areas spectators left walking space at the rear of the viewing areas. Spectators in the most crowded viewing areas rarely occupied less than 4.00 square feet per person while standing or 8.50 square feet per person while sitting in lawn chairs; again indicating they should be used primarily for maximum attendance counts.

Results from this study show promise, but with need for extended longitudinally examination to confirm density estimation methods, to refine counting techniques, and investigate how and why spectators decide where to locate on a parade route. Adding a research element on how people travel to and park at a parade may also lead to an advanced or different understanding of maximum crowd size. If methods to estimate attendance can be refined and universally accepted they will replace SWAG and someday provide accurate attendance figures to plan, coordinate, budget, evaluate, and report on the success of parades.

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THE UPS AND DOWNS OF LEISURE: THE EFFECTS OF DEPRESSION ON LEISURE PARTICIPATION

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Recent trends in the field of recreation have focused on the role leisure can play in developing and maintaining a healthy lifestyle. Most recently, a wealth of studies have focused on ways of increasing physical or cognitive health through physically active leisure (Ogden & Carroll, 2010). Less attention, however, has been placed on exploring relationships between the individual’s mental health and his or her leisure. When leisure is investigated in relation to mental health, it is often merely examined as a correlate for physical health (Wise, Adams-Campbell, Palmer, & Rosenberg, 2006), and populations such as women and the elderly (Janke, Nimrod, & Klieber, 2008; Pondé & Santana, 2000) have largely been the focus. However, recent evidence indicates that depression is an especially salient issue for younger people - over half of college students within the United States exhibit depressive symptoms - more than twice the rate of the general population (Furr, McConnell, & Jenkins, 2001). Clearly, there is an urgent need to study depression in college students.

Many of the symptoms of depression render this disorder especially relevant for the field of recreation and leisure. Of the few studies that have explored such relationships, research indicates connections between physically active leisure and positive mental health (Birkeland, Torsheim, & Wold, 2009), although causation remains inconclusive. Additionally, participation in structured leisure activities has also been shown to be correlated with a positive mental well-being (Fletcher, Nickerson, & Wright, 2003). The major focus of this study was to assess the impact of depression on the recreational engagement of college students. Differences between depression groups were explored as a function of the frequency of their leisure participation in six types of activities, and gender was included as a potential influential variable, as has been detected in previous research (Essau, Lewinsohn, Seeley, & Sasagawa, 2010).

Method

Participants

Students enrolled in nine undergraduate classes at two Midwestern universities were given the opportunity to earn extra credit by participating in the study. All of the classes fulfilled social science general education criteria and drew students from a wide variety of majors across the universities. A total of 899 students volunteered to complete the requirements of the study. There were more males (58.8%, N=447) than females, and most of the participants were single (97.7%) and currently unemployed (60.6%). The majority identified themselves as Caucasian (70.7%), and there were equal numbers of African-American (11.3%) and Asian-American (11.1%) students. Of the remainder, 5.6% were Latino/Hispanic or of a different background (1.3%). About one-third of the sample was juniors (34.1%), followed by sophomores (28.6%), seniors (19.9%), and freshmen (17.3%).
Instrumentation

Sample members were asked to complete three instruments: one assessing their level of depression, a second about their leisure activities, and a final short form to obtain demographic characteristics (sex, age, race/ethnicity, year in school, major, grade point average, type and hours of employment, marital status). Additional data were collected but are not presented here.

The Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, Steer, Ball, & Ranieri, 1996), a widely utilized and psychometrically sound measure of depression, provided a measure of depression for each participant. The BDI-II consists of 21 statements followed by four to seven response choices (the number varies across items). Respondents were asked to circle the statement that best described how they had been feeling in the past two weeks. Reliability and validity indices for the BDI-II across a number of clinical and non-clinical populations are all highly satisfactory (Beck et al.). The study divided participants into groups based on their level of depression as prescribed by Beck et al.: minimally depressed (N=528), mildly depressed (N=132), and moderate to severely depressed (N=100). Individuals who scored a “0” or “1” were omitted from further analysis following the recommendations of Clark, Crewdson, and Purdon (1998).

The assessment of leisure activity participation was based on an instrument designed by the authors for this purpose. A list of 33 possible leisure activities was presented, and students were asked to respond to each one with both the number of days and the number of hours each day in the preceding two weeks they participated in the activity. The list of activities was derived from focus group sessions with students who did not participate in the study. For each activity, the number of hours was multiplied by the number of days to obtain the measure of participation. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the activities and six factors (Physical, Technological Communication, Hedonism, Sedentary, Hobbies, Spiritual) resulted, accounting for 65.59% of the total explained variance, with the factors found to be common across gender and racial groups.

Procedures

Once students indicated their interest in volunteering for the study, they were electronically mailed a cover letter and questionnaires to be completed. A cover sheet with the student’s ID was immediately separated from the questionnaires so that extra credit could be given, and the anonymity of responses could be maintained. The cover letter contained typical statements regarding their rights as participants, assurances about anonymity and confidentiality, and contact information for the researchers should questions arise.

Data Analysis

A 3 (Depression Group) x 2 (Gender) multivariate analysis of variance was employed, with race used as a covariate, to test for differences in the six leisure activity participation factors. When a significant multivariate F was obtained, univariate analyses were examined to determine which of the participation factors exhibited significant differences in either of the main effects or interaction. Post hoc tests were then conducted to further determine differences between depression groups (Sidak) or the interaction cells (ANOVA 1-way simple main effects).
Results
The multivariate tests for the Depression (F(12,1496)=3.19, p<.000) and Gender (F(6,748) =16.29, p<.000) main effects, and Depression x Gender interaction (F(12,1496)=2.75, p<.001) were all highly significant. Univariate tests indicated that depression alone predicted the number of hours that students spent participating in Hobbies (F(2,753)=11.64, p<.000) and Technological Communication (F(2,753)=3.36, p<.035) activities; in both types of activities those who were highly depressed (M=1.78, M=6.34, respectively) participated significantly more than those who were minimally (M=.50, M=4.89, respectively) or mildly (M=.64, M=4.54, respectively) depressed. The Spirituality (p<.06) and Hedonism (p<.10) categories approached conventional levels of significance for the Depression main effect, with students highest in depression participating more in hedonistic activities, and those who were mildly depressed least engaged in spiritual activities. The Gender main effect was highly significant for all of the leisure participation categories with the exception of the Spirituality one; males participated more than females in all but Technological Communication types of activities. The leisure categories that showed a significant Depression x Gender interaction were Sedentary activities (F(2,753)=4.89, p<.008) and Hobbies (F(2,753)=9.29, p<.001), with Hedonism approaching conventional levels of significance (p<.10). Post hoc tests revealed that for all levels of depression, males were significantly greater than females for participation in Sedentary types of leisure, while there were no differences within either gender as depression levels increased. For Hobbies, the only difference in participation was for highly depressed males who participated significantly more than any other group in this type of leisure.

Discussion
This study contributes to the extant research by empirically demonstrating the linkage between depression and leisure participation. Results indicated that highly depressed individuals were more likely to take part in activities which contain lower degrees of direct social components, i.e. Hobbies. Similarly, the Technological Communication factor showed greater involvement from depressed individuals, again supporting a preference for lower face-to-face social interaction. In addition, gender was shown to moderate depression for both the Sedentary and Hobbies participation factors. The strong findings for the role of gender in leisure participation are consistent with a wealth of earlier research (Shaw, 1999; Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, & Freysinger, 1999). These findings support and extend research demonstrating the relationship between depression and social activity among a student population (Williams & Galliher, 2006). Based on these results, it appears that college students with depression are more likely to choose leisure activities that are less social in nature. This conclusion further supports the assertion that depression and leisure choices are related.

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Selected References


A CASE STUDY OF A WORKPLACE RECREATION-BASED PHYSICAL ACTIVITY PROGRAM
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Physical activity is a modifiable risk factor that can improve people’s health (Troiano et al., 2008). Unfortunately, many Americans are not physically active enough to gain health benefits. Only about a quarter of the US population engages in the recommended amount of physical activity daily, and a quarter of the population is inactive (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2005). However, because many people spend a substantial portion of their day in the workplace, health promotion programs can offer individuals opportunities to improve health and fitness.

The social ecology model can provide a useful foundation from which to examine physical activity. Stokols (1992) suggested that the healthfulness of a situation and well-being of participants are influenced by many facets of their environments that encourage or enhance behaviors by promoting and sometimes requiring certain actions while discouraging or prohibiting other behaviors. Therefore, successful interventions to promote physical activity require understanding individuals as well as environments (Sallis et al., 2006) such as workplaces.

Participation in workplace health promotion programs has been found to enhance fitness, increase productivity, lower rates of absenteeism, and a reduce job stress (Conn, Hafdahl, Cooper, Brown, & Lusk, 2009; Zwetsloot, van Scheppingen, Dijkman, Heinrich, & den Besten, 2010). How interventions, programs, activities, and particular activities can specifically be designed to promote physical activity and benefit both individuals and organizations is an important question. Many community parks and recreation agencies are involved in facilitating workplace opportunities for wellness in their own organizations or in partnerships with other groups. However, many people who could benefit from these programs fail to participate (Busbin & Campbell, 1990). Research and evaluation are needed to examine whether interventions work, to uncover the strengths of particular programs, and to ascertain what interventions and strategies facilitate people becoming and remaining physically active. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the characteristics and processes that contributed to the ongoing nature of one workplace recreation-based physical activity program.

Methods
This single case study examined a small workplace fitness program conducted in a college unit in a large university. The initial goal of the workplace program was to encourage fitness among employees in the unit. Participation in the noon-time program was open to any faculty, staff, or graduate student in the college and was conducted in a classroom and outside in adjacent areas.

Qualitative data were collected from documents, observations, and interviews with current, past, and potential participants. Data were collected from 25 semi-structured personal interviews, four field observations, informal interviews, and other existing documents. Interviewees included current participants (n = 12), past participants (n = 5) and potential participants (n = 8) in the Recreation-Based Physical Activity (RPA) program. Personal interviews typically lasted
between 10-30 minutes. Interview topics included: the individual’s history, motivations and constraints, and support for personal physical activity. Current and past participants were asked about their experience with the program, and potential participants were asked about their awareness of the program and their reasons for not being involved. All interviews were tape-recorded, and all data were transcribed verbatim. Interviews with the RPA group leader and Dean of the college provided additional context. Field notes for observations captured group activities, interaction, and individual actions of participants.

MAXQDA software was used to code and analyze data. Data analyses included independent line-by-line open coding of all initial data collected, recoding based on agreed upon common coded terms and phrases, and axial coding. The research team met at each iteration before proceeding with further analyses until major themes were uncovered. Accurate representations of the opinions of interviewees were ensured by asking some of the interviewees to check the initial transcriptions. Feedback acquired during this process preserved trustworthiness. Memos made about thoughts and feelings during data collection and analyses ensured credibility.

**Findings**

Three primary themes emerged from the data collection: leadership, social support and bonding, and trading off constraints for benefits. A key aspect of the RPA leadership was that participants saw the leader as “one of us, here in the college” since they identified with her as a colleague and peer who was “like me.” She was in a support staff position similar to many of the participants. The “one of us” leadership had a substantial effect on the overall success of the program based on the longevity and continued participation by a core group. It may also explain the makeup of the class that primarily consisted of middle aged women working in staff and support positions. However, past participants and non-participants may not have valued these *like me* factors in the same way that current participants did. Few faculty or graduate students were involved with the RPA program. The dominant make-up of the group may have influenced who participated in both positive and negative ways. A variety of activities, such as yoga, boot camp, zumba, and recreational games selected with input from participants were facilitated by the leader and occasionally by invited instructors. The shared responsibility for selecting activities and familiarity among the group facilitated by the leader were important components of the program. The leader’s enthusiasm, attitude, and experience leading fitness programs were also seen as important.

Another major theme that emerged from the data was the social nature/bonding and support that both participants and past participants perceived regarding the RPA program. Support from the Dean and from supervisors was critical to the program’s success. “I was grateful that the Dean thought this was valuable and said…’do this…. [it’s a] healthy positive thing and I support you doing it’ -- that was a big deal.” Bonding and sense of identification among participants were evident. For participants this engendered accountability concerning the commitment to participate and made physical activity fun. Despite the challenge of physical activity, sweat, and rigor of activities, social elements, bonding, and fun were central to the ongoing nature of the RPA program. Enjoyment was often expressed through laughter and humor. After a particularly vigorous session one participant teased that the leader carried a cell phone with her during the program “to call 911.”

The third theme suggested that current and former participants of the RPA program often seemed to “trade off” constraints associated with participation for the benefits of the program. Constraints negotiated or that prevented participation were most often related to “getting sweaty” and the lack of adequate changing facilities on site. The classroom where the program was held
was also mentioned as somewhat inadequate, however it did not appear to significantly dissuade a core group of participants. Many challenges were traded off for convenience. “It is so convenient. We just go next door, do our own things, and enjoy each other’s company and encouragement.” From another perspective, however, some potential participants who were not interested in RPA said they preferred a more vigorous workout or were self motivated to exercise.

Discussion

Participants attributed program longevity, which was defined as program success, to leadership, social support and bonding, and benefits of the program that offset constraints. These elements supported a social ecology model of health promotion because personal, social, and environmental factors all contributed to participation in this recreation-based physical activity opportunity. Our findings were similar to other research about workplace wellness programs. They confirmed the positive role that convenience, positive peer pressure, personal communication (Nohammer et al., 2010), supervisor support, and organizational climate (Parks & Steelman, 2008) play in motivating participation within workplace wellness programs.

However, this particular program offered two dimensions that were not frequently described in previous studies: the like me phenomenon and the recreation-based nature of the program. A major connection to this like me phenomenon was the perception that the leader was “one of us.” Participants identified with the leader who held a similar job position in the same college unit. Further, the participants acknowledged that the program was a reflection of themselves and others like me. This case study emphasized the importance of leadership and camaraderie in establishing commitment and loyalty to a group activity. Additionally, the recreation-based nature of the program was particularly attractive to the participants. Although fitness was the goal, getting fit seemed to be possible through “fun” activities that did not necessarily resemble a stereotypic fitness program focused on doing exercise.

This case study provides some guidance regarding programs that work and offers insight into successful design and implementation of workplace wellness programs as well as community physical activity programs. Findings suggested that workplace wellness programs designed for specific work groups or divisions facilitated by an employee with aptitude and interest in physical activity programming may be most successful. The importance of support from supervisors and management indicated that this should both precede establishment and persist throughout the program. A variety of activities aimed at physical activity, social interaction, and fun may help lessen the perceived negatives associated with physical activity and exercise. Wellness program managers should consider a relaxed and comfortable environment as equally important as the physical activity itself. For parks and recreation professionals not providing workplace programs, this area may represent an opportunity for new programming aimed at businesses and corporations. Findings also extend to physical activity programs offered to the public. Programs could be designed and marketed to a wider range of specific like me groups (e.g., programming aimed toward women over 40 or men over 50). Findings indicated that special fitness facilities were not necessarily needed to implement a successful program. Parks and recreation agencies may consider non-traditional program spaces and locations that are most convenient to people’s everyday lives. Overall, the study showed that positive outcomes can occur with a wellness program using creative and enjoyable activities with limited resources.

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Selected References
CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLE PREFERENCES AND PERSONALITY TRAITS OF UNIT LEADERS IN RECREATION, PARKS AND LEISURE STUDIES

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Collegiate institutions are made of different schools with highly specialized academic units, loosely coupled, and relatively discrete (Birnbaum, 1988). An important unit or division, which is considered as the most critical base unit in higher education, is the academic department (Willcoxson & Walter, 1995). It is estimated that approximately 80% of all university decisions are made at the departmental level (Roach, 1976) and department chairs make up possibly the largest administrative group in American colleges and universities (Norton, 1980). Lumpkin (2004) emphasized that the position almost demands that department chairs come prepared with skills necessary to manage, assist, and resolve conflicts and differences of opinion between different parties (Bennett, 1983). In general, conflict management styles can have a pervasive effect on organizational work life by impacting the degree to which individuals experience ongoing conflict (Friedman, Tidd, Currall, & Tsai, 2000). Furthermore, higher education institutions are vulnerable to potential conflict due to their many levels, rules and regulations, specialized disciplines, segmented rewards, autonomy and high interdependence. Additionally, individuals respond uniquely to conflict situations, and this is not a result of group norms (Jehn, 1995), but also individual variations in approaches when dealing with these situations. Peoples’ attitudes are influenced by personality traits. Personality traits are generally viewed as broad dimensions of individual differences between people, providing a rough outline of human individuality (McAdams & Pals, 2006); however a literature review has yielded inconsistent results using personality traits as predictors of attitudes (Lester, Hadley, & Lucas, 1990).

Purpose

The literature review on the conflict management styles and personality traits of department chairs has been sparse (Gmelch, 1995; Gmelch & Carroll, 1991). Although literature review is replete with information and studies about how to recognize and resolve conflict in a variety of settings (Carmichael & Malague, 1996; Gmelch, 1995) and fewer publications on how conflict is managed at the departmental level (Findlen, 2000; Gmelch, 1995; Gmelch & Carroll, 1991; Trombly, Comer, & Villamil, 2002), no publication about the relationship between conflict management styles and the personality traits of department chairs exists. The purpose of this study was to examine the conflict management style preferences and personality traits of unit leaders in baccalaureate programs within the field of recreation, parks and leisure studies curricula. Four questions guided this study. Research question one sought to investigate if relationships existed between conflict management styles and demographic variables, whereas research question two sought to investigate if relationships existed between personality traits and demographic variables. Research question three explored if personality traits and demographic variables could explain any amount of variance in conflict management style preferences. Finally, research question four examined if relationships existed between the conflict management styles and the personality traits.

Method

An electronic self-administered survey was developed to collect data. Two hundred sixty unit leaders, which accounted for all the population of unit leaders, were sent the survey which consisted of: a demographics questionnaire, the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II
(ROCI-II) Form C and the NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) Form S, through SurveyMonkey. This design method integrated elements of Dillman’s Total Design Method (TDM) and recent literature on Web-based survey techniques. The number of valid completed survey was 105, with a response rate of 40.4%. Statistical analysis was conducted using statistical software SPSS v.17.0. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the demographic characteristics of the respondent population. Frequencies and percentages were calculated for all the categorical variables, whereas means, minimum, maximum and standard deviations were computed for each conflict management style, as well as for each personality trait. Kendall’s Tau and Pearson’s Product Moment were used for correlations. A step-wise multiple regression through backward elimination was used to examine if demographics and personality traits could explain conflict management style preferences.

Results

Demographics indicated that unit leaders are predominantly male, white, over 41 years old, with quite a long working experience in academia (40% worked more than 11 years up to 20 years, whereas another 53% worked more than two decades up to four decades. The majority of the respondents (63%) had been in the position of the unit leaders up to 6 years. Pertaining to their academic rank, the majority of the unit leaders (n=60, 57%) reported being a Professor; followed by Associate Professors (n=30, 29%), Assistant Professors (n=12, 11%), and “other” (n=3, 3%). The most popular job title was found to be the “Department Chair” (n=53, 50%), followed by Program Coordinator which was chosen as a job title by twenty one (20%), “Department Head” (n=16, 15%), “Program Director” (n=8, 8%), “Other” (n=6, 6%), and “Academic Chair” (n=1). Of total respondents, the majority (n=47, 45%) reported being positioned in a Doctorate-granting university; followed by 38% (n=38) positioned in a Master’s college/university, and 19% (n=20) positioned in a Baccalaureate college/university. Twenty unit leaders (19%) reported as the highest degree that their program offered was Doctorate; followed by forty seven unit leaders (45%) who reported offering a Master’s degree and thirty eight (36%) reported Bachelor’s degree. In terms of conflict management styles, there was a pattern in order of preference. Unit leaders first tried to accomplish a win-win solution for the parties involved in the conflict, then preferred to engage in a give-and-take relationship, followed by their decision to forfeit their needs in favor of accepting another party’s needs or decisions. Depending on the different demographic variables, the next option would be to dominate the conflict and finally to avoid it, or the opposite. In terms of associations of demographic variables with the conflict management styles, only low associations were found. Dominating as a style had no association with the variables asked, whereas Avoiding (r=0.269, p=0.001) and Obliging (r=0.217, p=0.007) were only associated with Academic rank. Furthermore, both Integrating and Compromising styles presented low associations with 3 variables, yet it was interesting that Integrating was negatively associated with two of them. The more they aged (r=-0.218, p=0.008) and stayed longer in position (r=-0.167, p=0.083), the less unit leaders relied on Integrating as a way of managing conflicts. Given the findings of the unit leaders self-rated personality traits, they reported possessing the following traits in order of preference: conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and neuroticism. All the scores were considered low that indicates that as middle level administrators they do possess a “neutral” personality. In terms of moderate association of demographic variables with the five personality traits, Conscientiousness (r=0.320, p<0.001) and Neuroticism (r= -0.305, p<0.001) were moderately associated with the variable of sex, with Neuroticism being negatively associated. Openness to Experience (r=0.356, p<0.001) was moderately associated with years in the position (as unit leader). The other
associations between the five personality traits and demographic variables were either low or negligible. Only a few of the 10 demographic items and five personality traits explained an amount of variance for each of the five conflict management styles. However, in all styles, the final models were only partially explained: 27.4% for Integrating, 15.2% for Obliging, only 10% for Dominating, 27% for Avoiding, and 15% for Compromising, which means that the remaining portion of these models’ variances was due to unanalyzed independent variables. In terms of associations of the conflict management styles with the personality traits, Integrating was significant with Neuroticism (p=.013) and Agreeableness (p=.001), whereas Obliging was only associated with Neuroticism (p=.028). Dominating was significant with Openness to Experience (p=.018), and Agreeableness (p=.003). Furthermore, Avoiding was significant with Neuroticism (p=.001) and Compromising with Extraversion (p=.010), Openness to Experience (p=.038), and Conscientiousness (p=.043).

**Discussion**

Findings of this study led the researcher to conclude that there is evidence to support a relationship between conflict management style preferences and personality traits, which supports previous research that concluded that personality does play an important role in determining conflict behaviors (Terhune, 1970a). This study was a snapshot investigation of the relationship between demographic variables, conflict management styles preferences and personality traits of one administrative group in higher education. A recommendation for future research should include seeking new sample populations, from different disciplines and administrative levels to compare results. Furthermore, incorporating other assessment tools to measure the conflict management style preferences and personality traits would probably provide a broader understanding. Future research should also be conducted through different survey delivery methods to compare results for the specific population. There is a need for organizations to provide leaders with the necessary tools to enhance their decision-making when handling conflict, which will provide each disputant with access to the other person's perceptions of incompatible goals (Tutzauer & Roloff, 1988). Through effectively understanding conflict, unit leaders can combine and integrate their ideas to solve problems, gain knowledge, and learn to work collaboratively, as it was been argued in the studies of Barker, Tjosvold, and Andrews (1988), and Tjosvold (1997). Ignored conflict can lead to mistakes as individuals lose their ability to communicate properly. Like any other organization, when conflict between faculty members continues, they may withhold information, be slow to deliver information, or not respond appropriately when needed. Furthermore, if a conflict is not addressed properly by the unit leader, it can escalate, prevent progress, and reduce productivity. Consequently, as coordination decreases, relationships become jeopardized and all parties involved become dissatisfied (Pape, 1999). The literature review on the conflict management styles of department chairs has been sparse (Gmelch, 1995; Gmelch & Carroll, 1991) and literature consistently cites the need for improvement of negotiation and conflict-resolution skills (Bennett, 1983, Tucker, 1992). Being able to recognize and manage conflict is a quality that most department chairs lack (Edwards, 1999) although it is a skill that can highly enhance their effectiveness as leaders (Lumpkin, 2004). As stated by Mary Parker Follett, “We can often measure our progress by watching the nature of our conflicts” (as cited by Graham, 2003, p.72). The right choice or combination of styles can effectively make a difference in the situations that arise in departments (Dewey, 1957).

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REFERENCES


PHYSICALLY ACTIVE AND NON-ACTIVE: COMPARING FOUR TYPES OF LEISURE-TOURISM CONNECTION (LTC)
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Previous research suggests that lifestyle is one of the most influential factors on people’s leisure behaviors and choices (Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Chon & Singh, 1995). Following this line of thought, some researchers have focused on the link between physically active lifestyles and active tourism pursuits (Fluker & Turner, 2000; Henderson, 2005; McGehee, et al., 2003; Redmond, 1991). Hallab and his colleagues found that attitudes toward active and healthy lifestyles are positively related to active and healthy travel pursuits (Hallab & Gursoy, 2006; Hallab et al., 2003). Likewise, Carr (2002) suggests that individuals’ tourism behaviors are influenced by daily leisure values. Supporting this assumption, Brey and Lehto (2007) found that individuals who participate in physically active leisure such as golf, jogging, and bicycling are more likely to take part in these pursuits on vacation. Developing this line of though further, Chang (2009) and Chang and Gibson (2009, 2010a, 2011) examined the relationship between physically active leisure and tourism with different samples of bicycling tourists, paddlers, and the general population. Consistent results were found across their studies, namely, those who are highly involved in active leisure activities not only tend to take part in the same, or similar activities in tourism contexts, but also are more likely to participate similarly in the future. Chang and Gibson (2010b) also investigated the relationship between non-active leisure and non-active tourism to see if Carr’s (2002) theoretical assumption could be applied to non-active lifestyles. However, leisure involvement in non-active pursuits did not have a significant direct effect on tourism motivation and behaviors, only slight indirect impacts on tourism behaviors. The next step in this series of studies is to further investigate two other behavioral patterns (i.e., “the (physically) active leisure and non-active tourism group (AN)” and “the non-active leisure and active tourism group (NA)” along with “the active leisure and active tourism group (AA)” and “the non-active leisure and non-active tourism group (NN).” With this analysis we can examine how the four groups are psychologically and behaviorally involved in their favorite leisure activities, are motivated to travel, and involved with their favorite tourism activities. This may yield preliminary insights as to why some people show consistency in their lifestyles between leisure and tourism and others do not.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to compare four different types of the LTC on leisure and tourism patterns. The following research questions were addressed: (RQ1) Is there any difference in psychological and behavioral leisure involvement with favorite leisure activities between the four LTC groups? (RQ2) Is there a difference in tourism motivation associated with their favorite tourism activities among the four groups? (RQ3) Is there a difference in tourism behaviors among the four groups?

Literature Review

Involvement is a belief structure associated with ego values and encourages people to make choices from a limited number of options by intentionally reducing the range of alternatives (Sherif & Cantril, 1947). Therefore, leisure involvement has been considered important for understanding leisure patterns (Carr, 2002; Gross & Brown, 2008; McIntyre, 1989). Leisure scholars stress that centrality to lifestyles is a component of involvement which results in consistent behaviors and choices (Kyle et al., 2004; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Kim et al. (1997)
found that those who perceived bird watching as more central to their lifestyles showed stronger behavioral commitment and intention toward bird watching. Developing this idea, several researchers claimed that people who are highly involved in their leisure activity are more likely to consistently take part in the same or similar leisure activities in tourism contexts (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Carr, 2002). Although leisure involvement may affect tourism behavior, tourism behavior is also guided by tourism motivation that more directly pushes individuals to make decisions about their trips (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1983; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983). Beard and Ragheb’s (1983) Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS) has widely been used in different leisure and tourism contexts with good reliability and validity because it focuses on fundamental internal needs that are less influenced by changeable external factors (Graefe et al., 1981; Montgomery & Ryan, 1994; Ryan & Glendon, 1998). Thus, this study investigated whether those who show consistent patterns between leisure and tourism have high leisure and tourism involvement, and what kind of motivations push those travelers in each different case.

**Method**

The total population (N) of the overall alumni database of a large university was 200,000. In systematic random sampling, 7,313 e-mail addresses (n) were selected, but 4,231 emails were undeliverable. The resulting sample size was 703 with a 23% response rate. The following four groups were generated on the basis of their responses to two open-ended questions about favorite leisure and tourism activities: AA (n=316), NN (n=258), AN (n=47), and NA (n=46). The questionnaire included a psychological leisure involvement scale consisting of hedonic, central, self-identity, social identity, and social components (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Kim et al., 1997; Kyle et al., 2004; Pritchard et al., 1999), behavioral leisure involvement-related questions (i.e., frequency, 1=Almost every day, 2=About 3-4 times a week, 3=About 1-2 times a week, 4=About 2-3 times a month, 5=About once a month or less, 6=A few times a year or less, 7=Never; duration, 1=Never, 2=Less than 30 minutes, 3=30-60 minutes, 4=61-90 minutes, 5=91-120 minutes, 6=121-150 minutes, 7=More than 150 minutes; history of favorite leisure activity participation, 0=0 year, 1=1-5 years, 2=6-10 years, 3=11-15 years, 4=16-20 years, 5=21-25 years, 6=26-30 years, 7=31-40 years, 8=41-70 years; frequency of favorite leisure activity participation during vacation, 1=All the time, 2=Almost all of the time, 3=Most of the time, 4=About half the time, 5=Less than half the time, 6=Not at all; the likelihood of taking part in the favorite leisure activity for future vacation, -3= Very unlikely, 3=Very likely), tourism motivation scale including socializing, physical activity, relaxation, and intellectual curiosity motivations (Beard & Ragheb, 1983), and tourism behaviors scale comprising activity involvement and certainty components (Ragheb & Tate, 1993; Stanton-Rich & Iso-Ahola, 1998; Verplanken et al., 1994). All scales were measured on a 7 point Likert type scale (1=SD, 7=SA) and attained good reliability and validity from a panel of experts for content validity and confirmatory factor analysis. Descriptive statistics, ANOVA, and MANOVA were used to investigate possible significant differences in each factor between the four groups.

**Findings**

(RQ1) The multivariate effect for the four different groups on psychological involvement was significant, Wilk’s Λ=.93, F(15, 1736)=3.08, p=.000, ηp²=.024. Univariate analysis showed that social, F(3, 633)=4.99, p=.002, ηp²=.023 and social identity, F(3, 633) = 2.70, p = .045, ηp² = .013, differed significantly among the four groups. A Tukey HSD post hoc analysis revealed that AA (M=4.98, SD=1.22) rated social significantly higher than NN (M=4.61, SD=1.35) and NA (M=4.46, SD=1.43). AA (M=5.04, SD=1.16) were more highly involved in social identity than NN (M=4.83, SD=1.23), whereas AN (M=5.19, SD=1.17) showed significantly higher
involvement on social identity than NA ($M=4.69$, $SD=1.31$). In terms of behavioral leisure involvement, ANOVA showed that frequency, $F(3, 662)=16.54$, $p=.000$, duration, $F(3, 662)=6.11$, $p=.000$, history, $F(3, 662)=10.20$, $p=.000$, frequency during vacation, $F(3, 659)=2.84$, $p=.037$, and likelihood, $F(3, 660)=10.53$, $p=.000$ were significantly different among the four groups. AA tended to participate less frequently in their favorite leisure activities. However, when they participated they did so for longer and were more likely to engage in it on vacation. (RQ2) There was a significant multivariate effect among the four groups on tourism motivation, Wilk’s $\Lambda=.73$, $F(12, 1675)=17.40$, $p=.000$, $\eta^2_p=.098$, although the four groups showed a strongly significant difference only on physical, $F(3, 636)=66.43$, $p=.000$, $\eta^2_p=.239$. In particular, AA ($M=4.62$, $SD=1.40$) were more motivated by active tourism pursuits than NN ($M=3.49$, $SD=1.38$) and AN ($M=2.98$, $SD=1.28$), whereas NA ($M=5.85$, $SD=0.89$) had a stronger physical motive than the other groups including AA. (RQ3) The four groups were significantly different in their tourism behaviors, Wilk’s $\Lambda=.96$, $F(6, 1262)=4.83$, $p=.000$, $\eta^2_p=.022$, particularly activity involvement $F(3, 632)=2.68$, $p=.047$, $\eta^2_p=.013$ and certainty, $F(3, 632)=8.89$, $p=.000$, $\eta^2_p=.040$. AA ($M=5.00$, $SD=1.16$) and NN ($M=4.94$, $SD=1.15$) were more involved with participation in their favorite tourism activities than AN ($M=4.53$, $SD=1.33$). In terms of certainty, AA ($M=5.02$, $SD=0.97$), NN ($M=5.02$, $SD=0.99$), and NA ($M=4.93$, $SD=1.02$) tended to be more certain about participation in their favorite tourism activities than AN ($M=4.21$, $SD=1.08$).

Discussion
Beyond support for Carr’s (2002) leisure-tourism continuum and the impact of leisure involvement on future behaviors (Kim et al., 1997; Kyle et al., 2004; Pritchard et al., 1999), the findings provide further insights. First, regardless of consistency such as AA or NN, individuals who engaged in active leisure were higher on social and social identity involvement. This seems to support the importance of social meanings and identity as perceived by active individuals in a range of sports (Dionigi, 2002; Lyons & Dionigi, 2007). The results also support the supposition that frequency of leisure participation cannot reliably predict tourism behavioral choices, but psychological involvement and motivation are important concepts in understanding consistency in the LTC (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Riley et al., 2001). It was interesting to note that AA considered duration to be more important than frequency and reported stronger intentions to take part in their favorite leisure activity while on vacation compared to the other groups. Regarding tourism motivation, it was interesting to see that NA reported a stronger motivation to be active than AA. Perhaps vacations provide NA with the opportunity to overcome perceived constraints to physical activity in their home context (Crawford et al., 1991). The final finding that AA and NN report taking part in their favorite tourism activities more consistently and are more certain about participation in their favorite activities while on vacation might be explained by contextualizing leisure and tourism choices within the overall lifestyles of individuals (Carr, 2002; Gross & Brown, 2008; Moore et al., 1991). Differences in the various dimensions of involvement among the four groups do not seem to be able to explain differences in tourism motivations and behaviors. Rather, as seen from AA and NN individuals, a more holistic pattern of consistency between leisure and tourism patterns provides more insights to help understand behavioral involvement and certainty in tourism contexts. This information could also be useful for practice in that providers might want to leverage the synergetic effect between active leisure and tourism contexts.

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Studies have supported that contacting with natural environment promote health and wellbeing (Kuo 2001; de Vries et al 2003; Chang et al 2008). Outdoor recreation is one of the most prominent forms for people to fulfill their inclinations for natural environment. Linkages between mental health and natural environment have been initially studied (Herzog et al 1997; Chang and Perng 1998; Shapiro et al 2001). Kaplan et al (1995) summarized the psychological effects of natural environmental and proposed Attention Restoration Theory (ART) (Kaplan and Kaplan 1989; Kaplan 1995). ART posits that natural environment provides psychological effect on restoration for “directed attention” which is the quality of mental health that is essential to sustain focus and avoid distractions. When directed attention is overused due to continuous mental efforts, individuals encounter a situation known as mental fatigue, which lead to a diluted ability to focus, a low irascibility threshold, and an increased error rate in task performance. To recover from mental fatigue, ART suggests using restorative settings to regain directed attention. These restorative settings are characterized by four attributes: ‘being away’, ‘coherence’, ‘fascination’, and ‘compatibility’ (Kaplan and Kaplan 1989; Kaplan 1995; Herzog et al 2003). First, ‘Being away’ denotes settings that are physically and psychologically different from environments in which individuals perform their daily routines. Second, ‘coherence’ implies settings that are perceived as rich and coherent. A ‘coherent’ environment offers abundant content that engages mind and incites physical and mental discovery. The third construct, fascination denotes effortless attention (Herzog et al 1997) that can restores directed attention after mental fatigue. Finally, ‘compatibility’ implies that the environment fits with and supports what one expects and desires to do. ART proposed that ‘directed attention’ can become fatigued in built environments and can be restored in natural settings. Intriguing stimuli in natural environments replenish directed attention, while urban environments filled with stimuli require more directed attention (Herzog et al 1997). The way humans interact with environment can be theorized into evolutionary and place-attachment perspectives. Evolutionary theory asserts that visual cues from landscapes allow humans to make judgments to avoid danger and enhancing their chance of survival (Appleton 1975). The other theoretical perspective focuses on cultures and meanings attached to places, such as sense of belonging, self-reflection, and social interaction (Williams et al 1992). Physiological and psychological inheritance in response to landscape has been empirically tested and discussed (Coeterier 1996; van den Berg et al 1998); such as prospect-refuge-theory and sheltered-life theory, which emphasize the origins and the characteristics of preferred environments such as comfortable, safe, and identifiable places (Appleton 1975; Bourassa 1988).

Based on these theoretical foundations, studies have further examined the associations between natural environment and its effects on psychological aspects. Elements in an environment evoke different feelings, such as depression, confusion, peacefulness, and safety (Tnan 2001). Two Dutch studies (de Vries et al 2003; Maas et al 2006) investigated the influence of landscape characteristics on health. The variables investigated in these studies are number of physical symptoms, perceived general health, and propensity for psychiatric illness. The findings indicated housewives, the elderly, and people with lower social-economic status reported fewer health
problems when surrounded by sufficient green space (de Vries et al 2003; Maas et al 2006). With a psycho-physiological approach, Hartig and others (2003) monitored blood pressure and emotions, used the instruments of Personal Reactions (Zuckerman 1977), overall happiness scale (Campbell et al 1976), and attention performance tests to measure the psychological effects of landscape features in natural and urban settings. The results showed that exposure to natural settings can reduce stress and anger. Similarly, another study (Ottosson and Grahn 2005) indicated that outdoor landscapes composed with groups of trees and lawn areas significantly improved mental acuity and attentiveness in long-term care faculties.

Although the health effects of elements in natural environment are apparent, measures that represent environment variable have only been classified primarily as a dichotomy. Based on the fundamental theories of landscape effects, not only is the existence of green spaces, but also the landscape composition and arrangement are vital to human behavior.

Consequently, the aims of this study are to identify how environmental composition affects the mental health of attention restoration in outdoor recreation settings. The study variables include (1) the measures of environmental component which defined by spatial metrics and landscape contents; and (2) the mental health component developed on the basis of Attention Restoration Theory (ART). The objectives of this study are to investigate whether and how environmental components, measured by the level of natural content and spatial metrics, affect psychological responses. This advance of investigation into spatial arrangements allows practical suggestions for better environmental planning and design that promotes attention restoration for users who participate in outdoor settings.

**Method**

**Study areas:** The data collection process was conducted in outdoor settings in Taiwan. Respondents were asked to voluntarily participate in the data collection process and all data were kept anonymous. The study areas included urban green spaces, rural areas, and natural areas, representing three levels of urbanization and accessibility. There were 60 sample sites in total for field investigations. Each site was sampled with 33 feet in radius based on scale of common public space and reach of human vision. Each sample site was at least 33 feet from another site to avoid overlapping. All sites were accessible to the public and with clear views for conducting study procedures. **Psychological survey:** The instrument used to measure attention restoration was developed based on the framework of Hartig’s (1997) Perceived Restorative Scale (PRS) and the Restorative Components Scale (RCS) (Laumann 2001). This study utilized the revised instrument with constructs of ‘being away’, ‘fascination’, ‘coherence’, and ‘compatibility’. **Environmental composition:** This study categorized six types of structures including forest, grass and bare land, water feature, road, farm land, and built environment. Six indices of spatial metrics were used to illustrate environmental composition: (1) Patch Density (PD): the number of patches per unit area, (2) Largest Patch Index (LPI): the largest patch in the landscape divided by the total area of the landscape, (3) Mean Patch Size (MPS): the average patch size, and (4) Mean Shape Index (MSI): the patch shape complexity. **Data analysis:** Environmental structures were digitized using 1/5000 aerial photographs, categorized using eCognition 4.0, and then transformed into a vector format for analyses. Environmental metrics were calculated using FRAGSTATS 2.0 (McGarigal et al 2002). Coupled with geographic information system software—ArcGIS 9.2, the analyses yielded the values of spatial metrics indices. Multiple regression technique was executed to detect the effects of spatial composition on attention restoration. Assumptions of such technique were examined for data eligibility.

**Results**
The number of valid responses was 227 in total, with 78 in natural settings, 76 in rural areas and 73 in urban green spaces. Among the respondents, 52.6% are male and 46.8% are female; 43% are between the ages of 18 to 25, 31.1% are in the age of 26-35, 28.6% are over the age of 36. As to the effects of spatial metrics on attention restoration, all ART constructs showed significant relationships to environmental composition. Among relationships with landscape metrics, the model explained 12.4% of ‘being away’ which was positively associated with the LPI of forest ($\beta = 0.201$), and negatively related to PD of road ($\beta = -0.173$), and LPI of buildings ($\beta = -0.158$). These results specified that the size of a green elements, especially a similar setting as forest was influential for enhancing the sense of ‘being away’ from one’s ordinary environment. The spatial composition model described 8.5% variance in ‘fascination’ which showed association with ‘forest’ LPI ($\beta = 0.221$) and PD ($\beta = -0.211$) and ‘road’ LPI ($\beta = 0.330$) and MSI ($\beta = 0.153$). The findings indicated that a larger continuous forest has greater effect on ‘fascination’ than several separate ‘forest’ patches. The shape of ‘road’ features significantly impact ‘fascination’ constructs. The existence of continuous and complex shaped roads showed positive effects on ‘fascination’. The spatial metrics showed the greatest connections with the construct ‘coherence’ ($R^2 = 39.1\%$). The land use of ‘water feature’ [PD ($\beta = -0.167$), LPI ($\beta = 0.164$), MPS ($\beta = -0.253$)] and ‘road’ [LPI ($\beta = 0.132$), MPS ($\beta = -0.316$), and MSI ($\beta = 0.457$)] played great roles in environmental ‘coherence’. In addition, ‘grass and bare land’ MPS ($\beta = -0.109$) contributed a negative association with ‘coherence’. The results suggested that complete water features and complex road networks promoted the property of ‘coherence’ in attention restoration. The spatial metrics explained 4.3% variations of ‘compatibility’ which was positively related with solely the LPI of ‘forest’ ($\beta = 0.217$).

Discussions and Conclusions

The findings of this study advanced the connections between attention restoration constructs and environment composition. The six types of land use with indices of environmental composition may provide practical planning strategies for outdoor recreation settings, such as parks and public spaces, with the consideration of mental health.

The properties of attention restoration were related to spatial metrics. The directions of effects, positive or negative, distinctly divide spatial metrics into two groups. One group was characterized by diverse and fragmented types of landscapes, while the other metrics group featured landscape completeness. Among indices of spatial metrics, ‘largest patch index’ was most influential to ART constructs, secondly followed by ‘patch density’.

The size of patches which composite with trees and shrubs, and the shape of road greatly affected three out of four constructs for attention restoration in natural settings through outdoor recreation. Water features had focused influences on ‘coherence’ which is the property that allow one to remain engaged. The size and completion of water features were the suggested principles for planning and designing of outdoor recreation settings that promote engagements between users and the environments. Along with tree features, when planning for roads or pathways in outdoor recreation settings, the design of continuous and complex shape may help users for enhancing the sense of pleasantness, such as aesthetically pleasing stimuli (Kaplan, 1989), engagement, and the sense of being out of everyday environment.

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Alpine skiing offers individuals of all ages a fun physical activity, an opportunity for enhancing social interaction, improving knowledge about the outdoors, and having a healthy and active lifestyle (Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Girgolas, 2007; Williams & Fidgeon, 2000). While participating in alpine skiing, people have experienced a range of barriers that may prevent them from attaining their leisure goals and realizing the benefits of a high-quality leisure activity. For example, a lack of snow and high costs were primary barriers among various constraints to participation for alpine skiers (Won, Bang, & Shonk, 2008).

It is commonly recognized that constraints are factors that reduce or prevent participation in leisure activities and consist of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural components (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). However, those constraints do not always diminish or preclude participation in leisure activities. Contrary to implicit assumptions of leisure constraints theory, leisure constraints are no longer regarded as insuperable barriers, but are considered as negotiable (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993). Individuals who participate in any given leisure activity repeatedly implement various strategies to alleviate the effects of constraints, either by altering their leisure or modifying other aspects of their lives (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son, Kerstetter, & Mowen, 2008). Therefore, constraints may shape the realization of leisure goals and benefits, but they do not necessarily prevent it.

Many studies evidenced the mediated effects of leisure constraints negotiation on participation in leisure activities. For example, Hubbard and Mannell (2001), Hwang and Seo (2009), and Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) described that leisure constraints result in launching more leisure constraints negotiation. They asserted, then, that leisure constraints negotiation positively affected participation in leisure activities. Therefore, the total effect of leisure constraints on participation in leisure activities decreased compared with the direct effect of leisure constraints on participation.

When individuals continue to participate in a given leisure activity, they are more interested in activities requiring high levels of skills and knowledge as well as periodic, special, and economic commitment such as recreation specialization. The main thrust of recreation specialization theory is that “individuals will differ in their physical, management, and social setting preferences” (McFarlane 2004, p. 309). The theory has been applied to such leisure activities as angling (Oh, Ditton, Anderson, Scott, & Stoll, 2005), camping (McFarlane, 2004), scuba diving (Thapa, Graefe, & Meyer, 2006), and birding (Lee & Scott, 2004).

Recreationists who continue participating in leisure activity may arrive at the stage of recreation specialization because more specialized individuals tend to show a higher level of commitment in their leisure activities (Lee & Scott, 2004; Scott & Shafer, 2001). Yet, relatively little is known about how constraints and the constraints negotiation process influence the degree of skiers’ recreation specialization. The identification of constraints, constraints negotiation, and recreation specialization for ski participants has numerous managerial implications for the ski industry. Thus, the purpose of this study was: (1) to examine the relationship between leisure constraints and recreation specialization for alpine skiing and (2) to test the mediated effects of...
leisure constraints negotiation on the relationship between leisure constraints and recreation specialization in alpine skiing.

Methods

Alpine skiers at four ski resorts in Kyungki and Kangwon provinces in Korea comprised the study sample. Based on the cluster random sampling method, four ski resorts were randomly chosen from the list in a ski resort index. Approximately 100 respondents from each ski resort were invited to complete the survey. A total of 374 questionnaires were utilized for data analysis.

The instrument consisted of items eliciting demographic characteristics (age, gender, income, ski-related characteristics). Leisure constraints were measured using a modified and translated version of Hubbard and Mannell’s (2001) Leisure Constraint Scale. Leisure constraints negotiation was measured using an instrument initially developed by Jackson and Rucks (1995) and modified by Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007). The modified and translated scale in the context of Korean skiing activity consisted of 6 components. Recreation specialization was assessed using 10 items tapping 3 specific aspects (past experience, centrality-to-lifestyle, and economic commitment) of recreation specialization developed by McFarlane (1994). These items were also modified and translated for Korean skiers after consulting volunteers from ski clubs at universities. In order to refine the instrument, content and face validity were assessed through a panel of experts and a pilot test.

To demonstrate the mediated effect of leisure constraint negotiation on the relationship between leisure constraint and recreation specialization, the following steps should be employed (Hoyle & Smith, 1994): (1) the model fit for the relationship between independent variable, mediating variable, and dependent variable should be acceptable; (2) the mediation model of three variables should have an acceptable model fit; (3) the difference of chi-square between the model controlled mediating variable and the model with all variables should be significant.

SPSS 15.0 and LISREL 8.51 were used to conduct Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), which includes a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) component (measurement model) and a regression analysis component (structural model) (Bollen, 1989). The proposed structural equation model consisted of three variables including the three indicators for leisure constraints, the six indicators for leisure constraints negotiation, and three indicators for recreation specialization. Those three variables comprised their respective sub-scale mean scores. A total of 12 indicator variables were employed in the proposed model.

Results

The model for the relationship between leisure constraints and recreation specialization was tested to identify the viability of the model. The results indicated that this model had an acceptable model fit of the data ($X^2=155.030$, $df=52$, RMSEA=.08, NFI=.92, NNFI=.92, CFI=.94). Leisure constraints had a significant negative effect on recreation specialization ($\beta = -.52$, $p < .01$). Leisure constraints explained 27% of the variation in recreation specialization.

The model fit for the relationship between leisure constraints, leisure constraints negotiation, and recreation specialization by controlling direct effect of leisure constraint on recreation specialization provided an acceptable fit of the data ($X^2=141.398$, $df=52$, RMSEA=.08, NFI=.93, NNFI=.92, CFI=.94). Leisure constraints had a significant negative effect on leisure constraint negotiation ($\beta = -.41$, $p < .01$) while leisure constraints negotiation had a significant positive influence on recreation specialization ($\beta = .57$, $p < .01$). Leisure constraints accounted for 17% of the variation in leisure constraints negotiation. Leisure constraints negotiation explained 33% of the variation in recreation specialization.
The model for the mediation effect of leisure constraints negotiation on the relationship between leisure constraints and recreation specialization was tested. The proposed mediation model had an acceptable fit of the data ($X^2=101.407, df=51$, RMSEA=.08, NFI=.94, NNFI=.94, CFI=.95). Leisure constraints had a significant negative effect on leisure constraints negotiation ($\beta = -.36, p < .01$), and leisure constraints explained 13% of the variation in leisure constraints negotiation. Leisure constraints had a significant negative effect directly on recreation specialization ($\beta = -.38, p < .01$). Leisure constraint negotiation had a significant positive influence on recreation specialization ($\beta = .41, p < .01$). Leisure constraints and leisure constraints negotiation accounted for 41.9% of the variation in recreation specialization. The indirect effect of leisure constraints on recreation specialization was -.15 (-.36 x .41). Therefore, the total effect of leisure constraints on recreation specialization was -.53 (-.38 + -.15).

To identify the mediation effect of leisure constraints negotiation between leisure constraints and recreation specialization, the difference of chi-square between previous two models was calculated. The chi-square change was significant [$X^2(52) – X^2(51) = 141.398 – 101.407 = 39.991: p<.01$]. It was evidence of the mediated effect of leisure constraints negotiation between leisure constraints and recreation specialization. The mediation effect size of leisure constraints negotiation between leisure constraints and recreation specialization can be calculated by the following equation: Effect Size = (total effect – direct effect)/total effect = (-.53 - -.38)/-.53 = .28. So, the mediation effect size of leisure constraints negotiation is 28%. Since the direct effect (-.38) of leisure constraints on recreation specialization was significant, the results of present study demonstrated the partial mediation effect of leisure constraints negotiation between leisure constraints and recreation specialization while keeping 72% of the direct effect of leisure constraints on recreation specialization.

**Conclusion and Discussion**

The present study concludes that when alpine skiers encounter a kind of constraint, they tend to apply negotiation strategies to overcome the constraint in order to continue skiing and, in doing so, have a higher possibility to be more specialized skiers. This result supports previous studies explaining that leisure constraints negotiation reduces the effects of leisure constraints and helps potential participants continue their activities, which, in turn, allows them to reach higher levels of recreation specialization (Alexandris, Kouthouris, Grgolas, 2007; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Hwang & Seo, 2009). In this study, specific negotiation strategies depending on specific leisure constraints in the ski context were not provided. For future study, it would be necessary to classify the negotiation strategies based on types of leisure constraints.

According to Bryan (2000), different levels of participation exhibit unique behaviors and orientations (e.g., type of experience sought, desired setting for activity, equipment preference, preferred social context, vacation patterns, etc.). Different constraints may be categorized based on different intensities of each type of constraint and a unique combination of constraints. Further research is necessary to classify specific constraints negotiation resources based on types of leisure constraints to recreation specialization with different populations and different leisure contexts to understand their role in physically active leisure orientation. Such research may present useful data to advance the investigations on the mediated effects of leisure constraints negotiation and recreation specialization for the recreation and sport tourism industry.

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References
Society is and has always been comprised of people of different levels and types of ability. Today, due to legislation and changing attitudes toward disability, individuals with disabilities have more opportunities to engage in all aspects of community life than in decades past. Yet, in terms of employment, the considerable disparity between the employment rates of people with and without disabilities has remained virtually unchanged for more than 30 years. Despite legislation designed to increase workforce participation, such as the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) passed in 1990, the employment rate of people with disabilities has remained steady over the past three decades (Bjelland, Burkhauser, von Schrader, & Houtenville, 2009). In 2008, the employment rate of working-age people with disabilities in the U.S. was 39.5% as compared to an employment rate of 79.9% among working-age people without disabilities; and the rate of employment ranges from 56% for persons with a “Hearing Disability” to 18.7% among individuals with a “Self-Care Disability.” (Erickson & von Schrader, 2010).

Employed people with disabilities, like their nondisabled colleagues, have families, friends, and leisure interests. Yet, there has been a paucity of research about the work-life balance of workers with disabilities. As the American workforce continues to change, understanding the work-life needs of these individuals will become increasingly important. The labor force participation of teenagers and other segments of the population has decreased, but the participation of individuals aged 55 and older has continued to increase since about 1995; further, the prevalence of disability increases with age (CDC, 2009).

Further, the CDC noted that the prevalence of disability increases with age. Therefore, as the American workforce ages, the number of workers with disabilities will increase. Additionally, the first cohort of jobseekers to have only known life under the ADA is now entering the labor market. These are some of the factors that highlight the importance of attending to the work-life concerns of individuals with disabilities.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the work-life balance of employed persons with disabilities. There were three principal goals of this project. One was to understand the significance of leisure and work in the lives of the participants. A second goal was to understand how the presence of disability influenced their work and leisure lives. The third goal was to determine what beliefs, strategies, and relationships contributed to participants’ quality of life and sense of work-life balance. Clark’s (2000) work/family border theory served as a theoretical framework for the study. This theory considers one’s relationships, roles and responsibilities in each sphere of life. A key concept of this theory is that of central participation or the degree to which individuals are perceived by coworkers as belonging to their workplace communities; those who are seen as central participants tend to receive more support to manage other aspects of their lives than do individuals who are more peripherally associated with their workplaces. Clark’s concept of other domain awareness, the degree to which coworkers can relate to the non-work domains of one another’s lives, was also useful in considering the experiences of the participants in this study.

Methods

This project was an investigation of the lived experiences of eight individuals with observable
mobility impairments. All were employed full-time in white collar jobs within integrated settings. These five women and three men ranged in age from their early 30’s to late 50’s. Some participants had congenital disabilities such as spina bifida and muscular dystrophy. Others had acquired disabilities including polio, spinal cord injury, and impairment to the lower extremities.

Data was collected via in-depth, semi-structured interviews and brief worksite visits, which took place during the summer and fall of 2009. Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (Smith, 1996) was utilized to capture the similarities among participants, while also acknowledging the experience of each. This approach requires the researcher to both honor and question the perceptions of the participants. It is meant to represent the participants in a holistic way, “warts and all” (Smith & Osborn, 2003, p. 52). The process of interpreting the data involved reviewing each transcript multiple times noting interesting word usage, seemingly significant comments, and recurrent and potentially conflicting comments. With each review, emerging themes and specific examples of the themes were noted, and where appropriate, some themes were combined. Each transcript was viewed with a focus on the individual; only after this, were commonalities among participants specifically considered. Member checks and frequently seeking clarification from participants during the data collection process helped in understanding their interpretations of their experiences.

Results

Several themes emerged from the data. These centered on the importance of identity, aging, work, and leisure. The importance of relationships and self-care was embedded in these themes. And these themes influenced participants’ sense of work-life balance.

Issues of Identity

Although disability impacted all areas of their lives, participants viewed disability as a single attribute or feature; the presence of disability did not define who they were. Their comments demonstrated the existence of a hierarchy of disability and a tendency to view themselves as more fortunate than most people with disabilities. They referred to themselves as “survivors” having outlived peers who had their same disabilities. They viewed themselves as “examples” for people with and without disabilities. Their responses indicated that identity is fluid and multi-layered; the same individual feels differently about him or herself at different times. Further, participants reported relational identities such as spouse, partner, son, aunt, church member and friend. Their roles within work and non-work domains contributed to their identities.

Aging with Disability is Different

Participants spoke of being similar to their nondisabled colleagues and friends. Yet, they also reported ways in which they were different from others, especially in their youth and as they began to deal with the consequences of aging with disability. Aging was a significant concern because it resulted in the need for support similar to that which they required in childhood. This was reportedly very frustrating after many years of treasured independence. Aging with disability also influenced identity and was associated with a renewed, or in some cases new, desire to connect with other people with disabilities.

Work is a Way to Connect and Contribute

Participants valued work as a way to contribute to society and to connect with other people, especially nondisabled people. In many cases, coworkers were among their closest friends. Participants who were more open with their supervisors and coworkers regarding disability-related needs reported feeling more supported in their efforts towards maintaining a sense of work-life balance and good self-care.
Leisure: A Means of Coping and a Source of Stress

Participants identified leisure with family and friends as being important for their physical health and social well-being. Issues of disability identity were noted related to work and leisure choices, with leisure often providing a space for them to express aspects of themselves that they did not feel were apparent in their vocations. Maintaining a sense of work-life balance involved consideration of not only work and family issues, but also of friends, leisure, and self-care. Although all participants valued leisure pursuits, engaging in leisure was often associated with some degree of stress due to the planning involved or the need to modify activities due to their functional limitations. Some reported that the need for mobility aids during leisure increased as they aged; this led to a decrease in leisure they once enjoyed. In some cases, they declined social invitations and ceased favorite activities because of disability-related concerns.

Discussion and Conclusions

Theories about work-life balance have traditionally focused on the work and family domains (MacInnes, 2005). However, for participants in this study, work-life balance was not solely an issue of navigating between these two spheres. While participants who had children reported experiences commonly found in the work-life literature (e.g., feeling guilty about engaging in leisure of their own versus having their leisure center around their children (Shaw, 1994) ), even those who did not have families spoke of the considerable challenge in negotiating the domains of disability/self-care, friendships, and leisure. These results indicate that definitions of work-life balance need to consider multiple domains, relationships, and identities-for individuals with and without disabilities. Additionally, understanding the roles of leisure in the work-life balance of individuals with disabilities requires recognition that, for these workers, leisure may be associated with considerable stress. Leisure opportunities and satisfaction may be decreased due to the planning required, concerns about physical inaccessibility, dealing with others’ limiting perceptions of disability, and sadness due to the loss of functional abilities with aging. Further, the findings of this study suggest the stress associated with leisure may affect the degree to which leisure or certain types of leisure may aid in coping with disability. Future studies that investigated the coping benefits of passive versus active leisure would be especially useful in understanding the needs of persons with disabilities. As they age, these individuals may find it more difficult to engage in physical activity; yet, such activity may be vital to their maintaining independence. Research about how perceptions of these activities as “leisure” versus “therapy” might affect the degree to which they are helpful in coping with disability, could provide insight into the link between leisure and stress.

Practical implications of this study include the need for leisure programmers to consider the diversity within the disability community and recognize those who have career jobs and/or do not view themselves as what some participants referred to as “typical handicapped people.” Those who are employed full-time may not be attracted to traditional adaptive recreation offerings that occur during the workday and may include individuals with very different, more limited, life experiences. The findings also indicate the need for corporations to ensure that their employee wellness programs, such as employee assistance programs and corporate fitness initiatives, are accessible and welcoming to all employees. Some of the concerns expressed by participants (e.g., strained interpersonal relationships and the desire to find exercise partners) are not unique to people with disabilities; accessible corporate wellness resources would provide a vehicle through which all employees could address such needs.

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References


Incorporating Self-Efficacy into the Constraint Negotiation Process

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Constraints have helped researchers understand factors that prevent or reduce participation in leisure activities (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991; Jackson, 2000). Current research suggests constraints are not insurmountable obstacles; they are factors that can be successfully negotiated for leisure participation (Scott, 1991). The area of constraint negotiation was proposed as an explanation of how individuals alleviate or overcome constraints (Jackson & Rucks, 1995). Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) expanded on early work on constraints by integrating constraints, negotiation strategies, and motivations as predictors of participation. This approach to constraint negotiation continues to guide research and is a growing area examined across different populations and settings (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007; Son, Kerstetter, & Mowen, 2008; Wilhelm Stanis, Schneider, & Russell, 2009).

Jackson et al. (1993) developed several propositions for understanding constraint negotiation. In their propositions, Jackson et al. (1993) suggest motivations may influence the use of negotiation strategies to overcome constraints. Hubbard and Mannell (2001) examined this proposition further and developed several models that tested relationships between constraints, negotiation strategies, motivations, and leisure participation. Results indicate negotiation strategies mitigated the effects of constraints on participation and motivations directly impact negotiation strategies.

Other research has expanded the work of Hubbard and Mannell (2001) by testing constraint negotiation on other populations. Son et al. (2008) examined constraint negotiation with older adults and physically active leisure participation. Results indicate motivations play a significant role in the negotiation process. Wilhelm Stanis et al. (2009) also tested Hubbard and Mannell’s models on park visitors and found similar results to Son et al. (2008).

Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) added to the constraint negotiation process by including the variable of self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1977) self-efficacy is a social-cognitive way to understand how to overcome challenges and barriers. The amount of self-efficacy one has determines one’s ability to overcome constraints. The authors created a negotiation-efficacy variable that measured the confidence an individual has to use negotiation strategies to overcome constraints. The authors tested four competing models that focused on the interrelations between constraints, negotiation strategies, negotiation-efficacy, and motivations. Findings supports model 2 that link negotiation-efficacy with motivations and negotiation strategies and where motivations are partially mediated by negotiation strategies to predict participation. This suggests individuals with high levels of efficacy were more motivated and more likely to utilize negotiation strategies.

Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell’s (2007) research lends support for examining the role of self-efficacy in other leisure activities. The purpose of this paper is to examine the role of self-efficacy in the constraint negotiation process in an outdoor recreation context and to re-test the four competing models proposed by Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007). This paper will expand on the constraint negotiation process by treating self-efficacy as its own construct rather than creating an efficacy negotiation variable.
Methods
The data used for this analysis were from a larger study funded by the USDA Forest Service that examined hunters in the state of Oregon. A sample of hunters was taken from Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife hunting license sales records with a total of 1500 questionnaires sent out via mail with a 30% response rate (n=392).

The dependent variable of participation is comprised of two open ended variables: number of days hunted in OR and number of days used to prepare for hunting. Perceived leisure constraints were based on previous research (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Respondents indicated the extent of their constraints on a 5-point scale, where 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree. Negotiation items were examined using research from Hubbard & Mannell (2001) and were assessed using the same 1 to 5 scale. Motivations were measured using items from the Recreation Experience Preference scales (Manfredo, Driver, & Tarrant, 1996). Respondents indicated how important the items were for them on a 1 to 5 scale. Self-efficacy was modeled closely after Bandura (2006, 1977). Respondents were asked to rate their confidence on a scale from 0 to 100 in the areas of skills, support, and fears related to hunting.

In order to reduce the data, exploratory factor analysis was used and Cronbach’s alpha reliability was computed to determine the internal consistency for the dimensions. This resulted in a manageable 16 items to be used in Lisrel 8.7 for structural equation modeling. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to determine the fit for the items as combined latent constructs. Path analysis was then used to assess the model fit and the predictive validity of each of the constructs.

Results
Structural equation path analysis was used to determine which of the four models proposed by Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) fit the data the best. Each model tested a variation of relationships between constraints, negotiation strategies, self-efficacy, motivations and their influence on participation. Path analysis for the models were assessed on several fit indices including the $\chi^2/df$ ratio, Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).

The four models tested all had an acceptable range of $\chi^2(df)$ with values between 2 and 5 and acceptable fit for the various indices (Table 1). There was little or no variation in the fit among the four models. For models 1-4 a weak relationship exists in the paths from constraints to participation and negotiation (Table 2). Constraints were not a significant predictor of participation or negotiation strategies. To determine the most appropriate model for this data, constraints were dropped from the analysis to create a final model with self-efficacy, motivations, and negotiation strategies (Figure 1). Models were compared using both fit statistics and R-square values. The final model showed better fit to the data than the previous four models and all paths were significant. There was a significant path between self-efficacy and motivations ($\beta=.24$) and both motivations ($\beta=.55$) and self-efficacy ($\beta=.15$) had significant paths predicting negotiation strategies. Negotiation strategies significantly predicted overall hunting participation and accounted for 25% of the variance.

Discussion
This study tested four models of constraint negotiation and self-efficacy. Results indicate that all four models fit the data acceptably, which is consistent with Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007). However, some divergent results exist with the constraints items. In Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007), constraints were a significant predictor for models 1 and 3 but not for models 2 and 4. In this study of hunters, constraints were not a significant predictor for any of
the models and were consequently dropped from the final model. This resulted in a better fitting model than the ones proposed by Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007). This finding is similar to other studies where constraints was a weak predictor of participation or not significant at all (Covelli, Graefe, & Burns, 2007; Wilhelm Stanis et al., 2009). This finding suggests that constraints may have already been successfully negotiated through for hunters.

Similar to Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007), this study found support for the use of self-efficacy in the constraint negotiation process. Self-efficacy was a significant predictor of negotiation strategies and motivations. This suggests individuals who have higher confidence are more likely to employ negotiation strategies and to be motivated to overcome constraints. Future studies on constraint negotiation should consider incorporating self-efficacy in tests across different populations and settings.

Table 1. Goodness of Fit statistics for models

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<th>Model</th>
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Table 2. Standardized Path Coefficients and \(R^2\) values

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\*p > .05

Figure 1. Final Model
References


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CONSTRAINTS AND RESOURCES IN THE MORAL DEVELOPMENT OF RECREATION INTERNS

Patricia J. Craig, University of New Hampshire

Educators in recreation curricula have long recognized the significance of the internship experience in student personal and professional development (Beggs, Ross, & Knapp, 2006). Although the internship is a time of intense skill acquisition where students are challenged to make the critical transition to more autonomous professional functioning, it is also a time when students begin negotiating their professional ethical identity. During the internship, students face many personal and professional transitions that can lead to ethical situations requiring them to resolve the tensions between their personal identity and the unique ethical demands of the profession (Hambrick, Pimental, & Albano, 2009). In a professional context, “doing right” is conveyed through a discipline’s code of ethics. Although educators present students with the values of the profession through didactic training, in order for students to successfully integrate into the profession they must be socialized to develop an internalized understanding of these ethical codes; a process most readily achieved through the internship experience. According to Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, and Thoma (1999), a critical step in this integration process is the ability to order and prioritize professional ethical values over other competing values. They contend that morally mature professionals exhibit an internalized understanding of and commitment to ethical codes and are able to place a high priority on professional values, whereas less mature professionals, such as interns, have yet to internalize the values of the profession resulting in moral actions that may be motivated by self-interests such as self-preservation, reward, or avoidance of punishment rather than moral considerations. Individuals’ whose moral judgments are motivated by self-interests have yet to develop the conceptual frameworks for a professional ethical identity (Rest et al.).

Recreation practice does not exist in a vacuum, but rather is deeply embedded in an institutional context with a web of interactions with others. Students who are immersed in practice through the internship are likely to be exposed to context-specific values for the first time, bringing them face-to-face with ethical issues that challenge them to reflect upon their own values and understand how their values align with or differ from the values of others and/or the institutional context. While we hope that students can learn to give priority to professional values over self-interested values, in reality, they are often challenged by many conflicting value systems operating at the same time within the context of their internship experience (Trienzenberg & Davis, 2000). These conflicting values may be associated with organizational, contextual, and/or policy factors that compete for students’ attention, acting as potential constraints to moral behavior in practice (Swisher, 2002). The purpose of this study was to explore aspects of the internship experience that appeared responsible for constraining and/or fostering moral development among 10 undergraduate recreation interns comprising a collective case study. For the purpose of this abstract, only the case study findings are reported. A full report of the study findings can be referenced in the larger mixed methods study (Craig, 2010).

Method

The setting was a nationally accredited recreation management curriculum at a public university in the northeast USA. From a convenience population of 49 interns (61% female), a sample of 33 voluntarily agreed to participate in the study during their 14-week summer internship semester. The 33 interns (60% were female) completed the Defining Issues Test-2
(DIT2), a standardized measure of moral judgment, in a pre and post-test format. Using a criterion sampling strategy based on pre-test scores of the Post-Conventional schema subscale of the DIT2, 10 interns were purposefully selected to serve as case studies: five from the low and five from the high range of Post-Conventional schema scores. Out of the 10 interns, seven worked in commercial recreation agencies, two worked in municipal settings, and one worked in a community-based therapeutic recreation setting.

Using a collective case study (Stake, 2005), multiple forms of qualitative data were gathered including: a) interviews conducted at the end of the internship experience; b) academic assignments including formative and summative papers, daily reflective journals, bi-weekly online discussions with intern peers and academic supervisor, a special project report, and a summative internship portfolio document; and c) researcher field notes. These data sources were used as a "convergence of evidence" (Yin, 2003, p. 100) to identify aspects of the internship that appeared to constrain and/or foster moral development among the 10 intern cases. The interview tool was developed through a series of observations, focus groups, telephone interviews with site supervisors, and a pilot test study. The data were analyzed using a three-stage process proposed by Taylor and Bogdan (1984), which included identification of concepts and development of themes, coding of data and refining of subject matter, and understanding data in the context in which it were collected. Creswell's (2003) primary verification procedures for credibility, reliability, and authenticity were employed, as the researcher attempted to triangulate descriptions and interpretations throughout the period of study. By noting regularities and salient categories among the data (Patton, 2002), three qualitative themes emerged.

Case Study Findings

**Theme I: Pressures to conform to agency norms/core values of the internship setting.** A common phenomenon for novices who are being inducted into a profession is the pressure to conform to core values of the agency, even when those values are at odds with their own beliefs about best practices. Ethical dilemmas associated with the commercial recreation sector emerged as potential constraints to moral development for three of the seven interns working in this type of setting. These interns were exposed to questionable situations such as conflict of interest, dishonesty, unfair work practices, and an emphasis on profits at all costs, which are common ethical pitfalls of the commercial recreation sector (McLean & Yoder, 2005). Interns tended to adopt the existing norms of their settings, rather than express independent judgment as they encountered ethical situations in practice. This conformity stemmed from a perception of being “powerless” due to their intern status and, in some instances, was motivated by self-interests such as the need to succeed during the internship in order to receive a passing grade and graduate on time. As a result, interns emphasized a need to please others, which often meant that they would not speak up when they observed apparent injustices. The opposite trend emerged for two of the three interns working in public/non-profit recreation sectors as they encountered core values that seemed to enhance their ability to prioritize professional values over non-moral competing values. The type of ethical situations that arose in their settings enabled them to internalize their agency’s public service philosophy, thus contributing to their ethical identity.

**Theme II. Fostering moral development through significant supervision and mentoring.** Supervision and mentoring emerged as an influential aspect of the internship experience in the moral development of the 10 intern cases. Six of the 10 interns characterized their site supervisors as strong ethical role models because they were available to them during daily interactions as well as at times when they needed guidance on the ethical front. Effective site supervisors were attuned to interns’ needs, providing them with practical and emotional support
as they struggled to accommodate new and ambiguous experiences in practice. They also challenged interns with responsibilities outside of their comfort zone and modeled responsible professional behaviors throughout the experience, which appeared to positively influence interns’ understanding of professional ethical values. Conversely, ineffective site supervisors failed to create a supportive and nurturing environment, which subsequently led to confusion and anxiety for interns as they began to negotiate their new professional role. Four of the 10 interns experienced ineffective site supervisors who they characterized as being poorly organized, intimidating and unapproachable, punitive in their approach, and/or too busy to provide interns with an adequate level of practical or ethical support and guidance.

Theme III: Fostering moral development through guided reflection opportunities. An aspect of the internship that appeared to positively impact intern moral development was the opportunity for regular reflection through academic assignments that were staggered throughout the 14-week internship in order to balance the action-reflection cycle. Interns utilized different assignments to express their concerns and frustrations, acknowledge what they were learning, and help them make sense of the experience. One element that appeared to be missing from these assignments, however, was an intentional focus on eliciting ethical reflection. Interns who appeared most comfortable negotiating their new practice roles were those who received timely and skilled formative feedback from highly invested academic supervisors.

Discussion

If interns are to elevate to a level of professional autonomy during internship, they must begin to demonstrate an internalized understanding of and commitment to professional ethics. This is not easy because internship experiences differ in the constraints and opportunities they present to interns. How interns respond to moments of value incompatibility is contingent upon their moral development (Rest et al.) and the type of pedagogical strategies used to bridge incongruence and dissonance (Reiman & Oja, 2006). Requiring students to complete fieldwork hours in their intended recreation service sector during the practicum prior to internship may be an effective way to enhance their understanding of setting-specific ethical situations, and classroom learning activities accompanying the practicum may enable them to begin practicing their problem-solving and conflict management skills. To offset the conformity constraint, educators may need to consider students’ levels of moral reasoning in the matching and site approval process. Students who utilize less complex moral judgment may be a poor fit for an agency known for its profit-driven culture because these types of students are more likely to be focused on self-interests, do what they’re told by authority, and passively conform to questionable practices of the agency. Academic supervisors need to ensure that appropriate professional core values are being presented to students during the internship and when values other than professional values are at the center of the experience, they should provide interns with assurances that their attempts to uphold ethical principles in practice will not result in failure of the internship. Internship site supervisors’ are not only charged with teaching interns requisite skills for practice, but must also be committed ethical role models. We may need to adjust our assumption that site supervisors are ethical practitioners simply because they work at an accredited program, hold a credential to practice, have supervised interns in the past, or have accumulated so many years of experience. Perhaps we need evidence of ethical competence as well. Lastly, educators may need to consider formal pedagogical strategies designed to elicit focused ethical reflection among interns.

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Selected References


GROUNDED THEORY OF CONSTRAINTS TO LEISURE AND SUCCESSFUL COPING PROCESS

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As constraint conceptualization has matured, models for constraints to leisure have been developed including: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural barriers (Crawford & Godbey, 1987), antecedent and intervening constraints (Henderson, Stalnaker, & Taylor, 1988), the hierarchical model of leisure constraints (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991), the independence model, negotiation-buffer model, constraint-effect mitigation model, perceived-constraint-reduction model (Hubbard & Mannell (2001), and the enabling nature of constraints (Shogan, 2002). Previous models of constraints were developed from reviews of literature, yielding contradictory and inconclusive research results. As conceptualization of constraints continues to mature, questions still exist. This study takes a step back, starting from the ground up with constraint conceptualization. Rather than using literature reviews to develop a theory of constraints to leisure, this study develops a theoretical model of constraints directly from data.

Purpose
The purpose of this study was to generate a theoretical model that describes, explains, and predicts the dynamic nature of constraints to leisure experienced by adults previously constrained from swimming and the successful process of coping with constraints to leisure. The theoretical model presented in this study is developed directly from participants’ descriptions of experiencing constraints to leisure and successful process of coping with constraints to leisure.

Methods
This study followed the grounded theory design of Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998). Using theoretical sampling, 28 adults (23 females and 5 males; 13 minorities [10 African Americans, two Indians, one Mexican American]; income range from $20,000 to $200,000/year; education ranging from high school degree to post-graduate degree; 19 married, 9 single; 14 worked full-time, 2 part-time, 4 retired, 2 undergraduate students, 1 housewife; 1 permanently disabled; 1 Vietnam veteran) stating they had previously been constrained from swimming or learning to swim, and were currently participating in either group or private swimming lessons at various settings in upstate South Carolina were chosen as participants for the study, as these individuals would have experiences relevant to the purpose of the research. Data were collected from June 2006 through December 2006 through in-depth, open-ended, face-to-face or telephone interviews lasting from 45 minutes to 1.5 hours. Interviews were conducted until saturation was reached. Member checks were conducted during, as well as at the end of the study. Interviews were recorded and transcribed. Data analysis followed standard grounded theory procedures of: 1) constant comparison, 2) analytic coding, including open, axial, and selective coding and 3) memoing, (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1998). NVIVO 7 was used to assist in the storage and management of interview data.

Results
This abstract presents the entire paradigm model of constraints to leisure as a whole. Due to space limitations, quotes are not presented. The grounded theory model for how constraints to leisure develop and how people successfully cope with constraints to leisure is presented in a flowchart in Figure 1.

This model assumes an interest in swimming is present. If the person is not interested in swimming, he/she is not constrained from participation. All participants in this study stated they
had the desire to participate in swimming or to learn to swim at various points in their lives but for reasons described in this narrative, did not.

Figure 1. Grounded Theory of Constraints to Leisure & Coping Process

Causal conditions and contexts of a person not swimming have been identified as constraints to leisure. It is important to note that constraints to leisure affecting swimming participation are at times intertwined, and categories and subcategories are not mutually exclusive. In this model, it is not imperative constraint classification categories be mutually exclusive. As seen in this study, it is the experience of multiple contexts and conditions that act as constraints to leisure. As in life, contexts and conditions cannot simply be removed and separated from each other.

Constraints to leisure are conditions or contexts preventing study participants from swimming or learning to swim. Some constraints to leisure affected participants earlier in life during childhood and adolescence. Then different constraints affected the same participants later in life, during early and advanced adulthood. Yet, some constraints remained stable over time, preventing the participant from swimming across his or her life span. Even though constraints to leisure preventing participants from swimming during adolescence or childhood were not necessarily the same constraints preventing participants from swimming later in life, the result of non-participation, modified or limited participation, or decreased enjoyment while participating was the same.

Participants attributed five types of constraints inhibiting them from swimming: 1) socialization, 2) psychological conditions, 3) general life responsibilities, 4) limited resources and 5) physical limitations. All contexts and conditions attributed by participants inhibiting them from learning to swim were classified into one of these constraint categories.
The phenomenon occurring in this model is leisure being constrained. Study participants described three ways leisure activities involving water and swimming had been constrained throughout their lives: 1) enjoyment was decreased while participating in leisure activities involving water and swimming, 2) participants did not participate in leisure activities involving water or swimming, or 3) the individual participated in leisure activities involving water or swimming, but in a limited or modified manner.

In this model, an intervening condition occurred between leisure being constrained and the initiation of the process of coping with constraints to leisure. The intervening condition was a catalyzing life experience. “Catalyzing life experience” refers to a life experience serving as a cause of behavior change. In this study, all participants described a catalyzing life experience initiating the process of coping with their constraints to leisure. Catalyzing life experiences are grouped into the following categories: 1) not being able to swim affecting participation in other leisure activities, 2) social pressure, 3) self-efficacy improvement through vicarious experiences, and 4) life reflection.

Once the catalyzing life experience occurred, the process of coping with constraints was initiated. In this model, coping refers to a three-step process of facing or contending with the leisure activity (swimming) being constrained. The first step in coping with constraints to leisure was an increase in motivation to learn to swim or participate in the activity of swimming, followed by making swimming or learning to swim a priority. Once participating in swimming as an activity was made a priority, constraints to leisure inhibiting participants from swimming or learning to swim were then negotiated.

The process of coping with constraints to leisure begins with an increase in motivation to participate in the activity. In this study the increase in motivation was evident through participant’s statements that they were now motivated or determined to learn to swim and, while at earlier times in their lives they did have the desire to participate in swimming or water activities, they were not motivated to take the necessary steps to personally be able to participate in swimming, water activities, or learn to swim.

The next step in the process of coping with constraints to leisure, after motivation to participate in swimming increased, was to make the activity a priority in their lives. Participants realized if they were going to learn to swim or participate in water activities, they were going to have to make learning to swim a priority, arranging other activities or responsibilities around learning to swim.

Once learning to swim was made a priority, participants then began to negotiate his/her constraints to leisure. In this model, constraints to leisure are negotiated in the following ways: 1) logistically, 2) with social support, 3) cognitively, 4) economically, and 5) by increasing feelings of security. Because this model only focuses on participants that were successful in negotiating constraints to leisure, all participants achieved the outcome of participation in the leisure activity of swimming. In addition to taking formal swimming lessons, coping with constraints also led to, or is anticipated by participants that it will lead to, participating in swimming as a leisure activity or other activities involving water.

**Discussion**

This study resulted in several new ideas involving constraints to leisure. First, categories of constraints unlike those in other empirical studies were identified, which itself is not uncommon in constraint studies. A novel idea presented by this study is the concept of an intervening condition, or a catalyzing life experience, initiating a three-step process to cope with constraints to leisure. Also novel is the conceptualization that coping with constraints to leisure is a 3-step
process involving negotiation of constraints as a component of coping, rather than negotiation being the single way and a one-step process to overcome constraints. This study also categorizes negotiation strategies within the coping process which is also unique.

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DAILY FLUCTUATIONS IN COLLEGE STUDENT LEISURE ACTIVITIES AND WELL-BEING

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College students’ ratings of emotional health are at an all-time low (Pryor, Hurtado, DeAngelo, Palucki Blake, & Tran, 2010). Further, a recent national study suggests that college students are at an age when their global well-being is about to decline dramatically (Stone, Schwartz, Broderick, & Deaton, 2010). If their emotional health is already low and is about to decrease, it is imperative to reach them now with behaviors that can increase their well-being.

Engaging in positive leisure activities has been shown to decrease externalizing problems (i.e., delinquency; Caldwell & Smith, 2006). The same may be true of internalizing issues and well-being although less is known about relations between leisure activities and multiple indicators of well-being. Cohort differences in college student leisure activities have been observed over the past 30 years (Hendel & Harrold, 2004). Since the 1970s, students have increased their participation in volunteer work, watching movies, and internet use. Activities that were consistently popular over this period were social activities. These findings have been based on cross-sectional comparisons of leisure activities and little is known about how students’ engagement in different leisure activities changes over time. Furthermore, little is known about how fluctuations in leisure activities are associated with fluctuations in students’ well-being.

We aimed to extend the literature by determining overall trends in time use and fluctuations in these trends and their subsequent relation to well-being indicators in college students.

Methods

College students (N=33, 42.4% female, 93.9% Caucasian) from one upper-level undergraduate Kinesiology class completed data collection as part of a class project. All students provided informed consent for their data to be used for research purposes. For 10 weeks, participants used a secure website to complete a weekly battery of questionnaires regarding their well-being and leisure activity participation. This method allowed for the collection of 330 data points on the variables measured. Although there may be problems with recall of daily activities on a weekly time frame, this method is not only often used in research, but also decreases the amount of participant burden, especially relative to the duration of this study.

Measures

Leisure Activity Scale. Leisure participation was assessed using a nine-item scale developed for this study. Participants were asked to rate their frequency of participation in a list of leisure activities on a five point scale ranging from 1 (Daily) to 5 (Never). One sample item is “think about your work outs/exercise sessions over the past week. How often did you work out/exercise?” Three leisure activities were physical activities (work outs/exercise, recreational sports, competitive sport) and were highly correlated. As such, they were compiled into one physical activity variable. All other leisure activities (volunteering, church/religious activities, clubs/meetings, cognitive activities, socializing with friends, and other) were treated separately.

Anxiety. Participants indicated their experience of anxiety using the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI-S; Spielberger, 1983). The 10 items included “I feel calm,” and “I am tense.” Participants rated their level of agreement from 1 (not at all) to 4 (very much so).
**Depression.** The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Short Depression Scale (CES-D 10; Andresen, Malmgren, Carter, & Patrick, 1994) was used to assess participants’ depressive symptoms over the past week. Using a 4-point scale from 0 (rarely/none of the time) to 3 (all of the time), students rated the frequency of experiencing 10 depressive feelings including loneliness, fear, and restless sleep.

**Stress.** The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983) was used to determine weekly levels of perceived stress. We modified the original scale that assessed stress in the past month to examine weekly stress levels. People rated the frequency of experiencing stressful events using a 4-point scale from 1 (almost never) to 4 (very often).

**Affect.** The 20-item Kuppens Affect Scale (Kuppens, et al., 2007) was used to assess participants’ affect over the past week in terms of the four quadrants of affect. Pleasant-activated affect are terms such as enthusiastic or excited, whereas pleasant-deactivated includes relaxed and satisfied. Unpleasant-activated includes terms like angry and stressed, and unpleasant-deactivated relates to terms like depressed. People rated their affect using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (did not feel this way at all) to 7 (felt this way strongly).

**Satisfaction with Life.** The 5-item Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) was used to assess participants’ life satisfaction. Students rated their level of agreement with statements related to life satisfaction on a 7-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

**Data Analysis**

Multilevel analyses were conducted to estimate the proportion of total variance associated with between-person (as opposed to within-person) differences in activities and well-being over the 10 weeks. Next, variance in each well-being indicator was decomposed using a series of multilevel regressions with fixed effects. At the between-person level of analysis, average levels of well-being were predicted by each person’s average weekly level of each leisure activity. At the within-person level of analysis, weekly well-being fluctuations were predicted by people’s fluctuations in their leisure activities relative to their usual level (i.e., intraindividual means).

**Results**

Activities ranged from having minimal (volunteering: ICC=.09) to considerable between-person variation (activities with friends: ICC=.65). Well-being measures ranged from having small (pleasant-activated affect: ICC=.21) to moderate (state anxiety: ICC=.44) between-person variation. A summary of relations between well-being and between/within variability in leisure activities follows.

**Anxiety.** Students who participated in more frequent social activities (b=0.29, p<.01) and church/religious activities (b=0.12, p<.01) reported lower levels of anxiety. Those who volunteered (b=-0.14, p<.01) more often than usual experienced greater levels of anxiety.

**Depression (DEP).** People who, on average, participated in activities with friends more frequently displayed lower DEP (b=0.29, p<.05). Participants who participated in church activities more often than usual showed greater DEP (b=-0.31, p<.05). Those who participated in physical activity more often than usual showed fewer DEP (b=0.06, p<.05).

**Stress.** Participants who usually engaged in activities with friends more often were less likely to report high levels of perceived stress (b=0.51, p<.01). Those people who participated in physical activity more frequently than usual were more likely to report lower levels of stress (b=0.07, p<.01).

**Satisfaction with Life (SWL).** Individuals who usually attended church/engaged in religious activities more frequently reported higher levels of SWL (b=-0.44, p<.01). However, those
individuals who attended church more frequently than their average level had lower levels of SWL ($b=0.87, p<.01$). Those who participated in physical activity ($b=-0.22, p<.01$) and social activities ($b=-0.23, p<.05$) more often than usual reported higher levels of SWL.

**Pleasant-Activated Affect (PAA).** Participants who reported participating in physical activity more frequently ($b=0.06, p<.01$) and church activities ($b=-0.28, p<.01$) and activities with friends ($b=-0.38, p<.05$) less frequently were more likely to have lower levels of PAA. Those who participated in church/religious activities ($b=0.65, p<.05$) more often than usual and in activities with friends ($b=-0.23, p<.01$) less often than usual reported having lower levels of PAA.

**Pleasant-Deactivated Affect (PDA).** Participants who regularly participated in clubs/meetings ($b =0.19, p<.05$) as well as physical activity ($b=0.06, p<.01$) more frequently were less likely to have high levels of PDA. Those who usually participated in church/religious activities ($b=-0.19, p<.01$) less frequently were also less likely to have high levels of PDA. However, those who participated in church/religious activities more often than they usually did were less likely to have high levels of PDA ($b=0.84, p<.01$).

**Unpleasant-Activated Affect (UAA).** Participants who tended to participate in activities with friends more frequently were less likely to have high levels of UAA ($b=0.60, p<.05$). Those who participated in cognitive activities more frequently than usual were more likely to have high levels of UAA ($b=-0.15, p<.05$).

**Unpleasant-Deactivated Affect (UDA).** On average, people who participated in activities with friends ($b=0.94, p<.01$) and church/religious activities ($b=0.20, p<.05$) were less likely to have UDA. Those who attended clubs/meetings ($b=-0.17, p<.05$) were more likely to have UDA. Participants who participated in activities with friends ($b=0.17, p<.05$) and physical activity ($b=0.16, p<.01$) more often than usual and in church/religious activities ($b=-0.61, p<.01$) less often than usual were less likely to have UDA.

**Discussion**

Our findings indicate an interesting pattern of between-person associations. Participation in social activities and church/religious activities were consistently related to positive well-being indicators. Attending clubs/meetings was related to undesirable affective states. Our finding that physical activity was negatively related with PAA and PDA was inconsistent with previous research and warrants further examination. One possible explanation for this finding is that people were engaging in physical activity for reasons other than enjoyment (i.e., traditional leisure motivations).

At the within-person level, higher levels of participation in social activities are related to positive indicators of well-being. However, the rest of the within-person findings reveal some previously unreported patterns of associations with leisure activities and well-being some of which were strikingly different from their between-person counterparts. More frequent participation in church/religious activities compared with a person’s average was associated with negative indicators of well-being (e.g., less SWL). More frequent physical activity compared with a person’s average was related with positive indicators of well-being (e.g., less stress).

Although some confounding factors may exist (e.g., type of sample, time of semester), these findings extend our understanding of leisure and well-being by highlighting the unique contributions of within-person fluctuations above and beyond between-person differences.

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References


THE ROLE OF POST-PARTICIPATION REFLECTION ON YOUTH PROGRAM OUTCOMES
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Practitioners and researchers would benefit from developing a holistic perspective of youth program experiences. Although programs consist of distinct phases (e.g., anticipation, participation, and reflection), practitioners often focus solely on participation (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008). From an evaluative perspective, researchers often focus solely on outcomes without considering program inputs and processes responsible for observed changes. This omission equates to an overemphasis on measuring the dependent variable (i.e., program outcomes) while giving little attention to the measurement of the independent variable (i.e., the program itself) (Gresham & Gansle, 1993; Peterson, Homer, & Wonderlich, 1982). This study attempted to adopt a holistic program perspective by examining the role of post-program reflection among participants in an international immersion, environmental education program. Concurrent research on the program provided a foundation for the study’s focus. Results indicated that the program’s direct experiences (e.g., nature based workshops) catalyzed environmental knowledge into a stronger motivating force, in terms of environmental behavior, than it had been during the indirect experiences (i.e., classroom based) (Duerden & Witt, 2010). In an attempt to build upon these findings and to further understand the unique contributions of different program components, the purpose of this study was to investigate the role of the post-participation phase on program impacts.

Literature Review
Although the post-participation phase has been shown to be a time where participants begin to interpret and assign meaning to an experience (Patterson, Watson, Williams, & Roggenbuck, 1998), post-program research is fairly sparse. The few studies to address this topic provide some interesting insights especially on the role of personal, post-program reflection. For example, post-program reflection may facilitate the incorporation of program experiences into personal identities, as was observed in a study of rock climbers whose post activity reflections were used to self-assess and form self-narratives (Kiewa, 2001). Intentionally initiated post-program reflection has been identified as a best practice suggestion for experiential education in order to more effectively extend the transfer of learning beyond the experience (Leberman & Martin, 2004). Leberman and Martin suggest “that with increased time and space away from the [experience] deeper reflection can be facilitated, which may enhance the transfer of learning” (p. 174). Although limited, the evidence for the potential impact of post-program reflection represents a case for additional research in this area.

Methods
This study employed a sequential, exploratory, mixed-methods design (Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Petska, & Creswell, 2005) involving the collection and initial analysis of qualitative data that informed the subsequent quantitative phase. The study involved participants in a program run by Global Explorers (GEx), a non-profit organization. The program consisted of three stages: a preparatory after-school program (9-12 sessions), an international field workshop (1-2 weeks in length), and a post-trip service project. Qualitative data (e.g., interviews, focus groups, and program observations) were drawn from large GEx that included 46 youth (18 females and 28 males) with a mean age of 13.4 ($SD = .65$), 26 parents (9 females and 17 males) with a mean age of 44.7 ($SD = 3.78$), and 5 teachers (3 females and 2 males) with a mean age of 43.4 ($SD = 8.96$).
Qualitative data collection occurred twice during the preparatory program, throughout the international workshop, and once after the group returned home. All interview, focus group, and observational field notes were transcribed and included in the analysis. The qualitative analysis process was guided by grounded theory methodology as outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1998). Quantitative data were drawn from surveys completed by youth (N = 116) who participated in GEx programs during 2008 and 2010. Data from 2009 were not available as follow-up surveys were not collected that year. The survey sample consisted of 65 females and 51 males with a mean age of 14.3. Eighty-four percent of the sample was White. Data specific to this study came from surveys completed at the end of the program and an online follow-up survey conducted three to seven months after the travel portion of the program concluded. Measured constructs included environmental knowledge, environmental attitude and behavior (Leeming & Dwyer, 1995), and teamwork (American Camping Association, 2007). All scales employed a 5-point Likert scale response format. Mean scores were calculated for outcome measures. Due to the emphasis identified in the qualitative data on reflection, an additional seven quantitative items were added to the follow-up questionnaire to assess the degree to which participants engaged in different post-participation activities (e.g., talking with friends, reading their trip journals, posting pictures online, etc.). A sum score was created from this scale and used in the analysis. The scale performed well producing an Cronbach’s alpha of .80. Hierarchical regression analyses (HRA) were conducted to analyze the influence of post-participation reflection on outcome score changes between end of program and follow-up surveys.

**Findings**

**Qualitative findings.** Reflection related codes were organized into two main categories, adult perceptions of youths’ ability to process the experience and youth perspectives on post-participation reflection. Codes associated with the adult perceptions included youth are not mature enough to fully comprehend the experience and the experience will take time to fully process. Many adults felt youth participants did not have the necessary cognitive skills to process the experience and that the full impact would occur over time. For example, one parent noted, “I mean internally they have been changed but it’s going to take time....to really appreciate what they really experienced.” Another parent stated, “[the experience] will stay with them a lifetime but they won’t really reflect back on it until they are a little bit older and really comprehend more of what they have experienced.” Codes within the youth perspectives category were divided into facilitators (e.g., contact with other participants, pictures, and journaling) and constraints (e.g., difficult to explain experience to non-participants and return to regular life makes it hard to remember the experience) of post-program reflection. Findings suggest the intensity of the field workshop is hard to comprehend without extensive reflection, extending beyond the program’s conclusion, and that a variety of factors influence this process. The facilitation of post-program reflection is demonstrated by the following quote from a post-trip interview with a youth participant, “like my mom tries to understand and everything but I don’t think she really gets it, same with my little brother and my friends but then I talk with...all the friends that went to the Amazon and they get it and it’s a lot easier to talk about it with them because I don’t have to constantly be explaining stuff that they just don’t get.” Some youth who had parents travel with them suggested having a fellow co-participant in the home helped facilitate reflection.

**Synthesis of qualitative findings.** The emergent categories suggest the within program experience may have been difficult to fully process during the actual program. Adults felt the youth would need time and intentional reflection for the full impact of the experience to
actualize. The actual occurrence of post-program reflection was either facilitated or constrained based on a variety of factors including contact or lack thereof with co-participants.

Quantitative findings. One-way ANOVA’s revealed no significant differences between 2008 and 2010 participants on any of the measures on both end of program (T1) and follow-up (T2) surveys. A separate HRA was run for each outcome measure. T2 outcomes were regressed upon T1 outcomes (step 1), gender and age (step 2), and the summed reflection score (step 3).

Table 1. Hierarchical regression results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step/Predictor (T2 env. knowledge)</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2\Delta$</th>
<th>$\Delta F$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 T1 environmental knowledge</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>42.68**</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.51**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Gender</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Reflection</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.15</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step/Predictor (T2 env. attitudes)</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2\Delta$</th>
<th>$\Delta F$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 T1 environmental attitudes</td>
<td>.348</td>
<td>.348</td>
<td>59.675**</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.58**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Gender</td>
<td>.351</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-0.023</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3 Reflection</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>2.492</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.12</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Step/Predictor (T2 env. behavior)</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2\Delta$</th>
<th>$\Delta F$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 T1 environmental behavior</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>72.842**</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.60**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Gender</td>
<td>.399</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Reflection</td>
<td>.411</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>2.249</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.11</td>
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<tr>
<th>Step/Predictor (T2 teamwork)</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2\Delta$</th>
<th>$\Delta F$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
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<tr>
<td>1 T1 teamwork</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td>26.76388</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>.38**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Gender</td>
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<td>0.313</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Reflection</td>
<td>.247</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>11.175**</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.28**</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Note. Significant values and unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients reflect the results of the final regression equation. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Results indicated post-participation reflection was only a significant predictor for teamwork, though it bears noting that its contribution to the other regression models was approaching significance (env. knowledge $p = .057$; env. attitudes $p = .12$; env. behavior $p = .14$).

Discussion

The combined qualitative and quantitative results make a preliminary case for the relationship between post-program reflection and program outcomes. Qualitative findings suggest some program impacts may require additional time to fully manifest and that various factors influence the degree to which youth participants reflect upon their experience post-participation.

Quantitative results suggest that post-participation reflection influences the sustainability of at least some program impacts. Practitioners would benefit from an increased understanding of the post-program experience as this information could provide opportunities for the intentional promotion of program impacts beyond the bounds of participation. This could be an especially impactful practice for many youth organizations as the ultimate goal of most programs is to have the impact of their program extend beyond the length of an individual’s actual participation.

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References


Job creation is a major driving force for pursuing tourism development (Liu & Wall, 2006). Yet, finding and retaining qualified employees remains a difficult task for many managers in the industry, giving way to serious concerns for sustainability. While a thorough review of the literature is beyond the scope of this abstract, a few key areas are addressed. First, the discussion of skills and qualifications of tourism employees remains important particularly in regard to the different types of skills (soft and hard) looked for in potential employees (Frazis, Herz, & Horrigan, 1995; Nickson, Warhurst, & Dutton, 2005). A second area of literature relevant to this paper is that related to the perceptions and attitudes toward employment in the industry. Researchers have recognized that the unique characteristics of tourism, such as mobility, seasonality, easy skill transfer to other jobs, and the nature of service (Riley, 2004), warrant inspection of attitudes and perceptions of employees. There have been a number studies conducted with regard to this looking specifically at the student perspective (e.g. Getz, 1994; Jiang & Tribe, 2009; Kulsuvan & Kulsuvan, 2000; Richardson, 2010; Ross, 1993). What is needed is a broader investigation of perceptions of tourism as employment, particularly from the residents in communities which tourism has been initiated for economic development.

Purpose
The purpose of this study was to better understand resident perceptions towards the tourism industry as a possible career choice. Often researchers look at the perception of employment in the industry from students enrolled in tourism programs, leaving out the critical examination of those outside the industry and formal education. This study asks the questions: What aspects of employment in the tourism industry (i.e. pay, schedule flexibility, opportunity for advancement, job security, benefits, job availability, and prestige level) affect an individual’s overall perception of the tourism industry as a career choice; and what skills/qualifications are perceived to be important for tourism/hospitality professionals? The underpinnings of this study are strongly tied to the theory of social-exchange in regard to an individual’s perception of their relationship with the tourism industry (e.g. “Having a job in the tourism/hospitality industry is good because I have a job that brings in money, but is the low pay and long, undesirable hours, worth it?”). This examination is important for tourism planners in light of a sustainable framework and the need for a strong job force to help build a desirable tourism product, and to explore the perceptions of industry employment from diverse perspectives.

Methods
The data for this study were collected from residents of 11 counties in a southeast region of a Midwest state. This is a rural area that has experienced major decline in traditional agriculture and manufacturing jobs, and tourism has been identified as one of three industries (healthcare and advanced manufacturing) for economic revitalization. A 23-question resident survey instrument was mailed to 2000 resident households in January and February of 2010. Even with the use of a multiple wave contact system (contacting residents five times with reminders and a replacement survey), the result was still only a 17.7% response rate with a total of 354 usable instruments returned. Therefore, much caution is taken towards any generalizations of the findings. The survey instrument included scaled questions about perceptions towards the
tourism/hospitality industry as a viable option for economic development (1=do not pursue, 5=should pursue), the industry as a career choice, and perceptions towards different employment aspects (i.e. as listed above, pay, schedule flexibility, etc.) of the tourism/hospitality industry (1=very poor, 5=very good). Additionally, the instrument included a five-point scaled question that asked respondents their perceptions of the importance of 17 different skills and qualifications for tourism/hospitality professionals. Included in this were the following items: educational level, reputation of school where degree came from, work experience, work ethic, employee appearance, specific job-related skills, personality, understanding the nature of the industry, willingness to serve customers, phone courtesy, transactions (math), foreign language, business writing, basic computer, sales, marketing, and interpersonal communication skills. A further question from this was to identify the perceived educational level needed by a tourism/hospitality professional. The survey also collected demographic information. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to assess the perceived importance of skills and qualifications for tourism and hospitality professionals. With the application of EFA, it is possible to classify the series of 17-items representing different skills and qualifications of tourism and hospitality professionals into a small number of dimensions to describe the data through grouping correlated variables. Furthermore, multiple regression analysis was performed looking at the perception of the tourism/hospitality industry as a career choice (dependent variable) and the perceptions towards the different aspects of employment (predictors).

Results

Just over half of the respondents were males (56.4%), 35.7% had completed at least a four-year degree, the mean age was 56.2 (SD=15.5), and 43.1% were currently employed full-time. Respondents provided their opinions on economic development opportunities, specifically whether a particular option should be pursued in their community. Education (mean = 4.2) and tourism/hospitality/recreation (mean= 4.1) were the most popular of those listed (others included manufacturing, healthcare, retail/wholesale, and agriculture). Furthermore, residents were asked to provide their opinions on possible listed career choices (same industries were listed as in above question). Healthcare was considered the best career choice (mean = 4.0), followed by education (mean = 3.9), retail/wholesale (mean = 3.5), and tourism/hospitality/recreation (mean = 3.5). The results of the multiple regression indicated that the perceptions of tourism as a career choice were only explained 16.5% of the time by the perceptions of the different aspects of employment (i.e. pay, schedule flexibility, etc.) (adjusted $R^2 = .165$; effect size $[F]=.223$). According to this model, only two criteria were found to be significant predictors to perception of tourism as a career choice. The best predictor was perceived schedule flexibility with a mean of 3.21 (t=3.052; $p=.002$; $\beta=.168$) with the second best predictor was benefits with a mean of 2.91 (t=2.116; $p=.035$; $\beta=.162$). Of the employment aspects, schedule flexibility scored the highest while pay scored the lowest (mean=2.8). The results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure (.873) and Barlett’s test ($p>.000$) indicate that EFA was an appropriate statistical technique to use for the 17-item question identifying the important skills and qualifications of tourism/hospitality professionals. Principle component analysis with varimax rotation was used on the 17-item scale and eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were retained and used as the factors in this study (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In total, 56.1% of the variation was explained by three factors: Customer-service skills, business skills, and education/experience qualifications. Factor one, customer-service skills explained 21.02% of the variance (eigenvalue=3.574; Cronbach’s reliability coefficient $[\alpha] = .839$). Items classified in this factor included willingness to serve the customers (FL=.781), phone courtesy (FL=.727), personality (FL=.727), work ethic (FL=.649),
employee appearance (FL=.627), and interpersonal communications (FL=.625). Factor two, business skills, explained 20.1% of the variance (eigenvalue =3.417; $\alpha = .836$), and included business writing (FL=.773), sales (FL=.757), marketing (FL=.743), and basic computer skills (FL=.718). Finally, the third factor, education/experience qualifications explained 15.0% of the variance (eigenvalue =2.542; $\alpha = .771$, including the items, reputation of school (FL=.781), education level (FL=.730), and work experience (FL=.622). Additionally, when respondents were asked which level of education was most important for a tourism/hospitality professional to have, aside from a high school diploma (mean = 3.7), industry specific certifications (mean = 2.9) and two-year associates (mean=2.9) were considered to be the most important. A four-year degree in tourism was ranked third (mean=2.6), just ahead of a graduate degree (mean=2.1).

**Discussion**

First, it is interesting to note that while respondents saw tourism as the second most important industry of the six listed for pursuing economic development opportunities, it was ranked lower for possible career choices (tied for 3rd with the retail/wholesale industry). The idea of “bringing in tourism for economic development” and residents choosing to actually participate in the tourism workforce could be disjointed. Are the individuals that work towards and support increasing tourism development in their communities, also the ones that will be employed in the industry? From a sustainability perspective, this is an important aspect to address during the planning process. Furthermore this study highlights that tourism planners need to address the negative image of tourism employment. As the findings suggest, the tourism industry continues to struggle with its image such as low pay and lack of benefits. Tourism educators need to work with professionals in the field to create strategies for improving these issues. For example, management could offer a structured ladder providing benefits, higher pay, or job training to those that stay with the company longer. Tourism professionals could encourage partnerships between tourism businesses, providing discounts for employees in partnering organizations, or initiate an educational campaign to alter these perceptions. Likewise, customer-service skills emerged as the strongest factor as to what the residents perceived to be important skills and qualifications needed for professionals in the field. Tourism professionals could create more opportunities for community members for industry specific job training, particularly in the realm of customer service skills. This study provides a much needed, perspective towards employment in the tourism/hospitality industry. As shown in the literature, much of the research regarding perceptions of employment have been conducted on tourism students already familiar and interested in careers in the field. With regard to the last several years of economic instability, job employment rates have decreased and it has become more common to find people looking for alternative careers later in life. It appears that the trend of tourism development being sought to replace traditional industries will continue, meaning that customer service oriented jobs will need qualified personnel and the employee pool is much more diversified. Therefore, it is in the tourism industry’s best interest to better understand the future employees and their view on tourism as a career. Therefore, consistent with Hjalager and Andersen (2001), the authors of this study strongly encourage that researchers look deeper into the perceptions of the tourism industry from all population sectors. Future research should explore ways to elevate the general public’s perception of tourism as a career, and provide opportunities for high school students to better understand the skills and qualifications needed to be successful in the tourism industry.

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PERCEPTIONS OF YOUTH LEISURE-TIME PHYSICAL ACTIVITY IN THE RURAL SOUTH
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Childhood obesity is a serious health problem in the U.S. (Estabrooks, Fisher, & Hayman, 2008). In addition to physical consequences (Lobstein, Baur, & Uauy, 2004), overweight youth often suffer from depression, low self-esteem, and poorer quality-of-life (Jackson, et al., 2005). Improving rates of leisure-time physical activity (LTPA) among youth is an important strategy to prevent obesity (Ara, et al., 2006). Adolescents generally report a combination of intrapersonal (e.g., perceived lack of time or interest in available physical activity programs), interpersonal (e.g., lack of social support) and structural (e.g., lack of transportation, lack of programs/facilities, or participation cost) constraints to LTPA participation (Campagna et al., 2002; Kimm et al., 2006; Moore et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 2005). Rural youth, particularly in the Southern U.S., have a heightened risk of obesity (Jackson, et al., 2005), partly due to low physical activity rates (Joens-Matre, et al., 2008; Shores, Moore, & Yin, 2010). Rural populations, and youth in particular, remain considerably understudied in the leisure research (Edwards & Matarrita-Cascante, In Press). Using in-depth expert informant interviews in two rural Southern counties, the objectives of this study were to (1) identify perceived opportunities for and constraints to youth LTPA; and (2) identify community characteristics that facilitate or inhibit the implementation of efforts to increase youth LTPA.

Methods

Study sites were purposefully chosen due to demographic, geographic, economic, and socio-cultural characteristics representative of two rural types found in the Southern U.S. (Wimberley & Morris, 1996). “Ridge” County is located in Appalachia and is 97% White. “Plains” County is located on the Atlantic Coastal Plain and is 52% White and 42% African American. Both counties have rapidly growing Hispanic populations. Data collection occurred through in-depth interviews with expert informants using snowball sampling (Patton, 2002). County leaders, volunteers, and professionals with expert knowledge of policies and programs for youth were identified as informants. Sixteen interviews were conducted in Ridge (10 male, 6 female, all White) and 14 interviews were conducted in Plains (9 male, 5 female; 8 White, 5 Black, 1 Hispanic). Interviewees in both counties included elected officials, recreation director, health promotion coordinator, 4-H extension agent, school athletic director, teachers, coaches, and religious leaders. Interviews ranged from 22 minutes to 1 hour and 40 minutes. Interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Additional data were collected through field observations and review of archival documents for triangulation and to add context to findings. Data were analyzed using the principals of constant comparison (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Three researchers independently open coded the data as they related to the research objectives of the study (Henderson, 2006). After open coding, researchers met to discuss and reach consensus on the coding and organize open codes around axial codes. Axial coding yielded themes that were analyzed, refined and interpreted in relation to the research questions.
Results

Perceived opportunities for youth LTPA. Informants in our study identified organized and structured programs, particularly team sports, as the main opportunities for youth LTPA. Baseball was the most oft-cited activity, although many informants pointed out increases in soccer participation due to growing Hispanic populations. They identified schools and county parks and recreation departments as the principal organizations that managed resources for youth LTPA and their programs served almost exclusively as the local outlets for competitive sports. Smaller non-profit and public sector organizations (e.g., churches and 4-H) were sources for non-competitive activities.

Barriers to youth participation in LTPA. Informants overwhelmingly perceived lack of transportation as the most significant barrier to youth LTPA. This barrier was seen as problematic since LTPA was focused in programs that required attendance at centralized facilities. Transportation was also perceived as a particular burden for low income families and families with two working parents. Physical distance and safety concerns prevented active transportation from being a viable option. Informants perceived the emphasis on sports as a barrier to LTPA because many youth were not interested in competitive sports. The sports programs for older youth were also perceived to be more focused on elite competition and carried high economic costs. A second way in which the sport emphasis was perceived to act as a barrier to LTPA was in reducing accessibility of limited recreation facilities. Scheduling priority at schools and public facilities was reserved for team practices and games. Some informants suggested use of fields for anything other than their intended sport was discouraged. A third prevalent barrier was a set of perceived changes in society that predisposed youth to less engagement in outdoor recreational activities. Changing adult leisure patterns and lack of environmental awareness meant parents were less likely to socialize children to participate in outdoor recreation. Youth were perceived as being less likely to play outside their homes due to parents’ fears of crime coupled with a lack of social peers and technological distractions.

Community-level characteristics that hinder opportunities for youth LTPA. There were three suggested community characteristics that could hinder efforts to increase youth LTPA. First, the counties lacked human capital to sustain programs. Informants cited examples of facilities that had fallen into disrepair because operational personnel were overwhelmed. Many programs had also started with enthusiasm only to vanish because volunteers “ran out of gas” and no one replaced them. Second, due to low tax bases and high unemployment, fiscal resources were seen lacking. Both counties were reliant on inconsistent outside funding from grants to underwrite most projects. Economic issues were also seen as a more pressing public priority. Many community leaders suggested that citizens expected public expenditures for youth LTPA to be recouped through program profitability or by generating tourist expenditures. Third, deeply entrenched socio-cultural patterns obstructed new policies and programs. Members of marginalized groups saw dominant social groups as being more supportive of existing sports programs and being influential on the prioritization of resources. Well-organized social networks often fought diverting public resources away from existing programs. Finally, informants stressed the difficulty of overcoming residential mistrust. It was important that project or policy champions be local and the “right kind of person” in order to be considered trustworthy. Several
informants also described examples where efforts to improve access to local natural resources were rebuffed by land owners not wanting strangers using their property.

**Community-level characteristics to facilitate opportunities for youth LTPA.** Informants identified four community characteristics that could help efforts to increase youth LTPA. First, if supportive, trusted informal community leaders embedded in the community could champion new ideas, mobilize resources, engender local support, and “make things happen” quickly. Second, community-wide partnerships among governmental entities and private sector organizations, particularly Christian churches, were important to increasing capacity to serve youth. Third, informants suggested that local resident resourcefulness, perceived to be unique to small towns and rural areas, allowed the community to maximize resources in unconventional ways (e.g., parents mowing fields with own tractors). Fourth, although unstructured outdoor recreation was seen as declining in popularity, informants suggested that natural resources could be better developed along with educational programs to encourage youth LTPA in the outdoors.

**Discussion/Conclusion**

A fuller understanding about factors that facilitate or constrain youth LTPA is an important first step to informing policies and interventions that are relevant for rural areas (Moore, et al., 2010). Our findings suggested that some facilitators and constraints to LTPA in rural areas may be common. Like previous research (e.g., Sallis et al., 2000), we found adolescents and their parents sought organized and structured programs as the primary outlet for LTPA. Informants also pointed to prevalent intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints reported in other settings. However, the rural context seemed to exacerbate youths’ individual constraints. In this case, the provision of supportive physical and social environments to encourage LTPA was hampered by communities’ lack of economic and human resources. The distribution of the limited available resources for LTPA was heavily prioritized according to the political access of social networks and historical socio-cultural preferences. Rural youth also may experience greater physical distance, social isolation, and lack of a transportation infrastructure than other samples of adolescents. While the rural context may serve as a barrier, there was some evidence that the solutions to increasing local capacity to support increased youth LTPA, particularly unstructured and non-competitive activities, may best be developed within the local context of rural communities primarily through local catalysts, organizational partnerships, informal social networks, and use of natural amenities in culturally appropriate ways. The latter process may require new initiatives in leisure education to engage rural youth with their outdoor surroundings. However, consideration must be given to practices that are not reliant on significant human or financial capital, ensure equitable input and prioritization of resources across the local population, and situate approaches to increasing youth LTPA within the context of rural community development.

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EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PROCRASTINATION AND LEISURE QUALITY

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Introduction

Procrastination has been defined as the willingness to choose to put off a course of action despite the expectation of negative outcomes associated with the delay (Steel, 2007). Procrastination is a common behavioral tendency in the lives of college students, with an estimated 80-95% of students engaging in some form of procrastination and about 50% doing so problematically (Blunt & Py scyl, 1998; Steel, 2007). Negative outcomes associated with procrastination include depression, anxiety, decreased well-being, and poor academic achievement (Vodanovich & Rupp, 1999; Steel, 2007). Participation in leisure activities is often the mode through which students engage in procrastination. Engaging in leisure as a break from obligations has many benefits, but if this leisure is used to delay a course of action, the negative outcomes of procrastination may arise.

Patry, Blanchard, and Mask (2007) suggested that one difference between taking productive breaks and procrastination may be leisure coping style. When prone to an avoidance-oriented form of leisure coping, leisure can be an avenue for procrastination, involving too much devotion of time and focus on leisure. In contrast, the more self-regulated, temporary distraction method from academic stress is more supportive to beneficial leisure coping (Patry, et al., 2007). Therefore, depending upon which leisure coping style a student tends to use, the resulting quality of leisure experiences may be different.

One negative leisure quality is boredom and it has been linked to depression, anxiety, poor academic achievement and work performance, as well as various unhealthy and high risk behaviors in adolescents (Vodanovich & Rupp, 1999; Caldwell, Darling, Payne, & Dowdy, 1999). Further, research has established links between procrastination tendencies (which may be related to leisure coping styles) and perceptions of boredom (Vodanovich & Rupp, 1999; Blunt & Pyscyl, 1998. Caldwell, Smith, & Weissinger (1992) examined boredom as a quality component of the leisure experience. In addition to boredom, awareness, challenge, and distress components define the quality of a leisure experience. Given the established links between boredom, leisure, and procrastination, this study aims to extend the literature by examining the relations between leisure coping styles and the four dimensions of quality of leisure experience. Those students who use leisure to avoid their tasks may experience more negative outcomes (i.e., poor leisure quality) related to their procrastination than those who use leisure to take a planned break and experience restorative effects. This study attempts to further explore the connection between leisure quality and procrastination by examining their relations with leisure coping styles.

Methods

Participants  164 college students participated in the study (Male 54%). All participants were recruited from an undergraduate Kinesiology course.
Measures

**Leisure Coping Style** The Regulatory Leisure Coping Styles Scale (RLCSS; Patry et al., 2006) is a 10 item scale used to differentiate between the more self-regulated coping style, Planned-Breather Leisure Coping Style (PBLCS), and the less self-regulated style, Avoidant Leisure Coping Style (ALCS) in response to academic stress. Responses use a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “1 = seldom true” to “5 = very often of me.”

**Leisure Quality** The Leisure Experience Battery (LEB; Caldwell et al., 1992) is a 19-item scale used to evaluate leisure quality based on four dimensions: awareness, boredom, challenge, and distress. This measure has been validated for use with college populations (Barnett, 2005). The quality of an experience is likely to be higher when the participant engages in instrumental activities that balance skill and challenge with positive perceptions of the leisure context (Caldwell et al., 1992). Thus, individuals have higher quality leisure experiences with low boredom and distress ratings and high challenge and awareness ratings.

**Procedure** Participants completed a laboratory visit, in which they gave informed consent and completed a series of questionnaires.

**Data Analysis** Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the unique predictive contribution of the two leisure coping styles (PBLCS and ALCS) on the four components of leisure quality. Analyses were conducted using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 17.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL).

**Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leisure Quality</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Coping Style</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boredom</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>Planned-Breather</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Avoidant</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>Planned-Breather</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Avoidant</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>Planned-Breather</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Avoidant</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distress</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>Planned-Breather</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Avoidant</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Leisure Coping and Boredom:** The overall regression equation for boredom was significant and accounted for a unique proportion of variation [$F(2, 161) = 14.10$, $p < .001$]. Students who identified with the ALCS reported significantly higher levels of boredom. The PBLCS was not a significant predictor of boredom.

**Leisure Coping and Awareness:** When examining the awareness component, it was found that leisure coping styles accounted for 4.2% of the variance in awareness [$F(2, 161) = 3.49$, $p < .05$]). Only the PBLCS was a significant independent predictor of awareness. Those who rated themselves as using the PBLCS were more likely to have higher awareness in their leisure.

**Leisure Coping and Challenge and Distress:** No significant relationships between leisure coping style and levels of leisure challenge and distress were found [$challenge F(2, 161) = 1.01$; distress $F(2, 161) = 1.48$].
Discussion

The results of this study are congruent with previous research that established a link between procrastination and boredom. Specifically, this study extends the relationship into a leisure focused dimension. Those who identify with an avoidance-based form of leisure coping are more likely to report being bored in their leisure time.

Several theories of leisure boredom have been reported. Boredom may be caused by a lack of awareness, lack of intrinsic motivation, or from a mismatch between perceived challenge and skill in activity (Caldwell et al., 1999). Other research has highlighted this viewpoint by reporting that perceptions of external motivations for leisure or perceptions of nothing else to do relate to boredom, high self-determination related to deeper involvement and less boredom in activities, and inability to organize leisure with boredom (Caldwell et al., 1999; Vodanovich & Rupp, 1999). In contrast to this stance, Barnett (2005) reports that boredom may also be conceived by college students as “unfilled free time” in addition to the instrumentally unsatisfying, worthless, and meaningless perception of the activity (Caldwell et al., 1992). In addition, Barnett and Klitzing (2006) reports that students who are poor at entertaining themselves, who often engage in periods of imagination or fantasy, or are introverted are more likely to report feeling bored in free time. This study did not assess the possible precursors of the leisure boredom experience. More research is needed to examine these possible sources of leisure boredom and how they relate to procrastination and leisure as a coping mechanism.

Links between procrastination and boredom have been reported through several avenues. Vodanovich and Rupp (1999) found that perceived lack of external stimulation, a deficit in generating internal interest, affective responses, and time perceptions are related with trait procrastination. Further, Blunt and Pychyl (1998) report that procrastination and boredom may be linked through state-orientation, focusing on an alternative state in the past, present, or future rather than on a context appropriate action plan for an intended task. In this perspective, a boring task requires a global inhibition on task irrelevant emotions and cognitions to sustain the intentional action. Therefore, the authors conclude that academic procrastination can be reduced by reducing the boredom of the academic task.

In contrast to Blunt and Pychyl’s conclusion, in this study, ALCS students report being more bored in their leisure (procrastination) activities (academic task boredom was not assessed). Therefore, the boredom as an impetus to procrastinate may also manifest in the leisure procrastination. Leisure does not appear to serve as a source of positive coping for these students.

PBLCS students, although still engage in a form of procrastination, may be better aware of leisure as a coping strategy and better aware of how to engage in more meaningful or satisfying leisure. As a result, this regulatory leisure coping style may allow students to accrue leisure benefits, as well as perform better academically.

The relationships between leisure coping, procrastination, and boredom are complex. Given the ubiquity of procrastination and its negative outcomes, better understanding of this relationship is important to improving the academic success and well-being of students. This study reinforces the theory that procrastination exists in different forms. Enhanced leisure education may improve a student’s ability to engage in a planned-breather form of procrastination as an improved method of leisure coping.

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References

MEASURING INJURY AND ILLNESS RATES IN DAY AND RESIDENT CAMPS

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Introduction

Over 11 million children attend more than 12,000 summer camps each year (American Camp Association, 2008). The prevention of injuries and illness among children and staff is of critical importance to camp program providers, because adverse injury and illness events result in reduced program engagement and financial burden to parents (Potter, 2006; National Center for Health Statistics, 2008) and influence youth perceptions of the quality of camp experience based on whether or not youth feel “well” or “not well” (National Institute for Children’s Healthcare Quality, 2008).

Early attempts to describe issues in camp health care involved simple reviews of camp health center records (Asnes, Feldman, & Gersony, 1974; Fiedelman, Carbon, & Lewis, 1983; Rotman & Schmalz, 1977). Recent surveillance studies have reported injury patterns sustained during a single camp event conducted over a nine day period (Wetterhall & Waxweiler, 1988), illnesses and injuries presenting for treatment at camps over a one month period (Key, 1997; Trachtman, Woloski-Wruble, & Kilimnick, 1994), injuries sustained at a single camp over one summer (Elliot, Elliott, & Bixby, 2003), and illnesses and injuries presenting for treatment at three summer camps over a 13 year period (Rauckhorst & Aroian, 1998). Limitations of these studies included short follow-up periods, small sample sizes, and a focus only on campers.

Although camp program providers often document participant illnesses and injuries using a health record log, as directed by the American Camp Association’s accreditation standards (American Camp Association, 2007), intentionally monitoring this information is not a commonplace practice among many camp program providers. One explanation is that camps have lacked a reliable surveillance methodology; that is, health surveillance programs that identify when, where and how injuries and illnesses occur that provide a mechanism for identifying injury and illness trends.

Modeled after the National Collegiate Athletic Association Injury Surveillance System (NCAA ISS), the American Camp Association (ACA) conducted a five-year injury and illness surveillance program in U.S. day and resident camps known as the Healthy Camp Study, in cooperation with The Ohio State University and the Research Institute at Nationwide Children's Hospital (American Camp Association, 2011). The purposes of the study were to: (1) monitor illnesses and injuries sustained by campers and staff while identifying risk factors associated with such illnesses and injuries, (2) understand risk factors associated with such adverse events, and (3) identify prevention strategies to reduce the incidence of camp injuries and illness.

Methods

Data were collected during the summers of 2006 through and including 2010. The sample size for each year of the study reflected the number of camps who enrolled in the study. Sample sizes ranged from 186 camps (low) to 295 camps (high). Camps could choose to participate in as many years of the study as desired. The number of camps who submitted usable data for each of the applicable camp sessions (i.e., the response rate) ranged from 140 camps (low) to 180 camps (high)(Table 1). Because it is common for national injury surveillance studies to collect data from a sample of 100 sites, the sample sizes for each year of the Healthy Camp Study were considered robust.
Across all study years, approximately 22% percent of participating camps were day camps and 78% percent were resident camps. Injury and illness data were collected from campers and staff utilizing a Web-based program called CAMP RIO™ (Reporting Information Online). During the 10-week data collection period, staff from participating camps logged into CAMP RIO™ weekly to enter exposure and illness/injury data.

A reportable illness or injury was an event that resulted in the removal and/or restriction of the camper (or staff member) from their normal camp routine (or staff responsibilities) for \( \geq 4 \) hours in resident camps or for \( \geq 1 \) in day camps. For each injury and illness meeting the study definition, a reporter at the camp (most often nurse or EMT) was asked to submit an injury/illness report form. Illness and injury reports collected information about the individual sustaining the event (age, sex, role at camp, presence of pre-existing chronic health conditions, length of time at camp during that season, etc.), the injury or illness event (diagnosis, body site, primary symptoms, etc.), and the context leading up to the event (where the incident happened, activity in which the person was engaged, time of day, etc.).

Data were reported based on “exposure,” defined as the length of time a person was at camp (i.e., how long they were at risk for injury or illness). Children and staff spending one week at camp had less exposure than children and staff staying four or more weeks. Exposure data for each injury or illness were based on the concept of a “camp day,” defined as one camper or staff member at camp for one day. Exposure data were reported using “per 1,000 camp days.” This study reported changes in rates. “Rate” referred to the number of adverse events that occurred during a specified exposure. Although many research studies report percent change, this study discusses changes in rates so it is sensitive to both the number of people at camp and the length of time each person was there. Using rates instead of percentages is common in epidemiological studies. To better understand this concept, imagine 1,000 campers and staff standing in front of you. Now imagine that your camp injury/illness rate per 1,000 camp days was 1.5. This means that given those 1,000 people, 1.5 of them would get so injured or ill on this day that it pulled them from their camp routine, thus meeting the definition for inclusion in this study.

**Results**

Campers were injured at a rate of 0.48 per 1,000 camp days while staff were injured at a rate of 0.41 per 1,000 camp days. Camper and staff injuries were associated with improper supervision and falling on uneven terrain. Sprains/strains (28.9%) topped the list of diagnoses most likely to take people away from camp for four or more hours, followed by wounds (15.4%), bruises/contusions (15.0%) and fractures (15.0%). The context in which these injuries occurred included: while playing a sport or game (34.4%), during other recreational activity (15.7%), while walking (8.4%), and when running, jogging or jumping (6.3%). The fact that musculoskeletal injuries accounted for the majority of injuries, and that these occurred during some type of physical activity, raises the question of supervision as well as use of protective equipment and appropriate conditioning. In about 40% of these injuries, protective equipment was part of the activity but not used in about 15% of these cases. When injury occurred, a staff/volunteer person was on-site and on duty in only 23.5% of these cases.

Injuries across all day and resident camps tended to happen to male campers (58 percent of camper incidents) and female staff (55 percent of staff incidents) and were more likely to occur midweek (Wednesday and Thursday) and between noon and 6:00 p.m. About 10 percent of all injuries were associated with pre-existing chronic conditions.
Across all day and resident camps, campers and staff were both twice as likely to sustain an illness compared to an injury, with campers becoming ill at a rate of 1.0 per 1,000 camp days and staff becoming ill at a rate of 0.83 per 1,000 camp days. These illnesses were related to a chronic medical condition in 20.4% of the cases for campers and 18.8% of the time among staff. This means that almost one in five illnesses was associated with a chronic health condition, indicating a potential for intervention by monitoring the status of people with chronic health conditions. Like injuries, illnesses were more likely to be reported during camp activities and during free time but illness rates also increased during overnight experiences, something not seen in the injury data. As might be expected due to hunger, dehydration, and fatigue, illness was more likely to occur as the day wore on.

Two significant clusters of illnesses were identified. One included throat, nose, lung, ear, and eye maladies (27% for campers, 29% for staff), while the second was made up of upper and lower gastrointestinal illnesses (20.1% for campers, 17.3% for staff), those often associated with what one eats or is exposed to (e.g., Norwalk virus). This raises a question about the impact of communicable diseases within the resident camp population. Communicability was reported in 2007 in 42% of the camper illness events and 41% of the staff events; however, only half of these were communicable illnesses actually seen in other people, suggesting that communicable illness is certainly present but not always passed along within the resident camp community.

When an incident did occur, the majority of campers and staff received care for that injury or illness on-site at camp, specifically 54.9% of the time in 2007. However, 43.4% of the incidents were significant enough that the person was not only removed from camp activities, but also received treatment off-site (i.e., saw a physician in town). Illnesses were also more likely to be treated at camp if one was a child (75%) but had a 50:50 chance of referral for out-of-camp care if the individual was a staff member. The study postulated that the staff referral rate may have been higher because of concerns with worker compensation liabilities and/or the fact that the ill adults presented with more medically acute needs than the ill children.

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that children are exposed to lower rates of injury in camps when compared to injury rates in community-based sports, even though “exposure” to camp is much greater than the comparative youth sports, particularly during resident camp settings in which campers are at camp twenty-four hours a day. The fact that campers and staff were more likely to become ill at camp rather than injured indicates that there is an opportunity to be proactive toward illness prevention in a similar manner that many recreational programs currently focus on risk management and injury prevention. Three areas for illness and injury prevention in the camp community were indicated by the data: reduction in the spread of germs, enhancement of footwear policies to reduce foot/toe/ankle injuries, and improvement of the use of protective equipment coupled with proper staff supervision of camper activities.

The injury and illness surveillance model developed through this study provides important information about promising practices and yielding data relevant for program improvement. Systematic examination of the data from children and staff in youth settings such as camps provides a unique lens into the relative safety of recreational settings and opportunities for program improvements. This study illustrates that specific, timely and helpful knowledge can be gained to improve the health and safety of children and staff involved in youth programs.

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References
According to the American Medical Association (AMA), “caregiving can be stressful and may contribute to serious illness and depression” (AMA, 2011) and can be seen as “potentially an occupational hazard …placing caregivers at risk for psychological and physical problems” (AMA, 2011). Therefore, family caregivers are becoming recognized as a “vulnerable” population in terms of stress-related health issues. Currently, approximately 21% of the adult U.S. population (48.9 million individuals) is already involved in some form of unpaid care for an adult relative or loved one who is ill, disabled, or aged (National Alliance of Caregiving and The American Association of Retired Persons, 2009 [NAC/AARP]). Considering the number of mature and older adults is expected to reach 40.2 million in the next few decades (Administration on Aging [AoA], 2009), the U.S. can expect a similar growth in the number of family caregivers.

The issue at hand, then, is the concern that while more individuals are likely to become caregivers, research shows that caregiving can compromise one’s health and quality of life. Studies show that many caregivers tend to identify their own health as fair to poor (e.g., AoA, 2009; Lee, Colditz, Berkman, & Kawachi, 2003). Studies also show that family caregivers often experience higher levels of stress (perceived and measured) than their non-caregiving counterparts. Research also shows high stress has been associated with inflammation (e.g., Jain, Mills, von Känel, Hong, & Dimsdale, 2007), and increased cortisol levels (e.g., Pruessner, Hellhammer, & Kirschbaum, 1999). Epel et al. (2004) posit that the type of chronic stress experienced from caregiving can take as many as 10 years off the life expectancy of a caregiver and can actually compromise immune system function for up to three years after the caregiving responsibilities end, thus, more than doubling the risk of chronic illness for the caregivers themselves (Kielcot-Glaser & Glaser, 2002). In addition, such stress has also been found to contribute earlier mortality for caregivers as opposed to their non-caregiving counterparts (e.g., Schultz & Beach, 1999). Similarly, psychosocially, consequences to caregiving include increased depression, increased social isolation, compromised quality of life compared to non-caregivers (McCullagh, Brigstocke, Donaldson, & Kalra, 2005), and a loss of leisure related to caregiving responsibilities (e.g., Bedini & Gladwell, 2006; Loucks-Atkinson, Kleiber, & Williamson, 2006; National Family Caregivers Association/Fortis, 1998).

**Purpose**

Research has established a clear link between leisure activities and personal health and well-being in many populations including caregivers. Therefore, this study sought to determine what factors predict health and quality of life in family caregivers. This analysis was based on the theoretical framework of Coleman and Iso-Ahola’s Stress-Buffer Model (1993). The purpose of this study was to investigate which variables influence family caregivers’ quality of life and self-reported health. In addition, this study sought to develop a profile of caregivers based on their health and wellbeing.

**Method**

Using the Total Design Method (Dillman, 2000) researchers mailed a 6-page questionnaire to 1,447 caregivers selected through stratified random sampling of the membership list of the National Family Caregivers Association (N = 29,000) to examine their (a) leisure (leisure
participation, satisfaction with time for leisure, and satisfaction with quality of leisure), (b) perceived stress, (c) quality of life, (d) self-reported health, and (e) demographics.

The three leisure scales were modifications of Stevens et al. (2004) Leisure Time Satisfaction Scale (STL) and showed reliabilities of .77, .86, and .81 respectively. The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10) (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983) demonstrated reliability score.88. Self-reported health was measured by question #1 of the Healthy Days Scale (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2000). The questionnaire also included items about the caregivers’ age, sex, ethnicity/race, marital status, household income, education level, employment status, relationship to the care-recipient, length of time as a caregiver, living arrangements with the care-recipient, hours per week spent caregiving, and types of caregiving support received. The responses were collected and analyzed to develop an understanding of what variables influenced caregivers’ quality of life and self-reported health and to identify caregiver groups based on these predictors.

The initial analysis of the data produced descriptive statistics. Further analysis of the responses was conducted using SPSS Decision Tree. This program is a statistical application that uses algorithms to develop decision trees. A decision tree is a model that can be used to classify or predict variables (Kass, 1980). It is used as an exploratory method to study the relationship between a dependent variable and multiple independent variables. Decision trees indicate how groups develop by dividing the dependent variable by the independent variables. The two dependent variables for this study were Quality of Life and Self-Reported General Health, while Leisure Participation, Satisfaction with Time for Leisure, Satisfaction with Quality of Leisure, and the demographic variables served as the independent variables. The specific statistics that are used in a decision tree are based on the algorithm that is employed. This study used the Exhaustive Chi-square Automatic Interaction Detection (CHAID). The Exhaustive CHAID splits the data into subjects that best describe the dependent variable (Kass, 1980). For nominal and ordinal variables chi-square analyses is used and for interval variables an analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used. The split is based on the variable that has the lowest \( p \) value. If a tie occurs between two or more variables, the variable that has the highest F value is selected as the predictor. Through the use of the Exhaustive CHAID method, a decision tree was created based on the total sample.

**Results**

Although a relatively low return rate of 18% (\( n = 267 \)), all 50 states plus the District of Columbia were represented in returned and usable questionnaires, equivalent to other large research samples of caregivers using randomly selected respondents (i.e., NAC/AARP, 2009) and thus not a concern for representation (i.e., Dey, 1997). The respondents were primarily female (73.2%), white (80.4%), and married or living with a partner (73.2%). Approximately two thirds (68.1%) of them lived with their care-recipients of whom about half (47.8%) were spouses or partners. Roughly half (48.9%) spent 40 hours or more per week providing care to their care-recipient, however, over half (55.8%) stated they received fewer than 10 hours of assistance per week. Finally, just under two thirds (63.0%) had an annual household income of under $45,000.

The predictors for caregivers’ Quality of Life and Self-Reported General Health were determined from the Exhaustive CHAID method. Two separate trees were created and each was divided into three main branches and three levels. For both dependent variables, Quality of Life and Self-Reported General Health, the independent variable, Satisfaction with Time for Leisure, was the strongest predictor.
For the Quality of Life Tree, Satisfaction with Time for Leisure divided the tree into three branches: fair, moderate, and good levels of satisfaction, all indicating an average to good quality of life (with means of 3.02, 4.12, 4.81, respectively). The next level of the tree showed that those with a moderate level of Satisfaction with Time for Leisure (50.7% of the respondents) were further divided based on the hours of support the caregiver received per week. Those who received more than 10 hours per week of support had lower quality of life (M = 3.98) as opposed to those who received 10 or fewer hours of support (M = 4.60). For the Self-Reported General Health Tree, Satisfaction with Time for Leisure also divided the tree into three branches: fair, moderate, and good levels of satisfaction, all indicating average to good health (with means of 3.54, 4.31, 4.87, respectively). In addition, the next level of the tree indicated those with a moderate level of Satisfaction with Time for Leisure (48.6% of the respondents) could be further divided based upon their annual household income. Caregivers who had an annual household income of $45,000 or greater, had a higher quality of life (M = 4.73) as compared to those whose annual household income was less than $45,000 (M = 3.97).

Limitations regarding the make-up of this study’s respondents should be noted. As indicated above, the majority of the sample was white and female. Thus, it would be difficult to generalize beyond that description.

Discussion

From the 13 independent variables used in the decision tree analysis, the variable Satisfaction with Time for Leisure was found to be the strongest predictor of both Quality of Life and Self-Reported General Health. Since the literature clearly indicates that the burden of caring for a family member may have negative consequences on the health of the caregiver, the findings of this study may contribute to an intervention or structure that could help mitigate some of those negative consequences. While satisfaction with time for leisure can easily be explained as a predictor of the dependent variables, two other results are worth noting. First, the fact that only three of the 13 independent variables surfaced as predictors could suggest the potential influence of leisure for quality of life and health of caregivers. In addition, for quality of life, it initially, seems counter-intuitive that those caregivers who received 10 or more hours of support had better quality of life. While no specific explanation is available, it is possible that the higher number of hours of care might also reflect the higher level of care and responsibilities, thus, quality of life may be affected by issues of worry, guilt, and additional care provided by the caregiver. Conversely, those receiving 10 or fewer hours might not be experiencing as great a burden, or might be able to emotionally take advantage of a short respite, being more able to “temporarily leave” the emotional burden. Also, it is unclear as to whether it is relevant that the second level of predictors for both quality of life and self-reported health came out of the moderate satisfaction with time for leisure node.

Overall, this study provides a good foundation for further pursuit into how leisure can be used as an intervention in addressing caregiver burden. Since the variable, Satisfaction with Time for Leisure proved to be a significant and primary predictor of both self-reported health and quality of life, research should seek to determine what factors specifically lead to caregivers’ perceptions of this concept. Based on these results, future research should also explore the relationship between hours of care and quality of life to determine sub-factors that might be manipulated to provide greater health and wellness.

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TRAVEL, INSIGHT, AND THE CONSTRUCTION OF LIMINALITY: A MEASUREMENT STUDY
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Adventure travel has long been deemed the method for travelers, primarily young men, to seek risk, thrills, and adrenaline (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1989; Griffith & Albanese, 1996; Hill, 1995; Plog, 1991; Priest, 1992; Robinson, 1992; Sung, Morrison, & O’Leary, 1996). Because most research on adventure travel has been conducted within the context of young men seeking adventure and risk, a much broader perspective of adventure travel is needed in order to understand the complexity of the adventure travel phenomenon and the travelers themselves. This perspective should include a sample of travelers of all ages, genders, cultures, and motives. For many travelers, including young men, adventure travel may be more than a risk-taking experience, but may be a metaphorical vehicle for spiritual questing (Goodnow & Ruddell, 2009) and questing for insight and self-discovery (Borella, 2006; Campbell, 1968; Cousineau, 1998; Goodnow 2008; Goodnow & Ruddell, 2009; Moir-Bussy, 2003; Thursby, 2005). Goodnow (2008) suggests that it is the liminal qualities of travel and a feeling of being away that provides the cognitive and psychological space necessary to conduct a quest for insight. Goodnow also proposes that travelers of all ages, nationalities, and genders quest for insight.

Although there is little empirical research regarding the liminal qualities or insight experiences of adventure travelers, travel narratives frequently depict travelers as seeking the exotic as a source for insight and answers to questions as they focus on the metaphorical inner journey of self-discovery (Borella, 2006; Cousineau, 1998; Goodnow & Ruddell, 2009; Moir-Bussy, 2003; Thursby, 2005). Indeed, studies of travel narratives provide evidence that many adventure travelers do achieve insight and self-discovery. Goodnow (2008) found a significant relationship between liminality and insight experiences depicted in published adventure travel narratives.

Adventure travel narratives are often written within a quest genre (Goodnow & Ruddell, 2009). The quest genre is a romantic narrative that follows a pattern of sequential steps: the call to journey, preparation, the journey, and returning home (Campbell, 1968; Goodnow & Ruddell, 2009, McAvoy & Dustin, 1989). Adler (1985) suggested that traveling may serve as a ritual aid in accomplishing separation (the first phase of liminality) from home and family. Travelers are motivated to separate themselves from ordinary life (construct liminality) where they can figure out answers to questions and gain knowledge and insight into self (Noy, 2004a; Noy 2004b; Shaffer, 2004).

Liminality comes from the Latin word *limen*, meaning a threshold (Russell, 2005) or time and place of transition (Turner, 1966). The construction of liminality through travel is further supported by White and White (2003) as they suggest that long-term travel is composed of three phases: separation, margin or limen, and reintegration or re-aggregation. Liminal experience can provide freedom from cultural blocks or norms that may interfere or prevent insight (Goodnow, 2008). This freedom provides cognitive space for reflection about self, goals, and priorities (Goodnow, 2008; Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989). Through these mechanisms, the construction of liminality through adventure travel has been noted to facilitate insight in the context of adventure travel narratives (Goodnow, 2008).

To date, research has not explored the relationship between liminality and insight beyond the context of travel narratives. It is possible that such moments of insight are well-crafted marketing
tools to sell adventure stories, or perhaps the appearance of such a relationship is simply a by-product of the quest genre. In exploring these possibilities, it is desirable that the relationship between liminality and insight be tested within a sample of travelers. In order to test the hypothesis that the construction of liminality during a travel experience produces insight, it is necessary to develop a reliable measurement tool from which valid conclusions can be inferred. Therefore, drawing on findings from Goodnow’s (2008) study of travel narratives, the purpose of this research is to develop a Travel, Insight and Liminality Scale in which to test the proposed relationship between liminality and insight in a sample of travelers.

**Method**

Goodnow (2008) sampled 50 published adventure travel narratives (5-10% of the currently available population). The randomly selected travel narratives contained travelers’ accounts of journeys and experiences told in the author’s own voice. These narratives were explored using content analysis in an attempt to fully understand the variables being studied and to retain the richness found within the text (Krippendorff, 2004). The content analysis involved a systematic reading of texts through adherence to a codebook produced by the primary researcher and tested through collaboration with several coders. The purpose was to create decision rules and operational definitions for variables to enable coders to systematically identify variables within travel narratives, code the variables, and enable future researchers to replicate this study. Development of the codebook was a lengthy process consisting of several phases including a pilot test, modification, and a second pilot test, yielding an inter-rater reliability of r >.800 (Goodnow). The current study builds on the codebook and results of the content analysis to create a measurement instrument.

The three steps of construct validation outlined by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) are: 1) identifying the domain of items relevant to the construct, 2) determining the extent to which the items measure the same or different things, and 3) collecting data to examine whether measures of the construct produce results that are consistent with relevant theory. Items were constructed to measure insight (14 items) and to measure three levels of liminality: being away physically (1 item), being away cognitively (1 item), and being away psychologically (4 items). Data were collected from travelers to Costa Rica during the summer of 2009. PASW (SPSS) 18 was used to conduct reliability and exploratory factor analyses with varimax rotation for the insight items and the liminality items independently.

**Results**

Respondents (N=146) ranged in age from 14 to 68, with an average age of 26.8 and SD=10.8. The majority of respondents (58.2%) were female, and almost all of them (91.1%) had previous international travel experience. While the majority of respondents were from the United States, the sample represented 21 different home countries. Trip length ranged from 3 days to 6 years (covering multiple countries) with a mode of 1 week (33.3%). Half of the respondents (50.7%) were travelling from one to two weeks. Group size ranged from solo travelers (18.8%) to groups as large as 44 persons. The mode for group size was 2 people (34.4 %), with the majority of respondents (65.0%) travelling in groups of three or fewer people.

Many of the respondents (43.7%) reported staying in average scale accommodations such as budget hotels and hostels with warm showers and electricity. When asked about the type of environment in which they spent most of their time, the majority (58.9%) reported travelling to towns through nature, creating a blend of urban and natural experiences. More than half of the respondents (61.6%) reported travelling independently without the use of paid guides or travel
service. Finally, 61.0% of travelers reported spending most of their time in a highly novel environment that was very different from their home culture.

Cronbach’s alpha for the 14 insight items was .93, while Cronbach’s alpha for the six liminality items was .76. Exploratory factor analysis of the insight items yielded two factors. Factor one, explaining 37.5% of the variance, contained nine items and had a Cronbach’s alpha of .92. Factor one loadings ranged from .54 to .84. Factor two, explaining 24.3% of the variance, consisted of five items with a Cronbach’s alpha of .79. Factor two loadings ranged from .58 to .79. Together the two factors explained 61.8% of the total variance.

Exploratory factor analysis for the liminality items also yielded two factors. Factor one, explaining 47.0% of the variance, contained four items and had a Cronbach’s alpha of .85. Factor one loadings ranged from .78 to .89. Factor two, explaining 23.0% of the remaining variance, consisted of only two items and had a Cronbach’s alpha of .55. The two items had factor loadings of .78 and .87. Together the two factors explained 70.0% of the total variance.

Discussion
The primary goal of this study was to develop a measurement tool to test within a comprehensive sample of travelers the relationship between liminal space and insight that was previously identified only in adventure travel narratives. The acceptable standard for data reliability is above r = .800, however, variables with reliabilities between .667-.800 can allow for tentative conclusions (Krippendorff, 2004). In this study, Cronbach’s alpha for insight was .93 and liminality was .76 suggesting that this is a reliable scale. In addition, the gender, age, travel style, and cultural diversity represented in the sample suggest that this scale may be useful in understanding the complexity of the adventure travel phenomenon.

Goodnow’s (2008) work constructed liminal space as having three dimensions, being away physically, cognitively, and psychologically, with being away psychologically as the most important, yet most elusive, liminal dimension. The scale items for liminality were based on these three dimensions, however, in this study liminality loaded on only two factors. One factor contained the items addressing being away psychologically and explained the most variance (47.0%). The second factor contained the items addressing being away physically and cognitively. This seems to support Goodnow’s (2008) conclusion that psychologically being away was the most important dimension of liminality. Perhaps this is due to the fact that being away physically and free from daily routines are inherent parts of travel, freeing the mind from cultural and cognitive blocks (Adams, 1975) and creating the cognitive space to think in new and novel ways. Future research should explore this relationship further.

The 14 insight items in this study were originally conceived as comprising three dimensions: self-discovery, how to live a satisfying life, and spirituality (Goodnow, 2008). In this study, as with the liminality items, the insight items loaded on only two factors. The first factor contains items related to self-discovery and living a satisfying life, while the second factor contains items relating to spiritual insight. These domains were renamed self-insight and spiritual insight.

Future research should focus on testing the measurement instrument within a different sample of travelers to confirm results. Additionally, results of this study should be compared with data from interviews already conducted to begin to assess construct validity. Finally, future research should focus on using the scale to test the proposed hypothesis that liminality facilitates insight experience.

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EXAMINATION OF PARK AND RECREATION AWARENESS AND BEHAVIORS FOR LATINOS

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While the rising trend in obesity cuts across all social classes, the prevalence of obesity and the severity of the consequences from obesity-related diseases are greater in the Latino population. For example, in California, Latino males and females of all ages have among the highest rates of obesity and rates of Type 2 diabetes. These rates have been attributed to Latinos disproportionately living in communities that encourage unhealthy food choices and discourage physical activity (Woodward-Lopez & Flores, 2006). Moreover, the Latino community is the fastest growing segment of the United States population, as well as the largest minority segment (U.S. Census, 2006). Consequently, providing health-related information and physical activity (PA) opportunities to the growing Latino segment are warranted.

A majority of the current educational efforts related to obesity have focused on nutrition and healthy eating while little to no effort has focused on PA and active living. Additionally, little has been done to inform Latinos about PA opportunities available near their homes and communities. This study, framed within parks and recreation, investigates PA and issues related to park and recreation programming and marketing of these programs. What differentiates this study from previous studies related to PA and Latinos is that we garnered opinions from non-users and park users with the Latino community. The main purpose of our study was to examine physical activity, behavioral patterns, recognition and usage of parks and recreational facilities, awareness of programming opportunities, marketing efforts, and perceptions of safety at recreational facilities for Latinos.

Literature Review

Our study used the social ecological model as a framework for how individuals, interpersonal relationships, organizations, communities, and public policy interact to influence physical activity/active living and promote healthy behaviors (Sallis & Owen, 2002; Stokols, Allen, & Bellingham, 1996). If park and recreation departments are to be successful in promoting PA, then the context of the social and physical environment in communities must be further considered. Recreational, occupational, and household activities account for a majority of physical activity for Latinos (Marquez & McAuley, 2006). Recreational activity has been found to account for the highest amount of PA regardless of gender, but occupational activity has been found to be greater for men while household activity was greater for women. With recreational activity, Howard and Crompton (1984) first documented disparities among Latinos and other minorities. The most recent and relevant literature within parks and recreation has been conducted by Monica Stodolska, Kim Shinew and colleagues (e.g., Cronan, Shinew, & Stodolska, 2008; Cronan, Shinew, Schneider, Stanis, & Chavez, 2008). In general, their findings have found that men were more involved with physical activity, Latinos were more likely to use trails than facilities (i.e., sport complexes, swimming pools), and parks use may be utilized more for social reasons (e.g., get-togethers, talking) and less for PA compared to other ethnic groups. One of the major limitations of past research is that surveys were conducted at facilities with active recreation participants. What is missing from research related to parks and recreation and Latinos is research gathered from non-active participants especially in areas that have been found to be significant barriers with Latinos such as awareness and accessibility (e.g., Amesty, 2003).
Additionally, little is known about use of parks, preferences for activities, how Latinos receive information about park and recreation opportunities, programming, and events.

Methods

In partnership with a local non-profit statewide advocacy and public policy organization, El Pueblo, community leaders (i.e., promotores) distributed and collected surveys in their community. Each promotores was trained how to collect the data and who to approach in order to get a stratified sample and each received an incentive for their help. A total of 478 Latinos living in North Carolina completed the surveys (response rate = 95.2%). A majority of the participants were born outside of the United States (80%) with most born in Mexico (52%). A majority of the respondents were women (58%) and ages ranged from 18 - 83 (M = 34.9, SD = 11). The majority (54%) lived in households with four or more members, were married (61%), and had a household income less than $39K per year (68%). In terms of education, 21% had some high school, 26% graduated from high school, 13% had some college, 13% graduated college, 4% had graduate degrees, and 23% declined to answer.

The instrument was created in consultation El Pueblo and a local Park Director. Socio-demographic items included gender, age, marital status, number of children in the household, education, income, country of birth or ancestral origin, and length of stay in the U.S. for those who were born abroad. Physical activity measures included the Stanford Brief Activity Survey (SBAS) which measures leisure-time, household, and occupational activity to categorize overall PA. Park and recreation awareness items asked respondents how familiar they were with Park and Recreation facilities near their homes, including the name(s) and/or locations. We assessed visitation patterns and facility use based on times they have visited park and recreation facilities during the last 30 days, how long [in minutes] they stay at the locations during typical visits, and what activities they have engaged in while in the park/trail/sports complex, individually and as a part of a league. For marketing awareness, participants were asked questions regarding sources of information in general and related to sport/exercise places and programming opportunities. For example, what primary sources they use for news and information (email, radio, etc.).

To provide a baseline for understanding Latino physical activity and use of park and recreation areas within communities, the data analysis was primarily descriptive. Initial analysis included frequencies, means, and standard deviations of the items.

Results

Overall, the majority (78%) of Latinos in our study wanted to be physically active, while 8% did not, 11% were not sure, and 3% declined to answer. Using the SBAS, the participants were categorized into 5 PA groups: inactive (18%), light-intensity activity (37%), moderate-intensity activity (23%), hard-intensity activity (11%), very hard-intensity activity (6.5%), and 4.5% did not indicate PA. When measuring perceptions of PA using five point Likert-type scales, the participants strongly agreed that PA improves one’s life (M = 4.7, SD = .57), and that parks improve quality of life (M = 4.6, SD = .63). In terms of safety and PA, the participants responded that they felt safe in parks near their homes (M = 4.1, SD = 1.0), and that they felt safe being physically active near their homes (M = 4.1, SD = 1.0).

The participants indicated parks (77%), fitness centers (59%), sport field (not a park: 36%), my neighborhood (32%), my home/apartment (27%), and school grounds (19%) were the first places that come to mind of where they are (or can be) physically active.

When measuring marketing awareness of park and recreational departments and programs in the area, over 20% could not name a park or recreation center near them, 90% of participants stated they were not aware of PA brochures distributed by the park and recreation departments.
and 86% were not aware of any programming offered by parks and recreation. Only 14% of the participants responded that they currently participated in programming activities offered by the park and recreation departments, including sports, and dance.

When examining park awareness and visitation patterns, only 14% of the participants indicated they had never visited a park. On average, the participants visited parks eight days (SD = 18) in the previous month, and they went with their family (45%) and friends (15%). When asked the types of activities they conducted at the park, participants indicated walk/jog (61%), take children to playground (44%), look at scenery/relax outside (44%), play sports (30%), eat or picnic (26%), watch sports (23%), fish (7%), sleep/nap (3%), and clean car (2%).

For program interests, the participants indicated what program areas they would be most interested in on a 3 point scale (1 = Not interested, 2 = somewhat interested, 3 = very interested). From highest to lowest interest, the programs included walking programs ($M = 2.35$), aquatic programs ($M = 2.12$), soccer ($M = 2.12$), dance ($M = 2.10$), aerobics ($M = 2.08$), volleyball ($M = 2.07$), tennis ($M = 1.92$), adventure programs ($M = 1.78$), basketball ($M = 1.75$), baseball ($M = 1.60$), flag football ($M = 1.46$), kickball ($M = 1.4$), and dodgeball ($M = 1.29$).

When asked about the most likely way for the participants to find out about PA programs on a 3 point scale (1 = not likely, 2 = somewhat likely, 3 = very likely), the participants indicated brochures ($M = 2.60$), radio ($M = 2.4$), promotores ($M = 2.36$), and email ($M = 2.18$). Participants (12%) also suggested that information be placed at Spanish speaking stores/shops.

**Discussion**

While most of our sample wanted to be more physically active, currently less than half were moderately physically active or highly active. Our study highlighted that Latinos believe that parks and recreation provide a suitable place for PA, however, many are not aware of parks in their area and the majority do not know about programming/activities provided by parks and recreation. A primary challenge facing park and recreation administrations is selecting the most appropriate communication channels for marketing and promoting activities and events directed at specific minority groups. Our study shows that marketing materials for Latinos should be in Spanish (over 90% preferred the Spanish version for our survey) and should be distributed at Spanish speaking stores/shops. Many park and recreation departments are catering to Latinos by offering additional programming. In general, our participants were more interested in individual-based activities compared to team-based that were already being offered at park and recreation centers in the area. While safely has been cited as a significant barrier to park and recreation use (Stodolska, Acevedo, & Shinew, 2009), our participants stated they felt safe being physically active in their communities, their homes, and at parks close to their homes. Our findings demonstrated the framework of the social ecological model, specifically the importance of environmental factors for Latinos. Parks and recreation play an important role in PA for diverse populations and can be a source for sustained behavioral change. Our results indicate that communication could be used as a key component to increase awareness of programming for Latinos with the hope of increasing PA.

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LEISURE AND SPIRITUALITY: A STUDY OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS
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Introduction

Although empirical research on leisure and spirituality is becoming more prevalent, most of this research is focused upon adults (e.g., Heintzman, 2000; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003; Schmidt, 2006; Schmidt & Little, 2007). While studies related to leisure and spirituality exist on faith-based recreational activities for children (Barnett & Weber, 2009), spiritual change amongst 8-14 year old campers (Henderson, Oakleaf & Bialeschki, 2009), and on spiritual well-being and leisure preferences in college students (Doi, 2004), little research exists on this topic for high school aged youth. One exception is Sweatman and Heintzman’s (2004) study on the spirituality of the residential camp experience of 14 and 15 year olds which found that the interrelationships between the nature, being-away to a non-urban setting, formal and informal social experiences, as well as structured and unstructured alone time may create positive feelings leading to an awareness of spirituality. The Sweatman and Heintzman study focused on the camp setting and thus research is needed for this age group on the relationship between spirituality and leisure of all types and in all settings. This research study explores the following research question: What is the relationship between youth leisure and spirituality in the lives of senior high school students? It is important to explore the leisure and spirituality relationship in youth as spiritual well-being is an integrative dimension of holistic well-being (Greenberg, 1985).

Method

This paper presents the results of the second part of a two part qualitative study on the relationship of leisure and spirituality amongst students at a public high school in Eastern Canada. The first part of the study involved a sample of six junior high school students (Heintzman, 2008) while the current study involved a sample of four female and four male senior high school students: three grade 11 students and five grade 12 students. Most were Canadian-born however one had emigrated from Eastern Europe. All participants volunteered in response to information provided about the study by the school’s guidance counsellor. Expressed interest in spirituality and/or religion was not a criterion for participating in the study. In-depth interviews were conducted with these students to explore the relationships between leisure and spiritual well-being. Interpretive analysis, which involved the interview transcripts being carefully read, reread and coded, was used to determine recurring patterns and themes within the data (Patton, 1990). During this process, themes were observed that represented commonly shared explanations of the relationship between leisure and spirituality in the youths’ lives.

Results

The data analysis resulted in three themes: leisure may facilitate spirituality – but not always; relationships facilitate spirituality; and calm and peaceful settings facilitate spirituality. The students’ definitions of spirituality tended to be associated with concepts such as beliefs, religion, God, and being in touch with oneself and with one’s surroundings while their definitions of leisure involved the notions of relaxation and time for self. One participant defined leisure as: “I would define it as relaxing…If I say I’m going to have some leisure time that means that I’m going to go have some time for myself. Just relax by myself.” (A)

*Theme 1: Leisure may facilitate spirituality – but not always.*

Participants associated leisure with spirituality and a variety of leisure activities such as swimming, writing, bicycle riding, camping, going on retreats and playing sports, unique to each participant, were identified as being helpful to spirituality. The relaxing nature of leisure seemed
to contribute to spirituality. When asked how leisure has an impact on spiritual well-being, one participant stated that “It calms me down a lot” (E). Similarly, another participant explained how her leisure activity of writing was helpful to her spirituality as it gave her time to relax, calm down and reflect:

Writing is probably the closest thing I do that most relates to spirituality. I write a lot of poems and it has a lot to do with that. …I write things about anger, love, God, everything. I would say it’s equally both [leisure and spirituality] because it gives me time to relax. Like if I am angry it gives me time to relax rather instead of doing something destructive. It gives me time to calm down and just reflect. (B)

This notion of leisure giving time and space for leisure was alluded to by another participant who explained why he thought more about spirituality during leisure times than at school: “Because when you’re at school you’re focused on what you are doing. But in leisure you have so many other things going through your mind and thinking about” (C). One participant did explain how the impact of leisure on spirituality would depend on how he spent his leisure time:

Depending on what you do during your leisure time and work time that would affect your spirituality. Like if you sat at home all day and lazed around on the couch, didn’t do anything, did not hang around people then you would be a completely different person than someone who played sports, worked on things during the week and read books. It’s a completely different individual. And your spirituality would be so much different. Like if you went to church or didn’t. (C)

The participants also recognized that some activities done during leisure time, such as fighting, bullying and doing drugs were not helpful to spirituality.

**Theme 2: Relationships facilitate spirituality**

Being with friends, especially peers or family, was viewed as a very important leisure factor that contributed to spirituality. One participant explained that friendships were important to spirituality:

Friendships, relationships I have with other people. Staying positive and confident that the world is a good place and that life is good. That will keep my spiritual side going. …Friends are leisure and having fun with them. Spend time with them while you can. That’s the important thing. (B)

Another participant stated: “I have this need to be with family and friends and that satisfies me…and I guess it satisfies me spiritually, and my spiritual well-being. I don’t know why” (G). When asked why relationships are important to spiritual well-being, one participant explained: “I guess because with friends they can support you when you’re in trouble or something….You can talk with them if you need to talk to someone, they will be there for you” (H). One participant mentioned that more formalized opportunities such as a youth group and a program of students helping each other were helpful to her spiritual well-being:

I think of experiences like I go to a Saturday night youth group and I’ve been there for almost 6 years, and being out every Saturday night. I’m not out drinking or doing whatever, I’m still hanging out with friends…I was involved with another program for two years…which was students helping out each other…Those were the two things that I was involved with that are the most important…I think it’s because I’m helping other people that need help. (G)

While relationships and being with others was mentioned by almost all of the participants, two of the participants also mentioned the importance of time alone. One participant stated that for spirituality “sometimes you need time to yourself” (H). Another explained: “Being alone is
probably the best thing for my spirituality. I have the time to just relax and not worry about what the person next to me is thinking, and communicating with them, I can just think about everything that has happened throughout the day and just be myself….” (B).

Theme 3: Calm and peaceful settings facilitate spirituality

Participants identified calm and peaceful settings, often in nature and away from the city as settings which were helpful to their spirituality.

Like a place where there is a beautiful surrounding…That would really take in my spirituality like being around nature. It would have to be something in nature…where the environment around me is calm and peaceful…. My grandparents live like by the woods and I go walking through there, and it’s nearly the same thing. Just walking through there because it’s so peaceful and silent. It’s a good place to go. (B)

Another participant, in response to a question about what is helpful for spirituality, responded: “Calm settings, where I am just very warm and welcoming. Outside settings, like green grass…across the road there’s this big rugby field, and you can just lay on the grass…there’s lots of green grass and you can just sit there” (F). In addition to nature, being away from the city was important: “I like camping, it gets you away from everything, and kind of, makes you realize…and you can somewhat think about things that you don’t have to worry about…that’s not what you are there for, you’re there to relax” (G). Similarly, another participant commented on bike rides: “I think that time made me realize that there is a time and place away from the town and the city. In the quiet and that helps” (D).

Discussion and Conclusion

Some of the findings of this study of senior high school students are consistent with findings from previous research on the leisure and spirituality relationship amongst adults: leisure is associated with spirituality and provides time and space for spirituality (Heintzman, 2000; Schmidt & Little, 2007); a variety of leisure activities may be associated with spirituality (Heintzman, 2000); and some leisure is not helpful to, or may repress spirituality (Heintzman & Coleman, 2010; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003). The importance of being away to nature and outdoor settings is consistent with much previous research on the importance of these settings to spirituality for both adults and youth (e.g., Doi, 2004; Heintzman, 2000, 2010; Loeffler, 2004, Schmidt & Little, 2007; Sweatman & Heintzman, 2004) and also reflects the “being away” feature of restorative environments theory (Kaplan, 1995). The importance of “being with friends’ and relationships to spirituality, is consistent with the first part of this two-part study which involved a sample of junior high school students, and appears to be a theme that is especially prevalent amongst youth. This theme of relationships is similar the social experiences theme in Sweatman and Heintzman’s (2004) study of youth camp experience and spirituality where a variety of formal and informal social experiences were seen to contribute to spirituality. Overall, the research findings adds further support to the growing body of empirical literature that documents the processes that link leisure and spirituality (Heintzman, 2009). Further research, especially quantitative, on the leisure and spirituality relationship amongst youth is recommended to determine if this study’s results can be generalized to other youth and also to examine those characteristics of the leisure and spirituality relationship, such as relationships with friends that may be important to youth. Such knowledge would be helpful to leisure practitioners who seek to encourage positive youth outcomes including spiritual well-being.

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References


The older population in the United States is increasing. For example, in 2000 the US population over the age of 65 years was about 12%. By 2050, this percentage is expected to almost double (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007). Active living and physical activity can contribute to health and a better quality of life for growing numbers of older adults especially if health is defined as a state of physical, mental, and social well-being and not just the absence of disease. Interventions such as recreation programs that promote physical and social activity among older adults can facilitate healthier individuals and communities. One program that has promoted exercise and health for older adults is the North Carolina Senior Games (NCSG; Cardenas, Henderson, & Wilson, 2009a, 2009b). NCSG is part of a national movement based on local participation (i.e., the heart of the program) aimed to encourage older adults to be active in sports and fitness programs as well as creative arts. The vision of NCSG since its inception in 1983 has been to create a year-round health promotion and education program for North Carolinians 55 years of age and better. This holistic approach through body, mind, and spirit emphasizes staying fit and enjoying the company of friends, family, spectators, and volunteers through various activities (NCSG, 2007). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the perceived benefits and outcomes of older adults’ participation in NCSG.

**Background Foundation**

Successful aging and activity theory provided the theoretical foundations for this study. Rowe and Kahn (1997) proposed a model of successful aging that included avoidance of disability, maintenance of physical functioning, and active engagement with life. They indicated that engagement with life included activity and social support. Active engagement with life, however, has received the least attention within the model (Everard, Lach, Fisher, & Baum, 2000). Everard et al. included leisure activities as important aspects of successful aging and also indicated that these activities may be important modifiable factors for successful aging. The theoretical foundation of successful aging, however, has not been without its criticism (Dillaway & Byrnes, 2009). We are aware of the political critique that might be offered about successful aging in that it may be person-specific and assume a privileged group of people. However, the framework of successful aging is more useful when considered a process, rather than an outcome. Thus, activity theory provided a link with the process of successful aging. Exercise, social activities, and instrumental activities are positively associated with better physical health and other leisure activities such as sewing, reading, watching television, creative arts and listening to music are associated with better mental health (Everard et al., 2000). Burnett-Wolle and Godbey (2005) recommended that many theories including activity theory can be used as frameworks for service delivery in a community based activity-focused intervention such as senior games.

**Method**

This examination of NCSG was conducted in the fall of 2010 with a random sample of over 1100 participants in local senior games from around the state. The survey was conducted by mailing hard copy questionnaires to individuals who did not have email addresses and sending a link to SurveyMonkey for those participants who had email addresses. The response rate overall was 35% ($N = 408$). The number of women and men who responded was almost equal. Over
80% of the respondents were White and not of Hispanic origin with 11% African American, 2% American Indian, and the remainder biracial. The mean age of the sample was 71 years (SD = 8) with a range of 55-93 years. About three-fourths were married or partnered. Some participants were employed full or part-time but 79% said they were retired. About half of the respondents had at least a bachelor’s degree. Participants said they had been involved in NCSG for an average of 6.2 years. Questions focused on perceived benefits from participation, perceived outcomes from participation, self-reported participation behaviors, and demographics. The survey was developed in collaboration with NCSG staff and volunteers. NCSG participation behavior questions related to type of participation (i.e., sports, Silver Arts, SilverStriders, Senior Games Clinics and Workshops, SilverLiners, Senior Games volunteer), which was recoded into three categories: Sports Only, Sports Combined with other activities, and No Sports/Other Activities. Dichotomous “yes” or “no” questions were asked for whether preparing and training were a part of regular weekly activities, if participation resulted in being more physically or socially active, and whether they had participated in State Finals in 2010. A question about general health was asked based on the National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion (Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System – BRFSS) data collection. The instrument also consisted of two related scales and their subscales. One 5-point Likert scale assessed the perceived importance of benefits of participating in NCSG. The reliability of the scale was $\alpha = .84$. The factored subscales of Social Importance (i.e., friendship, social opportunities) was $\alpha = .77$ and the General Health benefits (i.e., feel younger, live longer, improve health, fitness, and stay active) subscale was $\alpha = .85$. In addition, four items were used as single measures: doctor recommendation, fun, competition, and creative expression. A second scale was used to measure perceived outcomes of NCSG participation. Individuals indicated how much retrospective change (4 = increased a lot, 3 = increased some, 2 = neither increased nor decreased, and 1 = decreased) that they attributed to their participation. The reliability of the scale was $\alpha = .88$. The subscale of Physiological Outcomes (i.e., shape/physique, physical strength, heart and lung functioning) had a reliability of $\alpha = .86$ and the Health Outcomes subscale was $\alpha = .81$. Self-esteem Outcomes was a single item measure. T-tests and ANOVA with Scheffe’s post hoc tests were used for data analysis.

Results

Because of the space limitations of this abstract, we report only selected significant findings without the statistics. In addition to the demographics, participation behaviors included opportunities for sport and creative arts, training and preparation elements, perceived health, and State Finals involvement. Four out of five participants were involved with sports but over a quarter of the total also did SilverArts, and many individuals did more than one activity. Over 79% indicated that training and preparation for participation in NCSG was part of their regular weekly activity. In addition, over 66% indicated that their participation in NCSG had motivated them to be more physically active as well as socially active. Respondents said that on average they spent 5 hours on physical activity each week associated with senior games. Almost half of the respondents had participated in State Finals. The importance of the benefits of NCSG involvement included six variables: Fun, General Health, Social, Competition, Creative Expression, and Doctor Recommendation. The gender of the participants resulted in significant differences regarding the importance of the benefits of NCSG. Women had statistically significant higher scores related to Social, General Health, Doctor Recommendation, and Creative Expression. Males had statistically higher scores for Competition. The importance of Social benefits was statistically significant for both how physically and socially active people
said they were because of NCSG. General Health importance was associated with people who made training and preparing a part of their regular weekly schedule as well as those who perceived that participation resulted in being more physically and socially active. General Health importance was also associated with State Finals participation. The benefits of Fun as well as Creative Expression were associated with people who perceived the opportunity to be socially active as an important result of NCSG. General Health importance was highest for individuals involved in Sports Combination activities. The scores on the importance of Social, General Health, Doctor Recommendation, and Creative Expression were all higher for individuals who had a high school degree or less. College graduates had the lowest importance attached to the variables. Individuals who said their health was poor/fair saw the importance of the Social, Doctor Recommendation, and Creative Expression to a greater extent than did the individuals who indicated they had excellent health. The three perceived Outcome factors were all rated high in the following order: Self-esteem, Health, and Physiological Outcome changes. Self-esteem was statistically significant with females reporting this factor higher than males. NCSG participants who said that training and preparation for NCSG was a part of their regular weekly schedule had significantly higher scores for all outcomes. Associations between whether participants agreed that participation in senior games had positive outcome changes were also evident for individuals who said that they were more physically and socially active due to NCSG. Physiological, Health, and Self-esteem Outcome changes were greatest for Sport Combination participants. A difference regarding the level of education was found related to Self-esteem with individuals with a high school education or less indicating higher scores than other educational levels. Outcome changes were perceived similarly regardless of what the BRFSS health score indicated.

**Discussion**

These results showed that NCSG continues to make an important contribution to successful aging for older adults in North Carolina because it provides opportunities and activities for engagement in physical and social activities in communities. Compared to other older adults in North Carolina, the NCSG participants reported their health status was better than the general population of older adults. The amount of time each week attributed to physical activity associated with training for the games was double the recommendations given by the Centers for Disease Control for optimal health. However, no cause and effect can be attributed to these perceptions even though a positive relationship seemed to exist. Another significant finding was the participation by women who may not have had opportunities for sports earlier in their lives. Participants with a high school degree or less also perceived greater benefits and outcomes regarding their participation. Finally, individuals who were involved with sports in combination with other aspects of senior games had higher perceptions of benefits and outcomes. The community structure of NCSG, therefore, provides many opportunities for individuals who may not otherwise have outlets for physical and social involvement. Local organizations that promote NCSG have a great opportunity to facilitate training programs for older adults all year, and to promote social and physical health for the growing number of older adults in rural and urban communities.

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Selected References


There is a general consensus that graduate degrees enhance skills, increase competency, increase perceived value, and result in higher pay (Arkes, 1999; Buchanan, Kim, & Basham, 2007; Grubb, 1993). Additional career outcomes such as job satisfaction, social capital, and human capital, have been associated with advanced degrees. The relationship between earning a master’s degree and parks and recreation career outcomes, however, is unexamined. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to study the relationship between master’s degree, salary, job satisfaction, social capital, and human capital among parks and recreation professionals.

**Review of Literature**

Salary trends indicate education literally pays off. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the average employee with a master’s degree will net an additional $10,000 or more per year than an employee with a bachelor’s degree (Day & Newburger, 2009). Professional or doctoral degrees earn even more (Graduate programs, 2009). Life earnings also increase with advanced degrees; workers with a bachelor’s degree earn approximately $2.1 million over their lifetime, whereas workers with a master’s degree earn an estimated $2.5 million, and workers with a professional degree earn $4.4 million (Day & Newburger).

Salary is only one indicator of the relationship between a master’s degree and career outcomes. Job satisfaction, social capital, and human capital, though often overlooked, are other outcomes. Job satisfaction is assessed by measuring the discrepancies between employee expectations and reality (Beyond salary, 2007; Moe, 2010). Social capital is defined as the creation of personal contacts and career-based relationships (Cocchiara, Kwesiga, Bell, & Baruch, 2010). Finally, human capital is defined as managerial competencies, and an advanced degree is often associated with an increase in responsibilities (Cocchiara et al.).

The cost of an advanced degree may potentially decrease its value (Weston, 2009). The overall value of a master’s degree may also be lessened by “degree inflation” (Trachtenberg, 2009, para. 5). Similarly “the prestige of the master’s degree has diminished as it has been awarded in increasing numbers” (Howell, & Murdock, 1972, p. 647). Furthermore, the value of a master’s degree as qualification for hiring is unclear; in some cases work experience is considered a greater asset (Davis, 2006; Taylor, 2009).

The value of a master’s degree is under-researched, especially in the parks and recreation profession. Existing research relies heavily on anecdotal evidence (Buchanan et al., 2007). Understanding the costs and benefits of an advanced degree may impact curriculum development, university funding decisions, and policies (Buchanan et al., 2007). Perhaps more importantly, understanding these costs and benefits can help students and professionals determine the value of an advanced degree. Therefore the purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between advanced degrees and career outcomes such as salary, job satisfaction, social capital, and human capital among parks and recreation professionals.

**Methods**

The online instrument used to collect data consisted of general demographic questions, career questions, and modified job satisfaction, social capital, and human capital scales. The link to the online survey was sent to parks and recreation agencies located in the United States. Agencies were identified via an Internet search for parks and recreation agencies in urban areas.
Educational institutions were excluded from the search. Agencies were contacted via email and phone. When email information was available, an introductory message with an invitation to participate in the survey was sent. Where possible, this email was sent to a strategic member of the agency such as an executive or an administrative staff member who could forward the survey to other agency employees. Agencies were also contacted via phone to acquire the necessary email contact information. The link to the online survey was then sent to the agency. To encourage adequate response rates, there was a participation incentive in the form of a gift certificate. The incentive was capped at 250 responses to minimize costs.

Analysis

Data were downloaded, cleaned, and scored. Annual salary was calculated when hourly pay was provided. Job satisfaction, social capital, and human capital scales were reverse coded and scored. The natural log of salary, operating budget, number of employees, and years in the field were taken to appropriately estimate the models. Zero-order correlations, stepwise regression, and generalized linear models were assessed. The generalized linear models tested for interaction and main effects. Significance was estimated at $p < 0.05$.

Findings

Salaries among the respondents ranged from $20,000 to $132,000 ($M = 64,781$). Job satisfaction scores ranged from 11 to 30 ($M = 23.17, SD = 4.12$). Social capital scores ranged from 5 to 10 ($M = 8.67, SD = 1.23$). Human capital scores ranged from 5 to 15 ($M = 12.95, SD = 1.87$). On average, respondents had worked 17.93 years in the parks and recreation, and had worked at their current position an average of 8.5 years. The operating budget of each agency ranged from $30,000 to $350 million ($M = 11.2 million). The number of employees ranged from 1 to 1,300 ($M = 133$). The majority of respondents reported bachelor’s degree as the highest completed degree (57.1%). Fifty-seven respondents (29.1%) had a master’s degree; 23.8% of which were recreation management, 20.6% public administration, 14.3% other recreation fields, 11.1% business, 1.6% therapeutic recreation, and 28.6% other fields.

According to zero-order correlations, salary was related to job satisfaction ($r = .271, p < .01$), social capital ($r = .393, p < .01$), human capital ($r = .350, p < .01$), master’s degree ($r = .236, p < .01$), years worked in the parks and recreation industry ($r = .465, p < .01$), agency operating budget ($r = .371, p < .01$), and number of employees at the agency ($r = .188, p < .05$). Job satisfaction ($r = .263, p = .01$), social capital ($r = .216, p = < .01$) and human capital ($r = .150, p < .05$) were related to number of years worked in the parks and recreation industry. Master’s degree was not significantly related to job satisfaction, social capital, or human capital. To test potential interaction effects, stepwise regression was used. The interactions between human capital and the natural log of operating budget, and social capital and the natural log of operating budget were significant. The natural log of number of years worked in the parks and recreation industry was forced into the model, and master’s degree was also included. The model explained a significant amount of variance in salary ($R^2 = .400, p < .01$). The natural log of the number of years worked in the parks and recreation or industry was positively related to salary ($Std. B = .161, p < .001$), after accounting for this as well as the interaction between human capital and the natural log of the operating budget, and the interaction between social capital and the natural log of the operating budget, a master’s degree was positively related to salary ($Std. B = .167, p < .001$), equivalent to an 18% increase in salary. Subsequent models indicated a master’s degree did not explain a significant amount of variance in job satisfaction, social capital, or human capital. Respondents with a non-recreation related master’s degree reported significantly higher salaries than recreation related master’s degrees ($t = 2.09, p = .038$).
Discussion

There were three key findings from this study. First, there was a positive relationship between having a master’s degree and reporting a higher salary. In context of this study, respondents with a bachelor’s degree earned an average of $61,297, while respondents with a master’s degree earning an average of $73,211, a difference of nearly $12,000. These findings corroborate existing research which suggests the average difference in yearly earnings between bachelor’s and master’s degrees is approximately $10,000 (Day & Newburger, 2009). Second, master’s degrees in business, public administration, or other fields were associated with higher salaries than those in recreation management, therapeutic recreation, or other recreation-related fields. This is consistent with existing literature which suggests professional degrees render higher salaries (Day & Newburger, 2009). In this study, public administration master’s degrees were nearly as prevalent as recreation degrees. Therefore it may be beneficial to integrate and provide public administration education to students who plan on working in public recreation. Likewise, it may benefit public administration programs to include recreation classes in their curriculum. Furthermore, given these findings, graduate programs should advise incoming students which program best suits their career goals. Third, master’s degree was not associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, social capital, or human capital, but salary was. Salary was most likely related to these outcomes because it was also related to agency size, and agency size was related to job satisfaction, social capital, and human capital. Larger agencies provide more diverse tasks, greater networking opportunities, place greater responsibilities among its managing employees, and subsequently offer higher salaries. This explains the interaction of human capital and operating budget, and social capital and operating budget illustrated in the generalized linear model.

We recognize some limitations to this study. First, because the sample was drawn from an Internet search excluded parks and recreation agencies not listed online. Furthermore, the data relied on self-reports, leaving room for error. In addition, the data did not capture the differences in accreditation or ranking from one university or master’s program to another. The difference in salary outcomes may be partly attributable to the quality of program or university. This research does not account for value of a master’s degree (recreation or otherwise) in context other motivations such as students on track for earning a Ph.D. and entering academia rather than the professional realm. A similar study could be conducted among parks and recreation scholars to determine the benefits of a recreation-related master’s degree in their academic careers. Additionally, thesis versus non-thesis recreation master’s programs and their respective career outcomes could be analyzed. Future research should also consider broadening the job satisfaction, social capital, and human capital scales. Broader measures may better illuminate variations in those outcomes according to overall educational attainment and type of degree earned. Career outcomes should also be analyzed in context of gender and age, and across types of professional positions. Finally, we suggest future research examine the combination of degrees that maximize positive career outcomes. Such research will be crucial to the future trajectory of master’s programs for recreation professionals.

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References
Although parents of children with developmental disabilities often describe parenting experiences as both satisfying and frustrating (Hastings & Taunt, 2002), caring for a child with a developmental disability presents these parents with unique challenges. Several studies have reported that parents raising a child with a disability experienced greater depressive symptoms, lower psychological well-being, higher levels of stress, and more financial burden compared to those whose children did not have developmental delays (e.g., Baker, Blacher, Crnic, & Edelbrock, 2002). In addition, research evidence has shown that caregiving demands are related to the well-being of parental caregivers. It is generally accepted that higher levels of parental stress are associated with caring for a child who requires greater time demands, has lower functional ability, and greater maladaptive behaviors (Plant & Sanders, 2007).

Many researchers who are interested in how parents adjust to the stress associated with caring for a child with a disability have adopted Lazarus and Folkman’s stress and coping theory (1984), which posits that stress occurs when a person feels that he or she does not possess effective resources for managing a difficult situation (Raina et al., 2005). The theory, however, also indicates that the effects of a stressful event can be mitigated by effective coping strategies. A review of the existing literature clearly indicates that leisure can be a means of coping with stress and maintaining physical and psychological health (Kleiber, Hutchinson, & Williams, 2002). It has also been documented that the positive emotion resulting from leisure participation may facilitate coping ability (e.g., Kleiber et al., 2002) and that perceived leisure freedom can buffer the negative impacts of life stress on health (Coleman, 1993). The potential stress-reduction benefits of leisure may help prevent burnout in the parental caregivers of a child with a developmental disability. The purpose of the present study, therefore, was to investigate the role of leisure in promoting successful coping for parents who provide care to a co-residential child (either a minor or an adult) with a developmental disability.

**Methods**

Study information with a direct link to the electronic survey was distributed to potential participants through national organizations, parent support groups, and programs for people with disabilities. Individuals were eligible for participation in the study if they were a parent (over the age of 18) who provided care to a co-residential child (either a minor or an adult) who had been diagnosed with a developmental disability.

The survey included a demographic questionnaire and a battery of standardized questionnaires to assess the child’s functional ability, parental caregivers’ perceived caregiving stress, leisure satisfaction and participation, and quality of life.

**Functional ability.** A modified nine-item scale was used to determine the levels of the support the child required to participate in various life activities (Dyches, 2000). Ratings for each of the nine adaptive skills were summed for a total score. Higher scores indicate higher levels of functional ability as the child required lower assistance in performing the nine life activities. The scale showed good internal consistency in this study (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.898).

**Perceived caregiving stress.** Parental perceived stress was determined using an eight-item scale developed by Plant and Sanders (2007). The respondents were asked to rate their level of
stress in completing eight caregiving tasks using a seven-point Likert scale. A higher score indicated that the parents perceived a greater level of stress in performing caregiving tasks. The measure demonstrated adequate reliability in the present study (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.810).

Leisure satisfaction and participation. A modified seven-item Leisure-Time Satisfaction Measure (LTS) was used to measure how satisfied parental caregivers were with the amount of time they could spend in seven leisure activities (Stevens et al., 2004). The modified LTS showed sufficient internal consistency with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.813. In addition, the respondents were also asked to indicate how often they participate in the above listed leisure activities with their child with a developmental disability. In the present study, the frequency of leisure participation with the child showed acceptable reliability (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.786).

Quality of life. The WHO Quality of Life-BREF, a 26-item scale, was used to measure quality of life in terms of satisfaction with life in four domains: physical health, psychological health, social relationships, and environment. Domain average scores were created and then multiplied by four in order to be comparable to domain scores on the full version of the WHO quality of life instrument. Higher scores are reflective of greater quality of life. The scale presented good reliability in this study (Cronbach’s alpha for each domain ranging from 0.743 to 0.823).

Results

Participants. A total of 559 parents who were providing care to a co-residential child with a developmental disability participated in the present study. The majority of the parent respondents were mothers (94.3%), married (81.4%), provided care to one child with a disability (87.7%), and self-identified as Caucasian (91.2%). About 64% of caregivers in this study had attained a college degree or higher and 54% reported their annual household income was greater than $60,000. The mean age of the participants was 44.15, ranging from 20 to 78 years of age. The child for whom they provided care was between the ages of <1 year to 55 years old (M = 12.29, SD = 8.5). The major diagnoses of the children were diverse: 40% of the children had been diagnosed with autism or Asperger’s syndrome; 19% with Down syndrome; 9% with mental retardation; and the other 32% with rare disorders (e.g., Prader-Willi syndrome, chromosome disorders, etc.).

Structural model. Structural equation modeling was performed using the program Mplus (version 6) to examine both leisure-time satisfaction and leisure participation as mediators in the relationship between perceived caregiving stress and quality of life. The final model appeared to be a reasonable fit with the data, supported by the acceptable values of the following fit indices: $\chi^2 (14) = 40.63, p < .001, \text{CFI} =0.98, \text{RMSEA} = 0.06, \text{and SRMR} = 0.023$. Standardized factor loadings and parameter estimates for the paths of the mediation model are presented in Figure 1. The results suggested that the child’s functional ability does not have a direct effect on parental quality of life, rather an indirect effect through perceived caregiving stress or leisure participation. It was found that parental caregivers who provided higher levels of support to their child experienced a higher level of perceived caregiving stress, which led to lower quality of life. Additionally, parents who provided higher levels of support to their child also reported lower levels of leisure participation, which in turn led to lower quality of life. Interestingly, the results showed that the child’s functional ability had an impact on how frequently parents participated in leisure activities with the child, but not on how satisfied they were with the amount of time they could spend in these leisure activities. Finally, it was found that perceived caregiving stress affected parental quality of life directly or indirectly through leisure-time satisfaction or leisure participation. Parental caregivers who experienced higher perceived caregiving stress were more likely to report lower quality of life. Leisure-time satisfaction and leisure participation, however,
acted as partial mediators, buffering the negative effect of perceived stress on parental quality of life.

**Figure 1.** The final structural model relating perceived caregiving stress, leisure-time satisfaction, leisure participation with the children with a developmental disability and quality of life. * Statistical significance at p < .05 level.

**Discussion**

Although previous literature clearly indicates a positive association between leisure and well-being (Kleiber et al., 2002), exactly how leisure assists in the process of stress and coping is still under debate (Iwasaki, MacTavish, & MacKay, 2005). The results of this study support the hypothesized meditational role of leisure-time satisfaction and leisure participation in the relationship between perceived caregiving stress and quality of life of parental caregivers. It was found that parental leisure satisfaction and participation can be a means of coping with stress and maintaining physical and psychological health among the parental caregiver population. Several researchers have suggested that encouraging these parents to be away from their children for small amounts of time in order to pursue their own interests can prevent them from “burnout” and enhance their life satisfaction (Todd & Shearn, 1996). The findings of the present study support this view and suggest that recreation professionals share information related to the benefits of leisure with parental caregivers and encourage them to spend time on their own interests in order to rejuvenate their energy. Further, the findings suggest that the child’s functional ability only influences parental quality of life through increased perceived caregiving stress and reduced leisure participation. This finding is in accordance with Lazarus and Folkman’s view (1984) and suggests that caregiving demands are not the sole factor contributing to parental well-being; rather how caregivers evaluate their caregiving experiences and what resources they have to manage the situation play an essential role in helping sustain parental caregivers. Finally, consistent with previous literature, the results of this study showed that the child’s functional ability was positively associated with leisure participation. To fully understand how to promote positive health in the parental caregiver population, future research should include other variables (e.g., social support, knowledge about the child’s disability) in investigating the relationships between leisure, stress, and health among parental caregivers.

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Selected References


AMATEUR ASTRONOMERS AS EDUCATORS: AN ETHNOGRAPHIC STUDY OF CLUB CULTURE
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Introduction
The purpose of this study was to gain deep insights into astronomy club culture that influences the educational potential of amateur astronomers as free-choice educators as they engage in serious leisure: their hobby “astronomy”. The United States is home to a large number of amateur astronomers, 50,000 of which belong to over 750 amateur astronomy clubs (ASP, 2005). While there is evidence that social capital may be declining (Putnam, 1995), there is also indication that many in our society are engaging in serious leisure or free-choice activities that benefit not just the individual (Falk & Dierking, 2002), but society as a whole (Stebbins, 1992, 2006). In their edited volume Science Educators under the Stars (2007), Gibbs, Storksdieck, and Berendsen document this for amateur astronomy clubs. Their research shows that amateur astronomers who belong to clubs are not only more knowledgeable of science and astronomy concepts than those who practice astronomy alone, but they also conduct more public outreach.

While engagement with science related free-choice activities seems relatively high, overall science literacy is not (Coyle, 2005; National Science Board, 2006), and considerable evidence suggests that this also extends to astronomy (e.g., Bailey & Slater, 2003; Barnett & Morran, 2002; Berendsen, 2005; Brissenden et al., 2002; Comins, 2001; Dussault, 1999; Offerdahl et al., 2002; Prather et al., 2002; Vosnaidou & Brewer 1994). In this situation, serious leisure pursuits offer unique ways to both learn astronomy and educate the general public. Falk’s framework of identity-based visitor motivations (2006) emphasizes the intertwined constructs of identity, motivation, and learning, and this model may help explain why being a leisure scientist and identifying with a group of hobby experts may support more effective learning of science in self-determined science domains. Not only are learning outcomes in self-selected science domains stronger for people in hobby science groups (Berendsen, 2005), amateur astronomers serve an important role in popularizing astronomy with the public and they offer a unique way in which the public can experience and discover astronomy.

Being an active member of an amateur astronomy club is a form of leisure pursuit that is simultaneously focused on a theme and on the socio-cultural environment that supports the leisure activity and reinforces the hobbyists’ identity (Gibbs, Storksdieck, & Berendsen, 2007). The underlying assumption for this work is, therefore, that under the right conditions, science hobbyists can serve as effective public science communicators, namely when support for the social aspects of hobby science can increase the science hobbyists’ effectiveness in educating the public about “their” science. In order to be effective citizen scientists or teachers to the public, they need to balance potentially opposing incentives and motivations that any association of people brings with them. This research focuses on the various aspects of amateur astronomy club life that can either promote or hinder education and public outreach within the pursuit of the hobby itself.
Methods

Ethnographic research was conducted with nine amateur astronomy clubs that sustained a high or continuous level of outreach activities with public audiences over a considerable period of time. Based on a previous online survey of active amateur astronomy clubs, the sample was selected to represent variability in size (25-600 members) and geography (AZ, Northern and Southern CA, CO, ID, IN, NJ, MN, and WY). Club representatives were contacted to start a snowball sample to capture active and peripheral club members for in-depth (40-70 min), semi-structured interviews developed from previous research. Interviews were transcribed and coded, and subsequently analyzed for key themes, patterns, and trends. A total of 84 interviews were conducted between August 2008 and March 2010 to examine the characteristics of success of these clubs and their leaders.

Results

Education and Public Outreach lie at the intersection of hobbyism, association, and volunteerism (Figure 1). Hobbyism requires free time and an interest in astronomy. Association specifically requires participation in activities related to a common purpose through a structure designed to achieve agreed upon goals. Volunteerism requires offering one's time, talents, knowledge, and/or resources. We find that success in public outreach is predicted by the ways that club members navigate the tensions between these three sets of rules or expectations in amateur science clubs. Next, we discuss some of the many different ways these three domains overlap, intersect, empower, and compete with one another, even in the most successful clubs.

*Club Mission.* Clubs that did not include outreach in their mission or bylaws (or lacked a mission or bylaws) had a difficult time balancing priorities. We found that conflicts in the association could arise when members held different perceptions of what the hobby should focus on: practicing astronomy inside the club or sharing it outside the club. A clear vision for a club, whereby both perceptions are welcome, lowers tensions by creating a culture that is accepting of both. When outreach was identified as the club’s main purpose, members were able to dedicate, time, funds, and resources to outreach without challenge.

*Relationships.* Type and quality of relationships between members also played a role. Tension occurred when club members had weak relationships with each other or were unable to form new relationships. In these cases, bonding and mentoring for growth and learning were less likely to happen. A club's ability to navigate association and hobbyism determined whether or not they were able to foster the next group of amateur educators within the club and outside of it.

*Leadership.* Organization of administrative and outreach roles also played a large role in determining the type of outreach performed by clubs. Centralized models (structured and unstructured) were common, but often led to burnout since a core group of individuals was responsible for both administrative and outreach roles. Clubs able to create and maintain a dispersed model tended to be more successful; each member carried a smaller load to better
perform their role and to have more time for other club activities, including outreach. Similarly, clubs with multiple outreach coordinators were best able to support outreach. Success of each recruitment method was highly dependent on the demographic of the club; however, clubs that were able to successfully adopt centralized, electronic methods carried the least burden.

Partnerships. Another structure employed by clubs to determine volunteerism is outreach partnerships. Ongoing partnerships with organizations such as schools, museums, parks, and observatories supported volunteerism by providing reoccurring events. Outreach coordinators had less to organize and event volunteers were more easily able to commit their time. Lack of partnerships may limit opportunities for outreach. In some cases, partnerships involve shared resources. Some of the most successful clubs were those that entered into a relationship with an observatory to provide outreach and maintenance in exchange for use of the equipment.

Discussion

Within the domains of hobbyism, association and volunteerism, groups have norms that hopefully define expectations in order to take advantage of skills and specializations of members. In general, hobbyism requires an interest in astronomy and free time. The social dynamics that emerge from this impetus of hobbyism include: (1) access to equipment and resources, either one's own or through the club (2) the development of specialized interest groups, such as astrophotography or radio astronomy, (3) at least a minimal pooled fund/budget for things like expert speakers or acquisition of equipment, (4) pressures to develop or offer one's own intellectual resources (e.g., knowledge or skills), and (5) the development of shared identity through relationships with likeminded people.

Association requires participation in activities related to a common purpose via structure designed to achieve agreed upon goals. Primary social dynamics in the association impetus of amateur astronomy clubs include: (1) social skills such as verbal and nonverbal communication, and the way members treat and react to one another (2) relationships between members (camaraderie, mentoring, inclusive vs. cliquish or exclusive), (3) atmosphere of the club (academic vs. focused on learning the basics) (4) the type and level of organization (includes both formal and informal), including bylaws, elections, roles, training, or mentoring, (5) forms of communication, such as email, websites, listservs, telephone, meetings or other face-to-face interactions, and (6) the way in which the club supports public outreach.

Types of volunteerism in amateur astronomy clubs include administrative vs. hobby-focused plus outreach vs. in-reach activities. Interpersonal and group dynamics associated with volunteerism include: (1) ongoing pressures on time, energy and resources, (2) recognition of appreciation of those providing time, skills or resources, (3) incentives to entice other members to volunteer either for the association (e.g., as an officer, or a greeter) or for outreach, (4) a tiered system of volunteer opportunities, where more active or more connected members are given more desirable assignments, and (5) a friendly, open and nurturing atmosphere.

We conclude that, under the right conditions, science hobbyists serve as effective public science communicators, and that support of social aspects of hobby science can increase the science hobbyists’ effectiveness in educating the public via leisure activities. Parameters influencing outreach success of these efforts lie within the domains of association, hobbyism and volunteerism and the tensions that develop between these domains.

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References
THE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OF THE “YOUNG-OLD” WITH CHRONIC CONDITIONS: THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL WELL-BEING.

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Research has documented the multiple challenges and impact that various chronic diseases have on the general well-being of the older adults (Janke, Payne, Van Puymbroeck, 2008; Payne, Mowen, Rodriguez, 2006; Stanley & Freysinger, 1995). However, little is known regarding how perceptions of social support and leisure participation influence the psychological well-being (PWB) of the “young-old” (60-74 years; Keyes, 1998). Social support has long been considered an integral component of an individual’s well-being, yet quite often it is not included as a main predictor of PWB (Hahn, Cella, Bode & Hanrahan, 2010). Keyes (1998) posited that although the impact of social demands on individuals’ lives and their general well-being are often recognized, researchers typically do not translate social demands into criteria to evaluate PWB. It has been demonstrated that as we age, and as chronic diseases emerge, the influence of the social context on the well-being of the aged becomes a preeminent concern (Son, Kerstetter, Yarnal, & Baker, 2007). Hahn et al (2010) identified two general domains used in the literature to frame social well-being: social support (e.g., number of close social ties, availability of assistance) and social adjustment (e.g., satisfaction with the quality of relationships, perceptions of companionship, sense of community). Although the findings have been mixed regarding the relationship between social well-being and PWB in quantitative studies (Cohen & Syme, 1985), Hahn et al., (2010) suggest that “social well-being indicators such as perceptions of support via companionship or the fulfillment of personal needs are more strongly associated with well-being” (p.381). In addition, social factors may have different outcomes depending upon age and presence of chronic disease conditions (Payne, et al., 2006), yet little research has examined how these dimensions may influence the PWB of the young-old.

**Study Purpose, Research Objectives and Hypotheses:**

The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of social well-being dimensions on the self-reported PsWB of the young-old. Further, as it has been suggested that participation in leisure activities and individual characteristics influences the PWB of older adults, particularly those experiencing chronic diseases (Glass, Mendes, Marottoli & Berkman, 1999; Payne, et al., 2006; Son, et al., 2007), this study also aims to investigate the role of participation in leisure activities on well-being. There were three main objectives for this study: 1) To investigate whether social well-being (i.e., social support and social adjustment) influenced the PWB of the young old; 2) To examine whether participation in leisure influenced the psychological well-being of the young-old; and lastly, 3) To explore the influence of individual characteristics (i.e., age, chronic disease, education, marital status) on respondents’ PWB. Based on existing literature, the hypotheses for this research were: 1) there will be a relationship between social support, social adjustment and PWB; 2) participation in leisure activities will be positively related to PWB; and 3) there will be a relationship between respondents’ individual characteristics and the presence of chronic disease on their PWB.

**Method**

Data for this study comes from the second *National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States* (MIDUS II), a national probability survey of non-institutionalized older adults. Using a random-digit dialing procedure with oversampling of older middle aged individuals, respondents
first participated in a 45 minute telephone interview followed by a self-administered return-by-mail questionnaire that took approximately two hours to complete. All respondents were English speaking and lived in a household with at least one telephone located in the 48 contiguous United States. The final sample (N = 1,387) for this study included ‘young-old’ adults ranging in age from 60 to 74 (Okun & Michel, 2006).

A measurement of respondents’ psychological well-being (PWB) was created using Ryff’s (1989) six dimension, 18-item short form index of PWB. Items were rated on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree; α = .89). Dimensions of social well-being were assessed using two scales: social support and social adjustment. Social support was assessed by investigating respondents’ familial support (M = 1.46; SD = .58; α = .83) and friend support (M = 1.67; SD = .63; α = .87). Items were rated on a 4-point scale asking respondents to indicate their levels of social support (1 = Not at all; 4 = A lot). Social adjustment was assessed using respondents’ sense of community (SOC; McMillan & Chavis, 1986). SOC is 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” (p.9). Four items from the data set were used to approximate respondents general SOC (e.g. perceptions of belonging, influence, integration and fulfillment of needs and shared emotional connection). Items were rated on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly agree, and 7 = strongly disagree). Items were reverse coded so that higher scores equated to higher SOC (M = 3.13, SD = .02; α = .62). Leisure was initially assessed by two domains: cognitive and social based leisure. However, the social leisure scale demonstrated extremely low alpha reliability (α = .15), so only cognitive leisure was used in this study. Cognitive leisure was defined as those activities primarily involving the individuals’ mind and was assessed by six activities (e.g., reading, doing crossword puzzles). All six items were rated on a 6-point scale (1 = daily to 6 = never) and were reverse coded (α = .62) with higher scores indicating greater involvement. Individual characteristics measured in this study included age (M = 66.25; SD = 4.22), gender (Female = 54.1%), education (M = 6.80; SD = 2.62; 3-4 years of college) and an index of chronic disease based on a possible 29 chronic conditions experienced in the past 12 months (M = 3.01, SD = 2.99). The data used in this study were analyzed using PASW 18.0. Descriptive statistics were performed for the socio-demographic characteristics and scales were created for all variables. Each scale was computed by a sum total score. Regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationships between the criterion variable of PWB and predictor variables of cognitive leisure, social well-being (e.g., social support and social adjustment) and demographic variables.

Results:

Respondent profile: Of the 1,387 respondents, 750 (54.1%) were female. The mean age of respondents was 66.25 years (SD = 4.22). The majority of the sample was white (97.1%) and married (69.5%). Of the respondents who participated in cognitive leisure activities, most read books at least once a day (M = 5.57; SD = 1.01), did crossword puzzles several times per month (M = 2.67; SD=1.96), played cards once a month (M = 2.12; SD = 1.50), went to an educational lecture at least once a month (M = 1.65; SD = 1.01), wrote to friends several times per month (M = 2.51; SD = 1.65), and used the internet at least once a week (M = 3.57; SD = 2.27). Although social forms of leisure did not hold together in scalar fashion, 25% of adults indicated participating in a sport club and 33% indicate they participated in clubs not related to sports as well. The following is a table of these findings:
The model predicting participants PWB was significant, $F(11,1375) = 49.23$ ($p \leq .001$) and explained approximately 28% of the variance. (See table for full results) The regression analyses indicated that as participation in cognitive leisure activities increased, the psychological well-being of the respondents increased. However, although not completely unexpected, increases in education, the presence of chronic disease, lower family and friend support and average social adjustment for these respondents were negatively associated with the adults’ PWB.

Discussion

Supportive of hypothesis one, a negative relationship was found between social well-being factors and that of PWB. Although research into the relationship between aspects of one’s social well-being has generally been found to have a positive relationship with PWB (Obst & Tham, 2009; Peterson, Speer and McMillan, 2009; Chavis & Newbrough, 1986), the negative relationship found in this study may be explained by looking at the mean values of the predicting variables (e.g. low social well-being factor mean values). In addition, as chronic disease ($M = 3.01$) had a negative relationship with PWB for this sample, this may further explain the negative relationship between social well-being and PWB. Citing Stiker (1997), Albrecht and Devlieger (1999) posited that chronic disease and the associated disability introduces chaos and uncertainty into an individual’s social contexts. Further the individual, their family, and their extended social networks can therefore be unprepared to recognize, and often unable to accept, many of the issues (i.e., physical, psychological and social) associated with the chronic disease. Particularly, chronic diseases, especially those that are highly disabling, can be found to disrupt expectations and accepted norms of well-being as we age (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). Supportive of hypothesis two is that the leisure activities that are primarily cognitive in nature were shown to positively influence respondents’ psychological well-being. This suggests that for those individuals with multiple chronic diseases and low social well-being, that participation in cognitive leisure activities may provide participants with a tool to increase their PWB when physically unable (Janke, Jones, Payne and Son, 2011). This is an area in need of further investigation. Lastly, supportive of hypothesis three, only having a higher education was negatively associated with PWB. As scales were constructed using the best approximation of concepts and constructs from the variables in this data set, these findings should be interpreted with caution.

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Physical activity (PA) is a significant public health issue and behavior settings theory suggests that health behaviors are shaped by the availability and characteristics of public and private spaces (Sallis et al., 1998; Wicker, 1987). Parks are acknowledged as important community resources for PA, especially for youth (Bedimo-Rung et al., 2005; Kaczynski & Henderson, 2007). However, better understanding what it is about these settings that attracts and encourages their active use requires reliable methods for auditing park environments (Brownson et al., 2009). At the same time, developing activity-friendly neighborhoods requires support from multiple constituencies (Sallis et al., 2006). This can be advanced by involving representatives from diverse groups in evaluating, advocating for, and promoting improved accessibility and design of community parks and open spaces. Consequently, the purpose of this study was to develop a tool that would enable diverse stakeholders to quickly and reliably audit community parks for their potential to promote youth PA. A secondary aim was to examine community stakeholders’ reactions to the process of developing and using the tool.

Accurate measurement of active living environments is important and has advanced rapidly (Brownson et al., 2009). Audit tools are one of three primary methods and are the best choice when assessing physical features not included in spatial databases, including the presence and quality of certain elements of neighborhoods (Brownson et al., 2009). To date, several tools for auditing parks have been developed (e.g., Bedimo-Rung et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2005; Saelens et al., 2006), although the reported use of each has been very limited to date (e.g., Kaczynski et al., 2008). Moreover, most of these tools were designed exclusively by and for researchers rather than by or for practitioners or the general public. Brownson et al. (2009) suggested “creating practical measures for community groups should be a goal for researchers. The incorporation of reliable observational measures into health advocacy efforts should be encouraged to provide an evidence base for advocacy” (p. 120). Despite this laudable goal, existing tools for auditing parks all contain important shortcomings in that they were not designed with an explicit eye toward youth PA, were not developed or tested with varied stakeholders, and/or are too lengthy for practical use by community members and non-researchers. Developing a user-friendly tool to assess the contents and quality of park environments can facilitate broader citizen engagement in active living research, thereby invoking both the fair treatment and meaningful involvement components of environmental justice (Floyd et al., 2009).

**Methods**

This study was conducted in collaboration with the Kansas City, Missouri Parks and Recreation Department (KCMOPARD). With their assistance, 34 community stakeholders from public health, parks and recreation, planning, non-profit agencies, youth agencies, education, business associations, municipal legislators, academia, and adult and youth park users and non-users were recruited. The study employed a sequential, multi-phase process including both qualitative and quantitative methods to ensure the new instrument is the product of input and feedback from a variety of potential stakeholders and is psychometrically sound. The seven stages of the project include: 1) a review of existing park audit tools to evaluate their user-friendliness and suitability to youth PA and to analyze the domains and specific items each
covers; 2) a planning workshop with community stakeholders to engage participants in the process of developing a revised park audit tool that emphasizes youth PA and use by non-researchers; 3) development of a revised park audit tool using information gathered in stages 1 and 2; 4) a training workshop with community stakeholders to present the preliminary version of the new tool and to train participants in its use for testing in field settings; 5) testing of the park audit tool, including item-by-item inter-rater reliability analyses for all components; 6) an evaluation workshop with community stakeholders to gain feedback on the tool’s overall usability and to gather suggestions on disseminating it throughout the community and beyond; and 7) dissemination of the park audit tool both locally and nationally to academic, professional, and lay audiences. To date, stages 1-6 of the project have been completed.

In creating the new park audit tool, focus group discussions from the initial workshop (stage 2) and three key informant interviews with researchers familiar with park audit tools were transcribed and coded by two reviewers for themes related to a) park elements conducive to facilitating PA, b) special considerations in evaluating a park’s potential to promote youth PA, and c) characteristics of a user-friendly park audit tool. We used this input as well as our review of existing park audit tools to develop a comprehensive yet parsimonious instrument. The tool was then reviewed and tested in a single park by stakeholders (stage 4) and revised for content and clarity. Pairs of stakeholders then independently audited 59 parks that varied with respect to size, geography, quality, facilities, amenities, and surrounding neighborhood. Kappa and percent agreement statistics were used to examine the inter-rater reliability of all items in the tool. Kappa accounts for chance agreement between raters and was interpreted using established guidelines (Landis & Koch, 1977). Percent agreement is more appropriate when little variability exists among ratings, and was considered acceptable if greater than 70% (Boarnet et al., 2006). Items which performed poorly (i.e., kappa<.40 or percent agreement<70%) were either removed from the instrument or modified based on feedback from the auditors gained in the final workshop (stage 6). Finally, to assess any impacts of stakeholder involvement in the process of developing and using the new tool, we administered a 1-page survey at the conclusion of the final workshop that contained both closed and open-ended questions.

Results

During the instrument development phase, stakeholders identified numerous points related to the three themes of interest. For example, it was noted that the tool should capture the presence of a wide range of facilities (e.g., trail, ball diamond) and supporting amenities (e.g., restroom) as well as their condition and the ability of visitors to access and use them. Likewise, attributes related to comfort (e.g., drinking fountains), safety (e.g., lighting), quality (e.g., litter), and access (e.g., public transit) were also important factors to measure. Specific considerations related to youth included such things as fencing, vandalism and graffiti, nearby traffic, shade, and separation between activity areas. Finally, desired qualities in a user-friendly tool included a length of 2-8 pages or 15-60 minutes, simple question response formats, space for subjective comments, and directions within the tool that were easy to follow and required minimal training.

These considerations were combined with our detailed review of existing instruments to create the new Community Park Audit Tool (CPAT). An accompanying guidebook containing more detailed information and definitions was also developed. The CPAT contains four sections entitled Park Information, Access and Surrounding Neighborhood, Park Activity Areas, and Park Quality and Safety. In total, the tool spans 6 pages (including a half-page of instructions and tips and directions throughout) and is largely designed with dichotomous (yes/no) or ordinal
(all/some/none) response formats. The completion time when used in diverse parks (1.1 to 193.2 acres) by community stakeholders ranged from 10 to 65 minutes, with an average of 32 minutes.

Inter-rater analyses demonstrated a very high degree of reliability for the vast majority of the items in the tool. For 10 items (all related to attributes of uncommon park activity areas), reliability could not be assessed because less than three pairs of ratings were available (Saelens et al., 2006). In the rest of the tool, for all but 3 items, percent agreement between the two auditors exceeded 70%, with most items well above 80% or higher. For 7 items, kappa was less than 0.40 (suggesting only poor to fair agreement), but percent agreement was above 70% for 4 of these. Low-reliability items were often related to subjective or temporally-variable park attributes such as noise, shade, and lighting. However, given their theoretical significance for park-based PA, many were retained after modifying the items or associated guidebook based on feedback received after the field testing stage (e.g., better defining an ‘external trail’).

Finally, during the concluding survey, 83% of stakeholders reported that their perceptions of the importance of both the built environment and parks for promoting PA had improved ‘moderately’ or ‘a lot’ over the course of the project. When asked about the process and utility of the tool, several themes emerged. Participants spoke of the networking and community building impacts of the tool development process: “The process encourages and fosters a sense of togetherness, team building and community”. In addition, they indicated that the tool helps increase a community's understanding of the importance of parks for PA: “It broadens awareness”. Finally, they also indicated that this will be a useful tool for advocacy efforts in communities: “It provides a nice vehicle for engaging grassroots citizens and constituents in a reasonably manageable process by which to assess parks and what they offer”.

Discussion

Parks are important community resources, especially for children (Frank et al., 2007; Roemmich et al., 2006), but their full potential for promoting PA may yet be unrealized (Mowen et al., 2008). Creation of a briefer, user-friendly tool that has been developed, tested, and disseminated with a wide range of community stakeholders can help facilitate greater participation by a broader constituency of individuals and groups interested in investigating and advocating for neighborhood parks (Brownson et al., 2009). Given its content validity and tested reliability and feasibility, the CPAT helps to fulfill this mandate. At 6 pages and 32 minutes to complete on average, the CPAT is considerably more efficient than most other park audit tools designed exclusively for park environments (e.g., Bedimo-Rung et al., 2006; Saelens et al., 2006). At the same time, as a result of our comprehensive development process involving reviews of existing audit tools, key informant interviews, and multiple stakeholder workshops, the CPAT is content valid, especially with respect to capturing attributes related to park quality or youth-oriented features. It also compares favorably with conceptual models that have been developed about elements of parks that are important for PA (Bedimo-Rung et al., 2005). Most importantly, though, unlike past tools designed for and tested with researchers, the CPAT was developed and tested with diverse community stakeholders. This process provides a model for future efforts to engage communities and future research should explore how using such tools can facilitate citizens’ cognitive and behavioral responses related to education and advocacy.

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Selected References


Physical education and extra-curricular school sport activities can facilitate physical activity. However, requirements for the frequency and duration of PE classes are typically quite low (i.e., 50-60 minutes per week) (Lee et al., 2006) and many school sport policies restrict participation to specific groups or individuals (Kanters et al., 2008). Policies that limit participation in school sports because of grade level exclusions or ability (e.g., varsity sports) significantly diminish the opportunities for children to participate in sport at a time when access to sports outside of school are also being reduced (Nache et al., 2005). For example, although 77% of middle schools and 91.3% of high schools reported providing interscholastic sports in 2006 (Lee et al., 2006), only 37% of boys and 33% of girls participated (Johnston, Delva, & O’Malley, 2007). A sport delivery model that limits participation negatively impact students’ intentions for continued involvement in sport. Opponents of restrictive school sport policies argue that different models of school sport delivery, such as intramurals, should be considered as an alternative for students who are less skilled or less interested in traditional varsity sports (Koplan et al., 2005). Intramurals introduce children to a variety of sports and leisure skill building activities. If schools are to be accessible environments for children to participate in sport, an understanding of the factors that contribute to or deter sport participation is needed to inform school policy and program decisions. Despite the potential of schools to provide physical activity opportunities, few researchers have examined the impact of different models for sport delivery (Nichol, Pickett, & Janssen, 2009). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the influence of two contrasting models of school sport delivery, varsity and intramurals, on factors associated with sport participation. Using the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), we sought to examine determinants for school sport involvement among middle school students and the potential impact of two different models for school sport delivery. We examined whether students participating in school sports delivered through an intramural model, which allowed participation among all students exhibited different attitudes, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms, and behavioral intentions from students participating in a varsity model, which restricted participation to only the best athletes. We also sought to determine if the relative importance of predictive factors of behavioral intention (i.e., attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control) varied when examining intramural and varsity sport participants. Finally, we employed a longitudinal design to examine the influence of seasonal variations in school sport participation and its predictive factors (Mummery et al., 2000; Rhodes, Macdonald, & McKay, 2006).

Methods
Four middle schools were selected to participate in this study as they had similar demographics. Two schools delivered sports exclusively through an intramural sports (IM) program while the other two provided sports exclusively through a varsity sport program (VS) and enforced a State level policy which restricted 6th graders from participating. Sports at the two IM schools were voluntary after-school programs and all students were encouraged to participate. Sport offerings
at the two VS schools required students to “try-out” and only the best athletes were selected to participate. An online questionnaire was administered at two time periods approximately 9-months apart to all students with consent to participate in the study (Time 1, \( N = 2,587 \), Response Rate = 90.0%) and (Time 2, \( N = 2,582 \), Response Rate = 89.8%). For the purposes of this study, only respondents who completed the survey at both Time 1 and Time 2 and answered the grade level and school sport participation items were included in the analysis (\( N = 2,021 \)). Determinants of sport participation were assessed using the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) as a framework for measurement and analyses. Item selection and item wording was based on the setting and purpose (sport participation) and previous research using the TPB with middle school-aged children (French et al., 2005; Rhodes et al., 2006; Trost et al., 2002). All items were scored using a four point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = disagree in a big way, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, to 4 = agree in a big way. Internal consistencies, using Cronbach’s alpha of the variables ranged from .67 to .88.

**Results**

Most 6th grade students agreed or strongly agreed that they intend to continue to play school sports. Although there were no differences in the intentions to participate in school sports between the two different school sport delivery models at the end of the school year (Time 2), at the beginning of the year (Time 1) varsity sport school (VS) students reported greater intentions to participate in sports than students from intramural sport schools (IM) (\( p < .05 \); effect-size \( r = .34 \)). Furthermore, the intentions among sixth grade students at IM schools increased significantly between Time 1 and Time 2 (\( p < .05 \); effect-size \( r = .31 \)) while intentions of 6th graders at VS schools remained the same. Results of a regression analysis to investigate differences in the determinants of students’ intention to participate in sports and how well they predicted intention based on school type and over time for 6th graders resulted in notable differences for affective attitudes (e.g., “sports are fun/enjoyable”) and instrumental attitudes (“sports are good for me”). In the Fall 6th grade data collection (Time 1), only the feeling that sports are fun and the feeling that sports could be played over the school year if they really wanted to predicted intention to play sports for VS students. However, results for the IM students in the Fall (Time 1) show that only perceived ability to play sports over the year predicted intention to play sports. A different pattern of findings emerged in the 6th grade Spring data collection (Time 2). For both VS and IM school students the feeling that sports are good for you along with perceived ability to play sports were significant predictors of intention to play sports. For 7th and 8th grade VS school students had significantly higher intentions at both Time 1 and Time 2. However, similar to the 6th grade sample, intentions for students in the IM schools increased significantly between Time 1 and Time 2 while intentions of students in the VS schools remained relatively stable across the two data collections. 7th and 8th grade VS school student attitudes toward sport, the perceived ability to play sports over the year, and the feeling that family or friends support their participation in sports were higher than those reported by students in IM schools. Regression results from the combined 7th and 8th grade students during the Fall data collection (Time 1) in VS schools indicated that both the feeling that sports are fun and good for me along with perceived access to sports, and support from family or friends significantly predicted intention to play sports. However, for students in IM schools, only the feeling that sports are fun and that there is perceived access to sports over the school year were significant predictors of intention. Similar to the 6th grade sample, a different pattern of findings

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1The response rate was calculated by the following formula: Number of students that completed the survey / (total school population – absentees) * 100.
was also noted for students in the combined 7th and 8th grade group at the Spring data collection (Time 2). For students in VS schools, the feeling the sports are fun, good for me, and supported by family or friends were significant predictors of intention. In IM schools, both forms of attitude were now significant predictors of intention to play sports in addition to perceived access to sports, and support from family or friends.

**Discussion**

Our results demonstrate that although students in IM schools had lower intentions than sixth graders in VS schools at the beginning of the school year, their intentions rose significantly over the course of the school year. The less competitive nature of intramural sports may explain why students in IM schools view sport participation with less regard at the beginning of the school year. Simply having an opportunity to play school sport seems to be the only consistent factor that facilitates an intention to play. However, results from the second data collection at the end of the school year suggest that participation in intramural sports over time seems to change participants’ perspective on intramural sports. By the end of the school year their attitudes about sport and supportive family or friends become important factors that facilitate an intention to participate in sports. Therefore, policies that restrict participation in school sports due to grade level or ability may inhibit children’s intentions for sport participation. Furthermore, restrictive school sport participation policies may also prevent many children from developing a positive attitude about sport and developing and recognizing the importance of supportive family or friends. School policymakers and education administrators continue to struggle with diminishing resources for public education and must decide whether to allocate limited funds to sport programs. A growing obesity epidemic and inactive middle school population coupled with research findings that indicate athletes are more physically active, engage in more positive health behaviors and in fewer negative behaviors warrant that school sports should be considered in school health policy and planning (Sirard et al., 2006; Taliaferro, Rienzo, & Donavan, 2010). Moreover, the results of our study suggest a singular model of school sport that only includes highly competitive varsity sports may limit the full potential of school sports. The addition of intramural sports as a complement to existing varsity sports are likely to encourage participation among a much larger segment of the student population and could reduce sport dropout rates at a time when adolescents have a desire to try new and different activities. Policy makers and school officials should explore ways to introduce or expand intramural sports in middle schools in an effort to accommodate more students and facilitate greater involvement in sports. A unique and possibly limiting factor of our study was that all participating schools were located in predominantly urban areas with numerous opportunities for community based sport participation. One might argue that students restricted from playing or are not good enough to play on school sport teams have ample opportunity to participate on a community sponsored sport team. While this may be a reasonable alternative for students in families who have the resources to enrol their children in community sports, low income families and/or families living in rural environments are less likely to have the same opportunities (Edwards, Kanters, & Bocarro, in press) and rely on school sponsored sports as a primary outlet for physical activity. Future research should attempt to examine the impact of different school athletic models in rural communities and/or communities with high concentrations of low-income families. Finally, for adolescents, motives for sport participation change over time and are influenced by the structure of sport and models that limit participation. Facilitating an active lifestyle and enduring involvement in sports may depend on school sport delivery models that include a variety of sport programs designed to encourage participation among all segments of the schools population.
Selected References
Taekwondo as serious leisure

Taekwondo originated in Korea 2000 years ago as a traditional martial art, and is practiced by many people across the globe. Based on a national survey administered in 2005 by the Korean government, there are 70 million Taekwondo practitioners in 190 countries throughout the world (Kim, 2006). Some studies have analyzed the physical and social benefits of Taekwondo participation. Kim (2009) examined the physical benefits of Taekwondo participation for 80 Korean youth and reported that Taekwondo activity contributed to their physical self-concept, physical strength, perseverance, and flexibility. In addition, Lim (2009) explored the relationships between Taekwondo participation and youths’ social skills and found that the youth participating in Taekwondo reported significantly higher levels of perseverance and self-expression than non participants. Stebbins (1982; 1992) used the term “serious leisure” to refer to the orientation of people who are acutely committed to participation in a particular recreation activity. For example, Lee, Kim, and Song (2005) examined the experience of Taekwondo participation as serious leisure by interviewing 12 female college students in Korea. Four key themes associated with the benefits of serious leisure emerged: (a) develop a sense of perseverance, (b) experience enjoyment, (c) discover the meaning of Taekwondo activity, and (d) increase sense of familiarity of Taekwondo. The women emphasized that Taekwondo training played an important role in cultivating their body and mind as well as accomplishing their self-development. Given the popularity of Taekwondo and the personal and social benefits (e.g., social ability, social skills, self-control, self-expression, confidence) that can be obtained via participation, there is merit in exploring how Taekwondo participation is related to health and life satisfaction. More specifically, participants who differ in their levels of involvement in Taekwondo activity may experience differentiating health-related outcomes. Therefore, there is a need for research exploring the relationship between Taekwondo participation within a context of serious leisure and associated benefits. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between Taekwondo as a possible serious leisure pursuit and associated life satisfaction and perceived health. To achieve this purpose we established two primary goals.

The first goal was to examine patterns of serious leisure qualities (e.g., perseverance, significant effort, career development, identification, and unique ethos) that represent the nature of serious leisure among Taekwondo participants. We hypothesized that Taekwondo participants will report experiencing different levels of serious leisure qualities and these variables would cluster. The second goal was to investigate how different levels of serious leisure qualities are associated with life satisfaction and perceived health. Consequently, we hypothesized that: Taekwondo participants who report experiencing higher levels of serious leisure qualities will report higher levels of life satisfaction and health perception.

A variety of recreation activities can be vehicles for serious leisure. For this study, the researchers selected Taekwondo as a possible form of serious leisure. An examination of the ways in which Taekwondo is associated with serious leisure may provide new insight into the body of knowledge related to serious leisure. While numerous research investigations have been conducted examining the concept of serious leisure and associated emotional and social benefits (e.g., Mackellar, 2009; Major, 2001; Patterson, 2000), no studies have explored the relationship between Taekwondo participation as a serious leisure pursuit and its association with life satisfaction and perceived health.
Methods

A total of 168 adults who were enrolled at eight Taekwondo academies in different cities in the Midwest United States participated in this study. The sample was composed of 103 males (61.3%) and 65 females (38.7%) with ages ranging from 18 to 65 years ($M = 30.34$ years; $SD = 12.75$). Most participants reported being Caucasians (72.6%), while 17.3% were Asian, 5.4% African American, and 2.4% Hispanic. Although the sample was highly educated with 45.8% reporting having more than a college education, only 58.3% were employed full-time due to many respondents currently being full-time students.

Measures

Life Satisfaction. Diener, Emmons, Larson, and Griffin’s (1985) Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) was used to assess global life satisfaction. The SWLS is rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to and 7 = strongly agree) with higher scores indicating greater life satisfaction.

Health perception. Perceived health was the global health indicator used in this study and was assessed by asking respondents a single question, “In general, you would say your health is?” Possible responses ranged from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent).

Serious Leisure. Serious leisure was measured using the Serious Leisure Inventory Measure (SLIM; Gould, Moore, McGuire, & Stebbins, 2008). The SLIM is a 54-item questionnaire with a nine-point Likert scale (1 = completely disagree, 9 = completely agree). Theoretically, it is based on the construct of serious leisure (Stebbins, 1992) and measures central qualities of serious leisure such as perseverance, leisure career, significant effort, unique ethos, and identification with pursuit.

Results

A hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted to segment participants based on values obtained from SLIM. It was determined that the appropriate number of clusters according to the Dendrogram was three. Then, a nonhierarchical cluster technique (K-means cluster analysis) was conducted on the SLIM data that divided the sample into three clusters. These clusters were retained as an independent variable. The first cluster accounted for 19.6% of the sample ($n = 33$), the second represented 52.9% ($n = 89$), and the third 27.3% ($n = 46$). These clusters were named: (a) novices, (b) serious sages, and (c) journeymen.

The Novices are best described as participants who have relatively limited experience in Taekwondo reporting an average of less than 3 years (32 months) of participation. They were investing significant effort in the activity and developed a social world with their chosen pursuit. The number of people who: (a) had obtained at least a college education, (b) were married, and (c) were employed in this cluster were the lowest across the three clusters. The Serious Sages scored high on every aspect of serious leisure and were the most experienced participants with an average of almost 8 years (95 months) of participation. This group is uniquely represented by the least number of Caucasians (68.5%) and most married participants (44.9%) when compared to the other clusters. Forty percent of the Serious Sages were females and 48% had at least a college education. While they demonstrated persistence and practice to improve their skills, they were less likely to develop subcultures or identify themselves as Taekwondo devotees despite their average 5+ years of experience (67 months).

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to explore cluster differences in life satisfaction and health perception. The overall mean SWLS score was 5.68 ($SD = .87$); respondents generally agreed that they were satisfied with their lives and their overall mean health perception was 4.05 ($SD = .73$). The MANOVA revealed significant differences among clusters on dependent variables [$Wilks’ F (4, 328) = 3.93, p < .01$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .046$]. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on each dependent variable as a follow-up test to the MANOVA. Cluster differences were significant for life
Taekwondo as serious leisure

satisfaction \[ F (2, 165) = 5.29, p < .01, \text{ partial } \eta^2 = .060 \] and health perception \[ F (2, 165) = 5.09, p < .01, \text{ partial } \eta^2 = .058 \]. Tukey Post hoc tests for two dependent variables indicated that Serious Sages reported significantly higher life satisfaction and more positive health perceptions. No significant differences were found between Novices and Journeymen.

**Discussion**

This study represents an initial exploration of the relationship between Taekwondo participation as a serious leisure pursuit and associated life satisfaction and perceived health. Much of the research examining effects of serious leisure has focused on personal and social benefits gained by participants. Although many researchers have examined the topic of serious leisure (e.g., Mackellar, 2009; Major, 2001; Patterson, 2000), this study uniquely explored connections between serious leisure pursuits and associated life satisfaction and perceived health. This study extends previous research using qualitative data by supporting the contention that involvement in serious leisure is associated with well-being (e.g., Brown, McGuire & Voelkl, 2008). Findings of this study provide further support for the belief that personally meaningful activity may be positively related to a sense of well-being and a person’s reported quality of life.

Tsaur and Liang (2008) demonstrated that serious leisure participants tend to develop subcultures composed of special beliefs, values, norms, and performance standards. More specifically, Lee, Kim, and Song (2005) concluded that Taekwondo participants who had a strong commitment to this leisure pursuit understood the specific meanings of Taekwondo culture and philosophy and acquired performance standards and techniques. Thus, this study extends the contention by Lee and colleagues that Taekwondo participants may form and understand different subcultures associated with East Asian philosophy.

Results of this study are consistent with previous research on leisure, life satisfaction, and health (Baker & Palmer, 2006; Caldwell, 2005; Passmore, 2003). Serious Sages reported having higher levels of life satisfaction and perceived health as compared to Novices and Journeymen. Based on this finding, it appears that involvement in a leisure pursuit is associated with life satisfaction and health. Therefore, similar to previous research by Driver and Bruns (1999), Iso-Ahola and Park (1996), and others, there is support for their conclusion that serious leisure qualities may contribute to a sense of well-being and good health.

This study also implies that involvement in Taekwondo provided participants with a well-established social network and a meaningful activity. This conclusion is similar to the observation by Iso-Ahola and Park (1996) that companionship and friendship were created and developed by Taekwondo participation which helps to buffer life stress and enhance psychological well-being. Results of this study suggest that Taekwondo participants who have serious leisure experiences reported high health perceptions and life satisfaction. This study provides further evidence of the value of engaging in serious leisure. People who are pursuing leisure with commitment and enthusiasm may find that their participation is positively associated with life satisfaction and health in a variety of ways.

Leisure service providers can create contexts that offer the opportunity for participants to engage in serious leisure, as is typically done with Taekwondo instruction. One of the more important aspects of serious leisure is the opportunity to engage in recreation activities over an extended period of time (Stebbins, 1992). To achieve this goal it is important to set up systems to allow for some recreation activities to be offered for several consecutive years. Another important is to provide a venue for demonstration of knowledge and skills (Stebbins, 1986). Therefore, providing special events that allow participants to demonstrate their prowess to members of the community and their families could help promote a commitment to the activity. Furthermore, creating opportunities for social
connections between participants who are involved in similar leisure pursuits could be an important factor that helps expand their social network and increase their social supports.

References
Over the past few decades, a vast amount of research has focused on improving the relations between in-group members (similar to self) and out-group members (dissimilar to self) and developing positive intergroup contacts, with the hope of illuminating how interracial tension and conflicts might be alleviated. Stephan, Ybarra and Bachman (1999) explained that individuals distinguish between in- and out-group members based on the individual’s dissimilarity to him or herself, including characteristics such as race, culture and ethnicity.

Allport (1954) proposed a theoretical framework for the intergroup contact theory through which to understand how intergroup relations might be improved. The underlying assumption of the intergroup contact theory is that an increase in the number of intergroup contacts and positive interactions between in- and out-group members leads to a reduction in prejudice and intergroup anxiety (Dixon & Rosenbaum, 2004; McLaren, 2003; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008).

Research also suggests that intergroup contacts are closely associated with individuals’ racial and ethnic attitudes (Dinh, Weinstein, Nemon, & Rondeau, 2008; Feddes, Noack, & Rutland, 2009). For example, Van Laar, Levin, Sinclair and Sidanius (2005) described data from a five-year longitudinal study during which they examined the effects of living with roommates from multi-ethnic out-groups at a multi-ethnic university. Their findings indicated that inter-ethnic roommate contacts positively affected ethnic attitudes and behaviors, such as reductions in ethnic and racial prejudice. However, other researchers have demonstrated that intergroup contacts under conditions of inequality can yield suspicion, fear, resentment, disturbance and, at times, open conflict (Stephan et al, 1998, 1999). Stephan and Stephan (1985) argued that when in- and out-group members come into contact, a certain level of anxiety called intergroup anxiety may be produced. Without fully understanding the two groups’ cultural and ethnic differences, a certain level of anxiety and uncertainty develop and form negative stereotypes, prejudice and/or hatred.

One possible way to remove negative feelings toward specific out-groups is to participate in organized activities. An organized activity is a context in which the in- and out-group members have positive interactions and contacts because the participants have aspirations and purposes associated with the activity. For example, Moody (2001) demonstrated that intergroup interactions occurred within the context of integrated extracurricular activities among adolescents in grades 7 to 12, which promoted cross-group friendships. Thus, participating in organized activities that occur within positive contexts may facilitate positive cross-cultural contacts, cultural and ethnic understanding, and develop cross-group friendships. Unfortunately, a little previous research exists examining the relationship between organized activities and intergroup relations.

**Study Purpose**

The primary focus for the current study is to explore the relationship between organized activity involvement and intergroup relations, such as cross-group contacts, cross-group friendships, and cultural and ethnic understanding. The first objective was to compare the participants of the extracurricular activity and the nonparticipants in terms of intergroup relations. The second
objective focused on whether participating in the community service activity was associated with intergroup relations. We hypothesized that the organized activity participants would have more cross-cultural contacts, develop cross-cultural friendships and have enhanced cultural and ethnic understandings than the nonparticipants.

Methods

The sample for this study consisted of 523 college students enrolled in business programs at a university in the northeastern United States. A total of 606 questionnaires were collected and after the removal of the incomplete surveys, 523 questionnaires were used in the data analysis.

The sample was composed of 287 males (54.9%) and 236 females (45.1%) with ages that ranged from 18 to 20 years. Most of the participants were Caucasian (86%), while 4.2% were Asian American, 3.1% were African American, 3.1% were Hispanic and 2.5% were international students. Of the participants’ parents’ educational level, 47.8% had bachelor’s degrees and 32.5% had graduate degrees.

Cultural and ethnic understanding. To measure cultural and ethnic understanding, we used LaBahn and Harich’s (1997) Cultural Sensitivity Scale (CSEN) as this scale focuses on cultural awareness, cultural and ethnic understanding, and a reduction in intergroup bias. A four-item questionnaire was used and the participants rated the degree to which they agreed or disagreed.

Cross-cultural contact. As utilized in Van Laar et al.’s (2005) study, we used a single item to measure cross-cultural contact: “I would like to experience more cross-cultural contact” (7 point Likert-type scale).

Cross-group friendship. Pettigrew et al.’s (2007) single item that measures cross-group friendships was adapted, and the participants were asked, “I have friends who are culturally and ethnically different from me” (7 point Likert-type scale).

Activity participation. Involvement in organized activities was measured using an adaptation of the Social Integration Scale developed by Pascarella & Terenzini (1980). The participants were asked to rate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with the following statements on 7 point Likert-type a scale (a) “While attending the university, I had opportunities for personal involvement in community-based activities” and (b) “While attending the university, I engaged in community-based activities.” In order to measure extracurricular activity participation, the participants were asked using a scale of “1- strongly disagree” to “7-strongly agree”: “While attending the university, I participated in school-related extracurricular activities.”

Results

The multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed in order to compare the cultural values of the students who participated versus those who did not participate in the activities (i.e., extracurricular and community service). When comparing the cultural values by extracurricular activity groups, MANOVA indicated a significant multivariate effect (Hotelling’s $T^2 = .02, F = 3.89, p < .01$). Further analysis indicated that those who participated in extracurricular activities scored higher on cultural understanding, cross-cultural contact and cross-group friendship. The MANOVA results also revealed that significant differences existed between the two groups of community service activity participants (Hotelling’s $T^2 = .01, F = 2.67, p < .01$). A follow-up analysis showed that those who participated in community service activities had higher scores on cultural understanding and cross-cultural contact.

To determine the extent to which culture variables are related to different group memberships, discriminant function analyses (DFA) were performed. These analyses determined the accuracy with which the variables classified participants and non-participants of the activities. The results of the first DFA, which examined the extracurricular activities groups, indicated that the
variables correctly classified 59.4% of the case participants and non-participants. Further examination of the classification results indicated that the discriminant function was more accurate when classifying those individuals who participated in the extracurricular activities (62.7% correctly classified) as opposed to those who did not participate in the extracurricular activities (49.6% correctly classified). The second DFA investigated the classification of the community service activity groups. This analysis revealed that 56.1% of the original grouped cases were correctly classified. Given that a random assignment in this two-group situation would result in approximately a 50% correct classification, the discriminant function offers an improvement since 59.4% and 56.1% of original grouped cases were correctly classified.

**Discussion**

This study is an initial exploration of the relationship between organized activity involvement and intergroup relations. The results of this study show that organized activity involvement is positively associated with intentions of cross-cultural contact, the formation of cross-group friendships, and cultural and ethnic understanding. It indicates that organized activity provides a context in which college students with different cultural and ethnic backgrounds experience positive intergroup contacts and interactions that may help reduce avoidance of contacts and enhance cultural and ethnic understanding.

This study demonstrated that the participants who experienced higher levels of organized activity involvement reported more intentions of cross-cultural contacts, which implies that organized activities provide opportunities through which participants can be exposed to extended social interactions with individuals of different cultures or ethnicities, which allows them to establish and develop a friendship circle.

Participation in organized activities was positively related to the formation of cross-group friendships. These participants established and developed a sense of friendship with culturally and ethnically different individuals. Previous research (i.e., Cameron et al., 2006; Edginton et al., 1995) has demonstrated that intimate and close contacts generated by meaningful activities are important factors by which to generate and develop cross-group friendships and acknowledge cultural and ethnic differences. This study extends the fact that intimate and close friendships are developed via organized activities regardless of race, ethnicity and culture.

Most of the research to date has stressed the crucial role of cross-group friendship as the facilitator of the reduction of prejudice and negative stereotypes (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Eller & Abrams, 2003; Schwartz & Simmons, 2001; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008; Page-Gould, Mendoza-Denton, & Tropp, 2008). Based on these previous findings, we indicate that cross-group friendships created by organized activities serve as the medium by which to reduce intergroup prejudice and negative feelings and facilitate the formation of cross-group friendships.

Another notable finding is that participation in organized activities helps participants have a better understanding of culture, race, and ethnicity. As noted, participation in organized activities enables participants to acknowledge cultural and ethnic differences and be culturally sensitive. Thus, leisure is an important vehicle for cultural reconciliation and sensitivity as it improves the cultural and ethnic understanding between the participants.

**References**


Along with increasing the diversity of leisure activities, leisure participants have more participation options than ever (Siderelis, Naber, & Leung, 2010). These options indicate the alternatives for different destination and facility options within the same leisure activity as well as options for different types of leisure activities. Since the participation options within the same leisure activity have been increased, research attempts should be made to examine the underlying reasons to select certain destinations for certain activities. To answer this question, Korean golfers are a suitable subject because there are many destination alternatives available to the Korean recreational golfers. These include both domestic and overseas golf clubs, in/outdoor driving ranges, and virtual golf clubs (Korean Golf Course Business Association, 2010).

The perceived place value of golf clubs should be determined by examining golfers' psychological motivation through which a certain golf club is selected (Page, 2003). While motivation indicates the psychological mechanism to arouse activity, Destination Selective Motivation (DSM) presents the primary reasons for tourists to select a certain destination (Kaplanidou, 2009; Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001). The past DSM studies revealed two factors: environmental and personal factors. Environmental factors included leisure participation, deviation, relaxation, and socialization while personal factors included leisure activity, pride, and competition (Josiam, Smeatom & Clements, 1998; Petrick, Backman, Bixler, & Norman, 2001). The findings of DSM studies have provided meaningful information for developing marketing strategies focusing on the visitors’ perceived place value (Yoon, & Uysal, 2005). Thus, the purpose of this study is to delineate golf users’ DSM, and to profile golfer groups and preferred golf clubs (place) based on DSM.

Methods
The survey instrument included Destination Selective Motivation (DSM), Preference Golf Clubs (PGC), and demographic information items. For DSM, 27 items were created based on past tourism motivation studies (Andereck, & Caldwell, 1994; Kim & Kim, 2009; Oh, Yang & Kim, 2008; Petrick et al, 2001; Tassiopoulos & Haydam, 2007). A seven-point Likert-scale was applied ranging from “not at all” to “very much”. In PGC, there were four choices of golf destination types: 1) overseas golf clubs 2) domestic golf clubs, 3) golf ranges, and 4) virtual golf clubs. A total of 249 questionnaires were collected from the south-eastern part of Korea. SPSS 18.0 was used for data analyses. First, descriptive statistics (e.g., mean and standard deviation) was tested to define demographic characteristics. Second, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to extract potential variables from 27 DSM items. Then, the extracted variables were used with two different approaches: 1) MANOVA was conducted to examine the perceived characteristics of each golf club by golfers, and 2) cluster analysis and correspondent analysis were conducted to identify user styles (e.g., social purpose or improving skills) and match these styles to the preference golf clubs.

Results
The average age of respondents was 31.0 years old (SD=12.09). In terms of the four
different preference golf club types (i.e., PGC), 38.2% \((n=95)\) participants selected domestic golf clubs, 35.7% \((n=89)\) participants chose golf ranges, 13.7% \((n=34)\) respondents selected virtual golf clubs and 12.4% \((n=31)\) participants indicated their preferred golf destination was overseas golf clubs. Based on EFA, five DSM factors were extracted as 1) Socialization, 2) Facility Convenience, 3) Game itself, 4) Dignity/Deviation, and 5) Price factors. Each of the DSM factors showed acceptable internal consistency scores ranging from \(\alpha = .78\) to \(\alpha = .88\). For the MANOVA analysis, five DCM factors were set as dependent variables and four different preference golf club types (i.e., PGC) were set as independent variables. The results of MANOVA analysis revealed that there were significant differences among the four groups of PGC on all five factors of DSM (see Table 1). Socialization \((F = 9.41, p < .05)\), Facility Convenience \((F = 9.88, p < .05)\), Dignity/Deviation \((F = 14.13, p < .05)\), Game itself \((F = 3.23, p < .05)\), and Price \((F = 4.39, p < .05)\). Post hoc tests (i.e., Tukey HDS) revealed the differences among the four groups of PGC. First, for Socialization and Facility Convenience, the golf range group had a significantly lower mean score than the other three groups. Second, for Dignity/Deviation, both the golf range and virtual golf clubs groups had a significantly lower mean score than both domestic and overseas golf clubs. Third, for Price, virtual golf clubs group had a significantly higher mean score than the other three groups. Last, for the Game itself, there was no statistical difference among the four groups; however, the mean score of overseas golf clubs group was higher than those of the in/outdoor driving range group.

Cluster analysis indentified four groups, entitled 1) Social, 2) Economic, 3) Progressive, and 4) Passive users. These names were identified from the results of the five DSM factors. For instance, social users \((M = 4.13)\) had a higher score in Socialization and Dignity/Deviation factors, economic users \((M = 3.92)\) revealed significantly higher mean scores in Price factor, Progressive users \((M = 5.6)\) had a higher overall score than other groups, and Passive users \((M = 2.65)\) remarkably had the lowest score except for the Game itself factor. Correspondence analysis investigated the relationship between preference golf clubs (PGC) and four types of golf users classified by cluster analysis. First, progressive golf users were revealed to prefer overseas golf clubs. Second, social golf users prefer domestic golf clubs. Last, economic and passive golf users favor golf ranges and virtual golf clubs (see Figure 1).

**Discussions**

The purpose of this study was to 1) examine the perceived characteristics of four different types of golf clubs, 2) identify golfer styles, and 3) match the golfers' styles to their preferred golf clubs. The results of this study indicated the perceived characteristics of each golf club based on the destination. First, three golf clubs were perceived as the places for socialization and convenience destinations except for golf ranges where users might visit for only golf practice.
Second, golfers feel Dignity/Deviation at only regular golf clubs that have at least 18 holes. Additionally, golfers considered the domestic golf clubs to be significantly more expensive than overseas golf clubs. Last, all four golf clubs were appropriate places to improve golf skills. These findings indicated some connection between the unique characteristics of each of the golf clubs and the golfers' reasons for selecting a certain golf club. For example, virtual golf clubs are a fairly new start-up golf business form, setting its advantages on reasonable price and social entertainment. Consistent with these characteristics of virtual golf clubs, MANOVA indicated that golfers who were categorized as price and socialization groups prefer virtual golf clubs.

The results identified four types of golf users' styles, Social, Economic, Progressive, and Passive users. Additionally, the correspondent analysis allowed for the pairing the golfers' styles to their preferred golf clubs. The findings indicated first, Social users prefer domestic golf clubs. Socialization items in this study included a few questions related to golf activities which related to business purpose. Therefore, the domestic golf clubs are appropriate places for this purpose. Second, Economic users were strongly connected with golf ranges and virtual golf clubs. These findings are the same as the result of MANOVA that indicated regular golf clubs were perceived as costly places. Third, Progressive users prefer overseas golf clubs. This finding might indicate golfers who want to go to overseas golf clubs expect more than just a game of golf (e.g., cultural exposure, tours and relaxation). Last, Passive users were not significantly associated with a specific golf club. However, these people had a very weak preference for golf ranges and virtual golf clubs, but with higher expectation for the game itself. Therefore, this group may prefer functional golf clubs while improving their golf skills.

In sum, the findings of this study shed light on golfer typology and preference for golf clubs based on golfers' DSM, as well as the relationship between golfer's style and four preference golf clubs. This study, thus, revealed that golfer had various purposes when selecting golf clubs (places), and they intent to choose golf clubs based on characteristics of the destination.

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Selected References


Introduction

Leisure is considered to be among the key factors that contribute to the stability and quality of marriages and happiness of spouses (Crawford, Houts, Huston & George, 2002). Even though many studies examined the relationship between leisure and marital lives (e.g., Johnson, Zabriskie, & Hill, 2006), their main focus was usually on the mainstream (Anglo) population (Crawford et al., 2002). Studies exploring leisure in inter-ethnic and inter-racial unions are very rare (Hibbler & Shinew, 2002). However, as the American society becomes increasingly multicultural (Floyd, Bocarro, & Thompson, 2008), intercultural marriages in the U.S. become more common. In light of this, the main goal of this study was to explore how different cultural backgrounds of spouses and immigration experience of partners influence leisure among Korean–American and East-European–American married couples. In particular, the objectives of the study were to examine: 1) the types of leisure activities engaged in by international couples, 2) changes in leisure patterns of international couples following marriage, 3) constraints on leisure faced by international couples, and 4) benefits of leisure experienced by international couples. Cross-cultural adaptation theory, which models the interaction between the individual and his or her host environment, has been employed in this study (Kim, 2001). According to this theory, through continuous interaction with various aspects of the cultural environment, people undergo changes by integrating culturally acceptable concepts, attitudes, and actions. This internalized learning enables people to interact easily with others “in the cultural community who share similar images of reality and self” (p. 47).

Methods

In order to collect data, 24 interviews (including 12 face-to-face and 12 phone interviews) were conducted between April and July 2009. Spouses from six Korean–American and six East-European (Russian and Ukrainian)–American couples were interviewed separately. Among all the couples, wives were first generation immigrants and husbands were U.S.-born Caucasian Americans. Snowball sampling was used to recruit participants. East-European - American couples resided in small towns in South Central, Southern, and Pacific Northwestern states. The majority of Korean - American couples was recruited in a medium-size Midwestern town, except for two couples who resided in a large city in the Midwest. Interviews, which lasted between 30 and 60 minutes, were conducted in English, Korean, or Russian depending on the interviewees’ preference. Pseudonyms were given to all informants to ensure their anonymity. Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim. Interview transcripts were analyzed using constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The data were classified into four major themes: 1) types of leisure activities engaged in by the intercultural couples, 2) changes in leisure patterns following marriage, 3) constraints on leisure experienced by the couples, and 4) benefits of leisure derived by the couples. The following stages of data analysis allowed to identify the sub-themes under each major category. To increase trustworthiness of this study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), all interviews were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants. Interview transcripts were sent to interviewees for their verification and feedback.

Findings

Leisure activities engaged in by the couples. In order to provide a context for the study, the interviewees were first asked about the activities they engaged in as couples. The leisure of
the interviewed couples included going out to dinner, shopping, socializing with friends, reading, watching TV, exercising, participating in outdoor activities, attending concerts and shows, going to museums and theaters, as well as traveling around the U.S. and abroad. For instance, one of the Korean wives, Jina, said, “We go to movies, concerts, and go to meet friends. Sometimes we go for a walk. What I most frequently would like to do is going for a movie. We have lunch together or talk.” One of the Russian wives, Marina, commented, “If we have time we like to go out, hang out at the park, do outside activities.” Another East-European wife added that she traveled together with her husband, watched movies and read together, hiked, and socialized with friends. Most of the leisure activities experienced by the spouses resembled the ones enjoyed by the “mainstream” American population. Changes in their leisure behavior related to cross-cultural contact seemed to be more subtle and involve exposure to new leisure pastimes (ballet for American husbands or reading American novels for the immigrant wives), new styles of leisure (e.g., different interaction styles during social occasions), and changes in frequency of participation in selected leisure activities (e.g., decrease in social leisure among the wives).

Reasons for changes in leisure patterns among the spouses. Marriage brings a variety of changes to people’s lives and leisure is not an exception. Leisure patterns of the couples changed following marriage due to a number of factors. Some of them were similar to those experienced by “mainstream” couples and related to entering a new stage in life (marriage, birth of children) or move to a new environment (move between cities in the U.S., relocation into a new house or apartment). Others, however, appeared to be specific to international marriages and related to immigration of wives into a new country and the need to adapt to a new socio-cultural environment both at home (with their Anglo spouse) and outside (leisure activities engaged in with husbands’ friends and family members of different cultural backgrounds). In particular, international wives commented about how the need to adapt to a new environment shaped their leisure lives. For instance, Olga said, “When I moved over here I did not have many people to hang out with and the infrastructure does not allow a lot of hanging out. Mostly you have to drive somewhere, you can’t just walk around and do nothing.” Jina, a Korean interviewee added, “When I was in Korea, I spent much time with my friends. When I came here, I have fewer friends to meet. I have different activities and different dynamics of leisure.”

Constraints on leisure experienced by intercultural couples. International couples identified a number of unique constraints affecting their leisure, many of which were related to cultural differences, limited social networks, language barrier, different leisure socialization, as well as differences in work and leisure ethics among the four countries. One of the husbands described problems he experienced communicating with his Korean wife: “We communicate in English obviously, so if she makes some mistakes in English, that doesn’t bother me. But there’s a problem if there’s more than one way to understand something. Tiny little differences in language can cause big argument that lasts several hours and I’m always nervous about it.” Different communication styles were also brought up by Korean and East-European wives who found American way of expressing emotions to be more reserved and indirect. As one of the Korean wives commented, “For Koreans, when we have conversation, in our spirit, we cry together and are happy together, but Americans never say bad words to family members. Americans are good at saying ‘hi’ or ‘bye,’ but never show the bottom of their heart.” Cultural differences also seemed to significantly constrain leisure of international couples. For instance, a husband of a Korean wife commented, “One of the things she does is, she insists on paying for meals sometimes when we have dinner with other people. This would cause some tension because it is fine if you want to treat your friends sometimes, but she is always insisting on doing
it all of the time. It kind of breaks my cultural norm.” An interesting finding was related to different work and leisure ethic among the U.S., Korea, Russia and Ukraine. While Korean wives believed their American husbands preferred leisure over work, the East European women commented that they worked too much. Injoo, a Korean wife commented, “Well, Koreans, we finish our work first. Work always comes first. We could not rest without completing it. But, Americans, they rest during their work. I think it’s a cultural difference.” On the contrary, an East-European wife, Olga argued, “Leisure is a pretty major part of my life because I live for weekends and my free time. Unlike American people, who are proud how many hours they worked this week, free time is more important to me. So actually, I think that it’s one of things that my marriage definitely could use improvement, along with the way he dresses.”

Benefits of leisure for international couples. Leisure provided a number of benefits for the international couples. It helped spouses to learn about the culture of their partner, master new social environment after immigration, learn new languages (not only English but also Korean and Russian), and improve marital satisfaction. For instance, Anna said, “He likes to watch these old shows from 60-70s. We try to watch together because something can be learned, I ask him questions, why is it this way, who is it? I started to understand English better, their humor, started to understand the music he likes.” John commented, “We both spend time with Korean people. That certainly has been my leisure, having Korean food, and learning Korean too.” Brandon, a husband of an East-European wife, believed that spending time together in a relaxed atmosphere improved communication and allowed spouses to discuss everyday matters: “I think if you don’t spend that quality time that you can with your spouse you grow apart and that will cause problems. If you don’t speak with your spouse and communicate, you don’t have nothing. You have to have a relaxed time with each other, you have to have that time together, speak with each other, so you can tell each other what’s going on and love and care for each other.”

Discussion/Conclusion

The findings of the study showed that leisure plays important roles in cross-cultural adaptation (Kim, 2001), providing people opportunity to interact with others, including their spouses and their broader social networks. These interactions allow immigrant spouses to learn about the culture of the host society and adjust to the new environment. Regardless of the cultural background, shared leisure also contributes to healthy marriage (Johnson et al., 2006) and increasing satisfaction, interaction and stability among family members (Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001). International couples, however, experience a number of unique constraints that challenge their leisure, including cultural differences, language barrier, and differences in work/leisure ethic. By helping to identify these factors and highlight the important benefits of leisure, this study provides valuable information for leisure practitioners and marriage counselors. In particular, we recommend that development of joint programs for spouses that help them learn about cultural traditions, increase language proficiency, and develop common hobbies could maximize benefits international unions derive from their leisure engagements.

Future research should employ a variety of different methodologies, including surveys, to examine leisure patterns among intercultural unions. Findings of such studies could be more generalizable and, thus, suitable for recreation practitioners. Moreover, the exploration of leisure patterns of international marriages among different ethnic groups is recommended since different cultural norms may lead to different patterns and issues related to leisure and marriage.

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CONTRIBUTIONS OF STATE PARKS TO PHYSICAL ACTIVITY IN GEORGIA

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The negative health effects associated with physical inactivity have become an increasingly disturbing burden on the U.S. population, especially for children and low-income minority groups (Ogden et al., 2006; Pratt, 2008). By supplying a variety of outdoor recreation opportunities, public parks can play an important role in promoting physical activity across diverse communities (Mowen et al., 2008). A growing body of research has shown that proximity to parks and access to activity-oriented park facilities are strongly related to physical activity levels in urban areas, particularly among children (Babey et al., 2008; Roemmich et al., 2006). Studies have also revealed that urban parks may be especially important physical activity locations for racial/ethnic minority populations (Floyd et al., 2008). Although research linking parks and physical activity has generally focused on urban environments, there is a need for additional investigations that include rural or suburban areas and account for recreation opportunities in different types of parks (Boone-Heinonen, 2010; Godbey et al., 2005). Wilhelm-Stanis et al. (2009) were among the first to examine park-based physical activity across the rural to urban spectrum, collecting activity data from national forest and state parks visitors in the northern and western United States. The purpose of this study was to assess the physical activity levels of state parks visitors in Georgia, a state in an under-studied region (the South) notorious for physical inactivity (Macera et al., 2005), and identify specific park features that may encourage activity across diverse populations.

Methods

This project focused on three state parks in north Georgia (Fort Mountain, Fort Yargo, and Red Top Mountain). Data were collected during the summer of 2010 via visitor observations and intercept surveys focused on recreation hotspots (i.e., swimming beaches, picnic areas, campgrounds, and trailheads) within each park. Observations of visitor activity at beaches (n = 16,464) and at or around trailheads (n = 2,061 individual observations) were conducted using the System for Observing Play and Recreation in Communities (SOPARC), a reliable strategy for assessing physical activity in community settings (McKenzie et al., 2006). During each SOPARC session, a researcher began at one end of a target area and slowly walked across the zone, documenting the age, gender, ethnicity, and physical activity level of recreation participants at the moment they were observed. Brief (10- to 15-minute), bilingual (English & Spanish), self-administered intercept surveys of state park users (n = 5,192) were also conducted in and around the recreation hotspots. Physical activity questions distinguished between moderate and vigorous activity, reflecting terminology used in lifestyle surveys such as the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (CDC, 2009). Respondents were also asked to rate the value of specific features and facilities in promoting physical activity. An additional open-ended item allowed visitors to offer suggestions for increasing park-based physical activity.

Data were analyzed using SPSS Version 18.0. Inter-rater reliability of the SOPARC scale was assessed using bivariate and intra-class correlations. Pearson’s chi-square tests were used to examine associations between physical activity observations and demographic variables in respective locations (beaches and trailheads). Descriptive statistics describing physical activity levels and location preferences were obtained for the overall population of state park visitors and
specific demographic groups. Mean ratings on scales for different racial/ethnic groups were compared using analysis of variance.

**Results**

Inter-rater reliability of SOPARC counts for specific demographic/activity categories was high (Pearson’s $r \geq 0.972$, intra-class correlation coefficients $\geq 0.904$) and comparable to inter-observer agreement in similar studies (Floyd et al., 2008). The SOPARC sampling showed that, overall, a majority of observed state park visitors were active (45.9% of visitors were sedentary, 51.3% were engaged in moderate activity, and 2.8% were engaged in vigorous activity). Activity levels at beaches differed by age, $\chi^2(6,16464) = 1956.2, p < 0.001$, gender, $\chi^2(2,16464) = 132.7, p < 0.001$, and ethnicity, $\chi^2(6,16464) = 127.6, p < 0.001$, with children, males, and African Americans as the most active groups. Swimming was the most popular beach activity, especially among ethnic minorities and children. Activity levels at trailheads differed by age, $\chi^2(6,2061) = 48.0, p < 0.001$, gender, $\chi^2(2,2061) = 89.3, p < 0.001$, and ethnicity, $\chi^2(6,2061) = 82.0, p < 0.001$, with adults, males, and whites as the most vigorously active groups. Hiking was the most popular activity at or near trailheads, especially among whites and Asians.

Surveys showed that, although exercising and being physically active were not the primary factors motivating people to visit state parks (spending time with family was more popular), physical activity-related motivations were more important among Hispanics and African Americans than other racial/ethnic groups, $F(5,985) = 5.57, p < 0.001$. Racial/ethnic minorities also identified increasing physical activity and improving physical health as key benefits for their children during park visits. About 87% of visitors reported some physical activity during their state park visit, and 60.3% of visitors reported that they engaged in at least one hour of moderate or vigorous physical activity during their visit. Mean levels of moderate (95.7 min.) and vigorous (32.5 min.) physical activity exceeding average recommended daily values. In general, self-reported activity levels within the park did not differ by race/ethnicity, $F(5,1000) = 1.74, p = 0.122$.

Swimming areas (used by 72.5% of all visitors) and picnic areas (62.1%) were the most commonly used physical activity locations across all groups. White visitors (45.3%) used dirt/gravel hiking trails more often than other visitors, while Hispanic/Latinos and African-Americans (20.4 and 19.0%, respectively) used open green space and sport fields more often than whites. Racial/ethnic differences in activity choices reflected these site preferences (Table 1). A safe outdoor activity environment was the top priority for all visitors. Being with friends and family was second, with socially-centered activities more important among racial/ethnic minority visitors than whites, $F(5,926) = 16.7, p < 0.001$. Natural scenery was the third most important attribute preferred by physically active visitors. Despite the substantial level of physical activity observed and reported during on-site data collection, Georgia State Parks did not appear to be used as frequently as other potential physical activity locations (Figure 1).

**Discussion**

This study emphasized the increasing importance of health-related issues in outdoor recreation management and addressed a growing need to identify and inventory physical activity offerings in public parks (Wilhelm-Stanis et al., 2008). Results indicated that state parks generally support substantial levels of physical activity, particularly for children and racial/ethnic minorities. However, some areas of state parks such as hiking trails are under-used by racial/ethnic minorities. Visitors generally preferred physical activity environments that were safe, surrounded by natural scenery, and geared towards friends and family, supporting data from other locations (Cronan et al., 2008; Wilhelm-Stanis et al., 2009). Suggestions for encouraging
physical activity in state parks including an expansion of open green space, the construction of easy, kid-friendly biking and hiking trails around picnic areas, improved restroom facilities, and more aggressive advertising and marketing campaigns that promote park events and activities. Ultimately, results should inform statewide outdoor recreation plans and provide Georgia state park managers with insightful strategies for encouraging and sustaining park-based physical activity across diverse populations.

Table 1
Most common self-reported physical activities in Georgia State Parks by racial/ethnic group (with % of visitors participating)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Hispanic</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Asian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hiking</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Playground</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>30.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canoeing, kayaking</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biking</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jogging, running</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Team sports</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample Size for Each Group: White (n=1216), Hispanic (n=536), Black (n=154), Asian (n=81)

Figure 1. Preferred physical activity locations for Georgia State Park visitors by frequency of use (with 95% CI) [N=952, Scale: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Occasionally, 4=Often, 5=Very Often]

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LINKING LEISURE-SOCIAL WORLD PARTICIPATION, PERSONAL EFFORT, AND ENDURING BENEFITS

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Unruh's (1979) conceptualization of social worlds states that human behavior is persistently related to individual's various sociocultural networks. As a point of departure, we examine how leisure social world participation affects an individual's leisure behavior. We hypothesize that once people get involved in a particular leisure community, they attempt to develop an emotional attachment and connection with other participants and these relationships impact their attitudes about skill development and contribute to enduring benefits.

Kelly (1983) stated, “leisure is a social space in which the social bonding of intimate family and friends is developed” (p. 5). When performing a serious task or goal in a group context, participants have opportunities to develop friendships, learn and enact social roles, establish standards of behavior, and create social meanings. Kim and Heo (2009) stated that established social networks encouraged an individual's enduring involvement in leisure activities. Accordingly, participating in leisure social world provides people opportunities to socialize, hone their skills and knowledge, participate in leisure activity on a regular basis, develop a personal identity, and progress in participation over time (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Scott & Godbey, 1992).

In this study, we are interested in the degree to which group involvement stimulates personal effort and contributes to enduring rewards. According to Mannell (1993), “activities that require an investment of effort are seen to provide opportunities to maintain and further develop the sense of competence and allow people to frequently experience enjoyment and develop positive feelings about themselves” (p. 134). Buchanan (1985) also commented that an individual’s satisfactions would be an acquisition of his or her “interaction within the group and from the feeling of belonging that results from the interaction” (p. 407).

These ideas lead us to postulate that group involvement in a chosen leisure activity influences the amount of effort people exert to acquire and develop special skills, abilities, and knowledge. Moreover, through continuous group involvement, individuals are likely to experience enduring benefits. Stebbins (2001) attempted to describe those aspects within serious leisure framework. Once participants become part of a social world, they experience “shared attitudes, beliefs, values, practices, and goals” (Stebbins, 2007, p. 12). Stebbins also asserted that serious leisure participants devote time and effort to develop skills and knowledge. Developing relationships and skills ultimately leads to what Stebbins (1982) called durable benefits.

We employed the “serious leisure inventory and measure” (SLIM) developed by Gould, Moore, McGuire, and Stebbins (2008) to empirically test our conceptual model (Figure 1). Group involvement has two dimensions: group attraction and group accomplishment. Group attraction is defined as the enjoyment an individual ascribes to other social world participants (e.g. “I value interacting with other birders”). As the name suggests, group accomplishment pertains to the value participants’ assign to helping a group function and accomplish its goals (e.g. “A sense of group accomplishment is important to me.”). Group accomplishment provides participants with a “sense of helping, being needed, and being altruistic” (p. 50).

Consistent with our conceptual model, we hypothesize that personal effort and skill development are spurred by both group attraction and group accomplishment. The idea here is
that people’s relationships with other members contributes to the acquisition of performance standards and inculcation of skills and knowledge. We also hypothesize that group attraction and group accomplishment are directly related to enduring benefits. In this case, group involvement is satisfying in itself. Stated differently, pursuing a leisure activity is likely to contribute to a feeling of well-being and being connected to like-minded people. Finally, we hypothesize that enduring benefits are influenced directly by personal effort. Here we assume the display of personal effort and acquisition of skills contributes to feelings of mastery and well-being.

**FIGURE 1. Hypothesized model**

**Methods**

Data were collected from members of the American Birding Association (ABA) in 2009. We selected a sample of 1449 members currently living in the United States. Among the people surveyed, 400 members had participated in surveys conducted in 1997 and 2002 and the rest were picked randomly from the membership base. A four-step mailing method was used for this study. We first sent post cards to potential respondents. These informed them the purpose of the study, asked them for their assistance, and explained when they could expect to receive the questionnaire. The second mailing involved sending out the questionnaire along with a cover letter, and a postage-paid return envelope. One week later, a reminder postcard was mailed to individuals who had not returned the completed questionnaire. The last mailing took place two weeks later with a replacement survey, a postage-paid return envelope, and a new cover letter encouraging them to complete the questionnaire. A total of 954 useable surveys were returned, representing a 65.8% response rate.

Using the SLIM scale by Gould et al. (2008), we included multiple items to measure the two dimensions of group involvement (group attraction and group accomplishment), personal effort, and enduring benefits (in this case self-gratification/satisfaction). All items had respondents rate their level of agreement in which response categories ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). We used SPSS 16.0 and LISREL 8.80 to estimate the hypothesized model.

**Results**

Using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the adequacy of the measurement model was examined. The results showed that all scale items were significant (t-value ranging from 13.732 to 23.322) and factor loadings were adequate (λ ranging from .688 to .953). Additionally, the Cronbach’s alphas of the four factors showed a high level of reliability. We followed a two-step procedure (see Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) to test the structural equation model of this study. We chose three different goodness of fit indices (RMSEA, NNFI, and CFI) to measure the adequacy of our conceptual model. All three indicated a good model fit (NNFI and CFI >.95) between the proposed model and the data: NNFI=.969, CFI=.977, and RMSEA=.0930.

However, not all the hypothesized relationships were statistically significant. Although group attraction was positively related to personal effort (β = .587, t = 11.065), there was not a significant relationship between group accomplishment and personal effort (β = .024, t = .498). As predicted, personal effort was positively related to personal gratification/satisfaction (β = .590, t = 14.454).
How were the group participation variables related to personal gratification/satisfaction? While the direct effect between group accomplishment and enduring benefits was significant ($\beta = .078$, $t = 14.454$), the direct relationship between group attraction and enduring benefits was not significant ($\beta = .025$, $t = 1.726$). An examination of the indirect effects revealed that effort mediated the relationship between attraction and enduring benefits.

**Discussion**

In this study, we postulated that group involvement was related to level of personal effort and that group involvement and personal effort are associated with the satisfaction and gratification people accrue from their recreation participation. As noted by Stebbins (2001, 2007), people who are serious about their leisure make efforts to develop their knowledge and skills. This study demonstrates, at least among birdwatchers, enduring satisfaction is associated with the amount of effort recreation participants devote to developing their skills. Enduring benefits seem to emanate, in part, from a feeling of mastery that accompanies skill development.

The two dimensions of group involvement were also related to satisfaction but in different ways. Group accomplishment was directly related to satisfaction, suggesting satisfaction and gratification are derived from the pride people attain from belonging to birding groups. For these individuals, enduring satisfaction with birdwatching and other leisure activities, group accomplishment often means cohesion and stability. Effort and mastery may mean little in helping groups maintain stability over time.

On the other hand, the relationship between group attraction and satisfaction was indirect and almost completely mediated by personal effort. What this means is that attraction leads birdwatchers to pursue the activity in a community where ideas about skill development and knowledge are important and benchmarks for success. Attraction leads birdwatchers to acquire specialized skills and knowledge that are not readily learned alone. The enduring satisfaction that birdwatchers experience over time comes from effort and exhibition of skills, but these behaviors appear to be ones cultivated via peers.

Our results suggest that serious participation in leisure activity can lead to enduring benefits by developing one’s skills and/or helping one’s group thrive. Much of our understanding of serious leisure is grounded in the idea that people put forth time and effort to acquire knowledge. We often overlook the fact that for some individuals participation is about developing and nurturing relationships. Scott and Godbey (1994) observed something like this in their ethnographic study of contract bridge. Many social bridge players were highly committed players but not at all interested in skill development. The commitment and satisfaction they reported appears to be linked to keeping bridge groups afloat and other group members happy.

One limitation of this study is that it focused on a specialized birding group and does not represent the views of all birdwatchers. Future research should examine the above relationships in the context of other leisure activities and a broader array of leisure participants. Other studies should examine the conditions under which the reported findings hold. It could be, for example, that the relationships may be different for males and females. Other studies should also seek to determine whether the observed relationships hold true for benefits beyond satisfaction.

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TOURISM AND SOUTH AFRICA: EFFECTS OF WATCHING THE WORLD CUP
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According to the American Time Use Survey (BLS, 2010), US residents over age 15 spent 2.8 hours per day watching television in 2009. This constituted the most time consuming leisure activity. During mega sport events such as the Olympics, television watching is likely to increase. During the 2010 FIFA World Cup held in South Africa, 24.3 million Americans watched the final match (Nielson, 2010). The tremendous amount of media exposure created by mega events can re-position a country in the global tourism market and stimulate interest in traveling there (Smith, 2005). For South Africa, this may be complicated by the perception of risk which tourists generalize across Africa (Carter, 1998). Therefore, the purpose of this paper was to investigate the influence of watching the 2010 World Cup on perceptions of South Africa, interest in traveling there, and travel motivations. A repeated measures design was used whereby a paired sample of college students was surveyed before and after the World Cup. Results will further an understanding of the influence of sport mega events on tourism development and promotion.

Literature Review

Africa is perceived as a risky destination (Brown, 2000). This perception is generalized across the continent (Carter, 1998). Contributing to this perception is the belief that elements of modern societies are missing from Africa while elements of primitive societies are abundant (Lepp, Gibson & Lane, 2011). While this may attract novelty seeking tourists, it acts mostly as a constraint. Fortunately, this perception can be changed by providing contrary information through reliable sources, such as television and tourism websites (Gartner, 1993; Lepp, et al., 2011). This is a major reason for South Africa’s involvement with sport mega-events (Cornelissen, 2008; Van Der Merwe, 2007). Since 1994, South Africa has hosted the Rugby World Cup, the Cricket World Cup, and in 2010 the FIFA World Cup. By hosting such events, South Africa signals its modernity to global audiences of 100’s of millions of people. Smith (2005) has called this “reimagining through sport.” Indeed, Chalip, Green and Hill (2003) found that event telecasts that contain images of a destination can influence perceptions and travel intentions, particularly among individuals with less knowledge of the country. Thus, media coverage of the FIFA World Cup could potentially improve perceptions of South Africa and stimulate motivations for traveling there. Very few researchers have investigated motivations for travel to Africa (Beh & Bruyere, 2007). The limited research has identified a core of destination specific pull factors. Overall, foreign tourists appear motivated by culture, nature, learning, and novelty associated with Africa (Awaritefe 2003 & 2008). Related studies also show that gender may be influential in both perceptions (Lepp & Gibson, 2003) and motivation for travel (Dann, 1977). An interesting question is whether these will differ for South Africa (SA) because of its increasing involvement with sport mega-events, exposure to which could arouse new motivations. With this in mind, this study asked: 1) Did the World Cup affect perceived knowledge of SA? 2) Did the World Cup affect the perceived level of development in SA? 3) Did the World Cup affect perceived risk associated with travel to SA? 4) Did the World Cup affect interest in travel to SA? 5) What are the primary motivations for travel to SA and were they affected by the World Cup? 6) If effects are found, do they vary by time spent watching the World Cup, or gender?

Methods

Pre-test data were collected two months before the start of the World Cup. It was decided that the ideal population for this exploratory study would be one likely to watch the World Cup.
For this reason, students in three sport related majors (Exercise Science, Physical Education, and Sport Administration) at a large public university were requested during class time to participate. In all, 284 students completed the pre-test which measured perceived knowledge of South Africa, perceived level of development, perceived risk associated with travel there, interest in traveling there and motivations for travel. Email addresses were collected and used to administer the post test. Three weeks after the World Cup, students were invited by e-mail to participate in the post test. An online survey was used because students were away on summer break. The post test contained the same items as the pretest plus items measuring involvement with the World Cup. Of the 284 pretests completed, 38 had illegible email addresses, thus 246 invitations were sent. By the close of the post-test, 95 students had participated. After eliminating partial surveys, 79 remained (32% response rate). Pre and post test results were compared. If differences were found then it was assumed the massive publicity of the World Cup was partly responsible. However, there is no way to test this assumption. Variables not measured could also have acted upon respondents between the pre and post tests and effected change. This is a limitation of the study.

SPSS nonparametric tests were used to test for differences between the 79 students who completed both surveys and the original sample of 284 students. Every categorical variable on the pretest was analyzed and no significant differences were found except gender. The original sample was 35% female, the sample of 79 used for this study was 46% female (asymp. sig. = 0.034). For the pretest versus post test comparison, quantitative data were analyzed with SPSS using Wilcoxon sign rank test, non-parametric binomial tests, and chi square. Open ended responses (motivations) were analyzed by categorizing similar responses into themes. Responses were simple phrases and thus clear in meaning. The categorization strategies and themes of the pretest analysis were applied to the post test ensuring internal reliability and consistency. After categorization, the frequencies of pre and post test themes were compared. Of the 79 students who participated, 43 (54%) were male and 36 (46%) female. Interest in the World Cup was moderately high: 46 (58.2%) were either interested or highly interested, 17 (21.5%) were neutral, 16 (20%) were not interested. This translated into a range of games being watched. Twenty four (30%) students watched between 11 and 64 games, 38 (48%) watched between two and 10 games, two (2.5%) watched one game, and 15 (19%) watched no games. This preliminary look at the data indicates that participants were involved with the World Cup as fans.

**Results**

Pre and post test results were compared using chi square. For perceived knowledge, after the World Cup, students felt more knowledgeable about South Africa ($\chi^2 = 10.05$, sig = 0.007). For perceived level of development, after the World Cup students felt South Africa was less developed ($\chi^2 = 13.21$, sig. = 0.001). This is the opposite of South Africa’s desired effect (Van Der Merwe, 2007). Interestingly, comparisons revealed perceived risk associated with travel to South Africa remained the same ($\chi^2 = 2.518$, sig. = 0.472). Participants show great interest in traveling to South Africa. In both the pre and post tests 90% of respondents reported an interest in visiting the country. Respondents who reported an interest in traveling to South Africa provided two reasons. In both the pre and post test, this produced 142 responses describing potential motivations for travel. In the pretest, four primary motivations emerged: culture, learning, novelty and enjoyment. These motivations accounted for 69.7% of all pretest responses. Several minor motivations emerged: nature, the idea of “always wanting to visit Africa or South Africa,” the World Cup, and the idea that “South Africa is the most developed part of Africa.” After the World Cup, novelty, culture, enjoyment and learning remained dominant. They
accounted for 66.9% of all responses. In addition, nature emerged as a primary motivation in the post test. Among the minor motivations, “tourist friendly” increased slightly after the tournament.

Lastly, time spent watching the World Cup and gender was examined in relation to the pre and post test responses. Quantitative data were compared using the Wilcoxon signed ranks test. Open ended responses were divided among the categories of interest and frequencies were used for comparison. Differences between pre and post test responses were mostly independent of the amount of hours spent watching the tournament except for perceived level of South Africa’s development. For the sample as whole, respondents perceived South Africa to be less developed after the World Cup than before the World Cup. This effect was greatest among those who spent the most time watching the tournament (Z = -2.364, asymp. sig. = 0.018). Next, gender was analyzed. Differences between pre and post test responses were independent of gender. However, concerning perceived risk, females’ post-test results were different than their pre-test results. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = very safe, 5 = very risky), the mean response for females on the pretest was 3.25. This dropped slightly to 3.08 on the post-test. Thus, females perceived slightly less risk after the World Cup than before although the difference was not statistically significant (Z = -1.731, asymp. sig. = 0.083). For males, there was no discernable difference between the pre-test (M = 3.07) and the post-test (M = 3.11) for perceived risk (Z = -0.408, asymp. sig. = 0.683).

Discussion

Results suggest the World Cup did influence perceptions of South Africa. The World Cup contributed to an increase in perceived knowledge. This is beneficial for tourism as information acquisition is a common strategy for reducing perceived risk (Lepp, et al., 2011). Surprisingly, results suggest the World Cup had a negative effect on perceptions of South Africa’s level of development. An explanation might be that respondents had unrealistically positive perceptions of level of development. These perceptions were then adjusted during the World Cup by tangential media reports and programs focusing on conditions in South Africa. No doubt it was South Africa’s intention to signal its modernity by successfully hosting the World Cup. This would then be likely to reduce perceptions of risk associated with travel there. Yet after the World Cup, perceptions of risk remained unchanged. However, there was a noticeable but not statistically significant effect on women who perceived slightly less risk after the World Cup. A result supported by recent research (Pizam et al, 2004; Qi, et al., 2009). Overall, risk reducing images of modern South Africa generated by the World Cup may have been neutralized by the negative change in perceptions of level of development. On the bright side, this did not affect interest in travel to South Africa which remained high. Interestingly, while interest in South African tourism appears to be much higher than interest in other African destinations, the motivations identified by this study are similar to those identified for other African destinations (Beh & Bruyere, 2007). Thus, unique travel motivations may not explain the greater interest in South Africa’s tourism industry. Other factors may be at play. For one, this World Cup is part of a broader mega event strategy South Africa has used to position itself in the global tourism market (Swart & Bob, 2007). In addition to hosting the FIFA World Cup, South Africa hosted the Rugby World Cup, the Cricket World Cup, and made an unsuccessful bid for the 2012 Summer Olympics. These events may have a cumulative effect on perceptions of risk and safety larger than that of a single event. This is an area of research which deserves further attention considering the prominence of both watching sport mega events and tourism in leisure behavior.

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Selected References:


OUTCOMES OF A UNIVERSITY OUTDOOR ADVENTURE WOMEN'S CANOE TRIP
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Women are often more and differently constrained than men in their leisure (Arab-Moghaddam et al., 2007; Du, 2008; Jackson & Henderson, 1995), especially related to gender role expectations and the ethic of care (Shaw, 1994). Historically, outdoor and physical activities, has been viewed as a male domain (Little, 2002; McDermott, 2000). Women have not been socialized into physical or outdoor recreation to the same extent as men (Culp, 1998; Fredricks & Eccles, 2005), although such engagement can be highly advantageous.

Women who engage in physical and outdoor leisure receive many benefits (Henderson & Brown, 2010). In addition to the obvious physical health benefits, physical leisure can contribute to women’s sense of self-efficacy and confidence (Miller & Brown, 2005), relatedness (McDermott, 2004), happiness, and well-being (Henderson & Brown, 2010). A recent study by Lloyd and Little (2010) examined the outcomes of participation in a female-only outdoor recreation experience. They found that engagement in the outdoor wilderness experience increased the women’s perceptions of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. According to Self-determination theory, these are the three basic needs essential to well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Freysinger and Flannery (1992) reported the personal responsibility and physical competence required to be self-sufficient in the wilderness can extend into everyday life, enhancing one’s confidence, self-trust, and self-worth, resulting in a more positive view of self.

Leisure is an area in which women can reinforce or resist gender role expectations (Du, 2008; Shaw, 2001). Although leisure can perpetuate stereotypical standard of femininity (Henderson & Brown, 2010), it may also represent an ideal context for empowerment as it represents a life domain of relative freedom of choice (Freysinger & Flannery, 1992). McDermott (2000) studied the experience of women engaging in two different physical leisure contexts and the degree to which they contributed to reinforcement or resistance to gender norms. One context was aerobics, which tended to reinforce gender conformity; the other context was wilderness canoeing, which did not. According to McDermott (2000), involvement in physical outdoor leisure activities may be especially conducive to women’s empowerment (i.e., a shift in identity to one of greater personal agency and power and resistance to gender norm constraints). Female-only outdoor activities may be a unique context for women’s empowerment (McDermott, 2004).

There are several studies that indicate women benefit from participation in outdoor recreation as a leisure activity. However, little research has examined the processes that contribute to these outcomes. Therefore, the purpose this study was to understand the outcomes experienced by women during a wilderness trip and the processes that contributed to these experiences.

Method

Qualitative research methods were used to collect information on the women’s experiences in outdoor recreation. This study employed a feminist approach focusing on the leisure experiences of women as a source of empowerment. This perspective contributes to a better understanding of women’s experiences. It puts their experiences at the center of research and shifts women from being objects of a study to participants in the study. In addition, a feminist approach focuses on creating more opportunities for females (Henderson, 1994).

The sample included eight women registered for a beginners’ women-only three-day canoe trip with a university outdoor adventure program. The trip was advertised to female students, faculty and staff, as well as the outside community. When women signed up for the trip, they
were asked to consider voluntary participation in a study. All of the women on the trip agreed to be contacted by the principal investigator who explained the study and received informed consent from all participants. The women’s ages ranged from 18 to 40. Of the eight participants, two had young children and two were married. The women had a variety of educational and racial/ethnic backgrounds. For most participants, this was their first time canoeing.

There were several locations and challenges throughout the trip. During the first phase, the participants learned the most efficient ways to move across the water and proper body positions in a canoe. The group then paddled eight miles upstream to their campsite. The next day’s activities consisted of paddling four more miles upriver and taking challenging hikes. The participants paddled four more miles back down river to their original camping spot where they spent their last night. On the final day, the participants paddled the eight miles back down the river, while fighting a constant battle with the wind blowing them back upstream.

Three sources of data collection were used in this study. These sources were short group interviews at the end of the day throughout the trip, one individual interview after the trip, and field observations. Each evening, participants were collectively interviewed and asked about their experiences and reactions that day. The in-depth individual interviews were conducted within four days of the trip’s conclusion and took place at a location of participants’ choice. With the permission of the women, the interviews were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim. The field observations were recorded periodically throughout the trip.

For analysis, the constant comparative method was used. Two researchers independently coded the transcribed data by finding words and sentences related to the experiences of the women and the impact of those experiences. First, the words or phrases that captured the processes and outcomes that were salient to the research and identified emerging patterns were color coded (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The words and phrases were then integrated into categories based on their common properties. These categories were then reduced to four themes. Two researchers identified themes independently. They discussed the themes that emerged and reached consensus. After the data was analyzed the conclusions were sent back to the women so that they could affirm that they had accurately been represented.

Results

The results of the analyses yielded four themes representing the processes of the women-only outdoor adventure and the outcomes of the experience. The four themes were personal autonomy, connection with others, accomplishment and empowerment, and enjoyment. The first theme was that the women were able to disengage from their typical gender roles, leading to a greater sense of personal autonomy. The majority of women stated in a co-ed environment, they would have been more reluctant to express their abilities and strengths. Some women suggested they would have been inclined to let the men do the “heavy lifting” and assume the feminine role; others said they would have felt insecure and increased pressure to perform. The women also stated that on an all-female trip, they did not worry about grooming or modesty and, therefore, felt freer. Because the women were able to express themselves in new, less gendered ways, they felt as if they were less constrained by their normal roles.

The second theme was that the women experienced a deep sense of connection, appreciation, and acceptance with the other women on the trip. For the vast majority of women, the more challenges that the women conquered together, the more they began to trust each other and bond together. They had common goals and supported each other in their attainment. Some of the women believed that the natural setting contributed to their deepening relationships with the other women, because it provided an authentic setting for those experiences. In the evenings and
in the hot springs, the women engaged in deep, honest conversations in what some women called their “outdoor living room.” Some of the women suggested the relaxation and feeling one with nature opened the women up more fully to their shared experiences.

The third theme was that by overcoming the physical and emotional demands of the trip, the women acquired a sense of accomplishment and empowerment. They were proud of the skills they acquired and the obstacles they had overcome. For many participants, being with the women trip leaders that were experienced with a wilderness environment was inspirational and made them feel that they could master the outdoor demands too. All of the women discussed how they had grown through facing the wilderness challenge. One woman characterized it as “a shift in consciousness of how I can deal with challenges and stress. I can do it.”

The fourth theme was that women experienced a deep sense of enjoyment, which contributed to their desire to participate in outdoor recreation again. In this setting, the women let go of expected roles and became more in touch with their authentic selves, were accepted and supported by other women, and were both challenged and renewed by the natural environment.

Discussion

Through their involvement in the wilderness women-only canoe trip, the women in this study experienced enhanced autonomy, relatedness, and competence, which led to enjoyment and a desire to engage in similar experiences in the future. The findings are consistent with the Self-Determination theory’s premise that individuals have basic needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence and will be intrinsically motivated to participate in activities that satisfy these needs. These findings replicate and extend the research of Lloyd and Little (2010) who found also that outdoor recreation and sport engagement satisfied these basic needs and contributed to psychological well-being. However, the women in their study did not articulate explicitly a disengagement from gender roles as an element of autonomy.

The women in the current study suggested strongly that a key factor in their perception of autonomy was the disengagement from traditional female gender roles. This finding is very consistent with Samdahl’s (1986) suggestion that the absence of role constraint leads to a greater sense of autonomy and freedom. The gender role disengagement evident in the current study may have been due to the length, remoteness, and difficulty of the experience. In this study, engagement in the women’s-only, physically and emotionally demanding wilderness experience allowed women to take on perceived gender-incongruent responsibilities and challenges, shed concern with feminine appearance, and engage in reciprocal, egalitarian relationships. Similar to the Freysinger and Flannery (1992) study of women in the wilderness, this study found that gender-incongruent intensive outdoor experiences can serve as a context for reevaluating and resisting gender roles and expanding one’s sense of self (Freysinger & Flannery, 1992).

Leisure has the potential to contribute to well-being by satisfying basic human needs (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Lloyd & Little, 2010) and serving as a context for resistance to the forces of one’s culture and physical environment (Freysinger & Flannery, 1992; Goodale & Godbey, 1988). Leisure experiences that allow individuals to step away from or deconstruct their traditional roles may contribute uniquely to the satisfaction of the basic need for autonomy and, therefore, to the enhancement of psychological well-being. Given the capacity of female-only, challenging outdoor experiences to help women examine and resist gender-role constraints in their leisure and lives, they warrant further cultivation as an important area of leisure service provision.

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References


LEARNING AS LEISURE: ADULT PERCEIVED MOTIVATION, OUTCOME, AND WORTH

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Adults are increasingly participating in adult education and are using their free time to pursue personal interest courses (Arsenault & Anderson, 1998). The intersection of adult education and leisure prompts the need to systematically examine perceptions of adults regarding these programs to answer important questions such as: (1) What are the motivational orientations of adult leisure learners? (2) What are some of the outcomes associated with leisure learning? (3) What makes leisure learning worthwhile to participants? Leisure learning participants embody both serious and casual leisure behavior. While enrollment and participation in courses are closely aligned with levels of commitment and skill building typically found in serious leisure expression (Stebbins, 2008), the temporal nature of courses and the limited skill needed for participation are more similar to casual leisure pursuits. Thus, leisure learning provides a unique opportunity to understand both serious and casual leisure concepts.

Methods

A multi-method study design was used to collect and analyze both quantitative and qualitative data related to motivation, outcome, and perceived value of adults who participate in non-formal education courses. Principal axis factor analysis procedures were used to determine important dimensions of motivational orientation. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine interactions with groupings of independent variables and important factors. Qualitative procedures were used to determine important independent variables and to address the second and third research questions associated with outcomes and perceived value from leisure learning participation.

A modified version of Boshier’s (1991) Education Participation Scale A-Form (EPS), a 42-item questionnaire, was used with 319 adult leisure learning class participants. Study participants indicated ages ranging from 18 to 94 and tended to be white female area residents of 11 or more years with college experience. Informants were recruited from adult courses offered by three different agencies: a municipal park and recreation department, a non-profit arts center, and a small cooking school. The EPS contains seven motivation orientation factors: (1) communication improvement, (2) social contact, (3) educational preparation, (4) professional advancement, (5) family togetherness, (6) social stimulation, and (7) cognitive interest (Boshier). Six items comprise each factor reflecting different motivational orientations. Adults who provided informed consent rated each item on a 4-point Likert-type response format (from No Influence to Much Influence) and provided demographic data (e.g., gender, age, length of residence in area, employment and education profiles, as well as frequency of leisure learning participation). Results gathered from the questionnaire were coded and entered into SPSS 16.0 for analysis. Principal Axis factor analysis was used to identify central motivational orientation factors: social contact, cognitive interest, and social stimulation. Once independent variables were determined (after interview analysis), these variables were used to conduct MANOVA procedures with the three significant motivational orientation factors. To investigate impact of each main effect on significant factors, a Roy-Bargmann step-down analysis was performed on prioritized dependent variables.
Learning as leisure: Adult perceived motivation, outcome, and worth

The questionnaire included space for informants to indicate their willingness to complete a 15-minute follow-up telephone interview and provide their name and contact information. Over 50% of informants volunteered for follow-up interviews and a representative sample was selected from the volunteers. Twenty-two interviews were conducted, recorded and transcribed approximately one month after participants completed the EPS. Interview transcripts were initially examined to determine demographic variables identified as most salient to their leisure learning (age and class type). Age was identified after informants indicated the importance of lifespan milestones (e.g., “empty nest”). Informants also revealed taking a particular class (e.g., dance) for multiple years or a history of taking courses from the same instructor (e.g., painting). As a result, course type (based on content) was grouped into courses which tended to have participants who: (a) repeated the same type of course or the exact same course, or (b) enrolled only once. These variables were used to conduct analyze data that helped to determine differences between significant motivational orientations to answer the first research question.

Transcripts were analyzed a second time using open coding and the constant comparative method to identify major themes associated with perceived outcomes of leisure learning to answer the second research question (Strauss, 1987). Each transcription was repeatedly read for threads and themes of ideas related to leisure learning. Transcripts were reviewed a third time to provide insight into participants’ perceptions of the value of leisure learning participation and answer the third research question.

Findings

Three primary motivational orientations emerged during factor analysis: Social Contact, Cognitive Interest, and Social Stimulation. The two social orientations were differentiated as learning with groups (social contact) and learning as relief from boredom and loneliness (social stimulation). The cognitive orientation focused on love of learning. Motivational orientations were significantly different between younger and older adults, as well as between people enrolled in courses which tended to be taken multiple times and people who enrolled in courses taken once. Each main effect produced significant results (p<.01) and a small effect size.

The second study goal was to detect self-reported outcomes from leisure learning. Responses of 22 interviews concerning participation outcomes were grouped into two primary themes: interpersonal interactions (e.g., meeting new people and contact with social groups), and intrapersonal interactions (e.g., pursing interests, enrichment, health, and enjoyment). Although courses were not advertised as opportunities for socializing, participants often reported viewing the course as an opportunity to spend time with their spouse or friends; thus, providing additional understanding of the nature of the social contact and the interpersonal theme. A dance participant reflected the intrapersonal theme when he reported that participation: “enlarges your perceptional horizons and just for the intrinsic appreciation of cultivating different aspects of yourself.” These findings provided insight into learner’s perceived outcomes of leisure learning settings.

The third study goal was to understand perceived value of leisure learning. Interviewees were asked to answer the question “What makes taking this/a class worth your time, money, and effort?” Learners indicated good feelings, especially about themselves. For example, a ceramics participant stated “it gives me a good feeling about myself—high self esteem… to be able to accomplish [making pottery].” Experiences were described in terms of activating or deactivating different internal processes. Activation included opportunities for creativity, improving their lives, and trying new things. Deactivation was associated with taking leisure learning courses included stress reduction related to daily life and work, as well as a way to escape from life in general. For example, one cooking class participant stated, “I don’t know if I can really say it’s a
Learning as leisure: Adult perceived motivation, outcome, and worth

Discussions

This study examined adult participants’ perceived outcomes and value associated with learning as leisure. Socially oriented motivations associated with contact and stimulation were important to participants (i.e., social contact, social stimulation); they also reported love of learning (cognitive interest). These findings provide insight into nontraditional contexts of learning that are common to leisure service providers and commercial businesses associated with leisure. Participants reported that their experiences in these courses were leisure for them.

Three overriding Factors helped explain participation in courses: social contact, cognitive interest, and social stimulation. Motivational orientations were similar across age groups. Not surprisingly, younger adults were more motivated to achieve social stimulation as compared to older adults. Older adults were not as inclined as younger adults to use leisure learning as a way to address social needs, boredom, and loneliness. Leisure service providers may find this information helpful when planning adult learning events and programs and for marketing efforts.

Participants enrolled in courses taken repeatedly had different motivations than those enrolled in courses (or class) typically only once. Learners in “repeater” courses were more socially motivated while learners in other courses were more motivated for personal interest and love of learning. These differences indicated that it may be important to offer various leisure learning experiences such as continuous courses, single classes, or short courses (2-3 sessions).

Participants reported that leisure learning experiences were important and valued, in part, because they offered opportunities for interpersonal and intrapersonal outcomes as well as a sense of well-being. These results provide support for practitioners who are attempting to develop a rationale for offering adult leisure learning events and programs. Since this study examined individuals participating in leisure learning during late summer and fall, research examining course participation during other seasons may provide additional insight.

The EPS does not capture health motivational orientations prevalent in leisure contexts; however, these orientations were identified via semi-structured interviews. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were helpful to understand the complexity of leisure learning motivations and its perceived value. Researchers are encouraged to use a multi-method approach.

The pattern that some participants enrolled in the same course repeatedly for years may contribute to the body of literature related to serious leisure (Stebbins 2001). Further investigation of this pattern in contrast to learners who sample topics by completing different courses could help to clarify the relationship between serious and casual leisure. Because of its qualities of relaxation, play, and socialization, this type of leisure learning may be identified as casual leisure. Exploration into why some participants dabble in various learning experiences and why others make a stronger commitment to a single topic or content would expand understanding associated with serious and casual leisure.

Conclusion

Leisure learning is increasingly being requested by adults (Arsenault, 1998) and demand for these experiences will continue to increase (Arsenault & Anderson, 1998). Given the predicted expansion of the adult and older adult age cohort in the coming years (U. S. Census, 2006), it will be helpful for leisure service providers to understand motivational orientations of adult leisure learners so that they can anticipate how and when to make changes to services. It is also useful to understand that learning experiences are reflective of leisure behavior and are highly valued by adult participants as their leisure expression.
References and Resources

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ACCOMMODATING SCIENCE (OR NOT) IN LEISURE RESEARCH
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Introduction
An ongoing debate in the field of leisure research points to a gap between research and the delivery of leisure services (Hemmingway & Parr, 2000; Pedlar, 1999). This gap is exemplified in two research journals: *Journal of Leisure Research (JLR)* and *Journal of Parks and Recreation Administration (JPRA)*. Both peer-reviewed journals, they possess distinct stated purposes and intended audiences. As reported by *JLR* (2010), “[t]he *Journal of Leisure Research* is devoted to original investigations that contribute new knowledge and understanding to the field of leisure studies.” In contrast, *JPRA* (2010) aims “…to bridge the gap between research and practice for administration, educators, consultants, and researchers”. In short, *JLR* is focused on a researcher audience while *JPRA* aims to include practitioners in its audience. Despite *JPRA*’s intentions, Jordan and Roland (1999) found that very few practitioners actually read *JPRA* and that researchers were more likely than practitioners to read both *JLR* and *JPRA*. Further, they found that 65% to 96% of practitioners never read major research journals. Leisure scholars have speculated as to the reasons for these readership disparities (Jordan & Roland, 1999; Madrigal, 1999; Witt, 1999), but little empirical research explains the possible causes.

One possible avenue through which such investigation could take place is by leveraging the tools of the rhetoric of science and rhetorical analysis. Rhetoricians of science refer to the process of making science meaningful for particular audiences as the accommodation of science. Accommodation adapts a scientific argument for different audiences while maintaining the core components of the original argument (Fahnestock & Secor, 1982; Fahnestock, 2004). Fahnestock and Secor believed that such adaptation allows an argument to “come alive and dance for an audience”. Much of the research in accommodation of science has focused on the adaptations that occur when scientific arguments shift from a ‘professional’ audience to a ‘public’ audience. Both professional and public science aims to accurately represent reality and to inform readers; however, the manner in which these aims are met change with the audience. Ultimately, the most successful accommodations connect their arguments to the interests of their audiences (Fahnestock & Secor, 1988). From a rhetoric of science perspective, therefore, articles in *JLR* and *JPRA* may not be ‘accommodating science’ in a manner appropriate to their intended audiences, resulting in the aforementioned readership disparities (Fahnestock, 1998). Witt (2000) captured this potential issue, “…it is clear that much of what is researched and published is of little consequence to [practitioners], or if of consequence produced in a format that makes determining applicability a major translation exercise”. Though potentially useful in understanding how leisure journals communicate with their audiences, rhetorical analysis techniques to address the accommodation of science have not been applied to leisure journals. The purpose of this study was to utilize techniques of rhetorical analysis to explore the structures, arguments, and styles used by researchers to communicate science in *JLR* and *JPRA*. In doing so, this study investigated whether *JLR* and *JPRA* speak, as they intend, to distinct audiences through appropriate accommodation techniques.

Methods
Following Fahnestock (1998), this study utilized techniques of rhetorical analysis to examine accommodation between ‘matched’ communications. As Fahnestock explained, matched articles “…cover similar subjects but are addressed to audiences with different levels of background information and different degrees of interest”. Specifically, *JLR* and *JPRA* were
canvassed for articles appearing in the last 10 years by the same authors using the same data. These selection criteria produced three sets of matched articles. In order to construct a comprehensive view of the accommodation processes at work in the article sets, the current study utilized three distinct techniques common to rhetoric of science: structure analysis (Penrose & Katz, 2004), stasis analysis (Fahnestock, 1998), and statement type analysis (Fahnestock, 1998; Latour & Woolgar, 1986/1979). Each rhetorical analysis technique allows specific predictions regarding the article sets based on the accommodation of science literature. First, the structure analysis would predict that the JLR articles would have a larger percentage of the article dedicated to literature, methods and results while the JPRA article would have a larger percentage dedicated to discussion and implications. Second, the stasis analysis would expect the JLR articles to emphasize fact, definition, and/or cause while the JPRA articles would focus on evaluation and/or action, most notably in the purpose statements. Finally, the statement type analysis would predict that the statements in the JPRA articles reflect an overall higher level of certainty than statements in the JLR articles.

**Findings**

Structure analysis revealed that the JLR and the JPRA articles closely mirrored the predicted introduction, methods, results, and discussion (IMRAD) format evidenced by the level 1 headings in each article. Further, examining the word counts of each IMRAD section found that article sets #1 and #2 did not differ noticeably in the distribution of words (Table 1). However, set #3 did mirror predictions in that the JPRA article emphasized the discussion and implications whereas the JLR article emphasized the introduction, methods, and results sections.

<p>| Table 1. Number and (percentage) of words dedicated to each article section |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Set</th>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Total words</th>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Discussion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Set #1</td>
<td>JPRA</td>
<td>6,755</td>
<td>2,645 (39.16%)</td>
<td>1,826 (27.03%)</td>
<td>448 (6.63%)</td>
<td>1,836 (27.18%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JLR</td>
<td>8,350</td>
<td>2,580 (30.90%)</td>
<td>1,834 (21.96%)</td>
<td>1,200 (14.37%)</td>
<td>2,736 (32.77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set #2</td>
<td>JPRA</td>
<td>6,720</td>
<td>1,646 (24.49%)</td>
<td>1,107 (16.47%)</td>
<td>1,336 (19.88%)</td>
<td>2,601 (38.71%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JLR</td>
<td>6,927</td>
<td>2,095 (30.24%)</td>
<td>1,470 (21.22%)</td>
<td>850 (12.27%)</td>
<td>2,512 (36.26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set #3</td>
<td>JPRA</td>
<td>5,563</td>
<td>984 (17.68%)</td>
<td>837 (15.05%)</td>
<td>3,742 (67.27%)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JLR</td>
<td>6,642</td>
<td>2,800 (42.16%)</td>
<td>1,215 (18.29%)</td>
<td>1,381 (20.79%)</td>
<td>1,242 (18.69%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stasis analysis of the purpose statements and discussion sections revealed that the sets contained few differences in their emphasis on any of the stases. For example, in set #2, the purpose statements similarly reflected the fact, cause, and action stases, an emphasis equally apparent throughout the discussion sections. Sets #1 and #3 demonstrated similar findings with the JLR and JPRA articles differing very little in stasis emphasis. One exception surfaced in the use of the action stasis. For example, in set #3, both applied the action stasis to research and practice implications; however, the JLR article used the action stasis more for research implications whereas the JPRA article used the action stasis more for practice implications.

Statement type analysis of the discussion sections of each article set demonstrated that the JLR and JPRA versions in each set displayed no major differences in the overall levels of certainty. All three article sets utilized the different certainty levels in similar ways across the
JLR and JPRA versions. For example, the articles display a high level of modalities and qualifications, indicated by frequent usage of phrases such as ‘suggests’, ‘may’, and ‘should’ when talking about the implications or reasons for their findings.

**Discussion**

The current study utilized three rhetorical analysis techniques to examine three matched article sets representing one article from JLR and one article from JPRA to determine if the articles accommodated their science for the distinct intended audiences. Each of the three techniques employed in the current study would predict that articles addressed to different audiences would be dissimilar. In other words, accommodation of science would expect us to find more differences between the articles than similarities. On the contrary, the current analysis revealed that the JLR and JPRA articles were largely similar in structure, stasis emphasis, and certainty levels. Contrary to typical studies where findings of similarity would not indicate significant findings, given the distinct intended audiences of JLR and JPRA and the predictions of the accommodation of science literature, these findings of pervasive similarity suggest that the article content was largely unaccommodated for the distinct intended audiences of JLR and JPRA (Fahnestock, 1998; Hyland, 2000; Penrose & Katz, 2004). Despite widespread similarity in the article sets, there were a few notable exceptions to this trend. These exceptions may indicate that the authors, whether intentionally or not, recognized the distinct audiences of the journals and adapted their articles accordingly, providing evidence that future accommodation could occur.

Together, these findings suggest that accommodation is and is not taking place within the article sets. The intended audiences of JLR and JPRA, however, present a unique challenge for audience accommodation. Though the intended audiences of the two journals are quite distinct, the actual readership appears to be similar. Jordan and Roland (1999) found that researchers are far more likely to read both journals. In subsequent commentaries, scholars in the leisure studies field confirmed the concern that neither journal seemed to attract the readership of practitioners (Madrigal, 1999; Witt, 2000). These commentaries circulated at least three years prior to the publication of the articles in the study set. Further, personal correspondence with the current and former editors of both journals revealed that publication decisions are based more on the appropriateness of the manuscript topic rather than appropriateness of the presentation for the intended audience. Together, these comments suggest that the authors of the articles in the study set were aware that practitioners were not reading JPRA and that neither journal was taking audience adaptation into account during the review process. Such knowledge may have led the authors to focus more on developing suitable content for the articles than accommodating the articles for distinct intended audiences who, in reality, are not as distinct as the journals report.

Together these two circumstances have established a strong tendency for articles in JLR and JPRA to be highly similar despite the differences in the intended audiences. In her discussion of how the research community typically responds to potential issues with the publication process, Stokowski (1999) predicted that “We will wring our hands for a bit then will carry on, doing the same kinds of things as always”; however, she goes on to argue that “We set this system up. We can change it if we wish to do so”. Further, Pedlar (1999) and Witt (2000) argued that reforming the education of young scholars is a crucial step to bridging the practitioner-researcher gap. The current study, therefore, provides insight that has implications not only for authors and journal editors but also for graduate programs training new scholars in our field.
References


BIRDERS DON’T ALWAYS FLOCK TOGETHER; UNDERSTANDING BIRDER PREFERENCES FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

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Birding or bird watching is considered to be the “second fastest-growing outdoor activity in the United States”; second only to gardening. (Miller, 2010; 117). The United States Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS)(2006) estimates that there are 48 million bird watchers, 16 years of age and older, in the United States which equates to 21 percent of the population. Birding is a niche of ecotourism or nature tourism. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between the various sectors or niches in nature tourism. Over 40 states have some birding trail system in place whether on a local basis or as part of a multi-state initiative. These areas, as well as others, are actively developing trails, interpretive sites and materials, festivals and other “attractions” focusing on birding as a device to stimulate economic development in rural areas.

Birders had been lumped into one homogeneous group, however more recently researchers have found differences based upon such things as level of specialization, motivation and also cross effects such as specialization affecting motivation (Lee & Scott, 2004; Scott, Ditton, Stoll, & Eubanks 2005). Behavior, motivation, and economics differ based upon demographic characteristics (Eubanks et al., 2004). The purpose of this research was to investigate birders, their overnight trip behavior and the importance of site characteristics when visiting birding sites.

Methods

Data for this study were collected in Fall 2009 using SurveyMonkey, an on-line survey system. Individuals, who had requested maps of Great Washington State Birding Trail program, were contacted via email. Emails were verified and a message was sent to 2,862 individuals asking them to participate in the survey. Participants self selected and four hundred and thirty (n=430) individuals responded. A 15.1% response rate. The survey contained five (5) sections: a) Basic birding information and possession of the maps and their utility; b) birding trip spending and behavior; c) birding area site preferences; d) environmental attitude; and e) demographic information.

Results

Profile of the Respondents Seventy-two point four percent (72.4%) were residents of Washington state with the majority residing in the Seattle/Puget Sound metropolitan area. The mean age of the respondents was 58.8 years and a slight majority of the respondents were female (55.1%; n=201). Eighty-four point one percent (84.1%; n=315) had achieved a bachelor’s degree or higher and 57.8% (n=173) had a professional, management, or technical profession. Thirty eight point two percent (38.2%; n=138) were retired. Thirty seven point six percent
Site Preferences The birders indicated how important birding area and site characteristics were using a Likert scale (5=very important; 1=very unimportant). Specific site characteristics dominated the more important preferences including lesser crowded sites (3.8), clearly marked trails (3.71), directional signage (3.52), walking/bicycling path (3.35), and close to water (3.29) were the top five (5) preferences for selecting a bird watching site. The lowest ranked items included a casino, places to golf, places to go fishing, interesting shopping and vineyards and wine tasting rooms.

A factor analysis was conducted and revealed eight (8) discrete factors: 1) Navigation, 2) Recreation, 3) Availability and Familiarity, 4) Hospitality Facilities, 5) Social Interaction, 6) Heritage Attractions, 7) Access, and 8) General Attractions. One of the more interesting factors was Social Interaction. Less Crowded Sites loaded negatively on the Social Interaction factor counter to the characteristics of Being with other birders, There are opportunities to meet people, and Availability of tours or guides. Additional comments about other desired facilities or services were restrooms or access to restrooms, parking, visitor centers, viewing platforms, restaurants, retail and lodging. In a closer analysis, the following differences were identified based upon a significance level of .005. Members of the Audubon Society were different than non members when it came to Being with other birders and Family friendly activities.

Three hundred ten (n=310) trips were reported upon. These trips were taken between January 2007 and Fall 2009. The mean number of nights spent away from home was 5.97 nights and 56.7% (n=182) were traveling with “1 other person”. These Trip Respondents stayed at various lodging establishments and dined at restaurants, bought groceries and visited other food operations. The motivation for choosing the destination focused first on seeking specific birds (i.e. Puffins, Snow Geese or Owls) or birding generally (i.e. “a good flyway”, or “fall birding”). Individuals indicating they had taken a trip were different in their difference in the site proximity two hours away from home.

Discussion

Nature tourism highlighting birds and bird watching is a development strategy in many areas of the world. These results provide a basis for seeking financial and community support for further site development and also community development. The respondents participated in birding on a regular basis and traveled to seek out birds. Since many birding sites are in rural areas, there is an opportunity for small businesses to embrace birders as they seek hospitality services when traveling independently or in tour groups.

One could say these birders are independent travelers as they navigate their way with maps and signs, and shun more crowded areas, events, and facility-based attractions. Some respondents did take tours especially internationally. Most international and out of state destinations were initial visits. A visit to a known area was chosen for a deeper experience related to a conservation project or other new development in the area. Even with their distaste for crowded areas, festivals and other educational opportunities were attractions in known areas. The motivation for their destination choice; the climate, habitat, and specific birds, indicate the importance of sustainable strategies for preservation of flora and fauna. Many communities and organizations attempt to provide facilities and experiences to attract birders to an area. It is important to understand factors that may either encourage or discourage visits.

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References


ENGENDERING WILDERNESS: BODY, REFUGE, AND TRANSGENDERED EXPERIENCES
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Contemporary leisure research on gender and wilderness has shown how wilderness experiences can foster empowerment for women and allow for opportunities to resist prescribed gender roles. That research focuses mostly on women and empowerment (Angell, 1994; Bialeschki & Henderson, 1993; Kohn, 1991; Powch, 1994; Pohl, Borrie, & Patterson, 2000). Empirically, however, gender and wilderness are underexplored beyond models of empowerment, resistance, and improving the lives of women. Little has been done, for instance, to problematize gender and look at transitory gender categories; to examine the intersections between the body and gender in wild places (exceptions: McDermott, 2000, 2004; Newberry, 2003); or to include the voices of gay, bisexual, lesbian, transgendered/transsexual, and/or queer (gbtlq) people in wilderness research. The ways that gender identity and gender negotiation (at the level of the body) influence the leisure (in wilderness) of gbtlq self-identified ‘females’ was the focus of this study. This paper will focus on transgendered/transsexual wilderness experiences in particular and considers, for example, how people with non-heteronormative genders and sexualities experience gender and gender negotiation and what these stories might reveal about the broader implications of gender difference and the distinctiveness of wilderness settings.

Methods
Insights on these topics were gathered from 20 in-depth/semi-structured interviews including 13 face-to-face and seven phone interviews. Three post-interview letters from one interviewee were also used with permission of the participant. In-depth interviewing was used to gather rich descriptions; to allow the data to emerge from the interview process; and to give more weight and voice to interviewees (to facilitate the telling of alternative narratives). As Karen Fox points out, “the goal of feminist scholarship is not control or prediction but understanding, inclusion, and social change” (1992, p. 342). In-depth interviews are also valuable for grounded theory analysis. Grounded theory analysis, which uses rich descriptive stories to build substantive theory based on open coding, was used to identify overarching themes in the data (for nomothetic analysis); to explain how people experience gender and body in wilderness settings; and to build theory from the data (in the form of hypotheses). Like other researchers who use grounded theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2000; Clarke, 2007), this research departs somewhat from traditional grounded theory by taking a more feminist/constructionist approach.

Participants were recruited from three main sources: 1) recommendations from colleagues, friends, or acquaintances; 2) from responses to posters hung at recreation facilities, on campus, or gbtlq community centers; and 3) from responses to postings on internet listservs or sites for gbtlq organizations. This recruitment strategy also required some snowballing which is justifiable for this project because this sample population requires ethical considerations of disclosure. Participants were recruited based on three loosely defined criteria: 1) identified as gay, lesbian, bisexual, transgender, and/or queer, 2) identified at any point in their life as ‘female’, and 3) had recreated or worked in wilderness. Participants ranged in age from 22 to 66 years of age. Of the 20 interviewees, 13 participants were interviewed and were living in a state in the Western U.S. Seven phone interviews were conducted with individuals living in Washington (two), Idaho (one), North Carolina (one), Kentucky (one), California (one), and
Nevada (one). Of the 20 interviewees, 18 were of European-American heritage and one was of Eurasian and Mediterranean descent. One of those 18 was also Jewish. There was a wide range of gender identities and sexual orientations in the sample; no one, however, identified as heterosexual. At the time of the study, 16 of the participants identified their biological sex as female; two as male; one as transsexual male; and one as female first, then transsexual. Two women mentioned having children and at least 13 had no children. No one mentioned having a physical or mental disability beyond long-term or chronic injuries and pain. At least 11 study participants had a college degree at the time of the interview.

As part of grounded theory analysis, theoretical sampling was also used throughout the study. Analysis therefore started as soon as data collection began—which was followed by more data collection and analysis until the researcher believed categories had reached ‘theoretical saturation’ (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). To facilitate analysis, the researcher implemented analytical strategies and tools such as: making theoretical comparisons (comparing categories); making constant comparisons (comparing pieces of data); coding and using in-vivo codes; looking at context and process; drawing upon personal experience (confronting assumptions or presenting a ‘negative case’); and using integrative diagrams. Final integration required finding the core category that linked all other categories into a cohesive story. In these final steps, the analysis thus moved beyond codes and descriptions in order to build theory and provide meaningful explanations. The final product, the Results and Analysis Chapter, was sent to all interviewees for comment or feedback concerning our interpretations.

Results

The data analysis yielded a significant finding within the field of leisure research on gender and wilderness; these stories explain why and how wilderness can be experienced as a refuge from normative gender. According to legal definitions, wilderness is often understood to protect the earth and its community of life from humans and human objectives such as development and environmental modification (Wilderness Act, 1964, Public Law 88-577). The data suggest something a bit more nuanced in that wild places can also protect human animals from the predatory forces of oppression (societal structures and un-accepting people) because wilderness is a sort of holding environment for freedom of expression and safety in change and transition. Moreover, the data demonstrate that how we experience wilderness as a refuge from normative gender depends on how we negotiate gender in society, particularly if we feel our gender and sex are not necessarily the same. The refuge finding thus speaks more specifically to those people in the sample who identify as transgender/transsexual. Indeed, there is little room for transitory genders in mainstream American culture.

As part of negotiating gender in their everyday lives, respondents view gender identity in the following ways: 1) gender and sex are the same in that gender is a reflection of biology, 2) gender is a sociological construct and sex is biological, 3) gender identity is flexible and/or not fixed, and 4) gender includes sex and sexual orientation (i.e. female and lesbian). Thus, we see a diverse range of gender identities but we also see that most participants view gender as something flexible and as sociologically informed. Most participants feel their gender expression/identity is not in line with the normative gender expectations of their biological sex—namely normative femininity for females and/or normative masculinity for males. Some people feel they have flexibility in terms of the expression of their gender while others feel their gender expression is constricted by society’s judgments; and thus we see the variation between respondents in the degree that they experience gender negotiation in society. For study participants, gender negotiation includes things such as discrimination; career choices; family
pressures; alienation; objectification/sexualization; being seen; no room for transitory genders; everyday encounters (bathrooms); and religious rigidity.

Most interviewees do not feel that gender is present in wild places (exceptions, however, center on the presence of people and the vulnerability to violence/rape and discrimination). Most participants, for example, voiced not thinking about gender or feeling a sense of gender neutrality. Some participants experience wild places as a way to connect with their gender (as female or transgender or as not fixed). These experiences of gender in wild places may occur because they can express a gender they feel is stifled in society; they can connect to what they feel are the more positive traits of their gender; or they may connect to their gender through their body. Important here is the ability to choose and this independence/freedom of action is one of the unique opportunities that wilderness affords. Wilderness does not necessitate that people negotiate their genders because nature is indifferent to our sociological constructs. If someone wants to cross-dress or swim naked in wilderness, they have the freedom to do so without judgment. Indeed, it is the absence of this judgment that underlies the experience of refuge from normative gender in wild places. Sophia-Margeaux describes, for example, “I’m either this guy or this guy dressed as a woman or something, and the one unknown and scary, creepy, freaky and weird. So is it any wonder I choose to recreate alone in the wild places for at least then I can engage my own gender congruence (or delusion) without the threat of a disbelieving or disapproving public” (Sophia-Margeaux, 2010, letter #1). The people in this study who do a lot of gender negotiation in American ‘society’ (mostly those who identify as transgender or transsexual) experience wilderness as a refuge from normative gender, from unaccepting people, and from judgment because wilderness is unpatriotable and as a respondent, MSU, describes—a “gender-free land”.

Discussion

Outdoor and wilderness educators and managers could consider the findings of this research in four ways: First, they might start by evaluating how they perpetuate gender stereotypes and gender oppression. They should also understand how the social positions that people occupy (in relation to sex, gender, sexuality, race, class, able-bodiedness, and so on) affect the meanings people ascribe to wilderness experiences and the role wilderness plays in their lives. More specifically, we should recognize that wilderness for many people speaks to fundamental ways of being and is sometimes more than just a fun and adventurous trip into the woods. And last, wilderness educators and managers could offer more than just opportunities for gbtq people in outdoor leadership but facilitate gender-sensitive leadership training (as suggested in regards to race by Warren, 2002).

The results of this study also suggest that in wilderness experiences we can find models for how to live ethically in contemporary society. Understanding wilderness as refuge, for example, tells us something about gender difference and oppression in American society. On the one hand—wilderness as refuge from normative gender tells us the story of a significant but relatively small sub-population of people. On the other hand—it tells us something of what lies beneath one of the most central organizing systems of the human social animal—sex, gender, sexuality, and oppression. The narrative of wilderness as refuge from normative gender reminds us that in wildness there is a model of emancipation. Wilderness reminds us what it means to belong ecologically because wilderness can provide a venue to freely ‘be’ and explore oneself and to re-animate our bodily selves without the impositions of discrimination and other normative pressures.

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References


URBAN GENTRIFICATION: ADOLESCENT LEISURE PERCEPTIONS AND THE CONCENTRATION OF POVERTY

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Community leisure spaces and components of the built leisure infrastructure are significant contexts in which adolescents are able to engage in activities through which they may derive a variety of developmentally-positive outcomes (Caldwell & Baldwin, 2003; Jutras, 2003; Kleiber, 1999; Kytta, 2004). For these reasons, there has been a fair amount of research attention to the ways in which organized leisure services may help meet the developmental needs of adolescents, and particular attention has been paid to youth living in communities characterized by, for instance, high levels of poverty, violence, or social discord (Bohnert, Richards, Kolmodin & Lakin, 2008).

Youth who are exposed to multiple risk factors may experience compromised developmental outcomes (Luthar et al., 2000; Masten, Best, & Garmezy, 1990; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Resilience has been defined as “a dynamic process encompassing positive adaptation within the context of significant adversity” (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000, p. 543); thus, the development of resilience is a particularly salient outcome for adolescents living within historically marginalized inner-city area. Protective factors shown to promote resilience in children and youth are largely echoed in the Developmental Assets approach (Benson, Leffert, Scales, & Blyth, 1998, and may be viewed as factors both internal to the individual (i.e., commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity) and also representative of the interaction of the individual and the external environment. (for example, community support, a sense of agency and of being valued, and constructive use of time.) According to Benson and his colleagues, tenure of these developmental assets are implicated in three categories of positive mental health outcomes: (a) prevention of high-risk behaviours (e.g., substance use); (b) encouragement of positive behaviours (e.g., school success); and (c) resilience in the face of adversity.

The context of leisure is especially amenable to fostering the acquisition of developmental assets and the development of resilience (Morden, Rose & Delamere, 2004). However, the issue of access to developmentally significant opportunities becomes problematized as inner-city areas are transformed by the process of gentrification, which may disrupt existing usage patterns and which alters the dynamics of supply and demand at the community level. It is not clear to what extent community “revitalization” projects are considered improvements by all members of the community (Slater, 2002), and there is scant research about the impact of the process on pre-existing residents (Slater, 2004), specifically their leisure behaviour. Additionally, youth perspectives are seldom sought by researchers examining gentrification though appealing to such perspectives has been advocated for social research (Caputo, 1995), specifically research with policy implication (Grover, 2004).

Purpose

In order to assess the developmental consequences of leisure affordances within gentrifying communities, it is imperative to understand adolescents’ perspective about and use of their community spaces and built resources. The objectives of this research are to examine the extent and distribution of socioeconomic changes within a gentrifying community and to elicit the views of youth pertaining to their perceptions, experiences and use of the community leisure infrastructure.
Methodology

The first step in this research has been to assess the degree and distribution of gentrification within the community of Little Burgundy, an approximately one square kilometer area of Montreal, Quebec. Little Burgundy has been identified as prototypical of gentrification in the last quarter century (Van Criekingen & Decroly, 2003) and has also been the subject of community analysis, including assessments of natural and built community leisure resources (Germain, Marchand, & Mukakayumba, 1995). However, there has been scant attention paid to intra-community changes resulting from the gentrification process. Data from the Canadian Census were used in order to paint a socio-economic profile of the community and to examine differences as may be evident between the four census tracts of which Little Burgundy is comprised.

The second step in the research process involved semi-structured interviews conducted with over four-dozen adolescents residing in the community. Interviews covered adolescents’ perceptions of the community and their use of community leisure resources, daily time-use, leisure companions, and impressions about community change. Interviews were recorded, conducted in either English or French, and their duration ranged from 20 to 90 minutes. Recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim and analyzed using a software package for this purpose. Open coding procedures (Strauss, 1987) were initially used which led to a wide variety of descriptive categories related to community perceptions, space and place use, leisure experiences, and interpersonal relationships in the neighborhood. Subsequently, axial and selective coding procedures (Strauss) were used to derive broad themes which best captured the experiences and meaning of the community, its leisure resources, and its development over time for these adolescents.

Results

Initial analyses sought to examine the socio-demographic evolution of Little Burgundy over the quarter century between the 1981 and the 2006 Canadian Census. Of particular interest were changes in population, household income, linguistic make-up, and the proportion of youth under 20 residing in each of the four census tracts within Little Burgundy (67, 68, 77, and 78).

Population growth in Census Tract 78 has far outpaced that within the other tracts. Additionally, while there is general upward trends in three of the fours census tracts, much faster income growth has also occurred within census tract 78. In contrast, whereas average income in census tract 78 increased by 236% (in constant dollars) income within census tract 68 has risen a scant 28% in a quarter-century; by the 2006 census, average income in tract 78 was almost triple the average income found in tract 68.

There has also been a concurrent reduction in the proportion, approximately 20% in 2006 of youths living in tract 78 whereas 36% of tract 68 is less than twenty years old. Furthermore, analysis of the census data indicates significant changes can also be seen in the linguistic make-up of the community; in 2006, over 54% of residents in tract 68 report neither English nor French as their mother tongue; each of the other three tracts had around 40% of residents with a mother language other than English or French in 2006.

In short, community change along a number of dimensions has not been uniformly distributed across Little Burgundy. Indeed, from the relatively similar tract profiles in 1981 there have developed two areas of marked contrast, represented by tracts 68 and 78, and another two tracts that have developed between these extremes. While tract 78 has seen an influx of wealthy residents to occupy converted and built accommodations, tract 68 is distinctly more
impoverished, ethnically and linguistically diverse, and has far greater proportion of youth in the area than in all other tracts.

Given the elevated proportion of youth and the concentration of disadvantage in tract 68, it is here that community leisure provisions would seem of greatest need and also of greatest potential benefit. The perceptions of youth from tract 68, and their use of community resources, are highlighted below.

Youth within this area were generally quite positive about Little Burgundy overall as well as the leisure affordances within the community: *It’s a nice neighborhood. Like, the people are nice, people are friendly, you have the basketball court right there. You can just come outside and walk around a chill. So, it’s a good area.* That said, youth seldom indicated use of any of the leisure resources in Little Burgundy that were beyond tract 68 and, in certain cases, indicated that such areas were largely ignored in favour of staying close to home and making use of the facilities in the immediate area. Of paramount importance to these youth was the park located within this tract, one of the two main parks in Little Burgundy: *It is very attractive for the youth and the community. A lot of kids go there because it is... the closest place to the centre of the community and that’s where we get together—everybody coming and going because it is, like, in the middle.* Although most frequently mentioned as a favorite place, the park had its detractors, as well: *The thing is that a lot of teens go there that have a bad influence, so... It is mostly between four and five [o-clock] that they start to come... after those times... when I go the park I am scared because you never know what can happen.*

Youth from this area also mentioned their reliance upon not-for-profit organizations in order to occupy their free-time and also serve their leisure needs. Indeed, other than the nearby park, such community organizations were reported as “favorite” place by a substantial proportion of tract 68 youth. Of significance, as well, were that such community agencies provided financial support to youth with limited means in order to participate in leisure activities: *They helped me out this year to pay my fees for basketball.*

The youth in the area certainly noted the economic changes in Little Burgundy that have left tract 68 largely unaffected—both in terms of income growth and also infrastructural improvements: *All the stuff that is coming in, all the condos and everyone is pushing people out of Burgundy... like, most of the people here, most are on welfare, so they can’t really pay what they have to pay.* Some expressed concern that resources that they valued may also be affected: *They may destroy some places and build other things. Maybe they might do that. Or here [community youth-serving organization], for example, maybe they might break it down to build condos or something... I don’t think they should do that because it is a place that you like to go.*

**Conclusion**

Within the context of a Little Burgundy that has seen drastic though unequally distributed economic and social change over the 25 years examined here, adolescents within the most impoverished and socially troubled area of the neighborhood respond relatively favorably to their environment. Perhaps they have developed resilience in the face of adversity due to supportive adult networks and opportunities for the constructive use of time, and some teens in this study have alluded as much. However, with the prospect of further gentrification to come, it is essential that “low-income residents have a say in their neighborhood’s future” (Formoso, Weber & Atkins, 2010, p 399) and no constituency needs a voice more that tract 68 adolescents.

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TRAPPED IN VICIOUS CIRCLES: LEISURE IN COPING WITH DEPRESSION
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Introduction
Depression is a mental illness affecting millions around the world. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2010), it is the leading cause of disability worldwide, affecting 121 million people. At its worst, depression can lead to suicide, a tragic death associated with the loss of about 850,000 lives every year. Depression may be successfully treated in a variety of ways, including the use of drugs and psychotherapy. Yet, less than 25 percent of those affected (in some countries less than 10 percent) receive such treatments. Moreover, among those who receive treatment, 20 to 40 percent are resistant to it. Such findings lead writers on depression (e.g., Wasserman, 2006) to recognize the importance of alternative techniques, particularly for the prevention of depression but also for "self-help" when it occurs.

Research on emotion indicates that positive emotions lead to a variety of effects that strengthen general psychological capacity (Folkman, 2008; Fredrickson, 2001, 2002, 2003). Subjective well-being and happiness may be attributable to a variety of causes, but the positive emotions generated in leisure time and through leisure activities are clearly a source for such feelings (for a review see Carruthers & Hood, 2004).

Since the literature on leisure in coping with depression is limited, this study was guided in large part by research on leisure in coping with stress, including that generated by negative life events. Studies of coping with illness and injury suggest that loss of leisure is often a part of the “illness experience” (Kleiber, Brock, Dattilo, Lee & Caldwell, 1995), when preferred activities and companions are no longer available for whatever reason. Yet, leisure also appears to play a prominent role in adjusting and adapting to such circumstances (Kleiber, Hutchinson & Williamson, 2002; Patterson, 2000).

Having similarities with both acute and chronic illness, depression would then be likely to be amenable to the influence of leisure. Indeed, since the loss of enjoyment and interest is one of the principle symptoms used in diagnosing depression (e.g., Nydegger, 2008), their restoration can in that sense constitute an indication of recovery (Fullagar, 2008; Iwasaki, Coyle & Shank, 2010). Thus, this study aimed to explore how leisure is perceived and used by people with depression, and just how personal leisure practices are problematized in their experience.

Method
Many people with depression turn to online communities (online peer-to-peer support groups) for help in understanding and dealing with symptoms (Nimrod, 2009). The sincere contents posted in the communities serve as a valuable resource in studies examining various aspects of depression (e.g., Horne & Wiggins, 2008; Pestello & Davis-Berman, 2008). Consequently, this study was based on contents posted in online depression communities and applied an online ethnographic approach frequently described as netnography. This method is based on observations of technologically-mediated communication in online networks and communities (Hine, 2000; Langer & Beckman, 2005; Mann & Stewart; 2000). Given the public nature of online forums, consent was implied and the study was approved as exempted from human subjects review.

The research team searched the web and identified 45 online communities, which explicitly target people with depression. Each forum/chat was then briefly reviewed, and those that were relatively new or non-active were screened out. The final sample consisted of 25 English-based communities. Using a novel computerized system, posts that included
keywords related to leisure were filtered. The final database consisted of 9,318 posts. To identify the leisure-related themes, the database was carefully read and categorized using constant comparison strategies (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Findings

Six themes emerged from the data, suggesting that people with depression, to varying degrees, (1) are aware of healthy use of leisure in coping with depression; (2) recognize the many benefits of healthy use; (3) differentiate such usage from unhealthy use of leisure in coping with depression; (4) recognize various risks associated with certain unhealthy activities; (5) understand factors constraining their healthy use; and (6) have strategies for dealing with such constraints.

1. Healthy use of leisure in coping with depression included 'Social interaction,' 'Recreation,' and 'Keeping busy.' Community members valued the social support and distraction possible through leisure, and encouraged each other to have fun as a way of coping with depression: "You've got to bring more things into your life that you find really 'likeable' and 'enjoyable' so that you can tolerate the parts that aren't so likable and enjoyable" (#1127).

2. The benefits of healthy behaviors. All community members reported that leisure helps them 'Feel better' about themselves and about life in general despite their mental health condition. This often relates to the ability of leisure activity to "uplift mood" as well as to its ability to enhance relaxation and reduce stress ("it's a real lifesaver"). Other prominent benefits of healthy behaviors that were discussed (regardless of the specific activity) were grouped into 'Distraction,' 'Sense of purpose,' 'Self-expression,' and 'Reappraisal.'

3. Unhealthy use of leisure in coping with depression. There were several relatively common behaviors regarded as unhealthy. They were divided into three groups: 'Avoidance,' Excessive substance use,' and 'Media overuse.' These three behaviors frequently associated with each other (e.g., watching TV and smoking, "hiding" from the world by turning to video games). They were frequently described as "protective defenses" or "security blankets" but were not advocated.

4. The risks of unhealthy behaviors. All unhealthy behaviors were described as providing immediate relief from pain and "some instant good feeling." However, they were also perceived by the great majority as harmful in the long term. The various risks were divided into three groups: 'Physical,' 'Social,' and 'Psychological.' Even without becoming an addiction, but particularly when they do, all three unhealthy behaviors were described as factors that trigger and worsen depression. At the same time, quitting unhealthy behaviors may also have the effect of worsening depression.

5. Constraints to healthy use of leisure. Community members discussed many constraints to healthy usage of leisure in coping with depression. The most discussed constraints to participation were lack of interest, lack of energy, lack of companions, fear and anxiety, and feeling unworthy of leisure. All these constraints were either directly or indirectly related to depression itself. The most discussed constraint to benefiting from participation was feeling unable to enjoy anything, which often involved a sense of the effort required, communication difficulties, feeling rejected, and comparing unfavorably with others. The immediate result of having constraints to healthy use of leisure was a limited ability to enjoy the benefits of such use and eventually feel better. Moreover, it often made the members feel even more depressed.

6. Strategies for dealing with constraints to healthy uses of leisure. Despite the gloomy and unresolvable condition described, some community members (probably the less depressed ones) argued that there are ways to break this frustrating dynamic. The most common strategies were: 'Gaining awareness,' 'Taking one step at a time,' 'Reducing expectations,' 'Forcing oneself,' 'Time management,' and 'Picking up new activities.' Most of the strategies were mentioned as helpful with dealing with both types of constraints.
Discussion

The findings provided a rather detailed and comprehensive picture of the way leisure is considered and used by people coping with depression. This picture suggests that people with depression greatly appreciate the potential positive impacts of leisure and perceive it as a significant resource in coping with their condition. Yet, they seem to be trapped in multiple vicious circles. The more depressed they are, the less they are able to participate in leisure activities and benefit from such involvement; and the less involved they are, the more depressed they become. Higher levels of depression put them at risk of maladaptive forms of coping, which, in turn, exacerbate the depression. The following figure illustrates the dynamic of these vicious circles. It also shows how strategies for dealing with leisure constraints may facilitate healthy use of leisure:

![Diagram of leisure and depression](image)

The present study is significant in at least four ways. First, it shows evidence of high congruence between the positive effects of leisure suggested in the literature (e.g., Carruthers & Hood, 2004) and the way leisure is considered by people with depression. The study demonstrates that people with depression believe that depression, like other chronic conditions, is amenable to the positive influence of leisure (Fullagar, 2008; Iwasaki, et al., 2010). Second, the findings of this study suggest that people with depression are not only aware of the various influences of leisure, but also use leisure intentionally as a resource for coping with depression. Third, the study reveals how personal leisure practices are problematized in their experience (Nydegger, 2008). The latter is demonstrated in the dynamic of vicious circles exposed in this study. Hence, the study strongly supports the dimensionality of leisure with respect to depression as both part of the problem and part of the solution. Fourth, depression poses many constraints to beneficial use of leisure, and thus awareness and effort are required to deal with such constraints. This study is the first to explore how people with depression negotiate the constraints to leisure (Jackson, 2005).

Future research should investigate how leisure is construed over the Internet across a broader range of cultures and, of course, how it is considered and used by people with depression who do not participate in online communities.

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HOMOPHOBIA, HETERONORMATIVITY, AND IDENTITY MANAGEMENT FOR LGBT SUMMER CAMP STAFF
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Each year thousands of emerging adults, age 18 to 25 years, work at residential summer camps in the United States (American Camp Association, 2007). Unlike most places of work, however, staff members at summer camp live with their coworkers and within close proximity to the children in their care.

Some camp staff are lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender (LGBT). Little research has addressed LGBT staff members in organizations that provide leisure services for youth. Most research about LGBT adults working with young people has focused on K-12 teachers. LGBT teachers have reported that they experienced discrimination, but that the fear of discrimination affected them more strongly and more frequently than discriminatory incidents (Jackson, 2007). Many teachers responded to these fears by being closeted and limiting disclosure to some or all administrators, teachers, parents, or students. Mayo (2008) found that worries about discrimination made it more difficult for gay teachers to negotiate relationships with their peers and with students. Gay teachers invested enough time and energy in such negotiations that Mayo argued they represented a threat to good teaching.

Both LGBT teachers and summer camp staff members work with children, but their situations may be dissimilar because of differences between school and summer camp. The purpose of this study was to explore the phenomenological experience of residential summer camp staff who self-identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) or non-heterosexual. The study examined in what ways staff members’ LGBT status influenced their camp experience.

Methods
Participants in the study were between the ages of 18 and 25 years, had worked at residential summer camp within the prior three years (i.e., during the summers of 2007-2009), and identified as LGBT or non-heterosexual. Participants were initially contacted through LGBT organizations on college campuses and additional participants were recruited through snowball sampling.

The 28 study participants included 24 females, 3 males, and one individual who identified as gender queer and rejected the gender binary. The goal of sampling for this study was to reach theoretical saturation. The purpose of theoretical sampling was to ensure the researchers could create theory that was based on sufficient data (Draucker, Martsolf, Ross, & Rusk, 2007). Data collection continued until additional interviews seemed to be adding little to theory building processes. Data were collected through face-to-face, semi-structured interviews that lasted about an hour. Each interview was taped and then later transcribed verbatim for analysis.

Phenomenology was used to frame the analysis. Phenomenological research focuses on participants’ lived experience (Levesque-Lopman, 1988), and this framework was consonant with the research goals. Grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was the approach for building theoretical knowledge related to the experiences of LGBT staff at summer camp. The grounded theory process included analysis of the data through coding, comparison, creating memos and diagrams, and theorizing (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Findings
Several themes emerged from the data, and one unifying conceptualization tied the themes together – managing an LGBT identity at camp. LGBT staff at residential summer camp
managed their LGBT identity on a day-to-day and sometimes a moment-by-moment basis. The work included positioning against stereotypes, controlling the disclosure of LGBT status, and interpreting others’ cues before speaking or acting. Staff managed their LGBT identity using strategies to reduce the impact of homophobia or heteronormativity on themselves. The work of managing identity was affected by the other themes that emerged from the data: residential camp context, staff members’ prior experience in and outside camp, disclosure or non-disclosure of LGBT identity, and the atmosphere at each camp for LGBT staff.

The most salient foundation of LGBT staff members’ experiences was that they were living in a residential camp context. Staff members’ daily concerns centered on their role at camp, but how they negotiated that role was affected by their LGBT status. For example, the camp context affected identity management because staff members lived with their coworkers. Constant proximity magnified the consequences if other staff reacted negatively to disclosure of one’s LGBT status. As Ashley said, “The fact that you’re living with people 24/7 comes into play at camp. ‘Cause if you meet somebody [away from camp], you might not see them again forever or for a week. Even if you see them every day, you don’t live with them.” Ashley felt that the effects of a disapproving or homophobic co-worker would be magnified because they were in constant proximity.

The presence of minors at camp also affected staff members’ camp context because of stereotypes that LGBT individuals were sexual predators. Heather felt that “a mom won’t feel comfortable with their kid being at a camp with a lesbian.” Heather listed parent reactions as the “number one worry of lesbians working at camp.”

Staff experiences of being LGBT at summer camp also were set within the context of their prior experience with their family, their community, and the larger society. Prior experience changed staff members’ estimations of others’ behavior, which altered their identity management strategies. Staff members managed disclosure or non-disclosure of their LGBT identity more cautiously when they had previous experience with homophobia. For example, Melissa worked at one of the most LGBT friendly camps in this sample but she was entirely closeted at camp during her first summer. The atmosphere at camp was less important than her own prior experience in determining how safe or unsafe she felt about disclosing her status. Melissa said that she grew up in “a conservative area” and the first time she came into contact with people who had a positive attitude towards LGBT individuals was at summer camp.

Melissa said that when she disclosed her status the second summer it enabled her to form much closer relationships with other staff members. Disclosure or non-disclosure represented the third theme to emerge from the data. Each staff member in this study sought to control who found out about their LGBT status and how others learned of it. Staff members’ decisions about whether to disclose their status was affected by the atmosphere for LGBT staff at their camp. The presence of “out” staff encouraged LGBT staff to disclose their status. Conversely, the atmosphere at camp was influenced by the presence or absence of openly LGBT staff members. Non-disclosure also increased the amount of labor necessary for identity management.

The atmosphere at camp also affected identity management strategies. The atmosphere at camps in this sample fell on a continuum with some camps barring LGBT staff members from employment and other camps specifically seeking to hire them. Staff members’ experiences clustered based on two policies: whether camps hired openly LGBT staff members and whether staff members were allowed to disclose the presence of LGBT staff to campers. The camps were categorized as homophobic, tolerant, or supportive based on their policies. Homophobic camps did not allow LGBT staff members to work at camp. Tolerant camps allowed LGBT staff to
work there, but did not allow campers to know that LGBT staff members were present. Supportive camps allowed campers (and by extension, their parents) to know about the presence of LGBT staff members at camp. Staff at the most homophobic camps reported the greatest stress and fear associated with identity management. Staff members who worked at the most supportive camps appeared to engage in less labor to manage their LGBT identity.

**Discussion**

The data from our study suggested that the experience of LGBT residential summer camp staff members was affected by their LGBT status. Staff members were more focused on daily life at camp than on the process of identity management. However, staff members’ LGBT identity was inextricable from their role identities as camp staff. Existing homophobic and heteronormative structures at camp and in society dictated that staff members had to actively manage their LGBT identity.

While being LGBT affected how staff members experienced some things at camp, most of what they experienced was related to being at camp rather than being LGBT. Like their straight counterparts, LGBT staff members spent their summers at camp singing songs, playing games, and failing to get enough sleep. Unlike their straight co-workers, however, LGBT camp staff members needed to manage an LGBT identity in the context of homophobia and heteronormativity.

Heteronormativity is deeply embedded in the culture within the United States (Nielsen, Walden, & Kunkel, 2000). Thus, the residential summer camp context resides within a larger context of homophobia and heteronormativity. Since heterosexuality is cast as the norm and non-heterosexuality as other, the presence of heteronormativity has the effect of limiting the perception of what is possible (Atkinson & DePalma, 2009). For example, many of the staff members who worked at tolerant camps did not seem to consider the possibility that camp staff members could be open with campers and could discuss LGBT issues with them. Common sense understandings based in heteronormative attitudes limited the imagination and served to hide the presence of homophobic policies that penalized LGBT individuals with violating policies that had no equivalent for straight staff (e.g., policies that disallowed coming out to campers).

The labor that staff members engaged in to manage their LGBT identity at camp was necessary because of the presence of homophobia and heteronormativity. Straight staff members generally would not need to be concerned with the issues that caused LGBT staff to engage in identity management. For example, straight staff would not worry about whether parents would pull their children out of camp because of the presence of heterosexual staff members. Some LGBT staff members in this study did worry about such issues, and sought to minimize the effects of such concerns through LGBT identity management strategies. As long as summer camps or any type of youth organization resides within a homophobic and heteronormative society, LGBT staff members likely will need to manage their identity to minimize its effects. As such, LGBT staff members may not be able to fully relinquish identity management so long as recreation organizations exist within the context of a homophobic and heteronormative society. However, measures taken at supportive camps in this sample demonstrated that camps can work to counter homophobic and heteronormative attitudes and practices. The implications may also apply to other recreation agencies.

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PHYSICALLY ACTIVE LEISURE CONSTRAINTS AND ENABLERS: A RURAL PERSPECTIVE
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Introduction
The obesity epidemic in America persists in part due to insufficient rates of physical activity (Mokdad et al., 2001). Though this is true across the United States, it is especially pronounced in rural areas (Parks, Housemann, & Brownson, 2003). Research supports the claim that physically active leisure in park and recreation settings can promote health and well-being (Godbey, Caldwell, Floyd, & Payne, 2005). As such, participation in physically active leisure may be one way for rural adults to improve their health and well-being, particularly through recreation and park-based physical activity (Son et al., 2009). Prior leisure research has revealed constraints and enablers to active living, including outdoor recreation, community recreation areas and facilities, time usage, and social interdependence (Henderson & Bialeschki, 2005). Lack of motivation has come to the fore as an important intrapersonal constraining factor for physically active leisure (Guinn & Vincent, 2008), and accordingly, intrinsic motivation is a key enabler (Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007). Few studies, however, have looked at racially diverse rural populations, which may encounter unique constraints and enablers to physically active leisure, and therefore may have a pattern of determinants distinct from other populations (Wilcox et al., 2000). In fact, rural racial/ethnic minority residents generally have even worse health and less access to health care than urban minorities (Probst et al., 2004). Existing models for leisure programs cannot be transplanted to rural areas without considering local variations in personal, social, environmental, and cultural realities. Rather, alleviating leisure and health disparities requires a broad-based community participation approach emphasizing interdisciplinary collaboration and partnerships (Hartley, 2004). The current paper draws on the results of a larger project conducted to identify recreation needs and to build partnerships within the community to enhance health-promoting leisure and recreation opportunities. The purpose of this study is to identify the constraints and enablers to participation in physically active leisure as rural residents perceive them.

Methods
Researchers met with community members to ask them what they felt were the community’s constraints and enablers in promoting leisure-based health and wellness, including physical activity.

Setting: “Carington” is a rural town in Illinois. Once a booming industrial community, Carington has seen factories close and job opportunities lost over the past several decades. This town is one of the few rural communities in Illinois with a substantial African American subpopulation (11.8%) and, compared statewide, has higher poverty rates (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011).

Procedures: In Phase 1, researchers conducted semi-structured interviews with 24 community leaders and organizational representatives; in Phase 2, researchers conducted 4 focus groups with 43 residents from diverse cross-sections of the community (African American, low income, older adults, and health care workers). Later stages of the larger project included a residential survey and town hall meetings. The current study examines results from Phases 1 and 2 to draw a picture of residents’ perceptions of physically active leisure and health constraints and enablers.
Participants were selected using purposive sampling that sought out community leaders, and then through a process of snowball sampling, other organizations and stakeholders were identified for the interviews and focus groups. We oversampled African American leaders and residents to ensure their perspectives were being represented. Interviews and focus groups were recorded, transcribed, and made available to participants for review and comment (Creswell, 2007). The research team developed codebooks for the interviews and focus groups using an iterative process of additions and clarifications as more data was analyzed. More specifically, a member of the research team expanded the initial codebook to further develop themes related to physically active leisure and then another researcher verified the themes (verification; Creswell). Research members reached consensus on all codes and examined interconnecting themes as well as discrepant viewpoints (Creswell; Huberman & Miles, 1998).

**Results**

Primary themes from the interviews and focus groups revealed residents’ views on physically active leisure and health, as well as constraints and enablers to physically active leisure in Carington. Themes included a need to engage in more physically active leisure, structural and intrapersonal constraints, and organizational enablers such as church support and partnering.

*Current state of physically active leisure in Carington:* Residents largely viewed themselves as engaging in insufficient levels of physical activity. “I think people are more sedentary than they ever have been,” said one school administrator. “I don’t see a lot of activity—physical activity—on the part of our adults,” said another resident. This dearth of physical activity, it seems, is not due to lack of resources. “We have some great facilities,” one woman emphasized, “they just need to take advantage of them!” Thus, residents’ views seemed to convey that, although opportunities exist in the community, many residents still do not use them to engage in regular physically active leisure.

*Structural and intrapersonal constraints:* Major structural constraints residents cited that keep them from participating in physically active leisure included money, time, and transportation. Residents stated, “I think it’s all a matter of whether or not it’s affordable;” “people are just so busy […] that they just don’t take time for themselves;” “I think one need is transportation.” But these, many residents suggested, do not tell the whole story. Intrapersonal constraints such as lack of motivation also affect participation in physically active leisure. Our data support that residents connect physically active leisure with health promotion, yet have difficulty motivating themselves to do it. When asked what leisure activities are most important for health, one woman said, “I would think the physical ones.” Another resident concurred in a separate focus group, “I think the physical ones, more physical and active ones probably keep people healthier.” Another resident thought that a health-promoting program would need to include “a motivational [component]—I think people need to be inspired.” One woman described residents as not participating in enough physical activity and added, “They just don’t want to get involved. […] They’re not motivated.” Currently, many residents lack motivation for physically active leisure, despite being aware of its health benefits.

*Organizational Enablers:* Interestingly, themes around physically active leisure enablers emerged primarily among black and low-income community leaders and residents, and involved organizational support or partnerships. Though white residents mentioned it, church seemed to figure more prominently in the lives of black residents. One black community leader pointed to the unique role church could play in promoting health, including physically active leisure. “[There has] to be a center spot that’s providing the information, encouraging people, […] the church becomes a very powerful entity to do that, if it would.” Finally, only in the focus groups
with black and low-income residents was the importance of partnering discussed: partnering across churches, across racial lines, and partnering among community organizations. One resident said, “[I would have] the school boards meet with the city government and lay out a program that would be beneficial to the local area. […] I believe in tying in and partnering between politics and private enterprise […] we gotta work all together.”

**Discussion**

Residents acknowledge that for many of them, current levels of physical activity are less than optimal, despite opportunities for physically active leisure in Carington. The major structural constraints residents cited of money, time, and transportation did not fully explain lack of participation. Rather, on a deeper level, many residents indicated a lack of intrinsic motivation, failing to view physical activity as an enjoyable leisure option (Mannell & Loucks-Atkinson, 2005). It is not perceived as fun, and currently inactive residents may not be interested in physically active leisure, despite being aware of its health benefits. Ultimately, residents stressed the importance of motivation, diminishing the power of structural constraints to prevent participation in physically active leisure if the motivation is there.

Residents saw the potential for organizations to motivate the community through health-promoting programs incorporating physically active leisure. Black residents in particular noted the central role the church plays in community life. This is especially promising in terms of reaching residents who may need access to such programs, in that minority rural residents represent a particularly underserved segment of society (Probst et al., 2004). Also promising was the emphasis some residents placed on building partnerships across organizations and with our research team, a process which has been shown to be a powerful tool in promoting active living (Godbey et al., 2005; Hartley, 2004).

These results confirm findings in prior research that indicate the primacy of intrinsic motivation as an enabler of physically active leisure (Son et al., 2009; Wilcox et al., 2000). Previous research has shown intrinsic motives like enjoyment, fun, and personal interest to be key motivators to physical activity (Ferrand et al., 2008). Programmers have also seen success with physical activity interventions that focus on bolstering participants’ intrinsic motivation (McDonough et al., 2010). The challenge for leisure researchers and programmers is how to make physically active leisure fun and interesting in those all-too-common cases where people wish that they wanted to be active, but currently find physically active leisure as something they “should” do rather than something they want to do. In Carington, residents pointed to a realistic starting point: partnering with and among existing community organizations (such as churches) to spearhead initiatives that encourage physically active leisure participation through boosting intrinsic motivation (Wilcox et al., 2000).

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PANEL INTRODUCTION: YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AT CAMP
Ann Gillard, Springfield College

Camp is one recreation-based developmental setting designed to foster positive relationships and competence-building opportunities and experiences for youth to initiate and engage in behaviors that aid in the transition to adulthood. Each summer, over 10 million young people attend one or more of over 12,000 day and sleepaway camps (American Camp Association, 2011). More than just place to build skills such as soccer or horseback riding, many developmental outcomes are facilitated by intensive and intentional community living in the outdoors. Positive experiences with activities such as those found in camps can lead to life-long engagement in leisure and recreation. Well-documented links exist between participation in structured leisure activities during out-of-school time and positive adult outcomes related to education, income, health, coping, and more. Camp is a unique out-of-school time setting because of its high intensity relative to low duration, its emphasis on community living, and its embrace of the uncertainty and challenges that come with engaging with nature. Research on the outcomes of camp participation consistently demonstrates that camp has positive implications for outcomes such as identity development, social skills, physical and thinking skills, positive values, spirituality, autonomy, and more. Such developmental growth occurs in partnership with caring adults who focus on structuring and facilitating opportunities for discovery while instructing, coaching, and teaching. However, more research is needed to articulate specific developmental outcomes associated with camp participation, and to understand how programmatic elements within the camp experience promote positive youth development.

All three papers in this panel session focus on specific developmental outcomes related to camp participation. The studies tested the effects of specific interventions on a variety of developmental outcomes for youth including affinity for nature, independence, problem solving, empowerment, sense of caring, and relatedness. Camp program structure was specifically examined in all three studies and included staff training, activity type, camp type, and intentionally designed curricula for campers.

The findings from these studies reveal the need for additional examination of the structural processes found in programs that relate to specific youth development outcomes. The studies provide empirical evidence for the importance of intentionally-designed and implemented programs that aim to optimize positive youth outcomes. The demonstration of distinct yet related developmental outcomes (i.e., personal and interpersonal) across various groups of youth (i.e., older, younger, youth with disabilities) highlight the potential robustness of the studies’ interventions and methods for other youth settings and populations. The findings from this line of research provide implications to youth development practitioners regarding how to manage recreation-based settings for optimal youth development.

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RELATEDNESS FOR YOUTH WITH DISABILITIES: TESTING A CAMP PROGRAM MODEL
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Scholars and practitioners credit a variety of camp program factors (e.g., camp length, staff training, and novel environment) with fostering positive youth development outcomes (Bialeschki, Henderson, Krenbiel, & Ewing, 2003), however, the specific mechanisms by which desired outcomes occur remain elusive. This study serves as an initial step towards connecting camp mechanisms to participant outcomes by designing and testing a camp program model based on relatedness. This program model depicts the relationships between five mechanisms of camp relatedness (MCR) that may facilitate a sense of belonging in youth with disabilities: challenging experiences, peer role modeling, learning new skills, taking meaningful roles, and engaging in informal social experiences. While these programming elements are essential for youth in general (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, & Foster, 1998), youth with disabilities may have fewer opportunities to experience these processes in their daily lives (Bluebond-Langner, Perkel, & Goertzel, 1991; Groff & Kleiber, 2001). The extent to which summer camp provides youth with disabilities experiences they do not get in noncamp settings (e.g., school, community recreation programs, home, and clubs) is largely undocumented. Therefore, the purpose of this study was twofold: 1) to examine the relationships between the five MCR variables and the two settings of camp and noncamp for both youth with and without disabilities; and 2) to empirically test and assess the merits of the proposed program model by investigating the relationships between the MCR variables and relatedness.

This study employed a doubly multivariate quasi-experimental design and participants (n = 209) were a convenience sample of youth (age 12-17, M =13.6) who attended a 5-day residential summer camp program. Youth with disabilities (n=109) attended a specialty camp and youth without disabilities (n = 100) attended a camp that serves persons without disabilities. On the first day of camp, participants were asked to complete two scales: the Mechanisms of Camp Relatedness Scale (MCRS) and the Camper Relatedness Scale (CRS). The MCRS measured the campers’ noncamp perceptions of the five MCR variables and the CRS measured precamp perceptions of relatedness. On the last day of camp, participants completed both the MCRS and the CRS for a second time to assess campers’ perceptions of the five MCR variables and relatedness while at camp. A repeated measures MANOVA was performed to analyze changes in the five MCR variables with time of measurement (pretest vs. posttest) as the within-subjects variable, and camp type (camp for youth with disabilities vs. camp for youth without disabilities) as the between subjects variable. A hierarchical regression was employed to assess the extent to which each of the MCR variables uniquely explained and predicted postcamp perceptions of relatedness above and beyond what both pretest scores of relatedness and camp type explained.

Results of the MANOVA were significant and were followed up with univariate ANOVAs, which indicated that youth with disabilities experienced greater change from pretest to posttest on the peer role model variable than youth without disabilities (F=4.829, p =.03, η²=.024). All MCR variables significantly differed for time and only one of the MCR variables (social opportunities) differed for camp type (F=4.30, p=.04, η²=.021). Results of the hierarchical regression indicated that social opportunities (B=.245, β=.187, t (195)=2.74, p=.007) and peer role models (B=.43, β=.267, t (195)=3.711, p<.001) significantly and uniquely predicted relatedness (R²=.70, R²Δ=.21, F(5, 195)=15.86, p<.001) when controlling for pre camp relatedness and camp type.

For youth with disabilities, attending a summer camp program that is designed specifically for this population may provide more opportunities to experience the benefits of peer role models than noncamp environments. This study also adds support to the idea that summer camp provides youth with and without disabilities a unique experience to engage in positive youth development
processes. To better understand how youth development occurs through camp participation, further testing and evaluating of program models is needed.

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IMPLEMENTING CAMP 2 GROW: LEADERSHIP AND POSITIVE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT
M. Deborah Bialeschki, American Camp Association
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Past research has shown the camp experience to be a site for positive youth development with the role of intentionality critical to the attainment of desired outcomes. Within camp settings, the focus on the environment and leadership continues to be context for fostering positive youth development, especially related to intrapersonal skills such as independence, responsibility, and empowerment. The purpose of this paper is to examine the effects of the Camp 2 Grow curriculum on camper’s sense of environmental stewardship, which was defined to include affinity for nature, teamwork, independence, responsibility, empowerment, and problem solving. The Camp 2 Grow (C2G) curriculum, designed by ACA and FFA, is a leadership-training program that targets environmental stewardship among older campers to encourage and teach leadership skills in nature-based settings

A positive youth development framework was employed to theoretically connect leadership skill development to environmentally-based civic engagement. A positive youth development framework includes both the attitudes and programmatic processes aimed to prevent problems, promote development, and encourage engagement in youth (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). At its core, positive youth development assumes that youth are naturally prone toward healthy and productive development given the appropriate supports and opportunities (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Although the benefits of the camp experience are well-documented (Bialeschki et al., 2007), little is known about the relation between environmental stewardship and camp. The C2G curriculum was developed to promote growth in the primary PYD domains and in environmental stewardship specifically.

C2G was implemented for two summers with the pilot implemented in 2009 (n = 840 youth from 24 day and resident camps) and the intervention implemented in 2010 (n = 630 campers in 18 camps). The project used a mixed-method approach that included both qualitative and quantitative camper, staff, and parent data. The 35-item camper pre-test and post-test paper-pencil survey (modified from the pilot) was comprised of 6 scales, each of which focused on a particular aspect of environmental stewardship: Affinity for Nature, Problem Solving, Teamwork, Independence, and Problem Solving scales taken from the ACA Youth Outcomes Battery (Sibthorp, Browne, & Bialeschki, 2010) and three items from the Characteristics of the Experience Scale (Sibthorp, 2001) to capture camper’s sense of empowerment.

The analyses focused primarily on the implementation data. A paired-samples t-test was conducted to examine the difference between pre- and post-test scores on the dependent variables (affinity for nature, teamwork, independence, responsibility, empowerment, and problem solving). After correcting for experiment-wise error rate using a Bonferroni adjustment, results showed significant difference between pre- and post-test in four of the dependent
variables: affinity for nature ($t(167) = 6.127, p < .001$), independence ($t(167) = 3.246, p < .001$), problem solving ($t(160) = 5.147, p < .001$), and empowerment ($t(160) = 3.896, p < .001$). Teamwork and responsibility were non-significant. Analyses of the qualitative data showed emergent themes focused on how C2G helped campers learn about themselves, the importance of nature for youth, and how their new knowledge would benefit their families and community.

The findings suggest that older campers gain important leadership skills, such as independence and problem solving, as well as form important connections to nature when they participate in an intentionally-designed environmental leadership curriculum at camp. This study adds to existing camp literature by documenting the ways campers might develop environmental stewardship during their time at camp. The findings also support the implementation of intentionally-designed curricula such as the Camp 2 Grow program as an effective learning strategy to reach desired outcomes and ultimately positively influence the development of youth.

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THE EFFECTS OF DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION FACTORS ON CAMPERS’ SENSE OF CARING AT CAMP
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Caring youth-adult relationships are critical to positive youth development (PYD) and have been shown to support academic (Klem & Connell, 2004), social (Battistich et al., 2004), and health (Voisin et al., 2005) outcomes among youth. The extent to which youth feel cared for across contexts, such as in school and in the community, has important implications for youth development (Witherspoon et al., 2009). Day camps represent one way youth might feel cared for by adults in the community context. The benefits of the camp experience include a variety of intrapersonal (Bialeschki et al., 2007) and social (Yuen et al., 2005) outcomes, thus camps may be uniquely-situated to promote caring relationships. However, little is known about the camp mechanisms that foster specific outcomes. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of two specific mechanisms- program design and staff implementation- on campers’ sense of caring at day camp.

The concepts that comprise the PYD framework centralize positive youth-adult relationships (e.g., Gambone et al., 2002). Noddings’ (2003) care theory provides insight into one way youth and adults might form caring relationships. From this perspective, caregivers, such as camp counselors, are compelled by a moral sense of duty to the one in-need (i.e., the camper). As an ethic, then, caring is an individual characteristic that may influence how camp staff foster caring relationships at camp. Camp activities, on the other hand, are structural features of the program that might not rely on individual staff members’ ethic of care. The PYD framework suggests that youth settings should be intentionally designed to include activities that are robust to staff implementation factors (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Although both factors impact camp programming, the relative influences of program design factors, such as caring activities, and staff implementation factors, such as counselors’ ethic of care, are unknown.

A quasi-experimental, repeated measures design was used to assess the impact of a design-focused and an implementation-focused staff training session on campers’ sense of caring at day camp. Campers from three single-agency municipal day camps completed the Caring Climate
Scale (CCS; Newton et al., 2009) at three different points in the summer (baseline, time 1, and time 2). Staff members from two of the sites attended each of the staff trainings but in opposite order to control for the order effects between the two training interventions (staff from Site A attended the design-focused training prior to time 1 and the implementation-focused training prior to time 2; Site B attended the implementation then the design-focused training). The third camp served as a comparison site and its staff members did not receive any of the training sessions. Profile analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) was used to examine the between-group and within-group differences in caring between the three sites over time.

A total of 55 male (n = 32) and female (n = 23) campers (M_{age} = 10.8 years) completed the CCS three times (baseline, time 1, and time 2). Analysis of variance was used to examine the profiles of the treatment (Sites A and B) and comparison sites; which revealed a significant time*treatment interaction $F_{(2,106)} = 3.442$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta^2 = .061$). A follow-up test was conducted and a significant difference between the treatment and non-treatment conditions was found at time 1 ($t_{(2, 52)} = 2.17$, $p < .05$); treatment groups reported a higher sense of caring than the comparison group. Treatment and comparison sites were not significantly different at time 2. These findings indicate that a caring-based staff training, which here included both the design-focused and the implementation-focused trainings, may effectively impact campers’ sense of caring at camp. The lack of difference between the treatment and non-treatment sites at time 2 may suggest that a caring-based training does not sufficiently buffer the effects of camp staff burnout and camper behavior issues as the summer progresses. Implications for research and practice are discussed.

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Selected References


WHEN IT COMES TO HEALTH PARTNERSHIPS, COMMUNITY SIZE MATTERS

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Introduction and Literature Review

Community parks and recreation is an important stakeholder in addressing our nation’s most pressing health issues such as physical inactivity, obesity, and chronic conditions. Defined as the voluntary pooling of resources (labor, capital, information) between two or more parties to achieve collaborative goals, the term “partnership” has been applied broadly to describe a number of organizational and interpersonal transactions and relationships in parks and recreation (Yoder & Ham, 1999). Bors and colleagues (2009) emphasized the need for partnerships to address public health issues (e.g., obesity) because a variety of disciplines and groups collaborating can accomplish more together than separately. Indeed, a growing number of model health promotion campaigns, policies, and research programs (e.g., NRPA’s Step up to Health, the CDC’s ACHIEVE Initiative) now require the existence of formal partnerships between health organizations and park and recreation agencies in order to achieve their goals. Furthermore, a recent study of North Carolina park and recreation directors, respondents indicated one of their highest priorities was to develop more inter-agency health partnerships (Bocarro et al., 2009). Although the importance of health partnerships is widely recognized (Bocarro et al., 2009; Bors et al., 2009) relatively little is known about the nature and extent of partnerships between community park and recreation agencies and health organizations. One early study found that health partnerships were quite common across the park and recreation field, with almost 9 out of 10 agencies reporting a health partnership (Mowen et al., 2009). That study also found that partnership participation was related to a number of contextual agency factors such as the size of the organizational budget and population of the community served. Agencies that served larger populations were more likely to engage in formal health collaborations. However, less is known about how specific health partnership practices and perceptions of partnership functioning (effectiveness) vary across communities of different population size. Therefore, the purpose of this study was two-fold: 1) to understand how specific types of health partnerships vary by community size, and 2) understand different perceptions of partnership functioning by community size.

Methods

Data for this research came from a larger on-line survey of the National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA) membership database. This database was used to identify directors, lead administrators, or senior managers at the organization/agency (4,388 of 21,152 members were identified in this capacity in Summer 2007). Survey distribution was delimited to directors or senior managers to reduce the probability of multiple individuals per agency being represented in the survey. We also believed directors would be the most appropriate person to answer partnerships questions and/or find the information necessary to complete this questionnaire. A pre-survey letter was e-mailed notifying them about the on-line survey. Ten days later, the sample received a second e-mail with a cover letter describing the purpose and content of the survey and encouraged their participation. A link to the on-line survey was given and an
opportunity to opt out of, or refuse, the survey was also provided. After the first official survey
invitation, follow-up e-mail notices were sent to non-respondents every 10 days for a period of
one month. Within the original list of 4,338 NRPA members, 558 e-mails were undeliverable,
reducing the sample to 3,780. Of these 3,780 potential participants, 1,217 completed the on-line
questionnaire for a response rate of 32%.

A random sample of 100 non-respondents were contacted by phone and email and
answered key questions related to their agency, community, and their participation in health
partnerships. Results indicated that respondent characteristics and agency partnership practices
generally reflected those reported by non-respondents in terms of agency type, community size,
NRPA region, partnership participation, etc. Our independent variable, community size consisted
of five categories based on the size of the population served by the agency: 1) very small= <
30,000, 2) small = 30,000 – 60,000, 3) medium = 60,001 – 100,000, 4) large=100,000 – 250,000,
and 5) very large = 250,001 or more residents. Size of agency operating budget was measured in
dollars (range=0 to $124 million) and number of partnerships ranged from 0 to 100. Types of
partnerships were measured by a closed ended list of 13 partner types that included, public
health, non-profits, hospitals, planning organizations, transportation, health insurance, nursing
home/assisted living, college/universities, schools, local businesses, senior services, sports
organizations, corporations and other. Perceptions of partnership functioning and effectiveness
were assessed by asking respondents to indicate the degree to which their organization
recognized the need for health partnerships, had a tradition of engaging in partnerships, and
their level of experience with health partnerships. These 3 questions were asked on a 5-point
scale from “not at all” to “a great deal.” Finally, perceptions of partnership functioning were
measured with 12 statements representing factors contributing to partnership effectiveness as
established in prior partnership effectiveness studies (Hasnain-Wynia et al. 2003, Selin & Myers,
1995). These statements addressed things such as decision making and conflict resolution,
leadership and management, shared vision and trust, resource allocation and communication.
Examples of statements include, “Our health partnership decision making is inclusive”, “our
health partnerships have clearly defined goals and objectives”, and “stereotypes about partners
from other professions have been broken.” These items were rated on a 5-point likert type scale
from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Results and Discussion

Since our focus was on local, public community recreation and park agencies, we
excluded state and national parks, military recreation and non-profit agencies (e.g., YMCA’s)
from this analysis, resulting in 1,089 usable surveys. Local/municipal park and recreation
agencies were the majority in this sub-set with a total of 892 organizations (81.9%). There were
also 96 county park systems (8.8%) and 101 special districts (9.3%) represented. A wide range of
community sizes were represented. There were 409 agencies that served communities of 30,000
or less (very small), 221 of 30,001 to 60,000 (small), 139 with 60,001 to 100,000 people
(medium), 127 of 100,001 to 250,000 (large) and 127 serving populations of more than 250,001
(very large). Analysis revealed that as community size increased, mean operating budget
increased (F=162.16, df=4, p<.0001). Respondents indicated the degree to which the agency had
a tradition of participating in health partnerships and collaborative initiatives as well as how
much experience the community had with them. The larger the community, the more likely they
were to have the tradition (F=6.52, df=4, p<.000) of and experience (F=7.1, df=4, p<.000) with
health partnerships. Respondents were also asked the degree to which their community
recognized the need to collaborate to address health and wellness issues. The very small communities have the lowest recognition of need to collaborate and the large communities have the highest need to collaborate. However, medium size communities reported the second lowest need to collaborate (F=2.74, df=4, p<.028). Although there was no relationship between type of organization (special district, municipal department, or county parks) and number of partnerships in which they participate, as the community size increased, the mean number of health partnerships increased significantly (F=13.64, df=4, <.000).

Types of health/wellness partnerships agencies engaged in also varied by size of community. Results indicated that the larger the community the more likely they are to have a partnership with: public health agencies (X²=12.316, df=4, p<.05), nonprofit health promotion agencies (X²=16.694, df=4, p<.01), planning organizations (X²=22.139, df=4, p<.000), transportation agencies (X²=18.789, df=4, p<.001), and corporations (X²=54.441, df=4, p<.000). The relationship between partnerships with colleges/universities and community size was significant (X²= 32.94, df=4, p<.000), however the pattern of the relationships were quite different from the others. Very small and small towns were least likely (25.4% and 29.9%) to partner with colleges/universities. Large towns were most likely (48.7%) to partner with colleges/universities, and medium and very large communities (42.5% and 44.1%) partnered with colleges/universities more frequently than small and very small towns, but less often than large communities. Regarding perceptions of partnership effectiveness, large communities (100,000-250,000) reported significantly higher levels of having both clearly defined goals and objectives for their health/wellness partnerships as well as having a strong and coherent vision of their partnership mission and purpose. While only nearing significance at .07, large communities also reported higher levels of decision makers being willing to collaborate and more inclusive in decision making.

Overall, the larger the community the more health/wellness partnerships they are likely to have. Not only do the larger communities have more partnerships, they collaborate with a wider variety of partners. It is interesting to note however, perceptions of partnership functioning did not follow the same pattern. For example, results indicate that large communities (100,000 – 250,000) recognized the need to collaborate more than communities which are either smaller or very large. Large communities also reported having a stronger and more coherent vision for their partnerships and are more likely to have clearly defined goals than very large, medium or small communities. Perhaps communities with populations between 100,000 and 250,000 are large enough to have significant health issues that need to be addressed, yet small enough to have limited resources to address those issues on their own. Also, large communities were more likely to recognize the need for partners, have the tradition for them and experience. This may explain why they appear to be functioning better than partnerships in small, medium and very large size communities. Therefore, it is important to actively work with smaller and medium sized communities to help them identify community partners with compatible goals, and assist them with the development and implementation of effective health partnerships. These results suggest that community characteristics, recognition of the need to partner (i.e., self-awareness), and experience are all important in creating multiple health/wellness partnerships designed to address issues within contemporary society. Findings will be discussed in context of implications for developing and maintaining effective health/wellness partnerships.

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References


FAMILY LEISURE OUTCOMES SCALE: DEVELOPING A NEW INSTRUMENT
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Introduction
Worldwide attention to family leisure research is rapidly expanding the knowledge base and catalyzing additional interest in the topic. Many contemporary authors on the subject are exploring more complex concepts, using increasingly more sophisticated techniques, taking global perspectives, and conducting larger studies. In spite of the increased interest, there remains an apparent dearth of quantitative measurement tools designed for, and in the context of, family leisure. With few exceptions (i.e., Poff, Zabriskie, & Townsend, 2010; Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001), the current quantitative family leisure research relies on instrumentation designed for uses not specific to family leisure settings. After a systematic review of current family leisure research (qualitative and quantitative) family leisure outcomes were categorized drawing from both epistemological camps of family leisure scholars. Thus, similar findings identified by scholars who align with a more post-positivist lens, as well as, those reported by scholars with a more critical or post-modernist lens were used to formulate hypothesized outcome factors. Therefore the purpose of this study was to begin the development and testing of a new instrument to measure perceived family leisure outcomes in the context of recreation/leisure activities done with family members among a large sample of parents (n = 655) from the United States.

Frameworks. Two common approaches used for studying families are Olsen’s (1993) Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems and the International Family Strengths Model (IFSM) developed over many years by Stinnett, DeFrain, and others (DeFrain & Asay, 2007). The Circumplex model is composed of three primary components and includes six categories of strengths exhibited by strong families (DeFrain & Asay, 2007). A blending of the two models, as suggested by DeFrain and Asay, includes each of the three Circumplex components paired with two components of the IFSM: family cohesion (commitment, enjoyable time together), family flexibility (successful management of stress and crisis, spiritual well-being), family communication (positive communication, appreciation and affection). This blended framework is complementary of contemporary family leisure research.

Outcomes. Several categories of family leisure related outcomes have been consistently identified by researchers over the last decade. Cohesion related concepts presented include: family cohesion (Aslan, 2009; Zabriskie & Freeman, 2004; Freeman & Zabriskie, 2002; Shaw and Dawson, 2001; Zabriskie & Freeman, 2004); family bonding (Freeman & Zabriskie, 2002; Harrington & Bell, 2001, Harrington, 2006; Palmer, Freeman, & Zabriskie, 2007; Shaw & Dawson, 2001); closeness or unity (Aslan, 2009; Freeman, Baker, and Zabriskie, 2009); family togetherness (Palmer, Freeman, & Zabriskie, 2007; Trussell & Shaw, 2007); connection; family or social support; and increased understanding. Family adaptability (flexibility) as a research variable was often utilized (Poff, Zabriskie, & Townsend, 2010; Zabriskie & Freeman, 2004; Freeman & Zabriskie, 2002). Family communication is commonly considered in family leisure research. Several scholars have reported family leisure as a facilitator of communication (Shaw & Dawson, 2001; Palmer, Freeman, & Zabriskie, 2007; Harrington, 2006; Johnson, Zabriskie, & Hill, 2006; Freeman & Zabriskie, 2002; and Harrington & Bell, 2001).

Scholars also report that family leisure fosters such elements as: family interaction (Agate, Zabriskie, Agate, & Poff, 2009; Homer, Freeman, Zabriskie, & Eggett, 2007; Harrington & Bell,
2001; Shaw and Dawson, 2001; Trussell & Shaw, 2007) shared interests, meaningful activities, fun (Churchill, et al., 2007; Freeman, Baker, and Zabriskie, 2009; Shannon & Shaw, 2008) time spent with children, positive experiences, being a significant influence on their children, and creating memories (Trussell & Shaw, 2007; Palmer, Freeman, & Zabriskie, 2007; Harrington, 2006). Family leisure was also reported to nurture opportunities for: relationship development with family members and friends (Johnson, Zabriskie, & Hill, 2006; Palmer, Freeman, & Zabriskie, 2007); family stability; trust (Homer, Freeman, Zabriskie, & Eggett, 2007); as well as getting along with each other, love, kindness, affection, and caring (Homer, Freeman, Zabriskie, & Eggett, 2007; Palmer, Freeman, & Zabriskie, 2007). The importance of family leisure as a vehicle establishing/promoting values was reported in terms of: learning positive values and/or moral growth (Freeman, Baker, and Zabriskie, 2009; Harrington, 2006; Shaw & Dawson, 2001; Trussell & Shaw, 2007), and passing on values or activities from generation to generation (Harrington & Bell, 2001; Harrington, 2006). Finally, the importance of learning or teaching as part of family leisure was expressed in terms of: general learning, intellectual development (Freeman, Baker, and Zabriskie, 2009), life skills (Shannon & Shaw, 2008), leisure skills (Shannon & Shaw, 2008), health and physical fitness (Trussell & Shaw, 2007), social skills, and explore and develop leisure interests (Harrington, 2006).

Methods

Sample. Data were collected in cooperation with an online survey sampling company drawing subjects from a representative multi-source internet panel of households willing to participate in online research based on the researcher’s sample criteria. The online research questionnaire for this study (approximately 10 minutes to complete) was completed by a national sample of parents (n = 655) residing in U.S. households containing at least one child (11-15 years old). Responding parents ranged in age from 19 to 61 years with a mean age of 42.13 (SD = 9.74) and gender was relatively equally dispersed (51.9% female). The majority of respondents (64.1%) lived in urban/suburban areas (population > 50,000). Approximately 66.7% of the parents were married, 11% were single-never married, 2.4% were separated, 11% were divorced, 1.4% were widowed, and 7.5% were unmarried living with a partner. A history of divorce was reported by 31.9% of respondents. Ethnic majority of the parents was white (66.3%) with minority represented by Hispanic (14.2%), Black non-Hispanic (11.8%), Asian (4.1%), Native American (1.2%), Pacific Islander (.6%), and other (1.8%). The average family size was 4.24 people with a reported range from 1 to 13 family members. Annual income ranged from less than $10,000 to over $150,000 with a median income of $50,000-$59,999.

Instrumentation. As a result of an in-depth, systematic review of current family leisure research (qualitative & quantitative), outcomes were identified and grouped into seven categories. The Family Leisure Outcomes scale (FLO) was then written to measure these seven categories of perceived family leisure outcomes using 73, seven point Likert-type items (with scores ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) to indicate the level to which respondents agree or disagree with statements. The question root, “In our family, participating in recreation/leisure activities with family members” was created and used consistently across all items. Likert-style question stems were created to represent the identified outcomes. An international panel of 20 family leisure experts was invited to evaluate the following three aspects of the scale: a) the global Likert question root to be used for all questions, b) the representativeness and fit of individual question stems to their respective categories, and c) general assessment of the family leisure outcome categories. Several revisions were made to the scale based on the nine responding experts’ recommendations before conducting the study.
Analysis. The data were initially screened for inconsistencies and were subsequently screened for missing data, univariate outliers, multivariate outliers, multicollinearity, and singularity as it was deemed appropriate to retain the sample of parents. The PASW Statistics 18 program was used to analyze the internal consistency of the separate subscales and to conduct the factor analyses for the seven hypothesized factors.

Results
The “Alpha if item deleted” results were reviewed for each item in each factor to help determine if the deletion of any items would improve the reliability estimates for the factors. No deletions were found to improve the estimates all 73 items were retained for analysis. The seven hypothesized factors, number of items, and reliability include: communication, 12, \( \alpha = .974 \); adaptability, 15, \( \alpha = .972 \); cohesion, 12, \( \alpha = .977 \); relationship development, 11, \( \alpha = .964 \); values, 6, \( \alpha = .960 \); learning, 7, \( \alpha = .943 \); and family interaction, 10, \( \alpha = .978 \). Principal components factor analysis was conducted to help determine how many factors should remain. Six components had Eigen values greater than 1. Studying the scree plot suggested a break from 4 to 5 or 5 to 6. Additionally, parallel analysis criteria (Lautenschlager, 1989) were examined with recommended acceptable eigenvalues, for four factors, falling in between 1.594 and 1.478.

Exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood and oblim rotation was performed on four, five, and six factor models. The twelve items in the communication factor and the 15 items in the adaptability factor remained intact in the four, five, and six factor models. Items from cohesion, relationship development, values, learning, and family interaction combined differently in the four, five, and six factor models. The six factor model was found to be the most parsimonious model with all twelve cohesion items, all six value items, and all ten family interaction items grouping together in addition to all of the items for communication and adaptability. Only four of the original eleven items from relationship development remained together using a .4 cutoff. The learning items did not load together. The pattern matrix factor loadings for the six factor model included ranges of: communication, -0.733 to -0.896; adaptability, 0.513 to 0.878; cohesion, 0.419 to 0.568; values, -0.489 to -0.962; family interaction, 0.566 to 0.854; and relationship development 0.435 to 0.785.

Discussion
The purpose of this study was to begin the development and testing a new survey instrument to measure perceived family leisure outcomes in the context of recreation/leisure activities done with family members among a large sample of parents from the United States. Findings presented strong estimates of internal consistency for the seven hypothesized family leisure outcome factors. Factor analysis revealed that a six-factor model of family leisure outcomes was reasonable with cohesion, adaptability, communication, family interaction, and values retained all of their original items. The analysis further showed that relationship development needed to be re-examined as seven of the eleven items failed to load together. The learning factor did not have any items, at the .40 cutoff, load together. Further evaluation of this factor is needed.

The primary contribution of this study is the initial development and presentation of a new instrument designed specifically to measure perceived family leisure outcomes identified in family leisure research from the last decade. Future examination of construct validity is recommended by examining FLO scores in relation to pre-existing measures of family cohesion, adaptability, communication, and other theoretically related constructs (i.e., satisfaction with family life, family functioning). Future development is also needed to include child perspectives.

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References
USABILITY AND AESTHETICS OF AN OUTDOOR RECREATION KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT WEBSITE

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Organizations, including government agencies, rely on the Internet for a variety of functions, including knowledge management. Turnover and downsizing in an organization create gaps in institutional knowledge and skills that may be lost if they are not captured, stored, and made available to new employees. Information technology (IT) and knowledge management (KM) are two ways of preserving some of an organization’s knowledge assets. A goal often expressed by such organizations is the creation and sustenance of learning communities (Senge, 1994; Palmer, 1997). Two points of agreement in the growing knowledge management literature are that knowledge management is more than information technology (IT) and that it is a never ending process (Malhorta, 2001). The preponderance of research effort in knowledge management has occurred in the private sector. Little research attention has been given to the public sector. There has been little research on the best way to design these systems as interactive bodies of information for public park and recreation managers, the academic community and citizens.

Since 2001, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (ACE) has been developing a KM system for employees associated with its Natural Resources Management (NRM) mission. The NRM Gateway (http://corpslakes.usace.army.mil) is a KM system used by over 2,500 Corps of Engineers natural resource professionals. The Gateway contains over 90 thousand pages of content and had over 9 million hits in 2009. One subsystem of the NRM Gateway, specifically focused on outdoor recreation, is called Lake Discovery. The development of Lake Discovery has progressed iteratively during the past 5 years. Hierarchies of content categories were created and multiple home page concepts were designed. Both the hierarchies and home pages were tested in the field (Sudharsan et al., 2008) and then improvements were made and retested in the lab (Swierenga et al., 2010), followed by the current large sample survey. The aim is to improve usability and aesthetics.

Usability refers to how easily a specific task can be accomplished with a specific tool. The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) defines usability as the "extent to which a product can be used by specified users to achieve specified goals with effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction in a specified context of use". Usability testing identifies problems with a website using a systematic performance-based approach. Aesthetic elements are of two types: classical (visual clarity, orderliness, symmetry, etc.) and expressive (originality, visual richness, etc.). Classical aesthetics and coherence (orderliness, ease of comprehension, etc.) contribute to website usability (Lavie & Tractinsky, 2004; Singh, Salal, & Spears, 2005), Cousaris, Swierenga, & Watrall, 2008). Expressive aesthetics influences “playfulness” (spontaneity, enjoyment, etc.), which in turn influences usability (Lin, Wu, & Tsai, 2005; Huang, 2003). Furthermore, home pages perceived to be high in involvement (i.e., rich in exploration possibilities) and understanding (i.e., coherence) influence attitudes toward the site, which in turn affect behavioral intentions to explore and use the website further (Singh et al., 2005).
We created and tested three home page prototypes of the Lake Discovery website (Fig. 1). Prototypes are simple, representations of the navigation and structure of a website without all of the design and content included. They are interactive just like a regular website and contain nested categories of information. For example, a category on the prototype home page is “facilities”; clicking on “facilities” leads the user to another page listing subcategories, such as “beaches” and “trails”. For most of the major categories, there are three to four layers of nested subcategories. The three prototypes were named Word, Bubble and Metaphor to indicate the appearance of the home page.

![Fig. 1. The three Lake Discovery prototypes varying in home page design.](image)

**Purpose and Objectives**

We report results from the most recent of a series of studies, the first of which we presented at the Leisure Research Symposium in 2006. The purpose of our overall research effort is to continue making recommendations from the Corps and non-Corps community regarding the development of KM features for the NRM Gateway, in particular the Lake Discovery web site. For this presentation, the research objective was to assess perceptions of usability and aesthetics of three prototypes of the Lake Discovery website.

**Method**

The sampling frame consisted of 703 Corps of Engineers full time permanent employees with job titles of "Natural Resource Specialist" or "Park Ranger" as of May 2010. We employed an Internet survey in which participants were asked to search for information using three prototypes (Figure 1) that were designed to help them to complete typical outdoor recreation-related management tasks (e.g., find information on accessibility standards). Participants were asked to complete two separate tasks for each of the three prototypes. The order of the prototypes was counterbalanced across participants to reduce errors associated with an order effect. After completing the tasks, participants were asked to rate their experience by responding to eight standardized scales from the literature for Effectiveness, Efficiency, Classical and Expressive Aesthetics, Coherence, Playfulness, Mystery and Satisfaction.

**Results**

The response rate was 47% (328/703). Respondents were 26% female; 68% graduated from a four-year college or university. Seventy-six percent were 30-59 years old, and most (2/3) had worked in the natural resource management field for 11-30 years. Job duties included daily management of outdoor recreation areas and visitor safety and enjoyment.

All scales displayed high inter-item reliability (Cronbach Alpha’s above 0.90). One-sample t-tests revealed that the means for all eight scales for the Bubbles prototype were positive (above 4 on Likert scale range 1-7) and the t-values were significant (p=0.000). The means for seven of the scales for the Metaphor prototype were above 4, with one exception: Satisfaction. T-values for four of the Metaphor scales were not significant. The means for six of the scales for the Word prototype were above 4, with Expressive Aesthetics and Playfulness below 4. Six of the Word
scales had positive and significant t-values, but two, Expressive Aesthetics and Playfulness, had negative significant t-values.

One-Way ANOVAs with post hoc Tukey tests revealed that the Metaphor prototype scored lower than Bubbles or Word in Usability, Efficiency, Effectiveness, Satisfaction, Classical Aesthetics, Mystery, and Coherence (p=0.000 for all comparisons). Using the same test, the Word prototype scored lower than the Bubbles and Metaphor prototypes in Expressive Aesthetics and Playfulness. The Metaphor and Word prototypes scored lower than the Bubbles prototype in Classical and Expressive Aesthetics. In no case did the Bubbles prototype perform significantly lower than the other two.

A principal component factor analysis (varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization, factor loadings 0.70 and above) revealed four underlying dimensions that grouped the eight scales into four dimensions, which are consistent with the literature on website usability and home page perception: order/efficiency, playfulness/creativity, satisfaction and motivation to explore. The four dimensions accounted for 82% of the total variance. The appropriateness of the data for factor analysis was confirmed by a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.964 (KMO above 0.6 is recommended) and significant Bartlett’s Sphericity test (p<0.001).

Discussion and Recommendations

The more known about the impacts of the Internet on decision making in the parks and recreation field, the more that usable and accessible websites can be designed to share knowledge, capture tacit (informal) knowledge and help field staff conduct their daily missions. Knowledge generated from studies like these will be used to improve the information architecture, usability, and aesthetics of the Lake Discovery website and its content, increasing its usefulness for outdoor recreation managers in various agencies, students, educators, and outreach specialists.

Based on findings from our latest study, the Bubble and Word prototypes were the clear winners among the three prototypes in terms of usability and aesthetics. The Word prototype fared as well as the Bubble prototype on all measures except Playfulness and Expressive Aesthetics. The Metaphor prototype outperformed the Word prototype only on Playfulness and Expressive Aesthetics. These findings are not too surprising given that the Word prototype home page was the least original of the three, consisting primarily of lists of words and phrases. We conclude that the Word prototype may not appeal as much to users who are more attracted to interesting and rich visual displays, but that it still has meaningful usability components. Our findings have high confirmability as they are consistent with studies where different methods were employed with the same sample (Sudharsan et al., 2008) and where different methods were employed with a sample of Michigan State University students (Swierenga et al., 2010). We recommend that the Corps of Engineers proceed with the development of both the Bubble and the Word versions, giving users a choice of which home page design they prefer.

Theoretically, our findings support the principality of aesthetics, coherence, effectiveness and efficiency in enhancing user satisfaction with websites. Additionally, the visual richness (playfulness in this study) is a key correlate, along with user satisfaction, of the desire to explore websites further for additional information. These dimensions should be given due consideration in website design for outdoor recreation knowledge management systems.

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References


Leisure researchers have tested various models that may explain the relationship between leisure and stressful experiences (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000a). One model that has been tested is stress suppressing, which contends that leisure reduces the frequency of stressful experiences (Ensel & Lin, 1991; Iwasaki, 2003c). Iwasaki and Mannell (2000a) demonstrated that beliefs in leisure’s coping capacity suppressed the frequency of weekly hassles. However, Iwasaki (2003c) failed to replicate the finding in another study. More recently, Patry, Blanchard, and Mask (2007) suggested that allocating *too much* time to leisure can be maladaptive and lead to *more* stressors, implying the possible applicability of a second model—stress exposure (Almeida, 2005). Stress exposure is the likelihood that certain socio-demographic, psychosocial and situational factors can expose individuals to *more* daily stressors (Almeida & Wong, 2009). Given the stress suppressing and exposure models as well as the findings of past studies (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000a; Patry, et al., 2007), it is possible that there is a non-linear relationship between leisure and frequency of daily stressors: increase in leisure experiences leads to fewer daily stressors at first (i.e., a *negative* relationship between the two), but *too much* leisure may result in *more* daily stressors (i.e., a *positive* relationship between the two beyond a threshold).

While Iwasaki and colleague (Iwasaki, 2003c; Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000a) examined the underlying psychosocial functions of leisure as a coping resource, Patry et al. (2007), in their scale development study, focused on leisure as time use. Indeed, past time use studies have demonstrated the detrimental effect of lacking leisure time and the benefits of having leisure time (Larson & Richards, 1994; Robinson, 1999; Zuzanek, 1998). However, previous research failed to differentiate the between- and within-person aspects (Hoffman & Stawski, 2009) of leisure time availability, leaving it unknown whether the effect of leisure time availability is between-person, within-person, or both. The between-person aspect refers to the average amount of leisure time across days. For example, person A has 3 hours of leisure time *on average* each day across a week, while person B has 2.5 hours, then person A has 0.5 hour more leisure time on average each day than person B in that week. The within-person aspect refers to *variability* in leisure time from day to day for the same person. For example, if person A has 4 hours of leisure time on Monday and 2 hours on Tuesday, then compared with the average (3 hours), the person has 1 hour more leisure time on Monday but 1 hour less on Tuesday. In essence, studies that differentiate the two aspects are needed in order to better understand the effect of leisure time availability on stressful experiences.

Given gaps in the literature, we asked three research questions: Does having relatively more leisure time *suppress* daily stress frequency? Does having *too much* more leisure time than usual *expose* individuals to higher daily stress frequency? What is the relationship between average amount of leisure time and daily stress frequency?

**Methods**

The current study used data from the National Study of Daily Experiences (NSDE; Almeida, Wethington & Kessler, 2002). NSDE collected data from a national sample of non-institutionalized, English-speaking adult Americans (N=2022, age 33 to 84, 57.2% female). At the end of each day for eight consecutive days, respondents completed a telephone interview, answering questions about their daily stressful experiences, time use, physical symptoms, and
positive and negative affect, yielding a total of 16176 daily interviews. For the current study, we utilized measures of daily leisure time availability, daily stress frequency and gender.

Daily stressors were assessed through the semi-structured Daily Inventory of Stressful Events (DISE, Almeida, et al., 2002). The inventory consists of seven stem questions asking whether the following seven types of events occurred within the previous 24 hours: arguments, potential arguments, work stressors, home stressors, network stressors, discrimination stressors, and other stressors. For each daily interview, respondents received a value of 1 for the relevant stressor domain if answering affirmatively to the stem questions, and 0 otherwise. Daily stress frequency, ranging from 0 to 7, was calculated by summing the values of the seven stem questions on each interview day for each participant (N_STR). On each interview day, participants were asked how much time they spent relaxing or doing leisure activities in the previous 24 hours. If necessary, the interviewer suggested that leisure activities refer to actively choosing to do things for oneself. Leisure time availability was calculated as the number of hours each day that participants devoted to leisure. For each participant, the average amount of leisure time was calculated as the personal mean of available leisure time across the eight study days (LeisT_M). Subtracting LeisT_M from a person’s leisure time on a certain day (LeisT) created leisure time variability on that day (LeisT_R). Gender was measured as a categorical variable, with male coded as 0 and female coded as 1.

Multilevel modeling was used to analyze the data (Singer & Willet, 2003). We modeled the intra-individual association between leisure time variability and daily stress frequency at level 1. At Level 2, we introduced the inter-individual variable—average amount of leisure time. The Level 1 and 2 models for the analysis were

\[ N_{STRj} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(LeisT_{Rij}) + \beta_2(LeisT_{Rij})^2 + e_{ij} \]  
\[ \beta_0j = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(LeisT_{Mi}) + \mu_{0i} \]  
\[ \beta_1j = \gamma_{10} + \mu_{1i} \]  
\[ \beta_2j = \gamma_{20} + \mu_{2i} \]

At level 1, \( LeisT_{Rij}^2 \) (the quadratic term) is included to test the possible non-linear effect of leisure time variability. The intercept (\( \beta_0j \)) is the number of daily stressors when there is no leisure time variability from personal mean. \( \beta_1j \) represents the instantaneous rate of change when \( LeisT_{Rij}^2 = 0 \). Since a quadratic change trajectory has “no constant common slope”, the rate of change “changes smoothly over time”, and \( \beta_2j \) describes this “changing rate of change” (Singer & Willet, 2003, p. 215-216). Error-term \( e_{ij} \) represents intra-individual variation in daily stress frequency not accounted for by any of the variables included in the equations. At level 2, \( \beta_0j \) is expressed as a function of the inter-individual intercept (\( \gamma_{00} \)), the effect of the inter-individual variable—average amount of leisure time (\( \gamma_{01} \)), and an inter-individual error term (\( \mu_{0i} \)). The within-person slopes, \( \beta_1j \) and \( \beta_2j \), are expressed as functions of the inter-individual intercept and a between-person error term.

Results

For both males and females, the coefficients for \( LeisT_{Rij} \) (\( \gamma_{10} \)) and \( LeisT_{Rij}^2 \) (\( \gamma_{20} \)) are significant (Table 1). The result means that the decline in daily stress frequency with one unit increase in leisure time variability (\( \gamma_{10} \)) is not constant but accelerates (\( \gamma_{20} \)), and that the acceleration is more rapid for males than for females. Meanwhile, for numeric reasons, \( LeisT_{Rij}^2 \) increases more rapidly than \( LeisT_{Rij} \), so even though the linear term suggests a decline in the outcome, the eventual domination of the quadratic term adds more than the linear term removes, and causes the trajectory to trough and then rise. The moment when the quadratic curve flips over at a trough (i.e., the turning point where the curve changes direction) is \( -\gamma_{10}^2/2\gamma_{20} \) (Singer & Willet, 2003). Using the formula and the analysis results, we calculated the turning
point, which is 3.75 for males and 11.5 for females. In essence, when a male (female) has 3.75 (11.5) hours or more leisure time than usual, he (she) will be exposed to more stressors. Besides the within-person relationship, we also found a significant between-person effect ($\gamma_{01}$) for males but not females. Males who have a high average amount of leisure time across days experience fewer daily stressors on average than males whose average amount of leisure time is low.

Table 1. *Unstandardized Estimates (and Standard Errors) of the Relationship between Leisure Time Availability and Frequency of Daily Stressors.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Daily Stress Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed effects:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Stress Frequency, $\beta_{0j}$</td>
<td>0.57 (0.026)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$</td>
<td>-0.032 (0.007)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Amount of Leisure Time, $\gamma_{01}$</td>
<td>-0.015 (0.004)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Time Variability, $\beta_{1j}$</td>
<td>0.002 (0.001)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept, $\gamma_{10}$</td>
<td>-0.015 (0.004)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Leisure Time Variability)$^2$, $\beta_{2j}$</td>
<td>0.0002 (0.00004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept, $\gamma_{20}$</td>
<td>0.000001 (0.00001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Random effects:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance intercept, $\sigma^2_{u0j}$</td>
<td>0.1 (0.009)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance linear slope, $\sigma^2_{u1j}$</td>
<td>0.00002 (0.000004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance quadratic slope, $\sigma^2_{u2j}$</td>
<td>0.000001 (0.000001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual variance, $\sigma^2_{eij}$</td>
<td>0.39 (0.008)***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes: *p* < 0.05; **p* < 0.01; ***p* < 0.0001

**Discussion**

The current study tests the applicability of the stress suppressing and exposure models using daily diary data. Our findings indicate that both models are applicable, but in different situations. At first, on days when a person has more leisure time than usual, the frequency that he/she experiences daily stressors declines. The result supports the suppressing model (Ensel & Lin, 1991) and echoes Iwasaki and Mannell (2000a). The result also extends the model by revealing a non-linear change, that is, while having a little more leisure time than usual reduces daily stress frequency, the benefit of leisure time variability is the largest when a person gets a big boost in available leisure time. However, when a person has too much more leisure time than usual on a certain day, the trend reverses, and daily stress frequency increases. The result provides support for the exposure model (Almeida, 2005), and suggests that having more leisure time than usual is not always beneficial. Giving oneself a break from time to time is beneficial for keeping stress levels down, but allowing oneself too much leisure time can expose the person to more daily stressors. Meanwhile, males and females differ dramatically in the turning point at which the stress exposure effect starts (3.75 vs. 11.5). In daily lives, it is much more plausible for a male to have 3.75 hours or more leisure time above his average on a day than for a female to have 11.5 hours or more leisure time above her average on a day, considering 11.5 hours is almost half of a 24-hour day. Hence, while the stress exposure model is mathematically supported for both genders, the possibility for it to take effect in real life is much higher among males than females. Lastly, we identified a negative inter-individual relationship between average amount of leisure time and daily stress frequency for males. The finding that both within- and between-person aspects of leisure time availability significantly influence daily stress frequency demonstrates the value of distinguishing between the two aspects.

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Within leisure research, there is general agreement on the common conceptualizations we attach to leisure. For example, work and leisure are often viewed as dichotomous, as leisure generally involves a choice in how to spend one’s non-obligated time, is primarily active, and operates to provide us with a healthier lifestyle. In fact, as Roberts noted, leisure scholars have moved away from addressing “big leisure,” the leisure that is all encompassing and shapes society to a focus on “little leisure,” categorical areas, such as sport and tourism (2011). In addition, we argue that we have worked to develop a greater understanding of leisure for those who have access to normative leisure, leisure that fits nicely into our current, common understandings. “Little leisure” provides us with access to normal leisure and is the site of the majority of our research. Shifting the focus to “big leisure” and critically examining normalized leisure provides us with greater opportunity to understand when leisure is a (not)positive, (un)necessary, and (in)accessible. This presentation describes how genealogy uncovers assumptions and reveals the points in history where an idea transformed into a natural truth.

Theoretical Orientation

Kivel (2000) demonstrated the perpetuation of normalcy in leisure research when she argued that leisure researchers have spent the last 30 years attempting to find a “common leisure experience.” The desire by researchers to discover a common experience eliminates differences and promotes the values of the powerful. “Realizing that ‘common’ leisure experiences are mediated by many different factors, researchers began to broaden their thinking to examine leisure across various markers of identity – race, disability, gender, sexual identity, age and class” (Kivel, 2000, p. 79). However, researchers can reinforce difference when examining the social categories that make up individual identity (Kivel, 2000). The maintenance of categories of difference results in the privileging of a normative leisure.

Those who are privileged control the production of knowledge in our society (Sprague, 2005) and in doing so maintain their privileged position. As Sprague asserted, “Power determines who has the resources to offer help, who needs help, and who cannot turn down help” (p. 15). Consequently, our access to power has influenced the scholarship of leisure researchers. As “writing leisure shapes the world to fit a vision of reality” (Stewart, Parry & Glover, 2008, p. 366) and “writing leisure constructs a reality about ways in which life should be lived” (p. 375), we must be cognizant of the power we employ and how we normalize and penalize to create unquestioned “truth.” Therefore, it is necessary to pause, explore and investigate our own assumptions and positionality when undertaking research or theorizing being sure to question those things we articulate as natural and/or normal. Foucault’s method of genealogy (1995) necessitates this action.

Genealogy: The Method

Genealogy is a tool that analyzes a history of the present. History is used in this method “as a way of diagnosing the present” (Kendall & Wickham, 1999, p. 4) and helps us understand how common discourse has developed and evolved into essentialized truth. Foucault believed that many of our historical advances resulted from accidents (Kendall & Wickham, 1999) and he used genealogy to explore these historical accidents, also known as contingencies, to reveal systems of power active in society. Foucault recognized that historical accidents are partnered
with beginnings (Rabinow, 2010) and must be revealed, not as origins, but as one of many “numberless beginnings” (Rabinow, 2010, p.81). The multiple beginnings create a system based on subtle interconnections that are difficult to unravel, but genealogists make them their object of knowledge, to learn which values are reinforced across time and through policy.

Over the course of a genealogy, the researcher attempts to uncover the origins and functions of a system that are often left hidden and essentialized as natural and unquestionable. Genealogists are compelled to “think in ways that we have not thought and be in ways we have not been” (Kendall & Wickham, 1999, p. 30). Genealogy operates to “expose a body totally imprinted by history and the process of history’s destruction on the body” (Rabinow, 2010, p. 83). Genealogies place an emphasis on power and describe policies as an ongoing process, not just as a moment in time (Kendall & Wickham, 1999). Although genealogy is attractive for these reasons, Foucault did not leave us with a detailed outline or plan for constructing a genealogy. Instead, we must read and analyze his genealogies and the genealogies of others who follow his tradition to learn the basic steps. As a result, the work of “Genealogy is gray, meticulous, and patiently documentary. It operates on a field of entangled and confused parchments, on documents that have been scratched over and recopied many times” (Rabinow, 2010, p. 76). The genealogist must work to look underneath these scratches to detangle the discursive origins of history.

Leisure researchers can benefit greatly from employing a genealogical approach to their research. Dieser (2005) provided us with the first example of genealogy in the Leisure Studies literature, whereby he deconstructed the naturalness of therapeutic recreation certification (2005). He demonstrated the normalization of dominant Western therapeutic practices by the certifying agency revealed practices that we traditionally considered common sense and therefore invisible. He argued in many ways that the certification process has resulted in negative consequences.

**A New Genealogical Exemplar**

Based on our concern that leisure researchers have focused on normative leisure and out of a desire to return to “big leisure,” we realized the liberatory aspects genealogy offers in the attempt to understand the development of essentialized discourse. Consequently, the first author has undertaken a genealogy of welfare (along with its relationship to leisure) in Georgia. Welfare policy is grounded in historical and political systems in the United States and unraveling the numberless beginnings of the policies can help us to understand the common discourses and stereotypes used around welfare and their implicit influence of leisure theory.

Her genealogy is concerned with welfare in the United States and Georgia since Civil Rights legislation was passed in 1964 and also it’s interconnectedness with dominant conceptualizations of leisure across this same time period. To engage in genealogy, historical documents, legislation, analyses, and other policy information concerning welfare in the United States and Georgia since the 1960’s was read and reviewed. Specifically, she focused on the 1964 Economic Opportunity Act under the Johnson administration (documenting the change in welfare policies after the passage of Civil Rights) and the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) policies under Clinton that document the shift from traditional welfare to state block programs. These policies indicate the beginning of the “War on Poverty” and then the alleged end of this “War.” Each of these policies was critically examined to reveal the disruptions in history and to generate learning around the creation of today’s welfare “truths” and the potential existence of a non-normal leisure.
The critical examination and coding of the data, in this case government legislation concerning welfare in Georgia, encompassed several steps. First, policy legislations were read and notes taken. Second, first person documents, historical accounts, and ethnographies of welfare recipients were read and analyzed. Notes were also taken as coding developed over the course of the readings. Then the original legislation was re-read in context with the other historical data. Once the data was read and consumed, codes were re-visited and re-worked in a critical manner.

**The Unravelings**

The data presented below include analysis of original legislation, as well as critical analysis of the impacts the legislation has on welfare recipients. In an effort to demonstrate the use of genealogy for leisure researchers, we trace the development of one of those categories: Cultural meanings around work and employability related to government legislation.

The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (PRWORA) of 1996 eliminated welfare in its previous forms and created Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), which granted state control of block grant money to aid poor mothers (Johnson, Hedge, & Currinder, 2004). The focus of TANF programs is to increase work participation ratios, which compares the number of adults receiving TANF benefits and working to those who are only receiving benefits. Success or failure of a state’s polices towards TANF are measured by that state’s work participation ratio (Schott, 2007) and success is very important to each state. Each state has the freedom to determine what constitutes a work activity. Activities such as education, training, searching for work, community service hours, and paid employment can all be considered work activities based on state guidelines (Johnson, Hedge, & Currinder, 2004) or these same activities can not be considered work. Work participation ratios also increase as people are moved off of aid. As recipients reach state limits and are no longer eligible for aid, they are no longer counted in the work activity ratios. The result is fewer families receiving benefits, which then increases the overall work participation ratio (Schott, 2007) and helps the state achieve a successful ratio. The activities that each state considers work varies considerably and the overall desire to increase the work participation ratio (in order to receive more federal funds) is problematic as it aims to project value laden polices around what is considered a worthy work activity and what is simply a way to waste time.

Results in policies and procedures that impact how we think and the things we believe, as leisure scholars and members of society, about those on welfare, in turn impacts programming offered, beliefs around who should have access to leisure and how this access is framed and made available. To that end, learning more about the ramifications of welfare from those who experience the system of welfare provides us with more information that questions the normalization of the stereotypes surrounding both leisure and welfare. Some scholars have begun to research traditionally underrepresented groups and have worked to represent all people within the literature, yet we are still working to fit people into the common leisure paradigms referred to here as normal leisure. Shifting the focus to “big leisure” allows space for non-normal leisure accessibility and using the methodology of genealogy can force us to constantly unravel the historical disruptions that so often go unquestioned.

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After-school programs have been associated with a range of positive outcomes (Hirsch, 2005; Mahoney, Larson, & Eccles, 2005; Mahoney, Lord, & Carryl, 2005), including increased levels of physical activity (LTPA). Increasing LTPA is particularly important for minority youth considering the rapidly rising obesity rates in this group. A number of studies have examined the motivations behind youth’s participation in programs that promote physical activity; however, the literature on the subject in the context of minority youth remains scarce (Busey, Batten, Young, & Bragg, 2007). While both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations may lead to involvement in recreation activities (Ryan & Deci, 2000), the role of facilitators to leisure (Raymore, 2002) and satisfaction of basic needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000) should also be considered. According to the self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985), satisfaction of innate psychological needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy leads to an increase in intrinsically motivated behavior, internalization of extrinsic motivation, and ultimately, to the improved well-being. Moreover, needs satisfaction may affect a person’s well-being directly (Milyavskaya & Koestner, 2011). Facilitators are factors that enable, promote and enhance participation in leisure. The purpose of this study was two-fold. First, it combined the relationships between innate needs and motivations described in SDT with the concept of facilitators to leisure (Raymore, 2002) in order to identify factors affecting minority youth’s involvement in a sports program. Second, it examined the effects of this program on LTPA of minority youth. More specifically, the objectives of the study were to 1) examine the ways in which an organized sport program increased participation of minority youth in LTPA; 2) explore the effects of innate psychological needs among minority youth on their participation in the program; 3) examine motivations of minority youth for participation in the program; and 4) explore the role of facilitators in promoting youth’s involvement in the program.

**Methods**

Data for this study were collected using in-depth interviews with 13 participants (11 African American and 2 Latino boys ages 13-15) of the Reviving Baseball in Inner Cities (RBI) sports program and with 5 administrators (2 employees of a Park District responsible for the implementation of the program, 2 members of a national agency that sponsored the program, and 1 representative of a Major League Baseball franchise that helps to organize and sponsor the program) responsible for organizing and delivering the RBI program. Although the RBI is a unique sports program as it is affiliated with a Major League Baseball, the program itself is not intended to serve as a “talent scouting opportunity” for the league, but rather to enhance the positive development of youth from underprivileged communities by promoting healthy lifestyles and educational achievements. The interviews were conducted during the summer of 2010 in a large Midwestern metropolitan area. All interviews were conducted in English by the researchers and graduate assistants involved in the project (2 Caucasian and 2 African American men and women). Each interview lasted between 20-45 minutes and was conducted in a quiet location. Three interviews with the administrators were conducted over the phone and the rest of the interviews were conducted face-to-face. Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed.
verbatim. The youth were asked about the reasons for signing up and the expectations for the program, perception of coaches and teammates, outcomes of the program, and their plans for future involvement in professional sports. The stakeholders were asked about their involvement in the program, the goals of the program, and problems they had encountered in running the program. The analysis of the data, done using a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), began after the first interview had been completed and lasted throughout the duration of the study.

Findings

The effects of organized sport program on minority youth's participation in LTPA. Involvement in RBI affected LTPA among the youth not only through direct participation in the program, but also through such additional physical activities as training for the program and transportation to the program. Moreover, a “spillover effect” related to the higher likelihood of children’s involvement in other sport programs organized by the Park District was identified. One of the boys commented on the influence of RBI on his lifestyle: “Usually I was just sitting in the house and playing games until I heard of this program. [If not for this program] I would be sitting in my mom’s shop watching her doing hair.” Children also mentioned that, besides their regular practice time, they met with their coach to practice on weekends. In order to attend games and practice, some youth reported using bicycles for transportation, which complemented the LTPA involved in the program itself. A representative of MLB commented on the effects of the program on children’s LTPA: “As kids start to get more advanced and take more interest in baseball, they’re going to do certain things to improve their game. [...] Also, playing a team sport like baseball it’s going to keep them [interested in sport]. It gets them on this routine.”

Psychological needs satisfaction. Participation in the RBI program helped the youth satisfy their innate psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Many felt that by being involved in RBI they had become better players and developed more competence in the game. As Rasul said, “I couldn’t throw as far, but now I can throw fine. Also my running has improved.” Participation in RBI also allowed the youth to escape from under the control of their parents and from often difficult family situations, and thus to establish autonomy. RBI also helped the youth to satisfy their need for relatedness. As Josh shared, “Since I didn’t have a father to grow up with, my coach was something like my father. He was the only man in my life who was telling me ‘you gotta do good in school, pay attention to the teacher and stay focused.’” Another boy said, “And I have a group of fans and they are my best friends.” Interestingly, the interviewees almost universally reported that RBI also provided them with safe environment and helped escape the troubles of their inner city community, thus satisfying a need for safety. As Marcus said, “I play in these sports to get out the neighborhood. [It] keeps me out of the streets because there be a lot of violence happening in my neighborhood and anything can happen at any time. So, it is better for me to stay out of the neighborhood, from the violence, the shootings.”

The motivations for minority youth’s participation in the sport program. Among the most often mentioned intrinsic motivations for participation in RBI were desire to have fun, enjoy the game, and relieve boredom. One of the interviewees commented that he had enrolled in RBI, “because it’s fun and there ain’t nothing else to do in the summer.” Other intrinsic motivations mentioned by youth included desire to improve skills, to feel better about themselves and to increase self-esteem. Most children commented that they played because they wanted to “get better,” “do something well,” and “learn more skills.” Certain extrinsic motivations, such as desire to be selected to play in high school or to be recruited to play professionally and, thus improve their socio-economic position, were also detected in the narratives of the children.
The facilitators that enhance minority youth’s participation in the program. The facilitators were classified into intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural (Raymore, 2002). Among the *intrapersonal* facilitators was children’s belief that they were able to improve their skills and become better players. For example, Josh said, “Because I felt like I could play baseball, I felt like I could be the best.” Many of the interviewed children had a certain level of confidence, self-efficacy, resilience, and determination that helped them overcome constraints and ensure their participation in the program. Among the *interpersonal* facilitators was the support and encouragement from the program staff, coaches, and peers. For example, Joe said, “He [coach] is willing to take us further. He is like a second dad. He hates to see us slack; he hates to see us catch an attitude.” Interestingly, support from parents and families was never mentioned by the interviewed children. *Structural* facilitators that allowed the program to succeed included coaching, equipment, facilities, food, gifts, special events, and education sessions provided by the program sponsors and organizers. For example, a representative of the MLB described the lunch program provided for the participants: “They are able to get a free lunch every day. Some kids probably just show up because they’re getting fed consistently. And the meals are healthy; [...] which might be their most balanced meal that they’re getting on a daily basis.” MLB also paid for the children’s uniforms, transportation, and helped to train the coaches. The Park District provided facilities and coaches, while one of the sponsoring organizations provided education and leadership training sessions for the youth.

**Discussion/Conclusions**

The findings of the study have shown that LT PA may be fostered by a number of factors that go beyond simple participation in a sports program. When evaluating benefits of the programs for children’s involvement in LT PA, it is important to pay attention to the amount of practice time children get outside of the games, transportation used to reach the programs, and the effect of program participation on their involvement in other physical activities. The majority of previous studies conducted on the mainstream youth sports participants suggested that children are often motivated by intrinsic motivators, such as improvement of skills, physical fitness, developing healthy habits, desire to compete or have fun (Busey, Batten, Young, & Bragg, 2007; Chase, 2001). While many of these factors have been identified in this study, our research also provides support to the conjecture that certain extrinsic motivations, such as desire to play professionally to improve SES, are important for minority participants (Hartmann, 2000). Moreover, contrary to Maslow’s (1987) claim that the need for safety is “irrelevant in modern society,” our findings clearly point out that the desire to be safe is among the most important factors driving the behavior of minority youth. Thus, along with competence, autonomy, and relatedness, the main innate psychological needs included in the self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985), the need for safety should perhaps be included in future theoretical models (Deci, personal communication, 2011). According to SDT, satisfaction of those needs will help to foster intrinsically motivated behavior and internalize such extrinsic motivations as desire to play professionally and improve SES. Addressing this not previously accounted for need among minority youth may help to increase participation in LT PA, as well as lead to positive educational outcomes. Another major finding of this study is related to the special role coaches play in fostering minority youth’s participation in sports and in their overall well-being. The importance of coaches may be due to the absence of positive role models in the lives of many minority children, which should be considered by future program organizers.

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References


KOREAN SHOPPING MALLS AS URBAN LEISURE SPACES: A MIXED METHOD APPROACH

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Introduction

In contemporary society, shopping is an increasingly central leisure activity. Particularly for urban residents, shopping represents an important outlet for social interaction and identification as well as provides temporary relief from daily routines (Guiry et al., 2006; Jackson, 1991; Jansen-Verbeka, 1991; Timothy, 2005). Indeed, as Kelly and Godbey (1992) explain, leisure activities in capitalist societies are increasingly associated with consumption. Bacon (1991) suggests that while shopping has been historically viewed as a laborious activity, during the past century, shopping has become much less utilitarian and more of a leisure activity to be undertaken as a pleasant pursuit.

Recently, in East Asian countries including South Korea and Japan, the advent of shopping malls has significantly accelerated this trend—shopping as leisure. Robertson (1995) suggests that the demand for urban spaces where individual’s need for leisure can be met is on the rise. Shopping malls, along with other typical leisure spaces, such as natural parks, waterfront spaces, and amusement parks, have come to play the role of new leisure spaces. Moreover, since the development of commercial venues has been regarded as central to revitalizing urban spaces (Raco, 2003), urban shopping malls in Korea have multiplied in the past decade (Kim, 2008). Koreans are increasingly using a new word, “malling,” which refers to the nexus of leisure and consumption in such spaces. Indeed, such proliferation increasingly serves to locate shopping malls as popular recreational spaces with Koreans perceiving them as “playgrounds” and “spaces to hang out” (Park, 2007; Cho, 2010).

Employing a mixed methods sequential explanatory strategy in which quantitative and qualitative phases are combined, this study examines South Korean shopping mall visitors as it relates to motivation to visit, differences across clusters of mall visitors, and leisure behavior. Located in the context of Seoul, the following research questions guide the research:

1. What motivates individuals to visit shopping malls?
2. What specific aspects of shopping malls most appeal to individuals?
3. What leisure functions do shopping malls serve?

Methods

Mixed-method Approach: To investigate this phenomenon, this study followed a mixed methods sequential explanatory strategy, in which two data collection phases were conducted. Mixed methods design is considered to provide a more complete and nuanced basis for understanding social phenomena because it can neutralize the limitations of each method by capitalizing on strengths of both methods (Creswell et al., 2003; Greene & Caracelli, 1997). The project included results from a quantitative questionnaire as well as qualitative analysis of web-blog posts.

Quantitative Measures: An on-site survey was employed for this project. The questionnaire consisted of three major parts. The first part of the questionnaire measured why individuals visit the mall. This measure was designed based on literature regarding leisure motivation and shopping motivation including Barbin et al. (1994), Fodness (1994), and Beard and Ragheb (1983). The second part of the questionnaire assessed behaviorally oriented variables such as shops frequented (retail, food and beverage, entertainment), frequency of visit, length of visit, and total expenditure. The third and final part of the...
A questionnaire examined the demographic characteristics of respondents. The survey was conducted on-site with actual mall visitors on both weekdays and weekends. A direct face-to-face survey methodology was employed for this project. Data analysis involved three steps. First, motivation items were factor analyzed in order to delineate underlying dimensions of motivation associated with the shopping mall. Second, Two-Step cluster analysis was employed using the factor scores of motivations identified in the factor analysis. Finally, to investigate differences across clusters of mall visitors, ANOVA tests were employed to identify behavioral and demographic characteristics.

**Qualitative Measures:** In order to contextualize information about mall visitor behavior as revealed in the quantitative survey, a blog analysis was conducted. Using the Google blog search engine, blog posts between 2005 and 2010 that included the word “COEX Mall” were identified. Next, blog posts deemed of commercial nature (for example, advertising promotions) were excluded from the sample. Finally, among those blog posts identified, ones including several keywords that were selected based on the survey results were further identified so as to narrow the sample (e.g., recreation, shopping, and meeting). Data analysis included coding for patterns, and clustering of particular ideas into general themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

**Data integration:** The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis were combined during the interpretation phase, in which qualitative findings assisted in further interpreting and contextualizing quantitative results. Based on the overall tendencies of the quantitative results, the qualitative results provide specific illustrations of those tendencies.

**Results**

A total of 205 usable questionnaires were collected. A general profile of sample indicated that more than half of the respondents in the survey were female (55.1%), in 20’s (52.2%) and students (52.7%). Those rates of the respondents align well with established mall visitor’s profiles. Moreover, the quantitative results revealed the overall tendency as to why individuals visit the shopping mall.

**Factor analysis of motivations:** The factor analysis resulted in three dimensions of motivation. “Recreational motivation,” the first dimension, incorporates four items of purpose (e.g., to enjoy the place, to feel excited, to cope with stress, and to relax). “Shopping motivation,” the second dimension, incorporates three items of motivation (e.g., to browse, to get product information, and to purchase goods). The third dimension, “Meeting motivation,” was comprised of two items of motivation (e.g., to meet for business and to be with friends).

**Cluster analysis of visitors:** Three clusters were revealed. The first cluster was the largest, containing 108 respondents (52.7%). This cluster had the highest mean score on “recreational purpose” among the three cluster groups and was labeled “recreational visitors.” However, this cluster had relatively low mean scores on shopping and meeting purpose. The second cluster represented 69 respondents (33.7%) and was found to have the largest mean score on “meeting purpose” among the three purpose factors while it shows a relatively lower mean score on recreational and shopping purpose. This cluster was labeled “visitors for meetings.” The third cluster was the smallest and represented 28 respondents (13.6%). This cluster had the highest mean score on “shopping purpose” and a relatively high mean score on “recreational purpose.” This cluster was labeled “shoppers.”

**Characteristics of clusters:** ANOVA tests were conducted to identify differences among the three clusters. Significant differences among clusters were found for most variables including gender, age, occupation, length of visit, and total expenditure except for two variables-- income and frequency to visit. The “recreational visitors” tended to be younger (mean age was 26.3) and included more females (61%) than males. The rate of students was higher than the rate of workers and homemakers. They also visited the shopping mall for
relatively longer periods of time. The “visitors for meeting” tended to be older (mean age was 31.7) and included a higher proportion of homemakers. They were also likely to spend more money than other cluster groups. The “shoppers” involved more males (64%) than females (36%) and a higher proportion of workers and homemakers than students. They also tended to spend less money than other cluster groups and visited the shopping mall for relatively shorter periods of time.

Results of blog analysis: A total of 237 blog posts were used as final sample. Five key themes were generated as reasons for visiting the mall. First, the most frequently mentioned theme was food and restaurants. Bloggers wrote about several of the menus at the mall and shared photos of the food and of the interior design of restaurants so as to present their opinion about the restaurants they visited. Second, bloggers often mentioned the diversity of functions fulfilled at the COEX mall, likely because this attribute has strong appeal for many mall visitors. Third, socializing was another theme seen in many blog posts. Many statements on blog posts documented people meeting at the mall, either with friends or on a date. Fourth, several bloggers mentioned the physical convenience of the mall, such as its accessibility and enclosed environment. Finally, some bloggers described the latest fashion and cultural trends that they observed at the mall.

Findings: the current study advances several findings about mall visitors based on this mixed methodology. First, individuals in this study visited the COEX Mall mainly because they were seeking leisure opportunities. Second, the COEX shopping mall seemed to be a recreational space appealing more to students, females and younger individuals. Third, eating out was the favorite activity for “recreational visitors” and “visitors for meeting” while at the mall. Finally, our research findings, both quantitatively and qualitatively, imply that there is another recreational behavior at the mall—consumption of space itself.

Discussion

This study provides important implications both for urban policies and for leisure studies. First, shopping malls clearly serve public leisure functions even though these venues are owned and managed by private businesses. Many individuals perceive and use malls as recreational and social spaces in addition to shopping venues. This indicates that shopping malls play a quasi-public role as cultural hubs or landmarks in urban communities, particularly for younger people, females, and students. Therefore, Korean city governments and urban planners should increasingly consider this public leisure function of shopping malls when designing and developing commercial areas.

Second, the leisure functions of shopping malls imply that leisure activities of urban Korean residents are becoming increasingly commercialized. Everyday lives of urban residents are full of commercial activities, including shopping, watching commercial movies and professional sports, and video gaming, as individuals tend to look for the easiest and most convenient ways to cope with stressful lives in contemporary urban society. For example, a shopping mall, whose purpose is profit maximization, uses diverse business techniques to attract people, and the cumulative effect of marketing strategies entices urban residents to visit the space repeatedly and habitually. This fact indicates that leisure scholars should continue to pay more attention to these commercial aspects of everyday lives in contemporary urban society and address their implications for urban policies.

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Parks are theorized to provide a host of benefits to park visitors and the surrounding community. In the last five to ten years, parks’ role in physical activity promotion has been highlighted. To document how parks are used for physical activity, instruments have been developed to enumerate park environments and the physical activity that takes place therein (i.e. BRAT-Direct Observation (BRAT-DO), The System for Observing Play and Recreation in Communities (SOPARC)). While extant measures capture the quantity and intensity of park-based PA intensity at an aggregate level, no tool has been developed to gather more detailed information on individual park behaviors. Such a tool will allow park practitioners to document outcomes associated with visitation including parks’ accessibility to underserved populations and physical activity achieved in park spaces.

Purpose

This paper describes the purpose, reliability testing and application of a direct observation tool for community parks. The resultant tool, the Direct Observation of Park Activities (DO-PA), relies on systematic observation to collect detailed data on park behaviors at park sites. Below, we describe the development of the instrument, its observed reliability and application to practice.

Direct Observation Park Assessment Overview (DO-PA) Overview

The DO-PA instrument is designed for use in suburban and rural parks to allow for seasonal observations of park users, their activity choices, physical activity intensity and the park features that visitors utilize most frequently. This instrument is designed to be used by local/county park and recreation professionals and their staff. Similarly, the instrument should be a valuable tool for researchers conducting community needs assessments, master plans, and linking micro-level park design considerations to physical activity promotion efforts. The DO-PA provides a recording strategy to link observed individual characteristics to park activities, physical activity in the park and use of the built environment. To achieve this, DO-PA observes visitors on a person by person basis within sub-target areas of parks. Six columns across one 8.5” x 11” landscape page are used to capture the following: 1) activity intensity, 2) gender, 3) age group, 4) race/ethnicity, 5) activity type, and 6) equipment used. After identifying target areas and a comprehensive list of park attributes, trained observers should plan to conduct park observations for one-hour time slots (am, lunch, afternoon, early evening) each of four days. At least one of these observations days should be a weekend. Additional methodological considerations and coding conventions will be discussed during the oral presentation.

Conceptual Foundation

The development of the DO-PA tool is based on the recognition that personal characteristics, park attributes and park visitation are inputs that help us understand what benefits are may or may not be realized at parks. The relationship between these factors is summarized by Bedimo-Rung, Mowen and Cohen (2005) in their model “The relationship between parks and physical activity”. This model highlights the potential relationships among park environmental characteristics, park visitation, physical activity within parks, and the different outcomes individuals and communities may receive from parks. The lower section of the model shows personal characteristics and environmental components thought to influence the frequency of
park use. In the middle section of the model, on-site park behavior is described. The uppermost section of the model enumerates possible outcomes resulting from parks and park usage. The authors’ conceptualization of positive outcomes stemming from park visitation and physical activity in parks provided the conceptual foundation for the development of DO-PA.

**Methods**

The DO-PA borrows methodology from the existing standard bearers in direct observation of recreation in open settings: SOPARC and SOPLAY. In this vein, DO-PA may be considered a revised or extended version of these previously developed instruments with an emphasis on using the individual (rather than the site) as the unit of analysis. The DO-PA was developed and refined across two studies in 2006 and 2007. Reliability testing continued in additional divergent settings in 2008.

In 2006, the authors adopted SOPARC protocol for the study of four parks. Following pilot tests, an additional data collection form, eventually named the DO-PA, was deployed and used simultaneously with the existing SOPARC tool. This additional instrument was also used in 2007 in the study of eight additional parks. In 2008, DO-PA was employed for observations in three rural parks. Thus, reported reliability measures are the product of observations in 15 parks by 11 observers, each trained by the lead author.

Across three years, 840 observation scans were conducted at fifteen parks. To maintain internal reliability during these studies, 20% of sessions were undertaken simultaneously (but separately) by two or more study researchers. Thus, 172 joint observations sessions provide the the data for the reliability study. To the extent possible, park settings and park “types” were diversified. A summary of reliability observations settings is provided in Table 1.

**Table 1**

*Distribution of Observations by Park Type*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Neighborhood park</th>
<th>Sports/playground park</th>
<th>Linear park</th>
<th>Action/Alternative Sports park</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rural</strong></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Suburban</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Urban</strong></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Analysis**

Interrater reliability was assessed using observed agreement and Cohen $\kappa$ statistic. As a guide for in interpreting results, we adopted adjectival ratings from Landis and Koch (see Table 2).

**Results**

The mean (SD) $\kappa$ statistic, which accounts for chance agreement, across all items was 0.895 (.12) range (.56-1.00). As shown in Table 2, the number of comparable observations for each domain was between 108 and 112. Since park spaces were frequently empty (approximately 36% of reliability observations), only observations with visitors were included for the reliability analysis. The gender observations had perfect agreement while observed aged group had the weakest reliability. However, even this value, 0.74, can be classified as substantial.
Table 2
Agreement Between Observers, as Measured by the \( \kappa \) Statistic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Min, Max</th>
<th>Number of Observations Within ( \kappa ) Statistic Range</th>
<th>Total*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.00-0.19 (Poor) 0.20-0.39 (Fair) 0.40-0.59 (Moderate) 0.60-0.79 (Substantial) 0.80-1.00 (Almost Perfect)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity Intensity</td>
<td>0.87(.12) .56, 1.00</td>
<td>0 0 2 5</td>
<td>103 110</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1.00 (.00) 1.00, 1.00</td>
<td>0 0 0 0</td>
<td>0 112</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
<td>0.74(.15) .49, 1.00</td>
<td>0 0 11 15</td>
<td>86 112</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race/Ethnicity</td>
<td>.96(.09) .74, 1.00</td>
<td>0 0 0 2</td>
<td>106 108</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity Type</td>
<td>.91 (.17) .82, 1.00</td>
<td>0 0 0 0</td>
<td>0 110</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment Used</td>
<td>.89(.20) .63, 1.00</td>
<td>0 0 0 21</td>
<td>89 110</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*When no visitors were present or data was absent an observation was not computed in the reliability analysis.

Conclusion
Reliability findings indicate the DO-PA has excellent interrater reliability. When trained users are observing park behaviors and visitor characteristics, you can be confident that different individuals will understand and code visitation in consistent ways. This means that findings across different settings and staffers should be comparable within and across communities. In fact, the uncommonly high reliability values indicate that further refinement and more narrow classifications park activities and equipment may be possible with this instrument.

Application
The DO-PA is a direct observation tool that describes individual park visitation behavior and then links park-based physical activity to specific components of the built environment. This detailed assessment of on-site behavior has implications for both research and practice. First, when used in combination with park audit tools, such as the BRAT-DO or EAPRS, researchers are able to assess whether the presence and quality of park environments is related to physical activity achieved at that park. Second, the tool allows researchers to link specific park activities (i.e. tennis, disc golf) to sub-populations of park users (i.e. teenage girls). Third, the tool allows for an in-depth analysis of community park use to inform local policies and spending. For example, local officials, park planners and managers want to know what the percentage of physical activity undertaken in the playground occurred on the climbing wall and how likely they were to be used by boys compared to girls before they decide whether to invest in a similar climbing wall on the other side of town. Implementing DO-PA can provide this information to decision-makers who shape community financing and policy related to physical activity.

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The history of women in the field of parks and recreation has embodied both empowerment and constraint. Women’s experiences in all areas of leisure services including parks and recreation have been shaped by both structural and cultural factors (Aitchison, 2005). Women in this field have confronted personal as well as social concerns, and actively worked for change in their own lives and the lives of their communities. However, the nature of women’s roles in society and the gender-power relationships in workplaces and communities has sometimes provided challenges for professional women. Most of the studies of women in leisure services over the past 25 years have addressed issues related to opportunities, constraints and organizational structures. Many of those studies have been quantitative in nature and have not necessarily examined the context of women’s work lives. The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of women in the field of parks and recreation regarding their careers and expectations for the future. With a focus centered on women in professional positions in public parks and recreation, we conducted a narrative analysis of open-ended responses to a national survey about career development.

Considerable research conducted early in the 21st century described the complexities that many women confront in their professional careers (e.g., O’Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008; O’Neill & Bilimoria, 2005; Shapiro, Ingols, & Blake-Beard, 2008; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). O’Neil et al. (2008) concluded that despite the growing visibility of women’s leadership in many organizations, male-defined constructions of work and career success dominate most organizational cultures. Women’s lives remain relatively more complicated because society remains gendered (Shaw, 2001). Women in parks and recreation appear to share many of the same career patterns as other working professionals.

**Methods**

The qualitative analyses for this study were part of a larger national quantitative study that examined specific dimensions of career development for women who were professional members of the National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA). All data were collected in March 2010. About 3700 professional NRPA members were invited to complete the online survey with 1214 responses received during a two week period resulting in a 33% response rate. The focus of employment for the respondents included parks, general recreation, community service, therapeutic recreation, youth, aging, planning, and cultural arts with almost all individuals employed in the public sector. Four optional open-ended questions were included at the end of the survey that asked about: (a) job satisfaction and reasons; (b) greatest challenges / barriers as a woman in recreation and how they were negotiated; (c) greatest challenges for the next generation of women; and (d) advice to women entering the field.

The data were analyzed using qualitative narrative analysis. The open-ended questions were organized and coded using qualitative data management software called MAXQDA. Responses from the four questions were open-coded independently by each member of the research team to begin analysis. The research team met, negotiated any differences of opinion regarding codes,
and then conducted focus coding to sift through and categorize the data (Charmaz, 2006). Selective coding integrated the topics into themes that portrayed an integrated conceptual analysis for examining the perceptions of career development of women in the field of parks and recreation. To ensure trustworthiness, each member of the research team participated in coding, kept journals regarding the data analysis processes, and wrote memos about the emerging themes. We came together multiple times during the coding and writing stages to discuss our coding and preliminary models for theory building. The team considered negative cases (Henderson, 2006) to ascertain how the themes represented a continuum of perspectives.

**Results**

Consider a scenario of two women drawn to a recreation and parks career with goals of public service and making a difference in the communities in which they lived. After 10 years in the field they fall at perhaps two ends of a continuum. One felt she had successfully balanced family and work while the other viewed her job as little more than a paycheck to support her family. The two women entered the field with similar expectations, but due to personal as well as organizational situations had different career experiences. These representative experiences emerged from the influences and themes uncovered in this analysis: (a) public service motivation; (b) motivation and obligation to family; (c) women in the workplace culture; and (d) women working in the field of parks and recreation.

Respondents showed that they were intrinsically motivated by the public service work they did. They often found their work rewarding because of the benefits they perceived that parks and recreation provided to their communities. Many noted they had a passion for their profession because it was a way to serve others. Some women responded that they simply liked the “ability to serve others.” One respondent noted that, “Giving back to the community and offering varied activities give me great satisfaction. There is nothing like standing in a park and watching children and adults interacting in fun activities.” Other respondents offered explanations such as “I am able to do what I love and make a difference in my community.”

Along with a strong commitment to their profession, many women also described their motivation and obligation to family life. Some women explained that family was highly compatible to their careers in parks and recreation. Several women reported that their job satisfaction was the result of their ability to work with children at their jobs. Other women reported that they enjoyed their positions because it allowed them the flexibility to spend time with their own children. One woman described, “Spending time with my son--I bring him to events whenever possible and now that he is older, he can volunteer.” Although a career in parks and recreation was in harmony with some women’s family desires, many women described parenting as it was negotiated with their careers. The time and energy required to raise children was perceived as sometimes directly affecting a woman’s ability to advance her professional education, network with others, or do work that required evening, weekend, and/or extra hours. The pressure to balance work life with home life was frequently mentioned as a challenge.

Women who expressed satisfaction with the balance between raising children and their careers often noted that the workplace culture and organizational practices contributed to their success. Organizational culture including the influence of organization leadership as well as interaction with co-workers, customers, and policy makers seemed to guide their perceptions. Some women described organizations that supported flex time to help care for family members and said they had “excellent leaders who advocated for men and women in the field.” Other respondents described organizations or communities made up of the “good old boys” network that had “co-workers who think that women are only to make coffee and make arrangements for
meetings.” One woman lamented that she was “competing for management jobs when I was always being steered into ‘staff’ positions instead.”

In addition to the challenges of the workplace culture, the nature of the recreation field resulted in particular challenges such as working extra hours, over holidays, and during other people’s free time. These expectations may be common for any area of public service, but our data suggested that parks and recreation had some distinct characteristics. Several women perceived that limited funding and low budgets within their park and recreation organizations made work more difficult for them than if they had been employed in other fields. Lower budgets often led to the “reduction of programs and operations” and “do[ing] more with less.” Some participants noted that fewer jobs were available in parks and recreation at all levels. Further, to fight for funding, some respondents acknowledged that they “have to play the political game with other city or county departments.” In parks and recreation, women often perceived that they were continually trying to demonstrate the benefits of their organizations to politicians and city administrators. This necessity for continual advocacy was time consuming and sometimes energy draining.

Discussions

We found that most women appeared to enter the parks and recreation field motivated by the intrinsic desire to help others by “making a difference.” A similar motivation to help others through nurturing a family sometimes conflicted with work motivations. We theorized that women’s perceptions regarding their careers appeared on a continuum from largely positive to somewhat negative based on how they negotiated the motivations for public service with motivations for family in addition to how they facilitated the workplace culture and the distinct area of parks and recreation. Women at the positive career end of the continuum were working for agencies with organizational structures that were supportive in reducing the conflict between work and personal life (e.g., flex time, supportive boss, understanding co-workers and community residents, and high regard for the profession). Women on the opposite end of the continuum wanted to love their jobs, but the barriers presented by organizational constraints and personal perceptions and circumstances often cast a negative influence on their careers and the expectation for women in the future. This was marked by the fact that some respondents prefaced their comments with, “I love my job and what I do, but…”

The patterns and paradoxes that defined the career development of many professional women were also similar for the parks and recreation women. Many women perceived they had two full time jobs in being a worker and a family member (Shapiro et al., 2008). The women in parks and recreation seemed to want to resist the traditional career model for men where work is primary over everything else. Many women believed it was possible to have a successful career with satisfying work and meaningful family life IF the organizational culture and structure where they worked supported women-friendly, or even better, family-friendly work policies (e.g., parental leave, flexible scheduling). The women in our study recognized that they needed to advocate for themselves but also suggested that organizational structures and traditional linear career patterns required reconsideration. Little research has been conducted about women in the field of parks and recreation for over a decade. More research is needed concerning the policies that can make for equitable workplaces. We recommend continued study to examine organizational cultures and structures that will be family-friendly.

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References


Schizophrenia is a major mental illness (MMI) affecting approximately 1.1% of the world population (Regier et al., 1993) and has pervasive impacts on the functioning, health and well-being of those affected. Schizophrenia is characterized by three symptoms categories: positive, negative, and cognitive (APA, 2000). In addition to the affects on functioning and well-being, schizophrenia also represents a significant health threat to those diagnosed. People with MMI have a life expectancy reduced by as many as 25 years as compared to people without such illnesses (Colton & Manderscheid, 2006), with cardiovascular disease as the major cause of excess (Newcomer & Hennekens, 2007). While multiple factors contribute to cardiovascular disease, sedentary behavior is a highly modifiable contributor (Wildgust & Beary, 2010).

Sedentary behaviors are those that require very little energy expenditure and include activities such as watching television, reading, computer use, and resting. Americans spend nearly 60% of waking time in sedentary behavior (CDC, 2005). People with schizophrenia have a higher percentage of time in sedentary behavior; Chuang et al (2008) found 70% of psychiatric outpatients spent 100% of their time in sedentary behavior.

In order to reduce sedentary behavior, one must understand the contributing factors participation in sedentary behavior. Although symptoms are a primary area of focus in treatment, symptom reduction is not always indicative of functional improvement (Wunderink, Sytema, Nienhuis, & Wiersma, 2009). While not strictly indicative of sedentary behavior, individuals with schizophrenia with greater negative symptoms experience greater weight gain than those with less severe negative symptoms (Strassnig, Miewald, Deshavan, & Ganguli, 2007). However, this may be related to the greater number of anti-psychotic medications, which have been consistently linked to weight gain (Strassnig et al., 2007).

Medication and symptoms of schizophrenia may undermine motivation to participate in physical activity (PA). Motivations to participate in sedentary behavior, specifically sedentary leisure (e.g., watching television, reading, listening to the radio), frequently include the desire to escape and stress relief. Symptoms and motivation are directly related to the individual; however, the contribution of social factors to sedentary behavior is also relevant. Medical sociologists present social conditions as a fundamental cause of disease. Research suggests social relationships are responsible for at least a 50% increase in the odds of survival (Holt-Lunstad, Smith, & Layton, 2010). Similarly, social interaction is a predictor of PA in the general population (Dacey, Baltzell, & Zaichkowsky, 2008), while social isolation is negatively correlated with PA among adults with MMI (McCormick et al., 2009).

The purpose of this study was to identify the role of symptoms of schizophrenia and motivational and social characteristics of activity in determining sedentary versus active behavior among community-dwelling adults with schizophrenia

**Methods**

A total of 45 adults were recruited from two psychiatric day-treatment programs and had a confirmed research diagnosis in the schizophrenia spectrum (i.e., schizophrenia or schizoaffective disorders). Data were collected using experience sampling method (ESM) which signaled subjects randomly seven times each day over seven days using a signaling watch.
Subjects were provided with a self-report booklet in which they recorded their activity, attributes of that activity, and social context of activity.

Psychiatric symptoms were collected using the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS (Kay, Fiszbein, & Opler, 1987) consisting of 30 items and was designed to assess domains of positive and negative symptoms. Cognitive functioning was determined using the total errors on the Wisconsin Card Sort Test (WCST; (Heaton, Chelune, Talley, Kay, & Curtis, 1993). Activity Motivation was derived from self-reported motives for activity engagement in which subjects selected “had to,” “wanted to,” or “nothing else to do.” Responses were converted to dummy variables representing extrinsic motivation (had to=1, other=0) and intrinsic motivation (wanted to=1, other=0). Solitary Activity was derived from subjects’ reports of activities. Activities in which subjects identified being alone were coded as solitary activities, whereas those not coded as alone were collapsed into a single non-solitary category. Sedentary Activity was identified using subject-reported activities (n=1114), which were coded using the activities and participation chapter of the international classification of function. A total of 38 activity codes were generated in this process. Three coders were used to independently rate activities as principally sedentary or principally active. There was 68% unanimous agreement on coding of activities as active or sedentary, and in the remaining cases codes were assigned based on majority determination. Given the broad activity categories represented, the Compendium of Physical Activity (Ainsworth et al., 2011) was not utilized; however, coded sedentary activities were under 2.0 METs, consistent with the inactivity section of the Compendium.

Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics to identify relative contributions of participant and experience variables in predicting sedentary behavior. Specifically, hierarchical linear models (HLM) were created using HLM 6.8 to in which experience level variables of motivation and solitary experience (Level 1) were nested within persons with symptoms and characteristics of schizophrenia (Level 2). HLMs were created to identify significant person level characteristics (i.e., cognitive dysfunction, positive and negative psychiatric symptoms, and diagnosis) related to sedentary behavior. Subsequently experience level characteristics (i.e., motive and social context) were included in the model to identify significant experience-level variables predicting to sedentary behavior.

**Findings**

**Study Participants.** A total of six participants provided no ESM data and were subsequently not included in this study, resulting in a study sample n=39. Subjects provided on average 29.0 (sd=12.1) useable data points per person with a minimum of 3 and maximum of 46 responses. Participants were predominantly male (90%) with a mean age of 50.1 (sd=8.1) years, and balanced between white non-Hispanic (49%) and Black non-Hispanic (51%). Mean positive symptoms (M=16.7, sd=5.6) and negative symptoms (M=18.1, sd=4.2) of schizophrenia indicated that this sample demonstrated fewer psychiatric symptoms than the population of people with schizophrenia. Finally, the group mean on total errors on the WCST (M=53.8, sd=23.6) indicated that the sample showed somewhat poorer cognitive functioning than other samples (Everett, Lavoie, Gagnon, & Gosselin, 2001).

**Sedentary Behavior.** Across all subjects, 57% of activities were sedentary, and 47% were done alone. In addition, 62% of activities were reported as intrinsically motivated, 29% extrinsically motivated, and 9% amotivated.

**Predictors of Sedentary Behavior.** Diagnosis remained as significant predictors in the level 2 model (Table 1), indicating that those with a diagnosis of schizoaffective disorder were over 70% (OR=1.79) more likely to report active behavior than those with schizophrenia.
Negative symptoms also showed a similar, but weaker, enhancing relationship to active behavior. Following specification of the level 2 model, level 1 variables of motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) and social context (alone v. not-alone) were entered. Only extrinsic motivation and social context were found to be significant predictors and retained. In the final model, schizoaffective disorder remained as a determinant that increased the probability of reporting active behavior. In addition, being alone reduced the probability of being active by approximately one-half (OR=0.52), while activities that were extrinsically motivated showed an over six-fold increase (OR=6.89) in the probability of being active.

Table 1. Summary of Hierarchical Models.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Level 2 Model</th>
<th>Final Model</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept, b1</td>
<td>Interceptg00</td>
<td>-0.28* 0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagnosisg01</td>
<td>0.57* 1.79</td>
<td>0.54* 1.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neg. Sympg02</td>
<td>0.07* 1.07</td>
<td>0.05 1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone, slope b2</td>
<td>-0.66*** 0.52</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrin, slope b3</td>
<td>1.93*** 6.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p <.05, ***p<.001

Discussion

These findings provide an initial understanding of the contribution diagnosis, individual motivation, and social interaction has in participation in sedentary behavior. The non-significant relationship between symptoms and sedentary behavior provide further support for psychosocial interventions that address functioning as opposed to symptom reduction (Dixon et al., 2010). Mental health treatment guidelines have increasingly cited the importance of increased levels of PA (Gorczynski & Faulkner, 2010).

In addition, the finding of the deleterious effects of social isolation on active versus sedentary behavior adds further evidence of the need for social connections for this population. Future interventions to improve social functioning and integration should consider the potential impact of improved social contact on non-social outcomes such as PA.

The role of extrinsic motivation in sedentary behavior among this sample is counter to that of other active adults. In a study examining the type of motivation to participate in physically active older adults those who were physically inactive were more likely to be extrinsically motivated, whereas habitually active individuals were intrinsically motivated (Dacey et al., 2008). For adults with schizophrenia, whose lives may provide little external structure, external motivation may be the only trigger for engaging in activity. Interventions to improve PA and reduce sedentary behavior will need to consider how extrinsically regulated behavior can be internalized (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The major contributing factors, presence of others as well as extrinsic motivation, is consistent with Deci & Ryan’s (2000) supposition that the presence of others combined with successful participation can facilitate internalization.

This study provides an initial understanding of the importance of motivation in non-sedentary activity participation. Future research should look specifically at how the internalization process occurs specifically in individuals with schizophrenia. This research will provide the groundwork for the development of sustainable PA interventions.

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References
VALUE DRIVEN LEISURE PROGRAMMING WITH TOMORROW’S SENIORS
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Born between 1946 and 1964, the Baby Boomer cohort makes up 76 million Americans; the first of which turned 65 years of age this year. They own a unique set of values and characteristics, vastly different from previous generations. Boomers have re-written the rules their entire lives and they are going to do it again as they enter retirement. Their values encompass all aspects of life, affecting their beliefs about self, career, home and leisure. Baby Boomers are an individualistic, self-focused generation that is known to work hard, play hard, and spend hard (Ziegler, 2002). They are highly educated, comfortable with technology, healthier and more affluent than any generation before them (Cochran, 2005).

Despite boomers’ hectic lifestyles, leisure is still a necessity that plays an important role in their lives. Boomers appear to realize work may have provided their incomes, but it is the experiences derived during leisure that enhance their personal well-being (Cochran, Rothschild & Rudick, 2009). Boomers are determined, do not recognize limitations, and in general, are not allowing the aging process to impact their lifestyles negatively. Most Boomers view “retirement” as an active period in their lives (Gardner, 2001).

Distinguished from the baby boomer generation, nearly 50 million Americans were born between 1925 and 1945. The term “Greatest Generation” was coined by Journalist Tom Brokaw (1998) to describe this generation of Americans who grew up during the deprivation of the Great Depression, and then went on to fight in World War II. This generation values patriotism, hard work, saving money and spending little, close-knit families, and loyalty. Activities that first come to mind for this age group often are bingo, golf, cooking and sewing.

Over the next 19 years, recreation facilities, programs and services will be flooded as Boomers mature into retirement. Seniors are as diverse as any other sector of the population. Tomorrow’s seniors are the largest cohort in history and demand more than what is currently offered in senior facilities and through programs. Though these two groups may be in the same age category (age 55 and older), research shows they may not necessarily have the same recreation demands (Sperazza, 2008). It is believed that the values that residents bring to a senior community should be encompassed in the leisure programming and recreation center offerings. The challenge for recreation professionals will be to not only use existing approaches in leisure programs or services, but to understand and create new strategies that meet the needs of this diverse and changing aging population.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to understand what tomorrow’s seniors (Baby Boomers) compared to today's seniors (those born before 1946) are searching for in terms of community recreation program preferences as perceived by their value structure. Values are those things deemed important to us or those abstract categories associated with leisure which strong feelings are connected. Further, is there a difference between boomers and seniors regarding their preferences of leisure activities based on competitiveness, education, physiological reasons, socializing, relaxation and aesthetics as values? Subsequently, the researcher also theorized that choices for leisure programming would be made based on leisure participation values. As such, the likelihood of boomers and seniors preferring or engaging in particular types of leisure programming was addressed.
The main objectives of this study were to (a) conduct a survey regarding leisure values and activities of a master planned age-restricted community, and (b) recommend programming tips based upon data analysis in order to educate the professional on how to meet the leisure demands of an aging society. This article will address results of the first objective. The latter was the focus of a training session for recreation staff where this research took place.

Methods

This exploratory, descriptive study was approved by the authors’ Institutional Review Board and occurred within a master planned, age restricted community in the state of Florida. The survey instrument was distributed to boomer and senior residents during their Annual Outdoor Expo event in March, 2010. Annual attendance for this event is estimated at 5,000 adults aged 55+. Researchers were provided a table within the Expo where they handed out surveys to interested participants who completed them on-site. A non-probability sample of convenience resulted in two hundred and eighty-five participants. Non responses were considered in data analysis. Frequency statistics and Chi-Square analysis were used to analyze the data. The researchers acknowledge that generalizability of the results was affected by the small sample size and the non-probability sampling procedure.

All sections of the survey have been used previously in studies (Cochran, 2005; Sperazza, 2008) with the exception of the technology questions; those were added by request of the Recreation Department within this master planned community. The survey instrument included three subscales: (1) measuring the participants’ opinion about how important it was to participate in recreation activities based upon certain value statements, (2) identification of technology programs that participants used or did not use in their leisure, and (3) indication of preferences regarding programming and the likelihood or participation in certain activities.

Part of the survey required participants to respond to a series of statements by ranking the value they place on participation in leisure. Responses were categorized as: “Competitive”, “Educational”, “Social”, “Physiological”, “Relaxation”, and “Aesthetic”. These responses were then compiled into three levels for analysis: high, medium, and low.

The recreation and leisure participation subscale was found to have a high internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .901$), the programming areas subscale yielded a coefficient of .77 and the six value composites yielded an internal consistency coefficient of .82. Face validity for the instrument was established through consultation with a panel of recreation professional experts who reviewed the items.

Results

Descriptive statistics were calculated for demographic items as well as all subscales. Frequency statistics and Chi-square analyses were conducted on the data to answer research questions. Since this study captured a sample consisting of participants over the age of 55, boomers were classified in this study as those between the ages of 55 and 64. As such, of the total sample, Boomers represented 50.8% (n=128) of the sample, while Seniors comprised 49.2% (n=124). The mean age of the participants was 64.9 (SD: 7.14 years). More females (61.1%) participated in the study than males, and the majority of the participants (97.2%) described themselves as Caucasian. Participants reported living in this master planned, age restricted community for an average of 4.7 years and ranged from less than one year to 23 years. For surveys which included missing data, responses were excluded from analysis when appropriate.
A difference between observed and expected responses was assessed for Boomers and Seniors for the three levels for all six leisure participation values. Based on this method, there were statistically significant differences between observed and expected responses of Boomers and Seniors regarding the preference of leisure activities as a competitive category (SD=6.103) and ‘excitement’ as a statement for leisure participation. Specifically, Boomers reported ‘excitement’ as being ‘not important’ (M=2.80, SD=.488) more often than Seniors (M=2.57, SD=627).

Additionally, statistically significant differences between males and females with regard to their reasons for participating in leisure activities were evident. Females reported more often than males that it was not important to participate in leisure ‘to learn new skills and abilities’, ‘to keep me busy’, ‘to be creative’, to do something different from work’, and ‘to expand intellect.’ In contrast, males reported ‘risk and adventure’ was less important than females.

There was great interest by to the participant’s knowledge and usage of technology with such programs as e-mail, Facebook, Twitter, and various gaming systems. A Chi-square test of independence was used to analyze the data to determine the difference between observed and expected frequencies according to age (boomer or senior) and gender (male or female). Overall, Boomers report greater usage of e-mail, internet, Facebook, and computer games. Twitter was a program that both groups had heard about, but never used. Females reported higher usage of internet, email, and Facebook than males.

Boomers and Seniors reported different interests with regard to likelihood of participating in various programs. Boomers report sports, wellness, and social recreation as their top three categories of participation while Seniors report wellness, travel, and sports to be their top three. Both groups report self improvement and outdoor recreation as fourth and fifth, respectively. Seniors were less likely than Boomers to report interest in literary, aquatic, sporting, and social recreation activities.

**Discussion**

By sheer numbers alone, the boomers have impacted our society in everything that they do. Their footprint on retirement will no doubt be the same. Boomers, having high levels of education, socialization, and a love for active lifestyles, have recently found high desire to relocate to master planned communities. Living in a master planned age-restricted community allows this cohort to live with no boundaries- unlimited fitness classes, golf courses, activity clubs, opportunities for continued education, and it fits into their financial plans. Hence, creating a homogenous community that lacks the majority of stress that a normal community would have.

While there are limitations to this study, the results provide a snapshot of information that has implications for recreation programmers within master-planned retirement communities. It is believed that the values that residents bring to a senior community should be encompassed in the leisure programming and recreation center offerings. Identification of statistically significant leisure participation value differences between boomers and seniors, indicates their preference for leisure activities are reflected by the values they uphold, resulting in the anticipated difference between groups. Understanding this allows a more reflective and philosophical perspective from which to develop appropriate and meaningful leisure programming beyond today’s senior.

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References


BENJAMIN FRANKLIN’S CONCEPTION OF LEISURE
Charles Sylvester, Western Washington University

~“And the Rest Might be Leisure and Pleasure”~
Benjamin Franklin, July 26, 1784

In *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, Max Weber (1958) portrays Benjamin Franklin as the quintessence of the American work ethic, extolling and embodying an ethos of industry, frugality, and wealth. Franklin’s reputation as the archetype of the capitalist work ethic has indeed become a popular article of faith. However, Weber’s broad brush portrait of Franklin is a “distorting caricature” (Pangle, 2007, p. 29) that fails to represent the real, more complex man (Weinberger, 2005; Wood, 1992). Franklin retired at age 42, the midpoint of his life, allowing, in his words, “a great Happiness, Leisure to read, study, make experiments, and converse at large . . .” (Franklin, Sept. 29, 1748, n. p.). Franklin’s early retirement provides a 42 year window to look upon not only the many pursuits that occupied his freedom from business, but a view of his own understanding of leisure and its place in life. As such, this study had two complementary purposes: (1) to describe the content and context of Franklin’s leisure and (2) to account for his conception of leisure. Due to space limits, this abstract summarizes the latter, focusing on the moral and social dimensions of Franklin’s conception of leisure. The digital version of Yale University’s *Benjamin Franklin’s Papers* ([www.franklinpapers.org](http://www.franklinpapers.org)) and the massive secondary literature on Franklin were used as source material.

**What Did Leisure Mean?**

Franklin used the word “leisure” in at least three ways. First, he employed it in the sense of “When I have a moment” or “When you get a chance.” In a letter to Francis Coffyn regarding repayment for funds provided by Coffyn to escaped American prisoners, Franklin remarked, “[I] shall pay the Bill you mention as soon as it appears. You shall send me your Account at your Leisure” (Franklin, Aug. 12, 1781, n. p.). Second, Franklin conventionally applied leisure to mean freedom from the necessity to labor or do business. In a letter to Lord Kames about being busy with “Public Affairs relating to America,” Franklin, hoping for “Ease and Leisure,” wrote, “I promise you, that when I quit of these, I will engage in no other . . .” (Franklin, June 2, 1765, n. p.). The leisure desired by Franklin leads to a third layer of meaning. Transcending the freedom from labor and business, the substantive portion of leisure consisted in how free-time was used, opening the curtain to its moral and social implications. In the same letter to Lord Kames, Franklin stated his plan to return to writing his *Autobiography*, which he intended as a guide to living, a medium for “conducing means I made use of, which with the blessing of God so well succeeded, my posterity may like to know, as they may find some of them suitable to their own situations, and therefore fit to be imitated” (n. p.). Franklin indeed offered moral instruction throughout his copious writings for future generations to emulate. Although obscured by his own praise of labor and by popularizations of Franklin as the “patron saint of business” (Wood, 2004, p. 6), Franklin left a discernible record of leisure’s contribution to happiness consisting in personal success and social progress.

**What Did Leisure Matter?**

One of the first clues of Franklin’s morally nuanced understanding of leisure appears in *Poor Richard’s Almanack* (Franklin, 2009). Cautioning that “a Life of Leisure and a Life of Laziness are two Things,” Poor Richard (Franklin) declares that leisure is “Time for doing something useful” (p. 268). Influenced by his Protestant background, Baconian science, and the
Enlightenment, Franklin held a utilitarian outlook, evaluating experience by its contribution to personal and social improvement. He did not ignore the intrinsic satisfaction of leisure, praising the pleasurable amusement of “philosophical studies” (science). Nonetheless, at a time when the leisure of the upper class was being assailed as indolent and parasitic, producing nothing of social value, Franklin was careful to emphasize the practical benefits of leisure. In describing his own self-education, he remarked: “Reading was the only Amusement I allow’d my self. I spent no time in Taverns, Games, or Frolicks of any kind” (Franklin, 2009, p. 81). On the other hand, characterizing the game of chess as an “innocent” leisure diversion, Franklin (1786) meticulously delineated its derivative benefits, including “foresight,” “circumspection,” “caution,” “not being discouraged,” “hope,” and “perseverance” (n. p.). Thus, while enjoyable in its own right, leisure ultimately mattered for being useful to individual improvement and social progress, such as building character, helping others, and increasing practical knowledge.

Franklin’s view of leisure straddled the old and the new. Since the classical period of ancient Athens, leisure had been considered a condition of gentlemen. Freed from the need to labor, they occupied themselves in the higher pursuits of life, including study, culture, and citizenship. While cultivating the persona of a plain, homespun Yankee, Franklin aspired to be recognized as a gentleman, a distinction that required leisure in his day (Wood, 1992). However, Franklin departed from ancient ways by rejecting the hereditary privilege of leisure. Against the customary belief that God endowed gentlemen with “great leisure, where the meanest must labor” (Mulcaster, 1888/1561, p. 193), Franklin believed leisure was not given as a labor-free privilege of class. Rather, leisure could be earned by any citizen through labor. Not until he had gained his retirement at age 42 through labor, business, and frugality did he refer to himself as a “Man of Leisure” (Franklin, 2009, p. 123). His hard-earned leisure not only qualified him for the part, but he acted the role for the remainder of his life, occupying himself with the gentlemanly pursuits of study and public service, while enjoying the cultural life of France and England during protracted stays. Further, while labor served Franklin’s core virtues, such as industry and frugality, he did not see labor as worthy only for its own sake. Writing to Benjamin Vaughan, Franklin speculated that four hours of daily labor would be enough “to procure all the Necessaries and Comforts of Life,” leaving the remainder of the day for “Leisure and Pleasure” (Franklin, July 26, 1784, n. p.). Thus, besides the good habits it cultivated, labor was a means of securing leisure for personal and social development.

Franklin reformulated another dimension of ancient leisure involving whether leisure was mainly an end in itself experienced through study and friendship or instead a means of public service. The relationship and tension between intellectual virtue enjoyed in study among friends and moral virtue nobly embodied in citizenship was a debate that stretched from Aristotle’s original formulation to early America. The Roman philosopher Seneca, who Franklin read, prominently addressed the matter in his essay On Leisure. Franklin desired the untroubled pleasure of private leisure, allowing him to travel, enjoy the French salons, and to pursue his passion for science. He even occasionally lamented the imposition of public duties, especially as he grew older, hoping “for a Return of that Leisure & Tranquility, so necessary for Philosophical Disquisitions” (Franklin, Nov. 19, 1779, n. p.). Yet, like Thomas Jefferson and other leaders of his period, Franklin embraced religious and philosophical views that stressed benevolence, including the example of Jesus Christ and the moral sense philosophy of the Scottish Enlightenment (Sylvester, 2007). Furthermore, justice, which included not “omitting the benefits that are your duty” (Franklin, 2009, p. 85), was among his 13 cardinal virtues. Perhaps most telling was his caution to Cadwallader Colden not to permit the “Love of Philosophical
Amusements” during his private leisure to interfere with the duties of his public leisure, advice Franklin followed throughout his own life (Franklin, Oct. 11, 1750, n. p.).

Finally, Franklin redrew another line of ancient leisure to better fit the contours of his times. As conceived by Aristotle (1984), liberal education was intended only for the sons of Athenian aristocrats, its chief aim being to prepare them for noble leisure. Franklin revised liberal education without abandoning ancient views altogether. While not believing everyone was equal in ability, Franklin subscribed to Enlightenment egalitarianism and the importance of educating all citizens, writing “Nothing can more effectually contribute to the Cultivation and Improvement of a Country, the Wisdom, Riches, and Strength, Virtue and Piety, the Welfare and Happiness of a People, than a proper Education of Youth . . . [in] all useful Branches of liberal Arts and Science” (Franklin, 1749, n. p.). Moreover, Franklin’s idea of a “useful” education was broad, including “every Thing that is useful, and every Thing that is ornamental” (Franklin, n. p.). In other words, Franklin believed that youth should be educated for material welfare, social progress, and a culturally enriched life. With regard to things chiefly enjoyed for their own sake (“ornamentals”), Franklin (1728) wrote “since [God] has created many Things which seem purely design’d for the Delight of Man, I believe he is not offended when he sees his Children solace themselves in any manner of pleasant Exercises and innocent Delights . . . (n. p.).

Governed only by the standards of “true Merit” and serving “Mankind, one’s Country, Friends and Family” (1749, n. p.), liberal education could be achieved in countless ways. Therefore, like Aristotle, Franklin believed happiness was the purpose of liberal education. Yet his version was far more diverse, democratic, utilitarian, and notably included both labor and leisure.

In sum, Benjamin Franklin conceived of leisure as freedom from labor and business, freeing the individual for useful occupations that contributed to personal development and social progress. Leisure was the reward for labor, but it was not simply the servant to “work without end” (Hunnicutt, 1990). Instead, leisure was ultimately the aim of labor, allowing the individual to pursue the important non-economic goods of happiness. Franklin further refitted the fabric of classical leisure for modern times, making it more democratic and broadly utilitarian, while preserving its ends in study, character, and public service.

Conclusion
The eminent historian Gordon Wood concluded that Franklin personifies the American Dream of getting ahead through hard work. He also observed that Franklin worked hard for the sake of leisure (Wood, 2004). Unmasking “Franklin the businessman” to expose “Franklin the man of leisure” is useful for an ever-evolving American Dream, particularly since the nature of work and leisure has changed so dramatically since Franklin’s time. Yet leisure is not as salient a part of the American Dream as work and wealth, a situation often lamented in leisure studies. Perhaps history is one reason why leisure has not become a more prominent part of the American mind and ethos. While America has a tradition of labor transmitted through history, the story of leisure, limited mainly to an academic audience, has not reached the public. “If leisure is to matter” (Goodale, 1985, p. 44), as it certainly did for Franklin, its history must reach and resonate with the public. Among the most well-known of early Americans, Benjamin Franklin’s life tells an exemplary story of self-development and social progress made possible by labor, but only attainable in leisure.

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Selected References

UNDERSTANDING INTENTIONS TO RECREATE: FAMILIES WITH A CHILD WITH AUTISM

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Many recreation programs lack a theoretical framework from which to operate as they strive to provide fun, quality programming (Orthner, 1998). Family systems theory suggests that families are dynamic, interconnected systems where one member can affect, and be affected by, all other members (Klein & White, 1996). A family systems approach to recreation programming would result in the creation of activities for the entire family to participate together (i.e., parents, siblings, extended family members), which has been found to help strengthen relationships, teach skills, and increase confidence, adaptation, and support (Bristol, 1985; Mactavish & Schleien, 1998; Scholl, McAvoy, Rynders, & Smith, 2003). Additionally, the reasoned action approach (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) is a framework that can help leisure researchers and service providers gain an understanding of the beliefs and intentions surrounding participation in a family recreation program. Developing an understanding of these concepts within the context of family recreation will enable leisure professionals to develop and test programs that address the needs of all families, regardless of ability level.

Research has found that involvement in recreation activities for families with a child with a developmental disability affects the overall quality of life for the entire family (Mactavish & Schleien, 1998; Scholl, et al., 2003). For families with a child with autism, family recreation is just as important, if not more so, to their overall family health (Lerner-Baron, 2007). Yet, family recreation is often sacrificed as the family attempts to negotiate the challenges related to having a child with an autism diagnosis (Glass, 2001).

Recreation facilities that promote family involvement typically provide activities and teach skills for the children in the family, while parents observe from the sidelines (Bristol, 1985). Few programs are truly family-focused with activities centered on encouraging the participation of all family members. Further, there is a dearth of research in the area of family needs for recreation programming, especially among family populations with disabilities (Austin, 2009). Understanding the intentions of families and their beliefs towards participation in family recreation programs could contribute to the justification of developing family centered recreation programs.

The reasoned action approach (RAA) posits that the participants' attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control regarding family recreation involvement directly contribute to their intention to participate in these activities as a family. Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) have defined attitude as the “disposition or tendency to respond with some degree of favorableness or unfavorableness” towards an object or behavior (p. 76); subjective norms as the “social pressure to perform (or not to perform) a given behavior” (p. 130); and perceived behavioral control (PBC) as “the extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behavior, that they have control over its performance” (p. 154). Intent has been found to have a direct relationship to performance of the actual behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986; Fishbein, 2008). Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes, subjective norms, PBC, and intentions of families with a child with autism to participate in a family recreation program at a non-profit organization in a western state that provides recreational activities to individuals with a disability (physical or cognitive). At the time of this study, this facility did not provide family recreation programming for their clients.
Methods

Following the steps of the RAA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Francis, et al., 2004), a questionnaire was created, pilot tested, and used to measure the intentions of respondents to participate in a family recreation program in the next year. The questionnaire contained three items used to measure intention, five items to measure attitudes, four items to measure subjective norms, and two items to measure PBC. It was administered online over the course of approximately six weeks. Relevant sociodemographic questions, and the Family Leisure Activity Profile (FLAP) (Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001) (to measure levels of family leisure involvement) were also part of the online questionnaire. Responses were obtained from 25 parents of a child with autism who was a participant at the facility.

Sample. The majority of the participant families lived in Utah (83%); however, families from California, Georgia, and Louisiana also responded. The majority of respondents were female (87.5%), Caucasian (92%), and married (92%), with ages ranging from 33 to 67 years old (M = 47.96). Annual household incomes ranged from $10,000 to over $150,000, with a median income range of $100,000 - $124,999. Parents reported having between two and five children (M = 2.36), ranging in age from seven to 39 years old, with a mean age of 16.47 years. Among the 25 responding families, 59 children were accounted for and 29 of those children (49%) were identified as either having a diagnosed Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), or having the symptoms of an undiagnosed ASD. The majority of all children were male (59%), and the majority of children with a diagnosis or symptoms of an ASD were also male (79%). Parents identified their children as having Autism (65%), Pervasive Developmental Disorder – Not Otherwise Specified (13%), Asperger’s Syndrome (10%), and Symptoms, but no diagnosis (10%).

Analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample. Pearson product correlations and multiple regressions were performed to examine the relationships between the constructs of attitude, perceived norm, PBC, and intention. Independent samples t-tests were used to examine differences in all constructs between families who had low and high levels of family leisure involvement. All tests were conducted at the α = .05 level.

Results

Intention scores ranged from one to seven (low to high), with a mean score of 5.9 (SD = .64). Attitude scores ranged from one to seven (unfavorable to favorable), with a mean score of 6.4 (SD = .67). Subjective norm scores ranged from one to seven (disagree to agree), with a mean score of 4.8 (SD = 1.0). PBC scores ranged from one to seven (not under our control to under our control), with a mean score of 5.9 (SD = 1.03). Total family leisure involvement ranged from 41 to 152, with a mean of 95.68 (SD = 28.61).

Pearson correlations produced two significant relationships. Attitude was positively related to intention (r = .610, p = .001), suggesting that more favorable attitudes were related to higher intention to participate. PBC was positively related to attitude (r = .831, p = .000), suggesting the higher the perception of control, the more favorable the attitude. Overall, the regression model was significant (F3, 21 = 5.351, p = .007) and explained 35.2% (adjusted R²) of the variance in intention. Attitude was found to be the only significant predictor of intention (β = .999, p = .004).

Family leisure involvement scores were dichotomized into low and high participation levels in order to compare differences in intentions, attitudes, norms, and PBC between high and low participators. No significant differences were found in any construct between the two groups.
Discussion

The purpose of this study was to understand the intentions to participate in a family recreation program by examining the attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC surrounding this behavior. Attitudes towards participation were extremely favorable among these families, suggesting that they felt participation in family recreation would be a positive and enjoyable experience. Furthermore, these results indicate that participation would largely be influenced by these families’ attitudes. This suggests that they would consider their evaluations of the outcomes of participation (i.e., family bonding, learning new skills and activities) more strongly than they would consider what other people think they should do, or even how much control they had over the behavior (i.e., finances or time). For these families, the evaluation of those outcomes contributed to their favorable attitudes and high intentions to participate.

It is notable that perceptions of social pressure to participate were not high in this sample. Social pressure can come from within the referent group (other families with a child with autism, doctors, etc.), or from external individuals and groups (service providers, neighbors, etc.). Reported low to moderate perceptions of social pressure among the families in this study may indicate that they do not have a desire to comply with what people think they should do. It is important to consider the possibility that the people in the referent group may have no understanding of the behavior in question and, therefore, have no ability to apply pressure (positive or negative) to the families in this study. Due to this lack of available programs for families with a child with autism (Austin, 2009; Thornock, 2003), people within or outside of the referent group may not have ever participated in such a program. Additionally, they may have limited to no awareness of such programs, restricting their ability make suggestions to families with a child with autism concerning recreation involvement.

The insight gained from these results has the potential to significantly contribute to family recreation programming. Given the favorable attitudes and high intentions to participate, it seems that the provision of family recreation opportunities would be received well. These services may be the most appropriate way for families to participate in family recreation and have the recreational needs of their family met, as the primary recreation setting for children with autism is with the family. Second, considering the possibility that referent groups and other important people to these families may have very limited knowledge of family recreation programs, expanding advertising strategies so that knowledge of these programs, and therefore access, is more readily available would be prudent.

While these findings provide insight concerning recreation participation for this population, limitations do exist. Most notably, the sample size for this study was small. At the time of this study, the facility was in the process of advertising for their primary fundraising event of the year. Emails to participants during this time were a weekly, sometimes daily, occurrence. The inclusion of an email about participating in a research study during this time could easily have been deleted or overlooked amongst the many fundraising emails, resulting in a low response rate. Therefore, given the small sample size, results from the analysis must be interpreted cautiously. The authors do feel, however, that given the preliminary nature of this data, the insight gained from the findings justifies further study with larger sample sizes. Such an examination could provide both leisure researchers and service providers with a stronger understanding of the attitudes surrounding recreation participation for these families.

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References


PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF EMPLOYEE SKILLS IN LOCAL TOURISM BUSINESSES

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The issue of customer orientated employees in the hospitality and tourism field has become increasingly important to researchers and practitioners. In order to optimize business performance, organizations strive to deliver superior customer service, especially through their frontline employees. Much attention has been given to the customer – frontline employee interaction and it has become a focal point of consumer evaluations (Reynolds & Harris, 2006; Mattsson, 1994; Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990).

The majority of hospitality research on service encounters and customer satisfaction are from the customer’s point of view (Millan & Esteban, 2004; Lewis & Entwistle, 1990). These studies provide important insights into the dimensions of customer service and service quality evaluation based on customer’s opinion, but they do not provide insight from an employer’s perspective. Further, much attention has been focused on large hospitality enterprises. How the labor force mechanisms operate in small, local tourism firms remains unexplored. In particular, research of this study will help show how these organizations value individual’s knowledge and skills and its potential to maximize service performance through inter-functional cooperation. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to better understand and assess the important employees’ traits from employers’ lens for small, local tourism and hospitality businesses.

Literature Review

In order to achieve a high level of organizational performance, business owners need employees with necessary skills, knowledge, and experience (Walker & Miller, 2010). A number of skills and traits have been deemed necessary for frontline employees to perform efficiently and effectively in the service industry (Bowen & Schneider, 1985). Lewis and Entwistle (1990) indicated that there is a need for “recruitment and selection of the ‘right types’ of customer contact staff and also appropriate socialization or training and supervision efforts” (p. 44). They emphasized that major requirement and orientation with regard to selection and training in many service organizations include process, procedural and technical skills, interpersonal or “people” skills, behavioral flexibility and adaptability, and empathy. Heath and Mills (2000) found that interpersonal skills and personal attributes such as the skill in handling people and being able to communicate were important attributes to frontline workers. “Soft” skills such as communication skills and team-working skills are prioritized over “hard” technical skills in literacy, numeracy, and analysis (Archer & Davison, 2008). These studies suggest that hospitality industry employers value “soft” skills over “hard” skills when evaluating employees.

In addition to the critical questions surrounding specific skills that employers look for in frontline employees, the literature also raises important questions related to the significance of supervisory skills. Employers are more likely to provide formal training to reduce turnover. It also enhances management skills in resolving conflicts and technical skills including computer and administrative skills, and sales and customer relations skills (Frazis, Herz, & Horrigan, 1995). Furthermore, due to the dynamic nature of the hospitality industry, manager level qualifications include operational and functional skills as well as the ability to lead and motivate (Harper, Brown, & Irvine, 2005; Ruddy, 1989; Worsfold, 1989). In general, those who are
qualified with a combination of operational and leadership skills will be more supportive than those who excel only in firm operations. In this study, the researchers will identify and evaluate the importance of skills among frontline employees and employees at supervisory level.

**Method**

This mixed-method study included both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The first phase was a series of five focus groups including owners and directors of tourism organizations in the southeast region (11 counties) of a Midwestern state in 2009. Participants in each group ranged from six to eight. The objective was to explore the workforce related needs and issues in the industry. Open-ended questions inquired about tourism growth in the region, job growth in tourism businesses, major challenges in workforce, and skills their workforce should have.

Data from the focus groups were used to design a structured questionnaire, which was used to conduct a mail survey. The survey was sent to 896 local tourism/hospitality businesses in the same southeast region. A total of 213 completed questionnaires were usable in the final data analysis (response rate = 23.8%). The questionnaire collected information on firmographic variables (i.e., type of business, participants’ position in organization, and number of employees in their businesses), perceived tourism growth and job growth in tourism businesses, importance of employees’ education and qualifications in hiring and promotion decisions, major challenges in current recent hires, and the perceived importance of employees’ skills.

**Results**

Results from the questionnaire showed that 26.2% of the respondents described their organizations as attractions, 23.3% as lodging & accommodations, 19.3% as restaurants, 10.4% as retail stores, and 7.4% as visitor services. About one-half of the respondents (49.5%) were owners of their organizations. Half of the respondents (50.3%) reported that their organizations had one to four full-time employees, and 20.6% had no full-time employees. A majority of the organizations (68.9%) had one to ten part-time employees.

Results from the focus group discussions indicated that participants were optimistic about the long-term tourism growth opportunities in their region. While there was consensus among participants that there would be neither significant job growth nor decline in the near future, a majority of the respondents (67.8%) anticipated tourism growth in the next three to five years. Regarding potential employees, employers deemed work experience more important than education, however education was valuable. “Uneducated staff is not a good staff,” as one participant put it. Several major challenges with the current workforce were identified. First, tourism and hospitality organizations reported difficulty in finding qualified employees. Many employers expressed the challenge of finding employees who understood the nature of the service industry. Second, it was difficult to keep employees happy. Employers expressed their challenges in finding people who enjoyed jobs in service-oriented businesses. As a result, some businesses, especially small businesses were experiencing high turnover and burnout rates.

In the five focus groups, employers repeatedly talked about the importance of the following skills that their workforce should have: customer service, appearance and personal hygiene, interpersonal communication, basic work ethics, interview protocol, technology, foreign language, transaction (math), and job-specific skills. In questionnaire results show that employee’s work ethic (73%), personality (66.1%), appearance (51.6%), job related skills (49.7%), and previous work experience (47.9%) were extremely important in hiring and promotion decisions. Over one-fifth of business owners expressed that they had a major challenge in hiring employees that were willing to do hard work (27.7%), possessed a positive attitude toward work (27.3%), and that were willing to do more than asked (25.9%).
Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to assess the importance of front-line employees’ skills. The results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO=.795) and Barlett’s test ($p=.000$) showed an appropriateness of factor analysis. Principle component extraction was used on the 11-items employee skill scale developed from focus groups. Factors with eigenvalues of 1.0 and above were retained in accordance with Keiser’s criterion (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Two factors explained 58.5% of the total variation. The first factor, service-oriented skills explained 42.2% of the variance (eigenvalue=4.646) and had a reliability coefficient of .859 and included items related to variables such as employees’ willingness to serve (FL=.905), customer service (FL=.881), understanding on the nature of hospitality industry (FL=.768), phone courtesy (FL=.744), and transaction skills (FL=.602). The second factor was labeled knowledge-based skills and explained 16.3% of variance (eigenvalue=1.792) with a reliability coefficient of .806 and included items related to variables such as marketing (FL=.817), business writing (FL=.795), basic computer (FL=.732), sales (FL=.661), foreign language (FL=.586), and interpersonal communication skill (FL=.465).

Many employers mentioned the need for people who wanted to become managers to work hard and to stretch themselves beyond their job descriptions. Such people need to master the skills of customer service and understand the tourism industry as a people-based industry. The same EFA method was applied to the 14-items measuring supervisor skills. The KMO value was equal to .898 and Barlett’s test was significant at $p=.000$. Two factors were extracted from the analysis. The first factor was labeled as professional skills and explained 36.1% variance (eigenvalue=7.158) with a reliability coefficient of .91 and included items such as advanced computer skills (FL=.773), executive level leadership (FL=.769), networking (FL=.764), marketing (FL=.701), business management (FL=.699), continued learning (FL=.671), and professional communication (FL=.651). The second factor was labeled as leadership skills and explained 24.5% variance (eigenvalue=1.333) with a reliability coefficient of .817 and included items such as teamwork (FL=.897), problem solving (FL=.841), customer service (FL=.801).

Discussion and future studies

Collectively, the results from focus group and mail-in surveys provide important information about employee skills from employers. They suggest that hospitality and tourism industry employers require different skills and qualification levels for frontline workers versus supervisory position employees. The frontline workers are expected to have basic and technical skills to serve customers, whereas employees at management level primarily facilitate teamwork and enhance task achievements through their professional communication and leadership skills. This study contributes to the understanding of contemporary frontline employee and manager qualifications in service industry with a mixed-method approach. From an educator perspective in a professional degree in tourism, we are trying to give tourism students job-related skills. Universities should put more emphasis on developing students “soft” skills and the “right” personalities to work in tourism industry. It also provides empirical implications to local hospitality organizations on the challenges to recruit and retain skillful employees in labor forces markets. More importantly, our research indicates that it is essential for frontline employees to have service-oriented skills and firms should provide necessary training or rewards to enhance better service and organizational performance. Further research might also examine how skillful employees contribute to the organizational innovation.

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References


PUBLIC’S PHYSIOLOGICAL REACTIONS TOWARD TELEVISION REPORT ON AIRPLANE ACCIDENTS

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Introduction

More than three million people travel by air on commercial aircrafts everyday (Boeing, 2009). Although flying is generally considered to be safe, some people still have anxiety toward flying. In fact, Krijin et al. (2007) reported that 13.2% of the general population was affected by different levels of flying phobia, and the anxiety on air travel may induce bodily unease. According to Richmond (2008), anxiety toward flying may have the following physiological characteristics: muscle tension, heavy breathing, heart palpitations, abdominal and intestinal discomfort, and a general feeling of weakness. Passengers’ bodily unease can directly contribute to an unpleasant flying experience. In addition, airlines’ loading factors (the actual passenger numbers onboard) could potentially decrease as a result of avoidance of flying due to bodily stress.

The psychology behind anxiety toward flying can be complex and is beyond the scope of this study. Nonetheless, evidence from the literature (Bor & Van Gerwen, 2003) indicates that media reports on negative events of airlines contribute to the general public’s biased perceptions of risks associated with flying. Following this line of thinking, it is possible that media reports on these negative events could potentially cause unnecessary bodily stress on potential passengers. The purpose of this study was to empirically examine the influence of media report on airline accidents on passengers’ physiological reactions.

Development of Hypotheses

According to cultivation theory, television is “the source of the most broadly shared images and messages in history”, and people who watch more television programs tend to report perceptions of reality as reflected in “real life” situations (Gerbner et al., 1986, p.17-40; Gerbner, 1978). According to Bor & Van Gerwen (2003), media in general tends to sensationalize negative events such as airline crashes. Authors insist that media conveys more negative air travel events than positive events. When the public is bombarded with media reports on an airline accident (e.g. pilots fall asleep in cockpit, pilots have high blood alcohol level, terrorism, etc.), the public who is watching television program can be overwhelmed and think that flying is dangerous (Bor & Van Gerven, 2003). The rarity of these events is often left out from these reports. The sensationalization of airline accidents may lead people to overestimate the risks of flying and thus create biased views towards reality. Therefore, it is hypothesized that the increase in people’s anxiety level toward flying would be greater for those who watched the video on airplane accidents than that for those who watched the non-accident related airline videos (H1).

Fear of flying may therefore induce physiological reactions upon flying and lead to various stressful symptoms (Foreman & Van Gerwen, 2008). Soderman (1989) pointed out that when people encounter stress during flying, messages from the brain, nerves, and glandular system are stimulated and will cause neurophysiological and body reactions. Anxiety toward flying may cause distress on flights and can further induce vomiting, panic attacks, and even fatal diseases. A fearful flier could experience one or more of the following physiological symptoms: tightness
in the chest or throat, oversensitivity to noise, depersonalization, breathlessness, weakness in muscles, lack of energy, dry mouth, hollowness in stomach and sighing (Hillsborough County Public Schools, 2009). Therefore, it is hypothesized that people who watched the airline accident video would experience more physiological unease than those who watched the non-accident related airline videos (H2).

**Method**

A 2x2 quasi-experimental design was adapted to examine the anxiety levels of conveniently selected college students before and after viewing airline-related TV programs. The treatment group watched a TV program reporting the Trans World Airlines’ aircraft explosion in 1996. The control group watched a collection of airline commercials at equivalent length. The role-taking scenario method was used in this study. This method makes it easy for researchers to replicate a real-world situation at low cost. Two questionnaires were developed to collect information needed to test the hypotheses. The pre-video survey solicited information on participants’ anxiety levels toward air travel and demographic information. After they watched the videos, the same participants were asked to imagine that they were about to take a flight, and to report their anxiety levels again. They were also asked to report any of the physiological stress symptoms after watching the video.

*Media content* was represented by two airline-related TV programs, which were respectively presented in both the treatment group and the control group. *Anxiety level toward flying* was measured by 16 items, using what the literature suggests were the most common phobic reactions toward flying as indicators of anxious feelings toward flying (Bor & Van Gerwen, 2003; Abeyratne, 2007; Pierson et al., 2007). These were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 indicating “Strongly Disagree” and 7 “Strongly Agree.” *Physiological symptoms* were listed as “check-all-that-apply” items. These items were selected from the Flight Anxiety Modality Questionnaire (FAM). Demographic information included participants’ age, gender and class level.

**Results**

A total of 114 completed surveys were collected from the control group, and 151 from the treatment group. Of the total 265 respondents, about 60% were female. The reported average age was 20.6 years, with the majority of respondents (88.1%) being from 19 to 22 years old. Of the respondents, 30.1% were seniors, followed by juniors (28.2%), sophomores (24.4%), and freshmen (17.2%). Before treatment, there were no significant differences found between the two groups on gender ($\chi^2 = .47, p > .10$) and any of the anxiety items. However, the treatment group was significantly younger than the control group ($t = 2.04; \alpha = .04$) because the treatment group had significantly many more freshmen. The average ages for the treatment and control groups were 20.59 and 20.97, respectively.

To test the hypothesis 1, independent samples $t$-tests were used to compare the two groups’ means of change in anxiety levels. Of the 16 anxiety level items, the treatment group experienced elevated anxiety levels on 11 items. The increases on these 11 items were compared with the changes of these items in the control group. It was revealed that increases in six of the 11 anxiety items in the treatment group were significantly higher than those in the control group ($p < .05$). Treatment group respondents showed significantly higher increase of anxiety levels toward flying in general, long haul trips, small airplanes, air crash, flying over water and darkness. H1 was partially supported.
To test Hypothesis 2, a t-test was used to examine the difference in the average numbers of physiological symptoms of the two groups. Respondents in the treatment group experienced significantly more stressful physiological symptoms than respondents in the control group, after viewing the videos (M-treatment = 2.06, SD = 1.47; M-control = 1.33, SD = 0.58; t = 3.97, p < .000). Of the 149 subjects in treatment group, 88 of them (59%) experienced at least one of the stressful physiological symptoms listed after viewing the video on airplane crash. Seventeen percent reported rapid heartbeat, followed by the symptoms of goose bumps (16%), dry mouth (13%), blank mind (13%), and muscle tension (13%). Twelve percent of the respondents reported that they felt shocked or uncomfortable after watching the airline accident video. Of the 116 subjects in the control group, 39 people (34%) reported having any of the symptoms. Nine percent indicated symptoms of blank minded, and 6% reported symptoms of heavy breathing. Less than 3% reported each of the following symptoms: dry mouth, palpitation, muscle tension and other symptoms. Nobody reported symptoms such as short of breath, feeling weak or dizzy, and feeling likely to faint from fear in the control group. In fact, 11% of the control group respondents felt calm or relaxed after watching the airline commercial TV program.

**Discussion**

This study suggests that TV content such as the reporting of airline accidents can cause uncomfortable physical feelings. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported since people who watched the airplane crash video program had significantly elevated anxiety levels toward flying, when compared to those who watched airline commercials (p < .05). A possible explanation for the partial support of H1 could be that the video primarily portrayed the technical failure of the airplane, how it exploded, and finally its crash into the ocean. The story was sensationalized by a narrator depicting the cause and process of the explosion. Therefore, participants showed higher levels of anxiety levels toward the aspects of travel that were pertinent to those reflected in the crash (long haul, flying over water, etc.). As a result of elevated anxiety levels, respondents reported significantly more stressful physiological symptoms than those who only watched airline commercials (t = 3.97, p < .000). These findings indicate that the way that TV portraits plane crashes may play an important role in how people respond to the messages delivered by the TV programs. This study suggests that watching a tragic travel experience is likely to induce unpleasant physiological reactions.

An implication for airline management is that the way TV portraits airplane crashes can potentially influence an individual’s anxiety about flying. To reduce anxiety related to flying airlines should make an effort to broadcast advertisements or programs which are positive. Television programs featuring comfortable flights and/or neutral information about aircrafts could potentially alleviate some stress that people have toward air travel.

This study has several limitations. First, since the video programs are about three and a half minutes long, they may have been too short to cause all physiological reactions among respondents. However, the study provided initial evidence that the way media presents information can elevate viewers’ anxiety toward flying which ultimately results in bodily unease. Additionally, measurements of physiological reactions were limited to a self-administered check list. Future studies should use actual physiological measures such as heart rate, cortisol testing, and galvanic skin responses for more accurate detection of changes and reactions.

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References


Despite the known health benefits of physical activity (PA), fewer than 20% of adults achieve the recommended amount of regular physical activity on a weekly basis. In addition, 25% of all adults are completely sedentary (CDC, 2010). An increase in physical activity levels among adults has been seen to reduce the onset of major life threatening diseases, as well as to improve psychological well-being through reduced stress, depression, and anxiety. It is therefore essential to understand the factors that may influence physical activity behaviors, enabling individuals to regain energy balance, and thus decreasing population level obesity. Given the accessibility of park space and the proclivity of people to be active in a park, it stands to reason that the amount of available park space may have an impact on the PA levels of a community's residents. The purpose of this research, therefore, is to determine if the amount of available park space in large metropolitan areas is correlated to residents’ PA levels or weight status.

Parks have been identified as an important community resource for disease prevention through PA promotion (Bedimo-Rung, Mowen & Cohen, 2005). Parks are well-positioned to increase PA in Americans’ daily lives as most people can access parks, regardless of demographics or socioeconomics, with a minimum of cost and equipment. While parks may be well-suited for PA, the degree to which parks currently facilitate PA is not well understood. Much research linking public environments to PA has established that proximity to parks, open space and trails is directly related to achieving recommended PA levels (Giles-Corti et al, 2005; Sallis, Bauman & Pratt, 1998). This study examines the relationship between access to parkland, weight status and community-wide PA achievement rather than individual level PA.

**Purpose**

Using data from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) (CDC, 2010) and the 2010 City Park Facts report (Land Trust for Parks, 2010) published by the Trust for Public Land (TPL), we examined relationships between PA and body weight composition and the amount of parkland available in America’s largest cities.

**Methodology**

No comprehensive database of parks exists in the US. US parklands are managed by multiple agencies, including those at the local (city park departments or park districts), regional (county-level park departments and regional park districts), state (state parks and state forests) or national level (National Park Services, Army Corps of Engineers, etc…). As such, it is difficult to pinpoint the quantity of parkland within a community since multiple agencies frequently provide park services to the same geographic region. However, beginning ten years ago with 33 of America’s largest cities, the TPL began collecting this data and now has data on the number of park acres in the 85 largest American cities. This new report and related dataset now allows for a comparison of park acreage with residents’ PA levels and overweight status.

The TPL recently published a report, 2010 City Park Facts, containing “basic information on urban park systems—from acreage, to facilities, to staffing, to budgets, to user ship, and more” for America’s 85 largest cities (Land Trust for Parks, Foreword). For their analysis, they defined “city” using municipal boundary lines. “Parks” were operationalized to include all publicly owned and operated green spaces within the municipal boundaries of the city, including national,
state, county, regional, and municipal parks. Cities were selected for inclusion in the study based on 2000 Census reports as 2010 Census information was not yet available. The TPL provided the data used to develop the 2010 City Park Facts to this study’s authors. Of relevance to this study are two variables: 1) parkland density: the acres of parkland as a percent of land area, and 2) parkland per capita: the acres of parkland per 1,000 residents.

PA and overweight status variables were taken from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS), a state-based surveillance system that conducts telephone interviews to collect information on health risk behaviors, preventive health practices, and health care access primarily related to chronic disease and injury. A detailed description of the design and random sampling procedures for BRFSS is available elsewhere (CDC, 2010).

Although BRFSS data is collected from many areas in all 50 states, data used for this study consisted of only that data collected from the same cities on which TPL had collected park acreage data. Whereas TPL park data uses municipal boundaries, BRFSS reports their data based on metropolitan statistical area (MSA). Therefore, BRFSS activity rates extend beyond the city limits to include the entire MSA. While the comparison of identical physical areas would be preferred, the information provided by BRFSS represents population-wide statistics in the form of percentages and are the best available measures to meet this study’s objectives.

BRFSS PA and overweight data were available for 79 of the 85 cities included in the TPL parkland study. Sample characteristics for each study city are available on the BRFSS website. Although 79 TPL cities were represented, only 67 metropolitan statistical areas were represented, as nine MSAs were matched to two or more cities. For example, both of the TPL cities Tampa and St. Petersburg were matched to the Tampa-St. Petersburg-Clearwater, FL MSA in BRFSS.

BRFSS provides a percentage of residents who are above normal weight as well as percentages of respondents that have met the current federal guidelines for the previous week for 1) moderate or vigorous PA, or 2) vigorous PA and have exercised in the previous month. Respondents were considered to have met moderate PA guidelines if they had participated in 30 or more minutes of moderate PA on five or more days per week, or for vigorous PA if they had participated in 20 or more minutes of vigorous PA on three or more days per week.

A series of correlations were run to determine the strength of the relationship between park acreage, PA, and weight status. First, the park density of an area was considered. Second, park acreage per capita was investigated. Spearman’s rho correlations were used to compare these two factors to the percentage of residents who: 1) indicated they had met federal recommendations for moderate or vigorous PA, 2) indicated they had met federal recommendations for moderate or vigorous PA and have exercised during the previous month. Respondents were considered to have met moderate PA guidelines, and a negative correlation between park density and being above normal weight (r = .30, n = 79, p < .01). Findings indicate the greater the park density in an urban community, the greater the percentage of residents in the community who had met federal PA recommendations during the previous week or had exercised during the previous month. Similarly, results indicate the greater the park density in an urban community,
the smaller the percentage of residents who were above normal weight. The correlation between park density and the percentage of residents who had met federal recommendations for vigorous PA, however, was not significant. Correlations between park acreage per capita and these same PA and health measures also indicated no significant relationships.

Discussion

Only recently have researchers begun to investigate how parkland in a community is related to overall PA and health of its residents. Based on the findings from this research, it appears that, at least for larger metropolitan areas, the amount of parkland in a community may indeed play an important role in the ability of that community’s residents to be physically active and to maintain a normal body weight. Previous studies have shown that people who live closer to parks are more likely to be physically active. It is possible that the quantity of park acres in a community lends itself to the provision of more proximate parks for residents. Similarly, it is possible that previous studies of park proximity have captured the value of park density in their measures. It will be important then, in future research, to understand the unique role of quantity, as well as geographic dispersion and resident proximity, for promoting park-based PA. This will be important information for community planners as they consider the costs and challenges associated with park allocation decisions in existing urban landscapes.

As weight status was also found to be significantly correlated to park density, it is important to consider the value of this relationship. Similar to another study which correlated natural amenities available, PA and body mass indices, the physical environment (parks rather than natural amenities) was relevant to residents’ PA levels and weight status. Implications for community health promotion can be gleaned from these initial findings. Results indicate that higher levels of land area devoted to parkland are associated with 1) higher levels of residents who exercise or who meet the recommendations for either moderate or vigorous PA and 2) lower numbers of residents who are above normal weight. Each of these findings substantiates the need for providing parkland in a community. As such, this research helps to support the notion that the development of a strong park system may lead to positive physical activity and health outcomes for that community. Further research on the dispersion pattern of parks and the micro-level features of these parks that encourage physical activity is warranted.

It is important to balance what we can learn from study findings with an understanding of the study’s limitations. First, the study is limited by a small sample size (n=79). In addition, fourteen of the TPL cities share the same BRFSS metropolitan statistical area with at least one of those same fourteen cities. Thus, there is a modest level of interdependence in the data. Third, the scope of the study is limited to the largest American cities and is likely not transferable to other smaller cities or especially to rural areas. Similarly, the use of BRFSS data limits the generalizability of the findings to non-incarcerated adults over the age of 18. As such, future research is needed to determine whether the positive associations between parkland and either PA or health levels hold true for smaller cities or rural areas or with youth.

Access to resources becomes scarce in today’s economy and elected officials and municipal employees are being faced with tough decisions about how to allocate limited funding. The research presented in this study provides empirical support for the health and PA benefits of parks allowing parks to be positioned as a community necessity rather than a community amenity with primarily aesthetic, intangible value.

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Ethnic minorities face a variety of barriers to upward mobility in organizations, such as being marginalized in employment promotions, salary raises, and having limited access to mentors and role models (Stoll, Raphael, & Holzer, 2004). Factors found to limit upward mobility for African Americans include: stereotypical perceptions held by Caucasian managers (Outley & Dean, 2007); lack of organizational fit (Kanter, 1977); less education and training (Philpott, 2000); lower ratings on job evaluations (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1993); and the perception of Caucasian managers that African Americans are in leadership/managerial positions due to affirmative action as opposed to their skills and abilities (Heilman, Block, & Lucas, 1992). Drawing on the theories of homosocial reproduction (Kanter, 1977), human capital (Becker, 1975), and social capital (Coleman, 1986), the purpose of this study was to examine upward mobility of African Americans leaders in a park and recreation agency. Historically, the recreation industry has been dominated by Caucasian leaders and little research attention has been given to issues affecting minorities in their efforts toward upward mobility. This study examined factors in African Americans’ experiences involving upward mobility, to address this gap in the literature. This study addressed the following overarching research question: 1) What are the observed patterns of upward mobility in parks and recreation, and two related research questions: (a) How do African American leaders in parks and recreation perceive their work environment and; (b) How do African American leaders in parks and recreation prepare for advancement opportunities?

Method

This study that examines factors impacting the upward mobility of African American leaders in parks and recreation was situated within a phenomenological paradigm to understand the essence of human experiences as described by informants (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative research methods are essential in exploring meanings people give to their lived experiences. This study employed two strategies to adequately address the research questions. First, descriptive data were obtained from participants. Second, interviews were used to gather the deep lived experiences of African American leaders describing their observations of upward mobility in their organization. The purpose was to acquire rich data from informants (Maxwell, 2005) to assist parks and recreation officials in navigating issues related to upward mobility.

Purposeful sampling (Marshall, 1996) was used to select African American leaders in the field of parks and recreation. Ten informants at a large parks and recreation agency located in the southeastern United States were selected to participate in the study. The sample was chosen based on the following criteria: 1) They must be African American; 2) They must maintain full-time leadership position within the agency, namely managers, supervisors, coordinators, and specialists positions; 3) They must show willingness and interest in responding to interview questions; 4) They must be available for thirty minutes to one hour to complete the interview; and, 5) They must agree to read the typed interviews to verify their accuracy.

After discussing the consent form with participants who met the criteria, participants were selected and they were informed of the purpose of the study and agreed on a time for an interview. To ensure confidentiality, pseudonyms were chosen for the informants and they were informed they would have an opportunity to review transcripts at a later date.
Data were collected in three phases. In phase one, researchers emailed an open-ended question to informants prior to their interview that served as a preliminary inquiry and asked the following overarching question: “What are your observations about the patterns of upward mobility within this organization?” Once the informants emailed their responses back, the researchers gained a better perspective of how the informants conceptualize upward mobility in their work environment. In phase two, interviews were conducted with 10 African American managers, supervisors, coordinators, and specialists. The interviews ranged from 30-60 minutes. The researchers asked open-ended questions from a pre-established protocol, while also documenting field notes on a legal pad. Interviews were tape recorded to increase accuracy during transcription. Informants were asked for their permission to record the interviews, and were told that the tape and other data would be available only to the researchers and coders. Informants were asked if they would review their individual transcript at a later time for accuracy. Four weeks post interviews the researchers emailed the informants an electronic PDF of their personal transcripts. In phase three, the ten informants were given the opportunity to review their transcripts and provide the researchers with additional information.

Dictation equipment was used to record and transcribe the face-to-face interviews, contributing to the accuracy of the data. Once all data had been transcribed the researcher reviewed and coded the data using Glaser and Strauss’ (1967) constant comparison technique. The analysis involved (1) fitting experiences to categories by identifying and coding categories and seeing how experiences fit; (2) integrating the categories and comparing them to one another and referring back to the data; and, (3) eliminating repetition and checking for saturation of data. The researchers recorded codes that emerged from the data into the margins of the transcripts. The identified codes were used to categorize the data. The codes were then examined and synthesized to develop categories. Each category was refined by building on the previously developed categories, looking for connections between categories, and developing new categories. This process concluded when pipelines of information had been exhausted and when categories had been saturated (Patton, 2002). Glaser and Strauss’ (1967) constant comparison technique was supplemented with the HyperResearch software program for the researchers to organize and analyze qualitative data utilizing three essential windows: a study window, a code list editor, and a source code window. All windows were viewed on the screen at one time to make it easier for the researchers to navigate through the software program.

Results

The following descriptive statistics were obtained from the sample. The informants (N = 10) ranged from 28-63 years of age (M = 39.90 years). All informants earned at least a Bachelor’s degree, two held Master’s degrees, and one was pursuing a Master’s degree at the time of this study. The informants, collectively, had 78.5 years of experience which ranged from 3-30 years (M = 7.85 years). Four informants held the position of Facility Manager, one was Recreation Coordinator/Supervisor, four were Recreation Specialists, and one was Athletic Coordinator. Six themes emerged from this examination in the context of the study’s research questions, including the following: (1) “It’s not what you know, but who you know,” suggesting African Americans have less social capital to social contacts and networks that will allow them to develop strong ties; (2) “Work environment needs overhaul” because African Americans perceive the organization hires, nurtures, and promotes individuals that resemble senior-level management; (3) “Angry tokens” based on the type of committees they are asked to serve on that are most often for diversity purposes rather than for skills and abilities; (4) “Go getters” suggesting
African Americans must adopt a go-getter attitude in order to achieve upward mobility; (5) “Crabs in a barrel” as a result of other African Americans who covertly attempt to prevent those seeking upward mobility from reaching their goals; and, (6) “Mentors matter” as African Americans seeking advancement stressed the need and importance of mentoring in public parks and recreation agencies.

**Discussion**

The majority of the informants provided negative perceptions of patterns of upward mobility in their organization. The findings suggest the existence of inconsistencies and barriers with hiring and promotion practices. African American parks and recreation leaders may lack adequate or competitive human capital when seeking advancement opportunities, and possess limited social capital often accessible through mentor/protégé relationships. Research findings found social capital (Becker, 1975) to be one factor that limits upward mobility among African Americans in this field; therefore, creating psychosocial barriers (i.e., lack of mentorship, lack of social network contacts, etc). In addition, findings suggest homosocial reproduction (Kanter, 1977) also limits upward mobility among African Americans in parks and recreation, producing institutional barriers such as discrimination, unfair hiring practices, and limited upward mobility.

The data collection was limited to parks and recreation leaders in one large department located in the southeastern United States. Data were collected using only ten semi-structured in-depth interviews, narrative analyses, and reflective analyses. Based on a small sample size, the findings are not generalizable or directly applicable to a large population in the parks and recreation field. A quantitative and qualitative design conducted with a larger sample might support more generalized conclusions.

Although there has been an increase in research activity in the past decade focusing on women and equity (Anderson & Shinew, 2001, 2003; Cundiff & Komarraju, 2008), limited research has been conducted on similar issues among African Americans in parks and recreation. Research efforts need to address psychosocial and institutional barriers that limit upward mobility for African Americans in parks and recreation. Though these results are specific to the organizational context in this research, it highlights the need for similar studies to be conducted within other parks and recreation settings. A greater focus on the theoretical frames of homosocial reproduction, human capital, and social capital is warranted for further study in parks and recreation. More research is also needed to determine if, and how, other parks and recreation minority professionals have overcome barriers to career advancement. Further research should also be conducted with other populations (other minority groups) as a means of examining differences among sub-populations of parks and recreation professionals for their perceptions of upward mobility. Future research could examine a comparative analysis of African American leaders with White leaders to see if their perceptions are similar.

Parks and recreation organizations must intentionally assess, develop, and evaluate policies and practices that guard against homosocial reproduction and other forms of discrimination to increase ethnic minority presence in leadership positions. For example, parks and recreation managers should consider mentorship programs, obtain and sustain a diversified staff, market career advancement opportunities to African Americans, and offer educational assistance programs to increase the number of advanced degrees among African Americans.

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